No. 15-674

In the Supreme Court of the United States

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ET AL., PETITIONERS

v.

STATE OF TEXAS, ET AL.

ON PETITION FOR A WRIT OF CERTIORARI TO THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS FOR THE FIFTH CIRCUIT

APPENDIX TO THE PETITION FOR A WRIT OF CERTIORARI

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDIX A

UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
FOR THE FIFTH CIRCUIT

No. 15-40238

STATE OF TEXAS; STATE OF ALABAMA; STATE OF GEORGIA; STATE OF IDAHO; STATE OF INDIANA; STATE OF KANSAS; STATE OF LOUISIANA; STATE OF MONTANA; STATE OF NEBRASKA; STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA; STATE OF SOUTH DAKOTA; STATE OF UTAH; STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA; STATE OF WISCONSIN; PAUL R. LEPAGE, GOVERNOR, STATE OF MAINE; PATRICK L. MCCRORY, GOVERNOR, STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA; C. L. "BUTCH" OTTER, GOVERNOR, STATE OF IDAHO; PHIL BRYANT, GOVERNOR, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI; STATE OF NORTH DAKOTA; STATE OF OHIO; STATE OF OKLAHOMA; STATE OF FLORIDA; STATE OF ARIZONA; STATE OF ARKANSAS; ATTORNEY GENERAL BILL SCHUETTE; STATE OF NEVDA; STATE OF TENNESSEE, PLAINTIFFS-APPELLEES

v.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA; JEH CHARLES JOHNSON, SECRETARY, DEPARTMENT OF HOMELAND SECURITY; R. GIL KERLIKOWSKE, COMMISSIONER OF U.S. CUSTOMS AND BORDER PROTECTION; RONALD D. VITIELLO, DEPUTY CHIEF OF U.S. BORDER PATROL, U.S. CUSTOMS AND BORDER PROTECTION; SARAH R. SALDANA, DIRECTOR OF U.S. IMMIGRATION AND CUSTOMS ENFORCEMENT; LEON RODRIGUEZ, DIRECTOR OF U.S. CITIZENSHIP AND IMMIGRATION SERVICES, DEFENDANTS-APPELLANTS

[Filed: Nov. 9, 2015]

Appeal from the United States District Court for the Southern District of Texas

Before: KING, SMITH, and ELROD, Circuit Judges.

JERRY E. SMITH, Circuit Judge:

The United States[1] appeals a preliminary injunction, pending trial, forbidding implementation of the Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents program ("DAPA"). Twenty-six states (the "states"[2]) challenged DAPA under the Administrative Procedure Act ("APA") and the Take Care Clause of the Constitution;[3] in an impressive and thorough Memorandum Opinion and Order issued February 16, 2015, the district court enjoined the program on the ground that the states are likely to succeed on their claim that DAPA is subject to the APA's procedural requirements. *Texas v. United States*, 86 F. Supp. 3d 591, 677 (S.D. Tex. 2015).[4]

The government appealed and moved to stay the injunction pending resolution of the merits. After extensive briefing and more than two hours of oral argument, a motions panel denied the stay after determining that the appeal was unlikely to succeed on its merits. *Texas v. United States*, 787 F.3d 733, 743 (5th Cir. 2015). Reviewing the district court's order for abuse of discretion,

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[1] This opinion refers to the defendants collectively as "the United States" or "the government" unless otherwise indicated.

[2] We refer to the plaintiffs collectively as "the states," but as appropriate we refer only to Texas because it is the only state that the district court determined to have standing.

[3] We find it unnecessary, at this early stage of the proceedings, to address or decide the challenge based on the Take Care Clause.

[4] We cite the district court's opinion as "Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at ___."

we affirm the preliminary injunction because the states have standing; they have established a substantial likelihood of success on the merits of their procedural and substantive APA claims; and they have satisfied the other elements required for an injunction.[5]

I.

A.

In June 2012, the Department of Homeland Security ("DHS") implemented the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals program ("DACA").[6] In the DACA Memo to agency heads, the DHS Secretary "set[] forth how, in the exercise of . . . prosecutorial discretion, [DHS] should enforce the Nation's immigration laws against certain young people" and listed five "criteria [that] should be satisfied before an individual is considered for an exercise of prosecutorial discretion."[7] The Secretary further in-

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[5] Our dedicated colleague has penned a careful dissent, with which we largely but respectfully disagree. It is well-researched, however, and bears a careful read.

[6] Memorandum from Janet Napolitano, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to David Aguilar, Acting Comm'r, U.S. Customs and Border Prot., et al. 1 (June 15, 2012) (the "DACA Memo"), http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/s1-exercising-prosecutorial-discretion-individuals-who-came-to-us-as-children.pdf.

[7] *Id.* (stating that an individual may be considered if he "[1] came to the United States under the age of sixteen; [2] has continuously resided in the United States for a[t] least five years preceding [June 15, 2012] and is present in the United States on [June 15]; [3] is currently in school, has graduated from high school, has obtained a general education development certificate, or is an honorably discharged veteran of the [military]; [4] has not been convicted of a felony offense, a significant misdemeanor offense, multiple misde-

structed that "[n]o individual should receive deferred action . . . unless they [*sic*] first pass a background check and requests for relief . . . are to be decided on a case by case basis."[8] Although stating that "[f]or individuals who are granted deferred action . . . , [U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services ("USCIS")] shall accept applications to determine whether these individuals qualify for work authorization," the DACA Memo purported to "confer[] no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship."[9] At least 1.2 million persons qualify for DACA, and approximately 636,000 applications were approved through 2014. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609.

In November 2014, by what is termed the "DAPA Memo," DHS expanded DACA by making millions more persons eligible for the program[10] and extending "[t]he period for which DACA and the accompanying employment authorization is granted . . . to three-year increments, rather than the current two-year increments."[11]

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meanor offenses, or otherwise poses a threat to national security or public safety; and [5] is not above the age of thirty").

[8] *Id.* at 2.

[9] *Id.* at 3.

[10] Memorandum from Jeh Johnson, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to Leon Rodriguez, Dir., USCIS, et al. 3-4 (Nov. 20, 2014), http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/14_1120_memo_deferred_action.pdf.

[11] *Id.* at 3. The district court enjoined implementation of the following three DACA expansions, and they are included in the term "DAPA" in this opinion: (1) the "age restriction exclud[ing] those who were older than 31 on the date of the [DACA] announcement . . . will no longer apply," *id.*; (2) "[t]he period for which DACA and the accompanying employment authorization is granted will be

The Secretary also "direct[ed] USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA," known as DAPA, which applies to "individuals who . . . have, [as of November 20, 2014], a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident" and meet five additional criteria.[12] The Secretary stated that, although "[d]eferred action does not confer any form of legal status in this country, much less citizenship[,] it [does] mean[] that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be *lawfully present* in the United States."[13] Of the approximately 11.3 million illegal aliens[14] in the United States,

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extended to three-year increments, rather than the current two-year increments," *id.*; (3) "the eligibility cut-off date by which a DACA applicant must have been in the United States should be adjusted from June 15, 2007 to January 1, 2010," *id.* at 4. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 677-78 & n.111.

[12] DAPA Memo at 4 (directing that individuals may be considered for deferred action if they "[1] have, on [November 20, 2014], a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident; [2] have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010; [3] are physically present in the United States on [November 20, 2014], *and* at the time of making a request for consideration of deferred action with USCIS; [4] have no lawful status on [November 20, 2014]; [5] are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the November 20, 2014 Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants Memorandum; and [6] present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate").

[13] *Id.* at 2 (emphasis added).

[14] Although "[a]s a general rule, it is not a crime for a removable alien to remain present in the United States," it is a civil offense. *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2505 (2012); *see* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(i), 1227(a)(1)(A)-(B). This opinion therefore refers to such persons as "illegal aliens":

> The usual and preferable term in [American English] is *illegal*

4.3 million would be eligible for lawful presence pursuant to DAPA. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 612 n.11, 670.

"Lawful presence" is not an enforceable right to remain in the United States and can be revoked at any time, but that classification nevertheless has significant legal consequences. Unlawfully present aliens are generally not eligible to receive federal public benefits, *see* 8 U.S.C. § 1611, or state and local public benefits unless the state otherwise provides, *see* 8 U.S.C. § 1621.[15] But as the

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alien. The other forms have arisen as needless euphemisms, and should be avoided as near-gobbledygook. The problem with *undocumented* is that it is intended to mean, by those who use it in this phrase, "not having the requisite documents to enter or stay in a country legally." But the word strongly suggests "unaccounted for" to those unfamiliar with this quasi-legal jargon, and it may therefore obscure the meaning.

More than one writer has argued in favor of *undocumented alien* . . . [to] avoid[] the implication that one's unauthorized presence in the United States is a crime . . . . Moreover, it is wrong to equate illegality with criminality, since many illegal acts are not criminal. *Illegal alien* is not an opprobrious epithet: it describes one present in a country in violation of the immigration laws (hence "illegal").

BRYAN A. GARNER, GARNER'S DICTIONARY OF LEGAL USAGE 912 (Oxford 3d ed. 2011) (citations omitted). And as the district court pointed out, "it is the term used by the Supreme Court in its latest pronouncement pertaining to this area of the law." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 605 n.2 (citing *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2497 (2012)). "*[I]legal alien* has going for it both history and well-documented, generally accepted use." Matthew Salzwedel, *The Lawyer's Struggle to Write*, 16 SCRIBES JOURNAL OF LEGAL WRITING 69, 76 (2015).

[15] Those provisions reflect Congress's concern that "aliens have been applying for and receiving public benefits from Federal, State, and local governments at increasing rates" and that "[i]t is a com-

government admits in its opening brief, persons granted lawful presence pursuant to DAPA are no longer "bar[red] . . . from receiving social security retirement benefits, social security disability benefits, or health insurance under Part A of the Medicare program."[16] That follows from § 1611(b)(2)-(3), which provides that the exclusion of benefits in § 1611(a) "shall not apply to any benefit[s] payable under title[s] II [and XVIII] of the Social Security Act . . . to an alien who is *lawfully present* in the United States as determined by the Attorney General . . . ." (emphasis added). A lawfully present alien is still required to satisfy independent qualification criteria before receiving those benefits, but the grant of lawful presence removes the categorical bar and thereby makes otherwise ineligible persons eligible to qualify.

"Each person who applies for deferred action pursuant to the [DAPA] criteria . . . shall also be eligible to apply for work authorization for the [renewable three-year] period of deferred action." DAPA Memo at 4. The United States concedes that "[a]n alien with work authorization may obtain a Social Security Number," "accrue quarters of covered employment," and "correct wage records to add prior covered employment within

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pelling government interest to remove the incentive for illegal immigration provided by the availability of public benefits." 8 U.S.C. § 1601. Moreover, the provisions incorporate a national policy that "aliens within the Nation's borders not depend on public resources to meet their needs" and that "[s]elf-sufficiency has been a basic principle of United States immigration law since this country's earliest immigration statutes." *Id.*

[16] Brief for Appellants at 48-49 (citing 8 U.S.C. § 1611(b)(2)-(3)).

approximately three years of the year in which the wages were earned or in limited circumstances thereafter."[17] The district court determined—and the government does not dispute—"that DAPA recipients would be eligible for earned income tax credits once they received a Social Security number."[18]

As for state benefits, although "[a] State may provide that an alien who is *not lawfully present* in the United States is eligible for any State or local public benefit for which such alien would otherwise be ineligible under subsection (a)," § 1621(d), Texas has chosen not to issue driver's licenses to unlawfully present aliens.[19] Texas maintains that documentation confirming lawful presence pursuant to DAPA would allow otherwise ineligible aliens to become eligible for state-subsidized driver's licenses. Likewise, certain unemployment compensation "[b]enefits are not payable based on services performed by an alien unless the alien . . . was *lawfully present* for purposes of performing the services . . . ."[20] Texas

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[17] Brief for Appellants at 49 (citation omitted) (citing 42 U.S.C. § 405(c)(1)(B), (4), (5)(A)-(J); 8 C.F.R. § 1.3(a)(4)(vi); 20 C.F.R. §§ 422.104(a)(2), 422.105(a)).

[18] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 654 n.64; *see also* 26 U.S.C. § 32(c)(1)(E), (m) (stating that eligibility for earned income tax credit is limited to individuals with Social Security numbers); 20 C.F.R. §§ 422.104(a)(2), 422.107(a), (e)(1).

[19] TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.142(a) ("An applicant who is not a citizen of the United States must present . . . documentation issued by the appropriate United States agency that *authorizes the applicant to be in the United States* before the applicant may be issued a driver's license." (emphasis added)).

[20] TEX. LAB. CODE § 207.043(a)(2) (emphasis added); *see also* 26 U.S.C. § 3304(a)(14)(A) (approval of state laws making compensa-

contends that DAPA recipients would also become eligible for unemployment insurance.

B.

The states sued to prevent DAPA's implementation on three grounds. First, they asserted that DAPA violated the procedural requirements of the APA as a substantive rule that did not undergo the requisite notice-and-comment rulemaking. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 553. Second, the states claimed that DHS lacked the authority to implement the program even if it followed the correct rulemaking process, such that DAPA was substantively unlawful under the APA. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A)-(C). Third, the states urged that DAPA was an abrogation of the President's constitutional duty to "take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed." U.S. CONST. art. II, § 3.

The district court held that Texas has standing. It concluded that the state would suffer a financial injury by having to issue driver's licenses to DAPA beneficiaries at a loss. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 616-23. Alternatively, the court relied on a new theory it called "abdication standing": Texas had standing because the United States has exclusive authority over immigration but has refused to act in that area. *Id.* at 636-43. The court also considered but ultimately did not accept the notions that Texas could sue as *parens patriae* on behalf of citizens facing economic competition from DAPA beneficiaries and that the state had standing based on the losses it suffers generally from illegal immigration. *Id.* at 625-36.

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tion not payable to aliens unless they are "*lawfully present* for purposes of performing such services" (emphasis added)).

The court temporarily enjoined DAPA's implementation after determining that Texas had shown a substantial likelihood of success on its claim that the program must undergo notice and comment. *Id.* at 677. Despite full briefing, the court did not rule on the "Plaintiffs' likelihood of success on their *substantive* APA claim or their constitutional claims under the Take Care Clause/ separation of powers doctrine." *Id.* On appeal, the United States maintains that the states do not have standing or a right to judicial review and, alternatively, that DAPA is exempt from the notice-and-comment requirements. The government also contends that the injunction, including its nationwide scope, is improper as a matter of law.

II.

"We review a preliminary injunction for abuse of discretion."[21] A preliminary injunction should issue only if the states, as movants, establish

> (1) a substantial likelihood of success on the merits, (2) a substantial threat of irreparable injury if the injunction is not issued, (3) that the threatened injury if the injunction is denied outweighs any harm that will result if the injunction is granted, and (4) that the grant of an injunction will not disserve the public interest.[22]

"As to each element of the district court's preliminary-injunction analysis . . . findings of fact are subject to a

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[21] *Sepulvado v. Jindal*, 729 F.3d 413, 417 (5th Cir. 2013).

[22] *Id.* (quoting *Byrum v. Landreth*, 566 F.3d 442, 445 (5th Cir. 2009)).

clearly-erroneous standard of review, while conclusions of law are subject to broad review and will be reversed if incorrect."[23]

III.

The government claims the states lack standing to challenge DAPA. As we will analyze, however, their standing is plain, based on the driver's-license rationale,[24] so we need not address the other possible grounds for standing.

As the parties invoking federal jurisdiction, the states have the burden of establishing standing. *See Clapper v. Amnesty Int'l USA*, 133 S. Ct. 1138, 1148 (2013). They must show an injury that is "concrete, particularized, and actual or imminent; fairly traceable to the challenged action; and redressable by a favorable ruling." *Id.* at 1147 (citation omitted). "When a litigant is vested with a procedural right, that litigant has standing if there is

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[23] *Id.* (quoting *Janvey v. Alguire*, 647 F.3d 585, 591-92 (5th Cir. 2011)).

[24] We did not reach this issue in *Crane v. Johnson*, 783 F.3d 244 (5th Cir. 2015). There, we concluded that neither the State of Mississippi nor Immigration and Customs Enforcement ("ICE") agents and deportation officers had standing to challenge DACA. *Id.* at 255. We explicitly determined that Mississippi had waived the theory that Texas now advances:

> In a letter brief filed after oral argument, Mississippi put forward three new arguments in support of its standing, [including] (1) the cost of issuing driver's licenses to DACA's beneficiaries . . . . Because Mississippi failed to provide evidentiary support on these arguments and failed to make these arguments in their opening brief on appeal and below, they have been waived.

Id. at 252 n.34.

some possibility that the requested relief will prompt the injury-causing party to reconsider the decision that allegedly harmed the litigant." *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. 497, 518 (2007). "[T]he presence of one party with standing is sufficient to satisfy Article III's case-or-controversy requirement." *Rumsfeld v. Forum for Acad. & Institutional Rights, Inc.*, 547 U.S. 47, 52 n.2 (2006).

A.

We begin by considering whether the states are entitled to "special solicitude" in our standing inquiry under *Massachusetts v. EPA*. They are.

The Court held that Massachusetts had standing to contest the EPA's decision not to regulate greenhouse-gas emissions from new motor vehicles, which allegedly contributed to a rise in sea levels and a loss of the state's coastal land. *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 526. "It is of considerable relevance that the party seeking review here is a sovereign State and not . . . a private individual" because "States are not normal litigants for the purposes of invoking federal jurisdiction." *Id.* at 518.[25]

The Court identified two additional considerations that entitled Massachusetts "to special solicitude in [the Court's] standing analysis." *Id.* at 520.[26] First, the

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[25] The dissent, throughout, cleverly refers to the states, more than forty times, as the "plaintiffs," obscuring the fact that they are sovereign states (while referring to the defendants as the "government"). *See* Dissent, *passim*.

[26] The dissent attempts to diminish the considerable significance of the "special solicitude" language, which, to say the least, is inconvenient to the United States in its effort to defeat standing. The

Clean Air Act created a procedural right to challenge the EPA's decision:

> The parties' dispute turns on the proper construction of a congressional statute, a question eminently suitable to resolution in federal court. Congress has moreover authorized this type of challenge to EPA action. That authorization is of critical importance to the standing inquiry: "Congress has the power to define injuries and articulate chains of causation that will give rise to a case or controversy where none existed before." "In exercising this power, however, Congress must at the very least identify the injury it seeks to vindicate and relate the injury to the class of persons entitled to bring suit." We will not, therefore, "entertain citizen suits to vindicate the public's nonconcrete interest in the proper administration of the laws."[27]

Second, the EPA's decision affected Massachusetts's "quasi-sovereign" interest in its territory:

> When a State enters the Union, it surrenders cer-

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dissent protests that it is "only a single, isolated phrase" that "appears only once." Dissent at 9.

The dissent, however, avoids mention of the Court's explanation that "[i]t is of considerable relevance that the party seeking review here is a sovereign State." *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 518. In light of that enlargement on the "special solicitude" phrase, it is obvious that being a state greatly matters in the standing inquiry, and it makes no difference, in the words of the dissent, "whether the majority means that states are afforded a relaxed standing inquiry by virtue of their statehood or whether their statehood, in [and] of itself, helps confer standing." Dissent at 9.

[27] *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 516-17 (citations omitted).

> tain sovereign prerogatives. Massachusetts cannot invade Rhode Island to force reductions in greenhouse gas emissions, it cannot negotiate an emissions treaty with China or India, and in some circumstances the exercise of its police powers to reduce in-state motor-vehicle emissions might well be pre-empted.
>
> These sovereign prerogatives are now lodged in the Federal Government, and Congress has ordered EPA to protect Massachusetts (among others) by prescribing standards applicable to the "emission of any air pollutant from any class or classes of new motor vehicle engines, which in [the Administrator's] judgment cause, or contribute to, air pollution which may reasonably be anticipated to endanger public health or welfare."[28]

Like Massachusetts, the instant plaintiffs—the states—"are not normal litigants for the purposes of invoking federal jurisdiction," *id.* at 518, and the same two additional factors are present. First, "[t]he parties' dispute turns on the proper construction of a congressional statute,"[29] the APA, which authorizes challenges to "final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court." 5 U.S.C. § 704. Similarly, the disagreement in *Massachusetts v. EPA* concerned the interpretation of the Clean Air Act, which provides for judicial review of "final action taken[] by the Administrator." 42 U.S.C. § 7607(b)(1). Further, as we will explain, the states are within the zone of interests of the Immigration

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[28] *Id.* at 519-20 (alteration in original) (citation omitted) (quoting 42 U.S.C. § 7521(a)(1)).

[29] *Id.* at 516.

and Nationality Act ("INA");[30] they are not asking us to "entertain citizen suits to vindicate the public's nonconcrete interest in the proper administration of the laws."[31]

In enacting the APA, Congress intended for those "suffering legal wrong because of agency action" to have judicial recourse,[32] and the states fall well within that definition.[33] The Clean Air Act's review provision is more specific than the APA's, but the latter is easily adequate to justify "special solicitude" here. The procedural right to challenge EPA decisions created by the Clean Air Act provided important support to Massachusetts because the challenge Massachusetts sought to bring—a challenge to an agency's decision *not to act*—is traditionally the type for which it is most difficult to establish standing and a justiciable issue.[34] Texas, by contrast, challenges DHS's affirmative decision to set guidelines for granting lawful presence to a broad class of illegal aliens. Because the states here challenge DHS's decision to act, rather than its decision to remain inactive,

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[30] *See infra* part IV.

[31] *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 516-17 (citation omitted).

[32] 5 U.S.C. § 702.

[33] *See New Mexico ex rel. Richardson v. Bureau of Land Mgmt.*, 565 F.3d 683, 694, 696 n.13 (10th Cir. 2009) (holding that New Mexico was entitled to "special solicitude" where one of its claims was based on the APA); *Wyoming ex rel. Crank v. United States*, 539 F.3d 1236, 1241-42 (10th Cir. 2008) (holding that Wyoming was entitled to special solicitude where its only claim was based on the APA).

[34] *See Heckler v. Chaney*, 470 U.S. 821, 831 (observing that "refusals to take enforcement steps" generally are subject to agency discretion, and the "presumption is that judicial review is not available.").

a procedural right similar to that created by the Clean Air Act is not necessary to support standing. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 704.

As we will show, DAPA would have a major effect on the states' fiscs, causing millions of dollars of losses in Texas alone, and at least in Texas, the causal chain is especially direct: DAPA would enable beneficiaries to apply for driver's licenses, and many would do so, resulting in Texas's injury.

Second, DAPA affects the states' "quasi-sovereign" interests by imposing substantial pressure on them to change their laws, which provide for issuing driver's licenses to some aliens and subsidizing those licenses.[35] "[S]tates have a sovereign interest in 'the power to create and enforce a legal code.'"[36] Pursuant to that interest, states may have standing based on (1) federal assertions of authority to regulate matters they believe they control,[37] (2) federal preemption of state law,[38] and (3) fed-

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[35] *See, e.g.*, TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.142(a) (specifying the requirements for licenses), .181 (providing for the issuance of licenses), .421(a) (setting the fees for licenses); Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 616-17 (finding that Texas subsidizes its licenses).

[36] *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel v. FCC*, 183 F.3d 393, 449 (5th Cir. 1999) (quoting *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592, 601 (1982)).

[37] *See id.*

[38] *See, e.g.*, *Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1242; *Alaska v. U.S. Dep't of Transp.*, 868 F.2d 441, 443-44 (D.C. Cir. 1989); *Ohio ex rel. Celebrezze v. U.S. Dep't of Transp.*, 766 F.2d 228, 232-33 (6th Cir. 1985); *cf. Diamond v. Charles*, 476 U.S. 54, 62 (1986) (commenting that "a State has standing to defend the constitutionality of its statute" but not relying on that principle).

eral interference with the enforcement of state law,[39] at least where "the state statute at issue regulate[s] behavior or provide[s] for the administration of a state program"[40] and does not "simply purport[] to immunize [state] citizens from federal law."[41] Those intrusions are analogous to pressure to change state law.[42]

Moreover, these plaintiff states' interests are like Massachusetts's in ways that implicate the same sovereignty concerns. When the states joined the union, they surrendered some of their sovereign prerogatives over immigration.[43] They cannot establish their own classifications of aliens,[44] just as "Massachusetts cannot invade Rhode Island to force reductions in greenhouse gas emissions [and] cannot negotiate an emissions treaty with China or India."[45] The states may not be able to discriminate against subsets of aliens in their driver's license programs without running afoul of preemption or the

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[39] *See Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1241-42; *Celebrezze*, 766 F.2d at 232-33; *cf. Maine v. Taylor*, 477 U.S. 131, 137 (1986) (observing in another context that "a State clearly has a legitimate interest in the continued enforceability of its own statutes").

[40] *Virginia ex rel. Cuccinelli v. Sebelius*, 656 F.3d 253, 269 (4th Cir. 2011).

[41] *Id.* at 270.

[42] *See Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1241-42 (reasoning that Wyoming was entitled to "special solicitude" where its asserted injury was interference with the enforcement of state law).

[43] *See generally Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2498-2501.

[44] *See Villas at Parkside Partners v. City of Farmers Branch*, 726 F.3d 524, 536 (5th Cir. 2013) (en banc).

[45] *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 519.

Equal Protection Clause;[46] similarly, "in some circumstances[, Massachusetts's] exercise of its police powers to reduce in-state motor-vehicle emissions might well be pre-empted."[47] Both these plaintiff states and Massachusetts now rely on the federal government to protect their interests.[48] These parallels confirm that DAPA affects the states' "quasi-sovereign" interests.

The significant opinion in *Arizona State Legislature v. Arizona Independent Redistricting Commission*, 135 S. Ct. 2652 (2015), announced shortly before oral argument herein, reinforces that conclusion. The Court held that the Arizona Legislature had standing to sue in response to a ballot initiative that removed its redistricting authority and vested it instead in an independent commission. *Id.* at 2665-66. The Court emphasized that the legislature was "an institutional plaintiff asserting an institutional injury" to what it believed was its constitutional power to regulate elections. *Id.* at 2664. So too are the states asserting institutional injury to their lawmaking authority. The Court also cited *Massachusetts v. EPA* as opining that the state in that case was "entitled to special solicitude in our standing analysis." *Id.* at 2664-65 n.10 (quoting *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 520).

The United States suggests that three presumptions against standing apply here. The first is a presumption that a plaintiff lacks standing to challenge decisions to

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[46] The Ninth Circuit has suggested that, *see Ariz. Dream Act Coal. v. Brewer*, 757 F.3d 1053, 1061-67 (9th Cir. 2014), but we need not decide the issue.

[47] *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 519.

[48] *See id.*

confer benefits on, or not to prosecute, a third party. But the cases the government cites for that proposition either did not involve standing;[49] concerned only nonprosecution (as distinguished from both nonprosecution and the conferral of benefits);[50] or merely reaffirmed that a plaintiff must satisfy the standing requirements.[51]

The second presumption is against justiciability in the immigration context. None of the cases the government cites involved standing[52] and include only general language about the government's authority over immigration; without a specific discussion of standing, they are of limited relevance.[53]

The third presumption is that "[t]he [Supreme] Court's standing analysis . . . has been 'especially rigorous when reaching the merits of the dispute would force [the Court] to decide whether an action taken by one of the other two branches of the Federal Government was

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[49] *See Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 823; *United States v. Cox*, 342 F.2d 167, 170 (5th Cir. 1965) (en banc).

[50] *See Linda R.S. v. Richard D.*, 410 U.S. 614, 615-16 (1973).

[51] *See Henderson v. Stalder*, 287 F.3d 374, 384 (5th Cir. 2002) (Jones, J., concurring).

[52] *See Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2497; *Sure-Tan, Inc. v. NLRB*, 467 U.S. 883, 886 (1984); *Plyler v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 202, 205 (1982); *Fiallo v. Bell*, 430 U.S. 787, 788 (1977); *Mathews v. Diaz*, 426 U.S. 67, 69 (1976). In the other case the government cites, "we assume[d], without deciding, that the plaintiffs have standing." *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d 661, 664 n.2 (5th Cir. 1997).

[53] We address justiciability in part V.B, *infra*.

unconstitutional.'"[54] We decide this appeal, however, without resolving the constitutional claim.

Therefore, the states are entitled to "special solicitude" in the standing inquiry. We stress that our decision is limited to these facts. In particular, the direct, substantial pressure directed at the states and the fact that they have surrendered some of their control over immigration to the federal government mean this case is sufficiently similar to *Massachusetts v. EPA*, but pressure to change state law may not be enough—by itself—in other situations.

B.

At least one state—Texas—has satisfied the first standing requirement by demonstrating that it would incur significant costs in issuing driver's licenses to DAPA beneficiaries. Under current state law, licenses issued to beneficiaries would necessarily be at a financial loss. The Department of Public Safety "shall issue" a license to a qualified applicant. TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.181. A noncitizen "must present . . . documentation issued by the appropriate United States agency that authorizes the applicant to be in the United States." *Id.* § 521.142(a).

If permitted to go into effect, DAPA would enable at least 500,000 illegal aliens in Texas[55] to satisfy that requirement with proof of lawful presence[56] or employment

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[54] *Ariz. State Legislature*, 135 S. Ct. at 2665 n.12 (final alteration in original) (quoting *Raines v. Byrd*, 521 U.S. 811, 819-20 (1997)).

[55] *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 616.

[56] *See* TEX. DEP'T OF PUB. SAFETY, VERIFYING LAWFUL PRESENCE 4 (2013), https://www.txdps.state.tx.us/DriverLicense/

authorization.[57] Texas subsidizes its licenses and would lose a minimum of $130.89 on each one it issued to a DAPA beneficiary.[58] Even a modest estimate would put the loss at "several million dollars." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 617.

Instead of disputing those figures, the United States claims that the costs would be offset by other benefits to the state. It theorizes that, because DAPA beneficiaries would be eligible for licenses, they would register their vehicles, generating income for the state, and buy auto insurance, reducing the expenses associated with unin-

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documents/verifyingLawfulPresence.pdf (listing an acceptable document for a "Person granted deferred action" as "Immigration documentation with an alien number or I-94 number"); DAPA Memo at 2 ("Deferred action . . . means that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be lawfully present in the United States.").

[57] *See* TEX. DEP'T OF PUB. SAFETY, *supra* note 56, at 3 (stating that an "Employment Authorization Document" is sufficient proof of lawful presence); Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 616 n.14 (explaining that "[e]mployment authorization" is "a benefit that will be available to recipients of DAPA").

[58] *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 617. Some of those costs are directly attributable to the United States. Under the REAL ID Act of 2005, Pub. L. No. 109-13, div. B, 119 Stat. 302 (codified as amended in scattered sections of Titles 8 and 49 U.S.C.), Texas must verify each applicant's immigration status through DHS, *see* 6 C.F.R. § 37.11(g), .13(b)(1), or the state's licenses will no longer be valid for a number of purposes, including commercial air travel without a secondary form of identification, *REAL ID Enforcement in Brief*, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HOMELAND SECURITY (July 27, 2015), http://www.dhs.gov/real-id-enforcement-brief. Texas pays an average of 75¢ per applicant to comply with that mandate. *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 617.

sured motorists. The government suggests employment authorization would lead to increased tax revenue and decreased reliance on social services.

Even if the government is correct, that does not negate Texas's injury, because we consider only those offsetting benefits that are of the same type and arise from the same transaction as the costs.[59] "Once injury is shown, no attempt is made to ask whether the injury is outweighed by benefits the plaintiff has enjoyed from the relationship with the defendant. Standing is recognized to complain that some particular aspect of the relationship is unlawful and has caused injury."[60] "Our standing analysis is not an accounting exercise . . . ."[61]

The one case in which we concluded that the costs of a challenged program were offset by the benefits involved a much tighter nexus. In *Henderson*, 287 F.3d at 379-81,

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[59] *See, e.g.*, *L.A. Haven Hospice, Inc. v. Sebelius*, 638 F.3d 644, 656-59 (9th Cir. 2011) (holding that a hospice had standing to challenge a regulation that allegedly increased its costs in some ways even though the regulation may have saved it money in other ways or in other fiscal years); *Sutton v. St. Jude Med. S.C., Inc.*, 419 F.3d 568, 570-75 (6th Cir. 2005) (concluding that a patient had standing to sue designers, manufacturers, and distributors of a medical device implanted in his body because it allegedly increased risk of medical problems even though it had not malfunctioned and had benefited him); *Markva v. Haveman*, 317 F.3d 547, 557-58 (6th Cir. 2003) (deciding that grandparents had standing to challenge a requirement that they pay more for Medicaid benefits than would similarly situated parents, even though the grandparents may have received more of other types of welfare benefits).

[60] 13A CHARLES ALAN WRIGHT ET AL., FEDERAL PRACTICE AND PROCEDURE § 3531.4, at 147 (3d ed. 2015) (footnote omitted).

[61] *NCAA v. Governor of N.J.*, 730 F.3d 208, 223 (3d Cir. 2013).

we determined that taxpayers lacked standing to challenge a Louisiana law authorizing a license plate bearing a pro-life message, reasoning that the plaintiffs had not shown that the program would use their tax dollars, because the extra fees paid by drivers who purchased the plates could have covered the associated expenses. The costs and benefits arose out of the same transaction, so the plaintiffs had not demonstrated injury.

Here, none of the benefits the government identifies is sufficiently connected to the costs to qualify as an offset. The only benefits that are conceivably relevant are the increase in vehicle registration and the decrease in uninsured motorists, but even those are based on the independent decisions of DAPA beneficiaries and are not a direct result of the issuance of licenses. Analogously, the Third Circuit held that sports leagues had standing to challenge New Jersey's decision to license sports gambling, explaining that damage to the leagues' reputations was a cognizable injury despite evidence that more people would have watched sports had betting been allowed. *NCAA*, 730 F.3d at 222-24. The diminished public perception of the leagues and the greater interest in sports were attributable to the licensing plan but did not arise out of the same transaction and so could not be compared.

In the instant case, the states have alleged an injury, and the government predicts that the later decisions of DAPA beneficiaries would produce offsetting benefits. Weighing those costs and benefits is precisely the type of "accounting exercise," *id.* at 223, in which we cannot engage. Texas has shown injury.

C.

Texas has satisfied the second standing requirement by establishing that its injury is "fairly traceable" to DAPA. It is undisputed that DAPA would enable beneficiaries to apply for driver's licenses, and there is little doubt that many would do so because driving is a practical necessity in most of the state.

The United States urges that Texas's injury is not cognizable, because the state could avoid injury by not issuing licenses to illegal aliens or by not subsidizing its licenses. Although Texas could avoid financial loss by requiring applicants to pay the full costs of licenses, it could not avoid injury altogether. "[S]tates have a sovereign interest in 'the power to create and enforce a legal code,'"[62] and the possibility that a plaintiff could avoid injury by incurring other costs does not negate standing.[63]

Indeed, treating the availability of changing state law as a bar to standing would deprive states of judicial re-

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[62] *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel v. FCC*, 183 F.3d 393, 449 (5th Cir. 1999) (quoting *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592, 601 (1982)).

[63] *See Texas v. United States*, 497 F.3d 491, 497 (5th Cir. 2007). The dissent theorizes that if "forcing Texas to change its laws would be an injury because states have a 'sovereign interest in the "power to create and enforce a legal code,"'" then *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660 (1976) (per curiam), must be wrongly decided. Dissent at 12 n.16. The dissent posits that Pennsylvania (there) and Texas (here) faced pressure to change their laws, so their Article III standing vel non must be the same. But the dissent ignores a key distinction between *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* and the instant case: As we explain below, the pressure that Pennsylvania faced to change its laws was self-inflicted; Texas's is not.

course for many *bona fide* harms. For instance, under that theory, federal preemption of state law could never be an injury, because a state could always change its law to avoid preemption. But courts have often held that states have standing based on preemption.[64] And states could offset almost any financial loss by raising taxes or fees. The existence of that alternative does not mean they lack standing.

Relying primarily on *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660 (1976) (per curiam), the United States maintains that Texas's injury is self-inflicted because the state voluntarily chose to base its driver's license policies on federal immigration law. In *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, *id.* at 664, 666, the Court held that several states lacked standing to contest other states' laws taxing a portion of nonresidents' incomes. The plaintiff states alleged that the defendant states' taxes injured them because the plaintiffs gave their residents credits for taxes paid to other states, so the defendants' taxes increased the amount of those credits, causing the plaintiffs to lose revenue. *Id.* at 663. The Court flatly rejected that theory of standing:

> In neither of the suits at bar has the defendant State inflicted any injury upon the plaintiff States through the imposition of the [challenged taxes]. The injuries to the plaintiffs' fiscs were self-inflicted, resulting from decisions by their respective state legislatures. Nothing required Maine, Massachusetts, and Vermont to extend a tax credit to their residents for

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[64] *See, e.g.*, *Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1242; *Alaska*, 868 F.2d at 443-44; *Celebrezze*, 766 F.2d at 232-33.

> income taxes paid to New Hampshire, and nothing prevents Pennsylvania from withdrawing that credit for taxes paid to New Jersey. No State can be heard to complain about damage inflicted by its own hand.

Id. at 664.

The more recent decision in *Wyoming v. Oklahoma*, 502 U.S. 437 (1992), also informs our analysis. There, the Court held that Wyoming had standing to challenge an Oklahoma law requiring some Oklahoma power plants to burn at least 10% Oklahoma-mined coal. *Id.* at 447. The Court explained that Wyoming taxed the extraction of coal in the state and that Oklahoma's law reduced demand for that coal and Wyoming's corresponding revenue. *Id.* The Court emphasized that the case involved an "undisputed" "direct injury in the form of a loss of specific tax revenues." *Id.* at 448. It rejected Oklahoma's contention "that Wyoming is not itself engaged in the commerce affected, is not affected as a consumer, and thus has not suffered the type of direct injury cognizable in a Commerce Clause action," *id.*, concluding that Wyoming's loss of revenue was sufficient, *id.* at 448-50. The Court did not cite *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* or discuss the theory that Wyoming's injury was self-inflicted.

Both the *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* plaintiffs and Wyoming structured their laws in ways that meant their finances would have been affected by changes in other states' laws. Because the tax credits in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* were based on taxes paid to other states, any tax increases in other states would have decreased the plaintiffs' revenues, and any tax cuts would have had the opposite effect. Analogously, Wyoming's tax was based

on the amount of coal extracted there, so any policies in other states that decreased demand for that coal would have diminished Wyoming's revenues, and any policies that bolstered demand would have had the opposite effect.

In other words, the schemes in both cases made the plaintiff states' finances dependent on those of third parties—either resident taxpayers or coal companies —which in turn were affected by other states' laws. The issues in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* and *Wyoming v. Oklahoma* were thus similar to the question here, but the Court announced different results. The two cases are readily distinguishable, however, and, based on two considerations, *Wyoming v. Oklahoma* directs our decision.

First, Texas and Wyoming sued in response to major changes in the defendant states' policies. Texas sued after the United States had announced DAPA, which could make at least 500,000 illegal aliens eligible for driver's licenses and cause millions of dollars of losses; Wyoming sued after Oklahoma had enacted a law that cost Wyoming over $1 million in tax revenues. *See id.* at 445-46 & n.6. Conversely, the *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* plaintiffs sued not because of a change in the defendant states' laws but because they believed that *Austin v. New Hampshire*, 420 U.S. 656 (1975), had rendered the defendants' laws unconstitutional. *See Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. at 661-63. The fact that Texas sued in response to a significant change in the defendants' policies shows that its injury is not self-inflicted.

Second, the plaintiffs' options for accomplishing their policy goals were more limited in this case and in *Wyoming v. Oklahoma* than in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*.

Texas seeks to issue licenses only to those lawfully present in the United States, and the state is required to use federal immigration classifications to do so. *See Villas at Parkside Partners*, 726 F.3d at 536. Likewise, Wyoming sought to tax the extraction of coal and had no way to avoid being affected by other states' laws that reduced demand for that coal.[65]

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[65] It follows that the dissent's unsubstantiated claim that "Pennsylvania, like Texas, tied its law to that of another sovereign, whereas *Wyoming did not*" (emphasis added), is obvious error. Dissent at 12 n.16. The dissent ignores our explication of Texas's and Wyoming's policy goals. We do not assert that those states cannot change their laws to avoid injury from changes in the laws of another state. Rather, we demonstrate that Texas and Wyoming cannot both change their laws to avoid injury from amendments to another sovereign's laws *and* achieve their policy goals.

For example, although, as we have said but the dissent overlooks, Wyoming easily could have avoided injury from changes in Oklahoma's laws by abandoning entirely its tax on coal extraction, it would have surrendered its policy goal of taxing extraction in the first place. Similarly, Texas could avoid financial loss by increasing fees, not subsidizing its licenses, or perhaps not issuing licenses to lawfully present aliens, but the consequence would be that by taking those actions Texas would have abandoned its fully permissible policy goal of providing subsidized licenses only to those who are lawfully present in the United States—a policy that, as we have repeatedly pointed out, Texas instituted well before the Secretary designed DACA or DAPA.

In essence, the dissent would have us issue the following edict to Texas: "You may avoid injury to the pursuit of your policy goals—injury resulting from a change in federal immigration law—by changing your laws to pursue different goals or eliminating them altogether. Therefore, your injuries are self-inflicted." Presumably the dissent would have liked for the Supreme Court to have issued a similar edict to Wyoming, which sought to tax the extrac-

By way of contrast, the plaintiff states in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey* could have achieved their policy goal in myriad ways, such as basing their tax credits on residents' out-of-state incomes instead of on taxes actually paid to other states. That alternative would have achieved those plaintiffs' goal of allowing their residents to avoid double taxation of their out-of-state incomes, but it would not have tied the plaintiffs' finances to other states' laws. The fact that Texas had no similar option means its injury is not self-inflicted.

The decision in *Amnesty International* supports this conclusion: The Court held that the plaintiffs lacked standing to challenge a provision of the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act authorizing the interception of certain electronic communications. *Amnesty Int'l*, 133 S. Ct. at 1155. The plaintiffs alleged that they had been forced to take costly steps to avoid surveillance, such as traveling to meet in person and not discussing certain topics by email or phone. *Id.* at 1150-51. The Court held that any such injuries were self-inflicted, *id.* at 1152-53, reasoning that plaintiffs "cannot manufacture standing merely by inflicting harm on themselves based on their fears of hypothetical future harm that is not certainly impending." *Id.* at 1151 (citing *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. at 664). "If the law were otherwise, an enterprising plaintiff would be able to secure a lower standard for Article III standing simply by making an expenditure based on a nonparanoid fear." *Id.*

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tion of coal and had no way both to continue taxing extraction and to avoid being affected by Oklahoma's laws that reduced demand for that coal. *See* Dissent at 12-13.

By way of contrast, there is no allegation that Texas passed its driver's license law to manufacture standing. The legislature enacted the law one year before DACA and three years before DAPA was announced,[66] and there is no hint that the state anticipated a change in immigration policy—much less a change as sweeping and dramatic as DAPA. Despite the dissent's bold suggestion that Texas's license-plate-cost injury "is entirely manufactured by Plaintiffs for this case," Dissent at 12, the injury is not self-inflicted.

In addition to its notion that Texas could avoid injury, the government theorizes that Texas's injury is not fairly traceable to DAPA because it is merely an incidental and attenuated consequence of the program. But *Massachusetts v. EPA* establishes that the causal connection is adequate. Texas is entitled to the same "special solicitude" as was Massachusetts, and the causal link is even closer here.

For Texas to incur injury, DAPA beneficiaries would have to apply for driver's licenses as a consequence of DHS's action, and it is apparent that many would do so. For Massachusetts's injury to have occurred, individuals would have had to drive less fuel-efficient cars as a result of the EPA's decision, and that would have had to contribute meaningfully to a rise in sea levels, causing the erosion of the state's shoreline. *See Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 523. There was some uncertainty about whether the EPA's inaction was a substantial cause of the

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[66] *See* Certain State Fiscal Matters; Providing Penalties, ch. 4, sec. 72.03, § 521.101(f-2), 2011 Tex. Gen. Laws 5254, 5344 (codified at TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.142(a)).

state's harm, considering the many other emissions sources involved.[67] But the Court held that Massachusetts had satisfied the causation requirement because the possibility that the effect of the EPA's decision was minor did not negate standing, and the evidence showed that the effect was significant in any event. *Id.* at 524-25.

This case raises even less doubt about causation, so the result is the same. The matters in which the Supreme Court held that an injury was not fairly traceable to the challenged law reinforce this conclusion. In some of them, the independent act of a third party was a necessary condition of the harm's occurrence, and it was uncertain whether the third party would take the required step.[68] Not so here.

DAPA beneficiaries have strong incentives to obtain driver's licenses, and it is hardly speculative that many would do so if they became eligible. In other cases, in

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[67] *See Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 523-24; *id.* at 540-45 (Roberts, C.J., dissenting) (questioning whether Massachusetts had lost land at all as a result of climate change and whether the EPA's decision had contributed meaningfully to any erosion).

[68] *See, e.g.*, *Amnesty Int'l*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147-50 (explaining that, for a provision of the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act to have resulted in the monitoring of the plaintiffs' communications, the Attorney General and the Director of National Intelligence would have had to authorize the collection of the communications, the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Court would have had to approve the government's request, and the government would have had to intercept the communications successfully); *Whitmore v. Arkansas*, 495 U.S. 149, 156-60 (1990) (reasoning that, for a death-row inmate's decision not to appeal to have harmed the plaintiff, who was another death row inmate, the court hearing any appeal would have had to rule in a way favorable to the plaintiff).

which there was insufficient proof of causation, several factors potentially contributed to the injury, and the challenged policy likely played a minor role.[69]

Far from playing an insignificant role, DAPA would be the primary cause and likely the only one. Without the program, there would be little risk of a dramatic increase in the costs of the driver's-license program. This case is far removed from those in which the Supreme Court has held an injury to be too incidental or attenuated. Texas's injury is fairly traceable to DAPA.

D.

Texas has satisfied the third standing requirement, redressability. Enjoining DAPA based on the procedural APA claim could prompt DHS to reconsider the program, which is all a plaintiff must show when asserting a procedural right. *See id.* at 518. And enjoining DAPA

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[69] *See, e.g.*, *Already, LLC v. Nike, Inc.*, 133 S. Ct. 721, 731 (2013) (rejecting the theory "that a market participant is injured for Article III purposes whenever a competitor benefits from something allegedly unlawful—whether a trademark, the awarding of a contract, a landlord-tenant arrangement, or so on."); *McConnell v. FEC*, 540 U.S. 93, 228 (2003) (commenting that the plaintiffs, candidates for public office, were unable to compete not because of increased hard-money limits but instead because of their personal decisions not to accept large contributions), *overruled on other grounds by Citizens United v. FEC*, 558 U.S. 310 (2010); *Allen v. Wright*, 468 U.S. 737, 756-59 (1984) (observing that any lack of opportunity for the plaintiffs' children to attend racially integrated public schools was attributable not only to tax exemptions for discriminatory private schools but also to the decisions of private school administrators and other parents), *abrogated on other grounds by Lexmark Int'l, Inc. v. Static Control Components, Inc.*, 134 S. Ct. 1377 (2014).

based on the substantive APA claim would prevent Texas's injury altogether.

E.

The United States submits that Texas's theory of standing is flawed because it has no principled limit. In the government's view, if Texas can challenge DAPA, it could also sue to block a grant of asylum to a single alien or any federal policy that adversely affects the state, such as an IRS revenue ruling that decreases a corporation's federal taxable income and corresponding state franchise-tax liability.

The flaw in the government's reasoning is that *Massachusetts v. EPA* entailed similar risks, but the Court still held that Massachusetts had standing. Under that decision, Massachusetts conceivably could challenge the government's decision to buy a car with poor fuel efficiency because the vehicle could contribute to global warming. The state might be able to contest any federal action that prompts more travel. Or it potentially could challenge any change in federal policy that indirectly results in greenhouse-gas emissions, such as a trade-promotion program that leads to more shipping. One of the dissenting Justices in *Massachusetts v. EPA* criticized the decision on that ground,[70] but the majority found those concerns unpersuasive, just as they are here.

After *Massachusetts v. EPA*, the answer to those criticisms is that there are other ways to cabin policy

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[70] *See Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 546 (Roberts, C.J., dissenting) ("Every little bit helps, so Massachusetts can sue over any little bit.").

disagreements masquerading as legal claims.[71] First, a state that has standing still must have a cause of action. Even the APA—potentially the most versatile tool available to an enterprising state—imposes a number of limitations. A state must be defending concerns that are "arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute or constitutional guarantee in question."[72] It is unclear whether a state dissatisfied with an IRS revenue ruling would be defending such an interest. Moreover, judicial review is unavailable where the statute precludes it or the matter is committed to agency discretion. 5 U.S.C. § 701(a). Because of those restrictions, a state would have limited ability to challenge many asylum determinations. *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1252(b)(4)(D). Further, numerous policies that adversely affect states either are not rules at all or are exempt from the notice-and-comment requirements. *See generally* 5 U.S.C. § 553.

Second, the standing requirements would preclude much of the litigation the government describes. For example, it would be difficult to establish standing to challenge a grant of asylum to a single alien based on the driver's-license theory. The state must allege an injury

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[71] The dissent responds to this by asserting that "[t]he majority's observation that this suit involves 'policy disagreements masquerading as legal claims' is also telling." Dissent at 22. That of course is not what our sentence (which is not a description of the suit at hand) says at all.

[72] *Clarke v. Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. 388, 396 (1987) (quoting *Ass'n of Data Processing Serv. Orgs., Inc. v. Camp*, 397 U.S. 150, 153 (1970)).

that has already occurred or is "certainly impending";[73] it is easier to demonstrate that some DAPA beneficiaries would apply for licenses than it is to establish that a particular alien would. And causation could be a substantial obstacle. Although the district court's calculation of Texas's loss from DAPA was based largely on the need to hire employees, purchase equipment, and obtain office space,[74] those steps would be unnecessary to license one additional person.

Third, our determination that Texas has standing is based in part on the "special solicitude" we afford it under *Massachusetts v. EPA* as reinforced by *Arizona State Legislature*. To be entitled to that presumption, a state likely must be exercising a procedural right created by Congress and protecting a "quasi-sovereign" interest. *See Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 520. Those factors will seldom exist. For instance, a grant of asylum to a single alien would impose little pressure to change state law. Without "special solicitude," it would be difficult for a state to establish standing, a heavy burden in many of the government's hypotheticals.

Fourth, as a practical matter, it is pure speculation that a state would sue about matters such as an IRS revenue ruling. Though not dispositive of the issue, the absence of any indication that such lawsuits will occur suggests the government's parade of horribles is un-

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[73] *Amnesty Int'l*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147 (emphasis omitted) (quoting *Defs. of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. at 565 n.2).

[74] *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 616-17 (discussing the potential loss and citing a portion of a declaration addressing those expenses).

founded,[75] and its concerns about the possible future effects of Texas's theory of standing do not alter our conclusion. The states have standing.

IV.

Because the states are suing under the APA, they "must satisfy not only Article III's standing requirements, but an additional test: The interest [they] assert[] must be 'arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute' that [they] say[] was violated."[76] That "test . . . 'is not meant to be especially demanding'" and is applied "in keeping with Congress's 'evident intent' when enacting the APA 'to make agency action presumptively reviewable.'"[77]

The Supreme Court "ha[s] always conspicuously included the word 'arguably' in the test to indicate that the benefit of any doubt goes to the plaintiff," and "[w]e do not require any 'indication of congressional purpose to benefit the would-be plaintiff.'"[78] "The test forecloses suit only when a plaintiff's 'interests are so marginally related to or inconsistent with the purposes implicit in the

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[75] *See Hosanna-Tabor Evangelical Lutheran Church & Sch. v. EEOC*, 132 S. Ct. 694, 710 (2012) (stating, in response to an alleged "parade of horribles," that "[t]here will be time enough to address . . . other circumstances" in future cases without altering the Court's present conclusion).

[76] *Match-E-Be-Nash-She-Wish Band of Pottawatomi Indians v. Patchak*, 132 S. Ct. 2199, 2210 (2012) (quoting *Data Processing*, 397 U.S. at 153).

[77] *Id.* (quoting *Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. at 399).

[78] *Id.* (quoting *Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. at 399-400).

statute that it cannot reasonably be assumed that Congress intended to permit the suit.'"[79]

The interests the states seek to protect fall within the zone of interests of the INA.[80] "The pervasiveness of federal regulation does not diminish the importance of immigration policy to the States," which "bear[] many of the consequences of unlawful immigration." *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2500. Reflecting a concern that "aliens have been applying for and receiving public benefits from Federal, State, and local governments at increasing rates," 8 U.S.C. § 1601, "Congress deemed some *unlawfully present* aliens ineligible for certain state and local public benefits unless the state explicitly provides otherwise."[81] With limited exceptions, unlawfully present aliens are "not eligible for any State or local public benefit." 8 U.S.C. § 1621(a).

Contrary to the government's assertion, Texas satisfies the zone-of-interests test not on account of a generalized grievance but instead as a result of the same injury that gives it Article III standing—Congress has explicitly allowed states to deny public benefits to illegal aliens. Relying on that guarantee, Texas seeks to participate in notice and comment before the Secretary changes the

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[79] *Id.* (quoting *Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. at 399).

[80] The INA "established a 'comprehensive federal statutory scheme for regulation of immigration and naturalization' and set 'the terms and conditions of admission to the country and the subsequent treatment of aliens lawfully in the country.'" *Chamber of Commerce of U.S. v. Whiting*, 131 S. Ct. 1968, 1973 (2011) (quoting *DeCanas v. Bica*, 424 U.S. 351, 353, 359 (1976)).

[81] *United States v. Alabama*, 691 F.3d 1269, 1298 (11th Cir. 2012) (emphasis added) (citing 8 U.S.C. § 1621).

immigration classification of millions of illegal aliens in a way that forces the state to the Hobson's choice of spending millions of dollars to subsidize driver's licenses or changing its statutes.

V.

The government maintains that judicial review is precluded even if the states are proper plaintiffs. "Any person 'adversely affected or aggrieved' by agency action . . . is entitled to 'judicial review thereof,' as long as the action is a 'final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court.'"[82] "But before any review at all may be had, a party must first clear the hurdle of 5 U.S.C. § 701(a). That section provides that the chapter on judicial review 'applies, according to the provisions thereof, except to the extent that—(1) statutes preclude judicial review; or (2) agency action is committed to agency discretion by law.'" *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 828.

"[T]here is a 'well-settled presumption favoring interpretations of statutes that allow judicial review of administrative action,' and we will accordingly find an intent to preclude such review only if presented with 'clear and convincing evidence.'"[83] The "'strong presumption' favoring judicial review of administrative action . . . is rebuttable: It fails when a statute's language or structure demonstrates that Congress wanted an agency

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[82] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 828 (quoting 5 U.S.C. §§ 702, 704). The government does not dispute that DAPA is a "final agency action." *See Lujan v. Nat'l Wildlife Fed'n*, 497 U.S. 871, 882 (1990).

[83] *Reno v. Catholic Soc. Servs., Inc.*, 509 U.S. 43, 63-64 (1993) (quoting *McNary v. Haitian Refugee Ctr., Inc.*, 498 U.S. 479, 496 (1991); *Abbott Labs. v. Gardner*, 387 U.S. 136, 141 (1967)).

to police its own conduct." *Mach Mining, LLC v. EEOC*, 135 S. Ct. 1645, 1651 (2015).

Establishing unreviewability is a "heavy burden,"[84] and "where substantial doubt about the congressional intent exists, the general presumption favoring judicial review of administrative action is controlling." *Block v. Cmty. Nutrition Inst.*, 467 U.S. 340, 351 (1984). "Whether and to what extent a particular statute precludes judicial review is determined not only from its express language, but also from the structure of the statutory scheme, its objectives, its legislative history, and the nature of the administrative action involved." *Id.* at 345.

The United States relies on 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g)[85] for the proposition that the INA expressly prohibits judicial review. But the government's broad reading is contrary to *Reno v. American-Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee ("AAADC")*, 525 U.S. 471, 482 (1999), in which the Court rejected "the unexamined assumption that § 1252(g) covers the universe of deportation claims—that it is a sort of 'zipper' clause that says 'no judicial review in deportation cases unless this section provides judicial review.'"[86] The Court emphasized that § 1252(g) is not "a

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[84] *Mach Mining*, 135 S. Ct. at 1651 (quoting *Dunlop v. Bachowski*, 421 U.S. 560, 567 (1975)).

[85] With limited exceptions, "no court shall have jurisdiction to hear any cause or claim by or on behalf of any alien arising from the decision or action by the Attorney General to commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien under this chapter." 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g).

[86] *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 482. "We are aware of no other instance in the United States Code in which language such as this has been used to impose a general jurisdictional limitation . . . ." *Id.*

general jurisdictional limitation," but rather "applies only to three discrete actions that the Attorney General may take: her 'decision or action' to '*commence* proceedings, *adjudicate* cases, or *execute* removal orders.'"[87]

None of those actions is at issue here—the states' claims do not arise from the Secretary's "decision or action . . . to commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien," § 1252(g); instead, they stem from his decision to grant lawful presence to millions of illegal aliens on a class-wide basis. Further, the states are not bringing a "cause or claim by or on behalf of any alien"—they assert their own right to the APA's procedural protections. *Id.* Congress has expressly limited or precluded judicial review of many immigration decisions,[88] including some that are made in the Secretary's "sole and unreviewable discretion,"[89] but DAPA is not one of them.

Judicial review of DAPA is consistent with the protections Congress affords to states that decline to provide

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[87] *Id.* (quoting § 1252(g)).

[88] *See AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 486-87 (listing "8 U.S.C. § 1252(a)(2)(A) (limiting review of any claim arising from the inspection of aliens arriving in the United States), [(B)] (barring review of denials of discretionary relief authorized by various statutory provisions), [(C)] (barring review of final removal orders against criminal aliens), [(b)(4)(D)] (limiting review of asylum determinations)"); *see also, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(v) (barring review of waiver of reentry restrictions); 1226a(b)(1) (limiting review of detention of terrorist aliens); 1229c(e) (barring review of regulations limiting eligibility for voluntary departure), (f) (limiting review of denial of voluntary departure).

[89] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1613(c)(2)(G), 1621(b)(4), 1641.

public benefits to illegal aliens. "The Government of the United States has broad, undoubted power over the subject of immigration and the status of aliens,"[90] but, through § 1621, Congress has sought to protect states from "bear[ing] many of the consequences of unlawful immigration."[90] Texas avails itself of some of those protections through Section 521.142(a) of the Texas Transportation Code, which allows the state to avoid the costs of issuing driver's licenses to illegal aliens.

If 500,000 unlawfully present aliens residing in Texas were reclassified as lawfully present pursuant to DAPA, they would become eligible for driver's licenses at a subsidized fee. Congress did not intend to make immune from judicial review an agency action that reclassifies millions of illegal aliens in a way that imposes substantial costs on states that have relied on the protections conferred by § 1621.

The states contend that DAPA is being implemented without discretion to deny applications that meet the objective criteria set forth in the DAPA Memo, and under *AAADC*, judicial review could be available if there is an indication that deferred-action decisions are not made on a case-by-case basis. In *AAADC*, a group of aliens "challenge[d] . . . the Attorney General's decision to 'commence [deportation] proceedings' against them," and the Court held that § 1252(g) squarely deprived it of jurisdiction. *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 487. The Court noted that § 1252(g) codified the Secretary's discretion to decline "the initiation or prosecution of various stages in the

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[90] *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2498.

[91] *Id.* at 2500.

deportation process," *id.* at 483, and the Court observed that "[p]rior to 1997, deferred-action decisions were governed by internal [INS] guidelines which considered [a variety of factors]," *id.* at 484 n.8. Although those guidelines "were apparently rescinded," the Court observed that "there [was] no indication that the INS has ceased making this sort of determination on a case-by-case basis." *Id.* But the government has not rebutted the strong presumption of reviewability with clear and convincing evidence that, *inter alia*, it is making case-by-case decisions here.[92]

A.

Title 5 § 701(a)(2) "preclude[s] judicial review of certain categories of administrative decisions that courts traditionally have regarded as "committed to agency discretion." *Lincoln v. Vigil*, 508 U.S. 182, 191 (1993) (citation omitted). For example, "an agency's decision not to institute enforcement proceedings [is] presumptively unreviewable under § 701(a)(2)." *Id.* (citation omitted). Likewise, "[t]here is no judicial review of agency action 'where statutes [granting agency discretion] are drawn in such broad terms that in a given case there is no law to apply,'"[93] such as "[t]he allocation of

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[92] *See, e.g., Gulf Restoration Network v. McCarthy*, 783 F.3d 227, 235 (5th Cir. 2015) (Higginbotham, J.) ("[T]here is a 'strong presumption,' subject to Congressional language, that 'action taken by a federal agency is reviewable in federal court.'" (quoting *RSR Corp. v. Donovan*, 747 F.2d 294, 299 n.23 (5th Cir. 1984))).

[93] *Perales v. Casillas*, 903 F.2d 1043, 1047 (5th Cir. 1990) (alteration in original) (citation omitted).

funds from a lump-sum appropriation." *Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 192.

1.

The Secretary has broad discretion to "decide whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all"[94] and urges that deferred action—a grant of "lawful presence" and subsequent eligibility for otherwise unavailable benefits—is a presumptively unreviewable exercise of prosecutorial discretion.[95] "The general exception to reviewability provided by § 701(a)(2) for action 'committed to agency discretion' remains a narrow one, but within that exception are included agency refusals to institute investigative or enforcement proceedings, unless Congress has indicated otherwise."[96] Where, however, "an agency *does* act to enforce, that action itself provides a focus for judicial review, inasmuch as the agency must have exercised its power in some manner. The action at least can be reviewed to determine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers."[97]

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[94] *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 ("A principal feature of the removal system is the broad discretion exercised by immigration officials. Federal officials, as an initial matter, must decide whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all." (citation omitted)).

[95] The dissent misleadingly declares, "In other words, deferred action itself is merely a brand of 'presumptively unreviewable' prosecutorial discretion." Dissent at 14. The dissent attributes that statement to this panel majority when in fact, as shown above, we accurately cite the statement as coming from the Secretary.

[96] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 838 (citation omitted); *see Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 190-91.

[97] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832.

Part of DAPA involves the Secretary's decision—at least temporarily—not to enforce the immigration laws as to a class of what he deems to be low-priority illegal aliens. But importantly, the states have not challenged the priority levels he has established,[98] and neither the preliminary injunction nor compliance with the APA requires the Secretary to remove any alien or to alter his enforcement priorities.

Deferred action, however, is much more than nonenforcement: It would affirmatively confer "lawful presence" and associated benefits on a class of unlawfully present aliens. Though revocable, that change in designation would trigger (as we have already explained) eligibility for federal benefits—for example, under title II and XVIII of the Social Security Act[99]—and state benefits—for example, driver's licenses and unemployment in-

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[98] *See* Memorandum from Jeh Johnson, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to Thomas Winkowski, Acting Dir., U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, et al. (Nov. 20, 2014) (the "Prioritization Memo"), http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/14_1120_memo_prosecutorial_discretion.pdf.

[99] *See supra* part I.A. DAPA would also toll the duration of the recipients' unlawful presence under the INA's reentry bars, which would benefit aliens who receive lawful presence as minors because the unlawful-presence clock begins to run only at age eighteen. *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1182(a)(9)(B)(iii)(I). Most adult beneficiaries would be unlikely to benefit from tolling because, to be eligible for DAPA, one must have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010, and therefore would likely already be subject to the reentry bar for aliens who have "been unlawfully present in the United States for one year or more." § 1182(a)(9)(B)(i)(II); *see* § 1182(a)(9)(C)(i)(I).

surance[100]—that would not otherwise be available to illegal aliens.[101]

The United States maintains that DAPA is presumptively unreviewable prosecutorial discretion because "'lawful presence' is not a status and is not something that the alien can legally enforce; the agency can alter or revoke it at any time."[102] The government further contends that "[e]very decision under [DAPA] to defer enforcement action against an alien necessarily entails allowing the individual to be lawfully present . . . . Deferred action under DAPA and 'lawful presence' during that limited period are thus two sides of the same coin."[103]

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[100] *See supra* part I.A.

[101] *Cf.* Memorandum from James Cole, Deputy Att'y Gen., to All U.S. Attorneys (Aug. 29, 2013) (the "Cole Memo"), http://www.justice.gov/iso/opa/resources/305201382913275685746 7.pdf. The Cole Memo establishes how prosecutorial discretion will be used in relation to marihuana enforcement under the Controlled Substances Act. Unlike the DAPA Memo, it does not direct an agency to grant eligibility for affirmative benefits to anyone engaged in unlawful conduct. As we have explained, to receive public benefits, aliens accorded lawful presence must satisfy additional criteria set forth in the various benefit schemes, but they nevertheless become *eligible* to satisfy those criteria. That eligibility is itself a cognizable benefit.

[102] Supplemental Brief for Appellants at 16. *But see* 8 U.S.C. § 1201(i) ("After the issuance of a visa or other documentation to any alien, the consular officer or the Secretary of State may at any time, in his discretion, revoke such visa or other documentation."); § 1227(a)(1)(B) (providing that any alien "whose nonimmigrant visa . . . has been revoked under section 1201(i) of this title, is deportable").

[103] Supplemental Brief for Appellants at 16 (emphasis omitted).

Revocability, however, is not the touchstone for whether agency is action is reviewable. Likewise, to be reviewable agency action, DAPA need not directly confer public benefits—removing a categorical bar on receipt of those benefits and thereby making a class of persons newly eligible for them "provides a focus for judicial review." *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832.

Moreover, if deferred action meant only nonprosecution, it would not necessarily result in lawful presence. "[A]lthough prosecutorial discretion is broad, it is not 'unfettered.'"[104] Declining to prosecute does not transform presence deemed unlawful by Congress into lawful presence and confer eligibility for otherwise unavailable benefits based on that change. Regardless of whether the Secretary has the authority to offer lawful presence and employment authorization in exchange for participation in DAPA, his doing so is not shielded from judicial review as an act of prosecutorial discretion.

This evident conclusion is reinforced by the Supreme Court's description, in *AADC*, of deferred action as a nonprosecution decision:

> To ameliorate a harsh and unjust outcome, the INS may *decline to institute proceedings, terminate proceedings, or decline to execute a final order of deportation.* This commendable exercise in administrative discretion, developed without express statutory authorization, originally was known as nonpriority and is now designated as deferred action . . . . *Approval*

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[104] *Wayte v. United States*, 470 U.S. 598, 608 (1985) (quoting *United States v. Batchelder*, 442 U.S. 114, 125 (1979)).

> *of deferred action status means that . . . no action will thereafter be taken to proceed against an apparently deportable alien*, even on grounds normally regarded as aggravated.[105]

In their procedural claim, the states do not challenge the Secretary's decision to "decline to institute proceedings, terminate proceedings, or decline to execute a final order of deportation," nor does deferred action mean merely that "no action will thereafter be taken to proceed against an apparently deportable alien."[106]

Under DAPA, "[d]eferred action . . . means that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be *lawfully present* in the United States,"[107] a change in designation that confers eligibility for substantial federal and state benefits on a class of otherwise ineligible aliens. Thus, DAPA "provides a focus for judicial review, inasmuch as the agency must have exercised its power in some manner. The action at least can be reviewed to de-

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[105] *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 484 (emphasis added) (quoting 6 CHARLES GORDON, STANLEY MAILMAN & STEPHEN YALE-LOEHR, IMMIGRATION LAW AND PROCEDURE § 72.03[2][h] (1998)); *accord Johns v. Dep't of Justice*, 653 F.2d 884, 890 (5th Cir. Aug. 1981) ("The Attorney General also determines whether (1) to refrain from (or, in administrative parlance, to defer in) executing an outstanding order of deportation, or (2) to stay the order of deportation." (footnote omitted)); *see also Yoon v. INS*, 538 F.2d 1211, 1213 (5th Cir. 1976) (per curiam).

[106] *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 484 (quoting GORDON, MAILMAN & YALE-LOEHR, *supra* note 105).

[107] DAPA Memo at 2 (emphasis added).

termine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers."[108]

2.

"The mere fact that a statute grants broad discretion to an agency does not render the agency's decisions completely unreviewable under the 'committed to agency discretion by law' exception unless the statutory scheme, taken together with other relevant materials, provides absolutely no guidance as to how that discretion is to be exercised."[109] In *Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1051, we held that the INS's decision *not* to grant pre-hearing voluntary departures and work authorizations to a group of aliens was committed to agency discretion because "[t]here are no statutory standards for the court to apply . . . . There is nothing in the [INA] expressly providing for the grant of employment authorization or pre-hearing voluntary departure to [the plaintiff class of aliens]." Although we stated that "the agency's decision to grant voluntary departure and work authorization has been committed to agency discretion by law," *id.* at 1045, that case involved a challenge to the *denial* of voluntary departure and work authorization.

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[108] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832. Because the challenged portion of DAPA's deferred-action program is not an exercise of enforcement discretion, we do not reach the issue of whether the presumption against review of such discretion is rebutted. *See id.* at 832-34; *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159, 1161-62 (D.C. Cir. 1973) (en banc) (per curiam).

[109] *Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1051 (quoting *Robbins v. Reagan*, 780 F.2d 37, 45 (D.C. Cir. 1985) (per curiam)).

Under those facts, *Perales* faithfully applied *Chaney*'s presumption against judicial review of agency inaction "because there are no meaningful standards against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion." *Id.* at 1047. But where there is affirmative agency action—as with DAPA's issuance of lawful presence and employment authorization—and in light of the INA's intricate regulatory scheme for changing immigration classifications and issuing employment authorization,[110] "[t]he action at least can be reviewed to determine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers." *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832.

The United States asserts that 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14),[111] rather than DAPA, makes aliens granted deferred action eligible for work authorizations. But if DAPA's deferred-action program must be subjected to notice-and-comment, then work authorizations may not be validly issued pursuant to that subsection until that process has been completed and aliens have been "granted deferred action." § 274a.12(c)(14).

Moreover, the government's limitless reading of that subsection—allowing for the issuance of employment authorizations to any class of illegal aliens whom DHS declines to remove—is beyond the scope of what the INA can reasonably be interpreted to authorize, as we will

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[110] *See* infra part VII.

[111] "An alien who has been granted deferred action, an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority, [may be able to obtain work authorization upon application] if the alien establishes an economic necessity for employment." 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14).

explain.[112] And even assuming, *arguendo*, that the government does have that power, Texas is also injured by the grant of lawful presence itself, which makes DAPA recipients newly eligible for state-subsidized driver's licenses.[113] As an affirmative agency action with meaningful standards against which to judge it, DAPA is not an unreviewable "agency action . . . committed to agency discretion by law." § 701(a)(2).

B.

The government urges that this case is not justiciable even though "'a federal court's "obligation'" to hear and decide cases within its jurisdiction is 'virtually unflagging.'"[114] We decline to depart from that well-established principle.[115] And in invoking our jurisdiction, the states do not demand that the federal government "control immigration and . . . pay for the consequences of federal immigration policy" or "prevent illegal immigration."[116]

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[112] The class of aliens eligible for DAPA is not among those classes of aliens identified by Congress as eligible for deferred action and work authorization. *See infra* part VII.

[113] *See* TEX. DEP'T OF PUB. SAFETY, VERIFYING LAWFUL PRESENCE, *supra* note 56.

[114] *Lexmark*, 134 S. Ct. at 1386 (quoting *Sprint Commc'ns, Inc. v. Jacobs*, 134 S. Ct. 584, 591 (2013)).

[115] *See Sprint Commc'ns*, 134 S. Ct. at 590 ("Federal courts, it was early and famously said, have 'no more right to decline the exercise of jurisdiction which is given, than to usurp that which is not given.'" (quoting *Cohens v. Virginia*, 19 U.S. (6 Wheat.) 264, 404 (1821))).

[116] *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d at 664; *see also Sure-Tan*, 467 U.S. at 897 ("[P]rivate persons . . . have no judicially cognizable interest in procuring enforcement of the immigration laws . . . ."));

Neither the preliminary injunction nor compliance with the APA requires the Secretary to enforce the immigration laws or change his priorities for removal, which have expressly not been challenged.[117] Nor have the states "merely invited us to substitute our judgment for that of Congress in deciding which aliens shall be eligible to participate in [a benefits program]." *Diaz*, 426 U.S. at 84.[118] DAPA was enjoined because the states seek an

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Fiallo, 430 U.S. at 792 ("[T]he power to expel or exclude aliens [is] a fundamental sovereign attribute exercised by the Government's political departments largely immune from judicial control." (quoting *Shaughnessy v. United States ex rel. Mezei*, 345 U.S. 206, 210 (1953))).

[117] *See* Brief for Appellees at 2 ("[T]he district court's injunction does not touch—and this lawsuit has never challenged—the Executive's separate memorandum establishing three categories for removal prioritization, or any decision by the Executive to forego a removal proceeding.").

[118] The main thrust of the dissent could be summarized as claiming that "[i]t's Congress's fault." The President apparently agrees: As explained by the district court, "it was the failure of Congress to enact such a program that prompted [the President] . . . to 'change the law.'" *See infra* note 200. The dissent opens by blaming Congress for insufficient funding—*to-wit*, "decades of congressional appropriations decisions, which require DHS . . . to de-prioritize millions of removable each year due to these resource constraints." Dissent at 5-6 (footnote omitted).

The dissent's insistent invocation of what it perceives as Congress's inadequate funding is regrettable and exposes the weakness of the government's legal position. *See*, *e.g.*, Dissent at 1 ("unless and until more resources are made available by Congress"); *id.* ("if Congress is able to make more resources for removal available"); *id.* at 4 ("given the resource constraints faced by DHS"); *id.* ("to maximize the resources that can be devoted to such ends"); *id.* at 5 ("decades of congressional appropriations decisions"); *id.* at 6 ("due to these resource constraints"); *id.* at 7 n.9 ("if Congress were

opportunity to be heard through notice and comment, not to have the judiciary formulate or rewrite immigration policy. "Consultation between federal and state officials

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to substantially increase the amount of funding"); *id* at 14 ("DHS's limited resources"); *id.* at 43 n.55 ("the decades-long failure of Congress to fund"); *id.* at [50] ("Congress's choices as to the level of funding for immigration enforcement").

The facts, not commentary on political decisions, are what should matter. Thus the dissent's notion that "this case essentially boils down to a policy dispute," Dissent at 22, far misses the mark and avoids having to tackle the hard reality—for the government—of existing law. Similarly unimpressive is the dissent's resort to hyperbole. *E.g.*, Dissent at 10 ("[t]he majority's breathtaking expansion of state standing"); *id.* at 11 ("the majority's sweeping 'special solicitude' analysis"); *id.* at 11 n.14 ("the sweeping language the majority uses today"); *id.* at 42 n.54 ("this radical theory of standing"); *id* at 47 n.61 ("The majority's ruling . . . is potentially devastating.").

The dissent also claims that despite limited funding, "DHS . . . has been removing individuals from the United States in record numbers." Dissent at 20. At the very least, the statistics on which the dissent relies are highly misleading. Although DHS claims that a record-high of 0.44 million aliens were deported in 2013, it arrives at that number by using only "removals" (which are deportations by court order) per year and ignoring "returns" (which are deportations achieved without court order). If, more accurately, one counts total removals and returns by both ICE and the Border Patrol, deportations peaked at over 1.8 million in 2000 and plunged to less than half—about 0.6 million—in 2013. In that thirteen-year interim, the number of aliens deported per court directive (that is, removed) roughly doubled from about 0.2 million to 0.44 million. The total number of deportations is at its lowest level since the mid-1970's. U.S. DEP'T OF HOMELAND SEC., 2013 YEARBOOK OF IMMIGRATION STATISTICS 103tbl.39 (2014), http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/ois_yb_2013_0.pdf.

is an important feature of the immigration system,"[119] and the notice-and-comment process, which "is designed to ensure that affected parties have an opportunity to participate in and influence agency decision making,"[120] facilitates that communication.

At its core, this case is about the Secretary's decision to change the immigration classification of millions of illegal aliens on a class-wide basis. The states properly maintain that DAPA's grant of lawful presence and accompanying eligibility for benefits is a substantive rule that must go through notice and comment, before it imposes substantial costs on them, and that DAPA is substantively contrary to law. The federal courts are fully capable of adjudicating those disputes.

VI.

Because the interests that Texas seeks to protect are within the INA's zone of interests, and judicial review is available, we address whether Texas has established a substantial likelihood of success on its claim that DAPA must be submitted for notice and comment. The United States urges that DAPA is exempt as an "interpretative rule[], general statement[] of policy, or rule[] of agency organization, procedure, or practice." 5 U.S.C. § 553(b)(A). "In contrast, if a rule is 'substantive,' the exemption is inapplicable, and the full panoply of notice-and-comment requirements must be adhered to scrupu-

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[119] *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2508.

[120] *U.S. Steel Corp. v. EPA*, 595 F.2d 207, 214 (5th Cir. 1979).

lously. The 'APA's notice and comment exemptions must be narrowly construed.'"[121]

A.

The government advances the notion that DAPA is exempt from notice and comment as a policy statement.[122] We evaluate two criteria to distinguish policy statements from substantive rules: whether the rule (1) "impose[s] any rights and obligations" and (2) "genuinely leaves the agency and its decisionmakers free to exercise discretion."[123] There is some overlap in the analysis of those prongs "because '[i]f a statement denies the decisionmaker discretion in the area of its coverage . . . then

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[121] *Prof'ls & Patients for Customized Care v. Shalala*, 56 F.3d 592, 595 (5th Cir. 1995) (footnote omitted) (quoting *United States v. Picciotto*, 875 F.2d 345, 347 (D.C. Cir. 1989)).

[122] The government does not dispute that DAPA is a "rule," which is defined by the APA as "an agency statement of general or particular applicability and future effect designed to implement, interpret, or prescribe law or policy or describing the organization, procedure, or practice requirements of an agency and includes [various substantive agency functions] or practices bearing on any of the foregoing." 5 U.S.C. § 551(4).

[123] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (quoting *Cmty. Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943, 946 (D.C. Cir. 1987) (per curiam)); *see also Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 197 (describing general statements of policy "as 'statements issued by an agency to advise the public prospectively of the manner in which the agency proposes to exercise a discretionary power.'" (quoting *Chrysler Corp. v. Brown*, 441 U.S. 281, 302 n.31 (1979))); *Brown Express, Inc. v. United States*, 607 F.2d 695, 701 (5th Cir. 1979) ("A general statement of policy is a statement by an administrative agency announcing motivating factors the agency will consider, or tentative goals toward which it will aim, in determining the resolution of a [s]ubstantive question of regulation.").

the statement is binding, and creates rights or obligations.'"[124] "While mindful but suspicious of the agency's own characterization, we . . . focus[] primarily on whether the rule has binding effect on agency discretion or severely restricts it."[125] "[A]n agency pronouncement will be considered binding as a practical matter if it either appears on its face to be binding, or is applied by the agency in a way that indicates it is binding." *Gen. Elec.*, 290 F.3d at 383 (citation omitted).

Although the DAPA Memo facially purports to confer discretion,[126] the district court determined that "[n]othing

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[124] *Gen. Elec. Co. v. EPA*, 290 F.3d 377, 382 (D.C. Cir. 2002) (quoting *McLouth Steel Prods. Corp. v. Thomas*, 838 F.2d 1317, 1320 (D.C. Cir. 1988)).

[125] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (footnote omitted); *accord id.* ("[W]e are to give some deference, 'albeit "not overwhelming,"' to the agency's characterization of its own rule." (quoting *Cmty. Nutrition Inst.*, 818 F.2d at 946)); *Phillips Petroleum Co. v. Johnson*, 22 F.3d 616, 619 (5th Cir. 1994) ("This court, however, must determine the category into which the rule falls: '[T]he label that the particular agency puts upon its given exercise of administrative power is not, for our purposes, conclusive; rather it is what the agency does in fact.'" (alteration in original) (quoting *Brown Express*, 607 F.2d at 700)).

[126] *See Crane*, 783 F.3d at 254-55. In *Crane*, we held that the plaintiff ICE agents and deportation officers had not "demonstrated the concrete and particularized injury required to give them standing" to challenge DACA, *id.* at 247, because, *inter alia*, they had not alleged a sufficient factual basis for their claim that an employment action against them was "certainly impending" if they "exercise[d] [their] discretion to detain an illegal alien," *id.* at 255. That conclusion was informed by the express delegation of discretion on the face of the DACA Memo and by the fact that no sanctions or warnings had yet been issued. *Id.* at 254-55. We did not hold that DACA was an unreviewable exercise of prosecutorial discretion or

about DAPA '*genuinely* leaves the agency and its [employees] free to exercise discretion,'"[127] a factual finding that we review for clear error. That finding was partly informed by analysis of the implementation of DACA, the precursor to DAPA.[128]

Like the DAPA Memo, the DACA Memo instructed agencies to review applications on a case-by-case basis and exercise discretion, but the district court found that those statements were "merely pretext"[129] because only about 5% of the 723,000 applications accepted for evaluation had been denied,[130] and "[d]espite a request by the

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that the DACA criteria did not have binding or severely restrictive effect on agency discretion. *See id.* at 254-55.

