CRITICAL CHOICES IN POST-RECESSION CALIFORNIA

INVESTING IN THE EDUCATIONAL AND CAREER SUCCESS OF IMMIGRANT YOUTH

By Sarah Hooker, Margie McHugh, and Michael Fix

MIGRATION POLICY INSTITUTE
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## VI. Adult Education as an On-Ramp to Postsecondary Success
Executive Summary

California’s success in integrating immigrant youth is critical not just to the state but the nation. Sheer numbers demonstrate this significance: the state is home to one-quarter of the nation’s immigrants, and educates more than one-third of U.S. students designated as English Language Learners (ELLs). California has the largest population of youth eligible for the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program. It has also been one of the top refugee-receiving states for decades. Integrating immigrant young adults into postsecondary education and the labor force is also critical for California’s economic competitiveness. Over the past six years, California has fallen into and emerged from arguably the most severe state budget crisis in the nation—with grave implications for the state’s capacity to produce college-educated workers at the rate it requires. General Fund expenditures fell from $103 billion in fiscal year (FY) 2007-08 to a low of $86 billion in FY 2011-12. Budget cuts forced California’s community colleges to reduce enrollment by nearly half a million students during the same period. California’s adult education system—once the largest and most robust in the nation—lost more than half of its state funding. Meanwhile, K-12 school districts cut teachers and counselors, and eliminated summer school programs that provided a safety net for students who needed extra time to meet graduation requirements. The challenges arising from reduced capacity were compounded by population growth, as California’s youth population grew by 600,000 between 2000 and 2012.

As of 2012, more than half of young adults in California ages 16 to 26 were first- or second-generation immigrants—3.3 million individuals—compared to one-quarter of youth nationwide. In fact, immigrants and the children of immigrants have comprised more than 50 percent of California youth for more than a decade. However, the relative composition of this group has shifted in recent years (see Figure 1). The number of first-generation youth declined significantly from 2007 to 2012, reflecting a recession-driven, nationwide slowdown in new immigration. At the same time, the number of second-generation youth (the U.S.-born children of immigrants) grew rapidly, to almost twice the size of the first generation by 2012.

As of 2012, more than half of young adults in California ages 16 to 26 were first- or second-generation immigrants—3.3 million individuals—compared to one-quarter of youth nationwide. In fact, immigrants and the children of immigrants have comprised more than 50 percent of California youth for more than a decade. However, the relative composition of this group has shifted in recent years (see Figure 1). The number of first-generation youth declined significantly from 2007 to 2012, reflecting a recession-driven, nationwide slowdown in new immigration. At the same time, the number of second-generation youth (the U.S.-born children of immigrants) grew rapidly, to almost twice the size of the first generation by 2012.

1 Throughout this report, we include both the first- and second-generation young adults (ages 16 to 26, unless otherwise noted) when we use the term “immigrant youth.” The term “first generation” refers to those who are foreign born; “second generation” refers to those who are U.S. born with at least one foreign-born parent.
2 Launched in August 2012 by the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS), the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program is available to young adults ages 15 to 30 who came to the United States before age 16, and who are currently enrolled in school or workforce training, have graduated from high school or earned a GED, or have been honorably discharged from the U.S. armed forces.
3 In fiscal year (FY) 2012, Texas was the top refugee-receiving state, and California received the second-highest number of refugees. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), “Fiscal Year 2012 Refugee Arrivals,” www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/orr/resource/fiscal-year-2012-refugee-arrivals.
6 MPI analysis of CPS 2011-13 pooled data.
California’s policy responses to immigration flows have fluctuated widely over the past several decades. The 1990s saw the passage of restrictive measures such as Proposition 187, which required police, educators, and health-care professionals to verify immigration status (though its implementation was subsequently blocked by a federal court); and passage of Proposition 227, which put restrictions on bilingual education in K-12 schools. The political winds have shifted in recent years, however, with legislation limiting local law enforcement’s collaboration with federal immigration authorities, granting unauthorized immigrants drivers’ licenses, and expanding access to in-state tuition as well as state-funded financial aid for unauthorized immigrant youth.

The state’s economic forecast has also brightened considerably over the past few years, and analysts now predict an operating budget surplus of nearly $10 billion by 2017-18. The passage of Proposition 30 in November 2012 was a turning point, averting further cuts to education spending by increasing income tax rates for the highest-earning groups over seven years and raising the sales tax for four years.

While California’s economy has stabilized, its educational institutions remain in flux. Recent legislation substantially altered the state’s method of financing K-12 education by delegating greater authority to

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**California’s education systems are at a watershed, with critical choices to be made at all levels.**

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the local level and requiring districts to spend extra resources on their highest-need groups, including ELLs. At the same time, schools are also implementing challenging new academic standards, including the Common Core State Standards and Next Generation Science Standards. The adult education system is refocusing to promote college-going among adult learners; community colleges, meanwhile, have a new mandate to provide support services that promote timely degree completion. In sum, California’s education systems are at a watershed, with critical choices to be made at all levels—choices that hold significant implications for the state’s first- and second-generation young adults.

For California to join the top ten states, in terms of the share of the workforce with a college degree, the state would have to produce an additional 2.3 million college graduates...by 2025.

These decisions come at a time when the state faces clear educational challenges: California ranks 46th in the nation in its share of the young adult population with a high school diploma or its equivalent. 11 Meanwhile, new job growth in the state is increasingly concentrated in positions requiring a postsecondary degree. For California to join the top ten states, in terms of the share of the workforce with a college degree, the state would have to produce an additional 2.3 million college graduates—on top of the 3.2 million already expected—by 2025. 12 Reaching this goal will require raising the educational attainment of California’s immigrant youth, who currently lag behind their nonimmigrant peers at the different levels of the educational pipeline. If current trends persist, the underperformance of first- and second-generation immigrants could imperil the state’s future workforce competitiveness.

A. Study Description

Part of a multistate series, this report examines the educational experiences and outcomes of first- and second-generation immigrant youth ages 16 to 26 across California’s educational institutions, encompassing secondary schools, adult education, and postsecondary education. 13 ELLs were a central focus of the analysis at all levels, as this group—largely comprised first- and second-generation immigrants—has unique educational needs.

The findings draw from qualitative fieldwork and quantitative analyses of the most recent data from the U.S. Census Bureau and state education agencies. The authors conducted interviews with 125 respondents in California, including school districts.

Study Districts
- Anaheim Union High School District
- Los Angeles Unified School District
- Oakland Unified School District
- Sanger Unified School District
- San Francisco Unified School District

Study Colleges
- Fresno City College
- Fullerton City College
- Los Angeles Trade-Tech College
- City College of San Francisco

12 This figure represents additional postsecondary credentials needed on top of the 3.2 million that are already projected following current trends. College graduates include completers of certificates, associate’s degrees, and bachelor’s degrees. California Competes, The Road Ahead: Higher Education, California’s Promise, and our Future Economy (San Francisco, CA: California Competes, 2012), http://californiacompetes.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/CaCompetes_Report_Final-2.pdf.
13 This scope of work was supported by a grant from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. The other states included in the project are Florida, Georgia, New York, and Washington. For previous products in this series, see Sarah Hooker, Margie McHugh, Michael Fix, and Randy Capps, Shaping Our Futures: The Educational and Career Success of Washington State’s Immigrant Youth (Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute, 2013), www.migrationpolicy.org/sites/default/files/publications/immigrantstudents-Washington[1].pdf; Sarah Hooker, Michael Fix, and Margie McHugh, Education Reform in a Changing Georgia: Promoting High School and College Success for Immigrant Youth (Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute, 2014), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/education-reform-changing-georgia-promoting-high-school-and-college-success-immigrant-youth.
district and college administrators and faculty, as well as leaders of community-based organizations that serve immigrants. The fieldwork focused on five school districts and four community colleges, which were chosen to seek to reflect the state’s demographic and regional diversity.

The district- and state-level analysis documents the patterns of low educational attainment among students from immigrant families, and identifies barriers to their progress. The report also documents innovative efforts to support immigrant youth, and highlights significant district-wide commitments to improving their outcomes.

There was a wide variation in ELL graduation rates across the study districts, ranging from 94 percent in Sanger to 47 percent in Los Angeles.

B. High School Achievement and Completion

More than half of California’s high school students are Latino, and 13 percent are Asian, Pacific Islander, or Filipino. ELLs represent 12 percent of high school students, and 22 percent of all students in grades K-12. Across the districts visited for this study, student demographics varied greatly, as did the most common languages spoken by ELLs. For example, Cantonese-speakers comprise one-third of ELLs in San Francisco Unified School District; Sanger Unified School District—a small, majority-Latino district in the Central Valley—has a substantial number of Hmong speakers. However, the vast majority of California’s ELLs speak Spanish.

In 2013, California’s four-year high school graduation rate was 80 percent. Ninety-two percent of Asians and 88 percent of white students graduated in four years, compared to 75 percent of Latinos and 68 percent of Blacks. The ELL graduation rate was 63 percent. There was a wide variation in ELL graduation rates across the study districts, ranging from 94 percent in Sanger to 47 percent in Los Angeles and 49 percent in Oakland.