[127] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 670 (second alteration in original) (quoting *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595).

[128] *Id.* at 579-60. *See* 3 JACOB A. STEIN ET AL., ADMINISTRATIVE LAW § 15.05[3] (2014) ("In general, the agency's past treatment of a rule will often indicate its nature.").

[129] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 669 n.101.

[130] *Id.* at 609; *see id.* (noting that "[i]n response to a Senate inquiry, the USCIS told the Senate that the top four reasons for denials were: (1) the applicant used the wrong form; (2) the applicant failed to provide a valid signature; (3) the applicant failed to file or complete Form I-765 or failed to enclose the fee; and (4) the applicant was below the age of fifteen and thus ineligible to participate in the program"); *id.* at *669 n.101 ("[A]ll were denied for failure to meet the criteria (or 'rejected' for technical filing errors, errors in filling out the form or lying on the form, and failures to pay fees), or for fraud.").

Relying on the Neufeld declaration, the dissent tries to make much of the distinction between denials and rejections. Dissent at 37. The district court did in fact mistakenly write "denials" (used to describe applications refused for failure to meet the criteria) in the above quoted passage where the USCIS response actually said

[district] [c]ourt, the [g]overnment's counsel did not provide the number, if any, of requests that were denied [for discretionary reasons] even though the applicant met the DACA criteria . . . ."[131] The finding of pretext was also based on a declaration by Kenneth Palinkas, the president of the union representing the USCIS employees processing the DACA applications, that "DHS management has taken multiple steps to ensure that DACA applications are simply rubberstamped if the applicants meet the necessary criteria";[132] DACA's Operating Procedures, which "contain[] nearly 150 pages of specific

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"rejections" (applications refused for procedural defects). USCIS reported that approximately 6% of DACA applicants were rejected and that an additional 4% were denied. USCIS does not draw a distinction between denials of applicants who did not meet the criteria and denials of those who met the criteria but were refused deferred action as a result of a discretionary choice.

USCIS could not produce any applications that satisfied all of the criteria but were refused deferred action by an exercise of discretion. *Id.* at 669 n.101 ("[A]ll were denied for failure to meet the criteria or 'rejected' for technical filing errors, errors in filling out the form or lying on the form, and failures to pay fees), or for fraud.")." Given that the government offered no evidence as to the bases for other denials, it was not error—clear or otherwise—for the district court to conclude that DHS issued DACA denials under mechanical formulae.

[131] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609. The parties had ample opportunity to inform the district court, submitting over 200 pages of briefing over a two-month period with more than 80 exhibits. The court held a hearing on the motion for a preliminary injunction, heard extensive argument from both sides, and "specifically asked for evidence of individuals who had been denied for reasons other than not meeting the criteria or technical errors with the form and/or filing." *Id.* at 669 n.101.

[132] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609-10.

instructions for granting or denying deferred action";[133] and some mandatory language in the DAPA Memo itself.[134] In denying the government's motion for a stay of

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[133] *Id.* at 669 (footnote omitted). For example, the DACA National Standard Operating Procedures ("SOP") specifically directs officers on which evidence an applicant is required to submit, what evidence is to be considered, "the weight to be given" to evidence, and the standards of proof required to grant or deny an application. U.S. DEP'TOOF HOMELAND SEC., NATIONAL STANDARD OPERATING PROCEDURES: DACA 42 (2012). To elaborate: An affidavit alone may not support an application, and DACA applicants must prove education and age criteria by documentary evidence. *Id.* at 8-10. The SOP also mandates, however, that "[o]fficers will NOT deny a DACA request solely because the DACA requestor failed to submit sufficient evidence with the request . . . officers will issue a [Request for Evidence (RFE)] . . . whenever possible." *Id.* at 42.

DHS internal documents further provide that "a series of RFE [ ] templates have been developed and *must* be used," and those documents remind repeatedly that "[u]se of these RFE templates is mandatory." (Emphasis added.) And "[w]hen an RFE is issued, the response time given shall be 87 days." SOP at 42.

These specific evidentiary standards and RFE steps imposed by the SOP are just examples the district court had before it when it concluded that DACA and DAPA "severely restrict[ ]" agency discretion. *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595. Far from being clear error, such a finding was no error whatsoever.

[134] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 648-49, 671 n.103. There the district court exhibited its keen awareness of the DAPA Memo by quoting the following from it:

> I [the Secretary] hereby direct USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA . . . . Applicants must file . . . . Applicants must also submit . . . . [Applicants] shall also be eligible . . . . Deferred action granted pursuant to the program shall be for a period of three years . . . . As with DACA, the above criteria are to be considered for all individuals . . . . ICE and

the injunction, the district court further noted that the President had made public statements suggesting that in reviewing applications pursuant to DAPA, DHS officials who "don't follow the policy" will face "consequences," and "they've got a problem."[135]

The DACA and DAPA Memos purport to grant discretion, but a rule can be binding if it is "applied by the agency in a way that indicates it is binding,"[136] and there was evidence from DACA's implementation that DAPA's discretionary language was pretextual. For a number of reasons, any extrapolation from DACA must be done carefully.[137]

> CBP are instructed to immediately begin identifying persons in their custody, as well as newly encountered individuals, who meet the above criteria . . . . ICE is further instructed to review pending removal cases . . . . The USCIS process shall also be available to individuals subject to final orders of removal.

Id. at 611-12 (paragraph breaks omitted.) This detailed explication of the DAPA Memo flies in the face of the dissent's unjustified critique that the district court "eschew[ed] the plain language of the [DAPA] Memorandum." Dissent at 31.

[135] *Texas v. United States*, No. B-14-254, 2015 WL 1540022, at *3 (S.D. Tex. Apr. 7, 2015).

[136] *Gen. Elec.*, 290 F.3d at 383; *accord McLouth Steel*, 838 F.2d at 1321-22 (reviewing historical conformity as part of determination of whether rule was substantive or non-binding policy, despite language indicating that it was policy statement); *id.* at 1321 ("More critically than EPA's language [,] . . . its later conduct applying it confirms its binding character.").

[137] The dissent, citing *National Mining Ass'n v. McCarthy*, 758 F.3d 243, 253 (D.C. Cir. 2014), criticizes the states and the district court for enjoining DAPA without "an early snapshot" of its implementation. Dissent at 32. First, the dissent overlooks a fundamental principle of preliminary injunctions: An injunction is

First, DACA involved issuing benefits to self-selecting applicants, and persons who expected to be denied relief would seem unlikely to apply. But the issue of self-selection is partially mitigated by the finding that "the [g]overnment has publicly declared that it will make no attempt to enforce the law against even those who are denied deferred action (absent extraordinary circumstances)." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 663 (footnote omitted).

Second, DACA and DAPA are not identical: Eligibility for DACA was restricted to a younger and less numerous population,[138] which suggests that DACA applicants are less likely to have backgrounds that would

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of no help if one must wait to suffer injury before the court grants it. *United States v. Emerson*, 270 F.3d 203, 262 (5th Cir. 2001) ("[T]he injury need not have been inflicted when application [for the injunction] is made or be certain to occur[.]").

Second, the dissent assumes the conclusion of *National Mining* —that the agency action in question is not subject to pre-enforcement review—is applicable here and asserts that we need an "early snapshot" of DAPA enforcement. The two cases are easily distinguished. The court found EPA's "Final Guidance" exempt from pre-enforcement review because it had "no legal impact." *National Mining*, 758 F.3d at 253; *see id.*, at 252 ("The most important factor concerns the actual legal effect (or lack thereof) of the agency action on regulated entities . . . . As a legal matter, the Final Guidance is meaningless . . . [and] has no legal impact."

DAPA, by contrast, has an effect on regulated entities (i.e. illegal aliens). DAPA removes a categorical bar to illegal aliens who are receiving state and federal benefits, so it places a cost on the states. The states are not required to suffer the injury of that legal impact before seeking an injunction. *See id.* 252.

[138] Approximately 1.2 million illegal aliens are eligible for DACA and 4.3 million for DAPA. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609, 670.

warrant a discretionary denial. Further, the DAPA Memo contains additional discretionary criteria: Applicants must not be "an enforcement priority as reflected in the [Prioritization Memo]; and [must] present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate." DAPA Memo at 4. But despite those differences, there are important similarities: The Secretary "direct[ed] USCIS to *establish a process, similar to DACA*, for exercising prosecutorial discretion," *id.* (emphasis added), and there was evidence that the DACA application process *itself* did not allow for discretion, regardless of the rates of approval and denial.[139]

Instead of relying solely on the lack of evidence that any DACA application had been denied for discretionary

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[139] Despite these differences and the dissent's protestations to the contrary (*see*, e.g., Dissent at 34-38), DACA is an apt comparator to DAPA. The district court considered the DAPA Memo's plain language, in which the Secretary equates the DACA and DAPA procedure, background checks, fee exemptions, eligibility for work authorizations, durations of lawful presence and work authorization, and orders DHS to establish, for DAPA, processes similar to those for DACA:

> In order to align the DACA program more closely with the other deferred action authorization outlined below, . . . I hereby direct USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA . . . . There will be no fee waivers, and like DACA . . . . As with DACA, the above criteria are to be considered for all individuals . . . .

DAPA Memo at 4-5. *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 610-11. The district court's conclusion that DACA and DAPA would be applied similarly, based as it was in part on the memorandum's plain language, was not clearly erroneous and indeed was not error under any standard of review.

reasons, the district court found pretext for additional reasons. It observed that "the 'Operating Procedures' for implementation of DACA contains nearly 150 pages of specific instructions for granting or denying deferred action to applicants" and that "[d]enials are recorded in a 'check the box' standardized form, for which USCIS personnel are provided templates. Certain denials of DAPA must be sent to a supervisor for approval[, and] there is no option for granting DAPA to an individual who does not meet each criterion." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 669 (footnotes omitted). The finding was also based on the declaration from Palinkas that, as with DACA, the DAPA application process itself would preclude discretion: "[R]outing DAPA applications through service centers instead of field offices . . . created an application process that bypasses traditional in-person investigatory interviews with trained USCIS adjudications officers" and "prevents officers from conducting case-by-case investigations, undermines officers' abilities to detect fraud and national-security risks, and ensures that applications will be rubber-stamped." *See id.* at 609-10 (citing that declaration).

As the government points out, there was conflicting evidence on the degree to which DACA allowed for discretion. Donald Neufeld, the Associate Director for Service Center Operations for USCIS, declared that "deferred action under DACA is a . . . case-specific process" that "necessarily involves the exercise of the agency's discretion," and he purported to identify several in-

stances of discretionary denials.[140] Although Neufeld stated that approximately 200,000 requests for additional evidence had been made upon receipt of DACA applications, the government does not know the number, if any, that related to discretionary factors rather than the objective criteria. Similarly, the government did not provide the number of cases that service-center officials referred to field offices for interviews.[141]

Although the district court did not make a formal credibility determination or hold an evidentiary hearing

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[140] The states properly maintain that those denials were not discretionary but instead were required because of failures to meet DACA's objective criteria. For example, Neufeld averred that some discretionary denials occurred because applicants "pose[d] a public safety risk," "[were] suspected of gang membership or gang-related activity, had a series of arrests without convictions" or "ongoing criminal investigations." As the district court aptly noted, however, those allegedly discretionary grounds fell squarely within DACA's objective criteria because DACA explicitly incorporated the enforcement priorities articulated in the DACA Operation Instructions and the memorandum styled Policies for Apprehension, Detention, and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 669 n.101.

[141] The United States was also given the chance to show that it planned to put DAPA into effect in a manner different from how it implemented DACA; it failed to take advantage of that opportunity. Further, after assuring the district court that "[USCIS] does not intend to entertain requests for deferred action under the challenged policy until February 18, 2015," the government later admitted to having approved dozens of DAPA applications and three-year employment authorization to more than 100,000 aliens satisfying the original DACA criteria; the government could not demonstrate which applicants, if any, were rejected on purely discretionary grounds, as distinguished from failure to meet the requirements set forth in the memoranda.

on the conflicting statements by Neufeld and Palinkas, the record indicates that it did not view the Neufeld declaration as creating a material factual dispute.[142] Further, the government did not seek an evidentiary hearing, nor does it argue on appeal that it was error not to conduct such a hearing. Reviewing for clear error, we conclude that the states have established a substantial likelihood that DAPA would not genuinely leave the agency and its employees free to exercise discretion.

B.

A binding rule is not required to undergo notice and comment if it is one "of agency organization, procedure, or practice." § 553(b)(A). "[T]he substantial impact test is the primary means by which [we] look beyond the label 'procedural' to determine whether a rule is of the type Congress thought appropriate for public participation."[143] "An agency rule that modifies substantive rights and interests can only be nominally procedural, and the exemption for such rules of agency procedure cannot ap-

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[142] After a hearing on the preliminary injunction, the government filed a sur-reply that included the Neufeld declaration. The government did not seek an evidentiary hearing, but the states requested one if the "new declarations create a fact dispute of material consequence to the motion." No such hearing was held, and the court cited the Palinkas declaration favorably, *e.g.*, Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609-10, 613 n.13, 669 n.101, yet described other sources as providing insufficient detail, *e.g.*, *id.* at 669 n.101.

[143] *U.S. Dep't of Labor v. Kast Metals Corp.*, 744 F.2d 1145, 1153 (5th Cir. 1984); *accord* STIEN, *supra*, § 15.05[5] ("Procedural and practice rules have been distinguished from substantive rules by applying the substantial impact test.").

ply."[144] DAPA undoubtedly meets that test—conferring lawful presence on 500,000 illegal aliens residing in Texas forces the state to choose between spending millions of dollars to subsidize driver's licenses and amending its statutes.[145]

The District of Columbia Circuit applies a more intricate test for distinguishing between procedural and substantive rules.[146] The court first looks at the "'effect on those interests ultimately at stake in the agency proceeding.' Hence, agency rules that impose 'derivative,' 'incidental,' or 'mechanical' burdens upon regulated individuals are considered procedural, rather than substantive."[147]

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[144] *Kast Metals*, 744 F.2d at 1153; *accord Brown Express*, 607 F.2d at 701-03.

[145] *See Avoyelles Sportsmen's League, Inc. v. Marsh*, 715 F.2d 897, 908 (5th Cir. 1983) ("[Substantive] rules . . . grant rights, impose obligations, or produce other significant effects on private interests. They also narrowly constrict the discretion of agency officials by largely determining the issue addressed." (omission in original) (quoting *Batterton v. Marshall*, 648 F.2d 694 (D.C. Cir. 1980))).

[146] *Compare Kaspar Wire Works, Inc. v. Sec'y of Labor*, 268 F.3d 1123, 1132 (D.C. Cir. 2001) (recognizing that the D.C. Circuit "has expressly rejected" "the Fifth Circuit's 'substantial impact' standard for notice and comment requirements"), *with City of Arlington v. FCC*, 668 F.3d 229, 245 (5th Cir. 2012) ("The purpose of notice-and-comment rulemaking is to assure fairness and mature consideration of rules having a substantial impact on those regulated." (quoting *United States v. Johnson*, 632 F.3d 912, 931 (5th Cir. 2011))), *aff'd on other grounds*, 133 S. Ct. 1863 (2013), *and Phillips Petroleum*, 22 F.3d at 620 (reaffirming substantial-impact test announced in *Brown Express*).

[147] *Nat'l Sec. Counselors v. CIA*, 931 F. Supp. 2d 77, 107 (D.D.C. 2013) (citation omitted) (quoting *Neighborhood TV Co. v. FCC*, 742

Further, "a procedural rule generally may not 'encode [] a substantive value judgment or put[] a stamp of approval or disapproval on a given type of behavior,'"[148] but "the fact that the agency's decision was based on a value judgment about procedural efficiency does not convert the resulting rule into a substantive one."[149] "A corollary to this principle is that rules are generally considered procedural so long as they do not 'change the *substantive standards* by which the [agency] evaluates' applications which seek a benefit that the agency has the power to provide."[150]

Applying those considerations to DAPA yields the same result as does our substantial-impact test. Although the burden imposed on Texas is derivative of conferring lawful presence on beneficiaries, DAPA establishes "'the *substantive standards* by which the [agency] evaluates applications' which seek a benefit that the agency [purportedly] has the power to provide"—a critical fact requiring notice and comment.[151]

Thus, DAPA is analogous to "the rules [that] changed the substantive criteria for [evaluating station allotment

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F.2d 629, 637 (D.C. Cir. 1984); *Am. Hosp. Ass'n v. Bowen*, 834 F.2d 1037, 1051 (D.C. Cir. 1987)).

[148] *Nat'l Sec. Counselors*, 931 F. Supp. 2d at 107 (alterations in original) (quoting *Am. Hosp.*, 834 F.2d at 1047).

[149] *Id.* (quoting *James V. Hurson Assocs. v. Glickman*, 229 F.3d 277, 282 (D.C. Cir. 2000)).

[150] *Id.* (alteration in original) (quoting *JEM Broad. Co. v. FCC*, 22 F.3d 320, 327 (D.C. Cir. 1994)).

[151] *Id.* (first alteration in original) (quoting *JEM Broad.*, 22 F.3d at 327).

counter-proposals]" in *Reeder v. FCC*, 865 F.2d 1298, 1305 (D.C. Cir. 1989) (per curiam), holding that notice and comment was required. In contrast, the court in *JEM Broadcasting*, 22 F.3d at 327, observed that "[t]he critical fact here, however, is that the 'hard look' rules did not change the *substantive standards* by which the FCC evaluates license applications," such that the rules were procedural. Further, receipt of DAPA benefits implies a "stamp of approval" from the government and "encodes a substantive value judgment," such that the program cannot be considered procedural. *Am. Hosp.*, 834 F.2d at 1047.

C.

Section 553(a)(2) exempts rules from notice and comment "to the extent that there is involved . . . a matter relating to . . . public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts." To avoid "carv[ing] the heart out of the notice provisions of Section 553",[152] the courts construe the public-benefits exception very narrowly as applying only to agency action that "clearly and directly relate[s] to 'benefits' as that word is used in section 553(a)(2)."[153]

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[152] *Hous. Auth. of Omaha v. U.S. Hous. Auth.*, 468 F.2d 1, 9 (8th Cir. 1972) ("The exemptions of matters under Section 553(a)(2) relating to 'public benefits,' could conceivably include virtually every activity of government. However, since an expansive reading of the exemption clause could easily carve the heart out of the notice provisions of Section 553, it is fairly obvious that Congress did not intend for the exemptions to be interpreted that broadly.").

[153] *Baylor Univ. Med. Ctr. v. Heckler*, 758 F.2d 1052, 1061 (5th Cir. 1985).

DAPA does not "clearly and directly" relate to public benefits as that term is used in § 553(a)(2). That subsection suggests that "rulemaking requirements for agencies managing benefit programs are . . . voluntarily imposed,"[154] but USCIS—the agency tasked with evaluating DAPA applications—is not an agency managing benefit programs. Persons who meet the DAPA criteria do not directly receive the kind of public benefit that has been recognized, or was likely to have been included, under this exception.[155]

In summary, the states have established a substantial likelihood of success on the merits of their procedural claim. We proceed to address whether, in addition to

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[154] *Alcaraz v. Block*, 746 F.2d 593, 611 (9th Cir. 1984).

[155] *See e.g.*, *Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 184, 196 (clinical services provided by Indian Health Service for handicapped children); *Hoerner v. Veterans Admin.*, No. 88-3052, 1988 WL 97342, at *1-2 & n.10 (4th Cir. July 8, 1988) (per curiam) (unpublished) (benefits for veterans); *Baylor Univ. Med. Ctr.*, 758 F.2d at 1058-59 (Medicare reimbursement regulations issued by Secretary of Health and Human Services); *Rodway v. U.S. Dep't of Agric.*, 514 F.2d 809, 813 (D.C. Cir. 1975) (food stamp allotment regulations). The Departments of Agriculture, Health and Human Services, and Labor have waived the exemption for matters relating to public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts. *See* 29 C.F.R. § 2.7 (Department of Labor); Public Participation in Rule Making, 36 Fed. Reg. 13,804, 13,804 (July 24, 1971) (Department of Agriculture); Public Participation in Rule Making, 36 Fed. Reg. 2532, 2532 (Jan. 28, 1971) (Department of Health and Human Services, then known as Health, Education, and Welfare).

that likelihood on the merits, the states make the same showing on their substantive APA claim.[156]

VII.

A "reviewing court shall . . . hold unlawful and set aside agency action . . . found to be—(A) arbitrary, capricious, an abuse of discretion, or otherwise not in accordance with law . . . [or] (C) in excess of statutory jurisdiction, authority, or limitations, or short of statutory right." 5 U.S.C. § 706(2). Although the district court enjoined DAPA solely on the basis of the procedural APA claim, "it is an elementary proposition, and the supporting cases too numerous to cite, that this court may affirm the district court's judgment on any grounds supported by the record."[157] Therefore, as an alternate and additional ground for affirming the injunction, we address this substantive issue, which was fully briefed in the district court.[158]

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[156] We reiterate that DAPA is much more than a nonenforcement policy, which presumptively would be committed to agency discretion. Therefore, even where a party has standing and is within the requisite zone of interests, a traditional nonenforcement policy would not necessarily be subject to notice and comment just because DAPA must undergo notice-and-comment review.

[157] *Palmer ex rel. Palmer v. Waxahachie Indep. Sch. Dist.*, 579 F.3d 502, 506 (5th Cir. 2009) (citation and internal quotation marks omitted).

[158] "This circuit follows the rule that alternative holdings are binding precedent and not obiter dictum." *United States v. Potts*, 644 F.3d 233, 237 n.3 (5th Cir. 2011) (citation and internal quotation marks omitted). At oral argument, the parties agreed that no further factual development is needed to resolve the substantive APA challenge.

Assuming *arguendo* that *Chevron*[159] applies,[160] we first "ask whether Congress has 'directly addressed the

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[159] *Chevron, U.S.A., Inc. v. Nat. Res. Def. Council, Inc.*, 467 U.S. 837 (1984).

[160] "[T]he fact that the Agency previously reached its interpretation through means less formal than 'notice and comment' rulemaking does not automatically deprive that interpretation of the judicial deference otherwise its due." *Barnhart v. Walton*, 535 U.S. 212, 221 (2002) (citation omitted). Instead, we consider factors such as "the interstitial nature of the legal question, the related expertise of the Agency, the importance of the question to administration of the statute, the complexity of that administration, and the careful consideration the Agency has given the question over a long period of time . . . ." *Id.* We need not decide whether DHS's interpretation satisfies that test, however, because, as we explain, the agency cannot prevail even under *Chevron*.

Chevron deference requires the courts to accept an agency's reasonable construction of a statute as long as it is "not patently inconsistent with the statutory scheme." *Am. Airlines, Inc. v. Dep't of Transp.*, 202 F.3d 788, 813 (5th Cir. 2000). As explained below, we decide that, assuming *Chevron* deference does apply, DAPA is not a reasonable construction of the INA, because it is "manifestly contrary" to the INA statutory scheme. *Mayo Found. for Med. Educ. & Research v. United States*, 562 U.S. 44, 53 (2011).

An agency construction that is manifestly contrary to a statutory scheme could not be persuasive under the test in *Skidmore v. Swift & Co.*, 323 U.S. 134 (1944), a test that affords agency constructions less deference than does *Chevron*. *See Gonzales v. Oregon*, 546 U.S. 243, 256 (2006) (providing that under *Skidmore*, an "interpretation is entitled to respect only to the extent it has the power to persuade"). Therefore, our decision to forego discussion of the *Walton* factors is sensible. *See Griffon v. U.S. Dep't of Health & Human Servs.*, 802 F.2d 146, 148 n.3 (5th Cir. 1986) (noting that where an interpretive rule is unreasonable, "there is no need to decide whether *Chevron* or a less exacting standard applies").

precise question at issue.'"[161] It has. "Federal governance of immigration and alien status is extensive and complex." *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499. The limited ways in which illegal aliens can lawfully reside in the United States reflect Congress's concern that "aliens have been applying for and receiving public benefits from Federal, State, and local governments at increasing rates," 8 U.S.C. § 1601(3), and that "[i]t is a compelling government interest to enact new rules for eligibility and sponsorship agreements in order to assure that aliens be self-reliant in accordance with national immigration policy," § 1601(5).

In specific and detailed provisions, the INA expressly and carefully provides legal designations allowing defined classes of aliens to be lawfully present[162] and confers eligibility for "discretionary relief allowing [aliens in deportation proceedings] to remain in the country."[163] Congress has also identified narrow classes of aliens eligible for deferred action, including certain petitioners for immigration status under the Violence Against

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[161] *Mayo Found.*, 562 U.S. at 52 (quoting Chevron, 467 U.S. at 842).

[162] *E.g.*, lawful-permanent-resident ("LPR") status, *see* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1101(a)(20), 1255; nonimmigrant status, *see* §§ 1101(a)(15), 1201(a)(1); refugee and asylum status, *see* §§ 1101(a)(42), 1157-59, 1231(b)(3); humanitarian parole, *see* § 1182(d)(5); temporary protected status, *see* § 1254a. *Cf.* §§ 1182(a) (inadmissible aliens), 1227(a)-(b) (deportable aliens).

[163] *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 (citing 8 U.S.C. §§ 1158 (asylum), 1229b (cancellation of removal), 1229c (voluntary departure)); *see also* § 1227(d) (administrative stays of removal for T- and U-visa applicants (victims of human trafficking, or of various serious crimes, who assist law enforcement)).

Women Act of 1994,[164] immediate family members of lawful permanent residents ("LPRs") killed by terrorism,[165] and immediate family members of LPRs killed in combat and granted posthumous citizenship.[166] Entirely absent from those specific classes is the group of 4.3 million illegal aliens who would be eligible for lawful presence under DAPA were it not enjoined. *See* DAPA Memo at 4.

Congress has enacted an intricate process for illegal aliens to derive a lawful immigration classification from their children's immigration status: In general, an applicant must (i) have a U.S. citizen child who is at least twenty-one years old, (ii) leave the United States, (iii) wait ten years, and then (iv) obtain one of the limited number of family-preference visas from a United States consulate.[167] Although DAPA does not confer the full panoply

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[164] Pub. L. No. 103-322, tit. IV, 108 Stat. 1902 (codified as amended in scattered sections of the U.S. Code). *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1154(a)(1)(D)(i)(II), (IV).

[165] USA PATRIOT Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-56, § 423(b), 115 Stat. 272, 361.

[166] National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2004, Pub. L. No. 108-136, § 1703(c)-(d), 117 Stat. 1392, 1694-95; *see also* 8 U.S.C. § 1227(d)(2) (specifying that "[t]he denial of a request for an administrative stay of removal [for T- and U-visa applicants] shall not preclude the alien from applying for . . . deferred action, or a continuance or abeyance of removal proceedings under any other provision of the immigration laws . . . .").

[167] *See* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1151(b)(2)(A)(i), 1182(a)(9)(B)(i)(II), 1201(a), 1255; *see Scialabba v. Cuellar de Osorio*, 134 S. Ct. 2191, 2199 (2014) (recognizing that legal immigration "takes time—and often a lot of it . . . . After a sponsoring petition is approved but before a visa application can be filed, a family-sponsored immigrant may stand in line for years—or even decades—just waiting for an immigrant visa to become available.").

of benefits that a visa gives, DAPA would allow illegal aliens to receive the benefits of lawful presence solely on account of their children's immigration status without complying with any of the requirements, enumerated above, that Congress has deliberately imposed. DAPA requires only that prospective beneficiaries "have . . . a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident"—without regard to the age of the child—and there is no need to leave the United States or wait ten years[168] or obtain a visa.[169] Further, the INA does not contain a family-sponsorship process for parents of an LPR child,[170] but DAPA allows a parent to derive lawful presence from his child's LPR status.

The INA authorizes cancellation of removal and adjustment of status if, *inter alia*, "the alien has been physically present in the United States for a continuous period of *not less than 10 years* immediately preceding the date of such application" and if "removal would result in *exceptional and extremely unusual hardship* to the alien's spouse, parent, or child, who is a citizen of the United

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[168] Although "[t]he Attorney General has sole discretion to waive [the ten-year reentry bar] in the case of an immigrant who is the *spouse or son or daughter* of a United States citizen or of an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, if it is established to the satisfaction of the Attorney General that the refusal of admission to such immigrant alien would result in *extreme hardship* to the citizen or lawfully resident spouse or parent of such alien," § 1182(a)(9)(B)(v) (emphasis added), there is no such provision for waiving the reentry bar for *parents* of U.S. citizen or LPR children.

[169] DAPA Memo at 4.

[170] *See* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1151(b)(2)(A)(i), 1152(a)(4), 1153(a).

States or an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence." 8 U.S.C. § 1229b(b)(1)(A) (emphasis added). Although LPR status is more substantial than is lawful presence, § 1229b(b)(1) is the most specific delegation of authority to the Secretary to change the immigration classification of removable aliens that meet only the DAPA criteria and do not fit within the specific categories set forth in § 1229b(b)(2)-(6).

Instead of a ten-year physical-presence period, DAPA grants lawful presence to persons who "have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010," and there is no requirement that removal would result in exceptional and extremely unusual hardship. DAPA Memo at 4. Although the Secretary has discretion to make immigration decisions based on humanitarian grounds, that discretion is conferred only for particular family relationships and specific forms of relief—none of which includes granting lawful presence, on the basis of a child's immigration status, to the class of aliens that would be eligible for DAPA.[171]

The INA also specifies classes of aliens eligible[172] and ineligible[173] for work authorization, including those "eli-

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[171] *See, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(v), (C)(iii) (authorizing waiver of reentry bars for particular classes of inadmissible aliens), 1227(a)(1)(E)(iii) (authorizing waiver of inadmissibility for smuggling by particular classes of aliens).

[172] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1101(i)(2) (human-trafficking victims in lawful-temporary-resident status pursuant to a T-visa), 1105a(a) (nonimmigrant battered spouses), 1154(a)(1)(K) (grantees of self-petitions under the Violence Against Women Act), 1158(c)(1)(B), (d)(2) (asylum applicants and grantees), 1160(a)(4) (certain agricultural workers in lawful-temporary-resident status), 1184(c)(2)(E), (e)(6)

gible for work authorization and deferred action"—with no mention of the class of persons whom DAPA would make eligible for work authorization. Congress "'forcefully' made combating the employment of illegal aliens central to '[t]he policy of immigration law,'"[174] in part by "establishing an extensive 'employment verification system,' designed to deny employment to aliens who . . . are not *lawfully present* in the United States."[175]

The INA's careful employment-authorization scheme "protect[s] against the displacement of workers in the United States,"[176] and a "primary purpose in restricting immigration is to preserve jobs for American workers."[177]

(spouses of L- and E-visa holders), (p)(3)(B) (certain victims of criminal activity in lawful-temporary-resident status pursuant to a U visa), 1254a(a)(1)(B) (temporary-protected status holders), 1255a(b)(3)(B) (temporary-resident status holders).

[173] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1226(a)(3) (limits on work authorizations for aliens with pending removal proceedings), 1231(a)(7) (limits on work authorizations for aliens ordered removed).

[174] *Hoffman Plastic Compounds, Inc. v. NLRB*, 535 U.S. 137, 147 (2002) (alteration in original) (quoting *INS v. Nat'l Ctr. for Immigrants' Rights, Inc.*, 502 U.S. 183, 194 n.8 (1991)).

[175] *Id.* (emphasis added) (citation omitted) (quoting 8 U.S.C. § 1324a(a)(1)).

[176] *Nat'l Ctr. for Immigrants' Rights*, 502 U.S. at 194 (quoting Powers and Duties of Service Officers; Availability of Service Records; Employment Authorization; Excludable or Deportable Aliens, 48 Fed. Reg. 51,142, 51,142 (Nov. 7, 1983)).

[177] *Id.* (quoting *Sure-Tan*, 467 U.S. at 893); *see* 8 U.S.C § 1182(a)(5)(A)(i) (listing among the classes of excludable aliens those who "seek[] to enter the United States for the purpose of performing skilled or unskilled labor . . . , unless the Secretary of Labor has determined and certified to the Secretary of State and the Attorney General that—(I) there are not sufficient workers who

DAPA would dramatically increase the number of aliens eligible for work authorization, thereby undermining Congress's stated goal of closely guarding access to work authorization and preserving jobs for those lawfully in the country.

DAPA would make 4.3 million otherwise removable aliens eligible for lawful presence, employment authorization, and associated benefits, and "we must be guided to a degree by common sense as to the manner in which Congress is likely to delegate a policy decision of such economic and political magnitude to an administrative agency."[178] DAPA undoubtedly implicates "question[s] of deep 'economic and political significance' that [are] central to this statutory scheme; had Congress wished to assign that decision to an agency, it surely would have done so expressly."[179] But assuming *arguendo* that *Chevron* applies and that Congress has not directly addressed the precise question at hand, we would still strike down DAPA as an unreasonable interpretation that is "manifestly contrary" to the INA. *See Mayo Found.*, 562 U.S. at 53.

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are able, willing, qualified (or equally qualified in the case of an alien described in clause (ii)) and available at the time of application for a visa and admission to the United States and at the place where the alien is to perform such skilled or unskilled labor, and (II) the employment of such alien will not adversely affect the wages and working conditions of workers in the United States similarly employed").

[178] *FDA v. Brown & Williamson Tobacco Corp.*, 529 U.S. 120, 133 (2000).

[179] *King v. Burwell*, 135 S. Ct. 2480, 2489 (2015) (quoting *Util. Air Regulatory Grp. v. EPA*, 134 S. Ct. 2427, 2444 (2014)).

The dissent, relying on *Texas Rural Legal Aid v. Legal Services Corp.*, 940 F.2d 685, 694 (D.C. Cir. 1991), theorizes that our analysis is nothing but an application of the *expressio unius est exclusio alterius*[180] canon of construction, which the dissent claims is of limited utility in administrative law. Dissent at 46. The dissent's observation is astray, however, because our statutory analysis does not hinge on the *expressio unius* maxim.

Moreover, the Supreme Court and this court have relied on *expressio unius* in deciding issues of administrative law. While noting "the limited usefulness of the *expressio unius* doctrine in the administrative context,"[181] some courts have declined to apply it mostly because they find it unhelpful for the specific statute at issue.[182] On other occasions, both our circuit and the Supreme Court have employed the canon in addressing administrative law.[183] Nor has the District of Columbia Circuit ex-

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[180] "A canon of construction holding that to express or include one thing implies the exclusion of the other, or of the alternative." BLACK'S LAW DICTIONARY 701 (10th ed. 2014).

[181] *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel v. FCC*, 183 F.3d 393, 443-44 (5th Cir. 1999).

[182] *Id.* at 444 (concluding, on the basis of other statutory provisions, that "Congress intended to allow the FCC broad authority to implement this section").

[183] *See, e.g.*, *Christensen v. Harris Cnty.*, 529 U.S. 576, 582-83 (2000) (discussing *expressio unius*, and concluding that it does not inform the result, without suggesting that it has no applicability in administrative law); *Rodriguez-Avalos v. Holder*, 788 F.3d 444, 451 (5th Cir. 2015) (per curiam) (relying on the expression of a term in one section of the statute to infer that its absence in another section suggests intent to foreclose its implication in the latter, even though

pressly foreclosed use of the canon on questions of statutory interpretation by agencies.[184] Our distinguished dissenting colleague, in fact, relied on *expressio unius* to uphold a decision of the Board of Immigration Appeals, concluding that the Equal Access to Justice Act did not provide for fee-shifting in proceedings before the Board. *See Hodge v. Dep't of Justice*, 929 F.2d 153, 157 n.11 (5th Cir. 1991) (King, J.).

For the authority to implement DAPA, the government relies in part on 8 U.S.C. § 1324a(h)(3),[185] a provi-

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the statute was subject to interpretation by the Board of Immigration Appeals).

[184] *See Indep. Ins. Agents of Am., Inc. v. Hawke*, 211 F.3d 638, 644 (D.C. Cir. 2000) ("The Comptroller argues that the *expressio unius* maxim cannot preclude an otherwise reasonable agency interpretation. This is not entirely correct. True, we have rejected the canon in some administrative law cases, but only where the logic of the maxim . . . simply did not hold up in the statutory context . . . . In this case, the two canons upon which we rely [*expression unius* and avoidance of surplusage] inarguably compel our holding that § 24 (Seventh) unambiguously does not authorize national banks to engage in the general sale of insurance as 'incidental' to 'the business of banking.'"); *see also* Ronald M. Levin, *The Anatomy of* Chevron*: Step Two Reconsidered*, 72 CHI.-KENT L. REV. 1253, 1280 (1997) ("[P]ost-*Chevron* cases have often set aside agency interpretations by drawing upon the full range of conventional statutory construction techniques at step on Arguments from statutory structure and purpose . . . are regularly examined at that step. So are canons of construction.") (footnotes omitted).

[185] "As used in this section, the term 'unauthorized alien' means, with respect to the employment of an alien at a particular time, that the alien is not at that time either (A) an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, or (B) authorized to be so employed by this chapter or by the Attorney General."

sion that does not mention lawful presence or deferred action, and that is listed as a "[m]iscellaneous" definitional provision expressly limited to § 1324a, a section concerning the "Unlawful employment of aliens"—an exceedingly unlikely place to find authorization for DAPA.[186] Likewise, the broad grants of authority in 6 U.S.C. § 202(5),[187] 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3),[188] and 8 U.S.C. § 1103(g)(2)[189] cannot reasonably be construed as assigning "decisions of vast 'economic and political significance,'"[190] such as DAPA, to an agency.[191]

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[186] *See Whitman v. Am. Trucking Ass'ns*, 531 U.S. 457, 468 (2001) ("Congress, we have held, does not alter the fundamental details of a regulatory scheme in vague terms or ancillary provisions—it does not, one might say, hide elephants in mouseholes.").

[187] "The Secretary . . . shall be responsible for . . . [e]stablishing national immigration enforcement policies and priorities."

[188] "[The Secretary] . . . shall establish such regulations; prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers; issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out his authority under the provisions of this chapter."

[189] "The Attorney General shall establish such regulations, prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers, issue such instructions, review such administrative determinations in immigration proceedings, delegate such authority, and perform such other acts as the Attorney General determines to be necessary for carrying out this section."

[190] *Util. Air*, 134 S. Ct. at 2444 (quoting *Brown & Williamson*, 529 U.S. at 159); *accord id.* ("When an agency claims to discover in a long-extant statute an unheralded power to regulate 'a significant portion of the American economy,' we typically greet its announcement with a measure of skepticism. We expect Congress to speak clearly if it wishes to assign to an agency decisions of vast 'economic

The interpretation of those provisions that the Secretary advances would allow him to grant lawful presence

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and political significance.'" (citation omitted) (quoting *Brown & Williamson*, 529 U.S. at 159)).

[191] The dissent urges the courts to give DHS leeway to craft rules regarding deferred action because of the scope of the problem of illegal immigration and the insufficiency of congressional funding. Dissent at 50. That is unpersuasive. "Regardless of how serious the problem an administrative agency seeks to address, . . . it may not exercise its authority 'in a manner that is inconsistent with the administrative structure that Congress enacted into law.'" *Brown & Williamson*, 529 U.S. at 125 (quoting *ETSI Pipeline Project v. Missouri*, 484 U.S. 495, 517 (1988)).

Because we conclude, at *Chevron* Step One, that Congress has directly addressed lawful presence and work authorizations through the INA's unambiguously specific and intricate provisions, we find no reason to allow DHS such leeway. There is no room among those specific and intricate provisions for the Secretary to "exercise discretion in selecting a different threshold" for class-wide grants of lawful presence and work authorization under DAPA. *Util. Air*, 134 S. Ct. at 2446 n.8.

We merely apply the ordinary tools of statutory construction to conclude that Congress directly addressed, yet did not authorize, DAPA. *See King*, 135 S. Ct. at 2483 (noting that to determine whether Congress has expressed its intent, we "must read the words in their context and with a view to their place in the overall statutory scheme"; *City of Arlington v. F.C.C.*, 133 S. Ct. 1863, 1868 (2013) ("First, applying the ordinary tools of statutory construction, the court must determine whether Congress has directly spoken to the precise question at issue."); *Util. Air*, 134 S. Ct at 2441 (recognizing the "fundamental canon of statutory construction that the words of a statute must be read in their context and with a view to their place in the overall statutory scheme"). Now, even assuming the government had survived *Chevron* Step One, we would strike down DAPA as manifestly contrary to the INA under Step Two. *See Chevron*, 467 U.S. at 844; *Mayo Found.*, 562 U.S. at 53.

and work authorization to any illegal alien in the United States—an untenable position in light of the INA's intricate system of immigration classifications and employment eligibility. Even with "special deference" to the Secretary,[192] the INA flatly does not permit the reclassification of millions of illegal aliens as lawfully present and thereby make them newly eligible for a host of federal and state benefits, including work authorization.

Presumably because DAPA is not authorized by statute, the United States posits that its authority is grounded in historical practice, but that "does not, by itself, create power,"[193] and in any event, previous deferred-action programs are not analogous to DAPA. "[M]ost . . . discretionary deferrals have been done on a country-specific basis, usually in response to war, civil unrest, or natural disasters,"[194] but DAPA is not such a

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[192] *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d at 665 ("Courts must give special deference to congressional and executive branch policy choices pertaining to immigration.").

[193] *Medellin v. Texas*, 552 U.S. 491, 532 (2008) (quoting *Dames & Moore v. Regan*, 453 U.S. 654, 686 (1981)). *But see NLRB v. Noel Canning*, 134 S. Ct. 2550, 2560 (2014) ("[T]he longstanding 'practice of the government' can inform our determination of 'what the law is.'" (citation omitted) (quoting *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 17 U.S. (4 Wheat.) 316, 401 (1819); *Marbury v. Madison*, 5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137, 177 (1803))).

[194] ANDORRA BRUNO ET AL., CONG. RESEARCH SERV., ANALYSIS OF JUNE 15, 2012 DHS MEMORANDUM, EXERCISING PROSECUTORIAL DISCRETION WITH RESPECT TO INDIVIDUALS WHO CAME TO THE UNITED STATES AS CHILDREN 9 (July 13, 2012); *see* CHARLOTTE J. MOORE, CONG. RESEARCH SERV., ED206779, REVIEW OF U.S. REFUGEE RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMS AND POLICIES 9, 12-14 (1980).

program. Likewise, many of the previous programs were bridges from one legal status to another,[195] whereas DAPA awards lawful presence to persons who have never had a legal status[196] and may never receive one.[197]

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[195] *See* Voluntary Departure for Out-of-Status Nonimmigrant H-1 Nurses, 43 Fed. Reg. 2776, 2776 (Jan. 19, 1978) (deferring action on the removal of nonimmigrant nurses whose temporary licenses expired so that they could pass permanent licensure examinations); Memorandum from Michael Cronin, Acting Exec. Assoc. Comm'r, Office of Programs, INS, to Michael Pearson, Exec. Assoc. Comm'r, Office of Field Operations, INS 2 (Aug. 30, 2001) (directing that possible victims of the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000 ("VTVPA"), Pub. L. No. 106-386, 114 Stat. 1464, "should not be removed from the United States until they have had the opportunity to avail themselves of the . . . VTVPA," including receipt of a T- or U-visa); Memorandum from Paul Virtue, Acting Exec. Assoc. Comm'r, INS, to Reg'l Dirs., INS, et al. 3 (May 6, 1997) (utilizing deferred action for VAWA self-petitioners "pending the availability of a visa number"); Press Release, USCIS, USCIS Announces Interim Relief for Foreign Students Adversely Impacted by Hurricane Katrina 1 (Nov. 25, 2005) (deferring action on students "based upon the fact that the failure to maintain status is directly due to Hurricane Katrina"); *see also United States ex rel. Parco v. Morris*, 426 F. Supp. 976, 980 (E.D. Pa. 1977) (discussing an INS policy that allowed aliens to "await the availability of a [Third Preference] visa while remaining in this country" under "extended voluntary departure").

[196] DAPA Memo at 4 (limiting DAPA to persons who "have no lawful status").

[197] *Id.* at 5 (specifying that DAPA "confers no . . . immigration status or pathway to citizenship"). Throughout the dissent is the notion that DHS must pursue DAPA because Congress's funding decisions have left the agency unable to deport as many illegal aliens as it would if funding were available. But the adequacy or insufficiency of legislative appropriations is not relevant to whether DHS has statutory authority to implement DAPA. Neither our nor the

Although the "Family Fairness" program did grant voluntary departure to family members of legalized aliens while they "wait[ed] for a visa preference number to become available for family members," that program was interstitial to a statutory legalization scheme.[198] DAPA

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dissent's reasoning hinges on the budgetary feasibility of a more thorough enforcement of the immigration laws; instead, our conclusion turns on whether the INA gives DHS the power to create and implement a sweeping class-wide rule changing the immigration status of the affected aliens without full notice-and-comment rulemaking, especially where—as here—the directive is flatly contrary to the statutory text.

The dissent's repeated references to DAPA as the appropriate continuation of a longstanding practice, *see, e.g.*, Dissent at 2, badly mischaracterizes the nature of DAPA. Previous iterations of deferred action were limited in time and extent, affecting only a few thousand aliens for months or, at most, a few years. MEMORANDUM ON THE DEP'T OF HOMELAND SEC.'S AUTH. TO PRIORITIZE REMOVAL OF CERTAIN ALIENS UNLAWFULLY PRESENT IN THE UNITED STATES AND TO DEFER REMOVAL OF OTHERS, Dep't of Justice, Office of Legal Counsel, at *15-*17 (Nov. 19, 2014).

Nothing like DAPA, which alters the status of more than four million aliens, has ever been contemplated absent direct statutory authorization. In its OLC memorandum, the Department of Justice noted that "extending deferred action to individuals who satisfied these and other specified criteria on a class-wide basis would raise distinct questions not implicated by ad hoc grants of deferred action." *Id.* at *18 n.8. Deferred action may be a decades-old tool, but it has never been used to affect so many aliens and to do so for so expansive a period of time.

[198] *See* Memorandum from Gene McNary, Comm'r, INS, to Reg'l Comm'rs, INS 1 (Feb. 2, 1990) (authorizing extended voluntary departure and work authorization for the spouses and children of aliens who had been granted legal status under the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, Pub. L. No. 99-603, 100 Stat. 3359); *see also* Memorandum from Donald Neufeld, Acting Assoc. Dir.,

is far from interstitial: Congress has repeatedly declined to enact the Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors Act ("DREAM Act"),[199] features of which closely resemble DACA and DAPA.

Historical practice that is so far afield from the challenged program sheds no light on the Secretary's authority to implement DAPA. Indeed, as the district court recognized, the President explicitly stated that "it was the failure of Congress to enact such a program that prompted him . . . to 'change the law.'"[200] At oral argument, and despite being given several opportunities, the attorney for the United States was unable to reconcile that remark with the position that the government now takes. And the dissent attempts to avoid the impact of the President's statement by accusing the district court and this panel majority of "relying . . . on selected excerpts of the President's public statements." Dissent at 24, 33 n.41.

USCIS, to Field Leadership, USCIS 1 (Sept. 4, 2009) (authorizing deferred action for "the surviving spouse of a deceased U.S. citizen if the surviving spouse and the U.S. citizen were married less than 2 years at the time of the citizen's death" because "no avenue of immigration relief exist[ed]" and "[t]his issue has caused a split among the circuit courts of appeal and is also the subject of proposed legislation in . . . Congress").

[199] "[A] bill that would have become the 'DREAM' Act never became law[; it] passed the House of Representatives during the 111th Congress and then stalled in the Senate." *Common Cause v. Biden*, 748 F.3d 1280, 1281 (D.C. Cir.) (citing H.R. 5281, 111th Cong. (2010)), *cert. denied*, 135 S. Ct. 451 (2014)).

[200] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 657 & n.71 (quoting Press Release, Remarks by the President on Immigration—Chicago, Ill., The White House Office of the Press Sec'y (Nov. 25, 2014)).

The dissent repeatedly claims that congressional silence has conferred on DHS the power to act. *E.g.*, Dissent at 46-47. To the contrary, any such inaction cannot create such power:

> "[D]eference is warranted only when Congress has left a gap for the agency to fill pursuant to an express or implied 'delegation of authority to the agency.'" *Chevron*[,] 467 U.S. at 843-44[]. To suggest, as the [agency] effectively does, that *Chevron* step two is implicated at any time a statute does not expressly *negate* the existence of a claimed administrative power . . . is both flatly unfaithful to the principles of administrative law . . . and refuted by precedent . . . . Were courts to *presume* a delegation of power absent an express *withholding* of such power, agencies would enjoy virtually limitless hegemony, a result plainly out of keeping with *Chevron* and quite likely with the Constitution as well.

Ethyl Corp. v. EPA, 51 F.3d 1053, 1060 (D.C. Cir. 1995).

Through the INA's specific and intricate provisions, "Congress has 'directly addressed the precise question at issue.'" *Mayo Found.*, 562 U.S. at 52. As we have indicated, the INA prescribes how parents may derive an immigration classification on the basis of their child's status and which classes of aliens can achieve deferred action and eligibility for work authorization. DAPA is foreclosed by Congress's careful plan; the program is

"manifestly contrary to the statute"[201] and therefore was properly enjoined.[202]

VIII.

The states have satisfied the other requirements for a preliminary injunction. They have demonstrated "a substantial threat of irreparable injury if the injunction is not issued." *Sepulvado*, 729 F.3d at 417 (quoting *Byrum*, 566 F.3d at 445). DAPA beneficiaries would be eligible for driver's licenses and other benefits, and a substantial number of the more than four million potential beneficiaries—many of whom live in the plaintiff states—would take advantage of that opportunity. The district court found that retracting those benefits would be "substantially difficult—if not impossible," Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 673, and the government has given us no reason to doubt that finding.

The states have shown "that the threatened injury if the injunction is denied outweighs any harm that will result if the injunction is granted." *Sepulvado*, 729 F.3d at 417 (quoting *Byrum*, 566 F.3d at 445). The states have alleged a concrete threatened injury in the form of millions of dollars of losses.

The harms the United States has identified are less substantial. It claims that the injunction "obstructs a

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[201] *Mayo Found.*, 562 U.S. at 53 (quoting *Household Credit Servs., Inc. v. Pfennig*, 541 U.S. 232, 242 (2004)).

[202] We do not address whether single, ad hoc grants of deferred action made on a genuinely case-by-case basis are consistent with the INA; we conclude only that the INA does not grant the Secretary discretion to grant deferred action and lawful presence on a classwide basis to 4.3 million otherwise removable aliens.

core Executive prerogative" and offends separation-of-powers and federalism principles. Those alleged harms are vague, and the principles the government cites are more likely to be affected by the resolution of the case on the merits than by the injunction.

Separately, the United States postulates that the injunction prevents DHS from effectively prioritizing illegal aliens for removal. But the injunction "does not enjoin or impair the Secretary's ability to marshal his assets or deploy the resources of the DHS [or] to set priorities," including selecting whom to remove first, *see* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 678, and any inefficiency is outweighed by the major financial losses the states face.

The government also complains that the injunction imposes administrative burdens because DHS has already leased office space and begun hiring employees to implement DAPA. Such inconveniences are common incidental effects of injunctions, and the government could have avoided them by delaying preparatory work until the litigation was resolved.[203] Finally, the government reasonably speculates that the injunction burdens DAPA beneficiaries and their families and discourages them from cooperating with law-enforcement officers and paying taxes. But those are burdens that Congress know-

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[203] *Cf. Kos Pharm., Inc. v. Andrx Corp.*, 369 F.3d 700, 728 (3d Cir. 2004) ("[W]hen the potential harm to each party is weighed, a party 'can hardly claim to be harmed [where] it brought any and all difficulties occasioned by the issuance of an injunction upon itself.'" (second alteration in original) (quoting *Opticians Ass'n of Am. v. Indep. Opticians of Am.*, 920 F.2d 187, 197 (3d Cir. 1990))).

ingly created, and it is not our place to second-guess those decisions.

The states have also sufficiently established that "an injunction will not disserve the public interest." *Sepulvado*, 729 F.3d at 417 (quoting *Byrum*, 566 F.3d at 445). This factor overlaps considerably with the previous one, and most of the same analysis applies.[204] The main difference is that, instead of relying on their financial interests, the states refer to the public interest in protecting separation of powers by curtailing unlawful executive action.

Although the United States cites the public interest in maintaining separation of powers and federalism by avoiding judicial and state interference with a legitimate executive function, there is an obvious difference: The interest the government has identified can be effectively vindicated after a trial on the merits. The interest the states have identified cannot be, given the difficulty of restoring the *status quo ante* if DAPA were to be implemented.[205] The public interest easily favors an injunction.

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[204] *Cf. Nken v. Holder*, 556 U.S. 418, 435 (2009) ("Once an applicant satisfies the first two factors [for a stay of an alien's removal pending judicial review], the traditional stay inquiry calls for assessing the harm to the opposing party and weighing the public interest. These factors merge when the Government is the opposing party.").

[205] *See Wenner v. Tex. Lottery Comm'n*, 123 F.3d 321, 326 (5th Cir. 1997) ("It is well settled that the issuance of a prohibitory injunction freezes the status quo, and is intended 'to preserve the relative positions of the parties until a trial on the merits can be held.' Preliminary injunctions commonly favor the status quo and seek to maintain things in their initial condition so far as possible until after

IX.

The government claims that the nationwide scope of the injunction is an abuse of discretion and requests that it be confined to Texas or the plaintiff states. But the Constitution requires "an *uniform* Rule of Naturalization";[206] Congress has instructed that "the immigration laws of the United States should be enforced vigorously and *uniformly*";[207] and the Supreme Court has described immigration policy as "a comprehensive and *unified* system."[208] Partial implementation of DAPA would "detract[] from the 'integrated scheme of regulation' created by Congress,"[209] and there is a substantial likelihood that a geographically-limited injunction would be ineffective because DAPA beneficiaries would be free to move among states.

Furthermore, the Constitution vests the District Court with "the judicial Power of the United States."[210] That power is not limited to the district wherein the court sits but extends across the country. It is not beyond the

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a full hearing permits final relief to be fashioned." (citation omitted) (quoting *Univ. of Tex. v. Camenisch*, 451 U.S. 390, 395 (1981))).

[206] U.S. CONST. art. I, § 8, cl. 4 (emphasis added).

[207] Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, Pub. L. No. 99-603, § 115(1), 100 Stat. 3359, 3384 (emphasis added).

[208] *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. at 2502.

[209] *Id.* (quoting *Wis. Dep't of Indus., Labor & Human Relations v. Gould Inc.*, 475 U.S. 282, 288-89 (1986)).

[210] U.S. CONST. art. III, § 1.

power of a court, in appropriate circumstances, to issue a nationwide injunction.[211]

"We expect Congress to speak clearly if it wishes to assign to an agency decisions of vast 'economic and political significance.'" *Util. Air*, 134 S. Ct. at 2444 (citation omitted). Agency announcements to the contrary are "greet[ed] . . . with a measure of skepticism." *Id.*

The district court did not err and most assuredly did not abuse its discretion. The order granting the preliminary injunction is AFFIRMED.

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[211] *See, e.g.*, *Earth Island Inst. v. Ruthenbeck*, 490 F.3d 687, 699 (9th Cir. 2006) (upholding a nationwide injunction after concluding it was "compelled by the text of [§ 706 of the] Administrative Procedure Act"), *aff'd in part & rev'd in part on other grounds by Summers v. Earth Island Inst.*, 555 U.S. 488 (2009) (concluding that the plaintiff organizations lacked standing to challenge the forest service action in question); *Chevron Chem. Co. v. Voluntary Purchasing Grps.*, 659 F.2d 695, 705-06 (Former 5th Cir. Oct. 1981) (instructing district court to issue broad, nationwide injunction); *Brennan v. J.M. Fields, Inc.*, 488 F.2d 443, 449-50 (5th Cir. 1973) (upholding nationwide injunction against a national chain); *Hodgson v. First Fed. Sav. & Loan Ass'n*, 455 F.2d 818, 826 (5th Cir. 1972) ("[C]ourts should not be loath[ ] to issue injunctions of general applicability . . . . 'The injunctive processes are a means of effecting general compliance with national policy as expressed by Congress, a public policy judges too must carry out—actuated by the spirit of the law and not begrudgingly as if it were a newly imposed fiat of a presidium.'" (quoting *Mitchell v. Pidcock*, 299 F.2d 281, 287 (5th Cir. 1962)).

KING, Circuit Judge, dissenting:

Although there are approximately 11.3 million removable aliens in this country today, for the last several years Congress has provided the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) with only enough resources to remove approximately 400,000 of those aliens per year.[1] Recognizing DHS's congressionally granted prosecutorial discretion to set removal enforcement priorities, Congress has exhorted DHS to use those resources to "mak[e] our country safer." In response, DHS has focused on removing "those who represent threats to national security, public safety, and border security." The DAPA Memorandum at issue here focuses on a subset of removable aliens who are unlikely to be removed unless and until more resources are made available by Congress: those who are the parents of United States citizens or legal permanent residents, who have resided in the United States for at least the last five years, who lack a criminal record, and who are not otherwise removal priorities as determined by DHS. The DAPA Memorandum has three primary objectives for these aliens: (1) to permit them to be lawfully employed and thereby enhance their ability to be self-sufficient, a goal of United States immigration law since this country's earliest immigration statutes; (2) to encourage them to come out of the shadows and to identify themselves and where they live, DHS's prime law enforcement objective; and (3) to maintain flexibility so that if Congress is able to make

[1] During the period from 2009 through 2014, approximately 2.4 million aliens were removed from the United States. DHS claims that this is a record number, and Plaintiffs do not dispute that point.

more resources for removal available, DHS will be able to respond.

Plaintiffs do not challenge DHS's ability to allow the aliens subject to the DAPA Memorandum—up to 4.3 million, some estimate—to remain in this country indefinitely. Indeed, Plaintiffs admit that such removal decisions are well within DHS's prosecutorial discretion.[2] Rather, Plaintiffs complain of the consequences of DHS's decision to use its decades-long practice of granting "deferred action" to these individuals, specifically that these "illegal aliens" may temporarily work lawfully for a living and may also eventually become eligible for some public benefits. Plaintiffs contend that these consequences and benefits must be struck down even while the decision to allow the "illegal aliens" to remain stands. But Plaintiffs' challenge cannot be so easily bifurcated. For the benefits of which Plaintiffs complain are not conferred by the DAPA Memorandum—the only policy being challenged in this case—but are inexorably tied to DHS's deferred action decisions by a host of unchallenged, preexisting statutes and notice-and-comment regulations enacted by Congresses and administrations long past. Deferred action decisions, such as those contemplated by the DAPA Memorandum, are quintessential exercises of prosecutorial discretion. As the Supreme Court put it sixteen years ago, "[a]t each stage [of the removal process] the Executive has discretion to abandon

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[2] In their briefing on appeal, Plaintiffs refute the "mistaken premise that this lawsuit challenges [DHS]'s decision not to remove certain unauthorized aliens," making clear that "[t]his lawsuit has never challenged any decision by the Executive to initiate or forego removal proceedings." Appellees' Suppl. Br. 18-19.

the endeavor, [including by] engaging in a regular practice (which had come to be known as 'deferred action') of exercising that discretion for humanitarian reasons or simply for its own convenience."[3] Because all parties agree that an exercise of prosecutorial discretion itself is unreviewable, this case should be dismissed on justiciability grounds.

Even if this case were justiciable, the preliminary injunction, issued by the district court, is a mistake. If the Memorandum is implemented in the truly discretionary, case-by-case manner it contemplates, it is not subject to the APA's notice-and-comment requirements, and the injunction cannot stand. Although the very face of the Memorandum makes clear that it must be applied with such discretion, the district court concluded on its own—prior to DAPA's implementation, based on improper burden-shifting, and without seeing the need even to hold an evidentiary hearing—that the Memorandum is a sham, a mere "pretext" for the Executive's plan "not [to] enforce the immigration laws as to over four million illegal aliens." *Texas v. United States*, 86 F. Supp. 3d 591, 638 (S.D. Tex. 2015) [hereinafter Dist. Ct. Op.]. That conclusion is clearly erroneous. The majority affirms and goes one step further today. It holds, in the alternative, that the Memorandum is contrary to the INA and substantively violates the APA. These conclusions are wrong. The district court expressly declined to reach this issue without further development, *id.* at 677, and the

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[3] *Reno v. Am.-Arab Anti-Discrimination Comm.*, 525 U.S. 471, 483-84 (1999).

limited briefing we have before us is unhelpful and unpersuasive. For these reasons, as set out below, I dissent.

I. The DAPA Memorandum

For all of the pounds of paper written about it, the DAPA Memorandum spans only five pages, and I attach it to this dissent for all to read.[4] The D.C. Circuit (which hears more of these administrative law cases than any other) has wisely observed that "[s]ometimes a simple reading of the document and study of its role in the regulatory scheme will yield the answer." *Pub. Citizen, Inc. v. U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Comm'n*, 940 F.2d 679, 682 (D.C. Cir. 1991).

The DAPA Memorandum is one of a series of memoranda issued by Secretary of Homeland Security Jeh Johnson on November 20, 2014. Broadly speaking, the Memorandum does two things: (1) it expands certain parameters of the prior DACA Memorandum, which provided guidelines for the use of deferred action with respect to certain individuals who came to the United States as children; and (2) it includes "guidance for case-by-case use of deferred action for those adults who have been in this country since January 1, 2010, are the parents of U.S.

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[4] The DAPA Memorandum is attached as Appendix A. As Appendix B, I also attach the Secretary's November 20, 2014, memorandum entitled "Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants" (Enforcement Priorities Memorandum), which itself is unchallenged by Plaintiffs, but which the DAPA Memorandum incorporates by reference.

[*Note: Appendix A and Appendix B are omitted from the end of this opinion, but the same two documents are reprinted at pp. 411a-429a,* infra.]

citizens or lawful permanent residents, and who are otherwise not enforcement priorities." Appx. A, at 3.

It is important to recognize at the outset the backdrop upon which the Memorandum was written. As noted above, given the resource constraints faced by DHS, the agency is faced with important prioritization decisions as to which aliens should be the subject of removal proceedings. Congress has made clear that those decisions are to be made by DHS, not by Congress itself—and certainly not by the courts. Indeed, Congress has delegated to the Secretary of Homeland Security the authority to "[e]stablish[] national immigration enforcement policies and priorities," 6 U.S.C. § 202(5),[5] and to "establish such regulations; . . . issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out" his responsibilities, 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3).[6] Congress has given the Secretary some direction, in appropriations bills, as to how removal resources should be spent—by specifically devoting funding toward "identify[ing] aliens convicted of a crime who may be deportable, and . . . remov[ing] them from the United States once they are judged deportable," and by making clear that the Secretary "shall prioritize the identification and removal of aliens convicted of a crime by the severity of that crime." Department of Homeland Security Appropriations Act, Pub. L. No. 114-4, 129 Stat 39, 43 (2015).

In an apparent effort to maximize the resources that can be devoted to such ends and consistent with his congressionally granted authority to set enforcement priori-

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[5] This statute was passed in 2002.

[6] A version of this statute was first passed in 1990.

ties, the Secretary contends that he has chosen—through the DACA and DAPA Memoranda—to divert some of DHS's resources away from the lowest priority aliens to better enforce the immigration laws against the highest priority aliens. *See Arpaio v. Obama*, 797 F.3d 11, 17-18 (D.C. Cir. 2015) ("DACA and DAPA . . . apply to the portion of the population that [DHS] considers not threatening to public safety and that has not had any involvement, or only minimal and minor involvement, with the criminal justice system."). By granting deferred action to children who were brought to this country unlawfully, and to the parents of U.S. citizens and lawful permanent residents (who otherwise have clean records), DHS has sought to "encourage [those individuals] to come out of the shadows, submit to background checks, pay fees, apply for work authorization . . . and be counted." Appx. A, at 3. Qualifying individuals can therefore work "on the books"—meaning, of course, that they will pay taxes on the income they earn. Furthermore, the Secretary points to the humanitarian aim of the DAPA Memorandum which, in conjunction with the DACA Memorandum, keeps families together—at least temporarily. *Cf. Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484 (describing "deferred action" as an "exercis[e] [of] discretion for humanitarian reasons or simply for [the Executive's] own convenience"). And by encouraging removable aliens to self-identify and register, both DACA and DAPA allow DHS to collect information (names, addresses, etc.) that will make it easier to locate these aliens in the future—if and when DHS ultimately decides to remove them. DHS is, of course, a law enforcement agency, and this is what we would call "good policing." Although these programs will likely apply to a

large number of individuals, that result is the inevitable upshot of decades of congressional appropriations decisions,[7] which require DHS (whether by policy or by practice) to de-prioritize millions of removable aliens each year due to these resource constraints.

The DAPA Memorandum operates in two ways. First, with respect to the expansion of DACA, the DAPA Memorandum: removes the age cap (the DACA Memorandum excluded applicants over 31 years of age); extends the period of deferred action from two to three years; and adjusts the date-of-entry requirement from June 15, 2007, to January 1, 2010. Second, the Memorandum establishes new deferred action guidance, "direct[ing] USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA, for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis, to those individuals" who meet six threshold criteria:

- have, on the date of this memorandum, a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident;
- have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010;
- are physically present in the United States on the date of this memorandum, *and* at the time of making a request for consideration of deferred action with USCIS;

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[7] The limited resources that Congress has made available to DHS for removals are most probably a product of the nation's limited resources, not of penuriousness on the part of Congress.

- have no lawful status on the date of this memorandum;
- are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the [Enforcement Priorities Memorandum[8]]; and
- present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate.

Appx. A, at 4.

The Memorandum describes deferred action as a "form of prosecutorial discretion by which the Secretary deprioritizes an individual's case for humanitarian reasons, administrative convenience, or in the interest of the Department's overall enforcement mission."[9] Appx. A, at 2. The Memorandum makes clear that deferred action: must be "granted on a case-by-case basis"; "may be terminated at any time at the agency's discretion";[10] and "does not confer any form of legal status in this country,

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[8] The Enforcement Priorities Memorandum classifies aliens into three priority categories: (1) "Priority 1 (threats to national security, border security, and public safety)"; (2) "Priority 2 (misdemeanants and new immigration violators)"; and (3) "Priority 3 (other immigration violations)." Appx. B, at 3-4. It further states that "resources should be dedicated, to the greatest degree possible, to the removal of aliens described in the priorities set forth above, commensurate with the level of prioritization identified." Appx. B, at 5.

[9] The Memorandum also summarizes the substantial past use of deferred action. Appx. A, at 2.

[10] Therefore, if Congress were to substantially increase the amount of funding available to DHS for removals, deferred action would pose no impediment to the removal even of these low-priority aliens.

much less citizenship." Appx. A, at 2. The Memorandum also states that although "immigration officers will be provided with specific eligibility criteria for deferred action, . . . the ultimate judgment as to whether an immigrant is granted deferred action will be determined on a case-by-case basis." Appx. A, at 5. In addition, the Memorandum makes clear that applicants must submit to a background check and pay a $465 fee.[11] Appx. A, at 4-5. It notes that deferred action recipients are eligible to apply for employment authorization.[12] Appx. A, at 4. Finally, the Memorandum states that it "confers no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship." Appx. A, at 5.

Holding that Plaintiffs' challenge to this Memorandum is likely to succeed on the merits, the majority reaches four conclusions, the first three of which were reached by the district court, to sustain the preliminary injunction: (1) Plaintiffs have standing; (2) this case is justiciable and reviewable under the APA; (3) the DAPA Memorandum constitutes a substantive rule that must go through the notice-and-comment process; and (4) the DAPA Memorandum is not authorized by statute and is a substantive violation of the APA. As to the first conclusion, the majority finds that Texas is entitled to "special solicitude" in the standing analysis as DAPA implicates state "sovereignty concerns." Majority Op. at 10, 14.

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[11] DHS contends that the fees collected will be sufficient to offset any administrative costs required to implement the DAPA Memorandum.

[12] As discussed below, this is merely a statement of preexisting law. *See* 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14).

Within this framework of standing, Texas has demonstrated an injury-in-fact because "it would incur significant costs in issuing driver's licenses to DAPA beneficiaries." *Id.* at 16. The majority contends that even though "Texas could avoid financial loss by requiring applicants to pay the full costs of licenses, it could not avoid injury altogether" because "avoid[ing] injury by incurring other costs does not negate standing." *Id.* at 19. Second, the majority determines that this action is reviewable under the APA even though DAPA helps set "priority levels" for immigration enforcement, suggesting that it "is a presumptively unreviewable exercise of 'prosecutorial discretion.'" *Id.* at 35. Despite this, the majority claims that DAPA is reviewable because it "affirmatively confer[s] 'lawful presence' and associated benefits." *Id.* While reaching this conclusion the majority also casts doubt on the validity of one of these benefits—a decades-old regulation on employment authorization, previously unchallenged in this suit. *See id.* at 39-40. Third, recognizing that the "DAPA Memo facially purports to confer discretion," *id.* at 44, the majority nonetheless deems the DAPA Memorandum a substantive rule subject to the requirements of notice-and-comment rulemaking, *id.* at 44-54. According to the majority, the district court's conclusion—that "[n]othing about *DAPA* '*genuinely* leaves the agency and its [employees] free to exercise discretion,'" Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 670—is not clearly erroneous, as there was at least "conflicting evidence on the degree to which *DACA* allowed for discretion." Majority Op. at 49 (emphasis added). Finally, the majority reaches beyond the district court's judgment to conclude that DAPA consti-

tutes a substantive violation of the APA because it "is not authorized by statute." *Id.* at 63. I address each of these conclusions in turn.

II. Standing

While I would conclude that this case is non-justiciable, I write first to note my concerns with the majority's primary theory of standing, premised on an expansive notion of state standing and Texas's increased costs due to the issuance of driver's licenses to DAPA recipients.

Building off a single, isolated phrase in *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. 497, 520 (2007), the majority finds that Texas has "special solicitude" in the standing inquiry because "DAPA affects the states' 'quasi-sovereign' interests." Majority Op. at 13. It is altogether unclear whether the majority means that states are afforded a relaxed standing inquiry by virtue of their statehood or whether their statehood, in of itself, helps confer standing. In any event, both propositions are deeply troublesome for three reasons.

First, this reasoning misconstrues the holding of *Massachusetts*. In that case, the Supreme Court held that Massachusetts had standing to challenge the EPA's decision not to regulate greenhouse gas emissions. *Massachusetts*, 549 U.S. at 526. But it did so based on Massachusetts' quasi-sovereign interests *and* a provision of the Clean Air Act that specifically "recognized a concomitant procedural right to challenge the rejection of its rulemaking petition as arbitrary and capricious." *Id.* at 520 (citing 42 U.S.C. § 7607(b)(1)). The Court there recognized that this statutory "authorization [was] of critical importance to the standing inquiry." *Id.* at 516. By

contrast, neither the INA nor the APA specifically authorizes this suit.[13] *Massachusetts* also provides little instruction as to how far this "special solicitude" reaches. The phrase appears only once in the *Massachusetts* majority opinion. And the Court has had no occasion to revisit it since.[14]

Second, the majority's ruling raises serious separation of powers concerns. Long recognized is "the foundational role that Article III standing plays in our separation of powers." *Ariz. Christian Sch. Tuition Org. v. Winn*, 131 S. Ct. 1436, 1443 (2011); *see also Steel Co. v. Citizens for a Better Env't*, 523 U.S. 83, 125 n.20 (1998) ("[O]ur standing doctrine is rooted in separation-of-powers concerns."). By preserving the proper bounds of Article III standing, the judiciary prevents itself from "aggrandiz[ing] itself . . . at the expense of one of the

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[13] The majority suggests that the APA does provide specific authorization for suit here because it "authorizes challenges to 'final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court.'" Majority Op. at 11 (citing 5 U.S.C. § 704). If this were the case, then presumably *Massachusetts* would have also referenced the APA as conferring a procedural right since the plaintiffs there challenged "final agency action" within the ambit of the APA. *Massachusetts* did not, however, even refer to the APA. And, as discussed below, it would be odd if the APA provided such an expansive procedural right to states.

[14] The notion of "special solicitude" was cited in *Arizona State Legislature v. Arizona Independent Redistricting Commission (AIRC)*, 135 S. Ct. 2652, 2664-65 n.10 (2015)—but as recognized by a treatise, in a footnote, in an opinion that did not concern federal-state suits. That footnote correctly observed that "[t]he cases on the standing of states to sue the federal government" are "hard to reconcile." *Id.* (quoting R. Fallon et al., *Hart and Wechsler's The Federal Courts and the Federal System* 263-66 (6th ed. 2009)).

other branches." John G. Roberts, Jr., *Article III Limits on Statutory Standing*, 42 Duke L.J. 1219, 1230 (1993).

The majority's breathtaking expansion of state standing would inject the courts into far more federal-state disputes and review of the political branches than is now the case. While the majority claims that the factors giving a state "special solicitude" to sue the federal government will "seldom exist," its holding suggests otherwise. Majority Op. at 28. If the APA provides the requisite procedural right to file suit—as the majority indicates, *see id.* at 11—and a state need only assert a "quasi-sovereign interest" to get "special solicitude," then states can presumably challenge a wide array of federal regulatory actions. The majority dismisses such a possibility as a "parade of horribles" and "unfounded" based on the lack of such lawsuits at the moment. *Id.* at 28. It is certainly possible to describe a parade of horribles that could result from the majority's decision, but those horribles are only "unfounded" because the majority's broad ruling is untested and unparalleled in any other court.[15]

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[15] The majority cites a number of cases to show that courts have held that states have standing to sue the federal government. Majority Op. at 12-13. Many of these cases are inapposite. *Alaska v. U.S. Department of Transportation*, 868 F.2d 441, 443-45 (D.C. Cir. 1989), found standing because the FAA, much like the CAA in *Massachusetts*, created a procedural right to sue available to states. The court in *Virginia ex rel. Cuccinelli v. Sebelius*, 656 F.3d 253, 272 (4th Cir. 2011), actually denied standing. And *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592 (1982), *Diamond v. Charles*, 476 U.S. 54 (1986), and *Maine v. Taylor*, 477 U.S. 131 (1986), did not involve federal–state suits. It is true that courts found state standing against the federal government in *Ohio ex rel. Celebrezze v. U.S. Department of Transportation*, 766 F.2d 228,

By relaxing standing for state suits against the federal government, we risk transforming ourselves into "ombudsmen of the administrative bureaucracy, a role for which [we] are ill-suited both institutionally and as a matter of democratic theory." Roberts, *supra*, at 1232.

Third, and relatedly, the majority's sweeping "special solicitude" analysis "has no principled limit." Majority Op. at 26. Recognizing that fact, it "stress[es] that [its] decision is limited to these facts." *Id.* at 16. Really? If that were true, there would be no need to assuage concerns regarding the opinion's breadth by arguing "that there are other ways to cabin policy disagreements masquerading as legal claims." *Id.* at 27. It is hard for me to see the bounds of the majority's broad ruling. Circuit Judge Alvin B. Rubin of this court once wrote that "[a]ny appellate opinion worth publishing should not merely give a reasoned disposition of the particular matter; it should, in addition, articulate a standard or a rule that can be applied by lawyers and judges in future cases." Alvin B. Rubin, *Views From the Lower Court*, 23 UCLA L. Rev. 448, 451 (1976). Anything else is a "'railway ticket' decision—good only for this day and station." *Id.*

232-33 (6th Cir. 1985), *Texas Office of Public Utility v. Federal Communications Commission*, 183 F.3d 393, 449 (5th Cir. 1999), *Wyoming ex rel. Crank v. United States*, 539 F.3d 1236, 1241-44 (10th Cir. 2008), and *New Mexico ex rel. Richardson v. Bureau of Land Management*, 565 F.3d 683, 696 n.13 (10th Cir. 2009), respectively. However, *Celebrezze* preceded the Supreme Court's more rigorous standing cases (i.e., post-*Lujan v. Defenders of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. 555 (1992)). And *Texas Office of Public Utility*, *Crank*, and *Richardson* offered very cursory examinations of state standing bereft of the sweeping language the majority uses today.

Today's decision is either just such a "railway ticket" (which, we are told, it actually aspires to be) or a broad, new-fangled concept of state standing with little instruction going forward.

Apart from its "special solicitude" analysis, the majority also holds that Texas has standing because it suffered an injury-in-fact traceable to DAPA. This injury results from two independent decisions made by Texas: (1) an alleged decision to underwrite the costs of issuing driver's licenses to all applicants; and (2) a decision to allow deferred action recipients to apply for driver's licenses. The majority claims, at length, that there is a "pressure to change state law," Majority Op. at 13, because the DAPA Memorandum has the downstream effect of expanding the pool of potential Texas driver's license applicants, thus increasing the costs Texas has made the choice to bear. This "pressure" is entirely manufactured by Plaintiffs for this case, and the majority and the district court have signed on. Nothing in the DAPA Memorandum suggests changes in state law. And I am skeptical that an incidental increase in state costs is sufficient to confer standing for the purposes of Article III. *See Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660, 664 (1976) ("No State can be heard to complain about damage inflicted by its own hand."). *But see Wyoming v. Oklahoma*, 502 U.S. 437, 448 (1992) (holding a state had standing to sue another state when it suffered "a direct injury in the form of a loss of specific tax revenues").[16]

[16] Recognizing the tension between these two cases, the majority claims that Texas's injury is like that of Wyoming in *Wyoming v. Oklahoma*, and not like that of Pennsylvania in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*. But a principal difference in these cases was that

Such a theory of standing—based on the indirect economic effects of agency action—could theoretically bestow upon states standing to challenge any number of federal programs as well (assuming states have the motivation to create the factual record to support those economic effects). I have serious misgivings about any theory of standing that appears to allow limitless state intrusion into exclusively federal matters—effectively enabling the states, through the courts, to second-guess federal policy decisions—especially when, as here, those decisions involve prosecutorial discretion. *See AIRC*, 135 S. Ct. at 2665 n.12 ("The Court's standing analysis . . . has been 'especially rigorous when reaching the merits of the dispute would force [the Court] to decide whether an action taken by one of the other two branches of the Federal Government was unconstitutional.'" (quoting *Raines v. Byrd*, 521 U.S. 811, 819-20 (1997)).

Pennsylvania, like Texas, tied its law to that of another sovereign, whereas Wyoming did not. *See Pennsylvania*, 426 U.S. at 663 ("Pennsylvania permits a tax credit to any of its residents for income taxes paid to other States, including, of course, New Jersey."). The majority asserts that forcing Texas to change its laws would be an injury because states have "a sovereign interest in 'the power to create and enforce a legal code.'" Majority Op. at 19 (footnote omitted). Yet if that is enough of an injury, then presumably Pennsylvania should have had standing in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, as Pennsylvania was faced with an instance where it could avoid injury but would have had to change its laws by "withdrawing th[e] credit for taxes paid to New Jersey." *Pennsylvania*, 426 U.S. at 664. The Court found that this was not a traceable injury, suggesting Texas's injury today is similarly "self-inflicted." *Id.*

III. Justiciability

I would conclude, as did Judge Higginson in dissenting from the denial of a stay in this action, that this case is non-justiciable. I write only to supplement Judge Higginson's thorough and forceful analysis as to this issue, with which I agree in full. *See generally Texas v. United States*, 787 F.3d 733, 769-84 (5th Cir. 2015) (Higginson, J., dissenting).

Plaintiffs concede that if the DAPA Memorandum is only an exercise in enforcement discretion—without granting any "additional benefits"—it is unreviewable under 5 U.S.C. § 701(a).[17] *See* Majority Op. at 54 n.156 (recognizing that "a nonenforcement policy . . . presumptively would be committed to agency discretion"); *see also Heckler v. Chaney*, 470 U.S. 821, 831 (1985) ("[A]n agency's decision not to prosecute or enforce, whether through civil or criminal process, is a decision generally committed to an agency's absolute discretion."); *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d 661, 667 (5th Cir. 1997) ("An agency's decision not to take enforcement actions is unreviewable . . . ."). Even the district court concluded that "decisions as to how to marshal DHS resources, how to best utilize DHS manpower, and where to concentrate its activities are discretionary decisions solely within the purview of the Executive Branch." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 645. But those are exactly the type of decisions the DAPA Memorandum contemplates. The

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[17] For this very reason, Plaintiffs do not challenge the Enforcement Priorities Memorandum. *See* Majority Op. at 35 ("[T]he states have not challenged the priority levels [the Secretary] has established." (footnote omitted)).

Memorandum is a statement embodying the Secretary's tentative decision, based on an assessment of the best uses of DHS's limited resources and under his congressionally delegated authority to "[e]stablish[] national immigration enforcement policies and priorities," 6 U.S.C. § 202(5), not to remove qualifying applicants for a certain period of time.

In other words, deferred action itself is merely a brand of "presumptively unreviewable" prosecutorial discretion. Majority Op. at 35; *see* 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) (describing "deferred action" as "an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority"); *see also Reno*, 525 U.S. at 483-84 ("At each stage [of the removal process] the Executive has discretion to abandon the endeavor, [including by] engaging in a regular practice (which had come to be known as 'deferred action') of exercising that discretion for humanitarian reasons or simply for its own convenience."); *Villas at Parkside Partners v. City of Farmers Branch*, 726 F.3d 524, 545 n.3 (5th Cir. 2013) (en banc) (Dennis, J., concurring) (describing DACA as an "exercise of . . . prosecutorial discretion"); *Arpaio*, 2015 WL 4772774, at *3 ("One form of discretion the Secretary of Homeland Security exercises is 'deferred action,' which entails temporarily postponing the removal of individuals unlawfully present in the United States."); 6 Charles Gordon et al., *Immigration Law & Procedure* § 72.03[2][h] (2014) ("To ameliorate a harsh and unjust outcome, the immigration agency may decline to institute proceedings, may terminate proceedings, or may decline to execute a final order of deportation. This commendable exercise in administrative discretion . . . is now

designated as deferred action."); *Steel on Immigration Law* § 14:42 (2014) (defining "deferred action" as the exercise of "discretionary authority by Immigration and Customs Enforcement, before or after a removal proceeding, not to remove the alien"). Much like pretrial diversion in the criminal context—which also developed over a period of decades without express statutory authorization—deferred action channels limited resources by allowing certain low-priority offenders to work openly and contribute taxes, thus reducing their burden on the system. Notably, such prosecutorial discretion is heightened in the immigration context. *See Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2499 (2012) ("A principal feature of the removal system is the broad discretion exercised by immigration officials.");[18] *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 490 (stating that concerns of judicial intrusion into enforcement decisions "are greatly magnified in the deportation context"); *see also* 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g) (stripping courts of jurisdiction "to hear any cause or claim by or on behalf of any alien arising from the decision or action by the Attorney General to commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien").

To the extent the exercise of deferred action "trigger[s]" other benefits, those are not new or "associated"

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[18] The majority repeatedly cites *Arizona* to support its position, including an assertion that "[t]he pervasiveness of federal regulation does not diminish the importance of immigration policy to the States." Majority Op. at 29-30 (citing *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2500). To say the least, the majority's reliance on *Arizona* is misplaced. *Arizona* repeatedly approved of broad discretion in federal immigration enforcement and actually held that a state law concerning immigration was preempted.

benefits contained within the DAPA Memorandum itself. Majority Op. at 35-36.[19] Rather, those benefits are a function of statutes and regulations that were enacted by Congresses and administrations long past—statutes and regulations which, vitally, *Plaintiffs do not challenge in this action*. The ability to apply for work authorization, the benefit on which the district court most heavily relied, has been tied to deferred action by a federal regulation since the early 1980s. The most current such regulation, promulgated in 1987, states that "[a]n alien who has been granted deferred action, an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority," may apply for work authorization "if the alien establishes an economic necessity for employment."[20] 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14). It is this regulation, not the DAPA Memorandum, which affords those granted deferred action the ability to apply for work authorization. Plaintiffs did not challenge the validity of this regulation,[21] and for good reason—it was promulgated via the

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[19] Nor does the DAPA Memorandum do anything to change the eligibility criteria for these benefits.

[20] A predecessor regulation enacted in 1981 similarly stated that "[a]ny alien in whose case the district director recommends consideration of deferred action, an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority" may apply for work authorization "[p]rovided, [t]he alien establishes to the satisfaction of the district director that he/she is financially unable to maintain himself/herself and family without employment." 46 Fed. Reg. 25,079, 25,081 (May 5, 1981) (formerly codified at 8 C.F.R. § 109.1(b)(6)).

[21] Plaintiffs suggested at oral argument that they were challenging the statutory underpinnings of 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14), but that position is inconsistent with their briefing on appeal, in which they contend that the work authorization regulation "is not facially

notice- and-comment process.[22] The majority nevertheless states that § 274a.12(c)(14) as applied "to any class of illegal aliens whom DHS declines to remove—is beyond the scope of what the INA can reasonably be interpreted to authorize." Majority Op. at 40. This broad holding is very damaging to DHS's immigration enforcement policy, which has operated, from time to time, on a class-wide basis. It stems from a deeply flawed reading of the INA that I discuss below.

Each of the other benefits relied on by the district court and the majority—not one of which is even mentioned on the face of the DAPA Memorandum—results, if at all, from prior statutes and notice-and-comment regulations: (1) the suspension of the accrual of certain time

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invalid," and in which they "assum[e] *arguendo* that the regulation is valid in all applications." Appellees' Br. 21 n.9. Moreover, throughout this litigation, Plaintiffs stated that they were challenging *only* the validity of the DAPA Memorandum; this is underscored by the complaint, which does not mention any challenge to the validity of 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14). In any event, Plaintiffs' minimal and inconsistent briefing as to this issue cannot be considered sufficient to mount a challenge to a notice-and-comment regulation that has been on the books for decades, and we should not decide this issue. *See United States v. Scroggins*, 599 F.3d 433, 446 (5th Cir. 2010) ("A party that asserts an argument on appeal, but fails to adequately brief it, is deemed to have waived it. It is not enough to merely mention or allude to a legal theory." (internal citations omitted)).

[22] Congress, of course, can limit those to whom work authorization is granted, *see* 8 U.S.C. § 1226(a)(3) (barring the Attorney General from granting work authorization to aliens who are "arrested and detained pending a decision on whether the alien is to be removed from the United States"), but it has not done so with respect to those eligible for deferred action under DAPA.

periods for purposes of the INA's illegal reentry bars;[23] (2) eligibility for certain Social Security and Medicare benefits;[24] and (3) the ability to obtain a Social Security number.[25] Like work authorization, these benefits are conferred not by the DAPA Memorandum, but by federal statutes or notice-and-comment regulations that are not being directly challenged in this case. And to the extent there are "state benefits," Majority Op. at 36, to individ-

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[23] *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1182(a)(9)(B)(ii) (passed in 1997) (stating that "[f]or purposes of [the illegal entry bars], an alien is deemed to be unlawfully present in the United States if the alien is present in the United States *after the expiration of the period of stay authorized by the Attorney General* or is present in the United States without being admitted or paroled" (emphasis added)); *Dhuka v. Holder*, 716 F.3d 149, 156 (5th Cir. 2013) ("'[A]uthorized by the Attorney General' describes an exercise of discretion by a public official." (quoting 8 U.S.C. § 1182(a)(9)(B)(ii))). DHS contends that this "benefit" is largely irrelevant here, as the vast majority of potential DAPA recipients have already accrued sufficient unlawful presence to trigger these statutory bars to admissibility.

[24] *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1611(b)(2)-(3) (passed in 1997) (stating that aliens "lawfully present in the United States as determined by the Attorney General" are not barred from receiving certain Social Security and Medicare benefits); 8 C.F.R. § 1.3(a)(4)(vi) (promulgated in 2011) (defining an "alien who is lawfully present in the United States" to include "[a]liens currently in deferred action status").

[25] *See* 20 C.F.R. § 422.104(a)(2) (promulgated in 2003) (stating that "[a]n alien . . . under other authority of law permitting [the alien] to work in the United States" is "eligible for SSN assignment"); 20 C.F.R. § 422.105(a) (promulgated in 2004) (stating that "a current document authorized by [DHS] that verifies authorization to work has been granted" is sufficient documentation "to enable SSA to issue an SSN card that is valid for work"). Under preexisting statutes and regulations, obtaining a Social Security number may also trigger other benefits, such as earned income tax benefits. *See* 26 U.S.C. § 32(c)(1)(E), (m) (passed in 1997).

uals granted deferred action, those benefits stem from *state* statutes or regulations, none of which is being challenged here. Accordingly, DAPA itself grants no new rights or benefits. It merely announces guidelines for the granting of deferred action (which may trigger benefits under this framework of preexisting law) in an effort to "encourage [qualifying individuals] to come out of the shadows, submit to background checks, pay fees, apply for work authorization . . . and be counted."[26] Appx. A, at 3. Even absent this announcement, the above benefits would attach to any grant of deferred action.

These tangible benefits aside, the majority concludes that the term "lawful presence" itself constitutes a benefit bestowed by the DAPA Memorandum because it is "a change in designation that confers eligibility for substantial federal and state benefits on a class of otherwise ineligible aliens." Majority Op. at 38. The majority ascribes some added importance to "lawful presence." The Memorandum uses the phrase "lawful presence" to describe what deferred action is: "Deferred action . . . simply means that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be lawfully present in the United States." Appx. A, at 2. As the Memorandum makes clear, "[d]eferred action does not confer any form of legal status in this country, much less citizenship," and it "may be terminated at any time at the agency's discretion." *Id.* at 2; *see also Dhuka*, 716 F.3d at 156 ("We conclude that 'lawful status' implies a right protected by

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[26] Of course, the DAPA Memorandum itself does not grant anyone deferred action. Those decisions will be made in the future by DHS agents guided by the DAPA Memorandum.

law, while '[lawful presence]' describes an exercise of discretion by a public official."); *Chaudhry v. Holder*, 705 F.3d 289, 292 (7th Cir. 2013) ("It is entirely possible for aliens to be lawfully present (*i.e.*, in a 'period of stay authorized by the Attorney General') even though their lawful status has expired."). Thus, "lawful *presence*" does not "confer[] legal *status* upon its recipients," Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 637 n.45 (emphasis added), nor does it constitute "a change in designation," Majority Op. at 38. Rather, both "lawful presence" and "deferred action" refer to nothing more than DHS's tentative decision, revocable at any time, not to remove an individual for the time being—i.e., the decision to exercise prosecutorial discretion. Even the majority acknowledges that, at its core, "deferred action [is] a nonprosecution decision." *Id.* at 37 (citing *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484).[27]

The Memorandum provides guidelines for this exercise of prosecutorial discretion, and thus falls squarely within DHS's "broad discretion to 'decide whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all.'" *Id.* at 34; *see also* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 645 (noting the Secretary's "virtually unlimited discretion when prioritizing enforcement objectives and allocating its limited resources"). Accordingly, precedent compels the conclusion that this case is non-justiciable.[28] *See Texas*, 106 F.3d at 667 (con-

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[27] Strangely, the majority cites to *Reno* to support its conclusion that Plaintiffs' claims are justiciable. *Reno* stressed the broad discretion afforded to federal immigration officials and found the case at hand to be non-justiciable based on certain jurisdiction-stripping provisions of the INA. *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484-92.

[28] This approach would not, as Plaintiffs suggest, constitute a "novel extension of *Heckler*," allowing DHS to insulate grants of

cluding that an "allegation that defendants have failed to enforce the immigration laws . . . is not subject to judicial review . . . because a court has no workable standard against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion"); *see also Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 831 (noting "the general unsuitability for judicial review of agency decisions to refuse enforcement"); *Johns v. Dep't of Justice*, 653 F.2d 884, 893 (5th Cir. 1981) ("Th[e] discretion [to commence deportation proceedings] is, like prosecutorial discretion, immune from review in the courts."). That a prior statute or regulation ties a benefit to the exercise of prosecutorial discretion does not make that ordinarily unreviewable exercise of prosecutorial discretion reviewable or turn it into "affirmative agency action." Majority Op. at 39. Rather, the challenge is properly leveled at the prior legislation that does the tying. *See U.S. Dep't of Labor v. Kast Metals Corp.*, 744 F.2d 1145, 1156 (5th Cir. 1984) (deeming a rule non-substantive where the rule's "substantive effect . . . is purely derivative" of preexisting statutes and regulations). Plaintiffs' failure to formally challenge the statutes and regulations discussed above—either through the political process at the time of their enactment or in this litigation—does not change the equation. It is always a risk that a different

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benefits from judicial review by attaching them to any enforcement policy. Appellees' Br. 18. Rather, the crucial fact rendering this action non-justiciable is that the benefits at issue are not being granted by the Memorandum itself. Thus, Plaintiffs' doomsday scenario of DHS "grant[ing] . . . voting rights . . . in conjunction with a non-removal policy," Appellees' Br. 18-19, would certainly be reviewable, as no preexisting statute or regulation grants voting rights to deferred action recipients.

administration will be more generous with its discretion than the one in place at the time the statutes or regulations are passed. Moreover, that these decisions will likely be made with respect to a large number of individuals, and that DHS seeks to organize the process by memorializing these decisions and notifying applicants of the results, does not transform deferred action into anything other than an exercise of prosecutorial discretion. Rather, as noted above, the scale of this policy is a direct function of Congress's past appropriations decisions.

Nor can it possibly be maintained that this exercise of prosecutorial discretion may be reviewed because DHS, which has been removing individuals from the United States in record numbers, "'consciously and expressly adopted a general policy' that is so extreme as to amount to an abdication of its statutory responsibilities."[29] *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 833 n.4. Although Plaintiffs may prefer a different approach to immigration enforcement,

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[29] In determining that DHS has adopted such a policy, the district court reasoned that "the Government here is 'doing nothing to enforce' the removal laws against a class of millions of individuals." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 663 (quoting *Texas*, 106 F.3d at 667). But by cabining its sample size only to DAPA-eligible individuals, and ignoring DHS's record number of enforcement efforts against others, the district court's conclusion was preordained. Under the district court's logic, if DHS grants deferred action to ten individuals, it would have "abdicated its duty" to enforce the immigration laws as to those ten individuals—rendering that action reviewable. Reading *Heckler*'s narrow exception so broadly would swallow the general rule that "an agency's decision not to take enforcement action should be presumed immune from judicial review." *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832. The majority does not appear to endorse this misrepresentation today.

they "do[] not contend that federal defendants are *doing nothing* to enforce the immigration laws." *Texas*, 106 F.3d at 667 (emphasis added). As we have stated, "[r]eal or perceived inadequate enforcement of immigration laws does not constitute a reviewable abdication of duty." *Id.*; *see also Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 834 ("The danger that agencies may not carry out their delegated powers with sufficient vigor does not necessarily lead to the conclusion that courts are the most appropriate body to police this aspect of their performance.").

Finally, I would note that characterizing any "associated" benefits as flowing exclusively from the DAPA Memorandum—despite the fact that they stem from separate legal authorities—sets a dangerous precedent. The majority concludes that, in order to be reviewable, "DAPA need not directly confer public benefits"; merely "removing a categorical bar on receipt of those benefits and thereby making a class of persons newly eligible for them 'provides a focus for judicial review.'" Majority Op. at 37. Under this logic, any non-enforcement decision that triggers a collateral benefit somewhere within the background regulatory and statutory scheme is subject to review by the judiciary. As DHS notes, many exercises of prosecutorial discretion trigger such benefits. For example, a prosecutor's decision to place an individual in a federal pretrial diversion program in lieu of prosecution may result in that individual receiving drug treatment. *See* Thomas E. Ulrich, *Pretrial Diversion in the Federal Court System*, Fed. Prob., Dec. 2002 at 30, 32.[30] At the

[30] While the majority suggests DAPA is more than "nonprosecution" because it "remov[es] a categorical bar on [the] receipt of . . .

very least, the majority's reasoning would render reviewable every single exercise of deferred action—programmatic or *ad hoc*—as any grant of deferred action triggers benefits under the statutes and regulations discussed above. While the district court distinguished away many past exercises of deferred action as "different in kind and scope" from DAPA for the purposes of reviewability,[31] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 664, the majority does not cabin its conclusion. In fact, it suggests that all exercises of deferred action would be subject to judicial scrutiny. Majority Op. at 35 ("Deferred action . . . is much more than nonenforcement.")

This is logic to which I cannot subscribe. Because the DAPA Memorandum contains only guidelines for the exercise of prosecutorial discretion and does not itself confer any benefits to DAPA recipients, I would deem this case non-justiciable. The policy decisions at issue in this case are best resolved not by judicial fiat, but via the political process. That this case essentially boils down to a policy dispute is underscored not only by the dozens of amicus briefs filed in this case by interested parties across the ideological spectrum—Mayors, Senators, Representatives, and law enforcement officials, among others—but also by the district court's opinion, which repeatedly ex-

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benefits," Majority Op. at 37, diversion also removes a categorical bar on the receipt of benefits as convicted drug offenders are otherwise ineligible for certain public benefits. *See, e.g.*, 21 U.S.C. § 862a(a) (preventing these offenders from receiving TANF and food stamps).

[31] As noted by DHS and various amici, the granting of deferred action—even to whole classes of individuals—has occurred for decades, under both Republican and Democratic administrations.

presses frustration that the Secretary is "actively act[ing] to thwart" the immigration laws and "is not just rewriting the laws [but is] creating them from scratch." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 663. The majority's observation that this suit involves "policy disagreements masquerading as legal claims" is also telling. Majority Op. at 27. Whether or not the district court's characterization of this case is accurate—though the record number of removals in recent years demonstrates that it is not—to the extent some are unhappy with the vigor of DHS's enforcement efforts, their remedies lie in the political process, not in litigation. *See Mathews v. Diaz*, 426 U.S. 67, 81 (1976) ("For reasons long recognized as valid, the responsibility for regulating the relationship between the United States and our alien visitors has been committed to the political branches of the Federal Government."). Congress is free to constrain DHS's discretion, and, ultimately, the voters are free to express their approval or disapproval of DAPA through their choice of elected officials. *See Lincoln v. Vigil*, 508 U.S. 182, 193 (1993) ("[W]e hardly need to note that an agency's decision to ignore congressional expectations may expose it to grave political consequences.").

Accordingly, this case should be dismissed on justiciability grounds. However, for the sake of thoroughness and to correct serious errors committed by the district court in granting the preliminary injunction and the majority in affirming that grant, I discuss below the merits of both APA claims.

IV. APA Procedural Claim

Our precedent is clear: "As long as the agency remains free to consider the individual facts in the various cases that arise, then the agency action in question has not established a binding norm," and thus need not go through the procedures of notice-and-comment. *Prof'ls & Patients for Customized Care v. Shalala*, 56 F.3d 592, 596-97 (5th Cir. 1995) (citation omitted).[32] Therefore, in order for Plaintiffs to establish a substantial likelihood of success on the merits—the required showing for a preliminary injunction, *Jackson Women's Health Org. v. Currier*, 760 F.3d 448, 452 (5th Cir. 2014)—Plaintiffs bore the burden of demonstrating that the Memorandum was non-discretionary. As the majority admits, the Memorandum "facially purports to confer discretion." Major-

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[32] As the Fifth Circuit has noted, in determining whether a rule is substantive, and thus subject to notice-and-comment procedures, we must "focus[] primarily on whether the rule has binding effect on agency discretion or severely restricts it." *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (footnote omitted). Plaintiffs now appear to argue (for the first time) on appeal that regardless of the discretion it confers, the DAPA Memorandum is a substantive rule because it "changed the law" by granting benefits to 4.3 million individuals. But as discussed above, the DAPA Memorandum itself confers no additional benefits. Moreover, the scale of the program has no bearing on the substantive rule inquiry—i.e., whether the policy will be administered with case-by-case discretion. *See id.*; *McLouth Steel Prods. Corp. v. Thomas*, 838 F.2d 1317, 1320 (D.C. Cir. 1988) ("The question for purposes of [5 U.S.C.] § 553 is whether a statement is a rule of present binding effect; the answer depends on whether the statement constrains the agency's discretion."). Indeed, Plaintiffs put it best in a letter brief filed with the district court: "To be sure, 'case-by-case discretion' determines whether the [Memorandum] is a 'substantive rule' under the APA."

ity Op. at 44. But the district court ignored this clear language, concluding that agency officials implementing DAPA will defy the Memorandum and simply rubberstamp applications. In so doing, the district court disregarded a mountain of highly probative evidence from DHS officials charged with implementing DAPA, relying instead on selected excerpts of the President's public statements, facts relating to a program materially distinguishable from the one at issue here, and improper burden-shifting. The majority now adopts the district court's conclusions wholesale and without question. *Id.* at 50. For the reasons set out below, I would hold that the Memorandum is nothing more than a general statement of policy and that the district court's findings cannot stand, even under clear error review.

A. The Language and Substance of the DAPA Memorandum

In determining whether the DAPA Memorandum constitutes a substantive rule, we must begin with the words of the Memorandum itself. *See Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 596. The Memorandum states that it reflects "new policies," Appx. A, at 1, and "guidance for case-by-case use of deferred action," Appx. A, at 3. Accordingly, the Secretary characterizes the Memorandum as a "general statement[] of policy"—which is not subject to the notice-and-comment process. 5 U.S.C. § 553(b)(3)(A); *see also Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 596 ("[T]he description as 'policy' in the [statement] itself . . . militate[s] in favor of a holding that [the statement] is not a substantive rule."). The Memorandum also repeatedly references (more than ten times) the discretionary, "case-by-case" determinations to be made by agents in deciding

whether to grant deferred action. It emphasizes that, despite the criteria contained therein, "the ultimate judgment as to whether an immigrant is granted deferred action will be determined on a case-by-case basis."[33] Appx. A, at 5; *see also Ass'n of Flight Attendants-CWA v. Huerta*, 785 F.3d 710, 717 (D.C. Cir. 2015) (stating that a document "riddled with caveats is not" likely to constitute a substantive rule); *Brock v. Cathedral Bluffs Shale Oil Co.*, 796 F.2d 533, 538 (D.C. Cir. 1986) (Scalia, J.) (concluding that agency guidelines for determining when to

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[33] The Memorandum also states that (1) "DHS must exercise prosecutorial discretion in the enforcement of the law"; (2) our immigration laws "are not designed to be blindly enforced without consideration given to the individual circumstances of each case"; (3) "[d]eferred action is a form of prosecutorial discretion by which the Secretary deprioritizes an individual's case for humanitarian reasons, administrative convenience, or in the interest of the Department's overall enforcement mission"; (4) "deferred action is legally available so long as it is granted on a case-by-case basis, and it may be terminated at any time at the agency's discretion"; (5) "[h]istorically, deferred action has been used . . . on a case-by-case basis"; (6) "I am now expanding certain parameters of DACA and issuing guidance for case-by-case use of deferred action"; (7) "[c]ase-by-case exercises of deferred action for children and long- standing members of American society who are not enforcement priorities are in this Nation's security and economic interests"; (8) "I hereby direct USCIS to establish a process . . . for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis"; (9) "ICE is . . . instructed to review pending removal cases . . . of individuals identified who meet the above criteria, and to refer such individuals to USCIS for case-by-case determinations"; and (10) "[i]t remains within the authority of the Executive Branch . . . to set forth policy for the exercise of prosecutorial discretion and deferred action within the framework of existing law." Appx. A, at 1-5.

take enforcement action against mine operators did not constitute a substantive rule where "[t]he language of the guidelines is replete with indications that the Secretary retained his discretion to cite production-operators as he saw fit"). Indeed, this court has already recognized the "discretion expressly granted under" DAPA—discretion that allows "agent[s] to deal with each alien on a case by case basis." *Crane v. Johnson*, 783 F.3d 244, 255 (5th Cir. 2015) (concluding that, on the record in *Crane,* the plaintiffs lacked standing to challenge DACA).

The discretionary nature of the DAPA Memorandum is further supported by the policy's substance. Although some of the Memorandum's criteria can be routinely applied,[34] many will require agents to make discretionary judgments as to the application of the respective criteria to the facts of a particular case. For example, agents must determine whether an applicant "pose[s] a danger to national security," Appx. B, at 3, whether the applicant is "a threat to . . . border security" or "public safety," Appx. B, at 4, and whether the applicant has "significantly abused the visa or visa waiver programs,"[35] Appx. B, at 4. Such criteria cannot be mechanically applied, but rather entail a degree of judgment; in other words, they are "im-

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[34] For example: whether the applicant has "a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident." Appx. A, at 4.

[35] Although these criteria come from the Enforcement Priorities Memorandum, the DAPA Memorandum incorporates these criteria into its own, stating that deferred action may be granted to individuals who "are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the" Enforcement Priorities Memorandum. Appx. A, at 4.

precise and discretionary—not exact and certain." [36] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 600 (concluding that an FDA policy delineating nine factors the agency should consider in determining whether to bring an enforcement action did not constitute a substantive rule). This aspect of the DAPA Memorandum appears to have been overlooked by the district court, which—in analyzing whether the Memorandum allows for case-by-case discretion—was fixated on the extent to which applicants meeting DAPA's criteria would nonetheless be denied deferred action.[37] Such an approach ignores the fact that applying these threshold criteria itself involves an exercise of discretion.

Most strikingly, the last criterion contained in the DAPA Memorandum is entirely open-ended, stating that deferred action should be granted only if the applicant "present[s] no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate." Appx. A, at 4. The Memorandum does not elaborate on what such "other factors" should be considered—

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[36] Similarly, an agent implementing the DACA Memorandum must make the threshold discretionary determinations of whether the applicant has been convicted of "a *significant* misdemeanor," and whether the applicant "poses a threat to national security or public safety." And as we concluded in *Crane*, the DACA Memorandum too "makes it clear that the Agents shall exercise their discretion in deciding to grant deferred action, and this judgment should be exercised on a case-by-case basis." *Crane*, 783 F.3d at 254-55.

[37] The majority perpetuates this error today by accepting the district court's characterizations of DAPA without question—despite recognizing that there was "conflicting evidence" below and that extrapolating DAPA from DACA needed to "be done carefully." Majority Op. at 47, 49.

leaving this analysis entirely to the judgment of the agents processing the applications. This court has held that such a caveat "express[ing] that [a] list of . . . factors is neither dispositive nor exhaustive," "clearly leaves to the sound discretion of the agency in each case the ultimate decision whether to bring an enforcement action." *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 600-01. Indeed, construing the DAPA memorandum as a categorical grant of deferred action for all applicants meeting the other DAPA criteria would render this last criterion meaningless. *Cf. Brock*, 796 F.2d at 538. Thus, due to the presence of these various flexible and indefinite criteria, the DAPA Memorandum is not a substantive rule that "so fills out the statutory scheme that upon application one need only determine whether a given case is within the rule's criterion." *Huerta*, 785 F.3d at 718 (citation omitted); *cf. Pickus v. U.S. Bd. of Parole*, 507 F.2d 1107, 1113 (D.C. Cir. 1974) (concluding that the "formula like" guidance for determining the length of parole constituted a substantive rule, as it involved the "purely mechanical operation" of computing a score using exclusive criteria).

As Judge Kavanaugh, writing for the D.C. Circuit, has stated, "[t]he most important factor" in distinguishing between a substantive rule and a general statement of policy "concerns the actual legal effect (or lack thereof) of the agency action in question on regulated entities." *Nat'l Mining Ass'n v. McCarthy*, 758 F.3d 243, 252 (D.C. Cir. 2014). Here, the Memorandum makes clear that it "confers no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship." Appx. A, at 5. The majority suggests that DAPA "modifies substantive rights and interests," by "conferring lawful presence on 500,000 illegal

aliens" and forcing Texas to change its laws. Majority Op. at 50-51. None of this appears on the face of the Memorandum though.[38] In fact, nothing in the Memorandum indicates that it is legally binding—i.e., that an applicant who is not granted deferred action can challenge that decision in court, or that DHS would be barred from removing an applicant who appears to satisfy the Memorandum's criteria. *See Tex. Sav. & Cmty. Bankers Ass'n v. Fed. Hous. Fin. Bd.*, 201 F.3d 551, 556 (5th Cir. 2000) ("Substantive or legislative rules affect individual rights and obligations and are binding on the courts."); *cf. Cmty. Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943, 948 (D.C. Cir. 1987) (per curiam) (deeming enforcement criteria a substantive rule where, "[a]s FDA conceded at oral argument, it would be daunting indeed to try to convince a court that the agency could appropriately prosecute a producer [who did not meet the agency's criteria for enforcement]"). Nor does anyone assert that the Memorandum "impose[s] any obligation or prohibition on regulated entities," i.e., the potential DAPA applicants.[39] *Huerta*, 785 F.3d at 717; *cf. Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832 ("[W]hen an agency refuses to act it generally does not exercise its *coercive* power over an individual's liberty or

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[38] "Lawful presence," as previously indicated, is also not a substantive right, but rather a form of nonprosecution that can be revoked at any time. Any purported harm to Texas is incidental and not contemplated by DAPA.

[39] The majority suggests that there is a "burden imposed on Texas" by DAPA and even then concedes that this "is derivative of issuing lawful presence to beneficiaries." Majority Op. at 52. But the analysis centers on the effect of the policy statement on *regulated entities*, and Texas is plainly not regulated by or even mentioned in the DAPA Memorandum.

property rights, and thus does not infringe upon areas that courts often are called upon to protect."). More -over, even absent the DAPA Memorandum, DHS would have the authority to take the action of which Plaintiffs complain—i.e., by granting deferred action on an *ad hoc* basis. *See McCarthy*, 758 F.3d at 253 ("When the agency applies a general statement of policy in a particular situation, it must be prepared to support the policy just as if the policy statement had never been issued." (internal brackets omitted)). Accordingly, based on its language and substance, the Memorandum does not constitute a binding substantive rule subject to the requirements of notice- and-comment.

The majority recognizes that the plain language of Memorandum "facially purports to confer discretion" and does not argue that DAPA creates a substantive rule from its four corners alone. Majority Op. at 44. Nonetheless, the district court reached the opposite conclusion. And it bears identifying the errors committed by the district court in holding that DAPA was a substantive rule on its face.

The district court focused on the Memorandum's "mandatory term[s], instruction[s], [and] command[s]"—in particular, the Secretary's "direct[ion]" to USCIS to begin implementing DAPA. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 671 n.103. But it should be no surprise that the Memorandum "direct[s]" the USCIS to establish a process for implementing this guidance, Appx. A, at 4; certainly the Secretary did not intend for it to be ignored, *see Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 599 ("[W]hat purpose would an agency's statement of policy serve if agency employees could not refer to it for guidance?"). Although "the

mandatory tone of the factors is undoubtedly calculated to encourage compliance," such language does not transform a statement of policy into a substantive rule so long as there is "an opportunity for individualized determinations." *Id.* at 597. Our discussion in *Professionals and Patients* is particularly instructive on this point:

> True, the FDA had even greater discretion in bringing enforcement actions before [the policy for determining whether to bring enforcement actions against pharmacies] issued; prior to that time inspectors were apparently provided with no official guidance whatsoever. In that sense, therefore, [the policy] has "channeled" the FDA's enforcement discretion, providing direction—where once there was none—by helping to determine whether a pharmacy is engaged in traditional compounding or drug manufacturing. But all statements of policy channel discretion to some degree—indeed, that is their purpose. The more cogent question therefore is whether [the policy] is so restrictive in defining which pharmacies are engaged in drug manufacturing that it effectively removes most, if not all, of the FDA's discretion in deciding against which pharmacies it will bring an enforcement action. We cannot read [the policy] that restrictively.

Id. at 600. Nor should the DAPA Memorandum be read so restrictively. Its channeling of agency enforcement discretion—through the use of non-exhaustive, flexible criteria—is entirely consistent with a non-substantive rule. *See, e.g.*, *Nat'l Roofing Contractors Ass'n v. U.S. Dep't of Labor*, 639 F.3d 339, 341-42 (7th Cir. 2011) ("The Secretary committed to paper the criteria for allowing regulatory violations to exist without

redress, a step essential to control her many subordinates. This does not make the exercise less discretionary."); *Guardian Fed. Sav. & Loan Ass'n v. Fed. Sav. & Loan Ins. Corp.*, 589 F.2d 658, 667 (D.C. Cir. 1978) ("The mandatory tone of the specifications for audits and auditors doubtless encourages compliance. However, an opportunity for an individualized determination is afforded."); *see also Kast Metals Corp.*, 744 F.2d at 1152 n.13 ("[A]gency instructions to agency officers are not legislative rules."). This is the law for good reason. Requiring each and every policy channeling prosecutorial discretion to go through the notice-and-comment process would perversely encourage unwritten, arbitrary enforcement policies.

The plain language of the Memorandum cannot be characterized as "draw[ing] a 'line in the sand' that, once crossed, removes all discretion from the agency." *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 601. Furthermore, the fact that the DAPA Memorandum relates to two areas in which courts should be reluctant to interfere—immigration and prosecutorial discretion—counsels in favor of concluding that it does not constitute a substantive rule. *See Brock*, 796 F.2d at 538 ("Our decision [that the rule is non-substantive] is reinforced by the fact that the statement here in question pertains to an agency's exercise of its enforcement discretion—an area in which the courts have traditionally been most reluctant to interfere.").

Rather than relying on the language of the Memorandum, the majority concludes that DAPA is a substantive rule because it "would not genuinely leave [DHS] and its employees free to exercise discretion" in practice. Majority Op. at 50; *see also Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at

595 (quoting *Young*, 818 F.2d at 946). But in doing so, the majority relies unquestioningly on the district court's finding that the discretionary language in DAPA was "merely pretext" and that DHS officials would not exercise case-by-case discretion of removals under DAPA. Majority Op. at 44; *see also id.* at 52 ("DAPA establishes 'the *substantive standards* by which the [agency] evaluates applications." (alterations in original)). The district court's finding was clearly erroneous, however, and I turn to it next.

B. Evidence of Pretext

The district court erred not only in its analysis of the legal effect of the DAPA Memorandum, but also in its resolution of the facts. By eschewing the plain language of the Memorandum, and concluding that its discretionary aspects are "merely pretext," Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 669 n.101, the district court committed reversible error. To the extent the district court's pretext conclusion constitutes a factual finding entitled to "clear error" review, that does not mean that we "rubber stamp the district court's findings simply because they were entered." *McLennan v. Am. Eurocopter Corp.*, 245 F.3d 403, 409 (5th Cir. 2001). Rather, "[c]lear error exists when this court is left with the definite and firm conviction that a mistake has been made." *Ogden v. Comm'r*, 244 F.3d 970, 971 (5th Cir. 2001) (per curiam). I am left with such a conviction for three independent reasons: (1) the record lacks any probative evidence of DAPA's implementation; (2) the district court erroneously equated DAPA with DACA; and (3) even assuming DAPA and DACA can be equated, the evidence of DACA's implementation fails to establish pretext.

It is true that the plain language of the Memorandum —which, in the majority's words, "facially purports to confer discretion"—may not be conclusive if rebutted by "what the agency does in fact." *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 596. Here, however, there is no such evidence of what the agency has done "in fact," as DAPA has yet to be implemented. The district court ruled even before it had "an early snapshot" of the policy's implementation. *McCarthy*, 758 F.3d at 253 (stating that, "because . . . recently issued guidance will have been implemented in only a few instances," courts "look[ing] to postguidance events to determine whether the agency has applied the guidance as if it were binding" must rely on "an early snapshot").[40] Plaintiffs have cited no authority, and I am not aware of any, deeming a statement of policy pretextual without direct evidence of the policy's implementation. *Cf. Interstate Nat. Gas Ass'n of Am. v. FERC*, 285 F.3d 18, 60 (D.C. Cir. 2002) ("[I]f there have so far been *any* applications of the [agency]'s policy, neither side

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[40] As several amici argue, a challenge to a statement of policy as pretextual may be unripe prior to the policy's implementation. For example, where:

> [T]he facts are so wholly ambiguous and unsharpened as not to present a purely legal question 'fit . . . for judicial decision,' and where the agency's characterization of its action would fit them cleanly into a § 553 exemption, . . . the most prudent course [is] to await the sharpened facts that come from the actual workings of the regulation in question before striking the objective down as violative of the APA.

Am. Hosp. Ass'n v. Bowen, 834 F.2d 1037, 1056 (D.C. Cir. 1987) (first alteration in original) (internal citation omitted); *see Hudson v. FAA*, 192 F.3d 1031, 1034-35 (D.C. Cir. 1999); *Pub. Citizen, Inc.*, 940 F.2d at 683.

has seen fit to bring it to our attention. So there is no basis here for any claim that the [agency] has actually treated the policy with the de facto inflexibility of a binding norm."). Nor should pretext be found here absent such evidence. As noted at the outset, courts should not be quick to conclude that when a coordinate branch of government describes a policy as discretionary, it does not mean what it says.

How, then, did the district court reach the conclusion that the DAPA Memorandum's express inclusion of case-by-case discretion is "merely pretext"? First, the district court selectively relied on public statements the President made in describing the DAPA Memorandum to the public. Majority Op. at 46. But there is no precedent for a court relying on such general pronouncements in determining a program's effect on the agency and on those being regulated. As Judge Higginson aptly noted in his dissent from the denial of the motion for a stay, "Presidents, like governors and legislators, often describe [a] law enthusiastically yet defend the same law narrowly." *Texas*, 787 F.3d at 780 (Higginson, J., dissenting); *see also Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 599 (reasoning that "informal communications often exhibit a lack of 'precision of draftsmanship' and . . . internal inconsistencies" and thus are "entitled to limited weight").[41] More importantly, the statements relied upon by the district court are not inconsistent with the DAPA Memorandum's grant

[41] The majority appears to endorse the district court's reliance on presidential statements as it too cites the President's remark that he "'change[d] the law'" as support for concluding that DAPA is beyond the scope of the INA. Majority Op. at 65.

of discretion to agency decision makers. For example, the President's statement that those who "meet the [DAPA] criteria . . . can come out of the shadows," Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 668, does not suggest that applications will be rubberstamped, given that (as discussed above) those very criteria involve the exercise of discretion. Similarly, the President's suggestion that agents who do not follow DAPA's guidelines may suffer consequences does not support the conclusion that the Memorandum is pretextual. Rather, it supports the opposite conclusion—that the terms of the DAPA Memorandum, which incorporate case-by-case discretion, will be followed. An order to "use your discretion" is not a substantive rule.

The district court's reliance on language contained in DHS's DAPA website—a source apparently not even cited by the parties and not mentioned by the majority—rests on even shakier ground. According to the district court, the DHS website's characterization of DAPA as a "program" and an "initiative" somehow contradicts DHS's position that the Memorandum constitutes "guidance." Of course, DAPA may very well be all three, but this has no bearing on whether the Memorandum constitutes a substantive rule—i.e., whether the "program" or "initiative" or "guidance" genuinely allows the agency to exercise its discretion on a case-by-case basis. Even more dubious is the district court's argument that, by using the word "initiative" on its website, DHS was intending to use the word in its technical legal sense to

reference *voter* initiatives, thus implying a "legislative process."[42] *Id.* at 667-68.

Lacking any probative evidence as to *DAPA*'s implementation, the district court relied most heavily on evidence of *DACA*'s implementation—concluding unequivocally that DAPA will be "implemented exactly like DACA." *Id.* at 663. It is this analysis that the majority finds convincing, all the while noting that "any extrapolation from DACA must be done carefully." Majority Op. at 47. The district court reached this conclusion on two flawed bases: (1) the DAPA Memorandum's statement directing the USCIS to "establish a process, similar to DACA" for implementing DAPA, Appx. A, at 4; and (2) the "lack of any suggestion that DAPA will be implemented in a fashion different from DACA," Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 649. With respect to the former, this single, nebulous statement does not specify *how* the DAPA and DACA processes would be similar; the phrase cannot be construed to mean that DAPA and DACA will be implemented *identically*. The latter is pure burden-shifting—the district court implies that the burden is on DHS to show that the two programs will be implemented

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[42] The district court noted that this voter initiative definition is the "sole definition offered for 'initiative'" in *Black's Law Dictionary*. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 668. There are, of course, other dictionaries—dictionaries far more likely to capture DHS's intended use of the word in a website created to describe DAPA to the public (rather than to attorneys or judges). For example, the first definition of "initiative" in the Oxford English Dictionary is "[t]hat which initiates, begins, or originates," *Initiative*, *The Oxford English Dictionary* (2d ed. 1989)—a definition that certainly does not imply a binding norm.

differently. Of course, in the preliminary injunction context, Plaintiffs, "by a clear showing, carr[y] the burden of persuasion." *Harris Cnty. v. CarMax Auto Superstores Inc.*, 177 F.3d 306, 312 (5th Cir. 1999). The district court also completely ignored the statement contained in the Declaration of Donald W. Neufeld—the Associate Director for Service Center Operations for USCIS—that "USCIS is in the process of determining the procedures for reviewing requests under DAPA, and thus USCIS has not yet determined whether the process to adjudicate DAPA requests will be similar to the DACA process."

More importantly, the fact that the *administration* of the two programs may be similar is not evidence that the *substantive review* under both programs will be the same. As discussed in more detail below, the district court relied heavily on the denial rates of applications submitted under DACA. But those rates are irrelevant for one simple reason, a reason the district court failed to confront: the substantive criteria under DACA and DAPA are different. And even the majority concedes that "DACA and DAPA are not identical." Majority Op. at 47. Review under the DACA Memorandum does not, for example, require reference to the various discretionary factors contained in the Enforcement Priorities Memorandum, nor does DACA contain DAPA's criterion that the applicant "present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate." Appx. A, at 4; *see also* Majority Op. at 48 ("Further, the DAPA Memo contains additional discretionary criteria."). Thus, even assuming DACA and DAPA applications are reviewed using the exact same administrative process, the district court had no basis for

concluding that the results of that process—a process that would involve the application of markedly different, discretionary criteria—would be the same. For this reason alone—that is, the district court's heavy reliance upon this minimally probative evidence—I would conclude that the district court clearly erred.[43]

There are additional reasons, however, to discount the DACA-related evidence on which the district court based its decision and which the majority now accepts. First, even assuming DACA's 5% denial rate has some probative value, and assuming that rate can be properly characterized as low,[44] a low rate would be unsurprising given the self-selecting nature of the program, as the majority concedes. Majority Op. at 47. It should be expected that only those highly likely to receive deferred action will apply; otherwise, applicants would risk revealing their immigration status and other identifying information to

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[43] In addition, as Judge Higginson noted in his dissent, DACA is materially distinguishable from DAPA because the former applies only to "a subset of undocumented immigrants who are particularly inculpable as they 'were brought to this country as children' and, thus, 'lacked the intent to violate the law.'" *Texas*, 787 F.3d at 781 (Higginson, J., dissenting) (quoting the DACA Memorandum). Accordingly, it would be reasonable to expect that denial rates under DAPA would be higher than those under DACA, as DACA applicants are far less likely to exhibit other factors (e.g., a threat to national security) that would prompt an exercise of discretion not to grant deferred action.

[44] This rate represents 38,080 denials out of the 723,358 applications accepted for processing at USCIS service centers through December 2014. There were an additional 42,919 applications rejected for purely administrative reasons during this time period. Neither of these numbers suggests an agency on autopilot.

authorities, thereby risking removal (and the loss of a sizeable fee). The majority recognizes this issue but finds that it "is partially mitigated by the finding that 'the [g]overnment has publicly declared that it will make no attempt to enforce the law against even those who are denied deferred action." *Id.* (citing Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 663). But this public declaration, cited by the district court, comes from an informational DHS website that never states that DHS will make no attempt to enforce the law.[45]

The district court also erred in its mischaracterization of a letter written by León Rodríguez, Director of USCIS, to Senator Charles Grassley, suggesting that the top four reasons for DACA denials are:

> (1) the applicant used the wrong form; (2) the applicant failed to provide a valid signature; (3) the applicant failed to file or complete Form I-765 or failed to enclose the fee; and (4) the applicant was below the age of fifteen and thus ineligible to participate in the program.

Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609. This, however, is *not* what the letter says. The letter actually states that these were the top four reasons for DACA application *rejections*, not denials. As made clear in DHS's Neufeld Declaration, "a DACA request is '*rejected*' when [it is] determine[d] upon intake that the [application] has a fatal flaw," while "[a] DACA request is '*denied*' when a USCIS

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[45] The majority's acceptance of this passage is but one illustration of the problem with relying on the district court's factual conclusions.

adjudicator, on a case-by-case basis, determines that the requestor has not demonstrated that they satisfy the guidelines for DACA or when an adjudicator determines that deferred action should be denied even though the threshold guidelines are met." By conflating rejections with denials, the district court suggested that most denials are made for mechanical administrative reasons and thus could not have been discretionary. But the five percent *denial* rate does not even take into account these administrative *rejections*.

The district court also appeared singularly focused on one metric for measuring whether DACA (and by implication, DAPA) is implemented in a discretionary manner. The court insisted that DHS provide: "the number, if any, of requests that were denied even though the applicant met the DACA criteria as set out in Secretary Napolitano's DACA memorandum."[46] *Id.* at 609. In yet another instance of improper burden-shifting, the court reasoned that "[b]ecause the Government could not produce evidence concerning applicants who met the program's criteria but were denied DACA status, this Court accepts the States' evidence as correct." *Id.* at 609 n.8. But the burden of showing DAPA is non-discretionary was on Plaintiffs—the States—and Plaintiffs provided *no* evidence as to the number of these denials. Rather, the district court accepted as true Plaintiffs' *bare assertion* that there were no such denials, concluding unequivocally that "[n]o DACA application that has met the criteria has

[46] As discussed above, this focus was misplaced, as application of both the DACA and DAPA criteria themselves involves the exercise of discretion.

been denied based on an exercise of individualized discretion." *Id.* at 669 n.101. The district court reached this conclusion in the face of *uncontested evidence* contained in the Neufeld Declaration that DACA applications "have also been denied on the basis that deferred action was not appropriate for other reasons not expressly set forth in [the] 2012 DACA Memorandum." The district court also failed to acknowledge the reason DHS did not introduce statistics as to these denials: it had no ability to do so. As stated in the Neufeld Declaration, "[u]ntil very recently, USCIS lacked any ability to automatically track and sort the reasons for DACA denials," presumably because it had no reason to track such data prior to this litigation. Although this point is undisputed, the district court and now the majority nonetheless fault DHS for failing to provide the information the district court requested. *See* Majority Op. at 50 ("[T]he government did not provide the number of cases that service-center officials referred to field offices for interviews."). Yet it was not DHS's burden to disprove Plaintiffs' assertions of pretext, nor must DHS (anticipatorily) track data in a way that may be convenient to an adversary in future litigation.

The district court also relied on a four-page declaration by Kenneth Palinkas, President of the National Citizenship and Immigration Services Council (the union representing USCIS employees processing DACA applications), for the proposition that "DACA applications are simply rubberstamped if the applicants meet the neces-

sary criteria."[47] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 610. Yet lay witness conclusions are only competent evidence if rationally drawn from facts personally observed. *See* Fed. R. Evid. 701. Here, Palinkas's conclusion was supported only by the fact that DACA applications are routed to "service centers instead of field offices," and that "USCIS officers in service centers . . . do not interview applicants"—a weak basis on which to conclude that DHS's representations (both to the public and to the courts) are "merely pretext."[48] *See* 11A Charles Alan Wright & Arthur R. Miller, *Federal Practice & Procedure* § 2949 (3d ed. 2015) ("Preliminary injunctions frequently are denied if the affidavits are too vague or conclusory to demonstrate a clear right to relief under Rule 65."). Indeed, Palinkas's assertions are rebutted—and the step-by-step process for reviewing DACA applications is explained—in the detailed affidavit filed by Donald Neufeld, the head of those very USCIS service centers. Neufeld declares that the service centers "are designed to adjudicate applications, petitions and requests" for various programs "that have higher-volume caseloads." Neufeld goes on to describe the "multi-step, case-specific process" for reviewing DACA applications: "Once a case arrives at a Service Center, a specially trained USCIS

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[47] Yet again, this focus ignores the discretion inherent in those criteria.

[48] Palinkas also focuses on the USCIS's announcement that it will create a new service center for the processing of DAPA applications, to be staffed by approximately 700 USCIS employees and 300 federal contractors. But the fact that so many agents are necessary to assess DAPA applications is inconsistent with the notion that the review will be conducted in a mechanical, pro forma manner.

adjudicator is assigned to determine whether the requestor satisfies the DACA guidelines and ultimately determine whether a request should be approved or denied." [49] Adjudicators "evaluate the evidence each requestor submits in conjunction with the relevant DACA guidelines" and "assess the appropriate weight to accord such evidence." [50] Citing various examples, Neufeld explains that "[e]ven if it is determined that a requestor has satisfied the threshold DACA guidelines, USCIS may exercise discretion to deny a request where other factors make the grant of deferred action inappropriate."[51] As a part of their review, adjudicators can investigate the facts and evidence supporting the application "by contacting educational institutions, other government agencies, employers, or other entities." Moreover, although the Palinkas Declaration accurately states that adjudicators at USCIS service centers do not have the capability to interview applicants, the Neufeld Declaration clarifies that service center adjudicators "may refer a case for interview at a Field Office"—for example, "when the adjudicator determines, after careful review of the request and supporting documents, that a request is denia-

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[49] Applications are first mailed to USCIS "lockboxes," where they are reviewed to determine whether they should be rejected for administrative reasons.

[50] Neufeld notes, consistent with the discussion above, that "USCIS must . . . exercise significant discretion in determining whether" some of the DACA guidelines apply; for example, "determining whether a requestor 'poses a threat to national security or public safety' necessarily involves the exercise of the agency's discretion."

[51] Such discretionary denials are generally reviewed at USCIS headquarters.

ble, but potentially curable, with information that can best be received through an interview." Adjudicators may also request that applicants submit additional evidence in support of their applications for deferred action; this was no rare occurrence, as nearly 200,000 such requests for additional evidence were issued by adjudicators. "In addition, all DACA requestors must submit to background checks, and requests are denied if these background checks show that deferred action would be inappropriate."

Placing these declarations side-by-side, the detailed Neufeld Declaration does not simply rebut the conclusory assertions contained in the Palinkas Declaration—it provides *undisputed* context for how USCIS service centers actually work and how DACA application decisions are made. Or at the very least, as the majority concedes, the two in tandem create "conflicting evidence on the degree to which DACA allowed for discretion." Majority Op. at 49. Yet the district court concluded that the Neufeld Declaration did not provide "the level of detail that the Court requested."[52] Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 609. It is difficult to imagine what level of detail would have satisfied the district court. At a minimum, as recognized by Judge Higginson in his dissent to the denial of the stay pending appeal, the Neufeld Declaration created a factual dispute warranting an evidentiary hearing.[53] *See Texas*, 787 F.3d at 781-82 (Hig-

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[52] The district court did not, however, make an express finding that it deemed the Palinkas Declaration more credible than the Neufeld Declaration.

[53] Even Plaintiffs noted, after DHS submitted the Neufeld Declaration, that "if the Court decides that the Defendants' new decla-

ginson, J., dissenting) (citing authorities); *see also Landmark Land Co. v. Office of Thrift Supervision*, 990 F.2d 807, 812 (5th Cir. 1993) ("The record reveals several disputes of material fact that the district court must necessarily resolve in deciding whether to issue the injunction. An evidentiary hearing thus is in order upon remand."); *Marshall Durbin Farms, Inc. v. Nat'l Farmers Org., Inc.*, 446 F.2d 353, 356 n.4 (5th Cir. 1971) ("[W]here so very much turns upon an accurate presentation of numerous facts . . . the propriety of proceeding upon affidavits becomes the most questionable."); *Cobell v. Norton*, 391 F.3d 251, 261 (D.C. Cir. 2004) ("Particularly when a court must make credibility determinations to resolve key factual disputes in favor of the moving party, it is an *abuse of discretion* for the court to settle the question on the basis of documents alone, without an evidentiary hearing." (emphasis added)). The district court's failure to hold an evidentiary hearing further undermines faith in its factual conclusions.

The district court also looked to the operating procedures governing the implementation of *DACA*, noting that they "contain[] nearly 150 pages of specific instructions for granting or denying deferred action" and involve the use of standardized forms for recording denials—a fact the majority mentions. Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 669 (footnote omitted). But no such operating procedures for the implementation of *DAPA* appear in the record—a fact the majority does not mention. As noted above, the USCIS is currently "in the process of deter-

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rations create a *material* fact dispute of material consequence to the motion . . . , the *correct step* would be to hold a second hearing."

mining the procedures for reviewing requests under DAPA." In any event, even "specific and detailed requirements" may qualify as a "'general' statement of policy." *Guardian Fed. Sav. & Loan Ass'n*, 589 F.2d at 667. And the "purpose" of a statement of policy is to "channel discretion" of agency decision makers; such channeling does not trigger the requirements of notice-and-comment unless it is "so restrictive . . . that it effectively removes most, if not all, of the [agency]'s discretion." *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 600. As for the use of standardized forms to record denials, what matters is not whether DAPA decisions are *memorialized* in a mechanical fashion, but whether they are *made* in such a fashion. For the many reasons discussed above, the district court had no legitimate basis for concluding that they will be.

Finally, the district court's lengthy discussion of an "abdication theory" of standing—a theory for which Plaintiffs have not even expressly advocated—provides context for the district court's conclusions as to pretext.[54] In determining that the DAPA Memorandum constituted an "abdication" of DHS's duties, the district court asserted (repeatedly) that it "cannot be disputed" that "the

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[54] It appears that no court in the country has accepted this radical theory of standing. Indeed, the district court admitted that it had "not found a case where the plaintiff's standing was supported solely on this basis." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 643 n.48. The majority's broad concept of state standing based on harm to "quasi-sovereign interests" is strikingly similar to this theory of standing. *See* Majority Op. at 14 ("When the states joined the union, they surrendered some of their sovereign prerogatives over immigration.").

Government has abandoned its duty to enforce the law." Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 638. The district court deemed it "*evident* that the Government has determined that it will not enforce the law as it applies to over 40% of the illegal alien population that qualify for DAPA."[55] *Id.* at 639 (emphasis added). Such blanket assertions—made without discussing any of the evidence set out above—*assume* a lack of discretion in the review of DAPA applications. This assumption—which the district court apparently required DHS to rebut—infects the opinion below, yet has no evidentiary basis.

The majority accepts the district court's factual conclusions almost *carte blanche*. But clear error review is

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[55] In addition, the district court stated: (1) "DHS has *clearly* announced that it has decided not to enforce the immigration laws as they apply to approximately 4.3 million individuals"; (2) "Secretary Johnson announced that the DHS will not enforce the immigration laws as to over four million illegal aliens eligible for DAPA, despite the fact that they are otherwise deportable"; (3) "As demonstrated by DACA and DAPA . . . , the Government has decided that it will not enforce these immigration laws as they apply to well over five million people"; (4) "The DHS unilaterally established the parameters for DAPA and determined that it would not enforce the immigration laws as they apply to millions of individuals"; and (5) "the DHS does not seek compliance with the federal law in any form, but instead establishes a pathway for non-compliance and completely abandons entire sections of this country's immigration law." *Id.* at 637 n.45, 638-43. The district court also characterized DAPA as an "announced policy of non-enforcement." *Id.* at 637 n.45. Although these quotations from the district court's opinion focus on what it perceives to be the failures of DHS to enforce the immigration laws, at other places in that opinion, the district court identifies the decades-long failure of Congress to fund what the district court would consider adequate enforcement.

not a rubber stamp, and the litany of errors committed by the district court become readily apparent from a review of the record. The record before us, when read properly, shows that DAPA is merely a general statement of policy. As such, it is exempt from the notice-and-comment requirements of 5 U.S.C. § 553.

V. APA Substantive Claim

The majority's conclusion that the states are substantially likely to succeed on their APA procedural claim should presumably be enough to affirm the decision below. Yet, for reasons altogether unclear, the majority stretches beyond the judgment of the district court and concludes that DAPA and a long, preexisting regulation (8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14)), as applied to DAPA, are substantive APA violations. *See* Majority Op. at 54-66. Prudence and judicial economy warrant against going this far, and I would not reach this issue on the record before us. For one, "the district court enjoined DAPA solely on the basis of the procedural APA claim." *Id.* at 54. It did not evaluate the substantive APA claim at issue. *See* Dist. Ct. Op., 86 F. Supp. 3d at 677 ("[T]he Court is specifically not addressing Plaintiffs' likelihood of success on their *substantive* APA claim."). In fact, the district court eschewed determination of this issue and Plaintiffs' constitutional claim "until there [could be] further development of the record." *Id.*[56]

[56] There might not be much left in the way of factual development of the record, *see* Majority Op. at 54 n.158, but there is much left wanting in the way of legal development.

On appeal, the parties offered only sparse arguments on the substantive APA claim. The parties filed briefs totaling 203 pages, of which ten pages addressed the substantive APA claim.[57] This hardly seems to be enough to help us answer a complicated question of statutory interpretation and administrative law. I would not address the substantive APA claim in light of this limited record while cognizant of the principle that "[c]ases are to be decided on the narrowest legal grounds available." *Korioth v. Briscoe*, 523 F.2d 1271, 1275 (5th Cir. 1975).

That said, were I to reach the substantive APA claim I would find the majority's conclusion unpersuasive on the limited record before us. The argument that DAPA is a substantive APA violation, as I read it, appears to be the following: (1) DAPA is "manifestly contrary," Majority Op. at 66, to the text of the INA and deserves no deference partly because Congress would not assign it such a "decision[] of vast 'economic and political significance,'" *id. a*t 62 (citation omitted); and (2) even if DHS deserved deference, DAPA is not a reasonable interpretation of the INA.

Questions of how agencies construe their governing statutes fall under the two-step inquiry announced in *Chevron, U.S.A., Inc. v. Natural Resources Defense Council, Inc.*, 467 U.S. 837 (1984). It bears reiterating this framework as I believe the majority misapplies it and its associated precedents. At step one of *Chevron*, courts are to look at "whether Congress has directly spoken to the precise question at issue." *Id.* at 842. If Congress

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[57] Appellees' Br. 47-50; Appellants' Reply Br. 21-23; Appellants' Suppl. Br. 27-29; Appellees' Suppl. Br. 15-17.

has directly spoken, then the court "must give effect to [its] unambiguously expressed intent." *Id.* at 843. But "if the statute is silent or ambiguous," then at step two, a court is to defer to an agency's interpretation of a statute so long as it is "reasonable." *Id.* at 843-44.

The majority first states that DAPA fails *Chevron* step one because Congress has directly addressed the issue of deferred action. Majority Op. at 55-56. To bolster its conclusion, the majority points to provisions of the INA that delineate which aliens can receive lawful permanent resident (LPR) status, can be eligible for deferred action, and can receive LPR status by having a citizen family member. *Id.* at 55-57. These provisions are, indeed, "specific and detailed," *id.* at 55, but none of them precisely prohibits or addresses the kind of deferred action provided for under DAPA. The question under step one is whether the language of a statute is "precisely directed to the question," not whether "parsing of general terms in the text of the statute will reveal an actual intent of Congress." *Chevron*, 467 U.S. at 861-62. Most of the provisions identified by the majority are directed at the requirements for *legal status*, not the *lawful presence* permitted by DAPA. And even the majority acknowledges the two are not the same. *See* Majority Op. at 57 ("LPR status is more substantial than is lawful presence."). DAPA does not purport to create "a lawful immigration classification." *Id.* at 56.

It is true that Congress has specified certain categories of aliens that are eligible for deferred action. *See id.* at 56. This line of argument follows from the legal maxim *expressio unius est exclusio alterius* ("the expression of one is the exclusion of others") suggesting that

because DAPA was not specified by Congress, it is contrary to the INA. But this argument is nonetheless incorrect. The *expressio unius* "canon has little force in the administrative setting." *Tex. Rural Legal Aid, Inc. v. Legal Servs. Corp.*, 940 F.2d 685, 694 (D.C. Cir. 1991). And the inquiry at step one is "whether Congress has *directly spoken* to the *precise question* at issue," not whether it legislated in the general area or around the periphery. *Chevron*, 467 U.S. at 842 (emphasis added). Congress has never prohibited or limited *ad hoc* deferred action, which is no different than DAPA other than scale.[58] In fact, each time Congress spoke to this general issue, it did so incidentally and as part of larger statutes not concerned with deferred action. *See, e.g.*, USA PATRIOT ACT of 2001, Pub L. No. 107-56, § 423(b), 115 Stat. 272, 361 (discussing deferred action for family members of LPRs killed by terrorism within a far larger statute aimed primarily at combatting terrorism). And the language regarding deferred action was worded in

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[58] The majority makes much of the scope of DAPA in concluding that it violates the APA. *See* Majority Op. at 56, 59. Yet the conclusions regarding DAPA's legality are similarly applicable to *ad hoc* deferred action. *Ad hoc* deferred action triggers the same eligibility for benefits and Congress has not directly mentioned it by statute. It should follow then that *ad hoc* deferred action is also not authorized by the INA and is a substantive APA violation. But this cannot be the case for the reasons mentioned below. Despite the majority's emphasis on the scale of DAPA, its size plays no role in whether or not it is authorized by statute. I am aware of no principle that makes scale relevant in this analysis, and the majority does not cite any authority otherwise. The question of whether an agency has violated its governing statute does not change if its actions affect one person or "4.3 million" persons. *Id.* at 56.

permissive terms, not prohibitive terms. *See, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. § 1154(a)(1)(D)(i)(II) (stating that a qualifying "is eligible for deferred action and work authorization"). More importantly, in enacting these provisos, Congress was legislating against a backdrop of longstanding practice of federal immigration officials exercising *ad hoc* deferred action. By the time Congress specified categories of aliens eligible for deferred action, immigration officials were already "engaging in a regular practice . . . of exercising [deferred action] for humanitarian reasons or simply for its own convenience." *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484.[59] Yet Congress did nothing to upset this practice. The provisions cited by the majority, if anything, highlight Congress's continued acceptance of flexible and discretionary deferred action.[60] Denying DHS's ability to grant deferred action on a "class-wide basis," Majority

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[59] The Court in *Reno* noted that "[p]rior to 1997, deferred-action decisions were governed by internal INS guidelines which considered [a variety of factors]." *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484 n.8. Although the guidelines were rescinded, the Court also observed that "there [was] no indication that the INS has ceased making this sort of determination on a case-by-case basis." *Id.*

[60] The Office of Legal Counsel, in its evaluation of DAPA, noted that Congress had given its "implicit approval" to deferred action over the years. Office of Legal Counsel, *The Department of Homeland Security's Authority to Prioritize Removal of Certain Aliens Unlawfully Present in the United States and to Defer Removal of Others* 30-31 (2014), *available at* http://www.justice.gov/sites/default/files/olc/opinions/attachments/2014/11/20/2014-11-19-auth-prioritize-removal.pdf.

Op. at 32, as the majority does, severely constrains the agency.[61]

The majority makes a similar mistake with respect to the work authorization regulation, 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14). The majority holds that this regulation as "to any class of illegal aliens whom DHS declines to remove—is beyond the scope of what the INA can reasonably be interpreted to authorize." Majority Op. at 40. It bases its conclusion on provisions of the INA that specify classes of aliens eligible and ineligible for work authorization and scattered statements from past cases supposedly stating that Congress restricted immigration to preserve jobs from American workers. Yet, much like with deferred action, Congress has never directly spoken to the question at issue and, if anything, has indirectly approved of it. In one form or another, 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) has been on the books since 1981. It follows from a grant of discretion to the Secretary to establish work authorizations for aliens, *see* 8 U.S.C. § 1324a(h)(3), and it predates the INA provisions the majority cites. *See Perales v. Casillas*, 903 F.2d 1043, 1048 (5th Cir. 1990) (noting that up to that point there was "nothing in the [INA] [that] expressly provid[ed] for the grant of employment authorization"). Had Congress wanted to negate this regulation, it presumably would have done so expressly, but by specifying the categories

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[61] The majority's ruling that class-wide deferred action violates the INA is potentially devastating. The definition of a class is expansive: "A group of people, things, qualities, or activities that have common characteristics or attributes." *Class*, *Black's Law Dictionary* (10th ed. 2014). I suspect that DHS frequently grants deferred action to two or more aliens with common characteristics.

of aliens eligible for work authorization, Congress signaled its implicit approval of this longstanding regulation. Furthermore, no court, until today, has ever cast doubt on this regulation. Our own circuit in *Perales* found no problems with 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) in concluding that a challenge to employment authorization denials was non-justiciable. *Id.*[62] The majority's snapshot of Supreme Court opinions discussing the aims of the immigration laws does not speak to this issue and is misleading. Those opinions noted that the immigration laws regarding employment authorization were also concerned with creating an "extensive 'employment verification system' . . . designed to deny employment to aliens who (a) are not *lawfully present* in the United States, or (b) are not *lawfully authorized* to work in the United States." *Hoffman Plastic Compounds, Inc. v. NLRB*, 535 U.S. 137, 147 (2002) (citing 8 U.S.C. § 1324a) (emphasis added). DAPA and 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) further both these aims and also promote the "[s]elf-sufficiency" of aliens by giving them work authorization and making them less reliant on public benefits. See 8 U.S.C. § 1601(1) ("Self- sufficiency has been a basic principle of United States immigration law since this country's earliest immigration statutes.").

The majority next holds that DAPA, fails *Chevron* step one because the INA's broad grants of authority "cannot reasonably be construed as assigning [DHS] 'decisions of

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[62] If 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) were contrary to the INA, then presumably the challenge *in Perales* would have been justiciable since an agency's "abdication of its statutory responsibilities" is sufficient to overcome the presumption that agency inaction is unreviewable. *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 833 n.4.

vast economic and political significance,' such as DAPA." Majority Op. at 61-62 (footnote omitted). To the contrary, immigration decisions often have substantial economic and political significance. In *Arizona*, the Court noted that "discretionary decisions" made in the enforcement of immigration law "involve policy choices that bear on this Nation's international relations." 132 S. Ct. at 2499. "Removal decisions," it has been observed, "'may implicate our relations with foreign powers' and require consideration of 'changing political and economic circumstances.'" *Jama v. Immigration & Customs Enf't*, 543 U.S. 335, 348 (2005) (quoting *Matthews v. Diaz*, 426 U.S. 67, 81 (1976)). And deferred action—whether *ad hoc* or through DAPA—is not an effort by DHS to "hide elephants in mouseholes," *Whitman v. Am. Trucking Ass'ns, Inc.*, 531 U.S. 457, 468 (2001), but rather "[a] principal feature of the removal system," *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499.

The majority's reliance on *King v. Burwell*, 135 S. Ct. 2480 (2015), for its conclusion is misplaced. The Court in *King* held that it was unlikely Congress delegated a key reform of the ACA to the IRS—an agency not charged with implementing the ACA and with "no expertise in crafting health insurance policy." *Id.* at 2489. By contrast, DHS is tasked with enforcement of the immigration laws, *see, e.g.*, 6 U.S.C. § 202, and its substantial expertise in this area has been noted time and time again. *See, e.g.*, *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2506 ("[T]he removal process is entrusted to the discretion of the Federal Government.").

Lastly, the majority concludes that "[e]ven with 'special deference' to the Secretary," DAPA is an unreasonable interpretation of the INA. Majority Op. at 62-63

(footnote omitted). Reasonableness at step two of *Chevron* requires only a "minimum level of reasonability," *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel*, 183 F.3d at 420, and will be found so long as an agency's interpretation is "not patently inconsistent with the statutory scheme," *Am. Airlines, Inc. v. Dep't of Transp.*, 202 F.3d 788, 813 (5th Cir. 2000) (citation omitted). It is hard to see how DAPA is unreasonable on the record before us. DAPA does not negate or conflict with any provision of the INA. *See Whitman*, 531 U.S. at 484. DHS has repeatedly asserted its right to engage in deferred action. *Cf. FDA v. Brown & Williamson Tobacco Corp.*, 529 U.S. 120, 146 (2000) (concluding an agency was not entitled to deference where it previously disavowed its enforcement authority). And DAPA appears to further DHS's mission of "[e]stablishing national immigration enforcement policies and priorities." 6 U.S.C. § 202(5).

Indeed, if DAPA were unreasonable under the INA, then it follows that *ad hoc* grants of deferred action are unreasonable as well—something the majority declines to reach. *See* Majority Op. at 66 n.202. But, as previously mentioned, there is no difference between the two other than scale, and *ad hoc* deferred action has been repeatedly acknowledged by Congress and the courts as a key feature of immigration enforcement. *See Reno*, 525 U.S. at 483-84. After all, agencies are "far better equipped than the courts to deal with the many variables involved in the proper ordering of [their] priorities," *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 831-32, and "[t]he responsibilities for assessing the wisdom of such policy choices . . . are not judicial ones," *Chevron*, 467 U.S. at 866. From the limited record be-

fore us, I would conclude that the DAPA Memorandum is not a substantive APA violation.

VI. Conclusion

There can be little doubt that Congress's choices as to the level of funding for immigration enforcement have left DHS with difficult prioritization decisions. But those decisions, which are embodied in the DAPA Memorandum, have been delegated to the Secretary by Congress. Because federal courts should not inject themselves into such matters of prosecutorial discretion, I would dismiss this case as non-justiciable.

Furthermore, the evidence in the record (the importance of which should not be overlooked) makes clear that the injunction cannot stand. A determination of "pretext" on the part of DHS *must* have a basis in concrete evidence. Of course, as appellate judges, we may not substitute our own view of the facts for that of the district court. But we must also embrace our duty to correct clear errors of fact—that is, to ensure that factual determinations are based not on conjecture, intuition, or preconception, but on evidence. Based on the record as it currently stands, the district court's conclusion that DAPA applications will not be reviewed on a discretionary, case-by-case basis cannot withstand even the most deferential scrutiny. Today's opinion preserves this error and, by reaching the substantive APA claim, propounds its own. I have a firm and definite conviction that a mistake has been made. That mistake has been exacerbated by the extended delay that has occurred in deciding this "expedited" appeal. There is no justification for that delay. I dissent.

APPENDIX B

UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
FOR THE FIFTH CIRCUIT

No. 15-40238

STATE OF TEXAS; STATE OF ALABAMA; STATE OF GEORGIA; STATE OF IDAHO; STATE OF INDIANA; STATE OF KANSAS; STATE OF LOUISIANA; STATE OF MONTANA; STATE OF NEBRASKA; STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA; STATE OF SOUTH DAKOTA; STATE OF UTAH; STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA; STATE OF WISCONSIN; PAUL R. LEPAGE, GOVERNOR, STATE OF MAINE; PATRICK L. MCCRORY, GOVERNOR, STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA; C. L. "BUTCH" OTTER, GOVERNOR, STATE OF IDAHO; PHIL BRYANT, GOVERNOR, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI; STATE OF NORTH DAKOTA; STATE OF OHIO; STATE OF OKLAHOMA; STATE OF FLORIDA; STATE OF ARIZONA; STATE OF ARKANSAS; ATTORNEY GENERAL BILL SCHUETTE; STATE OF NEVADA; STATE OF TENNESSEE,
PLAINTIFFS-APPELLEES

v.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA; JEH CHARLES JOHNSON, SECRETARY, DEPARTMENT OF HOMELAND SECURITY; R. GIL KERLIKOWSKE, COMMISSIONER OF U.S. CUSTOMS AND BORDER PROTECTION; RONALD D. VITIELLO, DEPUTY CHIEF OF U.S. BORDER PATROL, U.S. CUSTOMS AND BORDER PROTECTION; SARAH R. SALDANA, DIRECTOR OF U.S. IMMIGRATION AND CUSTOMS ENFORCEMENT; LEON RODRIGUEZ, DIRECTOR OF U.S. CITIZENSHIP AND IMMIGRATION SERVICES,
DEFENDANTS-APPELLANTS

[Filed: May 26, 2015]

Appeal from the United States District Court
for the Southern District of Texas

Before: SMITH, ELROD, and HIGGINSON, Circuit Judges.

JERRY E. SMITH, Circuit Judge:

Twenty-six states (the "states") are challenging the government's[1] Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents program ("DAPA") as violative of the Administrative Procedure Act ("APA") and the Take Care Clause of the Constitution. The district court determined that the states are likely to succeed on their procedural APA claim, so it temporarily enjoined implementation of the program. *Texas v. United States*, Civ. No. B-14-254, 2015 WL 648579 (S.D. Tex. Feb. 16, 2015). The United States appealed the preliminary injunction and moved for a stay of the injunction pending resolution of the merits of that appeal. Because the government is unlikely to succeed on the merits of its appeal of the injunction, we deny the motion for stay and the request to narrow the scope of the injunction.

I.

In 2012, then-Department of Homeland Security ("DHS") Secretary Janet Napolitano announced the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals program ("DACA"), setting forth how officers should exercise "prosecutorial discretion" before enforcing "immigration

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[1] This opinion refers to the defendants collectively as "the United States" or "the government" unless otherwise indicated.

laws against certain young people."[2] She instructed agency heads that five criteria "should be satisfied before an individual is considered for an exercise of prosecutorial discretion"[3] but that "requests for relief . . . are to be decided on a case by case basis."[4] "For individuals who are granted deferred action . . . [U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services ("USCIS")] shall accept applications to determine whether these individuals qualify for work authorization," but the DACA Memo purported to "confer[] no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship."[5] Of the at least 1.2 million persons who qualify for DACA, approximately 636,000 have been accepted through 2014.[6]

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[2] Memorandum from Janet Napolitano, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to David Aguilar, Acting Comm'r, U.S. Customs and Border Prot., et al., at 1 (June 15, 2012) (the "DACA Memo"), *available at* http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/s1-exercising-prosecutorial-discretion-individuals-who-came-to-us-as-children.pdf.

[3] *Id.* (stating that the individual may be considered if he "[1] came to the United States under the age of sixteen; [2] has continuously resided in the United States for a [sic] least five years preceding [June 15, 2012] and is present in the United States on [June 15]; [3] is currently in school, has graduated from high school, has obtained a general education development certificate, or is an honorably discharged veteran of the [military]; [4] has not been convicted of a felony offense, a significant misdemeanor offense, multiple misdemeanor offenses, or otherwise poses a threat to national security or public safety; and [5] is not above the age of thirty").

[4] *Id.* at 2.

[5] *Id.* at 3.

[6] *See Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *4.

In November 2014, DHS Secretary Jeh Johnson instructed the same agencies to expand DACA in three areas.[7] He also "direct[ed] USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA," known as DAPA. He set forth six criteria "for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis."[8] Although "[d]eferred action does not confer any form of legal status in this country, much less citizenship[,] it [does] mean[] that, for a specified period of time, an indi-

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[7] Memorandum from Jeh Johnson, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to Leon Rodriguez, Dir., U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Servs., et al., at 3-4 (Nov. 20, 2014) (the "DAPA Memo"), *available at* http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/14_1120_memo_deferred_action.pdf. First, the "age restriction exclud[ing] those who were older than 31 on the date of the [DACA] announcement . . . will no longer apply." *Id.* at 3. Second, "[t]he period for which DACA and the accompanying employment authorization is granted will be extended to three-year increments, rather than the current two-year increments." *Id.* Third, "the eligibility cut-off date by which a DACA applicant must have been in the United States should be adjusted from June 15, 2007 to January 1, 2010." *Id.* at 4. The district court enjoined implementation of those expansions, and they are included in the term "DAPA" in this opinion.

[8] *Id.* at 4 (stating that individuals may be considered if they "[1] have, on [November 20, 2014], a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident; [2] have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010; [3] are physically present in the United States on [November 20, 2014], *and* at the time of making a request for consideration of deferred action with USCIS; [4] have no lawful status on [November 20, 2014]; [5] are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the November 20, 2014 Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants Memorandum; and [6] present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate.").

vidual is permitted to be *lawfully present* in the United States."[9]

That designation makes aliens who were not otherwise qualified for most federal public benefits eligible for "social security retirement benefits, social security disability benefits, [and] health insurance under Part A of the Medicare program."[10] Further, "[e]ach person who applies for deferred action pursuant to the [DAPA] criteria . . . shall also be eligible to apply for work authorization for the [renewable three-year] period of deferred action."[11] "An alien with work authorization may obtain a Social Security Number"; "accrue quarters of covered employment"; and "correct wage records to add prior

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[9] *Id.* at 2 (emphasis added). As the United States admits in its opening brief at 45-46, "lawful presence," unlike "legal status," is not an enforceable right to remain in the United States and can be revoked at any time. But "lawful presence" does have significant legal consequences, as we will explain.

[10] Brief for the United States at 48-49 (citing 8 U.S.C. § 1611(b)(2)-(3)). With limited exceptions, "an alien who is not a qualified alien . . . is not eligible for any Federal public benefit," § 1611(a), but that prohibition does "not apply to any benefit payable under title II of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. § 401 *et seq.*] to an alien who is lawfully present in the United States as determined by the Attorney General," § 1611(b)(2), or "to any benefit payable under title XVIII of the Social Security Act (relating to the medicare program) [42 U.S.C. § 1395 *et seq.*] to an alien who is lawfully present in the United States as determined by the Attorney General and, with respect to benefits payable under part A of such title [42 U.S.C. § 1395c *et seq.*], who was authorized to be employed with respect to any wages attributable to employment which are counted for purposes of eligibility for such benefits," § 1611(b)(3) (alterations in original).

[11] DAPA Memo, *supra* note 7, at 4.

covered employment within approximately three years of the year in which the wages were earned or in limited circumstances thereafter."[12] The district court determined that "DAPA recipients would be eligible for earned income tax credits once they received a Social Security number."[13] Texas maintains that DAPA recipients become eligible for driver's licenses and unemployment benefits.[14] Of the approximately 11.3 million illegal aliens[15] in the United States, 4.3 million are eligible for DAPA. *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *7 & n.11, *15.

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[12] Brief of the United States at 49 (citations omitted) (citing 42 U.S.C. § 405(c)(1)(B), (4), (5)(A)-(J); 8 C.F.R. § 1.3(a)(4)(vi); 20 C.F.R. §§ 422.104(a)(2), 422.105(a)).

[13] *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *44 n.64; *see also* 26 U.S.C. § 32(c)(1)(E), (m) (stating that eligibility for earned income tax credit is limited to individuals with Social Security numbers); 20 C.F.R. §§ 422.104(a)(2), 422.107(a), (e)(1).

[14] *See* TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.142(a) ("An applicant who is not a citizen of the United States must present . . . documentation issued by the appropriate United States agency that authorizes the applicant to be in the United States before the applicant may be issued a driver's license."); TEX. LAB. CODE § 207.043(a)(2) ("Benefits are not payable based on services performed by an alien unless the alien . . . was lawfully present for purposes of performing the services . . . ."); *see also* 26 U.S.C. § 3304(a)(14)(A) (approval of state laws making compensation payable to aliens who are "lawfully present for purposes of performing such services").

[15] There is some confusion—not necessarily in this case but generally—regarding the proper term for non-citizens who are in the United States unlawfully. The leading legal lexicographer offers the following compelling explanation:

> The usual and preferable term in [American English] is *illegal alien*. The other forms have arisen as needless euphemisms, and should be avoided as near-gobbledygook. The problem with

The states sued to prevent implementation of the program. First, they claimed that DAPA is procedurally unlawful under the APA because it is a substantive rule that is required to undergo notice and comment, but DHS had not followed those procedures. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 553. Second, the states asserted that DAPA was substantively unlawful under the APA because DHS lacked the authority to implement the program even if it did follow the correct process. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A)-(C). Third, the states contended that DAPA violated the President's constitutional duty to "take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed." U.S. CONST. art. II, § 3.

The district court held that Texas had standing because it would be required to issue driver's licenses to DAPA beneficiaries, and the costs of doing so would constitute a cognizable injury. *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579,

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> *undocumented* is that it is intended to mean, by those who use it in this phrase, "not having the requisite documents to enter or stay in a country legally." But the word strongly suggests "unaccounted for" to those unfamiliar with this quasi-legal jargon, and it may therefore obscure the meaning.
>
> More than one writer has argued in favor of *undocumented alien* . . . [to] avoid[ ] the implication that one's unauthorized presence in the United States is a crime . . . . But that statement is only equivocally correct: although illegal aliens' presence in the country is no crime, their *entry* into the country is . . . . Moreover, it is wrong to equate illegality with criminality, since many illegal acts are not criminal. *Illegal alien* is not an opprobrious epithet: it describes one present in a country in violation of the immigration laws (hence "illegal").