Beyond the state’s minimum graduation requirements, the University of California (UC) and the California State University (CSU) systems have established a set of 15 courses—collectively known as the “A-G” requirements, in reference to seven required subject areas—that high school students must pass for admission to a public, four-year college. Latino and Black high school graduates are the least likely to meet this measure of college readiness: 29 percent of each of these groups completed A-G requirements, compared to 39 percent of all graduates and 68 percent of Asian graduates. In recent years, many of California’s largest school districts have adopted the A-G requirements as the default curriculum for all students. Completing these requirements is challenging for ELLs, however, who must also take required English Language Development courses during the tight high school timeline.

At the same time that districts are raising their graduation requirements, California (like many states) is...

14 Throughout this report, the terms “Latino” and “Hispanic” are used interchangeably. Most sources of national data cited in this report used the term “Hispanic,” and we have used the corresponding term in tables and figures.
15 The California Department of Education disaggregates data on Filipino students—who comprise 3 percent of high school students—from other Asian ethnic groups.
16 Unless otherwise specified, the term “Black” includes individuals who are African American as well as those who are Black immigrants.

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also in the process of implementing the rigorous Common Core State Standards\textsuperscript{20} and Next Generation Science Standards.\textsuperscript{21} These new standards involve complex language tasks such as argumentation and analysis. They require strong academic language skills from all students, and will prove demanding for ELLs.

California’s new funding mechanism for K-12 education, the Local Control Funding Formula (LCFF), also presents new opportunities and critical choices related to ELL education. Introduced in the 2013 Budget Act, the LCFF collapses many state funding streams into a base grant that districts receive for each student, with extra funds allocated based on the number and concentration of ELLs, low-income students, and students in foster care.\textsuperscript{22} The LCFF gives districts considerable autonomy in deciding how to use funds, but it also requires that they develop Local Control and Accountability Plans to specify how their investments will improve services and outcomes for targeted subgroups. The planning process must involve the input of parents of ELLs and other community members. These plans must be developed by July 2014 and updated annually.

The districts included in this study have already undertaken promising reforms to improve outcomes for ELLs and immigrant students, including:

- **Tailored approaches** that offer a range of programs for ELLs with varied strengths and needs
- **Enhanced training for teachers** to support ELLs in all subject areas
- **Creative solutions for time pressures** that high school students face as they learn English and strive to meet increasingly rigorous standards
- **Exposure to college- and career-preparatory programs** and assistance navigating the post-secondary planning process.

The following subsections address each of these in turn.

1. **Tailored Approaches for Diverse ELL Needs**

Several districts included in this study have recently diversified the range of program models offered to high school ELLs, based on students’ varying language proficiency, academic skills, and length of time in U.S. schools. In both San Francisco and Los Angeles, judicial oversight played a key role in prompting these changes. San Francisco developed the Lau Action Plan to improve its ELL programs following the landmark Supreme Court case *Lau v. Nichols* in 1974, and revised it in 2008.\textsuperscript{23} In the years since, the district has expanded and clarified the “pathways” (sets of linked courses) available to ELLs with particular characteristics. Secondary-level offerings include a newcomer pathway serving students who have been in the United States for less than two years and may have had interrupted schooling. Similarly, Los Angeles’ new English Learner Master Plan—adopted in 2012 as a condition of a Voluntary Resolution Agreement with the U.S. Department of Education’s Office for Civil Rights—created a new set of courses for various subgroups of ELLs.

In both districts, these subgroups include *long-term ELLs*—students who have been in U.S. schools for more than six years but have not gained sufficient English skills to be reclassified as English proficient.\textsuperscript{24} The focus on long-term ELLs is part of a broader statewide effort to identify and address the specific

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{22} Each unduplicated ELL, low-income student, or student in foster care generates “supplemental grant” funding, which is set at 20 percent of the base grant. Districts with a high share of students in these groups also receive “concentration grant” funds, set at 50 percent of the base grant.
  \item \textsuperscript{24} California districts develop their own policies for “reclassifying” students as “Fluent English Proficient” when they have reached a certain threshold of English proficiency. Reclassification policies must be based on four general criteria: an assessment of English proficiency, an assessment of academic skills in English, a teacher’s evaluation, and a parental consultation.
\end{itemize}
needs of this large group in California’s secondary schools. A 2010 study found that long-term ELLs comprised approximately 60 percent of the state’s secondary-level ELL students, indicating that the instruction they have received has not adequately addressed their language needs. Many of these students are U.S.-born. Long-term ELLs generally have below-average academic performance and may be stuck in remedial courses, leading some students to become discouraged and drop out.

In September 2012, California became the first state to pass legislation establishing a common definition of the criteria that qualify students as long-term ELLs and requiring the state education agency to disaggregate data on this group of students, as well as those “at risk of becoming a long-term English learner.” According to advocates, this legislation creates a new sense of urgency for schools and districts to identify this vulnerable group of students and provide targeted support for their language development.

Still, interviewees frequently cited capacity constraints that limit the implementation of reforms focused on long-term ELLs and newcomers. For example, small schools—and large schools that have been redesigned into “small learning communities”—face challenges in providing a range of courses and support for their ELLs. Education experts are still grappling with the challenge of how to extend the benefits of these schools—e.g. increased personalization and relevance—to ELLs. In addition, some districts and schools still have limited data capacity and continue to offer the same instructional program for all high school ELLs despite their varied needs.

Dual language programs and efforts to foster biliteracy have recently expanded across California.

Finally, dual language programs and efforts to foster biliteracy have recently expanded across California. The organization Californians Together developed the Seal of Biliteracy in 2008 as a way for districts to honor students who had attained a high level of proficiency in two languages. State legislation establishing the California State Seal of Biliteracy in 2011 made California the first state to officially recognize biliterate graduates with a special seal on their diploma. More than 21,000 California high school graduates received this seal in Spring 2013.

2. Training Educators to Provide Effective Instruction for ELLs

National education experts caution that for ELLs to meet the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards, states and districts must train a wider spectrum of teachers to promote
students’ English language development in all subject areas. All teachers must be able to teach language and course content (such as math or history) at the same time.

Since 2002, California has required all new teacher candidates to complete ELL-focused coursework. Incumbent teachers were required to earn an additional certification—most commonly the Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD) certificate—if they taught at least one ELL student in their classes. In large districts, holding this certification has become a near-universal requirement for hiring. Still, interviewees across the state cautioned that this certificate does not ensure teachers have adequate skills to make their classes accessible to ELLs.

All of the districts included in this study have expanded their professional development efforts focused on effective instructional practices for ELLs.

Faced with the imperative of raising ELL performance in recent years, all of the districts included in this study have expanded their professional development efforts focused on effective instructional practices for ELLs. As part of the revised Lau Action Plan, San Francisco trained school-level teams of teachers, counselors, and administrators to use ELL data to tailor instruction and incorporated a new emphasis on educators’ skills in supporting ELLs in teacher evaluations. In Los Angeles, all teachers and principals received training in the new ELL Master Plan during 2013, and 800 school-based ELL program coordinators completed a more intensive summer institute. Interviewees in both San Francisco and Los Angeles noted that federal oversight elevated the authority of the districts’ central offices responsible for ELL programs, allowing them to undertake more systemic efforts to improve ELL instruction at all schools.

Anaheim Union High School District, meanwhile, used peer coaching to implement a homegrown professional development program, the Lesson Design Initiative (LDI), which helps teachers build a focus on academic language development into everyday instruction. Oakland has offered training in the nationally recognized Quality Teaching for English Learners (QTEL) model for high school math, science, and English language arts teachers every summer since 2011, and school leadership teams in Sanger received training on the language skills required by the Common Core throughout 2012-13.

Across California, ELL-focused professional development still competes with other initiatives for scarce funding and teachers’ limited time, however, and is not always given priority in the absence of a judicial mandate. The state budget crisis further complicated efforts, as most districts lacked the resources to fund additional staff training time and, in some cases, the days reserved for professional development were replaced by furlough days. Now that funding has increased, districts may choose to expand investments in ELL-focused professional development.

32 California Department of Education, “FAQs for English Learner Teacher Authorizations,” www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/eleteachersfaq.asp.
33 For more information about QTEL, see WestEd, “Quality Teaching for English Learners,” www.wested.org/project/quality-teaching-for-english-learners/.
3. Expanded Learning Time for ELLs

High school ELLs must increase their English proficiency, complete required credits, and prepare for college and careers in a short timeframe. They must perform “double the work” of native English speakers, since they are “learning English at the same time they are studying core content areas through English.”\(^{34}\) Summer school and other expanded learning opportunities play a key role in helping ELLs build their skills and complete credits needed for high school graduation—unfortunately, however, these options were sharply curtailed during the state budget crisis. In Los Angeles, summer school spending fell from $51 million in 2008 to $3 million in 2011.\(^{35}\) In Spring 2014, Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) announced a significant restoration of summer school funding, bringing the budget up to $29 million—three-quarters of which will be dedicated to helping high school students earn required credits.\(^{36}\) Still, these restorations only partially restore earlier capacity and come too late for the cohort of students who were in high school during the worst years of the recession.