BRYAN A. GARNER, GARNER'S DICTIONARY OF LEGAL USAGE 912 (Oxford 3d ed. 2011) (citations omitted).

at *11-17. Alternatively, the court held that Texas had standing based on a theory it called "abdication standing," under which a state has standing if the government has exclusive authority over a particular policy area but declines to act. *Id.* at *28-34.[16] The court entered the preliminary injunction after concluding that Texas had shown a substantial likelihood of success on its claim that DAPA's implementation would violate the APA's notice-and-comment requirements. *Id.* at *62. The court did not "address[] Plaintiffs' likelihood of success on their *substantive* APA claim or their constitutional claims under the Take Care Clause/separation of powers doctrine." *Id.* at *61. The government's motion for a stay pending appeal is based on its insistence that the states do not have standing or a right to judicial review under the APA and, alternatively, that DAPA is exempt from the notice-and-comment requirements. The government also urges that the injunction's nationwide scope is an abuse of discretion.[17]

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[16] The court considered but ultimately did not rely on two other theories. The first was that the states could sue as *parens patriae* on behalf of citizens injured by economic competition from DAPA beneficiaries. *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *18-20. The second was that, in light of *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. 497 (2007), the states could sue based on the losses they suffer from illegal immigration generally. *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *21-28.

[17] The issues in this case were not resolved by *Crane v. Johnson*, 783 F.3d 244, 247 (5th Cir. 2015), which held "that neither the [Immigration and Customs Enforcement] Agents nor the State of Mississippi has demonstrated the concrete and particularized injury required to give them standing" to challenge DACA. Mississippi lacked standing because it failed to allege facts indicating that its costs had increased or would increase as a result of DACA. *Id.* at

II.

"We consider four factors in deciding whether to grant a stay pending appeal: '(1) whether the stay applicant has made a strong showing that he is likely to succeed on the merits; (2) whether the applicant will be irreparably injured absent a stay; (3) whether issuance of the stay will substantially injure the other parties interested in the proceeding; and (4) where the public interest lies.'"[18] To succeed on the merits, the government must show that the district court abused its discretion by entering a preliminary injunction.[19] A decision "grounded in erroneous legal principles is reviewed *de novo*," and findings of fact are reviewed for clear error.[20] "A stay 'is not a

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252. The agents lacked standing because, *inter alia*, they had not alleged a sufficient factual basis for their claim that an employment action against them was "certainly impending" if they "exercise[d] [their] discretion to detain an illegal alien." *Id.* at 254. That conclusion was informed by the express delegation of discretion on the face of the DACA Memo and the fact that no sanctions or warnings had yet been issued. *Id.* at 254-55. We expressly declined to address the driver's license theory, *id.* at 252 n.34, and did not hold that deferred action under DACA was an exercise of prosecutorial discretion or that the criteria were not binding, *id.* at 254-55.

[18] *Planned Parenthood of Greater Tex. Surgical Health Servs. v. Abbott*, 734 F.3d 406, 410 (5th Cir. 2013) (quoting *Nken v. Holder*, 556 U.S. 418, 426 (2009)) (internal quotation marks omitted).

[19] *Sepulvado v. Jindal*, 729 F.3d 413, 417 (5th Cir. 2013), *cert. denied*, 134 S. Ct. 1789 (2014).

[20] *Id.* at 418 (quoting *Janvey v. Alguire*, 647 F.3d 585, 592 (5th Cir. 2011)).

matter of right, even if irreparable injury might otherwise result to the appellant.'"[21]

III.

We begin by deciding whether the government has made a strong showing that it is likely to succeed on the merits of its claim that the states lack standing. It has not done so. We reach only the district court's first basis for standing—the driver's license rationale—because it is dispositive.[22]

The states have the burden of establishing that at least one of them has Article III standing.[23] First, they

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[21] *Planned Parenthood*, 734 F.3d at 410 (quoting *Nken*, 556 U.S. at 427).

[22] The United States cites several cases for the proposition that DAPA is not justiciable. None of them resolved the question at issue here, so we consider them only to the extent that they are relevant to our analysis of the standing requirements. *See Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2497 (2012) (where standing was not at issue); *Heckler v. Chaney*, 470 U.S. 821, 823 (1985) (addressing availability of judicial review under APA but not standing); *Sure-Tan, Inc. v. NLRB*, 467 U.S. 883, 886 (1984) (where standing was not at issue); *Plyler v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 202, 205 (1982) (same); *Fiallo v. Bell*, 430 U.S. 787, 788 (1977) (same); *Mathews v. Diaz*, 426 U.S. 67, 69 (1976) (same); *Linda R.S. v. Richard D.*, 410 U.S. 614, *passim* (1973) (addressing standing in a different context); *Henderson v. Stalder*, 287 F.3d 374, *passim* (5th Cir. 2002) (same); *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d 661, 664 n.2 (5th Cir. 1997) (assuming but not deciding that Texas had standing to seek payment from government for expenses associated with illegal immigration); *United States v. Cox*, 342 F.2d 167, 170 (5th Cir. 1965) (en banc) (where standing was not at issue).

[23] *See Clapper v. Amnesty Int'l USA*, 133 S. Ct. 1138, 1148 (2013) ("'The party invoking federal jurisdiction bears the burden of es-

must assert an injury that is "concrete, particularized, and actual or imminent."[24] "'[T]hreatened injury must be *certainly impending* to constitute injury in fact,' and . . . '[a]llegations of *possible* future injury' are not sufficient."[25] Second, the injury must be "fairly traceable to the challenged action." *Clapper*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147 (quoting *Monsanto*, 561 U.S. at 149). The states may establish standing based on costs they incur as a reasonable reaction to a risk of harm only if that harm is certainly impending. *See id.* at 1151. Third, the injury must be "redressable by a favorable ruling." *Id.* at 1147 (quoting *Monsanto*, 561 U.S. at 149). "When a litigant is vested

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tablishing' standing . . . ." (quoting *Lujan v. Defenders of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. 555, 561 (1992))); *Rumsfeld v. Forum for Academic & Institutional Rights, Inc.*, 547 U.S. 47, 52 n.2 (2006) ("[T]he presence of one party with standing is sufficient to satisfy Article III's case-or-controversy requirement."). The decision in *Lexmark International, Inc. v. Static Control Components, Inc.*, 134 S. Ct. 1377 (2014), casts doubt on whether the limitations often described as prudential standing requirements should be considered as part of the standing inquiry. *See id.* at 1386-88; *see also Superior MRI Servs., Inc. v. Alliance Healthcare Servs., Inc.*, 778 F.3d 502, 505-06 (5th Cir. 2015) (discussing *Lexmark*'s impact). We need not address that, because there is no suggestion that the states are attempting to assert a third party's rights or to seek adjudication of a generalized grievance, and we must apply the zone-of-interests test to determine whether judicial review is available under the APA. *See generally Valley Forge Christian Coll. v. Ams. United for Separation of Church & State, Inc.*, 454 U.S. 464, 474-75 (1982) (listing prudential-standing requirements).

[24] *Amnesty Int'l*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147 (quoting *Monsanto Co. v. Geertson Seed Farms*, 561 U.S. 139, 149 (2010)).

[25] *Id.* (second alteration in original) (quoting *Whitmore v. Arkansas*, 495 U.S. 149, 158 (1990)).

with a procedural right, that litigant has standing if there is some possibility that the requested relief will prompt the injury-causing party to reconsider the decision that allegedly harmed the litigant." *Massachusetts*, 549 U.S. at 518.

A.

The first requirement is likely satisfied by Texas's proof of the costs of issuing driver's licenses to DAPA beneficiaries. "An applicant who is not a citizen of the United States must present . . . documentation issued by the appropriate United States agency that authorizes the applicant to be in the United States before the applicant may be issued a driver's license." TEX. TRANSP. CODE § 521.142(a). Documentation confirming lawful presence pursuant to DAPA would qualify.[26] The district court found that Texas would lose at least $130.89 on each license it issues to a DAPA beneficiary,[27] and the United

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[26] *See* TEX DEP'T OF PUB. SAFETY, VERIFYING LAWFUL PRESENCE 4 (2013), *available at* https://www.txdps.state.tx.us/DriverLicense/documents/verifyingLawfulPresence.pdf (listing acceptable document for "[p]erson granted deferred action" as "[i]mmigration documentation with an alien number or I-94 number"); *supra* text accompanying note 9.

[27] *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *11. The court noted that some of those costs are attributable to Texas's participation in the REAL ID Act of 2005, Pub. L. No. 109-13, div. B, 119 Stat. 302 (codified as amended in scattered sections of 8 and 49 U.S.C.). *Id.* To comply with that law, a state must, *inter alia*, use the federal Systematic Alien Verification for Entitlements system to verify an applicant's immigration status. 6 C.F.R. § 37.13(b)(1). The court found that the average fee Texas pays to use that system is $0.75 per applicant. Although states are not required to participate in the REAL ID Act, nonparticipating states' licenses are not valid for access to certain

States does not dispute that calculation on appeal. It is well established that a financial loss generally constitutes an injury,[28] so Texas is likely to meet its burden.

The government attacks that conclusion on two grounds. First, it claims that Texas will be required neither to issue licenses nor to subsidize them. Texas responds that it will have to do so in light of *Arizona DREAM Act Coalition v. Brewer*, 757 F.3d 1053 (9th Cir. 2014), which held that DACA beneficiaries were likely to succeed on their equal-protection challenge to Arizona's policy of issuing licenses to some noncitizens but not to them, *id.* at 1067, and suggested but did not decide that the policy was preempted, *id.* at 1063. Although *Arizona DREAM Act* supports Texas's position that it cannot legally deny licenses to DAPA beneficiaries, it is not dispositive. Even if we were bound by the decision of another circuit, that court said nothing about subsidizing licenses, and Texas could avoid financial injury by raising its application fees to cover the full cost of issuing and administering a license.

But that does not resolve the matter. The flaw in the government's reasoning is that Texas's forced choice between incurring costs and changing its fee structure is itself an injury: A plaintiff suffers an injury even if it can

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federal facilities and eventually will not be valid for commercial air travel without a secondary form of identification. *REAL ID Enforcement in Brief*, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HOMELAND SECURITY (Mar. 30, 2015), http://www.dhs.gov/real-id-enforcement-brief.

[28] *See, e.g., Cibolo Waste, Inc. v. City of San Antonio*, 718 F.3d 469, 473-74 (5th Cir. 2013); *Lion Health Servs., Inc. v. Sebelius*, 635 F.3d 693, 699 (5th Cir. 2011).

avoid that injury by incurring other costs.[29] And being pressured to change state law constitutes an injury.

"[S]tates have a sovereign interest in 'the power to create and enforce a legal code.'"[30] Based on that interest, we held that Texas had standing to challenge the FCC's assertion of authority over an aspect of telecommunications regulation that the state believed it controlled[31]; three other circuits held that the preemption of an existing state law constitutes an injury[32]; and the Sixth Circuit held that making the enforcement of an existing state law more difficult qualifies.[33] Reviewing that caselaw, the Fourth Circuit explained that a state has standing based on a conflict between federal and state law if "the state statute at issue regulate[s] behavior or provide[s] for the administration of a state program," *Vir-*

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[29] *See Texas v. United States*, 497 F.3d 491, 497 (5th Cir. 2007) ("Texas's only alternative to participating in this allegedly invalid process is to forfeit its sole opportunity to comment upon Kickapoo gaming regulations, a forced choice that is itself sufficient to support standing.").

[30] *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel v. FCC*, 183 F.3d 393, 449 (5th Cir. 1999) (quoting *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592, 601 (1982)).

[31] *Id.*

[32] *See, e.g.*, *Wyoming ex rel. Crank v. United States*, 539 F.3d 1236, 1242 (10th Cir. 2008); *Alaska v. U.S. Dep't of Transp.*, 868 F.2d 441, 443-44 (D.C. Cir. 1989); *Ohio ex rel. Celebrezze v. U.S. Dep't of Transp.*, 766 F.2d 228, 232-33 (6th Cir. 1985); *cf. Diamond v. Charles*, 476 U.S. 54, 62 (1986) (noting in *dictum* that "a State has standing to defend the constitutionality of its statute").

[33] *Celebrezze*, 766 F.2d at 232-33; *cf. Maine v. Taylor*, 477 U.S. 131, 137 (1986) ("[A] State clearly has a legitimate interest in the continued enforceability of its own statutes.").

ginia ex rel. Cuccinelli v. Sebelius, 656 F.3d 253, 269 (4th Cir. 2011), but not if "it simply purports to immunize [state] citizens from federal law," *id.* at 270.

That well-established caselaw is dispositive because if pressure to change state law in some substantial way were not injury, states would have no standing to challenge *bona fide* harms because they could offset most financial losses by raising taxes or fees. Texas's forced choice between incurring costs and changing its laws is an injury because those laws exist for the administration of a state program, not to challenge federal law, and Texas did not enact them merely to create standing.[34]

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[34] The government relies on *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660 (1976) (per curiam), for the proposition that Texas's injury is self-inflicted. There, several states alleged that other states had unconstitutionally taxed nonresidents' incomes. *Id.* at 661-63. The plaintiffs said the challenged practices had caused them to lose tax revenue. *Id.* at 663. The Court held that the plaintiffs' injuries were self-inflicted because they were caused by the plaintiffs' decisions to give their residents credits for taxes paid to other states, so there was no cognizable injury. *See id.* at 664. The Court later held, however, that Wyoming had standing to challenge an Oklahoma statute that decreased Wyoming's severance-tax revenue by requiring some Oklahoma power plants to burn at least 10% Oklahoma-mined coal. *See Wyoming v. Oklahoma*, 502 U.S. 437, 447-50 (1992).

Wyoming controls here. The plaintiffs in *Pennsylvania* chose to base their tax credits on other states' tax policies; they could have used other methods to accomplish a similar result, such as basing the credits on residents' out-of-state incomes, rather than taxes actually paid to other states. By contrast, Wyoming did nothing to tie its severance tax to Oklahoma law. Like Wyoming, Texas has few options to avoid being affected by what it believes are unlawful changes to federal immigration policies: It must rely on federal

Second, the government urges that Texas will suffer no injury, because the costs of issuing licenses will be outweighed by countervailing economic benefits, including increased tax revenue, decreased reliance on state-subsidized health care, better financial support for DAPA beneficiaries' children, increased revenue from vehicle-registration fees, and decreased auto insurance costs. All that may be true, but those benefits are not properly weighed in evaluating standing here. We have addressed the question of offsetting benefits only to a limited extent, holding that individuals lacked taxpayer standing to challenge Louisiana's issuance of pro-life license plates in part because the extra fees paid by drivers who purchased the plates could have covered the expenses associated with offering them and distributing the funds they raised. *Henderson*, 287 F.3d at 379-81.

That approach is appropriate, if at all, where the costs and benefits are of the same type and arise from the same transaction because the plaintiff has suffered no real injury. By contrast, other circuits have declined to consider offsetting benefits of different types or from different transactions.[35] Our sister circuits' approach makes

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immigration classifications if it seeks to issue licenses only to those lawfully present in the United States. The government acknowledges this in its motion for stay, noting that "[s]tates may choose to issue driver's licenses to deferred action recipients or not, as long as they base eligibility on federal immigration classifications rather than creating new state-law classifications of aliens." Because Texas does not have the level of choice the plaintiffs in *Pennsylvania* enjoyed, its injury is not self-inflicted.

[35] *See, e.g., NCAA v. Governor of N.J.*, 730 F.3d 208, 223 (3d Cir. 2013); *L.A. Haven Hospice, Inc. v. Sebelius*, 638 F.3d 644, 656-59

sense in that context because attempting to balance all costs and benefits associated with a challenged policy would leave plaintiffs without standing to challenge legitimate injuries, given that defendants could point to unrelated benefits, improperly shifting to the plaintiffs the burden of showing that the costs outweigh them.

Most of the benefits the government cites—increased tax revenue, decreased reliance on state-subsidized health care, and better financial support for DAPA beneficiaries' children—are wholly separate from the costs of issuing licenses. The other benefits it identifies—increased revenue from vehicle fees and decreased auto insurance costs—are more closely associated with the costs of issuing licenses, but the caselaw illustrates that they are still too far removed to be applied as offsets.

For example, in *NCAA*, 730 F.3d at 222-23, the Third Circuit held that sports leagues had standing to challenge New Jersey's plan to license sports betting even though the damage to the leagues' reputations could have been outweighed by increased interest in watching sports. Likewise, in *Markva*, 317 F.3d at 557-58, the Sixth Circuit held that grandparents who cared for dependent children had standing to challenge a requirement that they spend

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(9th Cir. 2011); *Ross v. Bank of Am., N.A. (USA)*, 524 F.3d 217, 222 (2d Cir. 2008); *Markva v. Haveman*, 317 F.3d 547, 557-58 (6th Cir. 2003); *see also* 13A CHARLES ALAN WRIGHT ET AL., FEDERAL PRACTICE AND PROCEDURE § 3531.4 (3d ed. 2015) ("Once injury is shown, no attempt is made to ask whether the injury is outweighed by benefits the plaintiff has enjoyed from the relationship with the defendant. Standing is recognized to complain that some particular aspect of the relationship is unlawful and has caused injury.").

more of their own money before obtaining Medicaid benefits, as compared to similarly situated parents, even though the grandparents arguably received more of other types of welfare benefits. Here, as in those cases and others,[36] the benefits the government cites concern the same subject matter as the costs but do not arise from the same transaction, so we cannot consider them. Accordingly, Texas has likely asserted an injury that is "concrete, particularized, and actual or imminent." *Clapper*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147 (quoting *Monsanto*, 561 U.S. at 149).

B.

Texas is likely to satisfy the second requirement by showing that its injury is "fairly traceable to the challenged action." *Id.* (quoting *Monsanto*, 561 U.S. at 149). As we have explained,[37] it is undeniable that DAPA would enable beneficiaries to apply for licenses, but the United States asserts that DAPA's incidental consequences are not cognizable injuries because the causal link is too attenuated. *Massachusetts v. EPA* establishes, much to the contrary, that Texas's injury suffices.

In *Massachusetts*, 549 U.S. at 526, the Court held that the erosion of the state's shoreline gave it standing to challenge the EPA's decision not to regulate greenhouse-

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[36] *See, e.g.*, *L.A. Haven Hospice*, 638 F.3d at 656-57 (holding that hospice had standing to challenge regulation that allegedly increased its liability even though regulation may have also saved it money); *Sutton v. St. Jude Med. S.C., Inc.*, 419 F.3d 568, 570-75 (6th Cir. 2005) (holding that patient had standing based on increased risk from defective medical device even though his device had not malfunctioned and had benefited him).

[37] *See supra* note 26 and accompanying text.

gas emissions from new motor vehicles. The Court noted that the Clean Air Act authorizes judicial review of the EPA's denial of a rulemaking petition, a fact that "is of critical importance to the standing inquiry [because] 'Congress has the power to define injuries and articulate chains of causation that will give rise to a case or controversy where none existed before.'" *Id.* at 516 (quoting *Defenders of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. at 580). Moreover, "States are not normal litigants for the purposes of invoking federal jurisdiction," *id.* at 518, because they surrendered some of the sovereign powers necessary to protect themselves from harms such as climate change when they joined the union, *id.* at 519. That point was especially relevant because the EPA's inaction had caused the erosion of Massachusetts's sovereign territory. *See id.* "Given that procedural right and Massachusetts's stake in protecting its quasi-sovereign interests, the Commonwealth [was] entitled to special solicitude in [the] standing analysis." *Id.* at 520.

This case implicates the same concerns. Texas is exercising a procedural right: Just as the Clean Air Act ("CAA") authorizes judicial review of "final action taken[] by the Administrator," 42 U.S.C. § 7607(b)(1), the APA authorizes judicial review of "final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court," 5 U.S.C. § 704.[38] And Texas is protecting its quasi-sovereign

[38] The fact that the CAA's review provision is more specific than the APA's is relevant to, but not dispositive of, our "special solicitude" analysis. The former's specificity may suggest that Congress meant for plaintiffs to have standing to challenge procedural violations of the CAA even if they would not have standing to challenge some analogous violations of the APA. That said, we rou-

interest in not being forced to choose between incurring costs and changing its driver's license regime.[39] Therefore, it is entitled to the same "special solicitude" as was Massachusetts.[40]

The analysis of the "fairly traceable" requirement in *Massachusetts* is also highly relevant. The main causa-

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tinely hold that plaintiffs have standing to challenge failures to comply with the APA's notice-and-comment requirements, *see, e.g.*, *United States v. Johnson*, 632 F.3d 912, 920-27 (5th Cir. 2011), and the Tenth Circuit treats the APA's review provision as sufficient to entitle a state to "special solicitude," at least in some circumstances, *see New Mexico ex rel. Richardson v. Bureau of Land Mgmt.*, 565 F.3d 683, 694, 696 n.13 (10th Cir. 2009) (holding that the state was entitled to special solicitude where one of its claims was based on APA); *Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1241-42 (same where only claim was based on APA). Moreover, Texas's interest in not being pressured to change its law is more directly related to its sovereignty than was Massachusetts's interest in preventing the erosion of its shoreline. *See supra* notes 30-33 and accompanying text. Because of Texas's substantial interest, it is entitled to "special solicitude" here even though a state may not always be entitled to that presumption when seeking review under the APA—an issue we need not decide.

[39] *See Crank*, 539 F.3d at 1241-42 (reasoning that the state was entitled to special solicitude where its asserted injury was interference with enforcement of state law); *Tex. Office of Pub. Util. Counsel*, 183 F.3d at 449 ("[S]tates have a sovereign interest in 'the power to create and enforce a legal code.'" (quoting *Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 601)); *cf. Richardson*, 565 F.3d at 696 n.13 (state was entitled to special solicitude where its asserted injury was both harm to its land and financial loss).

[40] This panel heard over two hours of oral argument on this motion for stay. Government counsel was specifically asked to explain how the United States avoids the "special solicitude" language in its effort to defeat standing. Counsel acknowledged that he had no explanation.

tion issue was whether the connection between the EPA's inaction and the state's injury was too remote. *See Massachusetts*, 549 U.S. at 523. The EPA maintained that the injury was not cognizable, because regulating greenhouse-gas emissions from new motor vehicles would have done little to prevent the erosion of the state's land. *Id.* at 523-24. The Court rejected that theory, explaining that the fact "[t]hat a first step might be tentative does not by itself support the notion that federal courts lack jurisdiction to determine whether that step conforms to law" and that "reducing domestic automobile emissions [was] hardly a tentative step," in any event. *Id.* at 524.

The answer here is the same. Although Texas would not be directly regulated by DAPA, the program would have a direct and predictable effect on the state's driver's license regime, and the impact would be significant because at least 500,000 potential beneficiaries live in the state. Alternatively, Texas could change its law, but being pressured to do so is itself a substantial injury, as already discussed.

By contrast, where the Supreme Court has found that an injury is not fairly traceable, the intervening, independent act of a third party has been a necessary condition of the harm's occurrence, or the challenged action has played a minor role. For instance, the plaintiffs in *Clapper* lacked standing to challenge a section of the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act that they alleged would lead to the monitoring of their communications. *Clapper*, 133 S. Ct. at 1155. For the asserted injury to occur, the Attorney General and the Director of National Intelligence would have had to authorize the collection of com-

munications to which the plaintiffs were a party, the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Court would have had to approve the surveillance, and the government would have had to succeed in intercepting the communications. *Id.* at 1148. Emphasizing its "usual reluctance to endorse standing theories that rest on speculation about the decisions of independent actors," the Court held that the plaintiffs had not satisfied the "fairly traceable" requirement.[41] Separately, the Court rejected the theory "that a market participant is injured for Article III purposes whenever a competitor benefits from something allegedly unlawful—whether a trademark, the awarding of a contract, a landlord-tenant arrangement, or so on." *Already, LLC v. Nike, Inc.*, 133 S. Ct. 721, 731 (2013). Myriad factors determine market shares, so it is difficult to trace a competitive injury to a particular decision benefiting a competitor.[42]

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[41] *Clapper*, 133 S. Ct. at 1150; *see also, e.g.*, *Ariz. Christian Sch. Tuition Org. v. Winn*, 131 S. Ct. 1436, 1447-48 (2011) (stating that taxpayers lacked standing to challenge tax credits that indirectly benefited religious schools in part because private individuals decided whether to use credits for religious schools); *Whitmore*, 495 U.S. at 156-57 (concluding that death-row inmate lacked standing to challenge another inmate's death sentence in part because it was unclear whether courts would rule favorably).

[42] *See also, e.g.*, *McConnell v. FEC*, 540 U.S. 93, 228 (2003) (deciding that candidates lacked standing to challenge increased hard-money limits because their inability to compete was also caused by their decisions not to accept large contributions), *overruled on other grounds by Citizens United v. FEC*, 558 U.S. 310 (2010); *Allen v. Wright*, 468 U.S. 737, 756-59 (1984) (holding that parents lacked standing to challenge tax exemptions for racially discriminatory private schools in part because effect on their children's ability to

Texas's claim regarding driver's licenses suffers from neither of those deficiencies. The only intervening act of a third party is the beneficiaries' decisions to apply for licenses, but it is hardly speculative that they will do so—driving is a practical necessity in most of Texas, especially to get and hold a job, so many beneficiaries will be eager to obtain licenses. Further, DAPA is the only substantial cause of Texas's injury. In short, given the "special solicitude" that the Supreme Court directs us to afford to Texas, the parallels between this case and *Massachusetts*, and the differences between this case and those in which the Supreme Court has not found standing, the states are likely to satisfy the "fairly traceable" requirement.

C.

The third requirement, that the injury be "redressable by a favorable ruling," *Clapper*, 133 S. Ct. at 1147 (quoting *Monsanto*, 561 U.S. at 149), is easily met here. Enjoining the implementation of DAPA until it undergoes notice and comment could prompt DHS to reconsider its decision, which is all a litigant must show when asserting a procedural right. *See Massachusetts*, 549 U.S. at 518.

Thus, the government has not made a strong showing that it is likely to succeed on the merits of its notion that the states lack standing. At least one state—Texas—is

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receive education in racially integrated public school depended on whether withdrawal of exemption would cause private schools to change policies and on the number of students who would transfer to public schools if they did so), *abrogated on other grounds by Lexmark*, 134 S. Ct. at 1388.

likely to satisfy all three requirements, so the government's challenge to standing is without merit.

IV.

In addition to having standing, the states must seek to protect interests that are "arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute . . . in question."[43] Under "the 'generous review provisions' of the APA,"[44] that "test is not meant to be especially demanding; in particular, there need be no indication of congressional purpose to benefit the would-be plaintiff."[45] "We apply the test in keeping with Congress's 'evident intent' when enacting the APA 'to make agency action presumptively reviewable,'" and "the benefit of any doubt goes to the plaintiff."[46] The states would fail the test only if their "interests are so marginally related to or inconsistent with the purposes implicit in the statute that it cannot reasonably be assumed that Congress intended to permit the suit."[47]

The government has not made a strong showing that the interests the states seek to protect fall outside the zone of interests of the Immigration and Nationality Act ("INA"). "The pervasiveness of federal regulation does

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[43] *Clarke v. Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. 388, 396 (1987) (quoting *Ass'n of Data Processing Serv. Orgs., Inc. v. Camp*, 397 U.S. 150, 153 (1970)).

[44] *Id.* at 400 n.16 (quoting *Data Processing*, 397 U.S. at 156).

[45] *Id.* at 399-400 (footnote omitted).

[46] *Match-E-Be-Nash-She-Wish Band of Pottawatomi Indians v. Patchak*, 132 S. Ct. 2199, 2210 (2012) (quoting *Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. at 399).

[47] *Id.* (quoting *Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. at 399).

not diminish the importance of immigration policy to the States," which "bear[] many of the consequences of unlawful immigration." *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2500 (2012). In recognition of that fact, Congress permits states to deny many benefits to illegal aliens.[48] Knowing that they may not enforce laws that conflict with federal law, *see, e.g.*, *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2510, the states seek only to be heard in the formulation of immigration policy before it imposes substantial costs on them. "Consultation between federal and state officials is an important feature of the immigration system," *id.* at 2508, and the notice-and-comment process, which "is designed to ensure that affected parties have an opportunity to participate in and influence agency decision making,"[49] facilitates such communication. The states easily satisfy the zone-of-interests test.

V.

In deciding whether the United States has made a strong showing that judicial review is precluded, we are mindful that "[a] person suffering legal wrong because of agency action, or adversely affected or aggrieved by agency action within the meaning of a relevant statute, is

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[48] *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1621 (identifying aliens ineligible "for any State or local public benefit," § 1621(a) and noting that "[a] State may provide that an alien who is not lawfully present in the United States is eligible for any State or local public benefit for which such alien would otherwise be ineligible," § 1621(d)); *United States v. Alabama*, 691 F.3d 1269, 1298 (11th Cir. 2012) (noting that driver's licenses fall within definition of "public benefit" in § 1621(c)).

[49] *U.S. Steel Corp. v. EPA*, 595 F.2d 207, 214 (5th Cir. 1979).

entitled to judicial review thereof."[50] But judicial review is unavailable "to the extent that—(1) statutes preclude judicial review; or (2) agency action is committed to agency discretion by law." 5 U.S.C. § 701(a).

A.

"[O]nly upon a showing of 'clear and convincing evidence' of a contrary legislative intent should the courts restrict access to judicial review." *Block v. Cmty. Nutrition Inst.*, 467 U.S. 340, 350 (1984) (quoting *Abbott Labs. v. Gardner*, 387 U.S. 136, 141 (1967)). That "standard is not a rigid evidentiary test but a useful reminder . . . that, where substantial doubt about the congressional intent exists, the general presumption favoring judicial review of administrative action is controlling." *Id.* at 351. "Whether and to what extent a particular statute precludes judicial review is determined not only from its express language, but also from the structure of the statutory scheme, its objectives, its legislative history, and the nature of the administrative action involved." *Id.* at 345.

The United States maintains that 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g)[51] expressly prohibits judicial review, but that provision is not "a sort of 'zipper' clause that says 'no judicial review in

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[50] 5 U.S.C. § 702. The government does not dispute that DAPA is a "final agency action." *See Lujan v. Nat'l Wildlife Fed'n*, 497 U.S. 871, 882 (1990).

[51] With limited exceptions, "no court shall have jurisdiction to hear any cause or claim by or on behalf of any alien arising from the decision or action by the Attorney General to commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien under this chapter." 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g).

deportation cases unless this section provides judicial review'"; instead, it "applies only to three discrete actions that the Attorney General may take: her 'decision or action' to '*commence* proceedings, *adjudicate* cases, or *execute* removal orders.'"[52] It is inapplicable here because (1) the states are not bringing a "cause or claim by or on behalf of any alien," and (2) the action does not "aris[e] from the decision or action by the Attorney General to commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien." § 1252(g).

Nor does the government's broad and exclusive authority over immigration policy mean that review is implicitly barred.[53] The INA has numerous specific jurisdiction-stripping provisions[54] that would be rendered

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[52] *Reno v. Am.-Arab Anti-Discrimination Comm. (AAADC)*, 525 U.S. 471, 482 (1999) (quoting § 1252(g)).

[53] Although "private persons . . . have no judicially cognizable interest in procuring enforcement of the immigration laws," *Sure-Tan*, 467 U.S. at 897; *accord Fiallo*, 430 U.S. at 792 (emphasizing government's authority over immigration), neither the preliminary injunction nor the notice-and-comment process requires the government to enforce the immigration laws.

[54] *See AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 486-87 (listing "8 U.S.C. § 1252(a)(2)(A) (limiting review of any claim arising from the inspection of aliens arriving in the United States), [(B)] (barring review of denials of discretionary relief authorized by various statutory provisions), [(C)] (barring review of final removal orders against criminal aliens), [(b)(4)(D)] (limiting review of asylum determinations)"); *see also, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(v) (barring review of waiver of re-entry restrictions); 1226a(b)(1) (limiting review of detention of terrorist aliens); 1229c(e) (barring review of regulations limiting eligibility for voluntary departure), (f) (limiting review of denial of voluntary departure).

superfluous by application of an implied, overarching principle prohibiting review.[55] Such a conclusion would be contrary to *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 482, in which the Court noted that § 1252(g) does not "impose a general jurisdictional limitation; and that those who enacted IIRIRA were familiar with the normal manner of imposing such a limitation."[56]

Moreover, judicial review of an action brought by states to enforce procedural rights under the APA is consistent with the protections Congress affords to states that decline to provide benefits to illegal aliens. As we have explained,[57] Texas, as permitted by § 1621, subsidizes driver's licenses to, *inter alia*, lawfully present aliens but declines to issue them to those unlawfully present. And the state seeks to participate in notice and comment before the Secretary changes the designation of 500,000 aliens residing there in such a way that would cause the state to incur substantial costs.

The Supreme Court's discussion of deferred action in *AAADC* suggests that judicial review may be available if there is an indication that deferred-action decisions are

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[55] *See Corley v. United States*, 556 U.S. 303, 314 (2009) ("[A] statute should be construed so that effect is given to all its provisions, so that no part will be inoperative or superfluous, void or insignificant . . . ." (quoting *Hibbs v. Winn*, 542 U.S. 88, 101 (2004)).

[56] "The Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act of 1996, ('IIRIRA'), Pub. L. 104-208, 110 Stat. 3009, amended the INA's provisions pertaining to removal of aliens and enacted new judicial review provisions, codified at 8 U.S.C. § 1252." *Mejia Rodriguez v. DHS*, 562 F.3d 1137, 1142 n.12 (11th Cir. 2009) (per curiam).

[57] *See supra* note 48 and accompanying text.

not made on a case-by-case basis. There, a group of aliens sought to stop deportation proceedings against them, but § 1252(g) deprived the courts of jurisdiction. *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 487. Noting that § 1252(g) codified the Secretary's discretion to decline "the initiation or prosecution of various stages in the deportation process," *id.* at 483, the Court observed that "[p]rior to 1997, deferred-action decisions were governed by internal [Immigration and Naturalization Service ("INS")] guidelines which considered [a variety of factors]," *id.* at 484 n.8. Although those guidelines had since been rescinded, the Court noted that "there [was] no indication that the INS has ceased making this sort of determination on a case-by-case basis." *Id.* The United States has not rebutted the strong presumption of reviewability with clear and convincing evidence that the INA precludes review.[58]

B.

The Secretary does, nonetheless, have broad enforcement discretion and maintains that deferred action under DAPA—a grant of "lawful presence" and subsequent eligibility for otherwise unavailable benefits—is a presumptively unreviewable exercise of that discretion.[59] "The

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[58] *See, e.g., Gulf Restoration Network v. McCarthy*, No. 13-31214, 2015 WL 1566608, at *4 (5th Cir. Apr. 7, 2015) ("[T]here is a 'strong presumption,' subject to Congressional language, that 'action taken by a federal agency is reviewable in federal court.'" (quoting *RSR Corp. v. Donovan*, 747 F.2d 294, 299 n.23 (5th Cir. 1984))).

[59] *See Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 ("A principal feature of the removal system is the broad discretion exercised by immigration officials. Federal officials, as an initial matter, must decide whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all." (citation omitted)).

general exception to reviewability provided by § 701(a)(2) for action 'committed to agency discretion' remains a narrow one, but within that exception are included agency refusals to institute investigative or enforcement proceedings, unless Congress has indicated otherwise."[60] When, however, "an agency *does* act to enforce, that action itself provides a focus for judicial review, inasmuch as the agency must have exercised its power in some manner. The action at least can be reviewed to determine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers." *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832.

Some features of DAPA are similar to prosecutorial discretion: DAPA amounts to the Secretary's decision—at least temporarily—not to enforce the immigration laws as to a class of what he deems to be low-priority aliens.[61] If that were all DAPA involved, we would have a different case. DAPA's version of deferred action, however, is more than nonenforcement: It is the affirmative act of conferring "lawful presence" on a class of unlawfully present aliens.[62] Though revocable, that new designation

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[60] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 838 (citation omitted); *see Lincoln v. Vigil*, 508 U.S. 182, 190-91 (1993).

[61] The preliminary injunction does not require the Secretary to deport any alien or to alter his enforcement priorities, and the states have not challenged the priority levels he has established. *See* Memorandum from Jeh Johnson, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to Thomas Winkowski, Acting Dir., U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, et al. (Nov. 20, 2014) (the "Prioritization Memo"), *available at* http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/14_1120_memo_prosecutorial_discretion.pdf.

[62] *See* DAPA Memo, *supra* note 7, at 2; *supra* note 9 and accompanying text. Although "[a]s a general rule, it is not a crime for

triggers eligibility for federal[63] and state[64] benefits that would not otherwise be available.[65]

"[A]lthough prosecutorial discretion is broad, it is not 'unfettered.'"[66] Declining to prosecute does not convert an act deemed unlawful by Congress into a lawful one and confer eligibility for benefits based on that new classification. Regardless of whether the Secretary has the authority to offer those incentives for participation in DAPA, his doing so is not shielded from judicial review

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a removable alien to remain present in the United States," it is a civil offense. *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2505; *see* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(i), 1227(a)(1)(A)-(B).

[63] *See supra* notes 10-143 and accompanying text. DAPA also tolls the recipients' unlawful presence under the INA's reentry bars, which will benefit aliens who receive lawful presence as minors because the unlawful-presence clock begins to run only at age 18. *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1182(a)(9)(B)(iii). Tolling will not help most adult beneficiaries because one must have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010, to be eligible for DAPA, and therefore will likely already be subject to the reentry bar for aliens who have "been unlawfully present in the United States for one year or more." § 1182(a)(9)(B)(i)(II), (C)(i)(I).

[64] *See supra* notes 14 and 26 and accompanying text.

[65] *Cf.* Memorandum from James Cole, Deputy Att'y Gen., to All United States Attorneys (Aug. 29, 2013) (the "Cole Memo"), *available at* http://www.justice.gov/iso/opa/resources/305201382913275685746 7.pdf. The Cole Memo does not direct an agency to grant any type of affirmative benefit to anyone engaged in unlawful conduct, whereas the DAPA Memo directs an agency to grant lawful presence and provides eligibility for employment authorization and other federal and state benefits to certain illegally present aliens.

[66] *Wayte v. United States*, 470 U.S. 598, 608 (1985) (quoting *United States v. Batchelder*, 442 U.S. 114, 125 (1979)) (internal quotation mark omitted).

as an act of prosecutorial discretion.[67] And as shown above,[68] neither the preliminary injunction nor compliance with the APA requires the Secretary to prosecute deportable aliens or change his enforcement priorities.

Our conclusion is bolstered by the Supreme Court's description of deferred action in *AAADC*:

> To ameliorate a harsh and unjust outcome, the INS may *decline to institute proceedings, terminate proceedings, or decline to execute a final order of deportation*. This commendable exercise in administrative discretion, developed without express statutory authorization, originally was known as nonpriority and is now designated as deferred action. . . . *Approval of deferred action status means that . . . no action will thereafter be taken to proceed against an apparently deportable alien*, even on grounds normally regarded as aggravated.[69]

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[67] Offering lawful presence and other benefits may ultimately help the Secretary enforce immigration laws more efficiently because those benefits make deportable aliens likely to self-identify, but not all inducements fall within the narrow exception for actions "committed to agency discretion." *See Util. Air Regulatory Grp. v. EPA*, 134 S. Ct. 2427, 2446 (2014) ("An agency confronting resource constraints may change its own conduct, but it cannot change the law."). As discussed in part V.C, *infra*, we do not interpret the INA, at least at this early stage of the case, as conferring unreviewable discretion on the Secretary to grant the class-based lawful presence and eligibility for benefits at issue in DAPA.

[68] *See supra* note 61.

[69] *AAADC*, 525 U.S. at 484 (emphasis added) (quoting 6 C. GORDON, S MAILMAN & S YALE-LOEHR, IMMIGRATION LAW AND PROCEDURE § 72.03[2][h] (1998)); *accord Johns v. Dep't of Justice*, 653 F.2d 884, 890 (5th Cir. 1981) ("The Attorney General also

Unlike the claim in *AAADC*, the states' procedural claim does not involve a challenge to the Secretary's decision to "decline to institute proceedings, terminate proceedings, or decline to execute a final order of deportation," nor does deferred action pursuant to DAPA mean merely that "no action will thereafter be taken to proceed against an apparently deportable alien." Under DAPA, "[d]eferred action . . . means that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be *lawfully present* in the United States,"[70] a change in designation that confers eligibility for federal and state benefits on a class of aliens who would not otherwise qualify.[71] Therefore, DAPA "provides a focus for judicial review, inasmuch as the agency must have exercised its power in some manner. The action at least can be reviewed to determine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers."[72]

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determines whether (1) to refrain from (or, in administrative parlance, to defer in) executing an outstanding order of deportation, or (2) to stay the order of deportation." (footnote omitted)); *see also Yoon v. INS*, 538 F.2d 1211, 1213 (5th Cir. 1976) (per curiam). Those decisions do not address the unique features of DAPA—class-wide eligibility, derived from a child's legal status, for lawful presence and accompanying eligibility for work authorization and other benefits. *See Prof'ls & Patients for Customized Care v. Shalala*, 56 F.3d 592, 596 n.27 (5th Cir. 1995) ("[T]he fact that we previously found another FDA compliance policy guide to be a policy statement is not dispositive whether [this guide] is a policy statement."); *infra* note 92 (discussing factual disputes in comparison between DAPA and previous deferred-action programs).

[70] DAPA Memo, *supra* note 7, at 2 (emphasis added).

[71] *See supra* notes 10-14 and accompanying text.

[72] *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 832. Having concluded that DAPA's version of deferred action—at least to the extent that it confers lawful

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"There is no judicial review of agency action 'where statutes [granting agency discretion] are drawn in such broad terms that in a given case there is no law to apply.'"[73] For example, "[t]he allocation of funds from a lump-sum appropriation," *Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 192, is one of "those rare circumstances where the relevant statute 'is drawn so that a court would have no meaningful standard against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion.'"[74] The district court did not rule on the substantive APA claims, and we do not decide whether the Secretary has the authority to implement DAPA. We do note, however, that even granting "special deference,"[75] the INA provisions cited by the government for that proposition cannot reasonably be construed, at least at this early stage of the case, to confer *unreviewable* discretion.

The INA expressly identifies legal designations allowing defined classes of aliens to reside lawfully in the

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presence—is not an exercise of enforcement discretion committed to agency action, we do not reach the issue of whether the presumption against review of such discretion is rebutted. *See id.* at 832-34; *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159, 1161-62 (D.C. Cir. 1973) (en banc) (per curiam).

[73] *Perales v. Casillas*, 903 F.2d 1043, 1047 (5th Cir. 1990) (alteration in original) (quoting *Overton Park*, 401 U.S. at 410) (internal quotation marks omitted).

[74] *Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 191 (quoting *Chaney*, 470 U.S. at 830).

[75] *Texas*, 106 F.3d at 666 ("Courts must give special deference to congressional and executive branch policy choices pertaining to immigration.").

United States[76] and eligibility for "discretionary relief allowing [aliens in deportation proceedings] to remain in the country,"[77] including narrow classes of aliens eligible for deferred action.[78] The Act also specifies classes of aliens eligible[79] and ineligible[80] for work authorization,

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[76] *E.g.,* lawful-permanent-resident ("LPR") status, *see* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1101(a)(20), 1255; nonimmigrant status, *see* §§ 1101(a)(15), 1201(a)(1); refugee and asylum status, *see* §§ 1101(a)(42), 1157-59, 1231(b)(3); humanitarian parole, *see* § 1182(d)(5); temporary protected status, *see* § 1254a. *Cf.* §§ 1182(a) (inadmissible aliens), 1227(a)-(b) (deportable aliens).

[77] *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 (citing 8 U.S.C. §§ 1158 (asylum), 1229b (cancellation of removal), 1229c (voluntary departure)); *see also* § 1227(d) (administrative stay of removal for T- and U-visa applicants (victims of human trafficking, or of various serious crimes, who assist law enforcement)).

[78] *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1154(a)(1)(D)(i)(II), (IV) (certain petitioners for immigration status under the Violence Against Women Act of 1994 ("VAWA"), Pub. L. No. 103-322, tit. IV, § 40701(a), 108 Stat. 1796, 1953-54); USA PATRIOT Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-56, § 423(b), 115 Stat. 272, 361 (immediate family members of LPRs killed by terrorism); National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2004, Pub. L. No. 108-136, § 1703(c)-(d), 117 Stat. 1392, 1694-95 (immediate family members of LPRs killed in combat and granted posthumous citizenship); *see also* 8 U.S.C. § 1227(d)(2) ("The denial of a request for an administrative stay of removal [for T- and U-visa applicants] shall not preclude the alien from applying for . . . deferred action, or a continuance or abeyance of removal proceedings under any other provision of the immigration laws . . . .").

[79] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1101(i)(2) (human-trafficking victims in lawful-temporary-resident status pursuant to a T visa), 1105a(a) (nonimmigrant battered spouses), 1154(a)(1)(K) (grantees of VAWA self-petitions), 1158(c)(1)(B), (d)(2) (asylum applicants and grantees), 1160(a)(4) (certain agricultural workers in lawful-temporary-resident status), 1184(c)(2)(E), (e)(6) (spouses of L- and E-visa holders), (p)(3)(B) (certain victims of criminal activity

including those "eligible for work authorization and deferred action," *supra* note 78. Although the Secretary is given discretion to make immigration decisions based on humanitarian concerns, that discretion is authorized for particular family relationships and specific forms of relief.[81] Congress has developed an intricate process for unlawfully present aliens to reside lawfully (albeit with legal status as opposed to lawful presence) in the United States on account of their child's citizenship.[82] Moreover, judicial review of many decisions is expressly limited or

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in lawful-temporary-resident status pursuant to a U visa), 1254a(a)(1)(B) (temporary-protected-status holders), 1255a(b)(3)(B) (temporary-resident-status holders).

[80] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1226(a)(3) (limits on work authorizations for aliens with pending removal proceedings), 1231(a)(7) (limits on work authorizations for aliens ordered removed).

[81] *See e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1182(a)(9)(B)(v), (C)(iii) (authorizing waiver of reentry bars for particular classes of inadmissible aliens), 1227(a)(1)(E)(iii) (authorizing waiver of inadmissibility for smuggling by particular classes of aliens), 1229b(b)(1)(A), (D) (authorizing cancellation of removal and adjustment of status if, *inter alia*, "the alien has been physically present in the United States for a continuous period of *not less than 10 years* immediately preceding the date of such application" and "removal would result in *exceptional and extremely unusual hardship* to the alien's spouse, parent, or child, who is a citizen of the United States or an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence" (emphasis added)).

[82] In general, an applicant must (i) have a child who is at least 21 years old, (ii) leave the United States, (iii) wait 10 years, and then (iv) obtain a family-preference visa from a United States consulate. *See* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1151(b)(2)(A)(i), 1182(a)(9)(B)(i)(II), 1201(a), 1255. DAPA allows a parent to derive lawful presence from his or her child's LPR status, although the INA does not contain a family-sponsorship process for parents of an LPR child. *See* 8 U.S.C. §§ 1151(b)(2)(A)(i), 1152(a)(4), 1153(a).

precluded, *supra* note 54, including some that are made in the Secretary's "sole and unreviewable discretion."[83]

Against that background, we would expect to find an explicit delegation of authority to implement DAPA—a program that makes 4.3 million otherwise removable aliens eligible for lawful presence, work authorization, and associated benefits—but no such provision exists.[84] Perhaps the closest is § 1324a(h)(3),[85] a definitional provision[86] that does not mention lawful presence or deferred action.

Likewise, we do not construe the broad grants of authority in 6 U.S.C. § 202(5),[87] 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3),[88] or

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[83] *E.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1613(c)(2)(G), 1621(b)(4), 1641.

[84] *See FDA v. Brown & Williamson Tobacco Corp.*, 529 U.S. 120, 133 (2000) ("[W]e must be guided to a degree by common sense as to the manner in which Congress is likely to delegate a policy decision of such economic and political magnitude to an administrative agency.").

[85] "As used in this section, the term 'unauthorized alien' means, with respect to the employment of an alien at a particular time, that the alien is not at that time either (A) an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, or (B) authorized to be so employed by this chapter or by the Attorney General."

[86] *See Whitman v. Am. Trucking Ass'ns, Inc.*, 531 U.S. 457, 468 (2001) ("Congress, we have held, does not alter the fundamental details of a regulatory scheme in vague terms or ancillary provisions—it does not, one might say, hide elephants in mouseholes.").

[87] "The Secretary . . . shall be responsible for . . . [e]stablishing national immigration enforcement policies and priorities."

[88] "The Secretary . . . shall establish such regulations; prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers; issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out his authority under the provisions of this chapter."

§ 1103(g)(2)[89] as assigning unreviewable "decisions of vast 'economic and political significance'"[90] to an agency. Presumably because there is no specific statutory basis for DAPA, the United States suggests that its authority is grounded in historical practice, but that "does not, by itself, create power."[91] Even assuming that an amalgamation of historical practice,[92] congressional acquies-

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[89] "The Attorney General shall establish such regulations, prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers, issue such instructions, review such administrative determinations in immigration proceedings, delegate such authority, and perform such other acts as the Attorney General determines to be necessary for carrying out this section."

[90] *Util. Air*, 134 S. Ct. at 2444 (quoting *Brown & Williamson*); *accord id.* ("When an agency claims to discover in a long-extant statute an unheralded power to regulate 'a significant portion of the American economy,' we typically greet its announcement with a measure of skepticism. We expect Congress to speak clearly if it wishes to assign to an agency decisions of vast 'economic and political significance.'" (citation omitted) (quoting *Brown & Williamson*, 529 U.S. at 159)); *Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1051 ("The mere fact that a statute grants broad discretion to an agency does not render the agency's decisions completely unreviewable under the 'committed to agency discretion by law' exception unless the statutory scheme, taken together with other relevant materials, provides absolutely no guidance as to how that discretion is to be exercised." (quoting *Robbins v. Reagan*, 780 F.2d 37, 45 (D.C. Cir. 1985) (per curiam)).

[91] *Medellin v. Texas*, 552 U.S. 491, 532 (2008) (quoting *Dames & Moore v. Regan*, 453 U.S. 654, 686 (1981)); *but see NLRB v. Noel Canning*, 134 S. Ct. 2550, 2560 (2014) ("[T]he longstanding 'practice of the government,' can inform our determination of 'what the law is.'" (quoting *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 17 U.S. (4 Wheat.) 316, 401, and *Marbury v. Madison*, 5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137, 176)).

[92] Many aspects of previous deferred-action programs have not been precisely explained at this early stage of the litigation, partic-

cence, the immigration context, and the INA provide authority for DAPA, it would be bold and premature for us to conclude that an as-yet-undefined delegation is beyond the scope of judicial review.

Our decision in *Perales* is not to the contrary. There, we recognized that the INS's decision *not* to grant pre-hearing voluntary departures and work authorizations to a group of aliens was committed to agency discretion because "there is nothing in the [INA] expressly providing for the grant of employment authorization or pre-hearing voluntary departure . . . to [that class of aliens]." *Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1047. "An agency's inaction in such a situation is necessarily exempt from judicial review because there are no meaningful standards against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion." *Id.* In this case, however, issuing work authorizations to DAPA beneficiaries is an affirmative action, and whether the Secretary has the authority to do so remains an open question.

And even assuming the Secretary has that power, it is the designation of lawful presence *itself*—the prerequisite for work authorization under DAPA—that causes Texas's injury because a document showing legal presence makes

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ularly whether they granted "lawful presence" or were purely non-enforcement decisions, whether the beneficiaries were merely given a temporary reprieve while transitioning from one lawful status to another, whether the programs were interstitial to a statutory legalization scheme, whether they are comparable in scale and scope to DAPA, and whether Congress's failure to enact the DREAM Act bears on its acquiescence to DAPA. Because the district court has not yet resolved those factual issues, historical practice does not clarify our understanding of the reviewability of DAPA.

one eligible for a driver's license.[93] The Secretary's authority to grant lawful presence was not at issue in *Perales*. Moreover, in *Perales*, *id.* at 1048, the Attorney General had explicit statutory discretion to authorize pre-hearing voluntary departures—discretion the INA does not specifically confer here.

The government asserts that 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14),[94] rather than DAPA, makes aliens granted deferred action eligible for work authorizations. But if DAPA's class-based deferred action program, on which work authorizations are contingent, must be subjected to the notice-and-comment process, then work authorizations may not be validly issued pursuant to it until that process has been completed. And again, it is DAPA's version of deferred action *itself*—the designation of "lawful presence"—that causes Texas's injury.[95]

VI.

Because the United States has not made a strong showing that judicial review is precluded, we must decide whether it has made a strong showing that DAPA does not require notice and comment. The government does

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[93] *See supra* notes 14 and 26 and accompanying text.

[94] "An alien who has been granted deferred action, an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority, [may be able to obtain work authorization upon application] if the alien establishes an economic necessity for employment."

[95] *See supra* notes 14 and 26 and accompanying text. Moreover, it would be reasonable to construe § 274a.12(c)(14) as pertaining only to those classes of aliens identified by Congress as eligible for deferred action and work authorization. *See supra* note 78.

not dispute that DAPA is a rule[96]; it urges instead that DAPA is exempt as an "interpretative rule[], general statement[] of policy, or rule[] of agency organization, procedure, or practice," § 553(b)(A), or "a matter relating to agency management or personnel or to public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts," § 553(a)(2). "The 'APA's notice-and-comment exemptions must be narrowly construed'" and if a rule is "substantive," all "notice-and-comment requirements must be adhered to scrupulously."[97]

A.

The government's main argument is that DAPA is a policy statement. We consider two criteria to determine whether a purported policy statement is actually a substantive rule: whether it (1) "impose[s] any rights and obligations" and (2) "genuinely leaves the agency and its decisionmakers free to exercise discretion."[98] There is

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[96] The APA defines a "rule" as "an agency statement of general or particular applicability and future effect designed to implement, interpret, or prescribe law or policy or describing the organization, procedure, or practice requirements of an agency and includes [various substantive agency functions] or practices bearing on any of the foregoing." 5 U.S.C. § 551(4).

[97] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (quoting *United States v. Picciotto*, 875 F.2d 345, 347 (D.C. Cir. 1989)); *see Pickus v. U.S. Bd. of Parole*, 507 F.2d 1107, 1112 (D.C. Cir. 1974) ("[T]he interested public should have an opportunity to participate, and the agency should be fully informed, before rules having . . . substantial impact are promulgated.").

[98] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (quoting *Cmty. Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943, 946 (D.C. Cir. 1987) (per curiam)); *see also Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 197 (describing general statements of policy "as 'statements issued by an agency to advise the public prospec-

some overlap between those criteria "because '[i]f a statement denies the decisionmaker discretion in the area of its coverage . . . then the statement is binding, and creates rights or obligations.'"[99] "While mindful but suspicious of the agency's own characterization, we . . . focus[] primarily on whether the rule has binding effect on agency discretion or severely restricts it."[100]

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tively of the manner in which the agency proposes to exercise a discretionary power.'" (quoting *Chrysler Corp. v. Brown*, 441 U.S. 281, 302 n.31 (1979))); *id.* ("Whatever else may be considered a 'general statemen[t] of policy,' the term surely includes an announcement . . . that an agency will discontinue a discretionary allocation of unrestricted funds from a lump-sum appropriation." (alteration in original)); *Brown Express, Inc. v. United States*, 607 F.2d 695, 701 (5th Cir. 1979) ("A general statement of policy is a statement by an administrative agency announcing motivating factors the agency will consider, or tentative goals toward which it will aim, in determining the resolution of a [s]ubstantive question of regulation.").

[99] *Gen. Elec. Co. v. EPA*, 290 F.3d 377, 382 (D.C. Cir. 2002) (quoting *McLouth Steel Prods. Corp. v. Thomas*, 838 F.2d 1317, 1320 (D.C. Cir. 1988)).

[100] *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595 (footnote omitted); *accord id.* ("[W]e are to give some deference, 'albeit not overwhelming,' to the agency's characterization of its own rule." (quoting *Cmty. Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d at 946) (internal quotation marks omitted)); *Phillips Petroleum Co. v. Johnson*, 22 F.3d 616, 619 (5th Cir. 1994) ("This court, however, must determine the category into which the rule falls: '[T]he label that the particular agency puts upon its given exercise of administrative power is not, for our purposes, conclusive; rather it is what the agency does in fact.'" (alteration in original) (quoting *Brown Express*, 607 F.2d at 700)).

Extrapolating from the implementation of DACA,[101] the district court determined that "[n]othing about DAPA '*genuinely* leaves the agency and its [employees] free to exercise discretion,'"[102] a finding that is reviewed for clear error. Although the DACA Memo instructed agencies to review applications on a case-by-case basis and exercise discretion, the court found that those statements were "merely pretext" because only around 5% of the 723,000 applications have been denied.[103] "Despite a re-

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[101] *See Gen. Elec.*, 290 F.3d at 383 ("[A]n agency pronouncement will be considered binding as a practical matter if it either appears on its face to be binding, or is applied by the agency in a way that indicates it is binding."); 3 JACOB A. STEIN ET AL., ADMINISTRATIVE LAW § 15.05[3] (2014) ("In general, the agency's past treatment of a rule will often indicate its nature.").

[102] *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *55 (second alteration in original) (quoting *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 595). To the extent that the government maintains that the proper focus of the inquiry into the binding nature of the DAPA Memo is on whether the agency has bound itself—rather than on whether agency officials have bound their subordinates—the government confuses the test for determining whether a purported policy statement is actually a substantive rule with the notice-and-comment exception for internal directives, discussed *infra* part VI.B. An agency action is not exempt as a policy statement just because the agency purports to retain discretion; whether the agency in fact retains discretion is determined, at least in part, by whether its decisionmakers are actually free to exercise discretion. *See supra* notes 98-100 and accompanying text. Of course, as discussed *infra* part VI.B, a lack of discretion by subordinates does not necessarily mean that a directive is subject to notice and comment; subordinates are expected to adhere to internal directives.

[103] *See id.* at *4-5, *55 n.101. Of the at least 1.2 million persons who qualify for DACA, approximately 723,000 had applied through 2014. About 636,000 had been accepted, some decisions were still

quest by the [district] [c]ourt, the [g]overnment's counsel did not provide the number, if any, of requests that were denied [for discretionary reasons] even though the applicant met the DACA criteria . . . ."[104] The court's finding was also based on a declaration by Kenneth Palinkas, the president of the union representing the USCIS employees processing the DACA applications, that "DACA applications are simply rubberstamped if the applicants meet the necessary criteria," *id.*; DACA's Operating Procedures, which "contains nearly 150 pages of specific instructions for granting or denying deferred action," *id.* at *55 (footnote omitted); and mandatory language in the DAPA Memo, *id.* at *39, *56 n.103.

The agency's characterization of both the DACA and DAPA criteria exudes discretion—using terms such as "guidance," "case-by-case," and "prosecutorial discretion."[105] But a rule can be binding if it is "applied by the

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pending, and only about 5% had been denied, with the top reasons being the following: "(1) the applicant used the wrong form; (2) the applicant failed to provide a valid signature; (3) the applicant failed to file or complete Form I-765 or failed to enclose the fee; and (4) the applicant was below the age of fifteen and thus ineligible to participate in the program." *Id.* at *4-5.

[104] *Id.* at *5. The parties submitted over 200 pages of briefing over a two-month period, supported by more than 80 exhibits. The district court held a hearing on the motion for a preliminary injunction and heard extensive argument from both sides and "specifically asked for evidence of individuals who had been denied for reasons other than not meeting the criteria or technical errors with the form and/or filing." *Id.* at *55 n.101.

[105] *See* DACA Memo, *supra* note 2; DAPA Memo, *supra* note 7.

agency in a way that indicates it is binding,"[106] and the states offered evidence from DACA's implementation that DAPA's discretionary language was pretextual. The programs are not completely analogous, however: Many more persons are eligible for DAPA,[107] and eligibility for DACA was restricted to a younger population—suggesting that DACA applicants are less likely to have backgrounds that would warrant a discretionary denial. The DAPA Memo also contains more discretionary criteria: Applicants must not be "an enforcement priority as reflected in the [Prioritization Memo]; and [must] present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate."[108] Despite those differences, there are important similarities: The Secretary "direct[ed] USCIS to establish a process, *similar to DACA*, for exercising prosecutorial discretion,"[109] and there was evidence that the DACA application process *itself* did not allow for discretion, regardless of the approval rate.

We are attentive to the difficulty of evaluating an agency's discretion where the action involves issuing benefits to self-selecting applicants, as distinguished from

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[106] *Gen. Elec.*, 290 F.3d at 383; *accord McLouth Steel*, 838 F.2d at 1321-22 (reviewing historical conformity as part of determination of whether rule was substantive or non-binding policy, despite language in rule indicating that it was policy statement); *id.* at 1321 ("More critically than EPA's language . . . its later conduct applying it confirms its binding character.").

[107] Approximately 1.2 million persons are eligible for DACA and 4.3 million for DAPA. *See Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *4, *55.

[108] DAPA Memo, *supra* note 7, at 4.

[109] *Id.* (emphasis added).

imposing obligations on a regulated industry. Although a person who expected to be denied DACA relief for discretionary reasons would be unlikely to apply, the self-selection issue is mitigated by the district court's finding that "the [g]overnment has publicly declared that it will make no attempt to enforce the law against even those who are denied deferred action (absent extraordinary circumstances)." *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579 at *50.

Moreover, the court did not rely exclusively on DACA's approval rate. It also considered the detailed nature of the DACA Operating Procedures and the declaration from Palinkas that, as with DACA, the DAPA application process itself would preclude discretion: "[R]outing DAPA applications through service centers instead of field offices . . . created an application process that bypasses traditional in-person investigatory interviews with trained USCIS adjudications officers" and "prevents officers from conducting case-by-case investigations, undermines officers' abilities to detect fraud and national security risks, and ensures that applications will be rubber-stamped."

There was conflicting evidence on the degree to which DACA allowed for discretion. Donald Neufeld, the Associate Director for Service Center Operations for USCIS, declared that "deferred action under DACA is a . . . case-specific process" that "necessarily involves the exercise of the agency's discretion" and purported to identify several instances of discretionary de-

nials.[110] Although he stated that officials made approximately 200,000 requests for more evidence after receiving DACA applications, the government does not know the number, if any, that pertained to discretionary factors rather than the objective criteria. Likewise, the government did not offer the number of cases service center officials referred to field offices for interviews.[111] The United States has not made a strong showing that it was clearly erroneous to find that DAPA would not genuinely leave the agency and its employees free to exercise discretion.[112]

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[110] The states dispute whether those denials were actually discretionary or instead were required because of failures to meet DACA's objective criteria.

[111] Neufeld stated that "[u]ntil very recently, USCIS lacked any ability to automatically track and sort the reasons for DACA denials." Although the district court did not hold an evidentiary hearing or make a formal credibility determination as to the conflicting statements by Neufeld and Palinkas, the record indicates that it did not view the Neufeld declaration as creating a material factual dispute. Following a hearing on the preliminary injunction, the government filed a surreply containing the Neufeld declaration. Although the government did not seek an evidentiary hearing, the states requested one if the "new declarations create a fact dispute of material consequence to the motion." No such hearing was held, and the court cited the Palinkas declaration favorably, *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579 at *5, *8 n.13, *38 n.55, but described the Neufeld declaration as providing insufficient detail, *id.* at *5, 55 n.101.

[112] Because DAPA is much more than a nonenforcement policy, which is presumptively committed to agency discretion, *see supra* part V.B, requiring it to go through notice and comment does not mean that a traditional nonenforcement policy would also be subject to those requirements, assuming that a party even had standing to challenge it. Moreover, a nonenforcement policy may be exempted

B.

A lack of discretion does not trigger notice-and-comment rulemaking if the rule is one "of agency organization, procedure, or practice," § 553(b)(A); agencies and their employees are of course expected to adhere to such rules. We use "the substantial impact test [as] the primary means . . . [to] look beyond the label 'procedural' to determine whether a rule is of the type Congress thought appropriate for public participation."[113] "An agency rule that modifies substantive rights and interests can only be nominally procedural, and the exemption for such rules of agency procedure cannot apply."[114] DAPA modifies substantive rights and interests—conferring lawful presence on 500,000 illegal aliens in Texas forces the state to choose between spending millions of dollars to subsidize driver's licenses and changing its law.

The District of Columbia Circuit has enunciated a more intricate process for distinguishing between procedural and substantive rules.[115] The court first looks at

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as a rule "of agency organization, procedure, or practice." *See infra p*art VI.B.

[113] *U.S. Dep't of Labor v. Kast Metals Corp.*, 744 F.2d 1145, 1153 (5th Cir. 1984); *accord* STEIN, *supra* note 101, § 15.05[5] ("Procedural and practice rules have been distinguished from substantive rules by applying the substantial impact test.").

[114] *Kast Metals*, 744 F.2d at 1153; *accord Brown Express*, 607 F.2d at 701-03.

[115] *Compare Kaspar Wire Works, Inc. v. Sec'y of Labor*, 268 F.3d 1123, 1132 (D.C. Cir. 2001) (recognizing that the D.C. Circuit has expressly rejected "the Fifth Circuit's 'substantial impact' standard for notice and comment requirements"), *with City of Arlington, Tex. v. FCC*, 668 F.3d 229, 245 (5th Cir. 2012), *aff'd*, 133 S. Ct. 1863

the "effect on those interests ultimately at stake in the agency proceeding."[116] "Hence, agency rules that impose 'derivative,' 'incidental,' or 'mechanical' burdens upon regulated individuals are considered procedural, rather than substantive."[117] Further, "a procedural rule generally may not 'encode [] a substantive value judgment or put[] a stamp of approval or disapproval on a given type of behavior,'"[118] but "the fact that the agency's decision was based on a value judgment about procedural efficiency does not convert the resulting rule into a substantive one."[119] "A corollary to this principle is that rules are generally considered procedural so long as they do not 'change the *substantive standards* by which the [agency] evaluates' applications which seek a benefit that the agency has the power to provide."[120]

(2013) ("The purpose of notice-and-comment rulemaking is to assure fairness and mature consideration of rules having a substantial impact on those regulated." (quoting *United States v. Johnson*, 632 F.3d 912, 931 (5th Cir. 2011))), *and Phillips Petroleum*, 22 F.3d at 620 (reaffirming substantial impact test announced in *Brown Express*).

[116] *Nat'l Sec. Counselors v. CIA*, 931 F. Supp. 2d 77, 107 (D.D.C. 2013) (quoting *Neighborhood TV Co. v. FCC*, 742 F.2d 629, 637 (D.C. Cir. 1984)).

[117] *Id.* (quoting *Am. Hosp. Ass'n v. Bowen*, 834 F.2d 1037, 1051 (D.C. Cir. 1987)).

[118] *Id.* (alterations in original) (quoting *Am. Hosp.*, 834 F.2d at 1047).

[119] *Id.* (quoting *James V. Hurson Assocs., Inc. v. Glickman*, 229 F.3d 277, 282 (D.C. Cir. 2000)).

[120] *Id.* (alteration in original) (quoting *JEM Broad. Co. v. FCC*, 22 F.3d 320, 327 (D.C. Cir. 1994)).

Applying those standards here yields the same result as does the substantial-impact test. Although the burden DAPA imposes on Texas is derivative of issuing lawful presence to beneficiaries, it is still substantial—Texas has a quasi-sovereign interest in not being forced to choose between incurring millions of dollars in costs and changing its laws. Moreover, DAPA establishes the "*substantive standards* by which the [agency] evaluates applications which seek a benefit that the agency has the power to provide"—a critical fact requiring notice and comment.[121] Further, receipt of those benefits implies a "stamp of approval" from the government.

C.

Section 553(a)(2) exempts rules "to the extent that there is involved . . . a matter relating to . . . public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts." § 553(a)(2). We construe the public-benefits exception very narrowly as applying only to agency action that "clearly and directly relate[s] to 'benefits' as that word is used in section 553(a)(2)."[122]

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[121] *Id.* (alteration in original) (quoting *JEM Broad.*, 22 F.3d at 327) (internal quotation marks omitted). *Compare JEM Broad.*, 22 F.3d at 327 ("The critical fact here, however, is that the 'hard look' rules did not change the substantive standards by which the FCC evaluates license applications . . . ."), *with Reeder v. FCC*, 865 F.2d 1298, 1305 (D.C. Cir. 1989) (per curiam) (stating that notice and comment is required for "rules [that] changed substantive criteria for" evaluating station allotment counter-proposals).

[122] *Baylor Univ. Med. Ctr. v. Heckler*, 758 F.2d 1052, 1061 (5th Cir. 1985); *accord Hous. Auth. of Omaha, Neb. v. U.S. Hous. Auth.*, 468 F.2d 1, 9 (8th Cir. 1972) ("The exemptions of matters under Section 553(a)(2) relating to 'public benefits,' could conceivably include vir-

To the extent that DAPA relates to public benefits, it does not do so "clearly and directly." Although § 553(a)(2) suggests that "rulemaking requirements for agencies managing benefit programs are . . . voluntarily imposed,"[123] USCIS, which is the agency tasked with evaluating DAPA applications, is not such an agency. Neither USCIS nor any other agency within DHS confers public benefits on DAPA beneficiaries. Further, lawful presence is an immigration classification, not a grant of money, goods, services, or any other kind of public benefit that has been recognized, or was likely to have been recognized,[124] under this exception.[125] To the extent that

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tually every activity of government. However, since an expansive reading of the exemption clause could easily carve the heart out of the notice provisions of Section 553, it is fairly obvious that Congress did not intend for the exemptions to be interpreted that broadly.").

[123] *Alcaraz v. Block*, 746 F.2d 593, 611 (9th Cir. 1984).

[124] The Departments of Agriculture, Health and Human Services, and Labor have waived the exemption for matters relating to public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts. *See* 29 C.F.R. § 2.7 (Department of Labor); Public Participation in Rule Making, 36 Fed. Reg. 13,804, 13,804 (July 24, 1971) (Department of Agriculture); Public Participation in Rule Making, 36 Fed. Reg. 2532, 2532 (Jan. 28, 1971) (Department of Health and Human Services, then known as Health, Education, and Welfare).

[125] *See e.g.*, *Vigil*, 508 U.S. at 184, 196 (clinical services provided by Indian Health Service for handicapped children); *Hoerner v. Veterans Admin.*, No. 88-3052, 1988 WL 97342 at *1-2 & n.10 (4th Cir. July 8, 1988) (per curiam) (unpublished) (benefits for veterans); *Baylor Univ. Med. Ctr.*, 758 F.2d at 1058-59 (Medicare reimbursement regulations issued by Secretary of Health and Human Services); *Rodway v. U.S. Dep't of Agric.*, 514 F.2d 809, 813 (D.C. Cir. 1975) (food stamp allotment regulations).

lawful presence triggers eligibility for public benefits, receipt of those benefits depends on compliance with programs managed by other agencies. *See supra* notes 10-14 and accompanying text.

In summary, the United States has not made a strong showing that it is likely to succeed on the merits. We proceed to examine the remaining factors of the test for obtaining a stay pending appeal.

VII.

The remaining factors also favor the states. The United States has not demonstrated that it "will be irreparably injured absent a stay." *Planned Parenthood*, 734 F.3d at 410 (quoting *Nken*, 556 U.S. at 426). It claims that the injunction offends separation of powers and federalism, but it is the resolution of the case on the merits, not whether the injunction is stayed pending appeal, that will affect those principles.

The government urges that DHS will not be able to determine quickly whether illegal aliens it encounters are enforcement priorities, but even under the injunction, DHS can choose whom to remove first; the only thing it cannot do is grant class-wide lawful presence and eligibility for accompanying benefits as incentives for low-priority aliens to self-identify in advance. And the government's allegation that the injunction is delaying preparatory work is unpersuasive. Injunctions often cause delays, and the government can resume work if it prevails on the merits.

The states have shown that "issuance of the stay will substantially injure" them. *Id.* (quoting *Nken*, 556 U.S.

at 426). A stay would enable DAPA beneficiaries to apply for driver's licenses and other benefits, and it would be difficult for the states to retract those benefits or recoup their costs even if they won on the merits. That is particularly true in light of the district court's findings regarding the large number of potential beneficiaries, including at least 500,000 in Texas alone.

The last factor, "where the public interest lies," *id.* (quoting *Nken*, 556 U.S. at 426), leans in favor of the states. The government identifies several important interests: It claims a stay would improve public safety and national security, provide humanitarian relief to the family members of citizens and lawful permanent residents, and increase tax revenue for state and local governments. To the contrary, however, and only by way of example, on March 16, 2015, the Attorney General, in opposing a motion to stay removal in an unrelated action, argued to this very panel that "granting a stay of removal . . . would impede the government's interest in expeditiously . . . controlling immigration into the United States."[126] Presumably, by referring to "the government's interest," the United States is referring to "the public interest."

The states say the injunction maintains the separation of powers and ensures that a major new policy undergoes notice and comment. And as a prudential matter, if the injunction is stayed but DAPA is ultimately invalidated, deportable aliens would have identified themselves with-

[126] Respondent's Opposition to Petitioner's Motion To Stay Removal at 8, *El Asmar v. Holder*, No. 15-60155 (5th Cir. filed Mar. 16, 2015) (citing *Nken*, 556 U.S. at 436).

out receiving the expected benefits. The public interest favors maintenance of the injunction, and even if that were not so, in light of the fact that the first three factors favor the states and that the injunction merely maintains the status quo while the court considers the issue,[127] a stay pending appeal is far from justified.[128]

VIII.

The government maintains that the nationwide scope of the injunction is an abuse of discretion, so it asks that the injunction be confined to Texas or the plaintiff states. But partial implementation of DAPA would undermine the constitutional imperative of "a *uniform* Rule of Naturalization"[129] and Congress's instruction that "the immigration laws of the United States should be enforced vigorously and *uniformly*."[130] A patchwork system would "detract[] from the 'integrated scheme of regulation'

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[127] *Cf., e.g.*, *Veasey v. Perry*, 769 F.3d 890, 892-95 (5th Cir. 2014) (discussing the importance of maintaining the status quo in the election context because a change could cause substantial disruption that would be difficult to undo).

[128] An invalid rule does not necessarily result in vacatur; depending on the circumstance, the appropriate remedy may be remand to the agency. That determination is made by evaluating whether "(1) the agency's decision is so deficient as to raise serious doubts whether the agency can adequately justify its decision at all; and (2) vacatur would be seriously disruptive or costly." *N. Air Cargo v. USPS*, 674 F.3d 852, 860-61 (D.C. Cir. 2012). The government has not asked for remand, and it would be premature for us to weigh those considerations at this early stage.

[129] U.S. CONST. art. I, § 8, cl. 4 (emphasis added).

[130] Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, Pub. L. No. 99-603, § 115(1), 100 Stat. 3359, 3384 (emphasis added).

created by Congress."[131] Further, there is a substantial likelihood that a partial injunction would be ineffective because DAPA beneficiaries would be free to move between states.

The motion to stay the preliminary injunction or narrow its scope pending appeal is DENIED.

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[131] *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2502 (quoting *Wis. Dep't of Indus., Labor & Human Relations v. Gould Inc.*, 475 U.S. 282, 288-289 (1986)).

STEPHEN A. HIGGINSON, Circuit Judge, dissenting:

Agreeing with the district court, the plaintiff-states recognize that removal and deportation of non-citizens is a power exclusively of the federal government. *See Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2498 (2012). Their complaint, however, is that the federal government isn't doing its job; that whereas Congress, through unambiguous law, requires the identification, apprehension, and removal of non-citizens who lack documentation to be in the United States, *see* 8 U.S.C. § 1225(a)(3) (inspection); *id.* § 1225(b)(2)(A) (detention); *id.* § 1227(a) (removal), the President is thwarting that law. According to the plaintiffs, the President refuses to remove immigrants Congress has said must be removed and has memorialized that obstruction in a Department of Homeland Security ("DHS") memorandum. This, plaintiffs contend, is a Take Care Clause violation, a *Youngstown* scenario courts must correct; furthermore, because deferring removal of immigrants causes states injury and has substantive impact, the plaintiffs contend that the DHS memorandum is invalid without the full apparatus of rulemaking, notice and comment and public participation, under the Administrative Procedure Act ("APA"). 5 U.S.C. § 553. The district court offered extensive viewpoints on the first point, but ruled in plaintiffs' favor only on the second. The government seeks to stay that ruling, which is the matter before us.

My colleagues conclude that the government has not made a "strong showing" of likelihood of success on the merits. *Nken v. Holder*, 556 U.S. 418, 434 (2009) (internal quotation marks and citation omitted). I am grateful

to them for their analysis and collegiality, and our exchange has informed my views, although I dissent as follows.

Introduction: The Challenged Executive "Action"

On November 20, 2014, the Secretary of the Department of Homeland Security sent to the Director of U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, and the Acting Director of the U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, and the Commissioner of the U.S. Customs and Border Protection a memorandum with the subject heading, "Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion with Respect to Individuals Who Came to the United States as Children and with Respect to Certain Individuals Whose Parents are U.S. Citizens or Permanent Residents," which aims to focus resources on illegal immigration at the border and prioritize deporting felons while lesser priority, but removable, immigrants are encouraged to self-report, pass background checks, and pay taxes on any employment they might obtain under preexisting law. *See* Memorandum from Jeh Johnson, Sec'y, Dep't of Homeland Sec., to Leon Rodriguez, Dir., U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Servs., et al. (Nov. 20, 2014) ("Nov. 20 Memo"), *available at* http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/14_1120_memo_deferred_action.pdf. The Office of Legal Counsel at the Department of Justice terms the memorandum "prioritization policy," and the government in briefing to us terms it "deferred action guidance." By contrast, plaintiffs label it a "directive," a term adopted by the district court, which further describes the memorandum as a "program" "to award legal presence status to over four million illegal aliens."

The November 20 memorandum, on its face, gives notice of expanded eligibility criteria used by DHS to assess whether undocumented immigrants who seek "deferred action" should "for a specified period of time . . . [be] permitted to be lawfully present in the United States." This memorandum, expanding on pre-existing guidance, permits undocumented immigrants who are "hard-working," "integrated members of American society," and "otherwise not enforcement priorities" to self-report and become a lower removal priority. The immigrant explicitly stays removable, but is not a removal priority. *See Reno v. Am.—Arab Anti-Discrimination Comm.*, 525 U.S. 471, 483-84 (1999) (recognizing that deferred action, which was originally known as "nonpriority," is an appropriate exercise of the Executive's removal discretion); *see also* 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14) (defining "deferred action" as "an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority"). The parties have offered argument and submissions, but to date without adversarial and evidentiary testing, disagreeing about consequences that could follow from executive adherence to the November 20 memorandum.

I. Non-Justiciability

I would hold that Supreme Court and Fifth Circuit caselaw forecloses plaintiffs' arguments challenging in court this internal executive enforcement guideline. In an earlier *Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d 661 (5th Cir. 1997), we summarized and resolved the following statutory argument:

> [T]he State alleges that the Attorney General has breached a nondiscretionary duty to control immigration under the Immigration and Nationality Act. The State candidly concedes, however, that section 1103 places no substantive limits on the Attorney General and commits enforcement of the INA to her discretion.
>
> The State's allegation that defendants have failed to enforce the immigration laws and refuse to pay the costs resulting therefrom is not subject to judicial review. An agency's decision not to take enforcement actions is unreviewable under the Administrative Procedure Act because a court has no workable standard against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion. We reject out-of-hand the State's contention that the federal defendants' alleged systemic failure to control immigration is so extreme as to constitute a reviewable abdication of duty. The State does not contend that federal defendants are doing nothing to enforce the immigration laws or that they have consciously decided to abdicate their enforcement responsibilities. Real or perceived inadequate enforcement of immigration laws does not constitute a reviewable abdication of duty.

Id. at 667 (citations omitted). The authority our court relied on was Chief Justice Rehnquist's opinion for a unanimous Supreme Court in *Heckler v. Chaney*, which held "that an agency's decision not to prosecute or enforce, whether through civil or criminal process, is a decision generally committed to an agency's absolute discretion." 470 U.S. 821, 831 (1985); *see also Perales v. Casillas*, 903 F.2d 1043, 1047-48 (5th Cir. 1990); *see gen-*

erally 5 U.S.C. § 701(a)(2); *Ass'n of Flight Attendants-CWA, AFL-CIO v. Huerta*, — F.3d —, No. 13-1316, 2015 WL 2145776, at *1-4 (D.C. Cir. May 8, 2015) (holding that the court was without jurisdiction to review an internal guidance document that "inform[s] the exercise of discretion by agents and officers in the field").[1]

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[1] Because I believe that *Heckler* compels the conclusion that the November 20 memorandum is non-justiciable, I would not reach the issue of standing. At this emergency stay point, I would note only that there has been little developed guidance from lower courts on how far *Massachusetts v. EPA*'s logic extends for plaintiff-states beyond the facts of that case, which involved a state that asserted an injury based on its own property interests and the relevant statute provided an explicit right to challenge the denial of a rulemaking petition. *See* 549 U.S. 497, 518-20 (2007). Furthermore, Texas's inability to articulate a limiting principle to its drivers' license theory of standing—triggered, it appears, by any federal executive policy that leads to the grant of even one deferred action request—as well as countervailing developments in this court and others, suggest to me that *Massachusetts v. EPA* may not apply here. *See Crane v. Johnson*, 783 F.3d 244, 247 (5th Cir. 2015) (holding that the State of Mississippi had not "demonstrated the concrete and particularized injury required to give [it] standing to maintain [its] suit" against the precursor DHS memorandum); *Arpaio v. Obama*, 27 F. Supp. 3d 185, 207 (D.D.C. 2014) (holding that Sheriff Arpaio did not have standing to challenge the precursor DHS memorandum); *see also DaimlerChrysler Corp. v. Cuno*, 547 U.S. 332, 346 (2006) (holding that plaintiffs do not have standing by virtue of their status as taxpayers to challenge the conferral of tax credits on third parties); *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660, 664 (1976) (per curiam) (holding that Pennsylvania lacked standing to challenge a New Jersey tax that triggered a Pennsylvania tax credit because "nothing prevent[ed] Pennsylvania from withdrawing that credit for taxes paid to New Jersey" and explaining that "[n]o State can be heard to complain about damage inflicted by its own hand"); *Linda R.S. v. Richard D.*, 410 U.S. 614, 619 (1973) (emphasizing that a

The district court repeatedly acknowledged the controlling authority of *Heckler* and *Texas* that "'[r]eal or perceived inadequate enforcement of immigration laws does not constitute a reviewable abdication of duty,'" but held "[t]hat is not the situation here" because the November 20 memorandum is "an *announced* program of non-enforcement of the law that contradicts Congress' statutory *goals*." *Texas v. United States*, — F. Supp. 3d —, No. B-14-254, 2015 WL 648579, at *50 (S.D. Tex. Feb. 16, 2015) (emphases added). This twofold extrapolation—focusing not on the memorandum itself set against current law, but instead on an embellishment of it set against a perceived imperative to remove all illegal immigrants—rests on sublimer intelligences than existing law allows. The district court distinguished *Heckler* and *Texas* by drawing an inference of executive overreaching from two sources: first, public statements by the President, and second, the district court's negative assessment of the earlier DACA 2012 memorandum, an assessment that our court has since rejected in *Crane v. Johnson*. The district court's inferences from these two sources led it to characterize the November 20 memorandum as a presidentially "announced program" that thwarts Con-

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third party "lacks a judicially cognizable interest in the prosecution or nonprosecution of another"); *Henderson v. Stalder*, 287 F.3d 374, 384 (5th Cir. 2002) (Jones, J., concurring) ("[A] plaintiff who complains merely that a benefit has been unconstitutionally granted to others is asserting only a 'generalized grievance' that does not allow the plaintiff standing to obtain judicial relief for the alleged wrong in federal court."). Given the debatability of the plaintiff-states' attenuated theory of standing, I would therefore resolve this matter on the threshold issue of non-justiciability.

gress's "goals" to remove all undocumented immigrants.[2]

This characterization is the essential point of disagreement I have with the district court's ruling. Congress could, but has not, removed discretion from DHS as to which undocumented immigrants to apprehend and remove first. *See* 6 U.S.C. § 202(5) (directing Secretary to "[e]stablish[] national immigration enforcement policies and priorities"); 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3) (vesting the Secretary with broad authority to "establish such regulations; . . . issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out his authority" under the statute); *United States ex rel. Knauff v. Shaughnessy*, 338 U.S. 537, 543 (1950) (describing immigration law as "'a field where flexibility and the adaptation of the congressional policy to infinitely variable conditions constitute the essence of the program'" (quoting *Lichter v. United States*, 334 U.S. 742,

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[2] The district court's April 7, 2015 order, revisiting its stay, reinforces, in my opinion, this error. The April 7 order rests even more determinatively on press statements of the President to reemphasize both that "[t]his is not merely ineffective enforcement[,] [t]his is total non-enforcement," and also, contrary to our intervening *Crane* decision, that "[i]f there were any doubts that the 2014 DHS Directive is correctly characterized as 'substantive,' the President's warning to DHS employees of adverse consequences for failing to follow the Directive should clearly extinguish those." *Compare* April 7 Memorandum Opinion & Order (observing that immigration officers not only lack discretion but will suffer consequences), *with Crane*, 783 F.3d at 254-55 (holding that DACA 2012's guidelines and the November 20 memorandum's guidelines afford immigration officers discretion to grant or withhold deferred action on a case-by-case basis).

785 (1948))). Indeed, the Supreme Court recently revisited the interplay between Congressional law and coordinate Executive enforcement responsibility, clarifying that "[a] principal feature of the removal system is the broad discretion exercised by immigration officials," who "must decide whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all," taking into consideration, for example, "immediate human concerns," such as "[u]nauthorized workers trying to support their families . . . [who] likely pose less danger than alien smugglers or aliens who commit a serious crime." *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499; *see also Crane*, 783 F.3d at 249 (8 U.S.C. § 1225 "does not limit the authority of DHS to determine whether to pursue removal of the immigrant").[3] Even specifically as to deferred ac-

[3] As with criminal law enforcement generally, there is no one immigration imperative and blueprint the Executive must follow. *See* Adam B. Cox & Cristina M. Rodriguez, *The President and Immigration Law*, 119 Yale L.J. 458, 463, 510-11 (2009) (contending that the "detailed, rule-bound immigration code" developed by Congress "has had counterintuitive consequences of delegating tremendous authority to the President to set immigration screening policy by making a huge fraction of noncitizens deportable at the option of the Executive"). Prosecution, as a core executive duty, has elasticity, ranging from nonprosecution altogether, variable and selected charges, guilty plea flexibility, and recommendations for sentencing leniency or severity. *See, e.g.*, *City of Seabrook v. Costle*, 659 F.2d 1371, 1374 n.3 (5th Cir. 1981) (Although "the word 'shall' is normally interpreted to impose a mandatory duty, . . . when duties within the traditional realm of prosecutorial discretion are involved, the courts have not found this maxim controlling." (internal citation omitted)); *Inmates of Attica Corr. Facility v. Rockefeller*, 477 F.2d 375, 381 (2d Cir. 1973) (holding that mandatory statutory language directing that each United States attorney "shall . . . prosecute for all offenses against the United States" "has never been thought to preclude the exercise of prosecutorial discretion"). This elastic-

tion, the Supreme Court has recognized that the Executive may choose to take no action "to proceed against an apparently deportable alien" because of "humanitarian reasons." *Reno*, 525 U.S. at 484; *see also id.* at 483 (noting that "[a]t each stage" of removal, the "Executive has discretion to abandon the endeavor"). And in *Crane*, this court held that the DHS memorandum does not preclude the agency's exercise of enforcement discretion, a ruling that the district court of course did not have the benefit of.

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ity was described over a half century ago by the Supreme Court in *Berger v. United States*, 295 U.S. 78, 88 (1935) (a prosecutor's interest "in a criminal prosecution is not that it shall win a case, but that justice shall be done."). Even more so in the immigration context, the Supreme Court has been sensitive to unique concerns beyond humanitarian circumstances and limited resources, especially foreign policy. *See Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 ("The dynamic nature of relations with other countries requires the Executive Branch to ensure that enforcement policies are consistent with this Nation's foreign policy . . . ."); *Harisiades v. Shaughnessy*, 342 U.S. 580, 588-89 (1952) ("[A]ny policy toward aliens is vitally and intricately interwoven with contemporaneous policies in regard to the conduct of foreign relations, the war power, and the maintenance of a republican form of government. Such matters are so exclusively entrusted to the political branches of government as to be largely immune from judicial inquiry or interference."); *cf.* 8 U.S.C. § 1252(g) (recognizing the executive branch's authority to exercise prosecutorial discretion by generally stripping courts' jurisdiction to hear any claim "by or on behalf of any alien" arising from the Executive's decision to "commence proceedings, adjudicate cases, or execute removal orders against any alien"); Hiroshi Motomura, *Immigration Law After a Century of Plenary Power: Phantom Constitutional Norms and Statutory Interpretation*, 100 Yale L.J. 545, 547 (1990) ("[C]ourts should only rarely, if ever, and in limited fashion, entertain constitutional challenges to decisions about which aliens should be admitted or expelled.").

Compare Texas, 2015 WL 648579, at *55 ("Nothing about DAPA genuinely leaves the agency and its employees free to exercise discretion." (internal quotation marks, alterations, and emphasis omitted)), *with Crane*, 783 F.3d at 254-55 & n.42 (emphasizing that DACA 2012 "makes it clear that the Agents shall exercise their discretion in deciding to grant deferred action" and that the November 20 memorandum's case-by-case review of applicants makes it "highly unlikely that the agency would impose an employment sanction against an employee who exercises his discretion to detain an illegal alien").

The plaintiffs point to no statutory removal of the executive discretion that the Supreme Court and our court emphasize vitally exists in the law. Regardless, it is undisputed that the Executive presently is deporting a total number of immigrants at a faster rate than any administration before, ever; that the Executive is and should allocate limited resources to deport violent and dangerous immigrants, ahead of citizen-children's parents who self-report to DHS acknowledging their illegal presence; and finally, that even categories of persons, like immigrants cooperating with the government in criminal cases or who contribute to our Armed Forces, historically receive deferrals.[4]

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[4] The Executive's granting of temporary reprieve from prosecution to categories of individuals is neither new nor uncommon. This occurred, to begin with an example in the immigration context, with the Family Fairness program. In 1987, the INS announced a policy of deferring the deportations of certain children whose parents received legal status under recent legislation. *See Legalization and Family Fairness—An Analysis*, 64 Interpreter Releases 1190, 1200-1204 (Oct. 26, 1987) (containing policy by Alan C. Nelson, INS

Commissioner, providing that "indefinite voluntary departure shall be granted" to these children). In 1990, the INS expanded its deferral program to include certain spouses of legalized persons. Memorandum from Gene McNary, Comm'r, Immigration and Naturalization Serv., to Regional Commissioners, *Family Fairness: Guidelines for Voluntary Departure* (Feb. 2, 1990) (providing that "[v]oluntary departure will be granted for a one-year period"). The Family Fairness program was effectively codified by Congress later that year. Immigration Act of 1990, Pub. L. No. 101-649, 104 Stat. 4978 (Nov. 29, 1990). The practice of immigration parole, which "permits a person's physical presence in the United States even when she could not legally be granted formal admission," also "originated as a purely administrative innovation." David A. Martin, *A Defense of Immigration-Enforcement Discretion*, 122 Yale L.J. Online 167, 178 (2012) (noting that "[t]he practice was well established by the time parole gained explicit statutory sanction in the original 1952 Immigration and Nationality Act"). In the larger criminal context—such as the recent nonprosecution of banks that self-report regarding overseas tax infractions, or nonprosecution of possession of personal use amounts of marijuana—deferred prosecution is common (and more consequential because statutes of limitations make it binding legally). Indeed, the practice of pretrial diversion, set forth in the United States Attorney's Manual, began as an executive initiative, without express statutory authorization, announced by Assistant Attorney General Burke Marshall in 1964, and then expanded in 1974 by then—Deputy Attorney General Laurence Silberman, before the Pretrial Services Act of 1982 was enacted. *See Pre-Trial Diversion: Hearing on H.R. 9007 and S. 798 Before the Subcomm. on Courts, Civil Liberties, and the Admin. of Justice of the H. Comm. on the Judiciary*, 93d Cong. 127-28 (1974); Stephen J. Rackmill, *Printzlien's Legacy, the "Brooklyn Plan," A.K.A. Deferred Prosecution*, 60 Fed. Probation 1, 8, 10, 14 (June 1996). Such clear and announced enforcement guidelines do several things. They channel limited resources by prioritizing targeted felons. They animate the political process so that executive policy-setting either proves its worth and becomes embodied in law, as with pretrial diversion or the Family Fairness

The district court did not view the November 20 memorandum as a nonprosecution policy. Instead, the district court reads the memorandum as agency action that affirmatively confers legal status and other benefits on undocumented immigrants. The district court, however, failed to recognize the important distinction between lawful "status" and lawful "presence." Whereas legal *status* implies "a right protected by law," legal *presence* simply reflects an "exercise of discretion by a public official." *See Dhuka v. Holder*, 716 F.3d 149, 156 (5th Cir. 2013); *see also Chaudhry v. Holder*, 705 F.3d 289, 292 (7th Cir. 2013) ("[U]nlawful presence and unlawful status are distinct concepts."). The November 20 memorandum like its precursors, dating back to 1975, contemplates categorizing deferred action recipients as being present for a temporary period of time, but does not change the applicant's lawful "status." Congress, separately through 8 U.S.C. § 1255, has codified exact ways non-citizens may gain lawful "status," but has left lawful "presence" broadly defined to include a discretionary "period of stay authorized by the Attorney General." 8 U.S.C. § 1182(a)(9)(B)(ii); *see also Black's Law Dictionary* 565 (10th ed. 2014) (defining "prosecutorial discretion" in the immigration context as "[a] federal authority's

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program, or oppositely, for myriad reasons—unworkability, unpopularity, or budgetary realities—policies are rescinded or countermanded by law. Third, nonprosecution necessarily means that persons not being prosecuted, arrested, and detained will seek work according to pre-existing law, pay taxes, and parent children. *See* Nov. 20 Memo at 3 (case-by-case exercises of deferred action will "encourage [people] to come out of the shadows . . . and be counted").

discretion not to immediately arrest or endeavor to remove an illegal immigrant because the immigrant does not meet the federal government's immigration-enforcement priorities"). When DHS exercises its discretion to grant a qualified and temporary reprieve from removal, the immigrants' now-identified "presence" is thus consistent with, and furthers, Congressional enactments. *See Chaudhry*, 705 F.3d at 292. Non-citizens who only have lawful presence, but not lawful status, are not entitled to remain in the United States; their presence is revocable at any time. The non-citizen thus remains in the country at the discretion of DHS, who may remove the individual whenever it pleases.

The plaintiff-states draw a further flavor of doubt from eligibility for work authorization, whereas amici-states see advantage and financial windfall. That choice is exclusively a task for Congress, however. *See Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1045, 1047 (holding that the INS's decision to grant work authorization has been "committed to agency discretion by law" and is therefore not subject to judicial review). Moreover, the November 20 memorandum does not itself "award" work authorization. *See U.S. Dep't. of Labor v. Kast Metals Corp.*, 744 F.2d 1145, 1156 (5th Cir. 1984) (finding a rule non-substantive because its substantive effect was "purely derivative" of another statute and rules). Work authorization for deferred-action recipients is expressly authorized under a 1981 regulation that was promulgated through notice-and-comment rulemaking. *See* 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14). That authorization has since been reinforced in the United States Code. *See* 8 U.S.C. § 1324a(h)(3). If an influx of applications makes the statutory availability of work authorization inadvisa-

ble, it is for Congress, not the courts, to recalibrate. *See, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. § 1158(c)(1)(B) (directing the Secretary to grant work authorization to certain categories of non-citizens); *id.* § 1226(a)(3) (directing the Secretary *not* to grant work authorization to a certain category of non-citizens).

On this record, as well as focusing below on the four corners of the November 20 memorandum, I would say DHS is adhering to law, not derogating from it. The Supreme Court in *Heckler* noted that derogation and abdication occur rarely, where there is statutory language removing nonenforcement discretion yet still "a refusal by the agency to institute proceedings" or "'consciously and expressly adopt[ing] a general policy' that is so extreme as to amount to an abdication of its statutory responsibilities." 470 U.S. at 833 n.4 (quoting *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159, 1162 (D.C. Cir. 1973)). Neither exists here. The DHS memorandum guides executive policy that has allowed enforcement and more removals per year than under any prior presidency. Although executive abdication, if renunciatory of Congress, extreme and diametric, must be checked, courts should not truncate the myriad political processes whereby most executive intention, good and bad, is ever balanced. *See Lincoln v. Vigil*, 508 U.S. 182, 193 (1993) ("[W]e hardly need to note that an agency's decision to ignore congressional expectations may expose it to grave political consequences."); *Vermont Yankee Nuclear Power Corp. v. Natural Res. Def. Council, Inc.*, 435 U.S. 519, 543-44 (1978) ("[T]his much is absolutely clear. Absent constitutional constraints or extremely compelling circumstances the administrative agencies should be free to

fashion their own rules of procedure and to pursue methods of inquiry capable of permitting them to discharge their multitudinous duties. Indeed our cases could hardly be more explicit in this regard." (internal quotation marks and citations omitted)). *See generally* Jack M. Beermann, *Congressional Administration*, 43 San Diego L. Rev. 61 (2006).

In fact, if the Supreme Court has insisted on any one constant as it relates to immigration disputes, it is to redirect disputes from the multiplicity of state reactions back to dialogue between our coequal federal political branches so that nationwide concerns and practicalities are weighed, Congress's purse dispensed as it chooses, and the Executive refines its enforcement priorities or is compelled by Congress to do so. If internal executive policy-setting authority—adjusting to limited resources and making critical offender severity determinations, all superintended by Congress—now instead becomes challengeable in courts and forced into "the often cumbersome and time-consuming mechanisms of public input," *Kast Metals*, 744 F.2d at 1152, this case, as precedent, may well rise, swell, and burst with clutter beyond judicial control over immigration removal (in)action. *Id.* at 1156 (noting that notice and comment "would foresee aeons of rulemaking proceedings when all the agency seeks to do is operate in a rational manner"). *See generally Ramah Navajo Sch. Bd. v. Babbitt*, 87 F.3d 1338, 1353, 1354 (Silberman, J., dissenting) (cautioning courts against "teas-[ing] statutory law out of a vacuum" created by Congress and ignoring "the zero sum game" of limited Congressional appropriations which require executive agencies to communicate prioritizations via policies).

II. Executive Policy-Setting

For the foregoing reasons, I would grant a stay of the district court's preliminary injunction because I believe the policy articulated in the November 20 memorandum is non-justiciable.[5] *See supra* Part I; *see also* 5 U.S.C. § 701(a)(2); *Perales*, 903 F.2d at 1045-47. However, because the district court's injunction rested solely on the district court's classification of the November 20 memorandum as agency action issued without adhering to the notice and comment requirements of the APA, I articulate my disagreement on that point as well.

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[5] Absent non-justiciability, I would agree that there is a reason to maintain the status quo pending the government's approaching appeal on the merits. *Compare INS v. Legalization Assistance Project of the L.A. Cnty. Fed'n of Labor*, 510 U.S. 1301, 1306 (1993) (O'Connor, Circuit Justice) (granting an application to stay the district court's order that required enforcement of INS regulations when the district court's order was "an improper intrusion by a federal court in the workings of a coordinate branch of the Government"), *with Planned Parenthood of Greater Tex. Surgical Health Servs. v. Abbott*, 134 S. Ct. 506, 509 (2013) (Breyer, J., dissenting) ("[I]t is a mistake to disrupt the status quo so seriously before the Fifth Circuit has arrived at a considered decision on the merits."), *and Campaign for S. Equality v. Bryant*, 773 F.3d 55, 58 (5th Cir. 2014) (granting a stay pending appeal in part because "a temporary maintenance of the status quo" prevents the "inevitable disruption that would arise from a lack of continuity and stability in [an] important area of law"). *See generally* Jill Wieber Lens, *Stays Pending Appeal: Why the Merits Should Not Matter*, Fla. St. U. L. Rev. (forthcoming) (manuscript at 35), *available at* http://ssrn.com/abstract=2571003 (arguing that panels reviewing motions for stay pending appeal should consider "whether the circumstances would (irreparably change) in a way that would interfere with the appellate court's ability to make a decision meaningful to the parties").

The district court highlighted that "well-developed" caselaw exists to distinguish executive action that is internal policy-setting from executive action that is a procedurally invalid legislative rule because it binds members of the public, the agency, and even courts. *See Hudson v. FAA*, 192 F.3d 1031, 1035-36 (D.C. Cir. 1999); *Syncor Int'l Corp. v. Shalala*, 127 F.3d 90, 94 (D.C. Cir. 1997). Judge Kavanaugh's well-reasoned opinion in *National Mining Association v. McCarthy*, 758 F.3d 243 (D.C. Cir. 2014), succinctly articulates the § 553 framework. Step 1, he explains, is whether the agency has said it is imposing a legally binding rule on regulatees. *Id.* at 251-52. Even if the agency says it is not, Step 2 asks whether the policy nonetheless draws a line in the sand, coercing conformity. *Id.* at 252. Finally, Step 3 asks whether postguidance events show that agency action has become "binding on regulated parties." *Id.* at 253. The district court correctly noted that "the analysis substantially relies on the specific facts of a given case." *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *52. Because the November 20 memorandum has yet to go into effect, and no evidentiary hearing was held, the record is undeveloped and contains considerable conjecture, and conjecture is guided by feeling.

A. Step 1: Agency Characterization

The starting point for analysis under § 553(b), though not the deciding factor, is an agency's own characterization of its action, and specifically whether the agency itself seeks to impose binding obligations as a basis for enforcement action. *Prof'ls & Patients for Customized Care v. Shalala*, 56 F.3d 592, 596 (5th Cir. 1995); *see also*

Kast Metals, 744 F.2d at 1149; *Pac. Gas & Elec. Co. v. Fed. Power Comm'n*, 506 F.2d 33, 39 (D.C. Cir. 1974). DHS titles its memorandum as internal policy statements expanding prosecutorial discretion for undocumented immigrants who seek "deferred action" instead of removal from the United States. That description is neither a boilerplate beginning nor a final caveat, weak bookends around an imposed regulatory regime. *See Huerta*, 2015 WL 2145776, at *5 ("The language employed by the agency may play an important role [in determining whether a document is a policy statement or legislative rule]; a document that reads like an edict is likely to be binding, while one riddled with caveats is not."); *Nat'l Mining Ass'n*, 758 F.3d at 251-53. No fewer than ten times, the November 20 memorandum instructs immigration officers that: (1) "DHS must exercise prosecutorial discretion in the enforcement of the law"; (2) "[immigration laws] are not designed to be blindly enforced without consideration given to the individual circumstances of each case"; (3) "[d]eferred action is a form of prosecutorial discretion by which the Secretary deprioritizes an individual's case for humanitarian reasons, administrative convenience, or in the interest of the Department's overall enforcement mission"; (4) "deferred action is legally available so long as it is granted on a case-by-case, and it may be terminated at any time at the agency's discretion"; (5) "[c]ase-by-case exercises of deferred action for children and long-standing members of American society who are not enforcement priorities are in this Nation's security and economic interests and make common sense"; (6) "this Department's limited enforcement resources . . . must continue to be focused on those who

represent threats to national security"; (7) "USCIS [should] establish a process, similar to DACA [2012], for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis"; (8) "ICE is further instructed to review pending removal cases . . . and to refer [certain] individuals to USCIS for case-by-case determinations"; (9) "immigration officers will be provided with specific eligibility criteria for deferred action, but the ultimate judgment as to whether an immigrant is granted deferred action will be determined on a case-by-case basis"; and (10) "[i]t remains within the authority of the Executive Branch . . . to set forth policy for the exercise of prosecutorial discretion and deferred action . . . . This memorandum is an exercise of that authority."[6]

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[6] In this regard, also, the November 20 memorandum is consistent with prior deferred action guidance dating back to at least 1975, which structure executive discretion to delay removal of immigrants who are not priorities for removal. *See* Immigration and Naturalization Service Operating Instruction 103.1(a)(1)(ii) (1975); Memorandum from Sam Bernsen, *Legal Opinion Regarding Service Exercise of Prosecutorial Discretion* (July 15, 1976); Memorandum from Bo Cooper, *INS Exercise of Prosecutorial Discretion* (July 11, 2000); Memorandum from Doris Meissner, Commissioner, Immigration and Naturalization Service, to Regional Directors et al., *Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion* (Nov. 17, 2000); Memorandum from William J. Howard, Principal Legal Advisor, ICE, to All Office of the Principal Legal Advisor Chief Counsel, *Prosecutorial Discretion* (Oct. 24, 2005); Memorandum from Julie L. Myers, Assistant Secretary of Homeland Security, to All Field Office Directors and Special Agents in Charge of U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, *Prosecutorial and Custody Discretion* (Nov. 7, 2007); Memorandum from John Morton, *Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion Consistent with the Civil Immigration Enforcement Prior-*

B. Step 2: Intent to Bind

Looking behind an agency's stated purpose claiming or disclaiming the force and effect of law, courts also give a close, four-corners look for language that reads like an edict, commanding language, to discern if a priority statement nonetheless will operate bindingly on regulatees. *Nat'l Mining Ass'n*, 758 F.3d at 252 ("The most important factor concerns the actual legal effect (or lack thereof) of the agency action in question on regulated entities.").

As a preliminary matter, it is undisputed that any "directing" here is internal only, not binding with respect to regulated entities. And to the extent that DHS directs internally, it directs immigration officers to "establish a *process*, similar to DACA [2012], for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis," (emphasis added), containing features common to nonbinding statements of policy (exempt from notice and comment procedure), and dissimilar from

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ities of the Agency for the Apprehension, Detention, and Removal of Aliens (June 17, 2011). In several instances, prior policies on deferred action were held to be exempt from requirements in § 553. *See Mada-Luna v. Fitzpatrick*, 813 F.2d 1006, 1009 (9th Cir. 1987) (rejecting claim that the 1981 version of INS Operating Instruction 103.1(a)(1)(ii) "violated the notice-and-comment requirements of the APA, because the amended Operating Instruction qualifies under the APA's exception for 'general statements of policy'"); *Pasquini v. Morris*, 700 F.2d 658, 662 (11th Cir. 1983) (concluding that Operating Instruction 103.1(a)(1)(ii) was exempt from § 553(b) because it was "only general guidance for service employees" (internal quotation marks and citation omitted)).

binding substantive regulations (requiring APA rulemaking and public participation).

First, the memorandum guides only as to when to exercise broad lenity, i.e. delayed enforcement. The memorandum channels when DHS will *not* act, much like longstanding Department of Justice internal prosecution guidelines, such as the "Petite Policy," which "precludes the initiation or continuation of a federal prosecution, following a prior state or federal prosecution based on substantially the same act(s) or transaction(s) . . . . This policy constitutes an exercise of the Department's prosecutorial discretion, and applies even where a prior state prosecution would not legally bar a subsequent federal prosecution . . . ." Dual and Successive Prosecution Policy ("Petite Policy"), United States Attorneys' Manual, Title 9-2.031;[7] *see also Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832 ("[W]e note that when an agency refuses to act it generally does not exercise its *coercive* power over an individual's liberty or property rights, and thus does not infringe upon areas that courts often are called upon to protect.").

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[7] The Petite Policy, like many other law enforcement policies, is a policy governing prosecutorial discretion as to an undefined class of similarly situated persons that has no express statutory authorization and has never been challenged as ultra vires, either violative of APA rulemaking or as an abdication from the Take Care duty to enforce the federal criminal code. *See Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832 ("[A]n agency's refusal to institute proceedings shares to some extent the characteristics of the decision of a prosecutor in the Executive Branch not to indict—a decision which has long been regarded as the special province of the Executive Branch, inasmuch as it is the Executive who is charged by the Constitution to 'take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed.'" (citation omitted)).

The pretext cases relied on by plaintiffs, *see, e.g., Appalachian Power Co. v. EPA*, 208 F.3d 1015 (D.C. Cir. 2000); *Phillips Petroleum Co. v. Johnson*, 22 F.3d 616 (5th Cir. 1994); *McLouth Steel Prods. Corp. v. Thomas*, 838 F.2d 1317 (D.C. Cir. 1988); *Cmty. Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943 (D.C. Cir. 1987) (per curiam), involve, contrastingly, affirmative agency action or exact nonenforcement tolerances, such as food contamination set to parts per billion specificity, not, as here, a nonprosecution memorandum built around offenders who self-report, confirm their whereabouts, submit to background checks, and stay subject to prosecution and removal while seeking employment according to law.

Second, the memorandum neither continues nor imposes a regulatory regime. There is no threat to conform. No obligation or prohibition is placed on regulated entities. Instead, DHS has expanded on its preexisting guidance, allowing immigrants to self-report their illegal presence but show they fall outside DHS's "enforcement priorities" and also are not otherwise "inappropriate" for deferred action. The memorandum describes opt-in procedures, whose incontestable accomplishment is that persons illegally here will be identified and located and submit to a criminal background check, all the while allowing DHS to tighten border interdiction and target violent and dangerous felons. It goes without saying that to prosecute a fugitive, the government must first find him. Every applicant under the November 20 memorandum voluntarily will self-report as illegally present and provide information DHS then will use in a criminal background check coordinated with Immigration and Customs Enforcement ("ICE") to effectuate priority removals. Nov.

20 Memo at 3 ("Case-by-case exercises of deferred action for children and long-standing members of American society who are not enforcement priorities are in this Nation's security and economic interests and make common sense, because they encourage these people to come out of the shadows, submit to background checks, pay fees, . . . and be counted.").

Third, plaintiffs cite no § 553 caselaw relating to a statutory regime whose flexibility the Supreme Court has highlighted, *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499 ("A principal feature of the removal system is the broad discretion exercised by immigration officials."); 6 U.S.C. § 202(5) (affording the Secretary authority to "[e]stablish[] national immigration enforcement policies and priorities"), set against agency policy guidance that incorporates this same flexibility, such as the criteria that the applicant (1) not be an "enforcement priority"; and (2) "present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate." Any invalidating logic must postulate the opposite of these broad caveats, therefore, both that the Supreme Court's yes (broad discretion over removal) means no (no removal discretion), and also that DHS's no (no blanket approvals to be *present*) means yes (give lawful *status* to millions).[8] Also illogical, future policy-setting would seem

[8] In its April 7, 2015 supplemental order, the district court construes remarks by the President as a threat to immigration officers to conform to the November 20 memorandum. However, the memorandum instructs officials to use discretion and make case-by-case determinations, so any invalidating logic must actually be that officials understand the threat to mean they must do the opposite of what is in writing, and apply criteria blindly, ignore dis-

possible only when executive fiat is absolute, which in turn would maximize executive arbitrariness—unwritten and individualized assessments for deferred action applicants—and minimize information Congress has to perform day-to-day oversight and funding. *See* Richard J. Pierce, Jr., *Administrative Law Treatise*, § 6.3, at 424-25 (5th ed. 2010) (warning of the "horrible incentives" if agencies are unable to direct their employees without "the expensive and time-consuming notice and comment procedure").

C. Step 3: Implementation Facts

Behind label and language, courts vigilantly will look to any postguidelines implementation data to assure, again, that an agency policy announcement does not inadvertently or strategically cause binding effect equivalent to a legislative rule. The concern is to not allow an agency speak one way—claiming resource constraints and discretion—yet carry out de facto regulation, binding regulatees. Put delicately, is the announced discretion "pretext"? Put indelicately, as the district court held, is the Executive being "disingenuous"? *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *53.

The district court held that "[d]espite the [November 20] memorandum's use of phrases such as 'case-by-case' and 'discretion'" the criteria set forth in the November 20 memorandum were actually "binding." But because it enjoined the November 20 memorandum before it went into effect, no postguidance evidence exists to help de-

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cretionary criteria, and decline to make case-by-case determinations.

termine "whether the agency has applied the guidance as if it were binding." *Nat'l Mining Ass'n*, 758 F.3d at 253. Instead, as noted earlier, the district court looked above DHS, the executive agency, to President Obama, the executive-in-chief to find contradiction to DHS stated purpose and emphasis on case-by-case discretion. For good reason, however, the Supreme Court has not relied on press statements to discern government motivation and test the legality of governmental action, much less inaction. *See Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 548 U.S. 557, 624 n.52 (2006) ("We have not heretofore, in evaluating the legality of executive action, deferred to comments made by such officials to the media."). Presidents, like governors and legislators, often describe law enthusiastically yet defend the same law narrowly. *See Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co. v. Sawyer*, 343 U.S. 579, 647 (1952) (Jackson, J.) (noting "[t]he claim of inherent and unrestricted presidential powers has long been a persuasive dialectical weapon in political controversy" yet warning against the use of such "unadjudicated claims of power" to answer constitutional questions). In addition, our court has noted that "informal communications often exhibit a lack of 'precision of draftsmanship'" and therefore "are generally entitled to limited weight" in the analysis of whether a rule is substantive. *Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 599 (quoting *Cmty. Nutrition*, 818 F.2d at 948).[9]

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[9] Much less informally, Presidents often in presidential signing statements say they will not enforce aspects of law, yet no court has used such statements to classify subsequent agency inaction as an intent to bind triggering the APA rulemaking process.

More significant, the district court discerned pretext —inferred intent to bind—from the fact that the majority of DACA 2012 deferred action applications have been granted. I disagree for factual and legal reasons.

First, without evidence-taking and testing, I question the relevance of DACA 2012 implementation data. The DACA 2012 memorandum purports to guide the exercise of prosecutorial discretion "with respect to individuals who came to the United States as children," a subset of undocumented immigrants who are particularly inculpable as they "were brought to this country as children" and, thus, "lacked the intent to violate the law." That memorandum, in its original form, applies only to individuals who came to the United States under the age of sixteen, have not yet reached the age of thirty, and who have achieved a certain level of education. The November 20 memorandum being challenged here, and specifically its DAPA provisions, on the other hand, casts a much wider net, applying to a larger and broader group of individuals, but then narrows its deferred-action-availability reach through the use of more discretionary criteria than in DACA 2012. Despite these dissimilarities, the district court concluded that "[t]here is no reason to believe that DAPA will be implemented any differently than DACA [2012]" and there was no "suggestion that DAPA will be implemented in a fashion different from DACA [2012]." *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *39, *55 n.96. The court did not explore, however, the government's contention that a significant difference existed between the two programs, specifically, the catch-all discretionary exception that was added to the November 20 memorandum—"present no other factors that, in the exercise of

discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate." The district court rejected this distinction because, the court contended, using circular reasoning, that the approval rate under the DACA 2012 program persuaded the Court that "this 'factor' is merely pretext." *Id.* at *55 n.101.

Second, the district court placed the burden on the government to put forth "evidence of individuals who had been denied [under DACA 2012] for reasons other than not meeting the criteria or technical errors with the form and/or filing." *Id.* But "[t]he plaintiff has the burden of introducing sufficient evidence to justify the grant of a preliminary injunction." *See PCI Transp., Inc. v. Fort Worth & W. R. Co.*, 418 F.3d 535, 545 (5th Cir. 1985). The district court then reached its conclusions about the agency's binding intent without giving any weight to the government's contrary evidence or justification for discrediting that evidence. *See Four Seasons Hotels and Resorts, B.V. v. Consorcio Barr*, S.A., 320 F.3d 1205, 1211 (11th Cir. 2003) (holding that the district court abused its discretion when it "effectively issued and upheld the injunction based on evidence presented by only one party" and without holding an evidentiary hearing); *cf. Fed. Sav. & Loan Ins. Corp. v. Dixon*, 835 F.2d 554, 558-59 (5th Cir. 1987) (finding that the district court did not abuse its discretion by declining to hold an evidentiary hearing where there were no material factual disputes). Especially because this case touches on the sensitive issues of immigrant presence in the United States, as well as when one branch of government may invalidate internal guidelines of another branch, I do not think it should come resolved on inferences of disingenuousness made

from press statements and untested inferences from a precursor program whose challenge on similar grounds our court has rejected. *See Crane*, 783 F.3d 244. No evidentiary hearing was held. For example, Kenneth Palinkas's contention that DACA 2012 applicants are "rubberstamped" was not tested against Donald Neufeld's specific examples of discretionary denials.[10] *See Sims v. Greene*, 161 F.2d 87, 88 (3rd Cir. 1947) ("Such conflict [between allegations in competing pleadings and affidavits] must be resolved by oral testimony since only by hearing the witnesses and observing their demeanor on the stand can the trier of fact determine the veracity of the allegations . . . made by the respective parties. If witnesses are not heard the trial court will be left in the position of preferring one piece of paper to another."); *Heil v. Trailer Int'l Co. v. Kula*, 542 F. App'x 329, 334 n.17 (5th Cir. 2013) ("[I]t is fundamental that, '[i]f there is a factual controversy, . . . oral testimony is preferable to

[10] The government presented a 13-page affidavit of Donald Neufeld, USCIS Associate Director for Service Center Operations, accompanied by over 40 pages of exhibits, which purported to show that USCIS maintains authority and discretion to grant deferred action to non-DAPA applicants and to deny deferred action to applicants who meet the November 20 memorandum's listed criteria. The affidavit describes specific examples of instances when USCIS denied DACA 2012 requests for discretionary reasons that were not contemplated by the DACA 2012 guidelines. This affidavit was based on Neufeld's personal knowledge gained during the course of his official duties. Significantly, the district court never mentions Neufeld, and its only reference to his proof was its early rejection of the entire declaration and exhibits, without any detailed discussion, as not providing "the level of detail that the Court requested." *Texas*, 2015 WL 648579, at *5.

affidavits because of the opportunity it provides to observe the demeanor of the witnesses.'" (citation omitted)); *see also Four Seasons*, 320 F.3d at 1211 ("Where conflicting factual information place[s] in serious dispute issues central to [a party's] claims and much depends upon the accurate presentation of numerous facts, the trial court err[s] in not holding an evidentiary hearing to resolve these hotly contested issues." (citations and internal quotation marks omitted)); 11 Charles Alan Wright et al., *Federal Practice and Procedure* § 2949 (3d ed.) ("When the outcome of a Rule 65(a) application depends on resolving a factual conflict by assessing the credibility of opposing witnesses, it seems desirable to require that the determination be made on the basis of their demeanor during direct and cross-examination, rather than on the respective plausibility of their affidavits."). As a second example, Jeh Johnson, the author of what is held disingenuous, was not heard from. His ten instructions requiring individualized, case-by-case assessment were not tested as pretext. When a court assesses unlawful motive and declares executive action invalid nationwide, highest government officials whose veracity is entirely discredited should be heard. Indeed, the District of Columbia Circuit commendably has developed a "curative option" short of complete invalidation for such circumstances. *McLouth*, 838 F.2d at 1324 (remanding to permit agency to demonstrate that it is "truly exercis[ing] discretion in individual" cases). This intermediate remedy seems especially noteworthy because of our inter-

vening *Crane* decision, which calls into doubt the district court's basis for inferring disingenuousness.[11]

Third, DACA 2012 itself contains classic markers of discretion, including the ability to interview applicants, request additional evidence, and contact the applicant's educational institution, other government agencies, employers, or other entities to verify documents and facts. This discretion was actually exercised by DHS; the executive made nearly 200,000 requests for additional evidence under the DACA 2012 program, a fact the district court does not mention. Applications have been denied after an official exercised discretion in applying the criteria set forth in the DACA 2012 memorandum (i.e., making a subjective determination that the applicant posed a public safety risk), and for reasons not expressly set forth in the DACA 2012 memorandum.

Fourth, and especially significant, placing determinative weight on the approval rate of applicants under DACA 2012 fails to take into account the crucial voluntary aspect of this memorandum, that applicants will *not* apply if they are ineligible—essentially self-reporting for removal—or, if eligible, when they have any other flaw they do not want revealed. In light of this manifest self-selection bias, it is unclear why the appropriate piece of data would be the approval rate of only applicants, cru-

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[11] If a concern is that the unanimous panel in *Crane* itself lacked evidentiary foundation, it would seem even more advisable to require actual and adversarial evidence-taking, avoiding either agency action that is feared to be disingenuous or, an opposite extreme, requiring DHS to prioritize its limited resources only through full public participation.

cially relied on by the district court to infer pretext, rather than the approval rate of all those who qualify. Again, the district court did not address at all this self-selection bias inherent in DACA 2012 and the November 20 memorandum.

Finally, as a leading administrative law scholar has observed, it is to be expected and encouraged that subordinate executive officers will follow enforcement guidelines. *See* Pierce, *Administrative Law Treatise*, § 6.3, at 424-25; *see also Prof'ls & Patients*, 56 F.3d at 599 (agents' conformance with agency guidance is "not particularly probative whether the rule is substantive" because "what purpose would an agency's statement of policy serve if agency employees could not refer to it for guidance?"). This positive should not become a negative to invalidate the very delineation of executive authority the APA exists to assure.

D. Commonsense

Judge Kavanaugh brackets his *National Mining Association* framework for the § 553 analysis applied above with commonsense. First, he offers that "agency action that merely explains how the agency will enforce a statute . . . in other words, how it will exercise its broad enforcement discretion or permitting discretion under some extant statute or rule—is a general statement of policy." *Nat'l Mining Ass'n*, 758 F.3d at 252. The Supreme Court, in *Arizona*, resolved that immigration officials have "broad discretion" to enforce the federal immigration laws, including the "deci[sion] whether it makes sense to pursue removal at all." *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2499. Second, Judge Kavanaugh notes that a

token of a general statement of policy is that the agency would have legal authority to undertake the action absent the guidance document. *See Nat'l Mining Ass'n*, 758 F.3d at 253 ("[W]hen the agency applies [a general statement of] policy in a particular situation, it must be prepared to support the policy just as if the policy statement had never been issued." (internal quotation marks and citation omitted)). As described earlier, deferred action has existed for half a century, reflected in long-standing regulations as an "act of administrative convenience," *see* 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14), and recognized by the Supreme Court as an appropriate exercise of the Executive's removal discretion, *see Reno*, 525 U.S. at 483-84. Indeed, the same deferred action decisions for which the November 20 memorandum provides guidance already are permissible under the unchallenged 2014 enforcement priorities memorandum, which is explicitly incorporated into the November 20 memorandum. *See* Memorandum from Jeh Charles Johnson, *Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants* (Nov. 20, 2014). The November 20 memorandum, by incorporating a framework the plaintiffs admit is discretionary, necessarily contains at least that identical level of discretion.

Conclusion

I would hold that the underlying issue presented to us —the order in which non-citizens without documentation must be removed from the United States—must be decided, presently is being decided, and always has been decided, by the federal political branches. *See Mathews v. Diaz*, 426 U.S. 67, 81 (1976) ("For reasons long recog-

nized as valid, the responsibility for regulating the relationship between the United States and our alien visitors has been committed to the political branches of the Federal Government."). On the expedience of immigration measures, sensible things can be said on all sides, mindful that our country is an immigrant society itself.[12] The political nature of this dispute is clear from the names on the briefs: hundreds of mayors, police chiefs, sheriffs, attorneys general, governors, and state legislators—not to mention 185 members of Congress, 15 states and the District of Columbia on the one hand, and 113 members of Congress and 26 states on the other. I would not affirm intervention and judicial fiat ordering what Congress has never mandated.

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[12] Over twenty years ago, Judith Shklar observed in her book *American Citizenship*, aptly subtitled *The Quest for Inclusion*, that the United States has an "extremely complicated" history of "exclusions and inclusions, in which xenophobia, racism, religious bigotry, and fear of alien conspiracies have played their part." Judith N. Shklar, *American Citizenship: The Quest for Inclusion* 4 (1991). And over two hundred years ago, our non-citizen forebears grieved against their king that, "[h]e has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither." *The Declaration of Independence* (U.S. 1776).

APPENDIX C

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF TEXAS
BROWNSVILLE DIVISION

Civil No. B-14-254

STATE OF TEXAS, ET AL., PLAINTIFFS

v.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ET AL., DEFENDANTS

[Filed: Feb. 16, 2015]

MEMORANDUM OPINION AND ORDER

This is a case in which twenty-six states or their representatives are seeking injunctive relief against the United States and several officials of the Department of Homeland Security to prevent them from implementing a program entitled "Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents."[1] This program is designed to provide legal

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[1] The Plaintiffs include: the State of Texas; State of Alabama; State of Arizona; State of Arkansas; State of Florida; State of Georgia; State of Idaho; State of Indiana; State of Kansas; State of Louisiana; State of Montana; State of Nebraska; State of North Dakota; State of Ohio; State of Oklahoma; State of South Carolina; State of South Dakota; State of Utah; State of West Virginia; State of Wisconsin; Attorney General Bill Schuette, People of Michigan; Governor Phil Bryant, State of Mississippi; Governor Paul R.

presence to over four million individuals who are currently in the country illegally, and would enable these individuals to obtain a variety of both state and federal benefits.

The genesis of the problems presented by illegal immigration in this matter was described by the United States Supreme Court decades ago:

> Sheer incapability or lax enforcement of the laws barring entry into this country, coupled with the failure to establish an effective bar to the employment of undocumented aliens, has resulted in the creation of a substantial "shadow population" of illegal migrants—numbering in the millions—within our borders.
>
> The Attorney General recently estimated the number of illegal aliens within the United States at between 3 and 6 million. In presenting to both the Senate and House of Representatives several Presidential proposals for reform of the immigration laws—including one to "legalize" many of the illegal entrants currently residing in the United States by creating for them a special statute under the immigration laws—the Attorney General noted that this subclass is largely composed of persons with a permanent attachment to the Nation, and that they are unlikely to be displaced from our territory.

LePage, State of Maine; Governor Patrick L. McCrory, State of North Carolina; and Governor C. L. "Butch" Otter, State of Idaho. The States of Tennessee and Nevada were added in the latest Amended Complaint. All of these plaintiffs, both individuals and states, will be referred to collectively as "States" or "Plaintiffs" unless there is a particular need for specificity.

> "We have neither the resources, the capability, nor the motivation to uproot and deport millions of illegal aliens, many of whom have become, in effect, members of the community. By granting limited legal status to the productive and law-abiding members of this shadow population, we will recognize reality and devote our enforcement resources to deterring future illegal arrivals." Joint Hearing before the Subcommittee on Immigration, Refugees, and International Law of the House Committee on the Judiciary and the Subcommittee on Immigration and Refugee Policy of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 97th Cong., 1st Sess., 9 (1981) (testimony of William French Smith, Attorney General).
>
> This situation raises the specter of a permanent caste of undocumented resident aliens, encouraged by some to remain here as a source of cheap labor, but nevertheless denied the benefits that our society makes available to citizens and lawful residents. The existence of such an underclass presents most difficult problems for a Nation that prides itself on adherence to principles of equality under law.

Plyler v. Doe, 457 U.S. 202, 218-19 & n.17 (1982). Thus, even in 1982, the Supreme Court noted in *Plyler* that the United States' problems with illegal immigration had existed for decades. Obviously, these issues are still far from a final resolution.

Since 1982, the population of illegal aliens in this country has more than tripled, but today's situation is

clearly exacerbated by the specter of terrorism and the increased need for security.[2] Nevertheless, the Executive Branch's position is the same as it was then. It is still voicing concerns regarding its inability to enforce all immigration laws due to a lack of resources. While Congress has not been idle, having passed a number of ever-increasing appropriation bills and various acts that affect immigration over the last four decades (especially in the wake of the terrorist attacks in 2001), it has not passed nor funded a long term, comprehensive system that resolves this country's issues regarding border security and immigration. To be sure, Congress' and the Executive Branch's focus on matters directly affecting national security is understandable. This overriding focus, however, does not necessarily comport with the interests of the states. While the States are obviously concerned about national security, they are also concerned about their own resources being drained by the constant influx of illegal immigrants into their respective territories, and that this continual flow of illegal immigration has led and will lead to serious domestic security issues directly affecting their citizenry. This influx, for example, is causing the States to experience severe

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[2] The Court uses the phrases "illegal immigrant" and "illegal alien" interchangeably. The word "immigrant" is not used in the manner in which it is defined in Title 8 of the United States Code unless it is so designated. The Court also understands that there is a certain segment of the population that finds the phrase "illegal alien" offensive. The Court uses this term because it is the term used by the Supreme Court in its latest pronouncement pertaining to this area of the law. *See Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492, 2497 (2012).

law enforcement problems.[3] Regardless of the reasons behind the actions or inaction of the Executive and Legislative Branches of the federal government, the result is that many states ultimately bear the brunt of illegal immigration.

This case examines complex issues relating to immigration which necessarily involve questions of federalism, separation of powers, and the ability and advisability, if any, of the Judiciary to hear and resolve such a dispute.

Chief Justice Roberts wrote in *National Federation of Independent Business v. Sebelius*:

> We [the judiciary] do not consider whether the [Patient Protection and Affordable Care] Act embodies sound policies. That judgment is entrusted to the Nation's elected leaders. We ask only whether Congress has the power under the Constitution to enact the challenged provisions.

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[3] *See Arizona v. United States*, as quoted on p. 58 of this opinion. For example, as the Court writes this opinion, Brownsville police have been investigating the kidnapping of a local university student. The student was reportedly kidnapped at gunpoint by a human trafficker a few miles from this Courthouse and forced to transport the trafficker and an alien who had just crossed the border (the Rio Grande River) from the university campus to their destination. *See* Tiffany Huertas, *UT-Brownsville Students on Alert Following Reported Gunpoint Kidnapping*, Action 4 News, Feb. 4, 2015, http://www.valleycentral.com/news/story.aspx?id=l159456#.VNfHn-bF-wE.

> Nearly two centuries ago, Chief Justice Marshall observed that "the question respecting the extent of the powers actually granted" to the Federal Government "is perpetually arising, and will probably continue to arise, as long as our system shall exist." In this case, we must again determine whether the Constitution grants Congress powers it now asserts, but which many States and individuals believe it does not possess.

132 S. Ct. 2566, 2577 (2012) (quoting *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 17 U.S. 316, 404 (1819)).

I. THE ISSUES BEFORE AND NOT BEFORE THE COURT

Although this Court is not faced with either a Congressional Act or an Executive Order, the sentiment expressed by these Chief Justices is nonetheless applicable. The ultimate question before the Court is: Do the laws of the United States, including the Constitution, give the Secretary of Homeland Security the power to take the action at issue in this case? Nevertheless, before the Court begins to address the issues raised in this injunctive action, it finds that the issues can best be framed by emphasizing what is not involved in this case.

First, this case does not involve the wisdom, or the lack thereof, underlying the decision by Department of Homeland Security ("DHS") Secretary Jeh Johnson to award legal presence status to over four million illegal aliens through the Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents ("DAPA," also referred to interchangeably as the "DHS Directive" and the "DAPA Memorandum") program.

Although the Court will necessarily be forced to address many factors surrounding this decision and review the relationship between the Legislative and Executive Branches as it pertains to the DHS Secretary's discretion to act in this area, the actual merits of this program are not at issue.

Second, with three minor exceptions, this case does not involve the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals ("DACA") program. In 2012, DACA was implemented by then DHS Secretary Janet Napolitano. The program permits teenagers and young adults, who were born outside the United States, but raised in this country, to apply for deferred action status and employment authorizations. The Complaint in this matter does not include the actions taken by Secretary Napolitano, which have to date formalized the status of approximately 700,000 teenagers and young adults. Therefore, those actions are not before the Court and will not be addressed by this opinion. Having said that, DACA will necessarily be discussed in this opinion as it is relevant to many legal issues in the present case. For example, the States maintain that the DAPA applications will undergo a process identical to that used for DACA applications and, therefore, DACA's policies and procedures will be instructive for the Court as to DAPA's implementation.

Third, several of the briefs have expressed a general public perception that the President has issued an executive order implementing a blanket amnesty program, and that it is this amnesty program that is before the Court in this suit. Although what constitutes an amnesty program is obviously a matter of opinion, these opinions do not impact the Court's decision.

Amnesty or not, the issues before the Court do not require the Court to consider the public popularity, public acceptance, public acquiescence, or public disdain for the DAPA program. As Chief Justice Roberts alluded to above, public opinions and perceptions about the country's policies have no place in the resolution of a judicial matter.

Finally, both sides agree that the President in his official capacity has not directly instituted any program at issue in this case. Regardless of the fact that the Executive Branch has made public statements to the contrary, there are no executive orders or other presidential proclamations or communique that exist regarding DAPA. The DAPA Memorandum issued by Secretary Johnson is the focus in this suit.

That being said, the Court is presented with the following principle issues: (1) whether the States have standing to bring this case; (2) whether the DHS has the necessary discretion to institute the DAPA program; and (3) whether the DAPA program is constitutional, comports with existing laws, and was legally adopted. A negative answer to the first question will negate the need for the Court to address the latter two. The factual statements made hereinafter (except where the Court is discussing a factual dispute) should be considered as findings of fact regardless of any heading or lack thereof. Similarly, the legal conclusions, except where the Court discusses the various competing legal theories and positions, should be taken as conclusions of law regardless of any label or lack thereof. Furthermore, due to the overlap between the standing issues and the merits, there

is by necessity the need for a certain amount of repetition.

II. HISTORY OF THIS LITIGATION

On November 20, 2014, Jeh Johnson, in his position as Secretary of the DHS, issued multiple memoranda to Leon Rodriguez, Director of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services ("USCIS"), Thomas S. Winkowski, Acting Director of the United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement ("ICE"), and R. Gil Kerlikowske, Commissioner of the United States Customs and Border Protection ("CBP"). One of these memoranda contained an order establishing a new program utilizing deferred action to stay deportation proceedings and award certain benefits to approximately four to five million individuals residing illegally in the United States. The present case, filed in an attempt to enjoin the rollout and implementation of this program, was initiated by the State of Texas and twenty-five other states or their representatives. Specifically, the States allege that the Secretary's actions violate the Take Care Clause of the Constitution and the Administrative Procedure Act ("APA"). *See* U.S. Const. art. II, § 3; 5 U.S.C. §§ 500 *et seq.*[4] The States filed this suit against DHS Secretary Johnson and the individuals mentioned above, as well as Ronald D. Vitiello, the Deputy Chief of the United States Border Patrol, and the United States of Ameri-

[4] Most authorities seem to indicate that the original Constitution the "Take Care Clause" actually was the "take Care Clause" with the "T" in "take" being lowercase. The Court will use upper case for the sake of consistency.

ca.[5] In response to Plaintiffs' suit, the Defendants have asserted two main arguments: (1) the States lack standing to bring this suit; and (2) the States' claims are not meritorious.

Multiple *amici curiae* have made appearances arguing for one side of this controversy or the other. Several separate attempts have been made by individuals—at least one attempt seemingly in support of Plaintiffs, and one in support of Defendants—to intervene in this lawsuit. Both the States and the Government opposed these interventions. Because the Court had already implemented a schedule in this time-sensitive matter that was agreed to by all existing parties, it denied these attempts to intervene without prejudice. Permitting the intervention of new parties would have been imprudent, as it would have unduly complicated and delayed the orderly progression of this case. *See* Fed. R. Civ. P. 24(a)(2), (b)(3). Further, this Court notes that the interests of all putative intervenors are more than adequately represented by the Parties in this lawsuit.[6] As suggested by Fifth Circuit authority, the Court has reviewed their plead-

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[5] All of these Defendants will be referred to collectively as the "Government" or the "Defendants" unless there is a particular need for specificity.

[6] While one set of the putative intervenors is allegedly covered by Secretary Johnson's memorandum and may be affected by this ruling, there was no intervention as a matter of right because there is no federal statute that gives them an unconditional right to intervene nor does this lawsuit involve property or a transaction over which they claim a property interest. *See* Fed. R. Civ. P. 24(a).

ings as if they were *amici curiae*. *See Bush v. Viterna*, 720 F.2d 350, 359 (5th Cir. 1984) (*per curiam*).

III. BACKGROUND

A. Factual Background

For some years now, the powers that be in Washington—namely, the Executive Branch and Congress—have debated if and how to change the laws governing both legal and illegal immigration into this country. This debate has necessarily included a wide-ranging number of issues including, but not limited to, border security, law enforcement, budgetary concerns, employment, social welfare, education, positive and negative societal aspects of immigration, and humanitarian concerns. The national debate has also considered potential solutions to the myriad of concerns stemming from the millions of individuals currently living in the country illegally. To date, however, neither the President nor any member of Congress has proposed legislation capable of resolving these issues in a manner that could garner the necessary support to be passed into law.[7]

On June 15, 2012, DHS Secretary Janet Napolitano issued a memorandum creating the DACA program, which stands for "Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals." Specifically, Secretary Napolitano's memo-

[7] Indeed this Court has received *amici curiae* briefs from many members of Congress supporting the States' position and at least one supporting the Government's position. Additionally, many officials of local political units and entities have also filed *amici curiae* briefs supporting one side of this controversy or the other.

randum instructed her Department heads to give deferred action status to all illegal immigrants who:

1. Came to the United States before age sixteen;
2. Continuously resided in the United States for at least five years prior to June 15, 2012 and were in the United States on June 15, 2012;
3. Were then attending school, or had graduated from high school, obtained a GED, or were honorably discharged from the military;
4. Had not been convicted of a felony, significant misdemeanor, multiple misdemeanors, or otherwise pose a threat to national security; and
5. Were not above the age of thirty.

Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 19 (June 15, 2012 DACA Memorandum issued by Secretary Napolitano). This Directive applies to all individuals over the age of fifteen that met the criteria, including those currently in removal proceedings as well as those who are newly-encountered by the DHS. In addition, DHS employees were instructed to accept work authorization applications from those individuals awarded deferred action status under DACA. While exact numbers regarding the presence of illegal aliens in this country are not available, both sides seem to accept that at least 1.2 million illegal immigrants could qualify for DACA by the end of 2014. Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 21; Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 6. Of these individuals, approximately 636,000 have applied for and received legal presence status through DACA. Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 28. Both of these figures are expected to rise as children "age in" and meet the program's education

requirements. Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 6; Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 6. Estimates suggest that by the time all individuals eligible for DACA "age in" to the program, approximately 1.7 million individuals will be eligible to receive deferred action. Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 21; Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 6.

A review of the DACA program, however, would not be complete without examining the number of individuals who have applied for relief through the program but were denied legal status: of the approximately 723,000 DACA applications accepted through the end of 2014, only 38,000—or about 5%—have been denied. Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 28. In response to a Senate inquiry, the USCIS told the Senate that the top four reasons for denials were: (1) the applicant used the wrong form; (2) the applicant failed to provide a valid signature; (3) the applicant failed to file or complete Form I-765 or failed to enclose the fee; and (4) the applicant was below the age of fifteen and thus ineligible to participate in the program. Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 29 at App. P. 0978. Despite a request by the Court, the Government's counsel did not provide the number, if any, of requests that were denied even though the applicant met the DACA criteria as set out in Secretary Napolitano's DACA memorandum. The Government's exhibit, Doc. No. 130, Def. Ex. 44, provides more information but not the level of detail that the Court requested.

The States contend and have supplied evidence that the DHS employees who process DACA applications are required to issue deferred action status to any applicant who meets the criteria outlined in Secretary Napolitano's memorandum, and are not allowed to use

any real "discretion" when it comes to awarding deferred action status.[8] Similarly, the President of the National Citizenship and Immigration Services Council—the union that represents the individuals processing the DACA applications—declared that the DHS management has taken multiple steps to ensure that DACA applications are simply rubberstamped if the applicants meet the necessary criteria. *See* Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 23 at 3 (Dec. of Kenneth Palinkas, President of Nat'l Citizenship and Immigration Services Council) (hereinafter "Palinkas Dec."). The States also allege that the DHS has taken steps to ensure that applications for DAPA will likewise receive only a *pro forma* review.[9]

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[8] In their latest filing with the Court, the Government repeated these four reasons given to Congress and added a fifth: dishonesty or fraud in the application process, which of course is implied in any application process. Because the Government could not produce evidence concerning applicants who met the program's criteria but were denied DACA status, this Court accepts the States' evidence as correct.

[9] The DHS' own website states that, pursuant to the discretion granted to the DHS Secretary, its officers can use their discretion to "prevent [DACA] qualifying individuals from being apprehended, placed into removal proceedings, or removed." *Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Process, Frequently Asked Questions*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-process/frequently-asked-questions (last updated Feb. 11, 2015). Clearly the discretion that exists belongs to the Secretary, who exercised it by delineating the DACA criteria; but if an applicant meets the DACA criteria, he or she will not be removed. President Obama has stated that if the DAPA applicant satisfies the delineated criteria, he or she will be permitted to remain in the United States. *See* Press Release, Remarks by

On November 20, 2014, following in his predecessor's footsteps, Secretary Johnson issued a memorandum to DHS officials instructing them to implement the DAPA program and expand the DACA program in three areas. That memorandum, in pertinent part, states the following:

A. Expanding DACA

DACA provides that those who were under the age of 31 on June 15, 2012, who entered the United States before June 15, 2007 (5 years prior) as children under the age of 16, and who meet specific educational and public safety criteria, are eligible for deferred action on a case-by-case basis. The initial DACA announcement of June 15, 2012 provided deferred action for a period of two years. On June 5, 2014, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) announced that DACA recipients could request to renew their deferred action for an additional two years.

In order to further effectuate this program, I hereby direct USCIS to expand DACA as follows:

Remove the age cap. DACA will apply to all otherwise eligible immigrants who enter the United States by the requisite adjusted entry date before the

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President Barack Obama in the President's Address to the Nation on Immigration (Nov. 11, 2014). The DHS even provides a hotline number that individuals can call to make sure they can terminate removal proceedings if they otherwise meet the criteria for relief under DACA. *Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Process, Frequently Asked Questions*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-process/frequently-asked-questions (last updated Feb. 11, 2015).

age of sixteen (16), regardless of how old they were in June 2012 or are today. The current age restriction excludes those who were older than 31 on the date of the announcement (*i.e.*, those who were born before June 15, 1981). That restriction will no longer apply.

Extend DACA renewal and work authorization to three-years. The period for which DACA and the accompanying employment authorization is granted will be extended to three-year increments, rather than the current two-year increments. This change shall apply to all first-time applications as well as all applications for renewal effective November 24, 2014. Beginning on that date, USCIS should issue all work authorization documents valid for three years, including to those individuals who have applied and are awaiting two-year work authorization documents based on the renewal of their DACA grants. USCIS should also consider means to extend those two-year renewals already issued to three years.

Adjust the date-of-entry requirement. In order to align the DACA program more closely with the other deferred action authorization outlined below, the eligibility cut-off date by which a DACA applicant must have been in the United Sates should be adjusted from June 15, 2007 to January 1, 2010. USCIS should begin accepting applications under the new criteria from applicants no later than ninety (90) days from the date of this announcement.[10]

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[10] The removal of the age cap, the program's three-year extension, and the adjustment to the date of entry requirement are the three exceptions mentioned above to the general proposition that the DACA program is not at issue in this case.

B. Expanding Deferred Action

I hereby direct USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA, for exercising prosecutorial discretion through the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis, to those individuals who:

- have, on the date of this memorandum, a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident;
- have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010;
- are physically present in the United States on the date of this memorandum, *and* at the time of making a request for consideration of deferred action with USCIS;
- have no lawful status on the date of this memorandum;
- are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the November 20, 2014 Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants Memorandum; and
- present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate.

Applicants must file the requisite applications for deferred action pursuant to the new criteria described above. Applicants must also submit biometrics for USCIS to conduct background checks similar to the background check that is required for DACA applicants. Each person who applies for deferred action pursuant to the criteria above shall also be eligible to apply for work authorization for

the period of deferred action, pursuant to my authority to grant such authorization reflected in section 274A(h)(3) of the Immigration and Nationality Act. Deferred action granted pursuant to the program shall be for a period of three years. Applicants will pay the work authorization and biometrics fees, which currently amount to $465. There will be no fee waivers and, like DACA, very limited fee exemptions.

USCIS should begin accepting applications from eligible applicants no later than one hundred and eighty (180) days after the date of this announcement. As with DACA, the above criteria are to be considered for all individuals encountered by U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), U.S. Customs and Border Protection (CBP), or USCIS, whether or not the individual is already in removal proceedings or subject to a final order of removal. Specifically:

- ICE and CBP are instructed to immediately begin identifying persons in their custody, as well as newly encountered individuals, who meet the above criteria and may thus be eligible for deferred action to prevent the further expenditure of enforcement resources with regard to these individuals.
- ICE is further instructed to review pending removal cases, and seek administrative closure or termination of the cases of individuals identified who meet the above criteria, and to refer such individuals to USCIS for case-by-case determinations. ICE should also establish a process to allow individuals in removal pro-

ceedings to identify themselves as candidates for deferred action.

- USCIS is instructed to implement this memorandum consistent with its existing guidance regarding the issuance of notices to appear. The USCIS process shall also be available to individuals subject to final orders of removal who otherwise meet the above criteria.

Under any of the proposals outlined above, immigration officers will be provided with specific eligibility criteria for deferred action, but the ultimate judgment as to whether an immigrant is granted deferred action will be determined on a case-by-case basis.

This memorandum confers no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship. Only an Act of Congress can confer these rights. It remains within the authority of the Executive Branch, however, to set forth policy for the exercise of prosecutorial discretion and deferred action within the framework of existing law. This memorandum is an exercise of that authority.

Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A (November 20, 2014 DAPA Memorandum issued by Secretary Johnson). (emphasis in original). The Government relies on estimates suggesting that there are currently 11.3 million illegal aliens residing in the United States and that this new program will apply to over four million individuals.[11]

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[11] This 11.3 million figure is based upon a 2009 study from the Pew Research Center. The number appears to have increased

Deferred action is not a status created or authorized by law or by Congress, nor has its properties been described in any relevant legislative act. Secretary Johnson's DAPA Memorandum states that deferred action has existed since at least the 1960s, a statement with which no one has taken issue. Throughout the years, deferred action has been both utilized and rescinded by the Executive Branch.[12] The practice has also been referenced by Congress in other immigration contexts. *See, e.g.*, 8 U.S.C. §§ 1154(a)(1)(D)(i)(II), 227(d)(2). It was described by the United States Supreme Court in *Reno v. Arab-American Anti-Discrimination Committee* as follows:

> To ameliorate a harsh and unjust outcome, the INS may decline to institute proceedings, terminate proceedings, or decline to execute a final order of deportation. This commendable exercise in administrative discretion, developed without express statutory authorization, originally was known as nonpriority and is now designated as deferred ac-

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since then, with a 2013 study finding that 11.7 million illegal immigrants resided in the United States in 2012. *Population Decline of Unauthorized Immigrants Stalls, May Have Reversed*, Pew Research Center (Sept. 23, 2013). An estimated sixty percent of these illegal immigrants reside in California, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, and Texas—with Texas being the only state whose illegal immigrant population increased between 2007 and 2011. *Id.* The Court will rely on the 11.3 million figure, however, since it is the one cited by the Parties.

[12] The deferred action practice was apparently rescinded in 1979, and reinstituted in the 1981 INS Operating Manual. The 1981 program was then rescinded in 1997. Nevertheless, after that date, the concept seems to have been used by all subsequent administrations.

> tion. A case may be selected for deferred action treatment at any stage of the administrative process. Approval of deferred action status means that, for the humanitarian reasons described below, no action will thereafter be taken to proceed against an apparently deportable alien, even on grounds normally regarded as aggravated.

525 U.S. 471, 484 (1999) (quoting 6 C. Gordon, S. Mailman & S. Yale-Loehr, Immigration Law and Procedure § 72.03[2][h] (1998)). It is similarly defined in 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12(c)(14).

B. Factual Contentions

Secretary Johnson supported the implementation of DAPA with two main justifications. First, he wrote that the DHS has limited resources and it cannot perform all of the duties assigned to it, including locating and removing all illegal aliens in the country. Secretary Johnson claimed that the adoption of DAPA will enable the DHS to prioritize its enforcement of the immigration laws and focus its limited resources in areas where they are needed most. Second, the Secretary reasoned that humanitarian concerns also justify the program's implementation.

Plaintiffs maintain that the Secretary's justifications are conditions caused by the DHS, are pretexts, or are simply inaccurate. Regarding resources, Plaintiffs argue that the DHS has continued to be funded at record levels and is currently spending millions to create the enormous bureaucracy necessary to

implement this program.[13] The States additionally maintain that the DAPA program was: politically motivated and implemented illegally. The first proposition is not the concern of the Court; the second is. To support the latter proposition, the States quote President Obama at length. First, they quote the President's statements made prior to the implementation of DAPA stating that he, as President, did not have the power under the Constitution or the laws of this country to change the immigration laws. On these occasions, he asserted that only Congress could implement these changes in this area of the law. From these statements, the States reason that if the President does not have the necessary power to make these changes, then the DHS Secretary certainly does not.

The States claim that following the announcement of the DAPA program, the President's rhetoric dramatically shifted. They cite statements made after

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[13] At oral argument, Defendants maintained that the fees charged to process DAPA applications will cover the cost of the program, but had to concede that the DHS was already expending large sums of money to implement DAPA and as of yet had not received any fees. According to the declaration of one INS employee, the DHS plans to begin construction of a service center that will employ 700 DHS employees and 300 federal contract employees. *See* Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 23 at 3 ("Palinkas Dec."). His statement that the DHS is shifting resources away from other duties in order to implement this program is certainly reasonable, especially since the USCIS admitted that it is shifting staff to meet the DAPA demand. *Executive Actions on Immigration: Key Questions and Answers*, U.S. Customs & Immigration Enforcement, http://www.uscis.gov/immigrationaction (last updated Jan. 30, 2015). *See id.*

the announcement of DAPA in which the President is quoted as saying that because Congress did not change the law, he changed it unilaterally. The States argue that the DAPA program constitutes a significant change in immigration law that was not implemented by Congress. Agreeing with the President's earlier declarations, the States argue that only Congress can create or change laws, and that the creation of the DAPA program violates the Take Care Clause of the Constitution and infringes upon any notion of separation of powers. Further, they assert that the President has effectuated a change in the law solely because he wanted the law changed and because Congress would not acquiesce in his demands.

Obviously, the Government denies these assertions.

C. Legal Contentions

This case presents three discrete legal issues for the Court's consideration. First, the Government maintains that none of the Plaintiffs have standing to bring this injunctive action. The States disagree, claiming that the Government cannot implement a substantive program and then insulate itself from legal challenges by those who suffer from its negative effects. Further, the States maintain that Secretary Johnson's DAPA Directive violates the Take Care Clause of the Constitution; as well as the Administrative Procedure Act ("APA") and the Immigration and Naturalization Act ("INA"). In opposition to the States' claims, the Government asserts that it has complete prosecutorial discretion over illegal aliens and can give deferred action status to anyone it chooses. Second, the Government argues that discre-

tionary decisions, like the DAPA program, are not subject to the APA. Finally, the Government claims that the DAPA program is merely general guidance issued to DHS employees, and that the delineated elements of eligibility are not requirements that DHS officials are bound to honor. The Government argues that this flexibility, among other factors, exempts DAPA from the requirements of the APA.

IV. STANDING

A. Legal Standard

1. Article III Standing

Article III of the United States Constitution requires that parties seeking to resolve disputes before a federal court present actual "Cases" or "Controversies." U.S. Const. art. III, § 2, cl. 1. This requirement limits "the business of federal courts to questions presented in an adversary context and in a form historically viewed as capable of resolution through the judicial process." *Flast v. Cohen*, 392 U.S. 83, 95 (1968). Plaintiffs, as the parties invoking the Court's jurisdiction, bear the burden of satisfying the Article III requirement by demonstrating that they have standing to adjudicate their claims in federal court. *Ramming v. United States*, 281 F.3d 158, 161 (5th Cir. 2001). The "irreducible constitutional minimum of standing contains three elements." *Lujan v. Defenders of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. 555, 560 (1992). First, a plaintiff must demonstrate that they have "suffered a concrete and particularized injury that is either actual or imminent." *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*, 549 U.S. 497, 517 (2007). Second, a plaintiff must show that there is a causal connection between the alleged injury and the

complained-of conduct—essentially, that "the injury is fairly traceable to the defendant." *Id.* Finally, standing requires that it "be 'likely,' as opposed to merely 'speculative,' that the injury will be 'redressed by a favorable decision.'" *Lujan*, 504 U.S. at 560 (quoting *Simon v. E. Ky. Welfare Rights Org.*, 426 U.S. 26, 41-42 (1976)).

2. Prudential Standing

In addition to these three constitutional requirements, "the federal judiciary has also adhered to a set of 'prudential' principles that bear on the question of standing." *Valley Forge Christian Coll. v. Americans United for Separation of Church & State, Inc.*, 454 U.S. 464, 474 (1982). Many opinions refer to these principles as being under the banner of "prudential" standing. S*ee, e.g.*, *Bennett v. Spear*, 520 U.S. 154, 164 (1997). First, the Supreme Court has held that when the "asserted harm is a 'generalized grievance' shared in substantially equal measure by all or a large class of citizens, that harm alone does not warrant exercise of jurisdiction." *Id.* Rather, these "abstract questions of wide public significance" are more appropriately left to the representative branches of the federal government. *Warth v. Seldin*, 422 U.S. 490, 500 (1975). Second, the plaintiffs must come within the "zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute or constitutional guarantee in question." *Valley Forge*, 454 U.S. at 475 (quoting *Ass'n of Data Processing Serv. Organizations, Inc. v. Camp*, 397 U.S. 150, 153 (1970)). Finally, a plaintiff "must assert his own legal rights and interests, and cannot rest his claim to relief on the legal rights or

interests of third parties." *Id.* at 474 (quoting *Warth*, 422 U.S. at 499).

3. Standing Under the Administrative Procedure Act

The APA provides that a "person suffering a legal wrong because of agency action, or adversely affected or aggrieved by agency action within the meaning of a relevant statute, is entitled to judicial review thereof." 5 U.S.C. § 702. This right of judicial review extends to agency actions "for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court." 5 U.S.C. § 704. To demonstrate standing under the APA, the plaintiff must show that it has suffered or will suffer a sufficient injury in fact. *Nat'l Credit Union Admin. v. First Nat'l Bank & Trust Co.*, 522 U.S. 479, 488 (1998). The plaintiff must also demonstrate prudential standing under the APA, which requires showing that "the interest sought to be protected by the complainant [is] arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute . . . in question." *Id.* (quoting *Data Processing*, 397 U.S. at 152). For this prudential standing inquiry, it is not necessary for a court to ask "whether there has been a congressional intent to benefit the would-be plaintiff." *Nat'l Credit Union Admin.*, 522 U.S. at 488-89. Rather, if the plaintiff's interests are "arguably within the 'zone of interests' to be protected by a statute," the prudential showing requirement is satisfied. *Id.* at 492. This requisite showing is not made, however, if the plaintiff's interests are "so marginally related to or inconsistent with the purposes implicit in the statute that it cannot reasonably be assumed that Congress intended to permit

the suit." *Clarke v. Sec. Indus. Ass'n*, 479 U.S. 388, 399 (1987).

When seeking review of agency action under the APA's procedural provisions, Plaintiffs are also operating under a favorable presumption. They are presumed to satisfy the necessary requirements for standing. *See Mendoza v. Perez*, 754 F.3d 1002, 1012 (D.C. Cir. 2014). Specifically, as stated by the D.C. Circuit, "[p]laintiffs asserting a procedural rights challenge need not show the agency action would have been different had it been consummated in a procedurally valid manner-the courts will assume this portion of the causal link." *Id.*

B. Resolution of Standing Questions

Questions regarding constitutional and prudential standing implicate the court's subject-matter jurisdiction; thus challenges to standing are evaluated as a Rule 12(b)(l) motion to dismiss for lack of subject-matter jurisdiction. *See* Fed. R. Civ. P. 12(b)(1). When evaluating subject-matter jurisdiction, the court may consider: "(1) the complaint alone; (2) the complaint supplemented by undisputed facts evidenced in the record; or (3) the complaint supplemented by undisputed facts plus the court's resolution of disputed facts." *Ramming*, 281 F.3d at 161. The court's analysis also depends on whether the challenging party has made a "facial" or "factual" attack on jurisdiction. *See Paterson v. Weinberger*, 644 F.2d 521, 523 (5th Cir. 1981). A facial challenge consists of only a Rule (12)(b)(1) motion without any accompanying evidence; for this challenge, the court "is required merely to look to the sufficiency of the allegations in

the complaint because they are presumed to be true." *Id.*

Conversely, when making a factual attack on the court's jurisdiction, the challenging party submits affidavits, testimony, or other evidentiary materials to support its claims. *Id.* A factual attack requires the responding plaintiff "to submit facts through some evidentiary method" and prove "by a preponderance of the evidence that the trial court does have subject matter jurisdiction." *Id.* Here, Defendants submitted a number of exhibits in support of their attack on Plaintiffs' standing to bring this suit in federal court. Therefore, for the purposes of ruling on Defendants' challenge, the Plaintiffs bear the burden to prove by a preponderance of the evidence that they possess the requisite standing required by Article III. It is not necessary, however, for all Plaintiffs to demonstrate standing; rather, "one party with standing is sufficient to satisfy Article III's case-or-controversy requirement." *Rumsfeld v. Forum for Academic and Institutional Rights, Inc.*, 547 U.S. 47, 52 n.2 (2006). Thus Plaintiffs' suit may proceed as long as one Plaintiff can show by a preponderance of the evidence that it fulfills the necessary requirements to show standing.

C. Analysis

1. Article III Standing

a. Injury

The States allege that the DHS Directive will directly cause significant economic injury to their fiscal interests. Specifically, Texas argues that the DHS Directive will create a new class of individuals eligible

to apply for driver's licenses,[14] the processing of which will impose substantial costs on its budget. Plaintiffs rely on Texas' driver's license program to demonstrate how the costs associated with processing a wave of additional driver's licenses will impact a state's budget. Texas' undocumented population is approximately 1.6 million, and Plaintiffs' evidence suggests that at least 500,000 of these individuals will be eligible for deferred action through DAPA. Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 14 ¶ 33; Pl. Ex. 24 ¶ 6. Under current Texas law, applicants pay $24.00 to obtain a driver's license, leaving any remaining costs to be absorbed by the state. *See* Tex. Transp. Code Ann. § 521.421. If the majority of DAPA beneficiaries currently residing in Texas apply for a driver's license, it will cost the state $198.73 to process and issue each license, for a net loss of $174.73 per license. Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 24 ¶ 8. Even if only 25,000 of these individuals apply for a driver's license—approximately 5% of the population estimated to benefit from the DHS Directive in Texas—Texas will still bear a net loss of $130.89 per license, with total losses in excess of several million dollars. *Id.* These costs, Plaintiffs argue, are not

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[14] Some driver's license programs, like that in Arkansas, provide that individuals with deferred action status will be eligible to apply for a driver's license. *See, e.g.*, Ark. Code Ann. § 27-16-1105. Other programs, like the one in Texas, provide that a license will be issued to individuals who can show they are authorized to be in the country. *See, e.g.*, Tex. Transp. Code. Ann. § 521.142. Employment authorization—a benefit that will be available to recipients of DAPA—is sufficient to fulfill this requirement. Thus under either statutory scheme, DAPA will make its recipients eligible to apply for state driver's licenses.

unique to Texas; rather, they will be similarly incurred in all Plaintiff States where DAPA beneficiaries will be eligible to apply for driver's licenses.

In addition to these increased costs associated with processing a wave of additional driver's licenses, a portion of the States' alleged injury is directly traceable to fees mandated by federal law. *See* REAL ID Act of 2005, PL 109-13, 119 Stat. 231 (2005). Following the passage of the REAL ID Act in 2005, states are now required to determine the immigration status of applicants prior to issuing a driver's license or an identification card. *Id.* To verify immigration status, states must submit queries to the federal Systematic Alien Verification for Entitlements (SAVE) program and pay $0.50-$1.50 for each applicant processed. SAVE Access Methods & Transaction Charges, USCIS. In Texas, estimates suggest that the state pays the federal government on average $0.75 per driver's license applicant for SAVE verification purposes. Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 24 ¶ 5. Thus by creating a new group of individuals that are eligible to apply for driver's licenses, the DHS Directive will increase the costs incurred by states to verify applicants' immigration statuses as required by federal law.[15]

As Defendants concede, "a direct and genuine injury to a State's own proprietary interests may give rise to standing." Doc. No. 38 at 23; *see also, e.g., Clinton*

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[15] In a procedural rights case, the size of the injury is not important for defining standing; rather it is the fact of the injury. "The litigant has standing if there is some possibility that the requested relief will prompt the injury causing party to reconsider the decision." *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*, 549 U.S. at 518, 525-26.

v. City of N.Y., 524 U.S. 417, 430-31 (1998) (negative effects on the "borrowing power, financial strength, and fiscal planning" of a government entity are sufficient injuries to establish standing); *Sch. Dist. of City of Pontiac v. Sec'y of the U.S. Dep't of Educ.*, 584 F.3d 253, 261 (6th Cir. 2009) (school districts had standing "based on their allegation that they must spend state and local funds" to comply with federal law). Defendants in this case argue, however, that the projected costs to Plaintiffs' driver's license programs are "self-inflicted" because the DHS Directive does not directly require states to provide any state benefits to deferred action recipients, and because states can adjust their benefit programs to avoid incurring these costs. Doc. No. 38 at 21-22. This assertion, however, evaluates the DHS Directive in a vacuum. Further, this claim is, at best, disingenuous. Although the terms of DAPA do not compel states to provide any benefits to deferred action recipients, it is clear that the DHS Directive will nonetheless affect state programs. Specifically, in the wake of the Ninth Circuit's decision in *Arizona Dream Act Coalition v. Brewer*, it is apparent that the federal government will compel compliance by all states regarding the issuance of driver's licenses to recipients of deferred action. 757 F.3d 1053 (9th Cir. 2014).