Many California school districts also allow students who are off-track for graduation to co-enroll in adult education courses offered after school or at night.

Over the past several years, districts and schools have also leveraged partnerships with government agencies and external organizations to continue providing out-of-school-time programs for the most vulnerable students. The City of San Francisco Board of Supervisors, for instance, has funded summer school courses for high school ELLs since 2012. Oakland Unified School District, meanwhile, has embraced the “community schools” model as a centerpiece of its strategic plan, with the goal of bringing community-based organizations providing academic and socioemotional support services—including afterschool programs—onto the campus of every school. Many of the districts’ key partners, including the East Bay Asian Youth Center, have a strong reputation for providing bilingual, culturally relevant services for immigrant youth and their families.

Many California school districts also allow students who are off-track for graduation to co-enroll in adult education courses offered after school or at night, in order to make up missing credits. In Sanger Unified School District, for instance, up to one-quarter of all high school students co-enroll. The adult education division in LAUSD provides a wide variety of programs for youth who have dropped out of the district’s traditional high schools. These programs are credited with “recovering” 8 percent of the previous year’s dropouts in 2011-12.\(^{37}\) In some cases, districts preserved adult education courses serving current high school students and recent dropouts even in a time of deep reductions in their overall adult education spending.

Extra time is critical for youth who immigrate in late adolescence, many of whom have had interrupted formal education. While students are legally entitled to remain in high school through age 21 as long as they are making progress and earning required credits, interviewees noted that some schools are reluctant to enroll students who are unlikely to earn a diploma by age 18 or 19, due to potential impact on their graduation rates. Oakland International High School offers a fifth-year program including academics and internships for late-arriving ELLs who need extra time. Expanding the school day and awarding credit


\(^{37}\) These students were enrolled in an adult education program or had completed a diploma or GED by the following October.
for courses students took in their home country can also provide vital solutions to the time crunch faced by late-arriving immigrants, who have a legal right to stay in school.

4. **College and Career Preparation for Immigrant Youth**

While high school graduation itself can be a significant hurdle, youth also need access to college-preparatory academic courses and career-oriented programs. Career and technical education (CTE) programs, in particular, have the potential to increase students’ engagement in education by building connections between high school courses, postsecondary degree and certificate programs, and jobs paying a family-sustaining wage.

California’s Linked Learning school reform model combines academics with career knowledge, work-based learning, and support services. Linked Learning is typically implemented as part of a shift toward smaller schools, or the reorganization of larger high schools into themed “career pathways.” A growing evidence base supports the success of the model in helping students stay on track for high school graduation and college enrollment. 38

However, due to the pressing demands on their time, ELLs may face barriers to reaping the full benefits of Linked Learning and other career-focused programs, as demonstrated in a prior external evaluation of the Linked Learning model and through this study. 39 Interviewees noted that ELLs often miss out on interdisciplinary projects and work-based learning—key components of the model—because they must take required language courses.

First- and second-generation youth also need to build “college knowledge” to navigate the complex college-planning process. Several California school districts and colleges have recently launched large-scale college access initiatives, sometimes with the support of local government and philanthropic partners. San Francisco’s Bridge to Success initiative, for instance, offers mentoring and career exploration for middle school students, a college planning curriculum for ninth graders, and the promise of scholarships to San Francisco State University for low-income students. A separate partnership between San Francisco Unified School District and City College of San Francisco allows students at four high schools to complete career-focused “dual enrollment” courses at CCSF. In Orange County, California State University-Fullerton and Anaheim Union High School District use a federal GEAR UP 40 grant to build college-going aspirations and academic skills for long-term ELLs.

Extra time is critical for youth who immigrate in late adolescence, many of whom have had interrupted formal education.

Partnerships that provide college planning assistance, mentoring, and exposure to higher education are especially critical given the reduced capacity of counseling programs in school districts across California. As of 2011-12, California’s guidance counselor-to-student ratio was the second-highest in the nation, with more than 800 students in grades K-12 per counselor—compared to a national average of approximately

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39 Ibid.

40 GEAR UP (Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs) is a discretionary grant program that aims to increase the college preparation and enrollment rates of low-income students. GEAR UP funds college outreach and early intervention activities for cohorts of students starting at the middle school level and continuing through high school.
470 students. Interviewees reported that in many cases, counselors do not have time to provide the individualized assistance that many students from immigrant families need with the college search and application process.

Efforts to close gaps in the pipeline from high school to college and careers are also complicated by a lack of data on students’ postsecondary outcomes. Unlike some states, California does not have a statewide longitudinal data system that can track individual student records from preschool through the K-12 and postsecondary levels and into the workforce, and efforts to build this data capacity have stalled.  

C. Adult Education

Adult education can be a critically important stepping stone to economic mobility for youth from immigrant families, including those who dropped out of U.S. high schools and those who arrived in late adolescence and may have never “dropped in.” Most importantly, adult education programs can support these young adults in earning a high school diploma or its equivalent and in learning English, thereby providing a pathway into postsecondary education and training.

California’s urgent need for adult basic education, adult secondary education, and English as a Second Language programs is borne out by data.

California’s urgent need for adult basic education (ABE), adult secondary education (ASE), and English as a Second Language (ESL) programs is borne out by data. Among young adults ages 21 to 26, 29 percent of first-generation immigrants lacked a high school diploma or its equivalent during the 2009-13 time period—more than twice the state average (13 percent) for this age group. Low rates of high school completion were most common among California’s first-generation Hispanic youth, as 43 percent of this population—approximately 230,000 individuals—lacked a high school diploma or GED (see Figure 2).

At the same time, Figure 2 demonstrates considerable generational progress: by the second generation, the share of Hispanics without a high school diploma dropped to 13 percent, a rate still substantially higher than that of second-generation non-Hispanics (5 percent) but far better than foreign-born Hispanics. It is important to note, however, that these data are based on youth born between 1983 and 1992. It remains to be seen whether the second-generation children of immigrants who arrived during the 1990s and 2000s will have the same outcomes by the time they reach their twenties.

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42 Florida and Washington, which were also included in this study, have each developed a “P-20W Data Warehouse,” which is a central repository for data from the early childhood, elementary, secondary, postsecondary, and workforce systems. For more information, see http://nces.ed.gov/programs/slds/pdf/centralized_warehouse.pdf.

43 Paul Warren and Heather Hough, Increasing the Usefulness of California’s Education Data (San Francisco, CA: Public Policy Institute of California, 2013), www.ppic.org/content/pubs/report/R_813PWR.pdf.

44 MPI analysis of 2009-13 CPS-ASEC data.
Overall, California is home to 4.1 million adults (ages 18-64) who lack a high school diploma or its equivalent, and 5.1 million adults with limited English proficiency (LEP)\textsuperscript{45}. The barriers to labor market success are the most acute for the 2.5 million individuals who fall in both categories. The state's adult education services attempt to meet the needs of these individuals and, as noted earlier, are often now being deployed to help high school students meet graduation requirements.

Access to adult education courses has also become increasingly important due to the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program, as applicants must have a high school diploma or equivalent, be enrolled in school, or be enrolled in an education, literacy, or workforce training program at the time of their application. The Migration Policy Institute estimates that there were 122,000 young adults in California who would otherwise have been eligible for DACA, but did not meet these education requirements at the time of the program's launch—a substantially higher number than any other state.\textsuperscript{46} Not surprisingly, adult education programs across the state saw a spike in demand after DACA was announced in 2012. Access to adult education for California youth who are potentially DACA-eligible thus holds significant implications not just for the state’s unauthorized immigrant youth, but for the national success of the deferred action initiative.

Unfortunately, DACA's enactment coincided with unprecedented cuts and program closures in California's adult schools, which are operated primarily by K-12 school districts and County Offices of Education. During the budget crisis, the state Legislature granted school districts the flexibility to redirect state fund-

\textsuperscript{45} MPI analysis of 2010-12 ACS data. Limited English proficiency is defined as those who report speaking English “less than very well.”

\textsuperscript{46} Jeanne Batalova, Sarah Hooker, and Randy Capps, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals at the One-Year Mark: A Profile of Currently Eligible Youth and Applicants (Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute, 2013), www.migrationpolicy.org/pubs/CIRbrief-DACAatOneYear.pdf.
From dozens of categorical programs, including adult education, towards other purposes in 2009.47 This resulted in a dramatic reduction in adult education services. In response, some districts, including Anaheim Union High School District, closed their adult education programs completely.48 Recent estimates indicate that 50 to 60 percent of the state’s categorical funding for adult education was redirected to other purposes in 2011-12.49

**Access to adult education courses has also become increasingly important due to the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program.**

Providing a full picture of the scope of these startling losses is challenging, as many districts have not reported data on their state-funded adult education programs since flexibility was introduced. Data on programs receiving federal funds from Title II of the Workforce Investment Act (WIA)—the primary federal funding stream for adult education—offer a partial picture of the statewide drop in adult education enrollment (see Table 1). Total enrollment fell by 300,000 students (more than 50 percent) from 2008-09 to 2012-13, with declines in all three types of WIA-funded adult education programs.