In *Arizona Dream Act Coalition v. Brewer*, the plaintiffs, DACA beneficiaries, sought an injunction to prevent the defendants from enforcing an Arizona policy that denied driver's licenses to recipients of deferred action. *Id.* at 1060. Necessary for the imposition of an injunction, the Ninth Circuit examined whether the plaintiffs were likely to succeed on the

merits of their case, and focused on the fact that Arizona's driver's license program permitted other noncitizens to use employment authorization documents to obtain driver's licenses—the same documentation that would be conferred upon DAPA recipients. *Id.* at 1064. Finding that this policy likely discriminated against similarly-situated parties in violation of the Equal Protection Clause, the court enjoined the defendants from denying driver's licenses to deferred action beneficiaries. *Id.* at 1069.

More importantly, the Ninth Circuit in *Arizona* also considered whether the denial of driver's licenses to deferred action recipients was preempted by the Executive Branch's determination that deferred action recipients were also authorized to work in the United States. *Id.* at 1063. Stating that "the ability to drive may be a virtual necessity for people who want to work in Arizona," the court noted that more than 87% of Arizona's workforce depended on personal vehicles to commute to work. *Id.* at 1062. Although not the basis for its finding, the court addressed preemption at length. It reasoned that the defendants' policy of denying driver's licenses to deferred action recipients "interferes with Congress's intention that the Executive determine when noncitizens may work in the United States" and would be preempted by federal law. *Id.* at 1063. Reinforcing this position, the concurring opinion argued that the majority should have not merely discussed it, but should have included this reasoning as part of its holding since there was no question that federal law required the issuance of driver's licenses to deferred action recipients. *Id* at 1069-75. The Government filed briefs in that case

arguing that all of Arizona's attempts to avoid these expenses were preempted. Doc. No. 54, Pl. Ex. 3.

Although the Ninth Circuit's opinion in *Arizona* is not necessarily binding on the majority of Plaintiffs in this case, it nonetheless suggests that Plaintiffs' options to avoid the injuries associated with the DHS Directive are virtually non-existent and, if attempted, will be met with significant challenges from the federal government.[16] The federal government made it clear in *Arizona* (and would not retreat from that stance in this case) that any move by a plaintiff state to limit the issuance of driver's licenses would be viewed as illegal. As held by the Ninth Circuit in *Arizona*, denying driver's licenses to certain recipients of deferred action violated the Equal Protection clause, and would likely be preempted by DAPA, as well. *See id* at 1067. This conclusion would be particularly persuasive in Texas since its driver's license program—like Arizona's—permits applicants to rely on federal employment authorization documentation to show legal status in the United States. If Texas denied driver's licenses to beneficiaries of the DHS Directive, as suggested by the Government here, it would immediately be sued for impermissibly discriminating against similarly-situated parties that rely on employment authorization documentation to apply for driver's licenses. *See id.* at 1064. Even if Texas could structure its driver's license program to avoid these impermissible classifi-

[16] The Ninth Circuit opinion is binding on Arizona, Idaho, and Montana, the Plaintiff States located in the Ninth Circuit. Therefore, the Government's argument with respect to these states is totally meritless.

cations, the court in *Arizona* strongly suggested that the denial of driver's licenses to deferred action recipients would be preempted by the Executive Branch's intent that deferred action recipients work while they remain in the United States. Therefore, if Texas or any of the other non-Ninth Circuit States sought to avoid an Equal Protection challenge and instead denied driver's licenses to all individuals that rely on employment authorization documentation, they would be subjecting themselves to a different but significant challenge on federal preemption grounds. As stated above, Arizona, Idaho, and Montana—the Plaintiff States that fall within the Ninth Circuit's jurisdiction—do not even have the option of trying to protect themselves.[17]

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[17] Also, it is not a defense to the Plaintiffs' assertion of standing to argue that it is not the DAPA program causing the harm, but rather the Justice Department's enforcement of the program. Both departments are a part of the United States and work for the same branch of the federal government.

The Court additionally notes that while the Government claimed preemption on the one hand, it correctly notes that the actual Circuit decision was based upon equal protection. Thus, it argues that the Government is not ultimately causing the States' injuries; rather, it is the Constitution. This is not accurate. This distinction is not convincing for several reasons. First, if the Government enforced the INA as written, these applicants would not be in the states to apply. Second, the Government is still maintaining and asserting its right of preemption to prevent the states from enforcing the INA provisions requiring removal of these individuals and instead is using that power to force a state's compliance with these applications. Third, whether or not the Constitution is involved, it is ultimately the combination of the REAL ID Act and DAPA combined with the failure to enforce the INA that will compel the complained-about result. It is the implementation of

Setting aside these legal questions, this all-or-nothing choice—that Texas either allow the DAPA beneficiaries to apply for driver's licenses and suffer financial losses or deny licenses to all individuals that rely on employment authorization documentation—is an injury in and of itself. An injury cannot be deemed "self-inflicted" when a party faces only two options: full compliance with a challenged action or a drastic restructure of a state program. *See Texas. v. United States*, 497 F.3d 491, 496-98 (5th Cir. 2007) (finding that Texas had standing on the basis of a "forced choice": after federal regulations, Texas either had to comply with an administrative procedure it thought was unlawful or forfeit the opportunity to comment on proposed gaming regulations). Further, the necessary restructuring to ensure constitutional compliance would require Texas to deny driver's licenses to individuals it had previously decided should be eligible for them—a significant intrusion into an area traditionally reserved for a state's judgment. This illusion of choice—instead of protecting the state from anticipated injuries—merely places the states between a rock and hard place.

Defendants also argue that the projected injuries to Plaintiffs' driver's license programs are merely gener-

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the DACA program that has been causing and the implementation of the DAPA program that will cause these damages when they intersect with the REAL ID Act. Stated another way, without DAPA there are no damages, and without the REAL ID Act, there are less damages. Finally, the Government has also not indicated that it will refrain from litigation or aiding litigants to compel the States to issues licenses and incur these expenses once DAPA is instituted.

alized grievances that are shared by all the states' citizens, and as such are insufficient to support standing in this case. The cases that Defendants cite for this contention, though, are easily distinguishable. In these cases, the plaintiffs broadly alleged general harm to state revenue or state spending. *See Commonwealth of Pa. v. Kleppe*, 533 F.2d 668, 672 (D.C.C. 1976) (Pennsylvania's "diminution of tax receipts [was] largely an incidental result of the challenged action" and was not sufficient to support standing); *People ex rel. Hartigan v. Cheney*, 726 F. Supp. 219, 226 (C.D. Ill. 1989) (Illinois' alleged injury of "decreased state tax revenues and increased spending on social welfare programs" not sufficient to support standing). When, however, an action directly injures a state's identifiable proprietary interests, it is more likely that the state possesses the requisite standing to challenge the action in federal court. *See Wyo. v. Okla.*, 502 U.S. 437, 448 (1992) (Wyoming had standing to challenge a state statute for direct and undisputed injuries to specific tax revenues); *Sch. Dist. of City of Pontiac*, 584 F.3d at 261-62 (school district had sufficient injury to demonstrate standing when compliance with No Child Left Behind forced plaintiffs to spend state and local funds). Here, Plaintiffs have shown that their projected injuries are more than "generalized grievances"; rather, Plaintiffs have demonstrated that DAPA will directly injure the proprietary interests of their driver's license programs and cost the States badly needed funds. In Texas alone, the state is projected to absorb significant costs. If the majority of the DHS Directive beneficiaries residing in the state apply for driver's licenses, Texas will bear directly a $174.73

per applicant expense, costing the state millions of dollars.

On a final note, it is important to reiterate the federal government's position in front of the Ninth Circuit in *Arizona*—a position that it has not retreated from in the present case: a state may not impose its own rules considering the issuance of driver's licenses due to claims of equal protection and preemption. Although the federal government conceded that states enjoy substantial leeway in setting policies for licensing drivers within their jurisdiction, it simultaneously argued that the states could not tailor these laws to create "new alien classifications not supported by federal law." Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 3 at 11. In other words, the states cannot protect themselves from the costs inflicted by the Government when 4.3 million individuals are granted legal presence with the resulting ability to compel state action. The irony of this position cannot fully be appreciated unless it is contrasted with the DAPA Directive. The DAPA Directive unilaterally allows individuals removable by law to legally remain in the United States based upon a classification that is not established by any federal law. It is this very lack of law about which the States complain. The Government claims that it can act without a supporting law, but the States cannot.

The contradictions in the Government's position extend even further. First, driver's license programs are functions traditionally reserved to state governments. Even the DHS recognizes this reservation. The DHS teaches naturalization applicants preparing for their civics examination that driver's license programs are clearly a state interest. *See* Study Materi-

als for the Civics Test, USCIS.[18] Of the sample civics questions, the DHS provides the following question and lists five acceptable answers:

> 42. Under our Constitution, some powers belong to the states. What is one power of the states?
>
> - *provide schooling and education*
> - *provide protection (police)*
> - *provide safety (fire departments)*
> - *give a driver's license*
> - *approve zoning and land use.*

Id. (emphasis added).[19]

Nonetheless, the DHS through its DACA Directive directly caused a significant increase in driver's license applications and the costs incurred by states to process them; DAPA, a much larger program, will only exacerbate these damages. These injuries stand in stark contrast to the Government's public assertion that driver's license programs fall in the realm of "powers [that] belong to the states." *Id.*

The Government's position is further undermined by the fact that a portion of Plaintiffs' alleged damages associated with the issuance of driver's licenses are fees mandated by federal law and are paid to the Government. As discussed above, the REAL ID Act requires states to pay a fee to verify the immigration status of each driver's license applicant through the

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[18] This website can be accessed at http://www.uscis.gov/citizenship/learners/study-test/study-materials-civics-test.

[19] *Id.*

federal SAVE program. *See* REAL ID Act of 2005, PL 109-13, 119 Stat. 231 (2005); SAVE Access Methods & Transaction Charges, USCIS.[20] The fees associat-

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[20] The SAVE price structure chart may be accessed at http://www.uscis.gov/save/getting-started/save-access-methods-transaction-charges.

It was suggested that the original Real ID Act might have been subject to attack because of the burden it placed upon the states. *See* Patrick R. Thiessen, *The Real ID Act and Biometric Technology: A Nightmare for Citizens and the States That Have to Implement It*, 6 J. Telecomm. & High Tech. L. 483 (2008) (hereinafter "*REAL ID and Biometric Technology*"). These fees have always been a source of objections and opposed by both conservative and liberal groups alike:

> The Act is also opposed by groups as diverse as the CATO Institute, a libertarian think tank, and the American Civil Liberties Union ("ACLU"), an organization designed to defend and preserve the individual liberties guaranteed under the Constitution, both of which testified in opposition to the Real ID Act in New Hampshire. The CATO Institute's opposition is based on what it characterizes as the *federal government blackmailing the states*. The CATO Institute has highlighted the fact that the states are being *forced to comply with the Real ID Act because a noncompliant state's citizens will be barred from air travel, entry to federal courthouses, and other federal checkpoints*.
>
> ACLU opposition is based on *the high cost of implementation being imposed on the states*, its belief that it will not actually prevent terrorism, and the diminished privacy Americans will experience because of the compilation of personal information. Barry Steinhardt, Director of ACLU's Technology and Liberty Project, stated:
>
> > It's likely the costs for Real ID will be billions more than today's estimate [$11 billion]—but no matter what the real figure is, Real ID needs to be repealed. *At a time when many state budgets and services are already stretched*

ed with this program, combined with the federal government's creation of the possibility of four to five million new driver's license applicants, give rise to a situation where states must process an increased amount of driver's license applications and remit a significant portion of their funds to the federal government as required by the REAL ID Act. Further, the states have no choice but to pay these fees. If they do not, their citizens will lose their rights to access federal facilities and to fly on commercial airlines.[21]

Another ironic aspect of the Government's argument exists again at the intersection of the DAPA Directive and the REAL ID Act. Those supporting the passage of the REAL ID Act asserted that the Act would prevent illegal immigration by making it more difficult for individuals with no legal status to get state driver's licenses. *See REAL ID and Biometric Technology*, at 492.[22] While the REAL ID Act recog-

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> *thin, it is clear that this unfunded mandate amounts to no more than a tax increase in disguise.*

Id. at 490-91 (emphasis added) (citations omitted). Under DAPA and DACA, the States are facing a new unfunded matter—one which is levied by the DHS and enforced by the Justice Department.

[21] *REAL ID and Biometric Technology*, at 486 n.14.

[22] Defenders of the Real ID Act have been able to deflect some of the criticism from various groups by arguing that the Act is necessary to prevent illegal immigration and to prevent terrorism. For instance, Representative Sensenbrenner referenced the fact that Muhammad Atta, one of the 9/11 hijackers, came over to the United States on a six-month visa, but still was able to obtain a six-year driver's license in Florida. *Supporters also argue that the Act will prevent illegal*

nized that individuals with deferred action status would be eligible to obtain driver's licenses, it seems almost without argument that the drafters of the Act did not foresee four to five million individuals obtaining deferred action by virtue of one DHS Directive, especially when the yearly average of deferred action grants prior to DACA was less than 1,000. Therefore, DAPA arguably undercuts one of the very purposes of the REAL ID Act, and will certainly undermine any deterrent effect or security benefit that may have motivated passage of the Act.

b. Causation

Establishing causation can be difficult where the plaintiff's alleged injury is caused by "the government's allegedly unlawful regulation (or lack of regulation) of *someone else* . . . ." *Lujan*, 504 U.S. at 562 (emphasis in original). In the cases cited by the Government, causation depends on the decisions made by independent actors and "it becomes the burden of

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> *immigration by making it more difficult for illegal immigrants to get state driver's licenses.* Moreover, supporters contend that asylum seekers should bear the burden of proving a valid cause for asylum, which is required under the Real ID Act because a terrorist will not be able to easily gain residency status by claiming asylum. Supporters also argue that a true national database, which would be susceptible to hackers, is not required because the states will send electronic queries to each other that will be answered with the individual state's database.

REAL ID and Biometric Technology, at 497 (emphasis added) (citations omitted). Due to DAPA, the Real ID Act will not be used to prevent illegal immigration, but rather, together, they form a basis to compel a reward for illegal immigration.

the plaintiff to adduce facts showing that those choices have been or will be made in such manner as to produce causation . . . ." *Id.* Essentially, establishing causation requires the plaintiff to show that the alleged injury is not merely "remote and indirect" but is instead fairly traceable to the actions of the defendant. *Florida v. Mellon*, 273 U.S. 12, 18 (1927).

The Supreme Court has declined to find that a plaintiff had standing sufficient to bring suit in federal court when it merely speculates as to whether the defendant's action would cause the alleged harm. *See id.* at 17-18. In *Florida v. Mellon*, the plaintiff sought to enjoin the federal government from collecting an inheritance tax in Florida, arguing that it would cause Florida residents to remove property from the state, thereby "diminishing the subjects upon which the state power of taxation may operate." *Id.* The Supreme Court held that whether the defendants' actions would cause individuals to act in such a way that would produce injury to the state was "purely speculative, and, at most, only remote and indirect." *Id.* at 18.

Here, unlike Florida's injury in *Mellon*, the alleged harm to Plaintiffs' driver's license programs would be directly caused by the DHS Directive. Further, there is no speculation as to the probability of its occurrence; rather, it is like watching the same play performed on a new stage. The DACA Directive, implemented in 2012, permitted its recipients to receive the status or documentation necessary to subsequently apply for driver's licenses. *See Access to Driver's Licenses for Immigrant Youth Granted DACA*, NILC (Dec. 2014) ("DACA recipients who obtain an employment author-

ization document and a Social Security number have been able to obtain a license in almost every state").[23] Similarly, the DAPA Directive also provides its recipients with the status and the documentation necessary to apply for a driver's license in most states. *See* Ark. Code Ann. § 27-16-1105 (proof of deferred status sufficient to apply for driver's license); Tex. Transp. Code. Ann. § 521.142 (employment authorization documentation sufficient for driver's license application). Aside from furnishing the status or documents necessary to apply for a driver's license, the DAPA Directive will also provide an incentive for its applicants. The Directive permits and encourages its beneficiaries to apply for work authorization for the period that they will be granted deferred status in the United States. For individuals in the United States who commute to work, driving is the most common mode of transportation. In 2013, it was estimated that 86.3% of the United States' workforce commuted to work in private vehicles.[24] *See Commuting in America 2013: The National Report on Commuting Patterns and Trends*, American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (Oct. 2013).[25] This is especially true in the states that are Plaintiffs in this case, as

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[23] A PDF of this article may be accessed at http://www.nilc.org/document.html?id=1120.

[24] The Ninth Circuit in *Arizona Dream Act Coalition v. Brewer* similarly noted that the majority of the workforce relies on private vehicles to commute to work. 757 F.3d at 1062. Specifically, the court highlighted that approximately 87% of Arizona's workforce commuted to work by car. *Id.*

[25] A PDF of this study may be accessed at http://traveltrends.transportation.org/Documents/CAl0-4.pdf.

none of them have extensive mass transit systems. In sum, the federal government's actions in *Arizona*, and its refusal to disclaim future such actions in this case, establish that it will seek to force Texas (and other similarly-situated states) into these changes. Further, some portion of Plaintiffs' alleged injuries are fees mandated by federal law that are required to be paid by states directly to the federal government—damages that are a virtual certainty. Plaintiffs—or at least Texas—have clearly met their burden of showing that their alleged injuries have been and will be directly "traceable" to the actions of the Defendants. Far from a generalized injury or "pie in the sky" guesswork, Plaintiffs have demonstrated a direct, finite injury to the States that is caused by the Government's actions. Given that Plaintiffs have shown that they stand to suffer concrete and particularized consequences from Defendants' actions, they have pled an injury sufficient to demonstrate standing in this Court.

c. Redressability

The redressability prong of the standing analysis examines whether the remedy a plaintiff seeks will redress or prevent the alleged injury. *Lujan*, 504 U.S. at 560. Of this three-prong standing analysis, the question of redressability is easiest for this Court to resolve. The remedy Plaintiffs seek will undoubtedly prevent the harm they allege will stem from Defendants' DHS Directive. DAPA provides its beneficiaries with the necessary legal presence and documentation to allow them to apply for driver's licenses in most states; without this status or documentation, these beneficiaries would be foreclosed from seeking a

driver's license. Therefore enjoining the implementation of the DHS Directive would unquestionably redress Plaintiffs' alleged harm.

Plaintiffs (or at least one Plaintiff) has clearly satisfied the requirements for Article III standing.

2. Prudential Standing

In addition to fulfilling the Article III standing requirements, Plaintiffs have also satisfied the requirements of prudential standing. As discussed above, the States have not merely pled a "generalized grievance" that is inappropriate for the Court's resolution. Rather, the States have shown that the DAPA program will directly injure their proprietary interests by creating a new class of individuals that is eligible to apply for state driver's licenses. When this class applies for driver's licenses, the States will incur significant costs to process the applications and issue the licenses—costs that the States cannot recoup or avoid. Instead of a "generalized grievance," the States have pled a direct injury to their fiscal interests.

Second, Plaintiffs' claims come within the "zone of interests" to be protected by the immigration statutes at issue in this litigation. The Supreme Court has stated time and again that it is the duty of the federal government to protect the border and enforce the immigration laws.[26] The Government has sought and

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[26] For example, in *Plyler v. Doe*, all nine justices on the Supreme Court agreed that the United States was not doing its job to protect the states. In his concurring opinion, Justice Powell stated that:

obtained rulings that preempt all but token participation by the states in this area of the law. The basis for this preemption was that the states' participation was not wanted or required because the federal government was to provide a uniform system of protection to the states. The fact that DAPA undermines the INA statutes enacted to protect the states puts the Plaintiffs squarely within the zone of interest of the immigration statutes at issue.

Further, Congress has entrusted the DHS with the duty to enforce these immigration laws. 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(i). The DHS' duties include guarding the border and removing illegal aliens present in the country. 8 U.S.C. §§ 1103(a)(5), 1227. DAPA, however, is certainly at odds with these commands. These duties were enacted to protect the states be-

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> Illegal aliens are attracted by our employment opportunities, and perhaps by other benefits as well. This is a problem of serious national proportions, as the Attorney General has recently recognized. Perhaps because of the intractability of the problem, Congress—vested by the Constitution with the responsibility of protecting our borders and legislating with respect to aliens—has not provided effective leadership in dealing with this problem.

457 U.S. at 237-38 (Powell, J., concurring) (citations omitted). The dissenters in *Plyler*, while disagreeing with the result, did not disagree about who is duty bound to protect the states:

> A state has no power to prevent unlawful immigration, and no power to deport illegal aliens; those powers are reserved exclusively to Congress and the Executive. If the Federal Government, properly chargeable with deporting illegal aliens, fails to do so, it should bear the burdens of their presence here.

Id. at 242 n.1 (Burger, J., dissenting).

cause, under our federal system, they are forbidden from protecting themselves.

Finally, Plaintiffs are not resting their claim for relief solely on the rights and interests of third-parties. Rather, the States are seeking to protect their own proprietary interests, which they allege will be directly harmed by the implementation of DAPA. Thus Plaintiffs have similarly satisfied their burden to show prudential standing.

3. Standing under the APA

Relying on the APA, Plaintiffs assert not only a basis for standing but also an argument on the merits. Because these concepts are closely intertwined, the Court will address both in its discussion of the merits. Nevertheless, for the reasons stated above and the reasons articulated below, the States have APA standing as well.

D. Other Grounds for Standing

The States have asserted three additional bases for standing: (1) *parens patriae* standing; (2) *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* standing; and (3) abdication standing. Following the Supreme Court's decision in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*, these theories seem at least indirectly related to the *parens patriae* claim discussed below. There is, however, ample evidence to support standing based upon the States' demonstration of direct injury flowing from the Government's implementation of the DAPA program. Since the States have, or at least Texas has, shown a direct injury, as well as for the reasons discussed below, this Court either rejects or refuses to rely solely on either of the

parens patriae or *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* theories as the basis for Plaintiffs' standing. Both the Parties and *amici curiae*, however, have briefed these theories in depth; thus the Court is compelled to address them.

1. *Parens Patriae*

Plaintiffs also rely on the doctrine of *parens patriae* to establish an independent basis for standing in their suit against Defendants. *Parens patriae* permits a state to bring suit to protect the interests of its citizens, even if it cannot demonstrate a direct injury to its separate interests as a sovereign entity. *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. P.R. ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592, 601 (1982). Meaning literally "parent of the country," *parens patriae* recognizes the interests "that the State has in the well-being of its populace" and allows it to bring suit when those interests are threatened. *Id.* at 602; *Black's Law Dictionary* 1287 (10th ed. 2014). Here, the States allege that the DHS Directive will injure the economic interests of their residents, necessitating a *parens patriae* suit to ensure that those interests are protected from the consequences of the Government's actions.

Defendants, relying primarily on the Supreme Court's opinion in *Massachusetts v. Mellon*, contend that the States' invocation of *parens patriae* is misplaced. They claim states cannot maintain a *parens patriae* suit against the federal government since the federal government is the ultimate protector of the citizens' interests. *See* 262 U.S. 447, 485-86 (1923). In *Massachusetts v. Mellon*, Massachusetts brought a *parens patriae* suit to challenge the constitutionality of the Maternity Act, arguing that the burden of funding

the Act fell disproportionately on industrial states like Massachusetts. *Id* at 479. Holding that the federal government is the supreme *parens patriae*, the Court stated that "it is no part of [a state's] duty or power to enforce [its citizens'] rights in respect of their relations with the federal government." *Id.* Thus, Defendants argue that the States' suit should be similarly barred since the federal government's right to protect citizens' interests trumps that of the states.

Defendants' succinct argument, however, ignores an established line of cases that have held that states may rely on the doctrine of *parens patriae* to maintain suits against the federal government. *See*, *e.g.*, *Wash. Utilities and Transp. Comm'n v. F.C.C.*, 513 F.2d 1142 (9th Cir. 1975) (state regulatory agency relied on *parens patriae* to bring suit against F.C.C. and U.S.); *Kansas ex rel. Hayden v. United States*, 748 F. Supp. 797 (D. Kan. 1990) (state brought suit against U.S. under *parens patriae* theory); *Abrams v. Heckler*, 582 F. Supp. 1155 (S.D.N.Y. 1984) (state used *parens patriae* to maintain suit against the Secretary of Health and Human Services). These cases rely on an important distinction. The plaintiff states in these cases are not bringing suit to *protect* their citizens *from* the operation of a federal statute—actions that are barred by the holding of *Massachusetts v. Mellon*. *See, e.g., Wash. Utilities and Transp. Comm'n*, 513 F.2d at 1153; *Kansas ex rel. Hayden*, 748 F. Supp. at 802; *Abrams*, 582 F. Supp. at 1159. Rather, these states are bringing suit to *enforce* the rights guaranteed by a federal statute. *Id.* For example, in *Kansas ex rel. Hayden v. United States*, the governor of Kansas brought a *parens patriae* suit to enforce the provisions of the

Disaster Relief Act, which provided for the disbursement of federal funds to aid areas deemed a "major disaster." *Kansas ex rel. Hayden*, 548 F. Supp. at 798. Specifically, the governor brought suit to enforce the statute after he alleged that the area in question was wrongfully denied status as a "major disaster area" when the procedural mechanisms for making that decision were ignored. *Id* at 799. Similarly, in *Abrams v. Heckler*, New York's attorney general brought a *parens patriae* suit to enforce the provisions of a Medicare statute after a final rule issued to implement the statute deprived New York Medicare recipients of a significant amount of funds. *Abrams*, 582 F. Supp. at 1157. Arguing that the final rule misinterpreted the provisions of the statute and thus exceeded statutory authority, the attorney general sought to have the Medicare funds distributed in compliance with the statute. *Id.*

Consequently, Defendants' rebuttal to the States' *parens patriae* argument is not as simple as they would suggest. States are not barred outright from suing the federal government based on a *parens patriae* theory; rather, provided that the states are seeking to *enforce*—rather than prevent the enforcement of—a federal statute, a *parens patriae* suit between these parties may be maintained. In the instant case, the States are suing to compel the Government to enforce the federal immigration statutes passed by Congress and to prevent the implementation of a policy that undermines those laws. Though seeking adherence to a federal statute is a necessary component for a state's *parens patriae* suit against the federal government, it alone is not enough; in addition,

states must identify a quasi-sovereign interest that is harmed by the alleged under-enforcement. *See Alfred L. Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 601 ("to have such [*parens patriae*] standing the State must assert an injury to what has been characterized as a 'quasi-sovereign interest' "). The defining characteristics of a quasi-sovereign interest are not explicitly laid out in case law; rather, the meaning of the term has undergone a significant expansion over time. *See Com. of Pa. v. Kleppe*, 533 F.2d 669, 673 (D.C. Cir. 1976). Although the earliest recognized quasi-sovereign interests primarily concerned public nuisances, the doctrine expanded rapidly to encompass two broad categories: (1) a state's quasi-sovereign interest "in the health and well-being—both physical and economic-of its residents"; and (2) a state's quasi-sovereign interest in "not being discriminatorily denied its rightful status within the federal system." *Alfred L. Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 607. In particular, courts have consistently recognized a state's quasi-sovereign interest in protecting the economic well-being of its citizens from a broad range of injuries. *See, e.g., Alfred L. Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 609 (discrimination against Puerto Rican laborers injured economic well-being of Puerto Rico); *Wash. Utilities and Transp. Comm'n*, 513 F.2d at 1152 (increased rates for intrastate phone service would injure the economic well-being of the state); *Abrams*, 582 F. Supp. at 1160 (changes to Medicare that would decrease payments to New York recipients is sufficient injury to economic well-being); *Alabama ex rel. Baxley v. Tenn. Valley Auth.*, 467 F. Supp. 791, 794 (N.D. Ala. 1979) (relocation of executive and administrative offices would damage the economic well-being of Alabama

by decreasing available jobs and injuring state economy).

Here, the States similarly seek to protect their residents' economic well-being. Specifically, Plaintiffs allege that the DHS Directive will create a discriminatory employment environment that will encourage employers to hire DAPA beneficiaries instead of those with lawful permanent status in the United States.[27] To support this assertion, Plaintiffs focus on the interplay between the DHS Directive and the Affordable Care Act passed in 2010. Beginning in 2015, the Affordable Care Act ("ACA") requires employers with fifty or more employees to offer adequate, affordable healthcare coverage to their full-time employees. Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, 26 U.S.C. § 4980H. If an employer with fifty or more employees chooses not to offer health insurance to its full-time employees, it instead incurs a monetary penalty. *Id.* Currently, ACA requires that employers provide health insurance only to those individuals that are "legally present" in the United States. *Id.* at § 5000A(d)(3). The definition of "legally present," however, specifically excludes beneficiaries of the 2012 DACA Directive. If an employer hires a DACA beneficiary, it does not have to offer that individual

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[27] In addition to the injuries stemming from the alleged creation of a discriminatory employment environment, certain portions of the States' briefs—as well as various *amici* briefs—detail a number of encumbrances suffered by their residents due to the lack of immigration enforcement, such as increased costs to healthcare and public school programs. Few—if any—of these allegations have actually been specifically pled by the Parties as a basis for *parens patriae* standing.

healthcare nor does it incur a monetary penalty for the failure to do so. *See* 45 C.F.R. § 152.2(8). The States argue that the Obama Administration is expected to promulgate similar regulations that will also bar beneficiaries of the DAPA Directive from participating in the ACA's employer insurance mandate. This exclusion, the States argue, will exacerbate unemployment for its citizens because it will create an employment environment that will encourage employers to discriminate against lawfully present citizens. Since the ACA's exclusion of DAPA beneficiaries makes them more affordable to employ, employers will be inclined to prefer them over those employees that are covered by the terms of the ACA. *Id.*

The States' alleged injury to their citizens' economic well-being is within the quasi-sovereign interests traditionally protected by *parens patriae* actions. *See, e.g., Alfred L. Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 609; *Wash. Utilities & Transp. Comm'n*, 513 F.2d at 1152; *Kansas ex rel. Hayden*, 548 F. Supp. at 802; *Abrams*, 582 F. Supp. at 1160; *Alabama ex rel. Baxley*, 467 F. Supp. at 794. The States' challenge, however, is premature. Although some expect that the Obama Administration will promulgate regulations barring DAPA beneficiaries from participating in the ACA's employer insurance mandate, it has yet to do so. *See A Guide to the Immigration Accountability Executive Action*, Immigration Policy Center (Dec. 22, 2014)[28] ("[T]he Obama Administration *will* promulgate regulations to exclude

[28] This article may be accessed at http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/special-reports/guide-immigration-accountability-executive-action.

DAPA recipients from any benefits under the Affordable Care Act, much as it did in the aftermath of the DACA announcement.") (emphasis added); *DACA and DAPA Access to Federal Health and Economic Support Programs*, NILC (Dec. 10, 2014)[29] (the Obama Administration "issued regulations that deny access to health coverage under the ACA for DACA recipients and *is expected* to do the same for DAPA recipients") (emphasis added); Michael D. Shear & Robert Pear, *Obama's Immigration Plan Could Shield Five Million*, N.Y. Times (Nov. 19, 2014)[30] (quoting Stephen W. Yale-Loehr, professor of immigration law at Cornell, for assertion that it "*appears*" that these individuals will be barred from health benefits under ACA) (emphasis added). Discouraging the resolution of controversies that are not ripe, the Supreme Court has held that courts should avoid "entangling themselves in abstract disagreements . . . until an administrative decision has been formalized and its effects felt in a concrete way . . . ." *Nat'l Park Hospitality Ass'n v. Dep't of Interior*, 538 U.S. 803, 807-08 (2003). Here, the administrative decision from which the States' alleged economic injury will flow has not been formalized. Thus, the States' *parens patriae* suit is not ripe for adjudication.

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[29] A PDF of this article may be accessed at http://alliancefor citizenship.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/12/DAPA-DACA-and-fed-health-economic-supports.pdf.

[30] This article may be accessed at http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/20/us/politics/obamacare-unlikely-for-undocumented-immigrants.html?_r=0.

2. *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* Claims

Clearly, in addition to the traditional Article III standing, Plaintiffs can also pursue their direct damage claims under the ambiguous standards set forth in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* In *Massachusetts*, the Supreme Court held that Massachusetts had standing to seek redress for the damages directly caused to its interests as a landowner. Similarly, the States have standing because the Defendants' actions will allegedly cause direct damage to their proprietary interests. Consequently, no matter how one reads *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*, it strengthens the conclusion that the States do have standing to sue for direct damages.

Nevertheless, separate and apart from their direct damage claim (for which at least Texas has standing) and somewhat related to the *parens patriae* basis for standing, the States also assert standing based upon the continual non-enforcement of the nation's immigration laws, which allegedly costs each Plaintiff State millions of dollars annually. The evidence in this case supplies various examples of large, uncompensated losses stemming from the fact that federal law mandates that states bear the burdens and costs of providing products and services to those illegally in the country. These expenses are most clearly demonstrated in the areas of education and medical care, but the record also contains examples of significant law enforcement costs.

a. Argument of the States and *Amici*

The States and some *amici* briefs argue that the Supreme Court's holding in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* supports the States' assertion of standing based on

their injuries caused by the Government's prolonged failure to secure the country's borders. Whether negligently or even with its best efforts, or sometimes, even purposefully, the Government has allowed a situation to exist where illegal aliens move freely across the border, thus allowing—at a minimum—500,000 illegal aliens to enter and stay in the United States each year.[31] The federal government is unable or unwilling to police the border more thoroughly or apprehend those illegal aliens residing within the United States; thus it is unsurprising that, according to prevailing estimates, there are somewhere between 11,000,000 and 12,000,000 illegal aliens currently living in the country, many of whom burden the limited resources in each state to one extent or another. Indeed, in many instances, the Government intentionally allows known illegal aliens to enter and remain in the country. When apprehending illegal aliens, the Government often processes and releases them with only the promise that they will return for a hearing if and when the Government decides to hold one.[32] In the

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[31] Michael Hoefer, et al., *Estimates of the Unauthorized Immigrant Population Residing in the United States: January 2010*, U.S. DHS, Feb. 2011.

[32] The Court was not provided with the "no-show" rates for adult illegal aliens who are released and later summoned for an immigration hearing. It has been reported, however, that the immigration hearings for last year's flood of illegal immigrant children have been set for 2019. Further, reports also show that there is a 46% "no-show" rate at these immigration hearings for children that were released into the population. *Challenges at the Border: Examining the Causes, Consequences, and Responses to the Rise in Apprehensions at the Southern Border: Hearing Before the S. Homeland Sec. Comm.*, 113th Cong. (July 9, 2014) (statement of

meantime, the states—with little or no help from the Government—are required by law to provide various services to this population.[33] Not surprisingly, this problem is particularly acute in many border communities. According to the States' argument, this situation is exacerbated every time the Government or one of its leading officials makes a pro-amnesty statement or, as in the instant case, every time the DHS institutes a program that grants status to individuals who have illegally entered the country.

b. Analysis

The States' argument is certainly a simplification of a more complex problem. Regardless of how simple or layered the analysis is, there can be no doubt that the failure of the federal government to secure the borders is costing the states—even those not immediately on the border—millions of dollars in damages each year. While the Supreme Court has recognized that states "have an interest in mitigating the potentially harsh economic effects of sudden shifts in population,"[34] the federal government has effectively denied the states any means to protect themselves from these effects. Further, states suffer these negative

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Juan Osuna, Director of the Executive Office for Immigration Review). Thus, for these children that the Government released into the general population, despite a lack of legal status, the States will have to bear the resulting costs for at least five more years—if not forever, given the rate of non-compliance with appearance notices.

[33] *See, e.g., Plyler*, 457 U.S. at 224-25; *Toll v. Moreno*, 458 U.S. 1, 16 (1982).

[34] *Plyler*, 457 U.S. at 228.

effects regardless of whether the illegal aliens have any ties or family within the state, or whether they choose to assimilate into the population of the United States.[35] The record in this case provides many examples of these costs. Evidence shows that Texas pays $9,473 annually to educate each illegal alien child enrolled in public school.[36] In Texas, 7,409 unaccompanied illegal immigrant children were released to sponsors between October of 2013 and September of 2014. Thus, in that period alone, Texas absorbed additional education costs of at least $58,531,100 stemming from illegal immigration. Further, this figure addresses only the newly-admitted, unaccompanied children; it by no means includes all costs expended during this period to educate all illegal immigrant children resid-

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[35] *Id.* While most Americans find the prospect of residing anywhere but the United States unthinkable, this is not a universally-held principle. Many aliens are justly proud of their own native land and come to the United States (both legally and illegally) because our economy provides opportunities that their home countries do not. Many of these individuals would be satisfied with working in the United States for part of the year and returning to their homeland for the remainder. This arrangement is often unfeasible for illegal aliens, though, because of the risk of apprehension by authorities when traveling back and forth across the border. Regardless, many illegal aliens have no intention of permanently immigrating, but rather seek to be able to provide for their families. The Supreme Court in *Arizona* noted that 476,405 aliens are returned to their home countries every year without a removal order. 132 S. Ct. at 2500. Many others return outside of any formal process. *See also*, footnotes 41 and 42 and the text accompanying footnote 42.

[36] This figure presumes the provision of bilingual services. If bilingual services are not required, the cost is $7,903 annually per student.

ing in the state. Evidence in the record also shows that in 2008, Texas incurred $716,800,000 in uncompensated medical care provided to illegal aliens.

These costs are not unique to Texas, and other states are also affected. Wisconsin, for example, paid $570,748 in unemployment benefits just to recipients of deferred action. Arizona's Maricopa County has similarly estimated the costs to its law enforcement stemming from those individuals that received deferred action status through DACA. That estimate, which covered a ten-month period and included only the law enforcement costs from the prior year, exceeded $9,000,000.

To decrease these negative effects, the States assert that the federal government should do two things: (1) secure the border; and (2) cease making statements or taking actions that either explicitly or impliedly solicit immigrants to enter the United States illegally. In other words, the Plaintiffs allege that the Government has created this problem, but is not taking any steps to remedy it. Meanwhile, the States are burdened with ever-increasing costs caused by the Government's ineffectiveness. The frustration expressed by many States and/or *amici curiae* in their briefing is palpable. It is the States' position that each new wave of illegal immigration increases the financial burdens placed upon already-stretched State budgets.

It is indisputable that the States are harmed to some extent by the Government's action and inaction in the area of immigration. Nevertheless, the presence of an injury alone is insufficient to demonstrate standing as required to bring suit in federal court. A

plaintiff must still be able to satisfy all of the elements of standing—including causation and redressability—to pursue a remedy against the one who allegedly caused the harm.

Not surprisingly, the States rely, with much justification, on the Supreme Court's holding in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* to support standing based on these damages. 549 U.S. 497 (2007). In *Massachusetts*, the Supreme Court held that states have special standing to bring suit for the protection of their sovereign or quasi-sovereign interests. *Id.* at 520. Justice Stephens quoted a prior decision from Justice Kennedy, stating to the effect that states "are not relegated to the role of mere provinces or political corporations but retain the dignity, though not the full authority, of sovereignty." *Id.* at 519 (quoting *Alden* v. *Maine*, 527 U.S. 706, 715 (1999)) The majority concluded that Massachusetts, in its role as a landowner, suffered (or would suffer) direct damages from the EPA's refusal to act under the Clean Air Act. *Id.* at 519, 526. Massachusetts' status as a landowner, however, was only the icing on the cake. *See id.* at 519. This status reinforced the Supreme Court's conclusion that "[Massachusetts'] stake in the outcome of this case is sufficiently concrete to warrant the exercise of federal jurisdiction." *Id.* Without explicitly delineating formal elements, the majority seemed to recognize a special form of "sovereignty standing" if the litigant state could show: (1) a procedural right to challenge the act or omission in question and (2) an area of special state interest. *See id.* at 518-26. With regard to the latter, Justice Stephens concluded that states have standing to file suit to pro-

tect the health and welfare of their citizens since our structure of government mandates that they surrender to the federal government: (1) the power to raise a military force; (2) the power to negotiate treatises; and (3) the supremacy of their state laws in areas of federal legislation. *Id* at 519.

The States conclude that Justice Stephens' holding is equally applicable to their situation. First, the States have no right to negotiate with Mexico or any other country from which large numbers of illegal aliens immigrate; thus the States cannot rely on this avenue to resolve or lessen the problem. Second, the States cannot unilaterally raise an army to combat invaders or protect their own borders. Third, the federal government ardently defends against any attempt by a state to intrude into immigration enforcement—even when the state seeks to enforce the very laws passed by Congress. Therefore, the States reach the same conclusion as the Supreme Court did in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* They have the power to sue the federal government in federal court to protect their quasi-sovereign interests in the health, welfare, and natural resources of their citizens.

The States lose badly needed tax dollars each year due to the presence of illegal aliens—a clear drain upon their already-taxed resources. These damages, the States argue, are far greater and more direct than the damages stemming from air pollution in *Massachusetts*. Thus, they conclude that they should similarly have standing. This Court agrees to the actual existence of the costs being asserted by Plaintiffs. Even the Government makes no serious attempt to

counter this argument, considering that the Government's lack of border security combined with its vigilant attempts to prevent any state from protecting itself have directly led to these damages. Causation here is more direct than the attenuated causation chain patched together and accepted by the Supreme Court in *Massachusetts*.

Nevertheless, standing in *Massachusetts* was not dependent solely on damages flowing from the lax enforcement of a federal law; the Supreme Court also emphasized the procedural avenue available to the state to pursue its claims. *See id.* at 520. Specifically covering the section under which Massachusetts' claim was brought, the Clean Air Act provided that "[a] petition for review of action of the Administrator in promulgating any . . . standard under section 7521 of this title . . . may be filed only in the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia." Clean Air Act, 42 U.S.C. § 7607(b)(1). The States claim that the APA gives them a similar procedural avenue. The APA states:

> A person suffering legal wrong because of agency action, or adversely affected or aggrieved by agency action within the meaning of a relevant statute, is entitled to judicial review thereof. An action in a court of the United States seeking relief other than money damages and stating a claim that an agency or an officer or employee thereof acted or failed to act in an official capacity or under color of legal authority shall not be dismissed nor relief therein be denied on the ground that it is against the United States or that the United States is an indispensable party. The United States may be named as a de-

> fendant in any such action, and a judgment or decree may be entered against the United States: *Provided*, That any mandatory or injunctive decree shall specify the Federal officer or officers (by name or by title), and their successors in office, personally responsible for compliance. Nothing herein (1) affects other limitations on judicial review or the power or duty of the court to dismiss any action or deny relief on any other appropriate legal or equitable ground; or (2) confers authority to grant relief if any other statute that grants consent to suit expressly or impliedly forbids the relief which is sought.

5 U.S.C. § 702 (emphasis in original). Section 703 of the APA specifically authorizes a suit like this case where the States seek a mandatory injunction. 5 U.S.C. § 703. Finally, Section 704 provides a cause of action for a "final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court . . . ." 5 U.S.C. § 704. It is appropriate to note that the Government has asserted that there is absolutely no remedy, under any theory, for the Plaintiffs' suit—seemingly placing the States' suit squarely within the purview of Section 704.

The Government counters this contention, however, by arguing that the DAPA program is an exercise of discretion and merely informational guidance being provided to DHS employees. Since it argues that discretion is inherent in the DAPA program, the Government concludes that it not only prevails on the merits of any APA claim, but that this discretion also

closes the standing doorway that the States are attempting to enter.[37] The Court will address these

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[37] *See* 5 U.S.C. § 701. There is some authority in the immigration context that a private immigration organization cannot attack immigration decisions via the APA. *See Fed'n for Am. Immigration Reform, Inc. v. Reno*, 93 F.3d 897 (D.C. Cir. 1996). These decisions are based primarily on a lack of "prudential standing" rather than on the requirements of the APA. However, for those directly affected by a federal agency action, these decisions are inapplicable. In this context, the Government in places conflates the issue of standing with that of reviewability.

> Standing to seek review is a concept which must be distinguished from reviewability. In *Association of Data Processing Serv. Organizations, Inc. v. Camp*, the Court defined "standing" in terms of a two-part test. First, the complainant must allege "that the challenged action has caused him injury in fact, economic or otherwise." Second, "the interest sought to be protected by the complainant [must be] arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute or constitutional guarantee in question."
>
> Reviewability presumes that the standing prerequisite has been satisfied and then adds the element of the courts' power to judge a certain administrative decision. Correspondingly, "unreviewable" administrative actions are those which will not be judicially scrutinized, despite the fulfillment of all prerequisites such as standing and finality, either because Congress has cut off the court's power to review or because the courts deem the issue "inappropriate for judicial determination."
>
> Even "unreviewable" administrative action may be judicially reviewed under exceptional circumstances, such as whether there has been a clear departure from the agency's statutory authority.

Statutory Preclusion of Judicial Review, 1976 Duke L. J. 431, 432 n.4 (1976) (citations omitted). The States have seemingly satisfied these two standing requirements, but that alone does not allow the Court to review the DHS' actions.

assertions in a separate part of the opinion because they are not the key to the resolution of the indirect damages contemplated in this section regarding standing under *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*

It has been recognized that the resources of states are drained by the presence of illegal aliens—these damages unquestionably continue to grow. In 1982, the Attorney General estimated that the country's entire illegal immigrant population was as low as three million individuals. *See Plyler v. Doe*, 457 U.S. at 218-19. Today, California alone is reported to have at least that many illegal immigrants residing with its borders. Among the Plaintiff States, the only difference with regard to the population of illegal immigrants residing within each is that the population is not evenly distributed.[38] The Government does not dispute the existence of these damages, but instead argues that widespread and generalized damages—such as those suffered by all taxpayers collectively—do not provide a basis for one to sue the Government. The States concede that the cases cited by the Government certainly stand for that proposition; but they argue that the new rules announced in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.* give them, in their role as states, "special solicitude" to bring an action to protect the resources

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[38] The Court notes that, while twenty-six states or their representatives are Plaintiffs herein, thirteen states and many municipalities have filed *amici* briefs on the Government's behalf. One of the arguments raised in their brief is that DAPA may eventually change the presence of illegal aliens in this country into an economic positive, an opinion based upon a number of studies. Doc. No. 81; *see also* Doc. No. 121 (*amici* brief filed by the Mayors of New York and Los Angeles, *et al.*).

of their citizens. Turning to the dissent, the States similarly find support for this new form of standing from Chief Justice Roberts' statement that the majority opinion "adopts a new theory of Article III standing for States . . . ." *Id.* at 539-40 (Roberts, J., dissenting).

The Court recognizes that the Supreme Court's opinion in *Massachusetts* appears to establish new grounds for standing—a conclusion the dissenting opinions goes to lengths to point out. Nevertheless, the Court finds that *Massachusetts* did not abandon the traditional standing requirements of causation and redressability—elements critical to the damages discussed in this section. The Court finds that the Government's failure to secure the border has exacerbated illegal immigration into this country. Further, the record supports the finding that this lack of enforcement, combined with this country's high rate of illegal immigration, significantly drains the States' resources.[39]

Regardless, the Court finds that these more indirect damages described in this section are not caused by DAPA; thus the injunctive relief requested by Plaintiffs would not redress these damages. DAPA applies only to individuals who have resided in the United States since 2010. If the DHS enforces DAPA as promulgated, this group has already been in the country for approximately five years. Therefore, the

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[39] The Government, though not necessarily agreeing that it has failed to secure the border, concedes that many costs associated with illegal immigration must be borne by the states, particularly in the areas of education, law enforcement, and medical care.

costs and damages associated with these individuals' presence have already been accruing for at least a five-year period. The relief Plaintiffs seek from their suit is an injunction maintaining the status quo—however, the status quo already includes costs associated with the presence of these putative DAPA recipients. If the Court were to grant the requested relief, it would not change the presence of these individuals in this country, nor would it relieve the States of their obligations to pay for any associated costs. Thus, an injunction against DAPA would not redress the damages described above.

The States also suggest that the special sovereign standing delineated in *Massachusetts* encompasses three other types of damages that will be caused by DAPA. First, the continued presence of putative DAPA recipients will increase the costs to which the States are subjected.[40] Specifically, the States allege that, because DAPA recipients will be granted legal status for a three-year period, those who have not already pursued state-provided benefits will now be more likely to seek them. Stated another way, DAPA recipients will be more likely to "come out of the shadows" and to seek state services and benefits because they will no longer fear deportation. Thus, the

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[40] This discussion does not include direct costs to the state, such as the costs associated with providing additional driver's licenses, which were discussed in a prior section. This Court does not address the issue as to whether some or all of these damages might be recoverable under the theory of "abdication standing" because that ruling is not necessary to grant this temporary injunction.

States' resources will be taxed even more than they were before the promulgation of DAPA.

Regardless of whether the States' prediction is true, the Constitution and federal law mandate that these individuals are entitled to state benefits merely because of their presence in the United States, whether they reside in the sunshine or the shadows. Further, aside from the speculative nature of these damages, it seems somewhat inappropriate to enjoin the implementation of a directive solely because it may encourage or enable individuals to apply for benefits for which they were already eligible.

The States' reply, though supported by facts, is not legally persuasive. The States rightfully point out that DAPA will increase their damages with respect to the category of services discussed above because it will increase the number of individuals that demand them. Specifically, the Plaintiffs focus on two groups. First, there are many individuals each year that self-deport from the United States and return to their homeland.[41] The States suggest, with some merit, that DAPA will incentivize these individuals to remain in the United States.

Second, the States focus on the individuals that would have been deported without the legal status

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[41] As stated earlier in a footnote, many individuals voluntarily return to their homeland. *See* DHS, Office of Immigration Statistics, Immigration Enforcement Actions: 2013, at 1 (Sept. 2014). In fact, in the years 2007 through 2009, more illegal immigrants self-deported back to Mexico than immigrated into the United States.

granted by DAPA, alleging that their continued presence in this county will increase state costs. The States argue that the DHS has decided it will not enforce the removal statutes with regards to at least 4,300,000 people plus hypothetically millions of others that apply but are not given legal presence. They conclude in the absence of the DAPA program, the DHS in its normal course of removal proceedings would have removed at least some of these individuals. Thus DAPA will allow some individuals who would have otherwise been deported to remain in the United States. The Government has made no cogent response to this argument. Were it to argue against this assertion, the Government would likely have to admit that these individuals would not have been deported even without DAPA—an assertion that would damage the DHS far more than it would strengthen its position.

The States are correct that there are a number of individuals that fall into each category. Immigration experts estimate that 178,000 illegal aliens self-deport each year.[42] Though the DHS could likely calculate the number of individuals deported and estimate the number that self-deported over the past five years (and used those figures to estimate those who would in the near future) that would have otherwise qualified for DAPA relief, that evidence is not in the record. It is reasonable to conclude, however, that some of these individuals would have self-deported or been removed from the country. The absence of these individuals

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[42] DHS, Office of Immigration Statistics, Immigration Enforcement Actions: 2013, at 1 (Sept. 2014).

would likely reduce the states' costs associated with illegal immigration.

The Government has not directly addressed the suppositions inherent in this argument, but it and at least two sets of *amici curiae* have suggested a response. Specifically, they suggest that any potential reduction in state costs that could have been anticipated in the absence of DAPA will be offset by the productivity of the DAPA recipients and the economic benefits that the States will reap by virtue of these individuals working, paying taxes, and contributing to the community.

This Court, with the record before it, has no empirical way to evaluate the accuracy of these economic projections, and the record does not give the Court comfort with either position. Yet, these projections do demonstrate one of the reasons why the Court does not accept the States' argument for standing on this point. A theory without supporting evidence does not support a finding of redressability. Based upon the record, the presence of damages or offsetting benefits is too speculative to be relied upon by this or any other court as a basis for redressability.

The last category of damages pled by Plaintiffs that falls within *Massachusetts'* "special solicitude" standing is predicated upon the argument that reports made by the Government and third-parties concerning the Government's actions have had the effect of encouraging illegal immigration. The Government does not deny that some of its actions have had this effect, but maintains that its actions were legal and appropriate. In other words, these actions may have had the unin-

tended effect of encouraging illegal immigration, but that does not create a damage model that would satisfy either the causation or redressability requirements of standing.

Nevertheless, a myriad of reasons support a court's abstention from intervention when damages are premised upon the actions of third-parties motivated by reports (and misreports) of governmental action.[43] The Court will address only two.

The First Amendment protects political debate in this country. Enjoining that debate, or finding damages predicated upon that debate, would be counter-productive at best and, at worst, a violation of the Constitution. The crux of the States' claim is that the Defendants violated the Constitution by enacting their own law without going through the proper legislative or administrative channels. One cannot, however, consistently argue that the Constitution should control one aspect of the case, yet trample on the First Amendment in response to another. Speech usually elicits widely-differing responses, and its ramifications are often unpredictable. Clearly, reports of governmental activity, even if they are biased, misleading, or incorrect, are protected speech—despite the fact that they may have the unintended effect of inspiring illegal immigration.

Second, a lawful injunction that would cure this problem cannot be drafted. Unquestionably, some

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[43] In a different case held before this Court, a DHS official confirmed under oath the existence of this unintended consequence. *See* footnote 110.

immigrants are encouraged to come to the United States illegally based upon the information they receive about DACA and DAPA. Reports of lax border security, minimal detention periods following apprehension, and the ease of missing immigration hearings may also encourage many to immigrate to this country illegally. Individuals may also be encouraged to immigrate illegally because they have been told that the stock market is doing well, or that the United States' economy is doing better than that of their homeland, or because the United States has better schools or more advanced medical care. The decision to immigrate illegally is motivated by innumerable factors, and a court would be jousting at windmills to craft an injunction to enjoin all of these activities.

Statements and reports about the implementation of DACA and DAPA may very well encourage individuals to try to reach the United States by any means, legal or otherwise. Further, it is undisputed that illegal immigration strains the resources of most states. This side-effect, however, is too attenuated to enjoin DAPA's implementation. The States have not shown that an injunction against DAPA would redress these particular damages.

E. Standing Created by Abdication

1. The Factual Basis

The most provocative and intellectually intriguing standing claim presented by this case is that based

upon federal abdication.[44] This theory describes a situation when the federal government asserts sole authority over a certain area of American life and excludes any authority or regulation by a state; yet subsequently refuses to act in that area. Due to this refusal to act in a realm where other governmental entities are barred from interfering, a state has standing to bring suit to protect itself and the interests of its citizens.

The States concede, here, that the regulation of border security and immigration are solely within the jurisdiction of the United States—an assertion the United States agrees with and has repeatedly insisted upon in other cases. However, rather than enforcing laws pertaining to border security and immigration, the Government, through DAPA, has instead announced that it will not seek to deport certain removable aliens because it has decided that its resources may be better used elsewhere. In sum, the States argue that the Government has successfully established its role as the sole authority in the area of immigration, effectively precluding the States from taking any action in this domain and that the DHS Secretary in his memorandum establishing DAPA has announced that except for extraordinary circumstances, the DHS has no intention of enforcing the laws promulgated to address millions of illegal aliens residing in the United States.

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[44] "Abdication" is defined as "[t]he act of renouncing or abandoning . . . duties, usually those connected with high office . . . ." *Black's Law Dictionary* 4 (10th ed. 2014).

The facts underlying the abdication claim cannot be disputed. In *Arizona v. United States*, the federal government sued Arizona when the state tried to enforce locally enacted immigration restrictions. *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492 (2012). The Supreme Court upheld the Government's position, holding that federal law preempted the state's actions. *Id.* at 2495. Nonetheless, the Supreme Court, in doing so, still recognized the states' plight due to federal preemption in the area of immigration:

> The pervasiveness of federal regulation does not diminish the importance of immigration policy to the States. Arizona bears many of the consequences of unlawful immigration. Hundreds of thousands of deportable aliens are apprehended in Arizona each year. Unauthorized aliens who remain in the State comprise, by one estimate, almost six percent of the population. And in the State's most populous county, these aliens are reported to be responsible for a disproportionate share of serious crime.
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> Statistics alone do not capture the full extent of Arizona's concerns. Accounts in the record suggest there is an "epidemic of crime, safety risks, serious property damage, and environmental problems" associated with the influx of illegal migration across private land near the Mexican border. Phoenix is a major city of the United States, yet signs along an interstate highway 30 miles to the south warn the public to stay away. One reads, "DANGER—PUBLIC WARNING—TRAVEL NOT RECOMMENDED/Active Drug and Human Smuggling Area/Visitors May Encounter Armed Criminals and

> Smuggling Vehicles Traveling at High Rates of Speed." The problems posed to the State by illegal immigration must not be underestimated.
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> These concerns are the background for the formal legal analysis that follows. The issue is whether, under preemption principles, federal law permits Arizona to implement the state-law provisions in dispute.

Id. at 2500. Despite this expression of empathy, the Supreme Court held, with minor exceptions, that states are virtually powerless to protect themselves from the effects of illegal immigration.[45] *Id.* Hold-

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[45] Though clearly pre-dating DACA and DAPA, courts from a variety of jurisdictions have similarly expressed sympathy for the plight of the states that bear the brunt of illegal immigration. *See, e.g., Arizona v. United States*, 104 F.3d 1095 (9th Cir. 1997); *California v. United States*, 104 F.3d 1086 (9th Cir. 1997); *New Jersey v. United States*, 91 F.3d 463 (3d Cir. 1996); *Padavan v. United States*, 82 F.3d 23 (2d Cir. 1996); *Chiles v. United States*, 69 F.3d 1094 (11th Cir. 1995), *cert. denied*, 517 U.S. 1188 (1996). These courts invariably denied the states the relief they sought since inadequate immigration enforcement did not supply a basis for standing. *Id.* Indeed, as recently as 2013, another court dismissed similar claims by the State of Mississippi. *See Crane v. Napolitano*, 920 F. Supp. 2d 724 (N.D. Tex. 2013).

Three things were constant in all of these cases. In each, the courts expressed sympathy with the plight of the states. Second, the courts held that the states could not recover indirect costs they suffered as a result of *ineffective* enforcement. This is identical to the ruling this Court made in the prior section regarding damages stemming from the provision of services like education and medical care. Third, none of these cases, however, held that a state was absolutely precluded from ever bringing suit concerning immigration enforcement issues.

ing that States cannot even exercise their civil power to remove an illegal alien, the majority opinion stated that "Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), an agency within the Department of Homeland Secu-

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Three important factors separate those cases from the present one—any one of which would be considered a major distinction. The presence of all three, however, clearly sets this case apart from those cited-above. First, with the exception of *Crane*, none of the cases involved the Government announcing a policy of non-enforcement. Here, the DHS has clearly announced that it has decided not to enforce the immigration laws as they apply to approximately 4.3 million individuals—as well as to untold millions that may apply but be rejected by the DAPA program. The DHS has announced that the DAPA program confers legal status upon its recipients and, even if an applicant is rejected, that applicant will still be permitted to remain in the country absent extraordinary circumstances. There can be no doubt about this interpretation as the White House has made this clear by stating that the "change in priorities applies to everybody." *See* footnote 88. Because of this announced policy of non-enforcement, the Plaintiffs' claims are completely different from those based on mere ineffective enforcement. This is abdication by any meaningful measure.

Second, the plaintiffs in the above-cited cases did not provide proof of any direct damages—rather, the plaintiffs in these cases only pled *indirect* damages caused by the presence of illegal aliens. Conversely, in the present case, Texas has shown that it will suffer millions of dollars in *direct* damages caused by the implementation of DAPA.

Finally, with the exception of *Crane* (in which this issue was not raised), the above-cited cases pre-date the REAL ID Act of 2005. The REAL ID Act mandates a state's participation in the SAVE program, which requires that a state pay a fee to verify an applicant's identity prior to issuing a driver's license or an identification card. By creating a new class of individuals eligible for driver's licenses and identification cards, individuals that the INA commands should be removed, DAPA compounds the already federally-mandated costs that states are compelled to pay.

rity, is responsible for identifying, apprehending, and removing illegal aliens." *Id.* at 2495. The Government continues to take the position that "even State laws relating to matters otherwise within the core of the police power will generally be preempted . . . Arizona (or any other State) may not substitute its judgment for the federal government's when it comes to classification of aliens." Brief for the United States as Amicus Curiae at 14-16, *Arizona v. Brewer*, 757 F.3d 1053 (9th Cir. 2014). As made clear in this DACA-related brief, the Government claims total preemption in this area of the law. Thus, the first element of an abdication claim is established.

To establish the second element necessary for abdication standing, the States assert that the Government has abandoned its duty to enforce the law. This assertion cannot be disputed. When establishing DAPA, Secretary Johnson announced that the DHS will not enforce the immigration laws as to over four million illegal aliens eligible for DAPA, despite the fact that they are otherwise deportable. DHS agents were also instructed to terminate removal proceedings if the individual being deported qualifies for relief under the DAPA criteria. Further, the DHS has also announced that, absent extraordinary circumstances, it will not even deport illegal aliens who apply for DAPA and are rejected. The record does not contain an estimate for the size of this group, but hypothetically the number of aliens who would otherwise be deported if the INA were enforced is in the millions. Secretary Johnson has written that these exemptions are necessary because the DHS' limited funding necessitates enforcement priorities. Regardless of the

stated motives, it is evident that the Government has determined that it will not enforce the law as it applies to over 40% of the illegal alien population that qualify for DAPA, plus all those who apply but are not awarded legal presence. It is not necessary to search for or imply the abandonment of a duty; rather, the Government has announced its abdication.

The Government claims, however, that its deferred action program is merely an exercise of its prosecutorial discretion. Any justifications regarding abdication, though, are not a necessary consideration for standing. This inquiry may be necessary to a discussion on the merits, but standing under a theory of abdication requires only that the Government declines to enforce the law. Here, it has.[46]

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[46] In the absence of these declarations of abdication, an examination of relevant DHS statistics might be instructive, but apparently the DHS is not very forthcoming with this information. The author of a recent law review article detailed the trouble she experienced in trying to get deferred action numbers from the Government. Finally, after numerous attempts, her conclusions were:

> While the grant rate for deferred action cases might cause alarm for those who challenge the deferred action program as an abuse of executive branch authority, it should be clear that regardless of outcome, the number of deferred action cases considered by ICE and USCIS are quite low . . . Even doubling the number of legible deferred action grants produced by USCIS and ICE between 2003 and 2010 (118 plus 946) yields less than 1,100 cases, or less than 130 cases annually.

Shoba S. Wadhia, *Sharing Secrets: Examining Deferred Action and Transparency in Immigration Law*, 10 U.N.H. L. Rev. 1, 47 (2011) (hereinafter "Sharing Secrets"). *See also*, Leon Wildes, *The Deferred Action Program of the Bureau of Citizenship and*

The Government claims sole authority to govern in the area of immigration, and has exercised that authority by promulgating a complex statutory scheme and prohibiting any meaningful involvement by the states. As demonstrated by DACA and DAPA, however, the Government has decided that it will not enforce these immigration laws as they apply to well over five million people, plus those who had their applications denied. If one had to formulate from scratch a fact pattern that exemplified the existence of standing due to federal abdication, one could not have crafted a better scenario.

2. The Legal Basis

The Government has not seriously contested the Plaintiffs' factual basis for this claim—nor could it. Turning from the facts of this claim to the applicable law, the concept of state standing by virtue of federal abdication is not well-established. It has, however, been implied by a number of opinions, including sever-

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Immigration Services: A Possible Remedy for Impossible Immigration Cases, 41 San Diego L. Rev. 819 (2004). Other statistics suggest the deferred action rate between 2005 and 2010 ranged between a low 542 to an annual high of 1,029 individuals. Regardless, DACA has raised that number to an annual average over the years 2012-2014 to over 210,000 and if DAPA is implemented in a similar fashion, the average for the next three years will be in excess of 1.4 million individuals per year. The Court is not comfortable with the accuracy of any of these statistics, but it need not and does not rely on them given the admissions made by the President and the DHS Secretary as to how DAPA will work. Nevertheless, from less than a thousand individuals per year to over 1.4 million individuals per year, if accurate, dramatically evidences a factual basis to conclude that the Government has abdicated this area—even in the absence of its own announcements.

al from the Supreme Court. The abdication theory of standing is discussed most often in connection with a *parens patriae* claim. It has also been discussed as providing APA standing, and in some contexts is relied upon as the exclusive basis for standing. Traditionally, *parens patriae* actions were instituted by states seeking to protect the interests of their citizens, as well as for protection of their own quasi-sovereign interests. One of this principle's few limitations stems from the notion that the federal government, rather than a state, has the superior status in the role as a parent. In other words, the federal government was the supreme *parens patriae*. Thus a state can rely on *parens patriae* to protect its interests against any entity or actor—except the federal government. As explicitly noted by the dissent in *Massachusetts v. E.P.A.*:

> A claim of *parens patriae* standing is distinct from an allegation of direct injury. *See Wyoming v. Oklahoma*, 502 U.S. 437, 448-449, 451, 112 S. Ct. 789, 117 L. Ed. 2d 1 (1992). Far from being a substitute for Article III injury, *parens patriae* actions raise an additional hurdle for a state litigant: the articulation of a "quasi-sovereign interest" "*apart* from the interests of particular private parties." *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico ex rel. Barez*, 458 U.S. 592, 607, 102 S. Ct. 3260, 73 L. Ed. 2d 995 (1982) (emphasis added) (cited *ante*, at 1454). Just as an association suing on behalf of its members must show not only that it represents the members but that at least one satisfies Article III requirements, so too a State asserting quasi-sovereign interests as *parens patriae* must

still show that its citizens satisfy Article III. Focusing on Massachusetts's interests as quasi- sovereign makes the required showing here harder, not easier. The Court, in effect, takes what has always been regarded as a *necessary* condition for *parens patriae* standing—a quasi- sovereign interest—and converts it into a *sufficient* showing for purposes of Article III.

What is more, the Court's reasoning falters on its own terms. The Court asserts that Massachusetts is entitled to "special solicitude" due to its "quasi-sovereign interests," *ante*, at 1455, but then applies our Article III standing test to the asserted injury of the Commonwealth's loss of coastal property. *See ante*, at 1456 (concluding that Massachusetts "has alleged a particularized injury *in its capacity as a landowner*" (emphasis added)). In the context of *parens patriae* standing, however, we have characterized state ownership of land as a "nonsovereign interes[t]" because a State "is likely to have the same interests as other similarly situated proprietors." *Alfred L. Snapp & Son*, *supra*, at 601, 102 S. Ct. 3260.

On top of everything else, the Court overlooks the fact that our cases cast significant doubt on a State's standing to assert a quasi-sovereign interest —as opposed to a direct injury—against the Federal Government. As a general rule, we have held that while a State might assert a quasi-sovereign right as *parens patriae* "for the protection of its citizens, it is no part of its duty or power to enforce their rights in respect of their relations with the Federal Government. In that field it is the United

> States, and not the State, which represents them." *Massachusetts v. Mellon*, 262 U.S. 447, 485-486, 43 S. Ct. 597, 67 L. Ed. 1078 (1923) (citation omitted); see also *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, supra*, at 610, n.16, 102 S. Ct. 3260.

Massachusetts, 549 U.S. at 539 (Roberts, J., dissenting). Following this assertion, Chief Justice Roberts described the majority opinion as bestowing upon the states "a new theory of Article III standing . . . ." *Id*. at 1466. Expounding further on this point, Chief Justice Roberts quoted a footnote from *Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. P.R. ex rel. Barez* stating that:

> [T]he fact that a State may assert rights under a federal statue as *parens patriae* in no way refutes our clear ruling that "[a] State does not have standing as *parens patriae* to bring an action against the Federal Government."

Massachusetts, 549 U.S. at 540 n.1 (quoting *Alfred L. Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 610 n.16) (citations omitted).

As demonstrated by *Massachusetts'* conflicting opinions regarding the limitations of *parens patriae* standing, it is difficult to determine how long the law has permitted a state to rely upon this doctrine to show standing in a suit against the federal government. This interpretation may be well established, as asserted by Justice Stephens in the majority opinion, or it may be unprecedented, as described by the four dissenters. Regardless of its longevity, it is a rule delineated by the Supreme Court of the United States and which this Court is bound to follow. *See, e.g.*, Bradford Mank, *Should States Have Greater Standing Rights than Ordinary Citizens?: Massachusetts v.*

EPA's New Standing Test for States, 49 Wm. & Mary L. Rev. 1701 (2008).

The concept of abdication standing, however, has not been confined to *parens patriae* cases. Specifically, the States rely on the Supreme Court's opinion in *Heckler v. Chaney*, which involved a decision by the FDA not to take certain enforcement actions regarding the drugs used in lethal injections administered by the states. 470 U.S. 821 (1985). Upholding the agency's decision not to act, the Supreme Court noted that they were not presented with "a situation where it could justifiably be found that the agency has 'consciously and expressly adopted a general policy' that is so extreme as to amount to an abdication of its statutory responsibilities." *Id.* at 833 n.4 (quoting *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159, 1162 (D.C. Cir. 1973)).

The States claim that, unlike the FDA's action at issue in *Heckler*, the DAPA program is a total abdication and surrender of the Government's statutory responsibilities. They contend that the DAPA Directive basically concedes this point, and this Court agrees. The DAPA Memorandum states that the DHS cannot perform all the duties assigned to it by Congress because of its limited resources, and therefore it must prioritize its enforcement of the laws. This prioritization necessitated identifying a class of individuals who are guilty of a violation of the country's immigration laws, and then announcing that the law would not be enforced against them. The DAPA Memorandum concludes that, for the DHS to better perform its tasks in one area, it is necessary to abandon enforcement in another.

In response, the Government maintains its overall position: it is immaterial how large the putative class of DAPA beneficiaries is because DAPA is a legitimate exercise of its prosecutorial discretion. Earlier in this opinion, this Court held that Plaintiffs have standing based upon the direct damages they will suffer following the implementation of DAPA. Nevertheless, based upon the Supreme Court's opinion in *Heckler*, and the cases discussed below, this Court also finds that Plaintiffs have standing because of the DHS' abdication of its statutory duties to enforce the immigration laws.

The *Heckler* Court is not alone in addressing abdication standing. Again not involving the *parens patriae* doctrine, the Fifth Circuit has addressed the concept of abdication in a similar suit involving the same parties. *See Texas v. United States*, 106 F.3d 661 (5th Cir. 1997). In *Texas v. United States*, the Fifth Circuit held that abdication did not exist for several reasons. *Id.* at 667. First, it noted that Texas did not argue that the Government was "mandating" that it take any action with respect to undocumented aliens. *Id.* This fact situation is dissimilar to the one presently before the Court. Here, the States put forth evidence that demonstrates that the Government has required and will require states to take certain actions regarding DAPA recipients. Further, the Government has not conceded that it will refrain from taking similar action against the remaining Plaintiffs in this case. Second, the Fifth Circuit in *Texas* held that the Government's failure to effectively perform its duty to secure the border did not equate to an abdication of its duty. *Id.*

Plaintiffs contend that these distinctions made by the Fifth Circuit in *Texas* are noticeably absent in the present case. The DHS unilaterally established the parameters for DAPA and determined that it would not enforce the immigration laws as they apply to millions of individuals—those that qualify for DAPA and surprisingly even those that do not. Thus, the controlling but missing element in *Texas* that prevented a finding of abdication is not only present in this case, but is factually undisputed.[47] Further, if one accepts the Government's position, then a lack of resources would be an acceptable reason to cease enforcing environmental laws, or the Voting Rights Act, or even the various laws that protect civil rights and equal opportunity. Its argument is that it has the discretion to cease enforcing an act as long as it does so under the umbrella of prosecutorial discretion. While the Court does not rule on the merits of these arguments, they certainly support the States' standing on the basis of abdication.

In regards to abdication standing, this case bears strong similarities to *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159 (D.C. Cir. 1973). In *Adams*, the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare adopted a policy that, in effect, was a refusal to enforce Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. *Id.* at 1161. Specifically, the Secretary refused to effectuate an end to segregation in federally-funded public education institutions. *Id.*

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[47] Obviously, the Government disputes whether these facts equate to abdication, but it does not dispute the underlying facts themselves—nor could it, as these facts are set out in writing by the DHS Secretary in the DAPA Memorandum.

In *Adams*, as in the case before this Court, the Government argued that the "means" of enforcement is a matter of absolute agency discretion, and in the exercise of that discretion it chose to seek voluntary compliance. *See id.* at 1162. Rejecting this argument and holding that the Secretary had abdicated his statutory duty, the D.C. Circuit noted that:

> [t]his suit is not brought to challenge HEW's decisions with regard to a few school districts in the course of a generally effective enforcement program. To the contrary, *appellants allege that HEW has consciously and expressly adopted a general policy which is in effect an abdication of its statutory duty. We are asked to interpret the statute and determine whether HEW has correctly construed its enforcement obligations.*
>
> A final important factor distinguishing this case from the prosecutorial discretion cases cited by HEW is the nature of the relationship between the agency and the institutions in question. HEW is actively supplying segregated institutions with federal funds, contrary to the expressed purposes of Congress. *It is one thing to say the Justice Department lacks the resources necessary to locate and prosecute every civil rights violator; it is quite another to say HEW may affirmatively continue to channel federal funds to defaulting schools. The anomaly of this latter assertion fully supports the conclusion that Congress's clear statement of an affirmative enforcement duty should not be discounted.*

Id. (emphasis added).

In the present case, Congress has clearly stated that illegal aliens should be removed. Like that at issue in *Adams*, the DHS program clearly circumvents immigration laws and allows individuals that would otherwise be subject to removal to remain in the United States. The policy in *Adams* purported to seek voluntary compliance with Title VI. In contrast, the DHS does not seek compliance with federal law in any form, but instead establishes a pathway for non-compliance and completely abandons entire sections of this country's immigration law. Assuming that the concept of abdication standing will be recognized in this Circuit, this Court finds that this is a textbook example.

F. Conclusion

Having found that at least one Plaintiff, Texas, stands to suffer direct damage from the implementation of DAPA, this Court finds that there is the requisite standing necessary for the pursuit of this case in federal court. Fulfilling the constitutional requirements of standing, Texas has shown that it will suffer an injury, that this injury is proximately caused by the actions of the Government, and that a favorable remedy issued by the Court would prevent the occurrence of this injury.[48] This Court also finds that Texas'

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[48] The Court has also found that the Government has abdicated its duty to enforce the immigration laws that are designed, at least in part, to protect the States and their citizens. While many courts, including the United States Supreme Court, have suggested that the abdication of duty gives rise to standing, this Court has not found a case where the plaintiff's standing was supported solely on

claim has satisfied the requirements of prudential standing: Plaintiffs' suit is not merely a generalized grievance, the Plaintiffs' fall within the "zone of interest" pertaining to the immigration statutes at issue, and Plaintiffs' suit is not based merely on the interests of third-parties.

Finally, for the various reasons discussed above and below, it is clear that Plaintiffs satisfy the standing requirements as prescribed by the APA. Thus even "unreviewable" administrative actions may be subject to judicial review under exceptional circumstances, such as when there has been a clear departure from the agency's statutory authority. *See Manges v. Camp*, 474 F.2d 97, 99 (5th Cir. 1973). With regard to APA standing, this Court emphasizes that there is a difference between the standing required to bring a lawsuit and that necessary for APA reviewability. Although traditional standing refers to the ability of a plaintiff to bring an action, APA "reviewability" concerns the ability of the Court to actually review and grant relief regarding the act or omission in question on either procedural or substantive grounds. This Court will address these redressability issues as part of its discussions on the merits.

Having reached the conclusion that standing exists for at least one Plaintiff, the Court turns to the merits.

V. THE MERITS OF THE STATES' CLAIMS

As previously noted, this opinion seeks to address three issues: standing, legality, and constitutionality.

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this basis. Though not the only reason, the Court finds Plaintiffs (at least Texas) have standing pursuant to this theory, as well.

Having concluded that at least one Plaintiff, the State of Texas, has standing, the Court now addresses the merits of the States' claims regarding the DAPA program.

A. Prosecutorial Discretion and Agency Prioritization

A basic issue intrinsically interwoven in most of the arguments presented in this case warrants attention before proceeding. It does not resolve any of the ultimate remaining questions, but the Court nevertheless finds it important. Just as the Government has been reluctant to make certain concessions, prosecutorial discretion is an area where the States, possibly in fear of making a bigger concession than intended, are reluctant to concede. As discussed above, one of the DHS Secretary's stated reasons for implementing DAPA is that it allegedly allows the Secretary to expend the resources at his disposal in areas he views as deserving the most attention. He has set forth these priorities as follows:

1. Priority 1: threats to national security, border security, and public safety;
2. Priority 2: misdemeanants and new immigration violators;
3. Priority 3: other immigration violations.

See Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 5 (Nov. 20, 2014 Memorandum, "Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants").[49]

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[49] Interestingly, this memorandum, which is different from the DAPA Memorandum (although dated the same day), states:

The law is relatively clear on enforcement discretion and, thus, the Court will not address it at length. Nevertheless, because the DHS has so intertwined its stated priorities with the DAPA program as justification for its alleged exercise of discretion, the Court finds it helpful to point out some basic legal principles.

The law is clear that the Secretary's ordering of DHS priorities is not subject to judicial second-guessing:

> [T]he Government's enforcement priorities and . . . the Government's overall enforcement plan are not readily susceptible to the kind of analysis the courts are competent to make.

Reno, 525 U.S. at 490 (quoting *Wayte v. United States*, 470 U.S. 598, 607-08 (1985)).

Further, as a general principle, the decision to prosecute or not prosecute an individual is, with narrow exceptions, a decision that is left to the Executive Branch's discretion. *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 831 (citing a host of Supreme Court opinions). As the Fifth Circuit has stated:

> The prosecution of criminal cases has historically lain close to the core of the Article II executive

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"Nothing in this memorandum should be construed to prohibit or discourage the apprehension, detention, or removal of aliens in the United States who are not identified as priorities herein." The DAPA recipients arguably fall under Priority 3, but the Secretary's DAPA Memorandum seems to indicate he thinks otherwise. Despite this admonition, the DAPA Memorandum instructs DHS officials not to remove otherwise removable aliens. In fact, it also instructs ICE officials to immediately stop enforcement procedures already in process, including removal proceedings.

> function. The Executive Branch has extraordinarily wide discretion in deciding whether to prosecute. Indeed, that discretion is checked only by other constitutional provisions such as the prohibition against racial discrimination and a narrow doctrine of selective prosecution.

Riley v. St. Luke's Episcopal Hosp., 252 F.3d 749, 756 (5th Cir. 2001).

The Judiciary has generally refrained from injecting itself into decisions involving the exercise of prosecutorial discretion or agency non-enforcement for three main reasons. First, these decisions ordinarily involve matters particularly within an agency's expertise. Second, an agency's refusal to act does not involve that agency's "coercive" powers requiring protection by courts. Finally, an agency's refusal to act largely mirrors a prosecutor's decision to not indict. *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 821-32. This is true whether the suit is brought under common law or the APA. Absent abdication, decisions to not take enforcement action are rarely reviewable under the APA. *See, e.g.*, *Texas*, 106 F.3d at 667.

Consequently, this Court finds that Secretary Johnson's decisions as to how to marshal DHS resources, how to best utilize DHS manpower, and where to concentrate its activities are discretionary decisions solely within the purview of the Executive Branch, to the extent that they do not violate any statute or the Constitution.

The fact that the DHS has virtually unlimited discretion when prioritizing enforcement objectives and allocating its limited resources resolves an underlying

current in this case. This fact does not, however, resolve the specific legal issues presented because the general concept of prosecutorial discretion—or Defendants' right to exercise it—is not the true focus of the States' legal attack.[50] Instead, Plaintiffs argue that DAPA is not within the Executive's realm (his power to exercise prosecutorial discretion or otherwise) at all; according to Plaintiffs, DAPA is simply the Executive Branch legislating.

Indeed, it is well-established both in the text of the Constitution itself and in Supreme Court jurisprudence that the Constitution "allows the President to execute the laws, not make them." *Medellin*, 552 U.S. at 532. It is Congress, and Congress alone, who has the power under the Constitution to legislate in the field of immigration. *See* U.S. Const. art. 1, § 8, cl. 4; *Plyler*, 457 U.S. at 237-38. As the Supreme Court has explained, "[t]he conditions for entry [or removal] of every alien, the particular classes of aliens that shall be denied entry altogether, the basis for determining such classification, the right to terminate hospitality to aliens, [and] the grounds on which such determinations should be based, have been recognized as matters *solely for the responsibility of the Congress . . .* ." *Harisiades v. Shaughnessy*, 342 U.S. 580, 596-97 (1952) (emphasis added).