**Table 1. California Enrollment in Workforce Investment Act Title II Adult Education Courses, by Program Type, 2007-13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Enrollment in Adult Basic Education</th>
<th>Enrollment in Adult Secondary Education</th>
<th>Enrollment in English as a Second Language</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>122,601</td>
<td>71,579</td>
<td>408,657</td>
<td>602,837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>134,422</td>
<td>77,501</td>
<td>406,844</td>
<td>618,767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>97,976</td>
<td>37,192</td>
<td>299,260</td>
<td>434,428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-11</td>
<td>98,721</td>
<td>33,013</td>
<td>261,184</td>
<td>392,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>95,891</td>
<td>32,266</td>
<td>225,909</td>
<td>354,066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-13</td>
<td>85,347</td>
<td>31,079</td>
<td>185,743</td>
<td>302,169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In addition to adult schools, some California community colleges (CCCs) also offer free, noncredit “basic skills” courses in ESL, ABE, and ASE, albeit on a more limited scale. Overall, there were approximately 100,000 noncredit basic-skills students in CCC in 2010-11.50

Policymakers have recently called into question the rationale and effectiveness of providing adult education through two separate systems,51 and have promoted efforts to move more adult education students into postsecondary education. These efforts could address problems such as lengthy ESL course

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47 The 2009 state legislature granted school districts the flexibility to use certain categorical funding streams—including adult education funds—for general purposes, in an effort to help school districts weather budget cuts, and removed reporting and other statutory requirements attached to these programs.

48 Little Hoover Commission, Serving Students, Serving California.


sequences that often prevent LEP students from accessing career-focused training or attempting college-level courses. However, while adult students with higher levels of English proficiency and academic preparation will be well-positioned to make a transition into postsecondary degree and certificate programs, these reform efforts may leave out adult learners who have different goals or who are generally less prepared. Additionally, practitioners and advocates raise concerns that community colleges can be inaccessible to low-educated adults because of their physical locations as well as complex registration processes, placement criteria, and course requirements.

The 2013-14 State Budget Act (AB 86) protects adult schools from further cuts by requiring districts to maintain their 2012-13 level of adult education spending for the next two years. AB 86 also encourages collaboration between the various types of adult education providers, allocating $25 million for regional consortia of school districts and community colleges to develop plans to coordinate services and streamline students’ transitions from basic skills into postsecondary education and the workforce. The resulting regional plans will inform the future level and structure of California’s adult education funding.

Our site visits found several examples of innovative programs designed to help bridge the gap between adult education and college-level instruction. For instance, some community colleges offer programs that combine English-language learning with workforce skills training leading to a postsecondary certificate, using a model based on Washington State’s Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST) program. City College of San Francisco, for instance, offers a Community Health Worker pathway program for ESL students. Courses are co-taught by ESL instructors and health faculty. The California Community Colleges and California Department of Education have encouraged the development of similar models as part of the regional planning process funded through AB 86. Still, these programs remain limited in scope, and often serve only the most academically prepared ESL students. Interviewees stressed the need to create and expand integrated models for lower-skilled learners, as well as to provide basic literacy and numeracy instruction in immigrants’ native languages to build a stronger foundation for them to succeed in college-level courses.

California still faces major challenges in meeting the enormous need for adult education services and is nearing a critical juncture. Our site visits found several examples of innovative programs designed to help bridge the gap between adult education and college-level instruction. For instance, some community colleges offer programs that combine English-language learning with workforce skills training leading to a postsecondary certificate, using a model based on Washington State’s Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST) program. City College of San Francisco, for instance, offers a Community Health Worker pathway program for ESL students. Courses are co-taught by ESL instructors and health faculty. The California Community Colleges and California Department of Education have encouraged the development of similar models as part of the regional planning process funded through AB 86. Still, these programs remain limited in scope, and often serve only the most academically prepared ESL students. Interviewees stressed the need to create and expand integrated models for lower-skilled learners, as well as to provide basic literacy and numeracy instruction in immigrants’ native languages to build a stronger foundation for them to succeed in college-level courses.

D. Postsecondary Education

While California’s postsecondary education policies reflect a strong state commitment to postsecondary education access dating to the 1960 Master Plan for Higher Education, sizeable gaps in college enroll-

52 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Certification of Eligibility Instructions, Terms & Conditions: AB86 Adult Education Consortium Planning Grant (Sacramento, CA: California Community Colleges’ Chancellor’s Office, 2013), http://ab86.cccc.edu/portals/7/docs/AB86%20Certification%20o%20Eligibility.pdf
53 For more information the role of I-BEST in serving immigrant youth in Washington State, see Hooker, McHugh, Fix, and Capps, Shaping our Futures.
54 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Certification of Eligibility Instructions.
55 The Master Plan for Higher Education delineated the functions and target populations of the state’s three systems of higher
ment and completion remain. In Fall 2012, while Hispanic students comprised 51 percent of high school students, they were only 39 percent of community college students, 33 percent of California State University (CSU) undergraduates, and 20 percent of University of California (UC) undergraduates.56 Black students were also underrepresented in the most selective four-year colleges, making up 7 percent of high school students but 4 percent of UC undergraduates. Meanwhile the enrollment of Asian students showed the opposite trend, as this group comprised 9 percent of high school students and 33 percent of UC students.

Hispanic students also have lower rates of college degree attainment by age 21 to 26, compared to their non-Hispanic peers (see Figure 3). While the same trend is seen nationally, it is worth noting that California’s second-generation Hispanic youth—the U.S.-born children of immigrants—lag behind other second-generation Hispanics nationwide: 16 percent of California’s second-generation Hispanics had earned at least a two-year college degree, versus 21 percent nationwide in 2009-13.

Figure 3. Share of Youth Ages 21 to 26 with at least a Two-Year College Degree, by Generation, 2009-13

Note: The data on the first generation include youth who received a degree in their sending country prior to immigrating, as well as those who completed degrees from public and private colleges in the United States. Source: MPI analysis of 2009-13 CPS-ASEC data.

For the subset of immigrant youth who are DREAMers—unauthorized immigrants who came to the United States as children—postsecondary education is more than a stepping stone to jobs paying a
family-sustaining wage. Since previous versions of the federal Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors (DREAM) Act have required at least two years of postsecondary education, it is also a likely prerequisite for citizenship under future immigration legislation.\textsuperscript{57} Nationwide, MPI estimates that only 10 percent of those eligible for DACA at the time of the program’s launch had completed at least an associate’s degree.\textsuperscript{58} Given California’s large share of the country’s DACA youth, the challenge of raising the college completion rates of this group to meet the DREAM Act threshold falls disproportionately on the state’s public higher education institutions.

\hspace{1cm} \textit{For the subset of immigrant youth who are DREAMers... postsecondary education is more than a stepping stone to jobs paying a family-sustaining wage.}

Like other sectors, California’s colleges and universities have experienced overwhelming capacity challenges in recent years due to the combined effects of the recession and population growth. CCC cut approximately 25 percent of course sections and reduced enrollment by nearly half a million students between 2007-08 and 2011-12,\textsuperscript{59} and placed an extraordinary number of enrolled students on lengthy waiting lists for required courses. Enrollment began to rebound slowly in 2012-13, with an additional 40,000 students accepted; still, a significant backlog remains and new cohorts continue to age into the system.

In addition to addressing the problem of college access, state policymakers and administrators are increasingly focused on promoting the timely degree completion of CCC students. Recent policies and institutional practices aim to increase the support services provided to all students, with a particular focus on equity for underserved groups.

1. College Affordability and Tuition Support for Immigrant Students

California has historically had a generous need-based financial aid program.\textsuperscript{60} Community college costs have risen substantially in recent years\textsuperscript{61} but still remain the lowest in the nation\textsuperscript{62} at $46 per credit, and low-income students can receive Board of Governors (BOG) fee waivers exempting them from this cost. Approximately 40 percent of CCC students attend cost-free.\textsuperscript{63}

California also stands out in its tuition support for unauthorized immigrant students and DACA recipients. Since the passage of AB 540 in 2001, California has offered in-state tuition rates for unauthorized immigrants meeting specific requirements, including having attended a California high school for at least three years and having earned a high school diploma or its equivalent. In 2011, the legislature passed two additional bills (AB 130 and AB 131) that are collectively known as the \textit{California Dream Act}, extending access to state-funded financial aid (CalGrants), BOG fee waivers, and institutional scholarships to this population. California is one of only four states that currently provide state-funded financial aid for unauthorized immigrant youth.\textsuperscript{64}

\textsuperscript{57} In prior versions of the \textit{DREAM Act}, applicants for permanent residency could substitute two years of U.S. military service for the postsecondary education requirement. For more information, see Jeanne Batalova and Margie McHugh, \textit{DREAM vs. Reality: An Analysis of Potential DREAM Act Beneficiaries} (Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute, 2010), \url{www.migrationpolicy.org/research/dream-vs-reality-analysis-potential-dream-act-beneficiaries}.

\textsuperscript{58} Batalova, Hooker, and Capps, \textit{Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals at the One-Year Mark}.

\textsuperscript{59} California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, “Key Facts about California Community Colleges;” updated February 5, 2014, \url{http://californiacommunitycolleges.cccco.edu/PolicyInAction/KeyFacts.aspx}.

\textsuperscript{60} Washington State Institute for Public Policy, State Need Grant: Student Profiles and Outcomes (Olympia, WA: Washington State Institute for Public Policy, 2012), \url{www.wsipp.wa.gov/rptfiles/12-12-2301.pdf}.

\textsuperscript{61} California community college fees rose from $20 per unit in 2008-09 to $46 per unit in 2012-13.

\textsuperscript{62} The College Board, “In-State Tuition and Fees by State Sector, 2013-14.”


\textsuperscript{64} The other states are New Mexico, Texas, and Washington State—which passed legislation extending financial aid eligibility
2. **Changes to Matriculation Services and College Placement Testing**

The *Student Success Act* (SB 1456) of 2012 aimed to accelerate completion and transfer for CCC students and reduce excess course taking. According to its provisions, colleges must provide certain matriculation services to all new students, including orientation, assessment, counseling, and assistance in developing an educational plan. Students who complete these requirements will be given the opportunity to register early for classes—considered to be a powerful motivator during a time of high demand—starting in Fall 2014. Some community colleges have already begun partnering with local K-12 school districts to offer early placement tests, education planning, and counseling before students begin their first semester of college. Meanwhile, continuing students who are not in good academic standing or who have accumulated an excess number of credits without completing a degree will lose their priority enrollment privileges.65

The *Student Success Act* also directed CCC to develop and implement a new, common assessment system to determine whether students need developmental (remedial) education courses in math, English, or ESL before enrolling in transfer-level courses. Across the CCC system, approximately 70 to 90 percent of students taking placement tests require developmental education in at least one subject.66 Nationwide, first- and second-generation youth are especially likely to require developmental education due to gaps in their language proficiency and academic preparation.67 New CCC placement tests, which will be introduced in Fall 2015, will be portable across institutions and provide a clearer definition of college readiness. Some colleges are also incorporating alternative measures into course placement decisions, with the goal of minimizing the time students need to spend in developmental education.

As in other states studied in this series of reports,68 interviewees in California noted that college placement tests are generally poor measures of the college readiness of ELLs, as they were designed for native English speakers. While there is a separate version of the placement test for ELLs, many students avoid taking this test because they feel that there is a stigma associated with being in ESL courses, yet they may perform poorly on mainstream English tests. These tests may fail to distinguish between students with generally low literacy skills and those who have specific gaps in grammar that could be addressed relatively quickly through targeted remediation. Additionally, interviewees reported an ongoing need for targeted counseling and registration assistance to inform ELL students’ choices about which assessments and courses to take. To address this issue, recently adopted CCC regulations require colleges to ensure that matriculation services (including orientation, assessment and placement, counseling, advising, and education planning services) are “accessible to English language learners and are appropriate to their needs.”69

The CCC Chancellor’s Office has also called on colleges to examine the impact of new programs and policies on student subgroups and create new Student Equity Plans by November 2014. These plans must describe the steps that institutions will take to address gaps in student enrollment, progress, and outcomes.

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66 California Community Colleges’ Student Success Task Force, *Advancing Student Success in California Community Colleges: The Recommendations of the California Community Colleges Student Success Task Force* (Sacramento, CA: California Community Colleges, 2012), www.californiacommunitycolleges.cccco.edu/Portals/0/StudentSuccessTaskForce/SSTF_FinalReport_Web_010312.pdf. Some students are able to bypass college placement tests and automatically enroll in transfer-level courses, due to their scores on college admission tests such as the SAT or ACT or prior completion of college-level courses.


68 See Hooker, McHugh, Fix, and Capps, *Shaping Our Futures*; and Hooker, Fix, and McHugh, *Education Reform in a Changing Georgia*.

comes based on race/ethnicity, gender, or disability. To aid in this process, the Chancellor’s Office produced a guide to help colleges assess any disproportionate impacts of assessment policies, development education requirements, and orientation and counseling procedures on particular groups of students.\(^70\)

3. Academic and Social Support Services: Effective but Difficult to Scale

Beyond registration, educational planning, and assessment, many students from immigrant families need ongoing advising, mentoring, and tutoring. First- and second-generation immigrants are more likely than their peers to be “nontraditional” college students, as they often enroll in postsecondary education at older ages, attend college part time,\(^71\) and need to balance work and school schedules, find child care, and navigate the bureaucratic aspects of college life.\(^72\) The colleges highlighted in this study have implemented innovative programs to support retention and completion for immigrants and other students from underrepresented groups.

In many institutions, “learning communities” place small cohorts of students together in linked courses and provide extra counseling and tutoring. For example, Fresno City College (FCC) offers a learning community program targeting low-income Latino students, with support from a federal grant for Hispanic-Serving Institutions. Students in FCC’s \textit{Camino} (Pathway) program participate in a six-week summer bridge session that includes accelerated versions of developmental education courses and a counseling course focused on college success, and they continue to take classes together during the fall semester. FCC has similar learning community programs that target students from other racial/ethnic groups, including Southeast Asian Americans.

\begin{quote}
Many students from immigrant families need ongoing advising, mentoring, and tutoring.
\end{quote}

The \textit{Puente} (Bridge) Program is a learning community and wrap-around support program serving a large number of Latinos at 61 community colleges throughout California that aims to prepare low-income students to transfer to four-year colleges. \textit{Puente} has documented strong outcomes, including a transfer rate of 56 percent in 2009-10 (compared to a CCC system average of 44 percent).\(^73\) The Metro Academies initiative at City College of San Francisco and San Francisco State University is a unique partnership between a two-year and a four-year college to improve transfer rates through learning communities focused on health, early childhood education, and STEM careers. Participants in early cohorts had higher persistence, transfer, and degree completion than similar peers.\(^75\)

All of these examples involve comprehensive efforts to personalize the college experience and help students address obstacles that may arise. However, given resource limitations and rising pressure to demonstrate improvements in student outcomes, college administrators are focused on identifying


\(^{73}\) Puente, “Accomplishments,” \url{http://puente.ucop.edu/accomplishments.html}.

\(^{74}\) STEM stands for science, technology, engineering, and math.

strategies that can be expanded effectively and these comprehensive approaches are difficult to scale. Interviewees also spoke of the challenge of maintaining the benefits of learning communities after the cohort-based program has ended, and suggested extending the length of these programs, especially for students with lower levels of academic preparation and LEP immigrants who may need ongoing support throughout college, again raising questions of balancing institutional priorities.

E. Conclusions and the Road Ahead

This report provides numerous examples of ways in which some California school districts, adult education providers, institutions of postsecondary education, and community partners have kept immigrant youth and ELLs at the center of their innovative education reform efforts—while also identifying areas where these students have been left out or fallen behind. It also identifies policy levers to support the educational and career success of immigrant young adults, and offers recommendations for moving forward.

The state’s K-12 schools, higher education institutions, and adult education programs are all in the midst of significant changes affecting their funding, structure, governance, and accountability requirements.

1. Looking Ahead: Levers for Change

Coming out of a historic recession, California’s public education system is at a transformative moment. Policymakers and taxpayers are anxious to see increased student achievement, college degree completion, and better workforce preparation as evidence of returns on their investments. The state’s K-12 schools, higher education institutions, and adult education programs are all in the midst of significant changes affecting their funding, structure, governance, and accountability requirements. The overall success of these reforms will depend on the extent to which local communities and educational institutions use existing reform levers to better serve the state’s immigrant youth. These levers for improving system outcomes include:

- **Local Control Funding Formula (LCFF).** The LCFF gives K-12 school districts greater autonomy in their spending of state funds, while providing extra resources based on the number and concentration of ELL students, low-income students, and students in foster care. As districts develop and annually update their plans to improve achievement, they have the opportunity to analyze detailed data on their ELL students and identify research-supported instructional strategies. While this flexibility can spur innovation, it also relaxes state accountability requirements, relying instead on oversight from county-level education offices and local stakeholders, including the parents of ELLs. Investments in training and translation services will be needed to help build the capacity of immigrant parents to fulfill this role. Depending on the effectiveness of its implementation, the LCFF may prove a powerful engine for improving the educational outcomes of ELLs and in turn improving the overall long-term economic and civic integration of immigrants in the state.

- **Adult Education Regional Consortia.** After several years of dramatically declining capacity, the 2013 budget averted further cuts to adult education. The legislature also dedicated funding for school district and community college consortia to align their adult education services. These regional consortia could help create programs that offer more direct pathways to postsecondary credentials for immigrant youth with relatively high skill levels, and the comprehensive
plans they create can demonstrate the multi-level needs of adult learners in local communities. Depending on the scope and quality of these efforts and the choices made by state leaders, current efforts to align systems’ services could result in expanded and better-targeted state investments in adult education.

- **Student Success Act of 2012.** The Student Success Act appropriated funding for matriculation services, including counseling and educational planning, and for an improved, web-based report card for community college data. Community colleges are also required to evaluate the impact of new programs and policies on students from underrepresented groups and develop Student Equity Plans to address disparities. Colleges can apply these resources to students from immigrant families and intensify the academic and personal support they receive.