Just as the states are preempted from interfering with the "careful balance struck by Congress with

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[50] The States obviously question the soundness of Defendants' alleged exercise of discretion. Their complaint also questions whether this program can be characterized or justified as an exercise of discretion at all.

respect to unauthorized employment," for example,[51] Plaintiffs argue that the doctrine of separation of powers likewise precludes the Executive Branch from undoing this careful balance by granting legal presence together with related benefits to over four million individuals who are illegally in the country. It is the contention of the States that in enacting DAPA, the DHS has not only abandoned its duty to enforce the laws as Congress has written them, but it has also enacted "legislation" contrary to the Constitution and the separation of powers therein. Finally, the States complain that the DHS failed to comply with certain procedural statutory requirements for taking the action it did.

The Court now turns to those issues.

B. Preliminary Injunction

To support the "equitable remedy" of a preliminary injunction, the Plaintiff States must establish four elements: "(1) a substantial likelihood of success on the merits; (2) a substantial threat that the [States] will suffer irreparable injury if the injunction is denied; (3) that the threatened injury outweighs any damage that the injunction might cause [Defendants]; and (4) that the injunction will not disserve the public interest." *Jackson Women's Health Org. v. Currier*, 170 F.3d 448, 452 (5th Cir. 2014) (quoting *Hoover v. Morales*, 164 F.3d 221, 224 (5th Cir. 1998)). While a preliminary injunction should not be granted unless the plaintiff, "*by a clear showing*," carries his burden of persuasion on each of these four factors, *see Ma-*

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[51] *Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2505.

zurek v. Armstrong, 520 U.S. 968, 972 (1997) (citation omitted) (emphasis in the original), the plaintiff "need not prove his case." *Lakedreams v. Taylor*, 932 F.2d 1103, 1109 n.11 (5th Cir. 1991); *see also Univ. of Texas v. Camenisch*, 451 U.S. 390, 395 (1981) (emphasizing that a party "is not required to prove his case in full at a preliminary injunction hearing").

The "generally accepted notion" is that the "purpose of a preliminary injunction is always to prevent irreparable injury so as to preserve the court's ability to render a meaningful decision on the merits." *Meis v. Sanitas Serv. Corp.*, 511 F.2d 655, 656 (5th Cir. 1975) (citations omitted); *see also Camenisch*, 451 U.S. at 395 ("The purpose of a preliminary injunction is merely to preserve the relative positions of the parties until a trial on the merits can be held."). "Given this limited purpose, and given the haste that is often necessary if [the parties'] positions are to be preserved, a preliminary injunction is customarily granted on the basis of procedures that are less formal and evidence that is less complete than in a trial on the merits." *Id.* The Court's analysis requires "a balancing of the probabilities of ultimate success on the merits with the consequences of court intervention at a preliminary stage." *Meis*, 511 F.2d at 656; *see also Canal Auth. of Fla. v. Callaway*, 489 F.2d 567, 573 (5th Cir. 1974) ("[T]he most compelling reason in favor of (granting a preliminary injunction) is the need to prevent the judicial process from being rendered futile by defendant's action or refusal to act.") (quotation marks and citations omitted).

1. Preliminary Injunction Factor One: Likelihood of Success on the Merits

The first consideration in the preliminary injunction analysis is the likelihood that the plaintiff will prevail on the merits. The Fifth Circuit has previously stated that the likelihood required in a given case depends on the weight and strength of the other three factors. *See Canal Auth.*, 489 F.2d at 576-77. Although some doubt has been cast on this "sliding scale" approach, it is clear that, at a minimum, the plaintiff must demonstrate a "substantial case on the merits." *See, e.g.*, *Southerland v. Thigpen*, 784 F.2d 713, 718 n.1 (5th Cir. 1986). Thus, to meet the first requirement for a preliminary injunction, the States "must present a prima facie case," but "need not show a certainty of winning." 11A Charles Alan Wright et al., Federal Practice and Procedure § 2948.3 (3d ed. 2014) (hereinafter "Wright & Miller").

a. The Administrative Procedure Act

The States complain that the implementation of DAPA violates the APA. 5 U.S.C. §§ 501 *et seq*. Specifically, the States assert that DAPA constitutes a "substantive" or "legislative" rule that was promulgated without the requisite notice and comment process required under Section 553 of the APA.[52] De-

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[52] The States also claim that DAPA substantively violates the APA in that it is "arbitrary, capricious, an abuse of discretion, or otherwise not in accordance with the law" under 5 U.S.C. § 706. If accurate (and all other requirements under the APA are satisfied), Section 706 would require that the Court "hold unlawful and set aside" the DAPA program. 5 U.S.C. § 706.

fendants concede that DAPA was not subjected to the APA's formal notice-and-comment procedure. Instead, they argue that DAPA is not subject to judicial review and, even if reviewable, is exempt from the APA's procedural requirements.

i. Judicial Review Under the Administrative Procedure Act

When a party challenges the legality of agency action, a finding that the party has standing will not, alone, entitle that party to a decision on the merits. *See Data Processing*, 397 U.S. at 173 (Brennan, J., concurring). Thus, before proceeding to the merits of Plaintiffs' claim, the Court must ensure that the agency action at issue here is reviewable under the APA.

Subject to two exceptions described below, the APA provides an avenue for judicial review of challenges to "agency action." *See* 5 U.S.C. §§ 701-706. Under Section 702, "[a] person suffering legal wrong because of agency action, or adversely affected or aggrieved by agency action within the meaning of a relevant statute, is entitled to judicial review thereof." 5 U.S.C. § 702. Section 702 contains two requirements. First, the plaintiffs must identify some "'*agency action*' that affects [them] in the specified fashion; it is judicial review 'thereof' to which [they are] entitled." *Lujan v. Nat'l Wildlife Fed.*, 497 U.S. 871, 882 (1990) (quoting 5 U.S.C. § 702). "Agency action," in turn, is defined in the APA as "the whole or part of an agency rule, order, license, sanction, relief, or the equivalent or denial thereof, or failure to act." 5 U.S.C. § 551(13). When, as here, judicial review is sought "not pursuant to specific authorization in the substantive statute, but

only under the general review provisions of the APA, the 'agency action' in question must be 'final agency action.'" *Lujan*, 497 U.S. at 882 (citing 5 U.S.C. § 704, which provides that "[a]gency action made reviewable by statute and final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court are subject to judicial review").

To obtain review under Section 702, Plaintiffs must additionally show that they are either "suffering legal wrong" because of the challenged agency action, or are "adversely affected or aggrieved by [that] action within the meaning of a relevant statute." 5 U.S.C. § 702. A plaintiff claiming the latter, as the States do here, must establish that the "injury he complains of (*his* aggrievement, or the adverse effect *upon him*) falls within the 'zone of interests' sought to be protected by the statutory provision whose violation forms the legal basis for his complaint." *Lujan*, 497 U.S. at 871 (citing *Clarke*, 479 U.S. at 396-97).

(1) Final Agency Action

The Supreme Court has identified two conditions that must be satisfied for agency action to be "final." First, "the action must mark the consummation of the agency's decisionmaking process . . . —it must not be of a merely tentative or interlocutory nature." *Bennett*, 520 U.S. at 178 (internal quotations marks and citations omitted). One need not venture further than the DHS Directive itself to conclude that it is not "of a merely tentative or interlocutory nature." Secretary Johnson ordered immediate implementation of certain measures to be taken under DAPA. For instance, he ordered ICE and CBP to "immediately

begin identifying persons in their custody, as well as newly encountered individuals, who meet the . . . criteria . . . to prevent the further expenditure of enforcement resources." Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A at 5. Secretary Johnson further instructed ICE to "review *pending* removal cases, and seek administrative closure or termination" of cases with potentially eligible deferred action beneficiaries. *Id.* (emphasis added). The DHS has additionally set up a "hotline" for immigrants in the removal process to call and alert the DHS as to their eligibility, so as to avoid their removal being effectuated.[53] USCIS was given a specific deadline by which it "should begin accepting applications under the new [DACA] criteria": "no later than ninety (90) days from the date of [the Directive's] announcement." *Id.* at 4. As of the date of this Order, that deadline is less than a week away.[54] Moreover, the DHS is currently obtaining facilities, assigning officers, and contracting employees to pro-

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[53] *See, e.g., Frequently Asked Questions, The Obama Administration's DAPA and Expanded DACA Programs*, NILC, at http://www.nilc.org/dapa&daca.html (last updated Jan. 23, 2015).

[54] Defendants have not indicated any intention to depart from the deadline established in the DRS Directive. To the contrary, the DRS' website states in bold, red font that it will begin accepting applications under the new DACA criteria on February 18, 2015. *See Executive Actions on Immigration*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, at http://www.uscis.gov/immigrationaction (last updated Jan. 30, 2015). A deadline by which USCIS should begin accepting applications for DAPA was also provided in the DHS Directive: no later than 180 days from the date DAPA was announced. Thus, USCIS must begin accepting applications by mid-May of this year.

cess DAPA applications.[55] Thus, the DHS Directive has been in effect and action has been taken pursuant to it since November of 2014.

Under the second condition identified by the Supreme Court, to be "final," the agency's action "must be one by which rights or obligations have been determined, or from which legal consequences will flow." *Bennett*, 520 U.S. at 178 (internal quotation marks and citations omitted). As evidenced by the mandatory language throughout the DAPA Memorandum requiring USCIS and ICE to take certain actions, the Secretary's Directive clearly establishes the obligations of the DHS and assigns specific duties to offices within the agency. Additionally, DAPA confers upon its beneficiaries the right to stay in the country lawfully. Clearly, "legal consequences will flow" from Defendants' action: DAPA makes the illegal presence of millions of individuals legal.

Two other factors confirm that the DAPA Directive constitutes final agency action. First, the Government has not specifically suggested that it is not final. To the contrary, the DHS' own website declares that those eligible under the new DACA criteria may begin applying on February 18, 2015. Finally, the 2012 DACA Directive—which was clearly final and has been in effect for two and a half years now—was instituted

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[55] Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 23 (Palinkas Dec.) ("USCIS has announced that it will create a new service center to process DAPA applications. The new service center will be in Arlington, Virginia, and it will be staffed by approximately 1,000 federal employees. Approximately 700 of them will be USCIS employees, and approximately 300 of them will be federal contractors.").

in the same fashion, pursuant to a nearly identical memorandum as the one here. Indeed, Secretary Johnson in the DAPA Memorandum "direct[s] USCIS to establish a process, *similar to DACA*" for implementing the program. Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A (emphasis added). This experience—and the lack of any suggestion that DAPA will be implemented in a fashion different from DACA—serves as further evidence that DAPA is a final agency action. Based upon the combination of all of these factors, there can be no doubt that the agency action at issue here is "final" in order for the Court to review it under the APA.

(2) The Zone of Interests

To challenge Defendants' action under the APA, Plaintiffs must additionally show: (1) that they are "adversely affected or aggrieved, i.e. injured in fact," and (2) that the "interest sought to be protected by the [Plaintiffs] [is] arguably within the zone of interests to be protected or regulated by the statute in question." *Clarke*, 479 U.S. at 395-96 (internal quotation marks and citations omitted). The key inquiry is whether Congress "intended for [Plaintiffs] to be relied upon to challenge agency disregard of the law." *Block v. Cmty. Nutrition Inst.*, 467 U.S. 340, 347 (1984); *see also Clarke*, 479 U.S. at 399 ("The 'zone of interest' test is a guide for deciding whether, in view of Congress' evident intent to make agency action presumptively reviewable, a particular plaintiff should be heard to complain of a particular agency decision."). The

test is not "especially demanding."[56] *Id.* As the Supreme Court in *Clarke* held:

> In cases where the plaintiff is not itself the subject of the contested regulatory action, the test denies a right of review if the plaintiffs interests are *so marginally related to or inconsistent with the purposes implicit in the statute* that it cannot reasonably be assumed that Congress intended to permit the suit . . . . [T]here *need be no indication of congressional purpose to benefit the would-be plaintiff.*

Id. at 399-400 (citations removed) (emphasis added).

As described above in great detail, it is clear that at least one Plaintiff, the State of Texas, (and perhaps some of the other States if there had been time and opportunity for a full development of the record), will be "adversely affected or aggrieved" by the agency action at issue here. DAPA authorizes a new status of

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[56] The *Clarke* Court noted that, although a similar zone of interest test is often applied when considering "prudential standing" to sue in federal court (as already discussed in this opinion), the zone of interest test in the APA context is much less demanding than it is in the prudential standing context. 479 U.S. at 400 n.16 (stating that the invocation of the zone of interest test in the *standing* context "should not be taken to mean that the standing inquiry under whatever constitutional or statutory provision a plaintiff asserts is the same as it would be if the 'generous review provisions' of the APA apply"). This Court, in its consideration of prudential standing concerns, already found Plaintiffs to be within the zone of interest of the relevant immigration laws, which DAPA contravenes. Thus, based on the less-demanding nature of the APA's zone of interest test, the Court need not go into great detail in this part of its analysis.

"legal presence" along with numerous other benefits to a substantial number of individuals who are currently, by law, "removable" or "deportable." The Court finds that the acts of Congress deeming these individuals removable were passed in part to protect the States and their residents. Indeed, over the decades there has been a constant flood of litigation between various states and the federal government over federal enforcement of immigration laws. The states have been unsuccessful in many of those cases and have prevailed in only a few. Regardless of which side prevailed and what contention was at issue, there has been one constant: the federal government, under our federalist system, has the duty to protect the states, which are powerless to protect themselves, by enforcing the immigration statutes. Congress has recognized this:

> States and localities can have significant interest in the manner and extent to which federal officials enforce provisions of the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA) regarding the exclusion and removal of unauthorized aliens.[57]

Similarly, the Supreme Court has recognized that the states have an interest in the enforcement or nonenforcement of the INA:

> Since the late 19th century, the United States has restricted immigration into this country. Unsanctioned entry into the United States is a crime, and those who have entered unlawfully are subject to

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[57] *See, e.g.*, Kate M. Manuel, Cong. Research Serv., R43839, *State Challenges to Federal Enforcement of Immigration Law: Historical Precedents and Pending Litigation* 2 (2014).

> deportation. But despite the existence of these legal restrictions, a substantial number of persons have succeeded in unlawfully entering the United States, and now live within various States, including the State of Texas.

Plyler, 457 U.S. at 205 (citations omitted). Finally, the Department of Justice has likewise acknowledged that the states' interests are related to and consistent with the purposes implicit within the INA:

> Unlawful entry into the United States and reentry after removal are federal criminal offenses.[58]
>
> . . . .
>
> To discourage illegal immigration into the United States, the INA prohibits employers from knowingly hiring or continuing to employ aliens who are not authorized to work in the United States.
>
> . . . .
>
> The federal immigration laws encourage States to cooperate with the federal government in its enforcement of immigration laws in several ways. The INA provides state officials with express authority to take certain actions to assist federal immigration officials. For example, state officers may make arrests for violations of the INA's prohibition against smuggling, transporting or harboring aliens . . . . And, if the Secretary determines that an actual or imminent mass influx of aliens

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[58] As the Supreme Court held in *Arizona v. United States*, it is the job of ICE officers to remove those who violate Sections 1325 and 1326. *See* 132 S. Ct. at 2500.

> presents urgent circumstances requiring an immediate federal response, she may authorize any state or local officer . . . . to exercise the powers, privileges or duties of federal immigration officers under the INA.
>
> Congress has also authorized DHS to enter into agreements with States to allow appropriately trained and supervised state and local officers to perform enumerated functions of federal immigration enforcement. Activities performed under these agreements . . . "shall be subject to the direction and supervision of the [Secretary]."
>
> The INA further provides, however, that a formal agreement is not required for state and local officers to "cooperate with the [Secretary]" in certain respects . . . . Even without an agreement, state and local officials may "communicate with the [Secretary] regarding the immigration status of an individual," or "otherwise cooperate with the [Secretary] in the identification, apprehension, detention, or removal of aliens not lawfully present in the United States". . . . To further such "cooperat[ive]" efforts to "communicate," Congress has enacted measures to ensure a useful flow of information between DHS and state . . . agencies.

Brief for the United States in Opposition on Petition for Writ of Certiorari at 2-6, *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492 (2012) (No. 11-182), 2011 WL 5548708 (citations omitted).

According to estimates available to the Court, at least 50-67% of potentially-eligible DAPA recipients

have probably violated 8 U.S.C. § 1325.[59] The remaining 33-50% have likely overstayed their permission to stay. Under the doctrine of preemption, the states are deprived of the ability to protect themselves or institute their own laws to control illegal immigration and, thus, they must rely on the INA and federal enforcement of the same for their protection. *See Arizona*, 132 S. Ct. at 2510 (reaffirming the severe limit on state action in the field of immigration). Despite recognizing the inability of states to tackle their immigration problems in a manner inconsistent with federal law, the Supreme Court in *Arizona* noted:

> *The National Government has significant power to regulate immigration. With power comes responsibility, and the sound exercise of national power over immigration depends on the Nation's meeting its responsibility to base its laws on a political will informed by searching, thoughtful, rational civic discourse.* Arizona may have understandable frustrations with the problems caused by illegal immigration while that process continues, but the

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[59] *See, e.g.*, David Martin, *A Defense of Immigration-Enforcement Discretion: The Legal and Policy Flaws in Kris Kobach's Latest Crusade*, 122 Yale L. J. Online 167, 171 (2012) (citing *Modes of Entry for the Unauthorized Migrant Population*, PEW Hisp. Center 3 (May 22, 2006), at http://pewhispanic.org/files/factsheets/19.pdf). (Mr. Martin served as General Counsel of the INS from 1995-1997, and as Principal Deputy General Counsel of the DHS from 2009-2010.). *See also* Andorra Bruno, Cong. Research Serv., R41207, *Unauthorized Aliens in the United States: Policy Discussion* 2 (2014) (hereinafter "Bruno, *Unauthorized Aliens in the United States*").

> State may not pursue policies that undermine federal law.

Id. (emphasis added).

The responsibility of the federal government, who exercises plenary power over immigration, includes not only the passage of rational legislation, but also the *enforcement* of those laws.[60] The States and their residents are entitled to nothing less. DAPA, no matter how it is characterized or viewed, clearly contravenes the express terms of the INA. Under our federalist system, the States are easily in the zone of interest contemplated by this nation's immigration laws.

(3) Exceptions to Review

Although the Court easily finds the agency action at issue here final and that the States fall within the relevant zone of interests in order to seek review, Defendants claim that review is nevertheless unavailable in this case because the APA exempts the DHS action from its purview.

There are two exceptions to the general rule of reviewability under the APA. First, agency action is unreviewable "where the statute explicitly precludes

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[60] Congress exercises plenary power over immigration and the Executive Branch is charged with enforcing Congress' laws. *See Failla v. Bell*, 430 U.S. 787, 792 (1997) ("[O]ver no conceivable subject is the legislative power of Congress more complete than it is over the admission of aliens.") (internal quotation marks and citations omitted). Just like the states, albeit for a different reason, the Executive Branch "may not pursue policies that undermine federal law."

judicial review." 5 U.S.C. § 701(a)(l). This exception applies when "Congress has expressed an intent to preclude judicial review." *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 830.[61] Second, and arguably more relevant to the present case, even if Congress has not affirmatively precluded judicial review, courts are precluded from reviewing agency action that is "committed to agency discretion by law." 5 U.S.C. § 701(a)(2). This second exception was first discussed in detail by the Supreme Court in *Citizens to Preserve Overton Park, Inc. v. Volpe*. 401 U.S. 402 (1971). There, the Court interpreted the exception narrowly, finding it "applicable in those rare instances where 'statutes are drawn in such broad terms that in a given case there is no law to apply.'" *Id*. at 410 (quoting S. Rep. No. 752, 79th Cong., 1st Sess. 26 (1945)). Subsequently, in *Heckler v. Chaney*, the Supreme Court further refined its interpretation of Section 701(a)(2). Distinguishing the exception in Section 701(a)(l) from that in Section 701(a)(2), the Court stated:

> The former [§ 701(a)(1)] applies when Congress has expressed an intent to preclude judicial review. The latter [§ 701(a)(2)] applies in different circumstances; even where Congress has not affirmatively precluded review, *review is not to be had if the statute is drawn so that a court would have no meaningful standard against which to judge the*

[61] The Government has not pointed the Court to any statute that precludes reviewability of DAPA. As there is no statute that authorizes the DHS to implement the DAPA program, there is certainly no statute that precludes judicial review under Section 701(a).

> *agency's exercise of discretion*. In such a case, the statute ("law") can be taken to have "committed" the decisionmaking to the agency's judgment absolutely. This construction avoids conflict with the "abuse of discretion" standard of review in § 706—if no judicially manageable standards are available for judging how and when an agency should exercise its discretion, then it is impossible to evaluate agency action for "abuse of discretion."

470 U.S. at 830 (emphasis added).

Relevant to the present issue, the Supreme Court then exempted from the APA's "presumption of reviewability" non-enforcement decisions made by an agency. *Id*. at 831 (disagreeing with the lower court's "insistence that the 'narrow construction' of § (a)(2) required application of a presumption of reviewability even to an agency's decision not to undertake certain enforcement actions"). The Court distinguished the availability of review for the type of agency action in *Overton Park* from the challenged agency decisions in *Heckler*:

> *Overton Park* did not involve an agency's refusal to take requested enforcement action. It involved *an affirmative act of approval under a statute that set clear guidelines* for determining when such approval should be given. Refusals to take enforcement steps generally involve precisely the opposite situation, and in that situation we think the presumption is that judicial review is not available.

Id. (emphasis added).

Thus, according to the *Heckler* Court, there is a "rebuttable presumption" that "an agency's decision

not to prosecute or enforce, whether through civil or criminal process, is a decision generally committed to an agency's absolute discretion" and, consequently, unsuitable for judicial review. *Id.* An "agency's refusal to institute proceedings" has been "traditionally committed to agency discretion," and the enactment of the APA did nothing to disturb this tradition. *Id.* at 832.

Underlying this presumption of unreviewability are three overarching concerns that arise when a court proposes to review an agency's discretionary decision to refuse enforcement. First, "an agency decision not to enforce often involves a complicated balancing of a number of factors which are particularly within its expertise[,]" and the agency is "far better equipped than the courts to deal with the many variables involved in the proper ordering of its priorities." *Id.* at 831-32. These factors or variables that an agency must assess in exercising its enforcement powers include "whether a violation has occurred, . . . whether agency resources are best spent on this violation or another, whether the agency is likely to succeed if it acts, whether the particular enforcement action requested best fits the agency's overall policies, and, indeed, whether the agency has enough resources to undertake the action at all." *Id.* at 831. Due to circumstances beyond its control, an agency "cannot act against each technical violation of the statute it is charged with enforcing." *Id.* For obvious reasons, this has application in the criminal and immigration contexts. Consequently, the deference generally accorded to "an agency's construction of the statute it is charged with implementing" and the "procedures it

adopts" for doing so (under general administrative law principles)[62] is arguably even more warranted when, in light of the above factors, the agency chooses not to enforce the statute against "each technical violation." *Id.* at 831-32.

Second, an agency's refusal to act generally does not "infringe upon areas that courts often are called upon to protect[,]" including individual liberty or property rights. In other words, a non-enforcement decision ordinarily does not involve an exercise of governmental "*coercive* power" over an individual's rights. *Id.* at 832 (emphasis in original). By contrast, when an agency does take action exercising its enforcement power, the action in and of itself "provides a focus for judicial review." *Id.* Because the agency "must have exercised its power in some manner," its action is more conducive to review "to determine whether the agency exceeded its statutory powers." *Id.* (citing *FTC v. Klesner*, 280 U.S. 19 (1929)).

Lastly, the *Heckler* Court compared agency non-enforcement decisions to the exercise of prosecutorial

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[62] The *Heckler* Court cited *Vermont Yankee Nuclear Power Corp. v. Natural Res. Def. Council, Inc.*, 435 U.S. 519, 543 (1978), and *Train v. Natural Res. Def. Council, Inc.*, 421 U.S. 60, 87 (1975). For instance, in discussing deference to agency interpretation, the Supreme Court stated in *Vermont Yankee*:

> But this much is absolutely clear. Absent constitutional constraints or extremely compelling circumstances, the administrative agencies should be free to fashion their own rules of procedure and to pursue methods of inquiry capable of permitting them to discharge their multitudinous duties. Indeed, our cases could hardly be more explicit in this regard.

435 U.S. at 543 (internal quotations and citations omitted).

discretion in the criminal context—decisions that plainly fall within the express and exclusive province of the Executive Branch, which is constitutionally charged to "take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed." *See id.* ("Finally, we recognize that an agency's refusal to institute proceedings shares to some extent the characteristics of the decision of a prosecutor in the Executive Branch not to indict—a decision which has long been regarded as the special province of the Executive Branch, inasmuch as it is the Executive who is charged by the Constitution to 'to take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed.'") (quoting U.S. Const. art. II, § 3).

While the Court recognizes (as discussed above) that the DHS possesses considerable discretion in carrying out its duties under the INA, the facts of this case do not implicate the concerns considered by *Heckler* such that this Court finds itself without the ability to review Defendants' actions. First, the Court finds an important distinction in two terms that are commonly used interchangeably when discussing *Heckler*'s presumption of unreviewability: "non-enforcement" and "inaction." While agency "non-enforcement" might imply "inaction" in most circumstances, the Court finds that, in this case, to the extent that the DAPA Directive can be characterized as "non-enforcement," it is actually affirmative *action* rather than inaction.

The Supreme Court's concern that courts lack meaningful focus for judicial review when presented with agency *inaction* (*see Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832) is thus not present in this situation. Instead of merely

refusing to enforce the INA's removal laws against an individual, the DHS has enacted a wide-reaching program that awards legal presence, to individuals Congress has deemed deportable or removable, as well as the ability to obtain Social Security numbers, work authorization permits, and the ability to travel.[63] Absent DAPA, these individuals would not receive these benefits.[64] The DHS has not instructed its officers to

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[63] *See, e.g., Frequently Asked Questions, The Obama Administration's DAPA and Expanded DACA Programs*, NILC, at http://www.nilc.org/dapa&daca.html (last updated Jan. 23, 2015) (instructing potential DAPA/DACA beneficiaries that "[o]nce [their] work permit arrives," to look up their local Social Security office at www.ssa.gov to apply for Social Security numbers). The official website for the Social Security Administration offers information for noncitizens, explaining that noncitizens "authorized to work in the United States by the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) can get a Social Security number . . . . You need a Social Security number to work, collect Social Security benefits and receive some other government services." *Social Security Numbers for Noncitizens*, Official Website of the Social Security Administration (Aug. 2013), http://www.ssa.gov/pubs/EN-05- 10096.pdf.

[64] The States raised, but did not address at length, the tax benefit issue perhaps because this is an expense that the federal taxpayers must bear. Nevertheless, it is clear from the testimony of IRS Commissioner John A. Koskinen presented to the Senate Finance Committee that the DAPA recipients would be eligible for earned income tax credits once they received a Social Security number. *See* Testimony of IRS Commissioner John A. Koskinen on February 3, 2015 before Senate Finance Committee that DAPA confers another sizable benefit in addition to those that directly affect the States due to certain tax credits. *See also* "Taxpayer Identification Number Requirements of Eligible Individuals and Qualifying Children Under the EIC," FTC A-4219, 19 XX WL 216976, and Chief Counsel Advice, IRS CCA 200028034, 2000 WL 33116180 (IRS CCA 2000). One way to estimate the effect of this eligibility

merely refrain from arresting, ordering the removal of, or prosecuting unlawfully-present aliens. Indeed, by the very terms of DAPA, that is what the DHS *has* been doing for these recipients for the last five years[65]—whether that was because the DHS could not track down the millions of individuals they now deem eligible for deferred action, or because they were prioritizing removals according to limited resources, applying humanitarian considerations, or just not removing these individuals for "administrative convenience."[66] Had the States complained only of the DHS' mere failure to (or decision not to) prosecute and/or remove such individuals in these preceding

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is to assign as an earned income tax credit the sum of $4,000 per year for three years (the number of years for which an individual can file) and multiply that by the number of DAPA recipients. If, for instance, that number is 4.3 million, if calculated accurately, the tax benefits bestowed by DAPA will exceed $50,000,000,000. Obviously, such a calculation carries with it a number of assumptions. For example, it is somewhat unlikely that every DAPA recipient would actually claim or qualify for these credits. Nevertheless, the importance lies not in the amount, but in the fact that DAPA makes individuals eligible at all. Bestowing a tax benefit on individuals that are otherwise not entitled to that benefit is one more reason that DAPA must be considered a substantive rule.

[65] In order to qualify for DAPA, an unlawfully-present alien must have "continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010." Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A at 4. Thus, expected beneficiaries of DAPA have been present in the country illegally for *at least* five years, yet the DHS (whether knowingly or unknowingly/intentionally or unintentionally) has not acted to enforce the INA's removal provisions against them during those years.

[66] *See* 8 C.F.R. 274a.12(c)(l4) (defining deferred action as "an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority").

years, any conclusion drawn in that situation would have been based on the *inaction* of the agency in its refusal to enforce. In such a case, the Court may have been without any "focus for judicial review." *See Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 832.

Exercising prosecutorial discretion and/or refusing to enforce a statute does not also entail bestowing benefits. Non-enforcement is just that—not enforcing the law.[67] Non-enforcement does not entail refusing to remove these individuals as required by the law *and then* providing three years of immunity from that law, legal presence status, plus any benefits that may accompany legal presence under current regulations. This Court seriously doubts that the Supreme Court, in holding non-enforcement decisions to be presumptively unreviewable, anticipated that such "non-enforcement" decisions would include the affirmative act of bestowing multiple, otherwise unobtainable benefits upon an individual. Not only does this proposition run afoul of traditional exercises of prosecutorial discretion that generally receive judicial deference, but it also flies in the face of the very concerns that informed the *Heckler* Court's holding. This Court finds the DHS Directive distinguishable from the non-enforcement decisions to which *Heckler*

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[67] *See, e.g., In re Aiken Cnty.*, 725 F.3d 255, 266 (D.C. Cir. 2013) (explaining that prosecutorial discretion includes the decision to not *enforce* a law, but does not include the discretion not to *follow* a law). The law requires these individuals to be removed. The DHS could accomplish—and has accomplished—non-enforcement of the law without implementing DAPA. The award of legal status and all that it entails is an impermissible refusal to *follow* the law.

referred, and thus concludes that *Heckler's* presumption of unreviewability is inapplicable in this case.

(4) If Applicable, the Presumption is Rebutted

Assuming *arguendo* that a presumption of unreviewability applied in this case, the Court nonetheless finds that presumption rebutted. Notably, in *Heckler*, after listing the above-addressed concerns underlying its conclusion that an agency's non-enforcement decisions are presumed immune from review under Section 70l(a)(2), the Supreme Court emphasized that any non-enforcement decision "is only presumptively unreviewable." The presumption "may be rebutted where the substantive statute has provided guidelines for the agency to follow in exercising its enforcement powers." *Id.* at 832-33. Drawing on its prior analysis of Section 701(a)(2)'s exception in *Overton Park*, the Supreme Court elaborated on instances when the presumption may be rebutted:

> Thus, in establishing this presumption in the APA, Congress did not set agencies free to disregard legislative direction in the statutory scheme that the agency administers. Congress may limit an agency's exercise of enforcement power if it wishes, either by setting substantive priorities, or by otherwise circumscribing an agency's power to discriminate among issues or cases it will pursue. How to determine when Congress has done so is the question left open by *Overton Park*.

Id. at 833.

a. The Applicable Statutory Scheme

Here, the very statutes under which Defendants claim discretionary authority[68] actually compel the opposite result. In particular, detailed and mandatory commands within the INA provisions applicable to Defendants' action in this case circumscribe discretion. Section 1225(a)(1) of the INA provides that "[a]n alien present in the United States who has not been admitted . . . shall be deemed for purposes of this chapter an applicant for admission." 8 U.S.C. § 1225(a)(1). All applicants for admission "shall be inspected by immigration officers." *Id.* § 1225(a)(3). "[I]f the examining immigration officer determines that an alien seeking admission is not clearly and beyond a doubt entitled to be admitted, the alien shall be detained for a proceeding under section 1229a [of the INA]." *Id.* § 1225(b)(2)(A).[69]

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[68] As detailed below, the Defendants claim that Congress granted them discretion under two statutory provisions: 8 U.S.C. § 1103 and 6 U.S.C. § 202.

[69] It is understood that unauthorized aliens enter the United States in three main ways:

> (1) [S]ome are admitted to the United States on valid nonimmigrant (temporary) visas (e.g., as visitors or students) or on border-crossing cards and either remain in the country beyond their authorized period of stay or otherwise violate the terms of their admission; (2) some are admitted based on fraudulent documents (e.g., fake passports) that go undetected by U.S. officials; and (3) some enter the country illegally without inspection (e.g., by crossing over the Southwest or northern U.S. border).

Bruno, *Unauthorized Aliens in the United States* at 2.

Section 1229a provides for removal proceedings. In these proceedings, if the alien is an applicant for admission, the burden of proof rests with the alien to establish that he or she is "clearly and beyond doubt entitled to be admitted and is not admissible under section 1182" of the INA. 8 U.S.C. § 1229a(c)(2)(A). Alternatively, the alien has the burden of establishing "by clear and convincing evidence" that he or she is "lawfully present in the United States pursuant to a prior admission." *Id.* § 1229a(c)(2)(B). An alien is "removable" if the alien has not been admitted and is inadmissible under Section 1182, or in the case of an admitted alien, the alien is deportable under Section 1227. *Id.* § 1229a(e)(2). Section 1182 classifies and defines "Inadmissible Aliens." Inadmissible aliens are ineligible to receive visas and ineligible to be admitted to the United States. Among the long list of grounds for inadmissibility are those related to health, crime, and security. Section 1227 classifies and defines individuals who are deportable. Potential DAPA beneficiaries who entered unlawfully are inadmissible under Section 1182 and the law dictates that they should be removed pursuant to the authority under Sections 1225 and 1227. Those potential recipients who entered legally, but overstayed their legal permission to be in the United States fall under Section 1227(a)(1). Thus, regardless of their mode of entry, DAPA putative recipients all fall into a category for removal and no Congressionally-enacted statute gives the DHS the affirmative power to turn DAPA recipients' illegal presence into a legal one through deferred

action, much less provide and/or make them eligible for multiple benefits.[70]

The Government must concede that there is no specific law or statute that authorizes DAPA. In fact, the President announced it was the failure of Congress to pass such a law that prompted him (through his delegate, Secretary Johnson) to "change the law."[71] Consequently, the Government concentrates its defense upon the *general* discretion it is granted by law.

While there is no specific grant of discretion given to the DHS supporting the challenged action, Congress has conferred (and the DHS relies upon) two general grants of discretion under 8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3) (the "INA Provision") and 6 U.S.C. § 202 (the Homeland Security Act of 2005 ("HSA")) (the "HSA Provision").[72] Under the first of these provisions, the INA provides:

> [The Secretary] shall establish such regulations; prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and

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[70] In rejecting an agency's claimed use of prosecutorial discretion as justifying its inaction, the D.C. Circuit has emphasized:

> [P]rosecutorial discretion encompasses the discretion not to *enforce* a law against private parties; it does not encompass the discretion not to *follow* a law imposing a mandate or prohibition on the Executive Branch.

In re Aiken County, 725 F.3d at 266 (emphasis in original).

[71] *See* Press Release, Remarks by the President on Immigration – Chicago, IL, The White House Office of the Press Secretary (Nov. 25, 2014).

[72] Despite using the name of the Acts throughout, the Court will refer to the codified provisions of the INA and the HSA, as provided for in Title 8 and Title 6, respectively.

> other papers; issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out his authority under the provisions of this chapter.

8 U.S.C. § 1103(a)(3). Under the latter of these provisions, the HSA provides in relevant part:

> The Secretary, acting through the Under Secretary for Border and Transportation Security, shall be responsible for the following:
>
> (1) Preventing the entry of terrorists and the instruments of terrorism into the United States.
>
> (2) Securing the borders, territorial waters, ports, terminals, waterways, and air, land, and sea transportation systems of the United States, including managing and coordinating those functions transferred to the Department at ports of entry.
>
> (3) Carrying out the immigration enforcement functions vested by statute in, or performed by, the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization (or any officer, employee, or component of the Immigration and Naturalization Service) immediately before the date on which the transfer of functions specified under section 251 of this title takes effect.
>
> (4) Establishing and administering rules, in accordance with section 236 of this title, governing the granting of visas or other forms of permission, including parole, to enter the United States to individuals who are not a citizen or an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States.

(5) Establishing national immigration enforcement policies and priorities.

6 U.S.C. § 202.

The INA Provision is found in the "General Provisions," Subchapter I, of Title 8, which provides definitions of terms used throughout the INA and identifies the general powers and duties of the DHS Administration.[73] The HSA Provision establishes the "responsibilities" of the DHS Secretary. The INA thus gives the DHS Secretary the authority (and indeed directs the Secretary) to establish regulations that he deems necessary to execute the laws passed by Congress. The HSA delegates to the Secretary in Section 202(4) the authority to establish and administer rules that govern the various forms of acquiring *legal* entry into the United States under 6 U.S.C. § 236 (dealing with visas). *See* 6 U.S.C. § 202(4). Expected DAPA recipients, who by definition are already illegally present, are not encompassed by subsection 4 of HSA Provision. They are not aliens seeking visas or other forms of permission to come to the United States. Instead, the individuals covered by DAPA have already entered and either achieved that entry illegally, or unlawfully overstayed their legal admission.

The HSA, through subsection 5 of the HSA Provision, makes the Secretary responsible for establishing enforcement policies and priorities. The Government defends DAPA as a measure taken to prioritize removals and, as previously described, the DAPA Memoran-

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[73] (It is in Title I of the Immigration and Nationality Act (Section 103)).

dum mentions or reiterates some of the Secretary's priorities. The States do not dispute that Secretary Johnson has the legal authority to set these priorities, and this Court finds nothing unlawful about the Secretary's priorities. The HSA's delegation of authority may not be read, however, to delegate to the DHS the right to establish a national rule or program of awarding *legal presence*—one which not only awards a three-year, renewable reprieve, but also awards over four million individuals, who fall into the category that Congress deems removable, the right to work, obtain Social Security numbers, and travel in and out of the country.[74] A tour of the INA's provisions reveals that Congress clearly knows how to delegate discretionary authority because in certain instances it has explicitly done so. For example, Section 1227 (involving "Deportable Aliens") specifically provides:

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[74] If implemented like DACA, the DAPA program will actually be more widespread. The DHS has published notice that even those who were not granted DACA "will not be referred to ICE for purposes of removal . . . except where DHS determines there are exceptional circumstances" (assuming their cases did not involve a criminal offense, fraud, or a threat to national security or public safety). *See Frequently Asked Questions, Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Process*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-process/frequently-askedquestions#DACA%20process (last updated Dec. 4, 2014). According to the President, DAPA will be implemented in the same fashion. Thus, as long as you are not a criminal, a threat to security, or fraudulent, and if you qualify under these programs, you receive legal presence and are allowed to stay in the country; if you do not qualify, you still get to stay.

(d)(1) If the Secretary of Homeland Security determines that an application for nonimmigrant status under subparagraph (T) or (U) of section 1101(a)(15) of this title filed for an alien in the United States sets forth a prima facie case for approval, *the Secretary may grant the alien an administrative stay* of a final order of removal under section 1231(c)(2) of this title until

(A) the application for nonimmigrant status under such subparagraph (T) or (U) is approved; or

(B) there is a final administrative denial of the application for such nonimmigrant status after the exhaustion of administrative appeals.

(2) the denial of a request for an administrative stay of removal under this subsection shall not preclude the alien from applying for a stay of removal, deferred action, or a continuance or abeyance of removal proceedings under any other provision of the immigration laws of the United States.

(3) During any period in which the administrative stay of removal is in effect, the alien shall not be removed.

(4) Nothing in this subsection may be construed to limit the authority of the Secretary of Homeland Security or the Attorney General to grant a stay of removal or deportation in any case not described in this subsection.

8 U.S.C. § 1227(d).

In the above situations, Congress has expressly given the DHS Secretary the discretion to grant or not grant an administrative stay of an order of removal. Thus, when Congress intended to delegate to the Secretary the right to ignore what would otherwise be his statutory duty to enforce the removal laws, it has done so clearly. *See, e.g.*, *F.C.C. v. NextWave Personal Communications, Inc.*, 537 U.S. 293, 302 (2003) (holding that when Congress has intended to create exceptions to bankruptcy law requirements, "it has done so clearly and expressly"); *Franklin Nat'l Bank v. New York*, 347 U.S. 373, 378 (1954) (finding no indication that Congress intended to make the phase of national banking at issue there subject to local restrictions, as it had done by express language in other instances); *Meghrig v. KFC Western, Inc.*, 516 U.S. 479, 485 (1996) ("Congress . . . demonstrated in CERCLA that it knew how to provide for the recovery of cleanup costs, and . . . the language used to define the remedies under RCRA does not provide that remedy.").

The DHS cannot reasonably claim that, under a general delegation to establish enforcement policies, it can establish a blanket policy of non-enforcement that also awards legal presence and benefits to otherwise removable aliens. As a general matter of statutory interpretation, if Congress intended to confer that kind of discretion through the HSA Provision (and INA Provision) to apply to all of its mandates under these statutes, there would have been no need to expressly and specifically confer discretion in only a few provisions. The canon of statutory construction warning against rendering superfluous any statutory language strongly supports this conclusion. *See As-*

toria Fed. Sav. & Loan Ass'n v. Solimino, 501 U.S. 104, 112 (1991).

Despite this, the Government argues that the INA Provision and the HSA Provision, combined with inherent executive discretion, permits the enactment of DAPA. While the Government would not totally concede this point in oral argument, the logical end point of its argument is that the DHS, solely pursuant to its implied authority and general statutory enforcement authority, could have made DAPA applicable to all 11.3 million immigrants estimated to be in the country illegally. This Court finds that the discretion given to the DHS Secretary is not unlimited.

Two points are obvious, and each pertain to one of the three statutes (5 U.S.C. § 701, 6 U.S.C. § 202, and 8 U.S.C. § 1103) at issue here. The first pertains to prosecutorial discretion and the INA Provision and the HSA Provision. The implementation of DAPA is clearly not "necessary" for Secretary Johnson to carry out his authority under either title of the federal code. The Secretary of the DHS has the authority, as discussed above, to dictate DHS objectives and marshal its resources accordingly. Just as this Court noted earlier when it refused the States standing to pursue certain damages, the same is true here. The DAPA recipients have been present in the United States for at least five years; yet, the DHS has not sought them out and deported them.[75]

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[75] The implementation of DAPA is not a necessary adjunct for the operation of the DHS or for effecting its stated priorities. In fact, one could argue given the resources it is using and manpower it is

The Court notes that it might be a point of discussion as to what "legal presence" constitutes, but it cannot be questioned that DAPA awards some form of affirmative status, as evidenced by the DHS' own website. It tells DACA recipients that:

> *[Y]ou are considered to be lawfully present in the United States* . . . and are not precluded from establishing domicile in the United States. Apart from immigration laws, "lawful presence," "lawful status," and similar terms are used in various other federal and state laws.[76]

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either hiring or shifting from other duties, that DAPA will actually hinder the operation of the DHS. *See Executive Actions on Immigration*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/immigrationaction (last updated Jan. 30, 2015) ("USCIS will need to adjust its staffing to sufficiently address this new workload. Any new hiring will be funded through application fees rather than appropriated funds . . . . USCIS is working hard to build capacity and increase staffing to begin accepting requests and applications . . . ."). *See also* Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 23 (Palinkas Dec.) ("USCIS has announced that it will create a new service center to process DAPA applications . . . . and it will be staffed by approximately 1,000 federal employees. Approximately 700 of them will be USCIS employees, and approximately 300 of them will be federal contractors."). However, such considerations are beside the point for resolving the issue currently before the Court.

[76] *See Frequently Asked Questions, Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Process*, Official Website of the DHS, http://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-process/frequently-asked-questions (last updated Feb. 11, 2015) (emphasis added). *See also* Doc. No 38, Def. Ex. 6 at 11 (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS), Deferred Action For Childhood Arrivals (DACA) Toolkit: Resources for Community Partners (2014)). This response clearly demonstrates that the DHS knew by DACA (and now by DAPA)

It is this affirmative action that takes Defendants' actions outside the realm of prosecutorial discretion, and it is this action that will cause the States the injury for which they have been conferred standing to seek redress.

The second obvious point is that no statute gives the DHS the power it attempts to exercise. As previously explained, Section 701(a)(2) of the APA forbids reviewability of acts "committed to agency discretion by law." The Government has pointed this Court to no law that gives the DHS such wide-reaching discretion to turn 4.3 million individuals from one day being illegally in the country to the next day having lawful presence.

The DHS' job is to enforce the laws Congress passes and the President signs (or at least does not veto). It has broad discretion to utilize when it is enforcing a law. Nevertheless, no statute gives the DHS the discretion it is trying to exercise here.[77] Thus, Defendants are without express authority to do so by law, especially since by Congressional Act, the DAPA recipients are illegally present in this country. As stated before, most, if not all, fall into one of two categories. They either illegally entered the country, or they entered legally and then overstayed their per-

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that by giving the recipients legal status, it was triggering obligations on the states as well as the federal government.

[77] Indeed, no law enacted by Congress expressly provides for deferred action as a form of temporary relief. Only regulations implemented by the Executive Branch provide for deferred action. That is not to say that deferred action itself is necessarily unlawful —an issue on which this Court need not touch.

mission to stay. Under current law, regardless of the genesis of their illegality, the Government is charged with the duty of removing them. Subsection 1225(b)(1)(A) states unequivocally that the DHS "shall order the alien removed from the United States without further hearing or review . . . ." Section 1227, the corresponding section, orders the same for aliens who entered legally, but who have violated their status. While several generations of statutes have amended both the categorization and in some aspects the terminology, one thing has remained constant: the duty of the Federal Government is to effectuate the removal of illegal aliens. The Supreme Court most recently affirmed this duty in *Arizona v. United States*: "ICE officers are responsible for the identification, apprehension, and removal of illegal aliens." 132 S. Ct. at 2500.

Notably, the applicable statutes use the imperative term "shall," not the permissive term "may."[78] There

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[78] The Court additionally notes that in 8 U.S.C. § 1227 ("Deportable Aliens") Congress uses both "may" and "shall" within the same section, which distinguishes the occasions in which the Secretary has discretion to award a stay from removal from when he is required to remove an alien. For instance, in § 1227(a), an alien "shall" be removed upon order of the Secretary if he or she is in one of the classes of deportable aliens. In § 1227(d), however, Congress provides circumstances when the Secretary "may" award an administrative stay of removal. *See Lopez v. Davis*, 531 U.S. 230, 241 (2001) ("Congress' use of the permissive 'may' . . . contrasts with the legislators' use of the mandatory 'shall' in the very same section."); *United States ex rel. Siegel v. Thoman*, 156 U.S. 353, 359-60 (1895) ("[I]n the law to be construed here, it is evident that the word 'may' is used in special contradistinction to the word 'shall.'").

are those who insist that such language imposes an absolute duty to initiate removal and no discretion is permitted.[79] Others take the opposition position, interpreting "shall" to mean "may."[80] This Court finds both positions to be wanting. "Shall" indicates a congressional mandate that does not confer discretion— i.e., one which should be complied with to the extent possible and to the extent one's resources allow.[81] It does not divest the Executive Branch of its inherent discretion to formulate the best means of achieving the objective, but it does deprive the Executive Branch of its ability to directly and substantially contravene statutory commands. Congress' use of the term "may," on the other hand, indicates a Congressional grant of discretion to the Executive to either accept or not accept the goal.

In the instant case, the DHS is tasked with the duty of removing illegal aliens. Congress has provided that it "shall" do this. Nowhere has Congress given it the option to either deport these individuals or give them legal presence and work permits. The DHS does have the discretion and ability to determine *how* it will effectuate its statutory duty and use its resources where they will do the most to achieve the

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[79] See the plaintiffs' contentions as recounted in the court's Memorandum Opinion and Order dated April 23, 2013, in *Crane v. Napolitano*, No. 3:12-cv-03247-O, 2013 WL 1744422, at *5 (N.D. Tex. Apr. 23, 2013).

[80] *See, e.g., Matter of E-R-M & L-R-M*, 25 I&N Dec. 520 (BIA 2011).

[81] *See Lopez*, 531 U.S. at 241 (distinguishing between Congress' use of the "permissive may" and the "mandatory shall" and noting that "shall" "imposes discretionless obligations").

goals expressed by Congress. Thus, this Court rejects both extremes. The word "shall" is imperative and, regardless of whether or not it eliminates discretion, it certainly deprives the DHS of the right to do something that is clearly contrary to Congress' intent.

That being the case, this Court finds that the presumption of unreviewability, even if available here, is also rebuttable under the express theory recognized by the *Heckler* Court. In *Heckler*, the Supreme Court indicated that an agency's decision to "'consciously and expressly adopt[] a general policy' that is so extreme as to amount to an abdication of its statutory responsibilities," would not warrant the presumption of unreviewability. 470 U.S. at 833 n.4 (citing *Adams v. Richardson*, 480 F.2d 1159 (D.C. Cir. 1973)).[82]

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[82] In *Adams*, as noted above in the abdication discussion, the agency-defendants (including executive officials of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW)) were sued for not exercising their duty to enforce Title VI of the Civil Rights Act because they had not been taking appropriate action to end segregation in schools receiving federal funds, as required by the Act. Defendants insisted that enforcement of Title VI was committed to agency discretion and thus that their actions were unreviewable. The Court first noted that the agency-discretion-exception in the APA is a narrow one, citing *Citizens to Preserve Overton Park*. It found that the statute provided "with precision the measures available to enforce" Title VI and thus the terms of the statute were "not so broad as to preclude judicial review." Like Defendants here, the defendants in *Adams* relied on cases in which courts declined to interfere with exercises of prosecutorial discretion. Rejecting defendants' reliance on those cases, the court emphasized: "[t]hose cases do not support a claim to absolute discretion and are, in any event, distinguishable from the case at bar." Unlike the cases cited, Title

Since *Heckler* and *Adams*, it has clearly been the law that "[r]eal or perceived inadequate enforcement of immigration laws does not constitute a reviewable abdication of duty." *See Texas*, 106 F.3d at 667. That is not the situation here. This Court finds that DAPA does not simply constitute *inadequate* enforcement; it is an announced program of non-enforcement of the law that contradicts Congress' statutory goals. Unlike the Government's position in *Texas v. U.S.*, the Government here is "doing nothing to enforce" the removal laws against a class of millions of individuals (and is additionally providing those individuals legal presence and benefits). *See id.* Furthermore, if implemented exactly like DACA (a conclusion this Court makes based upon the record), the Government has publicly declared that it will make no attempt to enforce the law against even those who are denied deferred action (absent extraordinary circumstances).[83] Theoretically, the remaining 6-7 million illegal immigrants (at least those who do not have criminal records or pose a threat to national security or public safety) could apply and, thus, fall into this category.[84]

VI required the agency to enforce the Act and also set forth specific enforcement procedures. The INA removal provisions at issue here are no different and, like those at issue in *Adams*, are not so broad as to preclude review.

[83] *See Frequently Asked Questions, Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Process,* Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-process/frequently-asked-questions#DACA%20process (last updated Dec. 4, 2014).

[84] *See also* Press Release, Remarks by the President on Immigration-Chicago, IL, The White House Office of the Press Secretary (Nov. 25, 2014) ("*[T]he way the change in the law works* is that

DAPA does not represent mere inadequacy; it is complete abdication.

The DHS does have discretion in the manner in which it chooses to fulfill the expressed will of Congress. It cannot, however, enact a program whereby it not only ignores the dictates of Congress, but actively acts to thwart them. As the Government's own legal memorandum—which purports to justify DAPA—sets out, "the Executive cannot, under the guise of exercising enforcement discretion, attempt to effectively rewrite the laws to match its policy preferences." *See* Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 2 at 6 (OLC Op.) (citing *Heckler*, 470 U.S. at 833 (an agency may not "disregard legislative direction in the statutory scheme that [it] administers")). The DHS Secretary is not just rewriting the laws; he is creating them from scratch.

b. Past Uses of Deferred Action

Defendants argue that historical precedent of Executive-granted deferred action justifies DAPA as a lawful exercise of discretion. In response, the Plaintiffs go to great lengths to distinguish past deferred action programs from the current one, claiming each program in the past was substantially smaller in scope. The Court need not decide the similarities or differences between this action and past ones, however,

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we're reprioritizing how we enforce our immigration laws generally. So not everybody qualifies for being able to sign up and register, *but the change in priorities applies to everybody*."). (Court's emphasis). Thus, as under the DACA Directives, absent exceptional circumstances, the DHS is not going to remove those who do not qualify for DAPA either.

because past Executive practice does not bear directly on the legality of what is now before the Court. Past action previously taken by the DHS does not make its current action lawful. President Truman in *Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co. v. Sawyer*, similarly sought "color of legality from claimed executive precedents," arguing that, although Congress had not expressly authorized his action, "practice of prior Presidents has authorized it." 343 U.S. at 648. The Supreme Court firmly rejected the President's argument finding that the claimed past executive actions could not "be regarded as even a precedent, much less an authority for the present [action]." *Id.* at 649; *see also Professionals & Patients for Customized Care v. Shalala*, 56 F.3d 592, 596 n.27 (5th Cir. 1995) ("[T]he fact that we previously found another FDA compliance policy guide to be a policy statement [and thus not subject to the APA's formal procedures] is not dispositive whether CPG 7132.16 is a policy statement.").

The Supreme Court was again faced with the argument that action taken by the President was presumptively lawful based on the "longstanding practice" of the Executive in *Medellin*, 552 U.S. at 530-32. There, the Federal Government cited cases that held, "if pervasive enough, history of congressional acquiescence can be treated as a gloss on Executive power vested in the President by § 1 of Art. II." *Id.* at 531 (internal citations and quotations marks omitted). The Supreme Court, however, distinguished those cases as involving a narrow set of circumstances; they were "based on the view that 'a systematic, unbroken, executive practice, long pursued to the knowledge of the Congress and never before questioned,' can 'raise

a presumption that the [action] had been [taken] in pursuance of [Congress'] consent.'" *Id.* (quoting *Dames & Moore v. Regan*, 453 U.S. 654 (1981)). In these "narrowly" construed cases cited by the government there, the Court had upheld the (same) Executive action involved in each as "a particularly longstanding practice . . . . [g]iven the fact that the practice [went] back over 200 years, and [had] received congressional acquiescence throughout its history . . . ." *Id.* In *Medellin*, the Supreme Court clarified that, even in those cases, however, "the limitations on this source of executive power are clearly set forth and the Court has been careful to note that 'past practice does not, by itself, create power.'" *Id.* at 531-32. Thus, the *Medellin* Court found that President Bush's "Memorandum [was] not supported by a 'particularly longstanding practice' of congressional acquiescence . . . , but rather [was] what the United States itself [had] described as 'unprecedented action.'" *Id.* at 532. Here, DAPA, like President Bush's Memorandum/ directive issued to state courts in *Medellin*, is not a "longstanding practice" and certainly cannot be characterized as "systematic" or "unbroken." Most importantly, the Court is not bound by past practices (especially ones that are different in kind and scope)[85] when determining the legality of the current one. Past practice by immigration officials does not create a source of power for the DHS to im-

[85] A member of the President's own Office of Legal Counsel, in advising the President and the DHS on the legality of DAPA, admitted that the program was unprecedented in that it exceeded past programs "in size." S*e*e Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 2 at 30 (OLC Memo).

plement DAPA. *See id.* at 531-32. In sum, Defendants' attempt to find a source of discretion committed to it by law (for purposes of Section 701(a)(2)) through Congress's alleged acquiescence of its past, smaller-scaled grants of deferred action is unpersuasive, both factually and legally.

i. Rulemaking Under the APA

Neither party appears to contest that, under the APA, the DAPA Directive is an agency "rule,"[86] and its issuance therefore represents "rulemaking." *See* 5 U.S.C. § 551(4) ("'[R]ule' means the whole or a part of an agency statement of general or particular applicability and future effect designed to implement, interpret, or prescribe law or policy or describing the organization, procedure, or practice requirements of an agency . . . ."); *id.* § 551(5) ("'[R]ule making' means agency process for formulating, amending, or repealing a rule."). Thus, it is clear that the rulemaking provisions of the APA apply here. The question is whether Defendants are exempt from complying with

[86] While Defendants in one place assert in passing that the DAPA Directive is not a rule, it is in the context of distinguishing a substantive rule from a statement of policy. [See Doc. No. 38 at 45 ("[T]he Deferred Action Guidance is not a rule, but a policy that 'supplements and amends . . . guidance' . . . *Further*, unlike *substantive rules*, a general statement of policy is one 'that does not impose any rights or obligations' . . . .").]. There can be no doubt that the DAPA Directive is a rule within the meaning of § 551 of the APA. Instead, the issue focuses on whether the rule is substantive, subjecting it to the formal procedural requirements for rule making, or whether it is exempt from those requirements.

specific procedural mandates within those rulemaking provisions.[87]

Section 553 of Title 5, United States Code, dictates the formal rulemaking procedures by which an agency must abide when promulgating a rule. Under Section 553(b), "[g]eneral notice of proposed rule making shall be published in the Federal Register." 5 U.S.C. § 553(b). The required notice must include "(l) a statement of the time, place, and nature of public rule making proceedings; (2) reference to the legal authority under which the rule is proposed; and (3) either the terms or substance of the proposed rule or a description of the subjects and issues involved." *Id.* Upon providing the requisite notice, the agency must give interested parties the opportunity to participate and comment and the right to petition for or against the rule. *See id.* § 553(c)-(e).

There are two express exceptions to this notice-and-comment requirement, one of which Defendants argue applies in this case. Pursuant to Section 553(b)(3)(A), the APA's formal rulemaking procedures do not apply to "interpretative rules, general statements of policy, or rules of agency organization, procedure, or practice." *Id.* § 553(b)(3)(A). On the other hand, if a rule is "substantive," this exception does not apply, and all notice-and-comment requirements "must be adhered to scrupulously." *Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 595. The Fifth Circuit has stressed that the "'APA's notice and com-

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[87] Interestingly, the legal memorandum from the President's Office of Legal Counsel, whose opinion the Defendants have cited to justify DAPA, in no way opines that the DHS may ignore the requirements of the APA.

ment exemptions must be narrowly construed.'" *Id.* (quoting *United States v. Picciotto*, 875 F.2d 345, 347 (D.C. Cir. 1989)).

The APA does not define "general statements of policy" or "substantive rules"; however, the case law in this area is fairly well-developed and provides helpful guidelines in characterizing a rule. With that said, the analysis substantially relies on the specific facts of a given case and, thus, the results are not always consistent. Here, Plaintiffs' procedural APA claim turns on whether the DAPA Directive is a substantive rule or a general statement of policy.[88] If it is substantive, it is "unlawful, for it was promulgated without the requisite notice-and-comment." *Id.*

This Circuit, following guidelines laid out in various cases by the D.C. Circuit, utilizes two criteria to distinguish substantive rules from nonsubstantive rules:

> First, courts have said that, unless a pronouncement acts prospectively, it is a binding norm. Thus . . . a *statement of policy may not have a present effect*: "a 'general statement of policy' is one that does not impose any rights and obligations" . . . . The second criterion is whether a

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[88] Defendants specifically assert that the DAPA Directive is a general statement of policy. They do not argue that it is an "interpretative rule[]" or a "rule[] of agency organization, procedure, or practice" under § 553(b)(3)(A). Nor do they cite the other exception provided for in § 553(b)(3)(B) ("[W]hen the agency for good cause finds . . . that notice and public procedure thereon are impracticable, unnecessary, or contrary to the public interest."). Thus, this Court will confine its analysis to whether the Directive is a general statement of policy or substantive rule.

> purported policy statement genuinely leaves the agency and its decisionmakers free to exercise discretion.
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> The court [in *Community Nutrition Institute v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943 (D.C. Cir. 1987)] further explained that "*binding effect*, not the timing, . . . *is the essence of criterion one*." In analyzing these criteria, we are to give some deference, "albeit 'not overwhelming,'" to the agency's characterization of its own rule.

Id. (emphasis added) (citations omitted).

The rule's effect on agency discretion is the primary determinant in characterizing a rule as substantive or nonsubstantive. *Id.* ("While mindful but suspicious of the agency's own characterization, we follow the D.C. Circuit's analysis . . . , focusing primarily on whether the rule has binding effect on agency discretion or severely restricts it."). For instance, rules that award rights, impose obligations, or have other significant effects on private interests have been found to have a binding effect on agency discretion and are thus considered substantive. *Id.* n.19 (citing *Avoyelles Sportsmen's League, Inc. v. Marsh*, 715 F.2d 897, 908 (5th Cir. 1983)). A rule, while not binding per se, is still considered substantive if it "severely restricts" agency discretion. Put another way, any rule that "narrowly constrict[s] the discretion of agency officials by largely determining the issue addressed" is substantive. *Id.* n.20. Lastly, a substantive rule is generally characterized as one that "establishes a standard of conduct which has the force of law." *Id.* (quoting *Panhandle Producers & Royalty Owners Ass'n v.*

Econ. Regulatory Admin., 84 7 F.2d 1168, 1174 (5th Cir. 1988)).

In sharp contrast to a substantive rule, a general statement of policy does not establish a binding norm, nor is it "finally determinative of the issues or rights to which it is addressed." *Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 596. A general statement of policy is best characterized as announcing the agency's "tentative intentions for the future." *Id.* Thus, it cannot be applied or relied upon as law because a statement of policy merely proclaims what an agency seeks to establish as policy.[89] *See id.*

(1) The Government's Characterization of DAPA

Both parties[90] acknowledge that, in line with the Fifth Circuit's analysis above, the starting point in determining whether a rule is substantive or merely a

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[89] The Fifth Circuit in *Panhandle Producers* further defined a general statement of policy:

> When the agency applies the policy in a particular situation, it must be prepared to support the policy just as if the policy statement had never been issued. An agency cannot escape its responsibility to present evidence and reasoning supporting its substantive rules by announcing binding precedent in the form of a general statement of policy.

847 F.2d at 1175.

[90] Although Plaintiffs strenuously insist that Defendants "mislabel" the DAPA Directive and that an agency's characterization of its own rule is "self-aggrandizement," they apparently agree that the agency's characterization is at least relevant to the analysis. *See* Doc. No. 64 at 38 (citing *Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 596, where the Fifth Circuit states that an agency's characterization of its own rule, while not conclusive, is the starting point to the analysis).

statement of policy is the DHS' own characterization of the DAPA Directive. Defendants insist that the Directive is "a policy that 'supplements and amends . . . guidance' for the use of deferred action." [Doc. No. 38 at 45]. In their briefings before the Court, Defendants label DAPA "Deferred Action Guidance."[91] The Court finds Defendants' labeling disingenuous and, as discussed below, contrary to the substance of DAPA. Although Defendants refer to DAPA as a "guidance" in their briefings and in the DAPA Memo-

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[91] The DHS may have a number of reasons for using the language and specific terms it uses in the DAPA Memorandum—whether to assure itself, the public and/or a future reviewing court that it need not comply with formal agency rulemaking procedures, or simply because it is standard language used in its other memoranda. The Court, however, finds substance to be more important than form in this case. The DHS' actions prove more instructive than its labels.

Moreover, the Court notes that it is not bound by any decision a different court may have reached regarding the characterization of a *prior* DHS/INS memorandum (e.g., the Ninth Circuit's opposing holdings in *Nicholas v. INS*, 590 F.2d 802 (9th Cir. 1979) and *Mada-Luna v. Fitzpatrick*, 813 F.2d 1006 (9th Cir. 1987)). For one, past DHS/INS memoranda, including the operating instructions reviewed in the 1970s and 80s by the Ninth Circuit, have been expressly superseded by subsequent DHS memoranda or instructions. Further, both Ninth Circuit opinions (each dealing with a different INS memorandum) support this Court's findings on the characterization of DAPA. Finally, as the Fifth Circuit has held, a prior court ruling that characterizes an agency's rule as a general statement of policy is not dispositive in determining the characterization of that agency's current rule. *See Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 596 n.27 ("[T]he fact that we previously found another FDA compliance policy guide to be a policy statement is not dispositive whether [the current FDA compliance policy guide] is a policy statement."). This rule would be especially applicable to a directive that changes the current law.

randum, elsewhere, it is given contradictory labels. For instance, on the official website of the DHS, DAPA is referred to as "a new Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents *program*."[92]

The DHS website does use the term "guidelines" in describing DAPA's criteria; however, this is only in the context of a "list" of guidelines that candidates must satisfy in order to qualify for DAPA (or the newly expanded DACA).[93] Thus, not only does this usage of the term "guidelines" not refer to the DAPA program itself, but it is also a misnomer because these "guidelines" are in fact requirements to be accepted under these programs. Throughout its description of DAPA, the DHS website also refers to the various "executive actions" taken in conjunction with the implementation of the DAPA Directive as "initiatives." *Id.* ("On November 20, 2014, the President announced a series of executive actions . . . . These initiatives include . . . ."). For example, the site states that "USCIS and other agencies and offices are responsible for implementing these initiatives as soon as possible." *Id.* The term "initiative" is defined in Black's Law Dictionary as:

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[92] *Executive Actions on Immigration*, Official Website of the Dept. of Homeland Security, http://www.uscis.gov/immigrationaction (last updated Jan. 30, 2015) (emphasis added); *see also*, Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A ("In order to further effectuate this program, I hereby direct USCIS to expand DACA as follows . . . .").

[93] *See, e.g., id.* (listing out the new DACA criteria and including as the last criterion, "meet all the other DACA guidelines").

> An electoral process by which a percentage of voters can *propose legislation* and compel a vote on it by the legislature or by the full electorate. Recognized in some state constitutions, the initiative is one of the few methods of direct democracy in an otherwise representative system.

Black's Law Dictionary (9th ed. 2009) (emphasis added) (the sole definition offered for "initiative"). An "initiative," by definition, is a legislative process—the very thing in which Defendants insist they have not partaken.

What is perhaps most perplexing about the Defendants' claim that DAPA is merely "guidance" is the President's own labeling of the program. In formally announcing DAPA to the nation for the first time, President Obama stated, "I just took an action to change the law."[94] He then made a "deal" with potential candidates of DAPA: "if you have children who are American citizens . . . if you've taken responsibility, you've registered, undergone a background check, you're paying taxes, you've been here for five years, you've got roots in the community—*you're not*

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[94] Press Release, Remarks by the President on Immigration — Chicago, IL, The White House Office of the Press Secretary (Nov. 25, 2014) ("But what you're not paying attention to is the fact that I just took action to change the law . . . . [t]he way the change in the law works is that we're reprioritizing how we enforce our immigration laws generally. So not everybody qualifies for being able to sign up and register, but the change in priorities applies to everybody.").

going to be deported . . . . If you meet the criteria, you can come out of the shadows . . . ."[95]

While the DHS' characterization of DAPA is taken into consideration by this Court in its analysis, the "label that the . . . agency puts upon its given exercise of administrative power is not . . . conclusive; rather, it is what the agency does in fact." *Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 596 (internal quotation marks omitted) (citing *Brown Express, Inc. v. United States*, 607 F.2d 695, 700 (5th Cir. 1979)). Thus, the Court turns its attention to the primary focus of its analysis: the substance of DAPA. Nevertheless, the President's description of the DHS Directive is that it changes the law.

(2) Binding Effect

The Fifth Circuit in *Shalala* propounded as a "touchstone of a substantive rule" the rule's binding effect. The question is whether the rule establishes a "binding norm." *Id.* at 596. The President's pronouncement quoted above clearly sets out that the criteria are

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[95] President Obama, Remarks in Nevada on Immigration (Nov. 20, 2014) (emphasis added). (Court's emphasis). *See also* Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 26 (Press Release, Remarks by the President in Immigration Town Hall — Nashville, Tennessee, The White House Office of the Press Secretary (Dec. 9, 2014) ("What we're also saying, though, is that for those who have American children or children who are legal permanent residents, that you can actually register and submit yourself to a criminal background check, pay any back taxes and commit to paying future taxes, *and if you do that, you'll actually get a piece of paper that gives you an assurance that you can work and live here without fear of deportation*.") (emphasis added)).

binding norms. Quoting the Eleventh Circuit, the *Shalala* Court emphasized:

> The key inquiry . . . is the extent to which the challenged policy leaves the agency free to exercise its discretion to follow or not to follow that general policy in an individual case, or on the other hand, whether the policy *so fills out the statutory scheme that upon application one need only determine whether a given case is within the rule's criteria.* As long as the agency remains free to consider the individual facts in the various cases that arise, then the agency action in question has not established a binding norm.

Id. at 596-97 (quoting *Ryder Truck Lines, Inc. v. United States*, 716 F.2d 1369, 1377 (11th Cir. 1983)). In this case, upon application, USCIS personnel working in service centers (established for the purpose of receiving DACA and DAPA applications), need only determine whether a case is within the set-criteria. If not, applicants are immediately denied.

Despite the DAPA memorandum's use of phrases such as "case-by-case basis" and "discretion," it is clear from the record that the only discretion that has been or will be exercised is that already exercised by Secretary Johnson in enacting the DAPA program and establishing the criteria therein. That criteria is binding. At a minimum, the memorandum "severely restricts" any discretion that Defendants argue exists. It ensures that "officers will be provided with *specific* eligibility criteria for deferred action." Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A at 5 (emphasis added). Indeed, the

"Operating Procedures" for implementation of DACA[96] contains nearly 150 pages[97] of specific instructions for granting or denying deferred action to applicants.[98] Denials are recorded in a "check the box" standardized form, for which USCIS personnel are provided templates.[99] Certain denials of DAPA must be sent to a supervisor for approval before issuing the denial.[100] Further, there is no option for granting DAPA to an individual who does not meet each criterion.[101] With

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[96] There is no reason to believe that DAPA will be implemented any differently than DACA. In fact, there is every reason to believe it will be implemented exactly the same way. The DAPA Memorandum in several places compares the procedure to be taken for DAPA to that of DACA. *[See, e.g.*, Doc. No. l, Ex. I at 5 ("As with DACA, the above criteria are to be considered for all individuals encountered . . . .")].

[97] The Court was not provided with the complete Instructions and thus cannot provide an accurate page number.

[98] *See* Doc. No. 64, Ex. 10 (National Standard Operating Procedures (SOP), Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA), (Form I-821D and Form 1-765)).

[99] *See id.* Defendants assert that "even though standardized forms are used to record decisions, those decisions are to be made on a case-by-case basis." [Doc. No. 130 at 34]. For one, the Court is unaware of a "form" or other process for recording any discretionary denial based on factors other than the set-criteria (to the extent that such a denial is even genuinely available to an officer). Further, the means for making such discretionary decisions are limited considering the fact that applications are handled in a service center and decisions regarding deferred action are no longer made in field offices where officers may interview the immigrant.

[100] *See id.* at 96.

[101] Defendants argue that officers retain the ability to exercise discretion on an individualized basis in reviewing DAPA applications as evidenced by the last factor listed in DAPA's criteria

that criteria set, from the President down to the indi-

("present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate"). Evidence of DACA's approval rate, however, persuades the Court that this "factor" is merely pretext. As previously noted, there is every indication, including express statements made by the Government, that DAPA will be implemented in the same fashion as DACA. No DACA application that has met the criteria has been denied based on an exercise of individualized discretion. Whether Plaintiffs' or Defendants' calculations are correct, it is clear that only 1-6% of applications have been denied at all, and all were denied for failure to meet the criteria (or "rejected" for technical filing errors, errors in filling out the form or lying on the form, and failures to pay fees), or for fraud. See, e.g., Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 29 at App. p. 0978; *id.* Pl. Ex. 23 at 3 (Palinkas Dec.) (citing a 99.5% approval rate for all DACA applications from USCIS reports). Other sources peg the acceptance rate at approximately 95%, but, again, there were apparently no denials for those who met the criteria.

The Court in oral argument specifically asked for evidence of individuals who had been denied for reasons other than not meeting the criteria or technical errors with the form and/or filing. Except for fraud, which always disqualifies someone from any program, the Government did not provide that evidence. Defendants claim that some requests have been denied for public safety reasons (e.g. where the requestor was suspected of gang-related activity or had a series of arrests), or where the requestor had made false prior claims of U.S. citizenship. Public safety threats and fraud are specifically listed in the Operation Instructions as reasons to deny relief, however. More importantly, one of the criterion for DAPA is that the individual not be an enforcement priority as reflected in another November 20, 2014 Memorandum ("Policies for the Apprehension, Detention, and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants"). That DHS memorandum lists a threat to public safety as a reason to prioritize an individual for removal in the category, "Priority l" (the highest priority group). *See* Doc. No. 38, Def. Ex. 5 at 5 (Nov. 20, 2014, Memorandum, "Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants").

vidual USCIS employees actually processing the applications, discretion is virtually extinguished.

In stark contrast to a policy statement that "does not impose any rights and obligations" and that "*genuinely* leaves the agency and its decisionmakers free to exercise discretion," the DAPA Memorandum confers the right to be legally present in the United States and enables its beneficiaries to receive other benefits as laid out above. The Court finds that DAPA's disclaimer that the "memorandum confers no substantive right, immigration status, or pathway to citizenship" may make these rights revocable, but not less valuable. While DAPA does not provide legal permanent residency, it certainly provides a legal benefit in the form of legal presence (plus all that it entails)—a benefit not otherwise available in immigration laws. The DAPA Memorandum additionally imposes specific, detailed and immediate obligations upon DHS personnel—both in its substantive instructions and in the manner in which those instructions are carried out. Nothing about DAPA "*genuinely* leaves the agency and its [employees] free to exercise discretion." In this case, actions speak louder than words.

(3) Substantive Change in Existing Law

Another consideration in determining a rule's substantive character is whether it is essentially a "legislative rule." A rule is "legislative" if it "supplements a statute, adopts a new position inconsistent with existing regulations, or otherwise effects a substantive change in existing law or policy." *Mendoza v. Perez*, 754 F.3d 1002, 1021 (D.C. Cir. 2014) (citations omitted).

The DAPA program clearly represents a substantive change in immigration policy. It is a program instituted to give a certain, newly-adopted class of 4.3 million illegal immigrants not only "legal presence" in the United States, but also the right to work legally and the right to receive a myriad of governmental benefits to which they would not otherwise be entitled.[102] It does more than "supplement" the statute; if anything, it contradicts the INA. It is, in effect, a new law. DAPA turns its beneficiaries' illegal status (whether resulting from an illegal entry or from illegally overstaying a lawful entry) into a legal presence. It represents a massive change in immigration practice, and will have a significant effect on, not only illegally-present immigrants, but also the nation's entire immigration scheme and the states who must bear the lion's share of its consequences. *See Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 597 (concluding the agency's policy guidance was not a binding norm largely because it did "*not represent a change in [agency] policy* and *[did] not have a significant effect* on [the subjects regulated]"). In the instant case, the President, himself, described it as a change.

Far from being mere advice or guidance, this Court finds that DAPA confers benefits and imposes discrete obligations (based on detailed criteria) upon those charged with enforcing it. Most importantly, it "se-

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[102] One could argue that it also benefits the DHS as it decides who to remove and where to concentrate their efforts, but the DHS did not need DAPA to do this. It could have done this merely by concentrating on its other prosecutorial priorities. Instead, it has created an entirely new bureaucracy just to handle DAPA applications.

verely restricts" agency discretion.[103] *See Community Nutrition Inst. v. Young*, 818 F.2d 943, 948 (D.C. Cir. 1987) ("[C]abining of an agency's prosecutorial discretion can in fact rise to the level of a substantive . . . rule.").

In sum, this Court finds, both factually based upon the record and the applicable law, that DAPA is a "legislative" or "substantive" rule that should have undergone the notice-and-comment rule making procedure mandated by 5 U.S.C. § 553. The DHS was not given any "discretion by law" to give 4.3 million

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[103] This is further evidenced by the "plain language" of the DAPA Directive. *See Shalala*, 56 F.3d at 597 (considering the policy's plain language in determining its binding effect). Without detailing every use of a mandatory term, instruction, or command throughout Secretary Johnson's memorandum, the Court points to a few examples:

(1) When detailing DAPA and its criteria, the Secretary states: "I hereby direct USCIS to establish a process . . . . Applicants must file the requisite applications for deferred action pursuant to the new criteria described above. Applicants must also submit biometrics . . . . Each person who applies . . . shall also be eligible to apply for work authorization . . . ."

(2) When explaining the expansion of DACA, the Secretary states: "I hereby direct USCIS to expand DACA as follows . . . DACA will apply . . . The current age restriction . . . will no longer apply . . . . The period for which DACA and the accompanying employment
authorization is granted will be extended to three-year increments, rather than two-year increments. This change shall apply to all first-time applicants . . . . USCIS should issue all work authorization documents valid for three years . . . ."

removable aliens what the DHS itself labels as "legal presence." *See* 5 U.S.C. § 701(a)(2). In fact the law *mandates* that these illegally-present individuals be removed.[104] The DHS has adopted a new rule that substantially changes both the status and employability of millions. These changes go beyond mere enforcement or even non-enforcement of this nation's immigration scheme. It inflicts major costs on both the states and federal government. Such changes, if legal, at least require compliance with the APA.[105] The Court therefore finds that, not only is DAPA reviewable, but that its adoption has violated the procedural requirements of the APA. Therefore, this Court hereby holds for purposes of the temporary injunction that the implementation of DAPA violates the APA's procedural requirements and the States have clearly proven a likelihood of success on the merits.

2. Preliminary Injunction Factor Two: Irreparable Harm

In addition to showing a likelihood of success on the merits of at least one of their claims, the Plaintiff

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[104] The Court again emphasizes that it does not find the removal provisions of the INA as depriving the Executive Branch from exercising the inherent prosecutorial discretion it possesses in enforcing the laws under which it is charged. Whether or not Defendants may exercise prosecutorial discretion by merely not removing people in individual cases is not before this Court. It is clear, however, that no *statutory* law (i.e., no express Congressional authorization) related to the removal of aliens confers upon the Executive Branch the discretion to do the opposite.

[105] This Memorandum Opinion and Order does not rule on the substantive merits of DAPA's legality.

States must also demonstrate a "likelihood of substantial and immediate irreparable injury" if the injunction is not granted, and the "inadequacy of remedies at law." *O'Shea v. Littleton*, 414 U.S. 488, 502 (1974).

It is clear that, to satisfy this factor, speculative injuries are not enough; "there must be more than an unfounded fear on the part of [Plaintiffs]." Wright & Miller § 2948.1. Thus, courts will not issue a preliminary injunction "simply to prevent the possibility of some remote future injury." *Id.* Instead, the Plaintiff States must show a "presently existing actual threat." *Id.*; *see also Winter v. Natural Res. Def Council, Inc.*, 555 U.S. 7, 22 (2008) ("We agree . . . that the Ninth Circuit's 'possibility' standard is too lenient. Our frequently reiterated standard requires plaintiffs seeking preliminary relief to demonstrate that irreparable injury is *likely* in the absence of an injunction.") (internal citations omitted). The Plaintiffs' injury need not have already been inflicted or *certain* to occur; a strong threat of irreparable injury before a trial on the merits is adequate for a preliminary injunction to issue. *See*, *e.g.*, Wright & Miller § 2948.1.

Plaintiffs allege that they will suffer two "categories" of irreparable injuries if this Court declines to grant a preliminary injunction. First, according to Plaintiffs, the DAPA Directive will cause a humanitarian crisis along the southern border of Texas and elsewhere, similar to the surge of undocumented aliens in the summer of 2014. *See* Doc. No. 5 at 25-26. The State of Texas specifically points to the economic harm it experienced in the last "wave" of illegal immigration allegedly caused by DACA. *See id.* at 26 ("Texas paid

almost $40 million for Operation Strong Safety to clean up the consequences of Defendants' actions."). Texas additionally complains of the millions of dollars it must spend each year in providing uncompensated healthcare for these increasing numbers of undocumented immigrants.