2. **Recommendations for Action**

As California begins to reinvest in its education systems, state and local leaders will face many critical choices. As these policy and budget choices unfold, they can heed the imperative to improve educational access and quality for first- and second-generation immigrant youth.

**Recommendations at the High School Level**

- **Reinvest in expanded learning time.** Districts could choose to use LCFF funds to expand the school day and rebuild summer school opportunities for ELLs, and more broadly implement “fifth-year” programs for late-arriving immigrant youth. Without such innovative and explicit strategies, these students will likely face even lower odds of earning a diploma as California implements the Common Core and many districts adopt more challenging high school graduation requirements.

- **Improve teacher professional development and establish an expectation that all teachers are teachers of language.** Raising ELL achievement requires an educator workforce that is trained in strategies for supporting academic language development. While California has made great strides in requiring all teachers with at least one ELL student in their classes to have a special authorization in English Language Development, our interviewees stressed that this authorization alone is not enough to ensure that teachers have the skills to help ELLs meet new, language-rich academic standards. District leaders stand to play a critical role in keeping ELLs at the forefront of their professional development agendas for all teachers and by ensuring that principals also have the skills to evaluate classroom instruction for ELLs and support effective practices.

- **Restore support for college counseling and increase guidance for immigrant youth.** California’s guidance counselor caseloads are among the largest in the nation, leaving counselors limited capacity to provide the personalized college planning assistance needed by many immigrant students and families. While nonprofit college access organizations and emerging technology-based initiatives play a vital role in supplementing school-based counseling services, these efforts are limited in scope. Though California has recently expanded state-funded financial aid to unauthorized immigrants through the *California Dream Act,* accessing these funds and navigating other complex aspects of college admissions and registration depends, for many youth, on the assistance of well-trained counselors.

**Recommendations for Adult Education**

- **Rebuild the capacity of the adult education system to meet the needs of learners across the basic skills spectrum.** California’s adult schools attempted to meet a range of adult education, workforce preparation, family literacy and immigrant integration needs prior to the recession—all of which remain critical to the state’s longer-term economic and civic vitality. Continuing to improve the basic skills of the state’s adults will require different approaches for diverse types of learners, ranging from recent high school dropouts to parents with young children and older
immigrants preparing for naturalization.

Statewide investments in accelerated program models that integrate basic skills with postsecondary training and support services could significantly increase credential completion for immigrant youth at the upper levels of ESL and ASE. Other state and federal investments could support the expansion of effective models for serving immigrants with lower English proficiency and limited prior education. Newly formed adult education consortia can play an important role by illuminating the full range of adult education needs in their region and designing strategies to expand effective, high-quality programs for various groups—particularly, those that would support immigrant youth in progressing to two- and four-year degrees.

- **Increase capacity to serve youth seeking deferred action.** Adult education programs hold the key to DACA eligibility for unauthorized immigrant youth who do not have a high school diploma or equivalent and are no longer enrolled in school. Yet demand for these programs far exceeds supply—and while they are stuck on waiting lists for courses, many youth face the risk of deportation. The quantity and range of programs offered by adult schools and community colleges for youth seeking deferred action should be expanded. Philanthropic organizations interested in supporting DACA youth can invest in local system coordination and navigation initiatives that identify appropriate adult education services for these youth, and also in expanding programs for those with high barriers to education success, especially in areas of the state that experienced the most severe program cuts and school closures.

These investments are critical to the success of applicants for DACA as well as potential beneficiaries of future immigration reform legislation. Not only would federal *DREAM Act* legislation likely require at least two years of postsecondary education for individuals to qualify for an expedited path to citizenship, but broader legalization measures would likely require unauthorized immigrants to demonstrate English proficiency as a condition for legal residency.

**Recommendations at the Two-Year College Level**

- **Provide incentives for colleges to enroll and retain students with multiple barriers to success.** While the *Student Success Act* aims to accelerate college degree completion, interviewees expressed concern that underprepared students will be the most likely to face penalties for lack of degree progress or excess accumulation of credits. Community colleges already offer a range of academic and social support programs for underrepresented students, though findings from California’s Learning Community programs suggest that interventions will be most effective if they are intensive and long-term. To maintain the community colleges’ open access mission while also improving student outcomes, California could provide innovation funding for colleges that demonstrate systematic progress for students with limited English proficiency and former adult education students pursuing college degrees and certificates. In Washington, for instance, community colleges are able to earn additional funding by accumulating “momentum points” based on student success in achieving critical milestones on the way to college completion or transfer—including English proficiency gains for ESL students.

- **Improve Assessment and Counseling for English Learners.** Students with limited English proficiency have unique needs in the college assessment and placement process. These students often avoid taking the ESL placement test, even though they may be less successful in developmental English classes designed for native speakers. Meanwhile, students entering college from the adult education system encounter new assessments and enrollment requirements, and may be required to repeat ESL courses they have already taken elsewhere. English learners would benefit from targeted advising to inform their assessment and course registration decisions and ensure they have access to Learning Communities and other programs that can accelerate their progress.
**California is at a critical juncture in its efforts to raise high school graduation rates and pursue postsecondary success for all youth—more than half of whom are first- or second-generation immigrants.**

### Recommendations Across Systems

- **Improve longitudinal data capacity and track ELL outcomes.** Unlike the other states included in this study, California does not have a statewide longitudinal data system that can track individual students from early childhood into postsecondary education and the workforce.\(^7\) Such a longitudinal data system would significantly expand the evidence available to educators, policymakers, and the general public on the effectiveness of their investments. The system’s value will be higher if it disaggregates information in meaningful ways, including ELL and Former ELL status, and incorporates data from adult education programs.

In sum, California is at a critical juncture in its efforts to raise high school graduation rates and pursue postsecondary success for all youth—more than half of whom are first- or second-generation immigrants. At the K-12 level, standards, assessments, accountability requirements, and funding mechanisms are in transition. Meanwhile, regional adult education consortia have embarked on a planning process that will shape the future of basic skills instruction, and community colleges have redoubled their focus on retention, completion, and equity. The results of these reforms across the education system hold critical implications for the success of ELLs and immigrant youth in California and—by virtue of the state’s sheer demographics—the United States as a whole.

The Obama administration has set a goal of leading the world in college completion by seeking a 60 percent college degree attainment rate among young adults by 2020. Currently, 40 percent of Californians ages 25 to 34 hold at least an associate’s degree.\(^7\) Undeniably, California’s 3.3 million first- and second-generation youth are positioned to play a vital role in shaping the competitiveness of the state and nation’s workforce in coming years. Addressing educational challenges and expanding opportunities for this group is critical to California’s future success and meeting the nation’s higher education goals, and therefore should be an area of intense focus for policymakers at all levels of government.

**Undeniably, California’s 3.3 million first- and second-generation youth are positioned to play a vital role in shaping the competitiveness of the state and nation’s workforce.**

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\(^7\) National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, "ACS Educational Attainment by Degree-Level and Age-Group."
I. Introduction

In a state where immigrants and their children comprise more than half of the youth population, improving the educational outcomes and workforce preparation of first- and second-generation youth belongs at the forefront of California’s agenda for economic recovery.

**California’s public schools, colleges, and adult education programs—all of which have historically served as brokers of opportunity for immigrants and their children—were deeply affected by the recession.**

California has long been characterized as a bellwether for national demographic trends. Until relatively recently, it was one of just a handful of states with a large and diverse immigrant population. During the 1990s and 2000s, however, the entire country experienced sweeping population changes, with particularly high rates of immigration to new destination states in the Southeast and Midwest. Most states are now confronting the immigrant integration policy issues with which California is deeply familiar. In 2008, the Migration Policy Institute (MPI) report *Los Angeles on the Leading Edge: Immigrant Integration Indicators and their Policy Implications* characterized the southern California city as a laboratory for examining the successes and challenges of integration efforts—experiences which could be instructive for policymakers, advocates, and educators nationwide.78

Since that report’s release, California has fallen into and emerged from arguably the most severe state budget crisis in the nation. As articulated by Governor Brown, “California lost 1.3 million jobs in the Great Recession, but we are coming back at a faster pace than the national average.”79 While General Fund revenues declined from $103 billion in FY 2007-08 to a low of $86 billion in FY 2011-12,80 the state Legislative Analyst’s Office now projects a budget surplus of nearly $10 billion by FY 2017-18.81 Still, California’s public schools, colleges, and adult education programs—all of which have historically served as brokers of opportunity for immigrants and their children—were deeply affected by the recession.

California has also slipped in its standing, in terms of the level of educational attainment of its population and the competitiveness of its workforce.82 It ranks 46th in the nation in the share of young adults with a high school diploma or its equivalent,83 and 25th in the share of the total adult population with an associate’s

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degree or higher." Moreover, youth from immigrant families continue to lag behind the state average on many measures of educational progress. Nearly 30 percent of first-generation immigrants ages 21 to 26 lack a high school diploma, compared to 13 percent of all youth. Hispanic immigrants have particularly low levels of educational attainment. Notably, California’s second-generation Hispanics (who are U.S.-born youth and have immigrant parents) are less likely to hold a college degree than other second-generation Hispanics nationwide (16 percent versus 21 percent). Looking to the future, the success of the fast-growing second-generation population—comprised of U.S. citizens with full legal rights—is particularly critical for California.