The Court finds primarily, for the reasons stated above, this claimed injury to be exactly the type of "possible remote future injury" that will not support a preliminary injunction. For the same reasons the Court denied standing to Plaintiffs on their asserted injury that DAPA will cause a wave of immigration thereby exacerbating their economic injuries, the Court does not find this category of alleged irreparable harm to be immediate, direct, or a presently- existing, actual threat that warrants a preliminary injunction. *See*, *e.g.*, *City of Los Angeles v. Lyons*, 461 U.S. 95, 102 (1983) (noting that standing considerations "obviously shade into those determining whether the complaint states a sound basis for [injunctive] relief," and that, even if a complaint presents an existing case or controversy under Article III, it may not also state an adequate basis for injunctive relief). The general harms associated with illegal immigration, that unfortunately fall on the States (some of whom must bear a disproportionate brunt of this harm), are harms that may be exacerbated by DAPA, but they are not immediately caused by it.[106] Whether or not De-

[106] Indeed, Chief Kevin Oaks, Chief of the Rio Grande Valley Sector of U.S. Border Patrol, testified before this Court in Cause No. B-14-119 that in his experience, it has been traditionally true that when an administration talks about amnesty, or some other immigration relief publicly, it increases the flow across the border

fendants' implementation of DACA in 2012 actually contributed to the flood of illegal immigration experienced by this country in 2014—an issue not directly before this Court—injuries associated with any future wave of illegal immigration that may allegedly stem from DAPA are neither immediate nor direct. *Lyons*, 461 U.S. at 102 (citing *O'Shea*, 414 U.S. at 496, in which the Court denied a preliminary injunction because the "prospect of future injury rested 'on the likelihood that [plaintiffs] [would] again be arrested for and charged with violations'" and be subjected to proceedings; thus, the "threat to the plaintiff was not sufficiently real and immediate to show an existing controversy simply because they anticipate" the same injury occurring in the future). The law is clear that "past exposure to illegal conduct does not in itself show a present case or controversy regarding injunctive relief." *Id.* Consequently, this Court will exclude Plaintiffs' first category of injuries from the Court's determination of irreparable injury.

Plaintiffs additionally allege that legalizing the presence of millions of people is a "virtually irreversible" action once taken. *See* Doc. No. 5 at 25-28. The Court agrees. First, there are millions of dollars at stake in the form of unrecoverable costs to the States if DAPA is implemented and later found unlawful in terms of infrastructure and personnel to handle the influx of applications. Doc. No. 64, Pl. Ex. 24. The

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and has an adverse effect on enforcement operations. As of the time he testified, on October 29, 2014, he stated that the DHS was preparing for another surge of immigrants given the talk of a change in immigration policy. *See* Test. of Kevin Oaks, Cause No. B-14-119 (S.F. 172-176).

direct costs to the States for providing licenses would be unrecoverable if DAPA was ultimately renounced. Further, and perhaps most importantly, the Federal Government is the sole authority for determining immigrants' lawful status and presence (particularly in light of the Supreme Court's holding in *Arizona v. United States*, 132 S. Ct. 2492 (2012)) and, therefore, the States are forced to rely on the Defendants "to faithfully determine an immigrant's status." Once Defendants make such determinations, the States accurately allege that it will be difficult or even impossible for anyone to "unscramble the egg." *Id.* Specifically, in Texas and Wisconsin, as this Court has already determined, through benefits conferred by DAPA, recipients are qualified for driver's licenses, in addition to a host of other benefits.[107]

The Court agrees that, without a preliminary injunction, any subsequent ruling that finds DAPA unlawful after it is implemented would result in the States facing the substantially difficult—if not impossible—task of retracting any benefits or licenses already provided to DAPA beneficiaries. This genie would be impossible to put back into the bottle. The Supreme Court has found irreparable injury in the form of a payment of an allegedly unconstitutional tax that could not be recovered if the law at issue was ultimately found unlawful. *See Ohio Oil Co. v. Con-*

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[107] For example, in Texas, these individuals, according to Plaintiffs, would also qualify for unemployment benefits (citing Tex. Lab. Code § 207.043(a)(2)); alcoholic beverage licenses (citing 16 Tex. Admin. Code § 33.10); licensure as private security officers (citing 37 Tex. Admin. Code § 35.21); and licensure as attorneys (citing Tex. Rules Govern. Bar Adm'n, R. II(a)(5)(d)).

way, 279 U.S. 813 (1929). There, the Court held that "[w]here the questions presented by an application for an interlocutory injunction are grave, and the injury to the moving party will be certain and irreparable, if the application be denied and the final decree be in his favor, while if the injunction be granted and the injury to the opposing party, even if the final decree be in his favor, will be inconsiderable . . . the injunction usually will be granted." *Id.* at 814.

Similarly, here, any injury to Defendants, even if DAPA is ultimately found lawful, will be insubstantial in comparison to Plaintiffs' injuries. A delay of DAPA's implementation poses no threat of immediate harm to Defendants.[108] The situation is not such that individuals are currently considered "legally present" and an injunction would remove that benefit; nor are potential beneficiaries of DAPA—who are under existing law illegally present—entitled to the benefit of legal presence such that this Court's ruling would interfere with individual rights. Preliminarily enjoining DAPA's implementation would in this case merely preserve the status quo that has always existed.

According to the authors of Wright & Miller's Federal Practice and Procedure:

> Perhaps the single most important prerequisite for the issuance of a preliminary injunction is a demonstration that if it is not granted, the applicant is likely to suffer irreparable harm before a decision

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[108] To the contrary, if individuals begin receiving benefits under DAPA but DAPA is later declared unlawful, Defendants, just like the States, would suffer irreparable injuries.

> on the merits can be rendered. Only when the threatened harm would impair the court's ability to grant an effective remedy is there really a need for preliminary relief. *Therefore, if a trial on the merits can be conducted before the injury would occur, there is no need for interlocutory relief.* In a similar vein, a preliminary injunction usually will be denied if it appears that the applicant has an adequate alternate remedy in the form of money damages or other relief.

Wright & Miller § 2948.1 (emphasis added).

Here, the Government has required that USCIS begin accepting applications for deferred action under the new DACA criteria "no later than ninety days from the date of' the announcement of the Directive. Doc. No. 1, Pl. Ex. A. The Directive was announced on November 20, 2014. Thus, by the terms of the Directive, USCIS will begin accepting applications no later than February 20, 2015. Further, as already mentioned, the DHS' website provides February 18, 2015 as the date it will begin accepting applications under DACA's new criteria, and mid-to-late May for DAPA applications. The implementation of DAPA is therefore underway. Due to these time constraints, the Court finds that a trial on the merits cannot be conducted before the process of granting deferred action under the DAPA Directive begins. Without a preliminary injunction preserving the status quo, the Court concludes that Plaintiffs will suffer irreparable harm in this case.

3. Preliminary Injunction Factors Three and Four: Balancing Hardship to Parties and the Public Interest

Before the issuance of an injunction, the law requires that courts "balance the competing claims of injury and . . . consider the effect on each party of the granting or withholding of the requested relief." *Amoco Production Co. v. Village of Gambell, Alaska*, 480 U.S. 531, 542 (1987). Thus, in addition to demonstrating threatened irreparable harm, the Plaintiffs must show that they would suffer more harm without the injunction than would the Defendants if it were granted. The award of preliminary relief is never "strictly a matter of right, even though irreparable injury may otherwise result to the plaintiff," but is rather "a matter of sound judicial discretion" and careful balancing of the interests of—and possible injuries to—the respective parties. *Yakus v. United States*, 321 U.S. 414, 440 (1944). If there is reason to believe that an injunction issued prior to a trial on the merits would be burdensome, the balance tips in favor of denying preliminary relief. *See Winter*, 555 U.S. at 27 ("The policy against the imposition of judicial restraints prior to an adjudication of the merits becomes more significant when there is reason to believe that the decree will be burdensome.") (quoting Wright & Miller § 2948.2).

The final factor in the preliminary injunction analysis focuses on policy considerations. Plaintiffs have the burden to show that if granted, a preliminary injunction would not be adverse to public interest. *Star Satellite, Inc. v. Biloxi*, 779 F.2d 1074, 1079 (5th Cir. 1986). If no public interest supports granting pre-

liminary relief, such relief should ordinarily be denied, "even if the public interest would not be harmed by one." Wright & Miller § 2948.4. "Consequently, an evaluation of the public interest should be given considerable weight in determining whether a motion for a preliminary injunction should be granted." *Id.*

Here, the Plaintiffs seek to preserve the status quo by enjoining Defendants from acting. The Court is not asked to order Defendants to take any affirmative action. *See* Wright & Miller § 2948.2 (noting that one significant factor considered by courts when balancing the hardships is whether a mandatory or prohibitory injunction is sought—the latter being substantially less burdensome to the defendant). Further, the Court's findings at the preliminary injunction stage in this case do not grant Plaintiffs all of the relief to which they would be entitled if successful at trial. *See id.* (explaining that if "a preliminary injunction would give plaintiff all or most of the relief to which the plaintiff would be entitled if successful at trial," courts are less likely to grant the injunction). Indeed, as detailed below, the Court is ruling on the likelihood of success for purposes of preliminary relief on only one of the three claims (and that one being a procedural, not a substantive claim) brought by Plaintiffs. Thus, neither of the usual concerns in considering potential burdens on a defendant in granting a preliminary injunction is applicable here. Preliminarily enjoining Defendants from carrying out the DAPA program would certainly not be "excessively burdensome" on Defendants. *See id.*

Additional considerations suggest that the Government would not be harmed at all by the issuance of

a temporary injunction before a trial is held on the merits. The DHS may continue to prosecute or not prosecute these illegally-present individuals, as current laws dictate. This has been the status quo for *at least* the last five years[109] and there is little-to-no basis to conclude that harm will fall upon the Defendants if it is temporarily prohibited from carrying out the DAPA program. If a preliminary injunction is issued and the Government ultimately prevails at a trial on the merits, it will not be harmed by the delay; if the Government ultimately loses at trial, the States avoid the harm that will be done by the issuance of SAVE-compliant IDs for millions of individuals who would not otherwise be eligible.

If the preliminary injunction is denied, Plaintiffs will bear the costs of issuing licenses and other benefits once DAPA beneficiaries—armed with Social Security cards and employment authorization documents—seek those benefits. Further, as already noted, once these services are provided, there will be no effective way of putting the toothpaste back in the tube should Plaintiffs ultimately prevail on the merits. Thus, between the actual parties, it is clear where the equities lie—in favor of granting the preliminary injunction.

This is not the end of the inquiry; in fact, in this case, it is really the tip of the iceberg. Obviously, this injunction (as long as it is in place) will prevent the

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[109] Obviously, this has been the status quo for at least the last five years with respect to the specific individuals eligible for DAPA. Given that DAPA is a program that has never before been in effect, one could also conclude that enjoining its implementation would preserve the status quo that has always existed.

immediate provision of benefits and privileges to millions of individuals who might otherwise be eligible for them in the next several months under DAPA and the extended-DACA. The Court notes that there is no indication that these individuals will otherwise be removed or prosecuted. They have been here for the last five years and, given the humanitarian concerns expressed by Secretary Johnson, there is no reason to believe they will be removed now. On the other hand, if the Court denies the injunction and these individuals accept Secretary Johnson's invitation to come out of the shadows, there may be dire consequences for them if DAPA is later found to be illegal or unconstitutional. The DHS—whether under this administration or the next—will then have all pertinent identifying information for these immigrants and could deport them.

For the members of the public who are citizens or otherwise in the country legally, their range of interests may vary substantially: from an avid interest in the DAPA program's consequences to complete disinterest. This Court finds that, directly interested or not, the public interest factor that weighs the heaviest is ensuring that actions of the Executive Branch (and within it, the DHS—one of the nation's most important law enforcement agencies) comply with this country's laws and its Constitution. At a minimum, compliance with the notice-and-comment procedures of the APA will allow those interested to express their views and have them considered.

Consequently, the Court finds, when taking into consideration the interests of all concerned, the equities strongly favor the issuance of an injunction to preserve the status quo. It is far preferable to have

the legality of these actions determined before the fates of over four million individuals are decided. An injunction is the only way to accomplish that goal.

The Court finds that Plaintiffs' injuries cannot be redressed through a judicial remedy after a hearing on the merits and thus that a preliminary injunction is necessary to preserve the status quo in this case. While recognizing that a preliminary injunction is sometimes characterized as a "drastic" remedy, the Court finds that the judicial process would be rendered futile in this case if the Court denied preliminary relief and proceeded to a trial on the merits. If the circumstances underlying this case do not qualify for preliminary relief to preserve the status quo, this Court finds it hard to imagine what case would.

C. Remaining Claims

In this order, the Court is specifically not addressing Plaintiffs' likelihood of success on their *substantive* APA claim or their constitutional claims under the Take Care Clause/separation of powers doctrine. Judging the constitutionality of action taken by a co-equal branch of government is a "grave[]" and "delicate duty" that the federal judiciary is called on to perform. *Nw. Austin Mun. Util. Dist. No. One v. Holder*, 557 U.S. 193, 204 (2009) (citations omitted). The Court is mindful of its constitutional role to ensure that the powers of each branch are checked and balanced; nevertheless, if there is a non-constitutional ground upon which to adjudge the case, it is a "well-established principle governing the prudent exercise of this Court's jurisdiction that normally the Court will not decide a constitutional question." *Id.* at 205 (quoting *Escambia Cnty. v. McMillan*, 466 U.S. 48, 51

(1984) (*per curiam*)). In this case, the Plaintiffs brought substantive and procedural claims under the APA in addition to their constitutional claim to challenge the Defendants' actions. All three claims are directed at the same Defendants and challenge the same executive action. Thus, the Court need only find a likelihood of success on one of these claims in order to grant the requested relief. This "constitutional avoidance" principle is particularly compelling in the preliminary injunction context because the Court is not abstaining from considering the merits of Plaintiffs' constitutional claim altogether. It is only declining to address it now.[110]

Consequently, despite the fact that this ruling may imply that the Court finds differing degrees of merit as to the remaining claims, it is specifically withholding a ruling upon those issues until there is further development of the record. As stated above, preliminary injunction requests are by necessity the product of a less formal and less complete presentation. This Court, given the importance of these issues to millions of individuals—indeed, in the abstract, to virtually every person in the United States—and given the serious constitutional issues at stake, finds it to be in

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[110] Given the dearth of cases in which the Take Care Clause has been pursued as a cause of action rather than asserted as an affirmative defense (and indeed the dearth of cases discussing the Take Care Clause at all), a complete record would no doubt be valuable for this Court to decide these unique claims. It also believes that should the Government comply with the procedural aspects of the APA, that process may result in the availability of additional information for this Court to have in order for it to consider the substantive APA claim under 5 U.S.C. § 706.

the interest of justice to rule after each side has had an opportunity to make a complete presentation.

VI. CONCLUSION

This Court, for the reasons discussed above, hereby grants the Plaintiff States' request for a preliminary injunction. It hereby finds that at least Texas has satisfied the necessary standing requirements that the Defendants have clearly legislated a substantive rule without complying with the procedural requirements under the Administration Procedure Act. The Injunction is contained in a separate order. Nonetheless, for the sake of clarity, this temporary injunction enjoins the implementation of the DAPA program that awards legal presence and additional benefits to the four million or more individuals potentially covered by the DAPA Memorandum and to the three expansions/additions to the DACA program also contained in the same DAPA Memorandum.[111] It does not enjoin or impair the Secretary's ability to marshal his assets or deploy the resources of the DHS. It does not enjoin the Secretary's ability to set priorities for the DHS. It does not enjoin the previously instituted 2012 DACA program except for the expansions created in the November 20, 2014 DAPA Memorandum.

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[111] While this Court's opinion concentrates on the DAPA program, the same reasoning applies, and the facts and the law compel the same result, to the expansions of DACA contained in the DAPA Directive.

Signed this 16th day of February, 2015.

/s/ ANDREW S. HANEN
ANDREW S. HANEN
United States District Judge

APPENDIX D

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF TEXAS
BROWNSVILLE DIVISION

Civil No. B-14-254

STATE OF TEXAS, ET AL., PLAINTIFFS

v.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ET AL., DEFENDANTS

[Filed: Feb. 16, 2015]

ORDER OF TEMPORARY INJUNCTION

The Court having found that at least one Plaintiff has satisfied all the necessary elements to maintain a lawsuit and to obtain a Temporary Injunction hereby grants the Motion for Temporary Injunction [Doc. No. 5]. The United States of America, its departments, agencies, officers, agents and employees and Jeh Johnson, Secretary of the Department of Homeland Security; R. Gil Kerlikowske, Commissioner of United States Customs and Border Protection; Ronald D. Vitiello, Deputy Chief of United States Border Patrol, United States Customs and Border Protection; Thomas S. Winkowski, Acting Director of United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement; and Leon Rodriguez, Director of United States Citizenship and Im-

migration Services are hereby enjoined from implementing any and all aspects or phases of the Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents ("DAPA") program as set out in the Secretary of Homeland Security Jeh Johnson's memorandum dated November 20, 2014 ("DAPA Memorandum"), pending a final resolution of the merits of this case or until a further order of this Court, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit or the United States Supreme Court. The reasons for this injunction are set out in detail in the accompanying Memorandum Opinion and Order, but, to summarize, it is due to the failure of the Defendants to comply with the Administrative Procedure Act.

For similar reasons, the United States of America, its departments, agencies, officers, agents and employees and Jeh Johnson, Secretary of the Department of Homeland Security; R. Gil Kerlikowske, Commissioner of United States Customs and Border Protection; Ronald D. Vitiello, Deputy Chief of United States Border Patrol, United States Customs and Border Protection; Thomas S. Winkowski, Acting Director of United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement; and Leon Rodriguez, Director of United States Citizenship and Immigration Services are further enjoined from implementing any and all aspects or phases of the expansions (including any and all changes) to the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals ("DACA") program as outlined in the DAPA Memorandum pending a trial on the merits or until a further order of this

Court, the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals or the United States Supreme Court.

In addition to any other relief provided by law, the Defendants are given leave to reapproach this Court for relief from this Order, in the time period between the date of this Order and the trial on the merits, for good cause, including if Congress passes legislation that authorizes DAPA or at such a time as the Defendants have complied with the requirements of the Administrative Procedure Act. The parties are ordered to meet and confer and formulate and file with the Court by February 27, 2015 an agreed upon (to the extent possible) schedule for the resolution on the merits. The Court will hold a conference call among counsel after it reviews this submission.

The Court has considered the issue of security as per Rule 65(c) of the Federal Civil Rules of Procedure. It finds that the Defendants will not suffer any financial loss that warrants the need for the Plaintiffs to post security. The Fifth Circuit has held that a district court has the discretion to "require no security at all" and the Court hereby exercises that authority based upon the facts and circumstances of the case, the issues being decided and the parties involved. *Kaepa, Inc. v. Achilles Corp.*, 76 F.3d 624, 628 (5th Cir. 1996); *see also Corrigan Dispatch Co. v. Casa Guzman, S.A.*, 569 F.2d 300 (5th Cir. 1978); Wright & Miller, *Federal Practice and Procedure*, § 2954.

Signed this 16th day of February, 2015.

/s/ ANDREW S. HANEN
ANDREW S. HANEN
United States District Judge

APPENDIX E

Secretary
U.S. Department of Homeland Security
Washington, DC 20528

[SEAL OMITTED]

Nov. 20, 2014

MEMORANDUM FOR: Leon Rodriguez
Director
U.S. Citizenship and
Immigration Services

Thomas S. Winkowski
Acting Director
U.S. Immigration and
Customs Enforcement

R. Gil Kerlikowske
Commissioner
U.S. Customs and Border
Protection

FROM: Jeh Charles Johnson
/s/ JEH CHARLES JOHNSON
Secretary

SUBJECT: **Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion with Respect to Individuals Who Came to the United States as Children and with Respect to Certain Individuals Who Are the Parents of U.S. Citizens or Permanent Residents**

This memorandum is intended to reflect new policies for the use of deferred action. By memorandum dated June 15, 2012, Secretary Napolitano issued guidance entitled *Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion with Respect to Individuals Who Came to the United States as Children*. The following supplements and amends that guidance.

The Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and its immigration components are responsible for enforcing the Nation's immigration laws. Due to limited resources, DHS and its Components cannot respond to all immigration violations or remove all persons illegally in the United States. As is true of virtually every other law enforcement agency, DHS must exercise prosecutorial discretion in the enforcement of the law. Secretary Napolitano noted two years ago, when she issued her prosecutorial discretion guidance regarding children, that "[o]ur Nation's immigration laws must be enforced in a strong and sensible manner. They are not designed to be blindly enforced without consideration given to the individual circumstances of each case."

Deferred action is a long-standing administrative mechanism dating back decades, by which the Secretary of Homeland Security may defer the removal of an undocumented immigrant for a period of time.[1] A form of administrative relief similar to deferred action, known then as "indefinite voluntary departure," was originally

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[1] Deferred action, in one form or another, dates back to at least the 1960s. "Deferred action" per se dates back at least as far as 1975. *See,* Immigration and Naturalization Service, Operation Instructions § 103.1 (a)(1)(ii) (1975).

authorized by the Reagan and Bush Administrations to defer the deportations of an estimated 1.5 million undocumented spouses and minor children who did not qualify for legalization under the *Immigration Reform and Control Act* of 1986. Known as the "Family Fairness" program, the policy was specifically implemented to promote the humane enforcement of the law and ensure family unity.

Deferred action is a form of prosecutorial discretion by which the Secretary deprioritizes an individual's case for humanitarian reasons, administrative convenience, or in the interest of the Department's overall enforcement mission. As an act of prosecutorial discretion, deferred action is legally available so long as it is granted on a case-by-case basis, and it may be terminated at any time at the agency's discretion. Deferred action does not confer any form of legal status in this country, much less citizenship; it simply means that, for a specified period of time, an individual is permitted to be lawfully present in the United States. Nor can deferred action itself lead to a green card. Although deferred action is not expressly conferred by statute, the practice is referenced and therefore endorsed by implication in several federal statutes.[2]

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[2] INA § 204(a)(l)(D)(i)(II), (IV) *(Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) self-petitioners not in removal proceedings are "eligible for deferred action and employment authorization")*; INA § 237(d)(2) *(DHS may grant stay of removal to applicants for T or U visas but that denial of a stay request "shall not preclude the alien from applying for . . . deferred action")*; REAL ID Act of 2005 § 202(c)(2)(B)(viii), Pub. L. 109-13 *(requiring states to examine documentary evidence of lawful status for driver's license eligibility purposes, including "approved deferred action status")*; National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2004 § 1703(c) (d)

Historically, deferred action has been used on behalf of particular individuals, and on a case-by-case basis, for classes of unlawfully present individuals, such as the spouses and minor children of certain legalized immigrants, widows of U.S. citizens, or victims of trafficking and domestic violence.[3] Most recently, beginning in 2012, Secretary Napolitano issued guidance for case-by-case deferred action with respect to those who came to the United States as children, commonly referred to as "DACA."

By this memorandum, I am now expanding certain parameters of DACA and issuing guidance for case-by-case use of deferred action for those adults who have been in this country since January 1, 2010, are the parents of U.S. citizens or lawful permanent residents, and who are otherwise not enforcement priorities, as set forth in the November 20, 2014 Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants Memorandum.

Pub. L. 108-136 *(spouse, parent or child of certain US. citizen who died as a result of honorable service may self-petition for permanent residence and "shall be eligible for deferred action, advance parole, and work authorization")*.

[3] In August 2001, the former-Immigration and Naturalization Service issued guidance providing deferred action to individuals who were eligible for the recently created U and T visas. Two years later, USCJS issued subsequent guidance, instructing its officers to use existing mechanisms like deferred action for certain U visa applicants facing potential removal. More recently, in June 2009, USCIS issued a memorandum providing deferred action to certain surviving spouses of deceased U.S. citizens and their children while Congress considered legislation to allow these individuals to qualify for permanent residence status.

The reality is that most individuals in the categories set forth below are hard-working people who have become integrated members of American society. Provided they do not commit serious crimes or otherwise become enforcement priorities, these people are extremely unlikely to be deported given this Department's limited enforcement resources—which must continue to be focused on those who represent threats to national security, public safety, and border security. Case-by-case exercises of deferred action for children and long-standing members of American society who are not enforcement priorities are in this Nation's security and economic interests and make common sense, because they encourage these people to come out of the shadows, submit to background checks, pay fees, apply for work authorization (which by separate authority I may grant), and be counted.

A. Expanding DACA

DACA provides that those who were under the age of 31 on June 15, 2012, who entered the United States before June 15, 2007 (5 years prior) as children under the age of 16, and who meet specific educational and public safety criteria, are eligible for deferred action on a case-by-case basis. The initial DACA announcement of June 15, 2012 provided deferred action for a period of two years. On June 5, 2014, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) announced that DACA recipients could request to renew their deferred action for an additional two years.

In order to further effectuate this program, I hereby direct USCIS to expand DACA as follows:

Remove the age cap. DACA will apply to all otherwise eligible immigrants who entered the United States by the

requisite adjusted entry date before the age of sixteen (16), regardless of how old they were in June 2012 or are today. The current age restriction excludes those who were older than 31 on the date of announcement *(i.e.,* those who were born before June 15, 1981). That restriction will no longer apply.

Extend DACA renewal and work authorization to three-years. The period for which DACA and the accompanying employment authorization is granted will be extended to three-year increments, rather than the current two-year increments. This change shall apply to all first-time applications as well as all applications for renewal effective November 24, 2014. Beginning on that date, USCIS should issue all work authorization documents valid for three years, including to those individuals who have applied and are awaiting two-year work authorization documents based on the renewal of their DACA grants. USCIS should also consider means to extend those two-year renewals already issued to three years.

Adjust the date-of-entry requirement. In order to align the DACA program more closely with the other deferred action authorization outlined below, the eligibility cut-off date by which a DACA applicant must have been in the United States should be adjusted from June 15, 2007 to January 1, 2010.

USCIS should begin accepting applications under the new criteria from applicants no later than ninety (90) days from the date of this announcement.

B. Expanding Deferred Action

I hereby direct USCIS to establish a process, similar to DACA, for exercising prosecutorial discretion through

the use of deferred action, on a case-by-case basis, to those individuals who:

- have, on the date of this memorandum, a son or daughter who is a U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident;
- have continuously resided in the United States since before January 1, 2010;
- are physically present in the United States on the date of this memorandum, *and* at the time of making a request for consideration of deferred action with USCIS;
- have no lawful status on the date of this memorandum;
- are not an enforcement priority as reflected in the November 20, 2014 Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants Memorandum; and
- present no other factors that, in the exercise of discretion, makes the grant of deferred action inappropriate.

Applicants must file the requisite applications for deferred action pursuant to the new criteria described above. Applicants must also submit biometrics for USCIS to conduct background checks similar to the background check that is required for DACA applicants. Each person who applies for deferred action pursuant to the criteria above shall also be eligible to apply for work authorization for the period of deferred action, pursuant to my authority to grant such authorization reflected in section 274A(h)(3) of

the Immigration and Nationality Act.[4] Deferred action granted pursuant to the program shall be for a period of three years. Applicants will pay the work authorization and biometrics fees, which currently amount to $465. There will be no fee waivers and, like DACA, very limited fee exemptions.

USCIS should begin accepting applications from eligible applicants no later than one hundred and eighty (180) days after the date of this announcement. As with DACA, the above criteria are to be considered for all individuals encountered by U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), U.S. Customs and Border Protection (CBP), or USCIS, whether or not the individual is already in removal proceedings or subject to a final order of removal. Specifically:

- ICE and CBP are instructed to immediately begin identifying persons in their custody, as well as newly encountered individuals, who meet the above criteria and may thus be eligible for deferred action to prevent the further expenditure of enforcement resources with regard to these individuals.
- ICE is further instructed to review pending removal cases, and seek administrative closure or termination

[4] INA § 274A(h)(3), 8 U.S.C. § 1324a(h)(3) ("As used in this section, the term 'unauthorized alien' means, with respect to the employment of an alien at a particular time, that the alien is not at that time either (A) an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, or (B) authorized to be so employed by this chapter or by the [Secretary]."); 8 C.F.R. § 274a.12 (regulations establishing classes of aliens eligible for work authorization).

of the cases of individuals identified who meet the above criteria, and to refer such individuals to USCIS for case-by-case determinations. ICE should also establish a process to allow individuals in removal proceedings to identify themselves as candidates for deferred action.

- USCIS is instructed to implement this memorandum consistent with its existing guidance regarding the issuance of notices to appear. The USCIS process shall also be available to individuals subject to final orders of removal who otherwise meet the above criteria.

Under any of the proposals outlined above, immigration officers will be provided with specific eligibility criteria for deferred action, but the ultimate judgment as to whether an immigrant is granted deferred action will be determined on a case-by-case basis.

This memorandum confers no substantive right, immigration status or pathway to citizenship. Only an Act of Congress can confer these rights. It remains within the authority of the Executive Branch, however, to set forth policy for the exercise of prosecutorial discretion and deferred action within the framework of existing law. This memorandum is an exercise of that authority.

APPENDIX F

Secretary
U.S. Department of Homeland Security
Washington, DC 20528

[SEAL OMITTED]

Nov. 20, 2014

MEMORANDUM FOR: Thomas S. Winkowski
Acting Director
U.S. Immigration and
Customs Enforcement

R. Gil Kerlikowske
Commissioner
U.S. Customs and Border
Protection

Leon Rodriguez
Director
U.S. Citizenship and
Immigration Services

FROM: Jeh Charles Johnson
/s/ JEH CHARLES JOHNSON
Secretary

SUBJECT: **Policies for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Undocumented Immigrants**

This memorandum reflects new policies for the apprehension, detention, and removal of aliens in this country. This memorandum should be considered Department-wide guidance, applicable to the activities of

U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), U.S. Customs and Border Protection (CBP), and U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS). This memorandum should inform enforcement and removal activity, detention decisions, budget requests and execution, and strategic planning.

In general, our enforcement and removal policies should continue to prioritize threats to national security, public safety, and border security. The intent of this new policy is to provide clearer and more effective guidance in the pursuit of those priorities. To promote public confidence in our enforcement activities, I am also directing herein greater transparency in the annual reporting of our removal statistics, to include data that tracks the priorities outlined below.

The Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and its immigration components—CBP, ICE, and USCIS—are responsible for enforcing the nation's immigration laws. Due to limited resources, DHS and its Components cannot respond to all immigration violations or remove all persons illegally in the United States. As is true of virtually every other law enforcement agency, DHS must exercise prosecutorial discretion in the enforcement of the law. And, in the exercise of that discretion, DHS can and should develop smart enforcement priorities, and ensure that use of its limited resources is devoted to the pursuit of those priorities. DHS's enforcement priorities are, have been, and will continue to be national security, border security, and public safety. DHS personnel are directed to prioritize the use of enforcement personnel, detention space, and removal assets accordingly.

In the immigration context, prosecutorial discretion should apply not only to the decision to issue, serve, file, or cancel a Notice to Appear, but also to a broad range of other discretionary enforcement decisions, including deciding: whom to stop, question, and arrest; whom to detain or release; whether to settle, dismiss, appeal, or join in a motion on a case; and whether to grant deferred action, parole, or a stay of removal instead of pursuing removal in a case. While DHS may exercise prosecutorial discretion at any stage of an enforcement proceeding, it is generally preferable to exercise such discretion as early in the case or proceeding as possible in order to preserve government resources that would otherwise be expended in pursuing enforcement and removal of higher priority cases. Thus, DHS personnel are expected to exercise discretion and pursue these priorities at all stages of the enforcement process-from the earliest investigative stage to enforcing final orders of removal—subject to their chains of command and to the particular responsibilities and authorities applicable to their specific position.

Except as noted below, the following memoranda are hereby rescinded and superseded: John Morton, *Civil Immigration Enforcement: Priorities for the Apprehension, Detention, and Removal of Aliens,* March 2, 2011; John Morton, *Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion Consistent with the Civil Enforcement Priorities of the Agency for the Apprehension, Detention and Removal of Aliens,* June 17, 2011; Peter Vincent, *Case-by-Case Review of Incoming and Certain Pending Cases,* November 17, 2011; *Civil Immigration Enforcement: Guidance on the Use of Detainers in the Federal, State, Local, and*

Tribal Criminal Justice Systems, December 21, 2012; *National Fugitive Operations Program: Priorities, Goals, and Expectations,* December 8, 2009.

A. Civil Immigration Enforcement Priorities

The following shall constitute the Department's civil immigration enforcement priorities:

Priority 1 (threats to national security, border security, and public safety)

Aliens described in this priority represent the highest priority to which enforcement resources should be directed:

(a) aliens engaged in or suspected of terrorism or espionage, or who otherwise pose a danger to national security;

(b) aliens apprehended at the border or ports of entry while attempting to unlawfully enter the United States;

(c) aliens convicted of an offense for which an element was active participation in a criminal street gang, as defined in 18 U.S.C. § 521(a), or aliens not younger than 16 years of age who intentionally participated in an organized criminal gang to further the illegal activity of the gang;

(d) aliens convicted of an offense classified as a felony in the convicting jurisdiction, other than a state or local offense for which an essential element was the alien's immigration status; and

(e) aliens convicted of an "aggravated felony," as that term is defined in section 101(a)(43) of the *Immi-*

gration and Nationality Act at the time of the conviction.

The removal of these aliens must be prioritized unless they qualify for asylum or another form of relief under our laws, or unless, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, CBP Sector Chief or CBP Director of Field Operations, there are compelling and exceptional factors that clearly indicate the alien is not a threat to national security, border security, or public safety and should not therefore be an enforcement priority.

Priority 2 (misdemeanants and new immigration violators)

Aliens described in this priority, who are also not described in Priority 1, represent the second-highest priority for apprehension and removal. Resources should be dedicated accordingly to the removal of the following:

(a) aliens convicted of three or more misdemeanor offenses, other than minor traffic offenses or state or local offenses for which an essential element was the alien's immigration status, provided the offenses arise out of three separate incidents;

(b) aliens convicted of a "significant misdemeanor," which for these purposes is an offense of domestic violence;[1] sexual abuse or exploitation; burglary;

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[1] In evaluating whether the offense is a significant misdemeanor involving "domestic violence," careful consideration should be given to whether the convicted alien was also the victim of domestic violence; if so, this should be a mitigating factor. *See generally*, John Morton, *Prosecutorial Discretion: Certain Victims, Witnesses, and Plaintiffs*, June 17, 2011.

unlawful possession or use of a firearm; drug distribution or trafficking; or driving under the influence; or if not an offense listed above, one for which the individual was sentenced to time in custody of 90 days or more (the sentence must involve time to be served in custody, and does not include a suspended sentence);

(c) aliens apprehended anywhere in the United States after unlawfully entering or re-entering the United States and who cannot establish to the satisfaction of an immigration officer that they have been physically present in the United States continuously since January 1, 2014; and

(d) aliens who, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, USCIS District Director, or USCIS Service Center Director, have significantly abused the visa or visa waiver programs.

These aliens should be removed unless they qualify for asylum or another form of relief under our laws or, unless, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, CBP Sector Chief, CBP Director of Field Operations, USCIS District Director, or users Service Center Director, there are factors indicating the alien is not a threat to national security, border security, or public safety, and should not therefore be an enforcement priority.

Priority 3 (other immigration violations)

Priority 3 aliens are those who have been issued a final order of removal[2] on or after January 1, 2014. Aliens described in this priority, who are not also described in Priority 1 or 2, represent the third and lowest priority for apprehension and removal. Resources should be dedicated accordingly to aliens in this priority. Priority 3 aliens should generally be removed unless they qualify for asylum or another form of relief under our laws or, unless, in the judgment of an immigration officer, the alien is not a threat to the integrity of the immigration system or there are factors suggesting the alien should not be an enforcement priority.

B. Apprehension, Detention, and Removal of Other Aliens Unlawfully in the United States

Nothing in this memorandum should be construed to prohibit or discourage the apprehension, detention, or removal of aliens unlawfully in the United States who are not identified as priorities herein. However, resources should be dedicated, to the greatest degree possible, to the removal of aliens described in the priorities set forth above, commensurate with the level of prioritization identified. Immigration officers and attorneys may pursue removal of an alien not identified as a priority herein, provided, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, removing such an alien would serve an important federal interest.

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[2] For present purposes, "final order" is defined as it is in 8 C.F.R. § 1241.1.

C. Detention

As a general rule, DHS detention resources should be used to support the enforcement priorities noted above or for aliens subject to mandatory detention by law. Absent extraordinary circumstances or the requirement of mandatory detention, field office directors should not expend detention resources on aliens who are known to be suffering from serious physical or mental illness, who are disabled, elderly, pregnant, or nursing, who demonstrate that they are primary caretakers of children or an infirm person, or whose detention is otherwise not in the public interest. To detain aliens in those categories who are not subject to mandatory detention, DHS officers or special agents must obtain approval from the ICE Field Office Director. If an alien falls within the above categories and is subject to mandatory detention, field office directors are encouraged to contact their local Office of Chief Counsel for guidance.

D. Exercising Prosecutorial Discretion

Section A, above, requires DHS personnel to exercise discretion based on individual circumstances. As noted above, aliens in Priority 1 must be prioritized for removal unless they qualify for asylum or other form of relief under our laws, or unless, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, CBP Sector Chief, or CBP Director of Field Operations, there are compelling and exceptional factors that clearly indicate the alien is not a threat to national security, border security, or public safety and should not therefore be an enforcement priority. Likewise, aliens in Priority 2 should be removed unless they qualify for asylum or other forms of relief under our laws,

or unless, in the judgment of an ICE Field Office Director, CBP Sector Chief, CBP Director of Field Operations, USCIS District Director, or USCIS Service Center Director, there are factors indicating the alien is not a threat to national security, border security, or public safety and should not therefore be an enforcement priority. Similarly, aliens in Priority 3 should generally be removed unless they qualify for asylum or another form of relief under our laws or, unless, in the judgment of an immigration officer, the alien is not a threat to the integrity of the immigration system or there are factors suggesting the alien should not be an enforcement priority.

In making such judgments, DHS personnel should consider factors such as: extenuating circumstances involving the offense of conviction; extended length of time since the offense of conviction; length of time in the United States; military service; family or community ties in the United States; status as a victim, witness or plaintiff in civil or criminal proceedings; or compelling humanitarian factors such as poor health, age, pregnancy, a young child, or a seriously ill relative. These factors are not intended to be dispositive nor is this list intended to be exhaustive. Decisions should be based on the totality of the circumstances.

E. Implementation

The revised guidance shall be effective on January 5, 2015. Implementing training and guidance will be provided to the workforce prior to the effective date. The revised guidance in this memorandum applies only to aliens encountered or apprehended on or after the effective date, and aliens detained, in removal proceedings, or sub-

ject to removal orders who have not been removed from the United States as of the effective date. Nothing in this guidance is intended to modify USCIS Notice to Appear policies, which remain in force and effect to the extent they are not inconsistent with this memorandum.

F. Data

By this memorandum I am directing the Office of Immigration Statistics to create the capability to collect, maintain, and report to the Secretary data reflecting the numbers of those apprehended, removed, returned, or otherwise repatriated by any component of DHS and to report that data in accordance with the priorities set forth above. I direct CBP, ICE, and USCIS to cooperate in this effort. I intend for this data to be part of the package of data released by DHS to the public annually.

G. No Private Right Statement

These guidelines and priorities are not intended to, do not, and may not be relied upon to create any right or benefit, substantive or procedural, enforceable at law by any party in any administrative, civil, or criminal matter.

APPENDIX G

1. 5 U.S.C. 553 provides:

Rule making

(a) This section applies, according to the provisions thereof, except to the extent that there is involved—

(1) a military or foreign affairs function of the United States; or

(2) a matter relating to agency management or personnel or to public property, loans, grants, benefits, or contracts.

(b) General notice of proposed rule making shall be published in the Federal Register, unless persons subject thereto are named and either personally served or otherwise have actual notice thereof in accordance with law. The notice shall include—

(1) a statement of the time, place, and nature of public rule making proceedings;

(2) reference to the legal authority under which the rule is proposed; and

(3) either the terms or substance of the proposed rule or a description of the subjects and issues involved.

Except when notice or hearing is required by statute, this subsection does not apply—

(A) to interpretative rules, general statements of policy, or rules of agency organization, procedure, or practice; or

(B) when the agency for good cause finds (and incorporates the finding and a brief statement of reasons therefor in the rules issued) that notice and public procedure thereon are impracticable, unnecessary, or contrary to the public interest.

(c) After notice required by this section, the agency shall give interested persons an opportunity to participate in the rule making through submission of written data, views, or arguments with or without opportunity for oral presentation. After consideration of the relevant matter presented, the agency shall incorporate in the rules adopted a concise general statement of their basis and purpose. When rules are required by statute to be made on the record after opportunity for an agency hearing, sections 556 and 557 of this title apply instead of this subsection.

(d) The required publication or service of a substantive rule shall be made not less than 30 days before its effective date, except—

(1) a substantive rule which grants or recognizes an exemption or relieves a restriction;

(2) interpretative rules and statements of policy; or

(3) as otherwise provided by the agency for good cause found and published with the rule.

(e) Each agency shall give an interested person the right to petition for the issuance, amendment, or repeal of a rule.

2. 5 U.S.C. 701(a) provides:

Application; definitions

(a) This chapter applies, according to the provisions thereof, except to the extent that—

(1) statutes preclude judicial review; or

(2) agency action is committed to agency discretion by law.

3. 5 U.S.C. 702 provides:

Right of review

A person suffering legal wrong because of agency action, or adversely affected or aggrieved by agency action within the meaning of a relevant statute, is entitled to judicial review thereof. An action in a court of the United States seeking relief other than money damages and stating a claim that an agency or an officer or employee thereof acted or failed to act in an official capacity or under color of legal authority shall not be dismissed nor relief therein be denied on the ground that it is against the United States or that the United States is an indispensable party. The United

States may be named as a defendant in any such action, and a judgment or decree may be entered against the United States: *Provided*, That any mandatory or injunctive decree shall specify the Federal officer or officers (by name or by title), and their successors in office, personally responsible for compliance. Nothing herein (1) affects other limitations on judicial review or the power or duty of the court to dismiss any action or deny relief on any other appropriate legal or equitable ground; or (2) confers authority to grant relief if any other statute that grants consent to suit expressly or impliedly forbids the relief which is sought.

4. 5 U.S.C. 706 provides:

Scope of review

To the extent necessary to decision and when presented, the reviewing court shall decide all relevant questions of law, interpret constitutional and statutory provisions, and determine the meaning or applicability of the terms of an agency action. The reviewing court shall—

(1) compel agency action unlawfully withheld or unreasonably delayed; and

(2) hold unlawful and set aside agency action, findings, and conclusions found to be—

(A) arbitrary, capricious, an abuse of discretion, or otherwise not in accordance with law;

(B) contrary to constitutional right, power, privilege, or immunity;

(C) in excess of statutory jurisdiction, authority, or limitations, or short of statutory right;

(D) without observance of procedure required by law;

(E) unsupported by substantial evidence in a case subject to sections 556 and 557 of this title or otherwise reviewed on the record of an agency hearing provided by statute; or

(F) unwarranted by the facts to the extent that the facts are subject to trial de novo by the reviewing court.

In making the foregoing determinations, the court shall review the whole record or those parts of it cited by a party, and due account shall be taken of the rule of prejudicial error.

5. 6 U.S.C. 202 provides in pertinent part:

Responsibilities

The Secretary, acting through the Under Secretary for Border and Transportation Security, shall be responsible for the following:

(1) Preventing the entry of terrorists and the instruments of terrorism into the United States.

(2) Securing the borders, territorial waters, ports, terminals, waterways, and air, land, and sea transportation systems of the United States, including managing and coordinating those functions transferred to the Department at ports of entry.

(3) Carrying out the immigration enforcement functions vested by statute in, or performed by, the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization * * * immediately before the date on which the transfer of functions specified under section 251 of this title takes effect.

(4) Establishing and administering rules * * * governing the granting of visas or other forms of permission, including parole, to enter the United States to individuals who are not a citizen or an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States.

(5) Establishing national immigration enforcement policies and priorities.

* * * * *

6. 8 U.S.C. 1103(a) provides in pertinent part:

Powers and duties of the Secretary, the Under Secretary, and the Attorney General

(a) Secretary of Homeland Security

(1) The Secretary of Homeland Security shall be charged with the administration and enforcement of this chapter and all other laws relating to the immigration and naturalization of aliens, except insofar as this chapter or such laws relate to the powers, functions, and duties conferred upon the President, Attorney General, the Secretary of State, the officers of the Department of State, or diplomatic or consular officers: *Provided, however*, That determination and ruling by the Attorney General with respect to all questions of law shall be controlling.

(2) He shall have control, direction, and supervision of all employees and of all the files and records of the Service.

(3) He shall establish such regulations; prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers; issue such instructions; and perform such other acts as he deems necessary for carrying out his authority under the provisions of this chapter.

(4) He may require or authorize any employee of the Service or the Department of Justice to perform or exercise any of the powers, privileges, or duties conferred or imposed by this chapter or regulations issued thereunder upon any other employee of the Service.

(5) He shall have the power and duty to control and guard the boundaries and borders of the United States against the illegal entry of aliens and shall, in his discretion, appoint for that purpose such number of employees of the Service as to him shall appear necessary and proper.

* * * * *

7. 8 U.S.C. 1182 provides in pertinent part:

Inadmissible aliens

(a) Classes of aliens ineligible for visas or admission

Except as otherwise provided in this chapter, aliens who are inadmissible under the following paragraphs are ineligible to receive visas and ineligible to be admitted to the United States:

* * * * *

(9) Aliens previously removed

* * * * *

(B) Aliens unlawfully present

(i) In general

Any alien (other than an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence) who—

(I) was unlawfully present in the United States for a period of more than 180 days

but less than 1 year, voluntarily departed the United States (whether or not pursuant to section 1254a(e)[3] of this title) prior to the commencement of proceedings under section 1225(b)(1) of this title or section 1229a of this title, and again seeks admission within 3 years of the date of such alien's departure or removal, or

(II) has been unlawfully present in the United States for one year or more, and who again seeks admission within 10 years of the date of such alien's departure or removal from the United States,

is inadmissible.

(ii) Construction of unlawful presence

For purposes of this paragraph, an alien is deemed to be unlawfully present in the United States if the alien is present in the United States after the expiration of the period of stay authorized by the Attorney General or is present in the United States without being admitted or paroled.

* * * * *

[3] So in original. Probably should be a reference to section 1229c of this title.

8. 8 U.S.C. 1324a provides in pertinent part:

Unlawful employment of aliens

(a) Making employment of unauthorized aliens unlawful

(1) In general

It is unlawful for a person or other entity—

(A) to hire, or to recruit or refer for a fee, for employment in the United States an alien knowing the alien is an unauthorized alien (as defined in subsection (h)(3) of this section) with respect to such employment, or

(B)(i) to hire for employment in the United States an individual without complying with the requirements of subsection (b) of this section or (ii) if the person or entity is an agricultural association, agricultural employer, or farm labor contractor (as defined in section 1802 of title 29), to hire, or to recruit or refer for a fee, for employment in the United States an individual without complying with the requirements of subsection (b) of this section.

(2) Continuing employment

It is unlawful for a person or other entity, after hiring an alien for employment in accordance with paragraph (1), to continue to employ the alien in the United States knowing the alien is (or has become)

an unauthorized alien with respect to such employment.

* * * * *

(h) Miscellaneous provisions

(1) Documentation

In providing documentation or endorsement of authorization of aliens (other than aliens lawfully admitted for permanent residence) authorized to be employed in the United States, the Attorney General shall provide that any limitations with respect to the period or type of employment or employer shall be conspicuously stated on the documentation or endorsement.

(2) Preemption

The provisions of this section preempt any State or local law imposing civil or criminal sanctions (other than through licensing and similar laws) upon those who employ, or recruit or refer for a fee for employment, unauthorized aliens.

(3) Definition of unauthorized alien

As used in this section, the term "unauthorized alien" means, with respect to the employment of an alien at a particular time, that the alien is not at that time either (A) an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, or (B) authorized to be so employed by this chapter or by the Attorney General.

9. 8 U.S.C. 1611 provides:

Aliens who are not qualified aliens ineligible for Federal public benefits

(a) In general

Notwithstanding any other provision of law and except as provided in subsection (b) of this section, an alien who is not a qualified alien (as defined in section 1641 of this title) is not eligible for any Federal public benefit (as defined in subsection (c) of this section).

(b) Exceptions

(1) Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply with respect to the following Federal public benefits:

(A) Medical assistance under title XIX of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 1396 et seq.] (or any successor program to such title) for care and services that are necessary for the treatment of an emergency medical condition (as defined in section 1903(v)(3) of such Act [42 U.S.C. 1396b(v)(3)]) of the alien involved and are not related to an organ transplant procedure, if the alien involved otherwise meets the eligibility requirements for medical assistance under the State plan approved under such title (other than the requirement of the receipt of aid or assistance under title IV of such Act [42 U.S.C. 601 et seq.], supplemental security income benefits under title XVI of such Act [42 U.S.C. 1381 et seq.], or a State supplementary payment).

(B) Short-term, non-cash, in-kind emergency disaster relief.

(C) Public health assistance (not including any assistance under title XIX of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 1396 et seq.]) for immunizations with respect to immunizable diseases and for testing and treatment of symptoms of communicable diseases whether or not such symptoms are caused by a communicable disease.

(D) Programs, services, or assistance (such as soup kitchens, crisis counseling and intervention, and short-term shelter) specified by the Attorney General, in the Attorney General's sole and unreviewable discretion after consultation with appropriate Federal agencies and departments, which (i) deliver in-kind services at the community level, including through public or private nonprofit agencies; (ii) do not condition the provision of assistance, the amount of assistance provided, or the cost of assistance provided on the individual recipient's income or resources; and (iii) are necessary for the protection of life or safety.

(E) Programs for housing or community development assistance or financial assistance administered by the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development, any program under title V of the Housing Act of 1949 [42 U.S.C. 1471 et seq.], or any assistance under section 1926c of title 7, to the extent

that the alien is receiving such a benefit on August 22, 1996.

(2) Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply to any benefit payable under title II of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 401 et seq.] to an alien who is lawfully present in the United States as determined by the Attorney General, to any benefit if nonpayment of such benefit would contravene an international agreement described in section 233 of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 433], to any benefit if nonpayment would be contrary to section 202(t) of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 402(t)], or to any benefit payable under title II of the Social Security Act to which entitlement is based on an application filed in or before August 1996.

(3) Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply to any benefit payable under title XVIII of the Social Security Act [42 U.S.C. 1395 et seq.] (relating to the medicare program) to an alien who is lawfully present in the United States as determined by the Attorney General and, with respect to benefits payable under part A of such title [42 U.S.C. 1395c et seq.], who was authorized to be employed with respect to any wages at tributable to employment which are counted for purposes of eligibility for such benefits.

(4) Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply to any benefit payable under the Railroad Retirement Act of 1974 [45 U.S.C. 231 et seq.] or the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act [45 U.S.C. 351 et seq.] to an alien who is lawfully present in the United States as

determined by the Attorney General or to an alien residing outside the United States.

(5) Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply to eligibility for benefits for the program defined in section 1612(a)(3)(A) of this title (relating to the supplemental security income program), or to eligibility for benefits under any other program that is based on eligibility for benefits under the program so defined, for an alien who was receiving such benefits on August 22, 1996.

(c) "Federal public benefit" defined

(1) Except as provided in paragraph (2), for purposes of this chapter the term "Federal public benefit" means—

(A) any grant, contract, loan, professional license, or commercial license provided by an agency of the United States or by appropriated funds of the United States; and

(B) any retirement, welfare, health, disability, public or assisted housing, postsecondary education, food assistance, unemployment benefit, or any other similar benefit for which payments or assistance are provided to an individual, household, or family eligibility unit by an agency of the United States or by appropriated funds of the United States.

(2) Such term shall not apply—

(A) to any contract, professional license, or commercial license for a nonimmigrant whose visa for

entry is related to such employment in the United States, or to a citizen of a freely associated state, if section 141 of the applicable compact of free association approved in Public Law 99-239 or 99-658 (or a successor provision) is in effect;

(B) with respect to benefits for an alien who as a work authorized nonimmigrant or as an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence under the Immigration and Nationality Act [8 U.S.C. 1101 et seq.] qualified for such benefits and for whom the United States under reciprocal treaty agreements is required to pay benefits, as determined by the Attorney General, after consultation with the Secretary of State; or

(C) to the issuance of a professional license to, or the renewal of a professional license by, a foreign national not physically present in the United States.

10. 8 U.S.C. 1621 provides:

Aliens who are not qualified aliens or nonimmigrants ineligible for State and local public benefits

(a) In general

Notwithstanding any other provision of law and except as provided in subsections (b) and (d) of this section, an alien who is not—

(1) a qualified alien (as defined in section 1641 of this title),

(2) a nonimmigrant under the Immigration and Nationality Act [8 U.S.C. 1101 et seq.], or

(3) an alien who is paroled into the United States under section 212(d)(5) of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1182(d)(5)] for less than one year,

is not eligible for any State or local public benefit (as defined in subsection (c) of this section).

(b) Exceptions

Subsection (a) of this section shall not apply with respect to the following State or local public benefits:

(1) Assistance for health care items and services that are necessary for the treatment of an emergency medical condition (as defined in section 1396b(v)(3) of title 42) of the alien involved and are not related to an organ transplant procedure.

(2) Short-term, non-cash, in-kind emergency disaster relief.

(3) Public health assistance for immunizations with respect to immunizable diseases and for testing and treatment of symptoms of communicable diseases whether or not such symptoms are caused by a communicable disease.

(4) Programs, services, or assistance (such as soup kitchens, crisis counseling and intervention, and short-term shelter) specified by the Attorney

General, in the Attorney General's sole and unreviewable discretion after consultation with appropriate Federal agencies and departments, which (A) deliver in-kind services at the community level, including through public or private nonprofit agencies; (B) do not condition the provision of assistance, the amount of assistance provided, or the cost of assistance provided on the individual recipient's income or resources; and (C) are necessary for the protection of life or safety.

(c) "State or local public benefit" defined

(1) Except as provided in paragraphs (2) and (3), for purposes of this subchapter the term "State or local public benefit" means—

(A) any grant, contract, loan, professional license, or commercial license provided by an agency of a State or local government or by appropriated funds of a State or local government; and

(B) any retirement, welfare, health, disability, public or assisted housing, postsecondary education, food assistance, unemployment benefit, or any other similar benefit for which payments or assistance are provided to an individual, household, or family eligibility unit by an agency of a State or local government or by appropriated funds of a State or local government.

(2) Such term shall not apply—

(A) to any contract, professional license, or commercial license for a nonimmigrant whose visa for entry is related to such employment in the United States, or to a citizen of a freely associated state, if section 141 of the applicable compact of free association approved in Public Law 99-239 or 99-658 (or a successor pro vision) is in effect;

(B) with respect to benefits for an alien who as a work authorized nonimmigrant or as an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence under the Immigration and Nationality Act [8 U.S.C. 1101 et seq.] qualified for such benefits and for whom the United States under reciprocal treaty agreements is required to pay benefits, as determined by the Secretary of State, after consultation with the Attorney General; or

(C) to the issuance of a professional license to, or the renewal of a professional license by, a foreign national not physically present in the United States.

(3) Such term does not include any Federal public benefit under section 1611(c) of this title.

(d) State authority to provide for eligibility of illegal aliens for State and local public benefits

A State may provide that an alien who is not lawfully present in the United States is eligible for any State or local public benefit for which such alien would otherwise be ineligible under subsection (a) of this section only through the enactment of a State law after

August 22, 1996, which affirmatively provides for such eligibility.

11. 8 U.S.C. 1641(b) provides:

Definitions

* * * * *

(b) Qualified alien

For purposes of this chapter, the term "qualified alien" means an alien who, at the time the alien applies for, receives, or attempts to receive a Federal public benefit, is—

(1) an alien who is lawfully admitted for permanent residence under the Immigration and Nationality Act [8 U.S.C. 1101 et seq.],

(2) an alien who is granted asylum under section 208 of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1158),

(3) a refugee who is admitted to the United States under section 207 of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1157),

(4) an alien who is paroled into the United States under section 212(d)(5) of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1182(d)(5)] for a period of at least 1 year,

(5) an alien whose deportation is being withheld under section 243(h) of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1253) (as in effect immediately before the effective date of

section 307 of division C of Public Law 104-208) or section 241(b)(3) of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1231(b)(3)] (as amended by section 305(a) of division C of Public Law 104-208),

(6) an alien who is granted conditional entry pursuant to section 203(a)(7) of such Act [8 U.S.C. 1153(a)(7)] as in effect prior to April 1, 1980;[1] or

(7) an alien who is a Cuban and Haitian entrant (as defined in section 501(e) of the Refugee Education Assistance Act of 1980).

12. DHS Appropriations Act of 2015, Pub. L. No. 114-4, 129 Stat. 39, provides in pertinent part:

* * * * *

UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION AND CUSTOMS ENFORCEMENT

SALARIES AND EXPENSES

For necessary expenses for enforcement of immigration and customs laws, detention and removals, and investigations, including intellectual property rights and overseas vetted units operations; and purchase and lease of up to 3,790 (2,350 for replacement only) police-type vehicles; $5,932,756,000;

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[1] So in original. The semicolon probably should be a comma.

* * * * *

Provided further,

* * * * *

That of the total amount available, not less than $1,600,000,000 shall be available to identify aliens convicted of a crime who may be deportable, and to remove them from the United States once they are judged deportable: *Provided further*, That the Secretary of Homeland Security shall prioritize the identification and removal of aliens convicted of a crime by the severity of that crime: *Provided further*, That funding made available under this heading shall maintain a level of not less than 34,000 detention beds through September 30, 2015: *Provided further*, That of the total amount provided, not less than $3,431,444,000 is for detention, enforcement, and removal operations, including transportation of unaccompanied minor aliens:

* * * * *

Provided further, That nothing under this heading shall prevent United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement from exercising those authorities provided under immigration laws (as defined in section 101(a)(17) of the Immigration and Nationality Act (8 U.S.C. 1101(a)(17))) during priority operations pertaining to aliens convicted of a crime: *Provided further*, That without regard to the limitation as to time

and condition of section 503(d) of this Act, the Secretary may propose to reprogram and transfer funds within and into this appropriation necessary to ensure the detention of aliens prioritized for removal.

13. 8 C.F.R. 274a.12 provides in pertinent part:

Classes of aliens authorized to accept employment.

(a) *Aliens authorized employment incident to status*. Pursuant to the statutory or regulatory reference cited, the following classes of aliens are authorized to be employed in the United States without restrictions as to location or type of employment as a condition of their admission or subsequent change to one of the indicated classes. Any alien who is within a class of aliens described in paragraphs (a)(3), (a)(4), (a)(6)-(a)(8), (a)(10)-(a)(15), or (a)(20) of this section, and who seeks to be employed in the United States, must apply to U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) for a document evidencing such employment authorization. USCIS may, in its discretion, determine the validity period assigned to any document issued evidencing an alien's authorization to work in the United States.

(1) An alien who is a lawful permanent resident (with or without conditions pursuant to section 216 of the Act), as evidenced by Form I-551 issued by the Service. An expiration date on the Form I-551 re-

flects only that the card must be renewed, not that the bearer's work authorization has expired;

(2) An alien admitted to the United States as a lawful temporary resident pursuant to sections 245A or 210 of the Act, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(3) An alien admitted to the United States as a refugee pursuant to section 207 of the Act for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(4) An alien paroled into the United States as a refugee for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(5) An alien granted asylum under section 208 of the Act for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document, issued by USCIS to the alien. An expiration date on the employment authorization document issued by USCIS reflects only that the document must be renewed, and not that the bearer's work authorization has expired. Evidence of employment authorization shall be granted in increments not exceeding 5 years for the period of time the alien remains in that status.

(6) An alien admitted to the United States as a nonimmigrant fiancé or fiancée pursuant to section 101(a)(15)(K)(i) of the Act, or an alien admitted as a child of such alien, for the period of admission in that

status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(7) An alien admitted as a parent (N-8) or dependent child (N-9) of an alien granted permanent residence under section 101(a)(27)(I) of the Act, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(8) An alien admitted to the United States as a nonimmigrant pursuant to the Compact of Free Association between the United States and of the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, or the Republic of Palau;

(9) Any alien admitted as a nonimmigrant spouse pursuant to section 101(a)(15)(K)(ii) of the Act, or an alien admitted as a child of such alien, for the period of admission in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document, with an expiration date issued by the Service;

(10) An alien granted withholding of deportation or removal for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(11) An alien whose enforced departure from the United States has been deferred in accordance with a directive from the President of the United States to the Secretary. Employment is authorized for the period of time and under the conditions established by the Secretary pursuant to the Presidential directive;

(12) An alien granted Temporary Protected Status under section 244 of the Act for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(13) An alien granted voluntary departure by the Attorney General under the Family Unity Program established by section 301 of the Immigration Act of 1990, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(14) An alien granted Family Unity benefits under section 1504 of the Legal Immigrant Family Equity (LIFE) Act Amendments, Public Law 106-554, and the provisions of 8 CFR part 245a, Subpart C of this chapter, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by the Service;

(15) Any alien in V nonimmigrant status as defined in section 101(a)(15)(V) of the Act and 8 CFR 214.15.

(16) An alien authorized to be admitted to or remain in the United States as a nonimmigrant alien victim of a severe form of trafficking in persons under section 101(a)(15)(T)(i) of the Act. Employment authorization granted under this paragraph shall expire upon the expiration of the underlying T-1 nonimmigrant status granted by the Service;

(17)-(18) [Reserved]

(19) Any alien in U-1 nonimmigrant status, pursuant to 8 CFR 214.14, for the period of time in that

status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by USCIS to the alien.

(20) Any alien in U-2, U-3, U-4, or U-5 nonimmigrant status, pursuant to 8 CFR 214.14, for the period of time in that status, as evidenced by an employment authorization document issued by USCIS to the alien.

(b) *Aliens authorized for employment with a specific employer incident to status.* The following classes of nonimmigrant aliens are authorized to be employed in the United States by the specific employer and subject to the restrictions described in the section(s) of this chapter indicated as a condition of their admission in, or subsequent change to, such classification. An alien in one of these classes is not issued an employment authorization document by the Service:

(1) A foreign government official (A-1 or A-2), pursuant to § 214.2(a) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the foreign government entity;

(2) An employee of a foreign government official (A-3), pursuant to § 214.2(a) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the foreign government official;

(3) A foreign government official in transit (C-2 or C-3), pursuant to § 214.2(c) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the foreign government entity;

(4) [Reserved]

(5) A nonimmigrant treaty trader (E-1) or treaty investor (E-2), pursuant to § 214.2(e) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the treaty-qualifying company through which the alien attained the status. Employment authorization does not extend to the dependents of the principal treaty trader or treaty investor (also designated "E-1" or "E-2"), other than those specified in paragraph (c)(2) of this section;

(6) A nonimmigrant (F-1) student who is in valid nonimmigrant student status and pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f) is seeking:

(i) On-campus employment for not more than twenty hours per week when school is in session or full-time employment when school is not in session if the student intends and is eligible to register for the next term or session. Part-time on-campus employment is authorized by the school and no specific endorsement by a school official or Service officer is necessary;

(ii) [Reserved]

(iii) Curricular practical training (internships, cooperative training programs, or work-study programs which are part of an established curriculum) after having been enrolled full-time in a Service approved institution for one full academic year. Curricular practical training (part-time or full-time) is authorized by the Designated School Official on the student's Form I-20. No Service endorsement is necessary.

(iv) An employment authorization document under paragraph (c)(3)(i)(C) of this section based on a 17-month STEM Optional Practical Training extension, and whose timely filed employment authorization request is pending and employment authorization issued under paragraph (c)(3)(i)(B) of this section has expired. Employment is authorized beginning on the expiration date of the authorization issued under paragraph (c)(3)(i)(B) of this section and ending on the date of USCIS' written decision on the current employment authorization request, but not to exceed 180 days; or

(v) Pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(h) is seeking H-1B nonimmigrant status and whose duration of status and employment authorization have been extended pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f)(5)(vi).

(7) A representative of an international organization (G-1, G-2, G-3, or G-4), pursuant to § 214.2(g) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the foreign government entity or the international organization;

(8) A personal employee of an official or representative of an international organization (G-5), pursuant to § 214.2(g) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the official or representative of the international organization;

(9) A temporary worker or trainee (H-1, H-2A, H-2B, or H-3), pursuant to § 214.2(h) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the

petitioner through whom the status was obtained. In the case of a professional H-2B athlete who is traded from one organization to another organization, employment authorization for the player will automatically continue for a period of 30 days after acquisition by the new organization, within which time the new organization is expected to file a new Form I-129 to petition for H-2B classification. If a new Form I-129 is not filed within 30 days, employment authorization will cease. If a new Form I-129 is filed within 30 days, the professional athlete's employment authorization will continue until the petition is adjudicated. If the new petition is denied, employment authorization will cease;

(10) An information media representative (I), pursuant to § 214.2(i) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only for the sponsoring foreign news agency or bureau. Employment authorization does not extend to the dependents of an information media representative (also designated "I");

(11) An exchange visitor (J-1), pursuant to § 214.2(j) of this chapter and 22 CFR part 62. An alien in this status may be employed only by the exchange visitor program sponsor or appropriate designee and within the guidelines of the program approved by the Department of State as set forth in the Form DS-2019, Certificate of Eligibility, issued by the program sponsor;

(12) An intra-company transferee (L-1), pursuant to § 214.2(1) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the petitioner through whom the status was obtained;

(13) An alien having extraordinary ability in the sciences, arts, education, business, or athletics (O-1), and an accompanying alien (O-2), pursuant to § 214.2(o) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the petitioner through whom the status was obtained. In the case of a professional O-1 athlete who is traded from one organization to another organization, employment authorization for the player will automatically continue for a period of 30 days after the acquisition by the new organization, within which time the new organization is expected to file a new Form I- 129 petition for O nonimmigrant classification. If a new Form I-129 is not filed within 30 days, employment authorization will cease. If a new Form I-129 is filed within 30 days, the professional athlete's employment authorization will continue until the petition is adjudicated. If the new petition is denied, employment authorization will cease.

(14) An athlete, artist, or entertainer (P-1, P-2, or P-3), pursuant to § 214.2(p) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the petitioner through whom the status was obtained. In the case of a professional P-1 athlete who is traded from one organization to another organization, employment authorization for the player will automatically continue

for a period of 30 days after the acquisition by the new organization, within which time the new organization is expected to file a new Form I-129 for P-1 nonimmigrant classification. If a new Form I-129 is not filed within 30 days, employment authorization will cease. If a new Form I-129 is filed within 30 days, the professional athlete's employment authorization will continue until the petition is adjudicated. If the new petition is denied, employment authorization will cease;

(15) An international cultural exchange visitor (Q-1), according to § 214.2(q)(1) of this chapter. An alien may only be employed by the petitioner through whom the status was obtained;

(16) An alien having a religious occupation, pursuant to § 214.2(r) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by the religious organization through whom the status was obtained;

(17) Officers and personnel of the armed services of nations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, and representatives, officials, and staff employees of NATO (NATO-1, NATO-2, NATO-3, NATO-4, NATO-5 and NATO-6), pursuant to § 214.2(o) of this chapter. An alien in this status may be employed only by NATO;

(18) An attendant, servant or personal employee (NATO-7) of an alien admitted as a NATO-1, NATO-2, NATO-3, NATO-4, NATO-5, or NATO-6, pursuant to § 214.2(o) of this chapter. An alien admitted under

this classification may be employed only by the NATO alien through whom the status was obtained;

(19) A nonimmigrant pursuant to section 214(e) of the Act. An alien in this status must be engaged in business activities at a professional level in accordance with the provisions of Chapter 16 of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA);

(20) A nonimmigrant alien within the class of aliens described in paragraphs (b)(2), (b)(5), (b)(8), (b)(9), (b)(10), (b)(11), (b)(12), (b)(13), (b)(14), (b)(16), and (b)(19) of this section whose status has expired but who has filed a timely application for an extension of such stay pursuant to §§ 214.2 or 214.6 of this chapter. These aliens are authorized to continue employment with the same employer for a period not to exceed 240 days beginning on the date of the expiration of the authorized period of stay. Such authorization shall be subject to any conditions and limitations noted on the initial authorization. However, if the district director or service center director adjudicates the application prior to the expiration of this 240 day period and denies the application for extension of stay, the employment authorization under this paragraph shall automatically terminate upon notification of the denial decision;

(21) A nonimmigrant alien within the class of aliens described in 8 CFR 214.2(h)(1)(ii)(C) who filed an application for an extension of stay pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2 during his or her period of admission. Such

alien is authorized to be employed by a new employer that has filed an H-2A petition naming the alien as a beneficiary and requesting an extension of stay for the alien for a period not to exceed 120 days beginning from the "Received Date" on Form I-797 (Notice of Action) acknowledging receipt of the petition requesting an extension of stay, provided that the employer has enrolled in and is a participant in good standing in the E-Verify program, as determined by USCIS in its discretion. Such authorization will be subject to any conditions and limitations noted on the initial authorization, except as to the employer and place of employment. However, if the District Director or Service Center director adjudicates the application prior to the expiration of this 120-day period and denies the application for extension of stay, the employment authorization under this paragraph (b)(21) shall automatically terminate upon 15 days after the date of the denial decision. The employment authorization shall also terminate automatically if the employer fails to remain a participant in good standing in the E-Verify program, as determined by USCIS in its discretion;

(22) An alien in E-2 CNMI Investor nonimmigrant status pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(e)(23). An alien in this status may be employed only by the qualifying company through which the alien attained the status. An alien in E-2 CNMI Investor nonimmigrant status may be employed only in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands for a qualifying entity. An alien who attained E-2 CNMI Investor nonimmigrant

status based upon a Foreign Retiree Investment Certificate or Certification is not employment-authorized. Employment authorization does not extend to the dependents of the principal investor (also designated E-2 CNMI Investor nonimmigrants) other than those specified in paragraph (c)(12) of this section;

(23) A Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands transitional worker (CW-1) pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(w). An alien in this status may be employed only in the CNMI during the transition period, and only by the petitioner through whom the status was obtained, or as otherwise authorized by 8 CFR 214.2(w). An alien who is lawfully present in the CNMI (as defined by 8 CFR 214.2(w)(1)(v)) on or before November 27, 2011, is authorized to be employed in the CNMI, and is so employed in the CNMI by an employer properly filing an application under 8 CFR 214.2(w)(14)(ii) on or before such date for a grant of CW-1 status to its employee in the CNMI for the purpose of the alien continuing the employment, is authorized to continue such employment on or after November 27, 2011, until a decision is made on the application; or

(24) An alien who is authorized to be employed in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands for a period of up to 2 years following the transition program effective date, under section 6(e)(2) of Public Law 94-241, as added by section 702(a) of Public Law 110-229. Such alien is only authorized to continue in

the same employment that he or she had on the transition program effective date as defined in 8 CFR 1.1 until the earlier of the date that is 2 years after the transition program effective date or the date of expiration of the alien's employment authorization, unless the alien had unrestricted employment authorization or was otherwise authorized as of the transition program effective date to change employers, in which case the alien may have such employment privileges as were authorized as of the transition program effective date for up to 2 years.

(c) *Aliens who must apply for employment authorization.* An alien within a class of aliens described in this section must apply for work authorization. If authorized, such an alien may accept employment subject to any restrictions stated in the regulations or cited on the employment authorization document. USCIS, in its discretion, may establish a specific validity period for an employment authorization document, which may include any period when an administrative appeal or judicial review of an application or petition is pending.

(1) An alien spouse or unmarried dependent child; son or daughter of a foreign government official (A-1 or A-2) pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(a)(2) and who presents an endorsement from an authorized representative of the Department of State;

(2) An alien spouse or unmarried dependent son or daughter of an alien employee of the Coordination

Council for North American Affairs (E-1) pursuant to § 214.2(e) of this chapter;

(3) A nonimmigrant (F-1) student who:

(i)(A) Is seeking pre-completion practical training pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f)(10)(ii)(A)(*1*)-(*2*);

(B) Is seeking authorization to engage in post-completion Optional Practical Training (OPT) pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f)(10)(ii)(A)(*3*); or

(C) Is seeking a 17-month STEM OPT extension pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f)(10)(ii)(C);

(ii) Has been offered employment under the sponsorship of an international organization within the meaning of the International Organization Immunities Act (59 Stat. 669) and who presents a written certification from the international organization that the proposed employment is within the scope of the organization's sponsorship. The F-1 student must also present a Form I-20 ID or SEVIS Form I-20 with employment page completed by DSO certifying eligibility for employment; or

(iii) Is seeking employment because of severe economic hardship pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(f)(9)(ii)(C) and has filed the Form I-20 ID and Form I-538 (for non-SEVIS schools), or SEVIS Form I-20 with employment page completed by the DSO certifying eligibility, and any other supporting materials such as affidavits which further detail the unforeseen economic

circumstances that require the student to seek employment authorization.

(4) An alien spouse or unmarried dependent child; son or daughter of a foreign government official (G-1, G-3 or G-4) pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(g) and who presents an endorsement from an authorized representative of the Department of State;

(5) An alien spouse or minor child of an exchange visitor (J-2) pursuant to § 214.2(j) of this chapter;

(6) A nonimmigrant (M-1) student seeking employment for practical training pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(m) following completion of studies. The alien may be employed only in an occupation or vocation directly related to his or her course of study as recommended by the endorsement of the designated school official on the I-20 ID;

(7) A dependent of an alien classified as NATO-1 through NATO-7 pursuant to § 214.2(n) of this chapter;

(8) An alien who has filed a complete application for asylum or withholding of deportation or removal pursuant to 8 CFR part 208, whose application:

(i) Has not been decided, and who is eligible to apply for employment authorization under § 208.7 of this chapter because the 150-day period set forth in that section has expired. Employment authorization may be granted according to the provisions of § 208.7

of this chapter in increments to be determined by the Commissioner and shall expire on a specified date; or

(ii) Has been recommended for approval, but who has not yet received a grant of asylum or withholding or deportation or removal;

(9) An alien who has filed an application for adjustment of status to lawful permanent resident pursuant to part 245 of this chapter. For purposes of section 245(c)(8) of the Act, an alien will not be deemed to be an "unauthorized alien" as defined in section 274A(h)(3) of the Act while his or her properly filed Form I-485 application is pending final adjudication, if the alien has otherwise obtained permission from the Service pursuant to 8 CFR 274a.12 to engage in employment, or if the alien had been granted employment authorization prior to the filing of the adjustment application and such authorization does not expire during the pendency of the adjustment application. Upon meeting these conditions, the adjustment applicant need not file an application for employment authorization to continue employment during the period described in the preceding sentence;

(10) An alien who has filed an application for suspension of deportation under section 244 of the Act (as it existed prior to April 1, 1997), cancellation of removal pursuant to section 240A of the Act, or special rule cancellation of removal under section 309(f)(1) of the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act of 1996, enacted as Pub. L. 104-208

(110 Stat. 3009-625) (as amended by the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (NACARA)), title II of Pub. L. 105-100 (111 Stat. 2160, 2193) and whose properly filed application has been accepted by the Service or EOIR.

(11) An alien paroled into the United States temporarily for emergency reasons or reasons deemed strictly in the public interest pursuant to § 212.5 of this chapter;

(12) An alien spouse of a long-term investor in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (E-2 CNMI Investor) other than an E-2 CNMI investor who obtained such status based upon a Foreign Retiree Investment Certificate, pursuant to 8 CFR 214.2(e)(23). An alien spouse of an E-2 CNMI Investor is eligible for employment in the CNMI only;

(13) [Reserved]

(14) An alien who has been granted deferred action, an act of administrative convenience to the government which gives some cases lower priority, if the alien establishes an economic necessity for employment;

(15) [Reserved]

(16) Any alien who has filed an application for creation of record of lawful admission for permanent residence pursuant to part 249 of this chapter.

(17) A nonimmigrant visitor for business (B-1) who:

(i) Is a personal or domestic servant who is accompanying or following to join an employer who seeks admission into, or is already in, the United States as a nonimmigrant defined under sections 101(a)(15) (B), (E), (F), (H), (I), (J), (L) or section 214(e) of the Act. The personal or domestic servant shall have a residence abroad which he or she has no intention of abandoning and shall demonstrate at least one year's experience as a personal or domestic servant. The nonimmigrant's employer shall demonstrate that the employer/employee relationship has existed for at least one year prior to the employer's admission to the United States; or, if the employer/employee relationship existed for less than one year, that the employer has regularly employed (either year-round or seasonally) personal or domestic servants over a period of several years preceding the employer's admission to the United States;

(ii) Is a domestic servant of a United States citizen accompanying or following to join his or her United States citizen employer who has a permanent home or is stationed in a foreign country, and who is visiting temporarily in the United States. The employer/employee relationship shall have existed prior to the commencement of the employer's visit to the United States; or

(iii) Is an employee of a foreign airline engaged in international transportation of passengers freight, whose position with the foreign airline would otherwise entitle the employee to classification under section 101(a)(15)(E)(i) of the Immigration and Nationality Act, and who is precluded from such classification solely because the employee is not a national of the country of the airline's nationality or because there is no treaty of commerce and navigation in effect between the United States and the country of the airline's nationality.

(18) An alien against whom a final order of deportation or removal exists and who is released on an order of supervision under the authority contained in section 241(a)(3) of the Act may be granted employment authorization in the discretion of the district director only if the alien cannot be removed due to the refusal of all countries designated by the alien or under section 241 of the Act to receive the alien, or because the removal of the alien is otherwise impracticable or contrary to the public interest. Additional factors which may be considered by the district director in adjudicating the application for employment authorization include, but are not limited to, the following:

(i) The existence of economic necessity to be employed;

(ii) The existence of a dependent spouse and/or children in the United States who rely on the alien for support; and

(iii) The anticipated length of time before the alien can be removed from the United States.

(19) An alien applying for Temporary Protected Status pursuant to section 244 of the Act shall apply for employment authorization only in accordance with the procedures set forth in part 244 of this chapter.

(20) Any alien who has filed a completed legalization application pursuant to section 210 of the Act (and part 210 of this chapter).

(21) A principal nonimmigrant witness or informant in S classification, and qualified dependent family members.

(22) Any alien who has filed a completed legalization application pursuant to section 245A of the Act (and part 245a of this chapter). Employment authorization shall be granted in increments not exceeding 1 year during the period the application is pending (including any period when an administrative appeal is pending) and shall expire on a specified date.

(23) [Reserved]

(24) An alien who has filed an application for adjustment pursuant to section 1104 of the LIFE Act, Public Law 106-553, and the provisions of 8 CFR part 245a, Subpart B of this chapter.

(25) An immediate family member of a T-1 victim of a severe form of trafficking in persons designated as a T-2, T-3 or T-4 nonimmigrant pursuant to § 214.11 of this chapter. Aliens in this status shall only be authorized to work for the duration of their T nonimmigrant status.

* * * * *

14. 8 C.F.R. 1.3(a) provides:

Lawfully present aliens for purposes of applying for Social Security benefits.

(a) *Definition of the term an "alien who is lawfully present in the United States.*" For the purposes of 8 U.S.C. 1611(b)(2) only, an "alien who is lawfuly present in the United States" means:

(1) A qualified alien as defined in 8 U.S.C. 1641(b);

(2) An alien who has been inspected and admitted to the United States and who has not violated the terms of the status under which he or she was admitted or to which he or she has changed after admission;

(3) An alien who has been paroled into the United States pursuant to section 212(d)(5) of the Act for less than 1 year, except:

(i) Aliens paroled for deferred inspection or pending removal proceedings under section 240 of the Act; and

(ii) Aliens paroled into the United States for prosecution pursuant to 8 CFR 212.5(b)(3);

(4) An alien who belongs to one of the following classes of aliens permitted to remain in the United States because DHS has decided for humanitarian or other public policy reasons not to initiate removal proceedings or enforce departure:

(i) Aliens currently in temporary resident status pursuant to section 210 or 245A of the Act;

(ii) Aliens currently under Temporary Protected Status (TPS) pursuant to section 244 of the Act;

(iii) Cuban-Haitian entrants, as defined in section 202(b) of Pub. L. 99-603, as amended;

(iv) Family Unity beneficiaries pursuant to section 301 of Pub. L. 101-649, as amended;

(v) Aliens currently under Deferred Enforced Departure (DED) pursuant to a decision made by the President;

(vi) Aliens currently in deferred action status;

(vii) Aliens who are the spouse or child of a United States citizen whose visa petition has been approved and who have a pending application for adjustment of status;

(5) Applicants for asylum under section 208(a) of the Act and applicants for withholding of removal under section 241(b)(3) of the Act or under the Conven-

tion Against Torture who have been granted employment authorization, and such applicants under the age of 14 who have had an application pending for at least 180 days.