A. California’s Higher Education Imperative

As state and federal policymakers widely acknowledge, the majority of new jobs created over the next several years will require a postsecondary credential. For California to remain competitive and gain a position among the top ten states in terms of the share of its workforce with a college degree, the state will need to produce an additional 2.3 million college graduates—on top of the 3.2 million already expected—by 2025.

By 2020, approximately 60 percent of the state’s prime age workforce will be from populations with historically low levels of educational attainment.

Immigrants and their children stand to play a decisive role in shaping California’s future economic prosperity—for better or worse. As the State’s Workforce Investment Board noted in its Strategic Workforce Development Plan, "...without a change in direction, California faces a looming skills gap fueled by dramatic demographic shifts. By 2020, approximately 60 percent of the state’s prime age workforce will be from populations with historically low levels of educational attainment."

The returns on higher education have increased over time, as the fastest-growing global industries demand more advanced skills and expertise. Over the past three decades, the average hourly wages of California workers with a four-year college degree have risen by 20 percent, while the wages of workers with only a high school diploma have declined by 11 percent.

As state and federal policymakers widely acknowledge, the majority of new jobs created over the next several years will require a postsecondary credential.

With the state economy on the rebound, California’s state and local policymakers have the opportunity to invest strategically in the human capital of the large and growing first- and second-generation population.

86 College graduates include completers of certificates, associate’s degrees, and bachelor’s degrees. California Competes, The Road Ahead.
88 Carnevale, Smith, and Strohl, Help Wanted.
B. **Study Approach**

This report—the third in a multistate series—provides a cross-system analysis of the educational experiences and outcomes of first- and second-generation youth ages 16 to 26 in California. The systems covered by the report include K-12 education, adult education, and postsecondary education (with a focus on community colleges). By examining these separate but interconnected elements of California’s education system together, the analysis can offer a set of linked strategies for advancing the educational attainment of California’s immigrant youth.

The findings are based on interviews with approximately 125 respondents in California, including educators, administrators, local and state government officials, and leaders in the nonprofit sector. The fieldwork focused on five school districts and four community colleges in the Northern, Central, and Southern regions of the state. While all of the site visit locations have high concentrations of immigrants and English Language Learners (ELLs), they vary significantly in their demographics, reflecting the diversity of immigrant settlement patterns across California.

The report integrates this fieldwork with data analyses from multiple sources (in particular the most recently available data from the U.S. Census Bureau as well as administrative data from state agencies and schools), and the existing literature on California’s education and workforce development initiatives. We frame our findings within the context of state and local efforts to promote college and career readiness and completion. The methodological approach of the study and details on the sources are covered extensively in the Appendix.

C. **Educating Immigrant Youth: Basic Trade-Offs**

A number of recurring themes emerged throughout the study. These include critical choices and trade-offs in education policy that apply to a broader population, but are particularly salient for immigrant youth:

- **Access versus rigor.** Many of the promising practices highlighted in this report involve strategies to accelerate students’ transitions to the next step on a career pathway, whether the goal is to move from adult education into postsecondary degree programs or to transfer from community colleges to four-year institutions. However, participation often requires students to meet prerequisite levels of English proficiency and basic skills, or to enroll full-time—effectively restricting access for a certain segment of the immigrant youth population. More broadly, the California Community Colleges—facing over-enrollment and long waiting lists for courses at many institutions—have implemented more rigorous requirements for students to keep their place in the registration queue and to maintain financial aid. While the new prescriptions are intended to focus students’ course-taking on their educational goals and help them complete a degree more quickly, they may have significant implications for access for the most underprepared students.

- **Mainstream versus sheltered instruction.** A related trade-off involves the rights-related question of whether ELLs and immigrant students are best served by inclusion in mainstream programs or in sheltered learning environments that target their specific needs and abilities. This tension is often reflected in debates over the most effective instructional strategy for the numerous long-term ELLs in California’s secondary schools.

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90 For previous reports in this series, see Hooker, McHugh, Fix, and Capps, *Shaping Our Futures*; Hooker, Fix, and McHugh, *Education Reform in a Changing Georgia*.

91 Site visit locations included: Anaheim Union High School District, Los Angeles Unified School District, Oakland Unified School District, San Francisco Unified School District, Sanger Unified School District, City College of San Francisco, Fresno City College, Fullerton College, and Los Angeles Trade-Technical College. It is worth noting that these sites were chosen for a variety of reasons, including the size and diversity of their immigrant populations. They are not a representative sample of districts and higher education institutions in California, and there are many other schools and colleges that are dedicated to improving the outcomes of first- and second-generation youth throughout the state. For more information on the site selection process, see the Appendix.
Scale versus intensity. The struggle to balance the priorities of scale versus intensity is perhaps more salient in California than in any other state, due to severe budget constraints. Throughout our site visits, we learned about a number of intensive college access and success programs that involve personalized assistance and wrap-around support for small and targeted groups of students. Faced with heightened accountability and pressure to improve overall retention and completion rates, college administrators are searching for affordable solutions for scaling up elements of these effective programs to have a wider reach, though some of the intensity may be lost in the process.

Personalization versus capacity limitations in small schools. Another question related to scale is whether small schools have adequate capacity to differentiate instruction and support to meet the diverse needs of ELLs and immigrant students. The transition to smaller schools and career-themed academies has been a key feature of many district reform efforts in recent years. Enhanced relationships between students and teachers—as well as between schools and communities—are thought to be among the most significant advantages of smaller learning environments. Yet our fieldwork and findings from previous studies suggest that these reforms have had trade-offs for ELLs. Schools may need a critical mass of ELLs in order to support staff positions dedicated to these students and offer a range of courses that target the needs of specific subpopulations, including newcomers and long-term ELLs.

Compared to many other states, California’s education resources are disproportionately tied to the health of the state economy.

II. Recession and Recovery: The Context of California’s Education Reform Efforts

A. Consequences of the State Budget Crisis for Public Education

Until recently, California’s budget crisis and resulting cuts to education spending captured national headlines. While the economic outlook has brightened significantly over the past 18 months, the recession left a lasting impact on the state’s public schools and colleges.

California’s per-student spending on K-12 education has been below the national average for 25 years. Compared to many other states, California’s education resources are disproportionately tied to the health of the state economy, due to limitations on local property taxes that date back to the 1978 passage of Proposition 13. K-12 schools in California received 57 percent of their funds from the state level in 2010-11, compared to a national average of 45 percent. During the early years of the recession, federal stimulus funds from the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) played a vital role in helping

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92 Children Now, “Stability Begins with Education.”
93 Subsequent ballot measures, such as Proposition 218 in 1996, further limited the ability of school districts to raise additional revenue at the local level. California Budget Project, “A Decade of Disinvestment: California Education Spending Nears the Bottom” (School Finance Facts, California Budget Project, Sacramento, CA, 2011), www.cbp.org/pdfs/2011/111012_Decade_of_Disinvestment_9620SFF.pdf.
94 California Budget Project, “A Decade of Disinvestment.”
California districts close the gap in education spending left by state budget cuts. However, most of these funds were exhausted by the end of 2010-11.

In light of dwindling revenue, districts across the state laid off teachers, administrators, and support staff, while also cutting back instructional time. From 2007-08 to 2010-11, California districts lost approximately 32,000 teachers, representing 11 percent of the teaching workforce, while enrollment remained steady. California had the highest student-to-teacher ratios in the country in 2010-11. A statewide survey found that more than half of responding school districts reduced the length of the school year in 2010-11.

Adult education programs operated by K-12 school districts were particularly hard-hit. In 2009, the state legislature granted school districts the flexibility to collapse certain categorical funding streams—including funding for adult education—into their general funds, in an attempt to help districts weather the budget crisis. This change resulted in rapid declines in course offerings and the outright closure of longstanding adult education programs in many districts.

Public institutions of postsecondary education were also deeply affected by the recent recession. Cuts to the California Community Colleges (CCC) totaled nearly $1.5 billion between 2007-08 and 2011-12. The community college sector is also highly dependent on state support, as institutions generate relatively little revenue from student fees or endowments.

Colleges responded to budget cuts by increasing fees, reducing course offerings and enrollment, and scaling back student services. Community college fees rose from $20 per unit in 2008-09 to $46 per unit in 2012-13—the nation’s sharpest increase in two-year college costs during this five-year period. The number of course sections offered fell by 21 percent between 2007-08 and 2011-12.

Noncredit courses (which include English as a Second Language and basic-skills programs) experienced the deepest cuts, with a 35 percent reduction in course offerings, compared to 14 percent for credit courses. Total community college enrollment fell by 485,000 students between Fall 2008 and Fall 2011. Community college students also faced a more difficult path to transfer to a four-year college, as the cost of attending a two-year college remains the lowest in the nation. The College Board, "In-State Tuition and Fees by State Sector 2013-14 and 5-Year Percent Change," http://trends.collegeboard.org/college-pricing/figures-tables/in-state-tuition-fees-state-2013-14-and-5-year-percentage-changes.

97 California Budget Project, California’s Public Schools Have Experienced Deep Cuts.
99 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, “Key Facts.”
101 Bohn, Reyes, and Johnson, The Impact of Budget Cuts.
California State University (CSU) and University of California (UC) systems admitted fewer students in response to declining revenue.

**Context of Migration Policy Institute Fieldwork**

At the time that MPI conducted the initial fieldwork research for this report—Spring 2012—California's educational institutions were reeling from unexpected, mid-year budget cuts and also dealing with the residual effects of several years of recession. The future of adult education appeared particularly uncertain, and community colleges were preoccupied with the challenge of meeting the increasingly complex needs of their students — many of whom live in low-income immigrant families — while also facing diminishing institutional resources. For the first time, these open-access institutions had to limit enrollment, and students found themselves unable to complete their degrees because they could not enroll in required courses. In such a climate, colleges’ efforts to introduce new initiatives or expand existing programs focused on immigrant student success were severely curtailed by the fiscal reality.

**Colleges’ efforts to introduce new initiatives or expand existing programs focused on immigrant student success were severely curtailed by the fiscal reality.**

**B. Signs of Recovery: Proposition 30 and Increased State Spending on Education**

By the end of 2013, the state’s economic outlook had markedly improved, though resources for public education remained substantially below their pre-recession levels. A significant turning point was the passage of Proposition 30 in November 2012, which prevented further cuts to education spending by increasing income tax rates for the highest-earning groups over seven years and raising the sales tax for four years. The resulting revenue bolstered funding for all school districts and community colleges, preventing $6 billion in “trigger cuts” to the state’s public educational institutions that would have taken effect in January 2013 had the measure failed.  

The new funds immediately stemmed the tide of teacher layoffs in the K-12 system, with a substantial decrease in layoff notices for 2013-14 compared to the previous school years. Proposition 30 also averted plans to shorten the school year further, and allowed some districts to restore previously cut days.

Community college enrollment also began to rebound slowly in 2012-13, with an additional 40,000 students accepted. One college administrator noted that students “can now register for most of the classes they are seeking,” though limited course availability continues to affect students’ timely progression toward a degree or their transfer to a four-year college.

The 2013-14 State Budget Act (AB 86) increased funding for all levels of public education and brought substantial changes to the structure of K-12 education funding by implementing a Local Control Funding

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103 California Budget Project, Budget Brief: What Would Proposition 30 Mean for California?  
106 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, "Key Facts."  
Formula (LCFF). Championed by Governor Jerry Brown, the LCFF permanently eliminates approximately 30 categorical programs, repeals the accountability requirements associated with these funding streams, and consolidates their funds. The new funding formula includes a base grant per student across all districts, along with two additional grants based on a district’s number and concentration of students from disadvantaged groups, including ELLs.

At the same time, AB 86 protected the adult education system from further cuts in the next two years. K-12 school districts that operated adult education programs in 2012-13 were required to maintain level funding for these programs through 2014-15. AB 86 also provided $25 million in planning grants for regional consortia of school districts and community colleges to develop more comprehensive and better-coordinated service delivery systems.

Most recently, Governor Brown’s proposed 2014-15 state budget further restores state spending for all levels of education including a $10 billion increase for K-12 school districts. The budget proposal fully repays delayed state funds owed to districts since the height of the recession, and includes $200 million for community colleges to offer counseling, orientation, and other student success programs and expand opportunities for students from underrepresented groups. At the time of this writing, it remains to be seen whether the state legislature will make significant changes to education spending in the final budget bill.

III. A Demographic Profile of California’s Immigrants

California has the most diverse population in the country because of its long history as an immigrant gateway state. California’s population is 27 percent foreign-born, compared with 13 percent foreign-born nationwide. The state is home to 10.3 million of the nation’s 40.8 million immigrants. In Los Angeles County, one-third of the population is foreign-born.

In 2012, 54 percent of the state’s youth ages 16 to 26 were either first- or second-generation immigrants, far exceeding the national average of 26 percent (see Figure 4). Overall, there were 3.3 million first- or second-generation youth in California in 2012.

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108 The base grant varies for students at different grade levels.
109 California Budget Project, Final 2013-14 Budget Agreement Signals a New Chapter.
111 Brown, Governor’s Budget Summary: 2014-15, Higher Education.
112 MPI analysis of 2012 ACS data.
113 MPI analysis of CPS 2011-13 pooled data.
By 2012, California’s second-generation youth population had become almost twice as large as the first generation.

First- and second-generation immigrants have comprised more than 50 percent of California youth for more than a decade, but the relative composition of this population has changed significantly in recent years. While the first generation outnumbered the second in 2001, their proportions shifted by 2007 due to a slowdown in new immigration as well as robust growth in the number of U.S.-born children of immigrants reaching their late teens and young adulthood (see Figure 5). This tipping point in the year 2007 is also reflected in national data. By 2012, California’s second-generation youth population had become almost twice as large as the first generation. During the same time period, California’s total youth population has grown by 600,000 (a 9 percent increase).

In 2012, 54 percent of the state’s youth ages 16 to 26 were either first- or second-generation immigrants, far exceeding the national average of 26 percent.

Note: The first generation is defined as those who are foreign born; the second generation includes those who are U.S. born with at least one foreign-born parent.


The substantial decline in the first-generation population represents a recession-driven decrease in immigration seen nationwide, though the trend was somewhat more pronounced in California.

The substantial decline in the first-generation population represents a recession-driven decrease in immigration seen nationwide, though the trend was somewhat more pronounced in California. The number of first-generation youth in California fell by 19 percent between 2007 and 2012; nationwide the drop was 11 percent. The larger decline in California is likely a result of the large role that Mexican immigrants have historically played in California’s population trends. Between 2005 and 2010, net migration from Mexico—the number of immigrants coming to the United States minus the number returning to Mexico—was zero. Researchers have attributed the pause in Mexican immigration to a number of factors including the U.S. recession, which lowered demand for Mexican immigrant workers; a falling birthrate in Mexico, which lowered the supply of potential migrants; relative improvements in the Mexican economy and education system, which increased incentives to stay in Mexico; and tighter U.S. border enforcement, which has made it more difficult to enter the country illegally.

115 MPI analysis of CPS 2006-08 pooled, and 2011-13 pooled data.
116 Jeffrey Passel, D’Vera Cohn, and Ana Gonzalez-Barrera, Net Migration from Mexico Falls to Zero – and Perhaps Less.
Almost half (46 percent) of youth ages 16 to 26 in California lived in low-income households.

Countries of Origin. Although approximately half of California’s first-generation youth in 2012 were from Mexico, the other half represented a wide variety of national-origin groups. Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras together accounted for 9 percent of first-generation youth. California also had substantial immigrant youth populations from the Philippines, China, India, Iran, Vietnam, and Korea.  

Race/ethnicity. California has no racial or ethnic majority group. During the 2009-13 period, 46 percent of all California youth identified themselves as Hispanic, while 34 percent identified themselves as non-Hispanic white (see Table 2). Asians/Pacific Islanders and non-Hispanic Blacks made up 12 percent and 7 percent of California youth, respectively. Together, Hispanic and Asian/Pacific Islander youth comprised the vast majority of first-generation (87 percent) and second-generation youth (88 percent). California has a relatively small population of Black immigrants. Non-Hispanic Blacks represented 2 percent of the state’s first-generation youth population, compared to a national average of 9 percent.

Table 2. Race/Ethnicity of California Youth (Ages 16 to 26), 2009-13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Hispanic (%)</th>
<th>Non-Hispanic White (%)</th>
<th>Asian/Pacific Islander (%)</th>
<th>Non-Hispanic Black (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Generation</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Generation</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third+</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The “Third+” generations include individuals who are U.S. born with U.S.-born parents. Percentages do not equal 100 because Native Americans, who represent 1 percent of California youth, have been omitted.

Source: MPI analysis of 2009-13 CPS ASEC data pooled.

Some of the data sources used in this report do not distinguish the first, second, third, or subsequent generations, and are only disaggregated by race/ethnicity. While California has a large number of nonimmigrant Latino and Asian residents whose families have lived in the state for centuries, the majority of the state’s Latino (77 percent) and Asian (88 percent) youth are members of either the first or second generation of immigrants.

Low-Income Youth. Almost half (46 percent) of youth ages 16 to 26 in California lived in low-income households, defined here as having incomes below 200 percent of the federal poverty level, between 2010 and 2012 (see Figure 6). There were wide variations in income within the Latino and Asian populations. Southeast Asian youth (particularly those who identified as Hmong, Cambodian, Laotian, or Thai), Central American youth (those of Guatemalan, Honduran, or Salvadoran origins), and Mexican youth were the most likely to be low income. Meanwhile, Filipino, Indian, and Cuban youth were the least likely to be low income.


117 MPI analysis of CPS 2011-13 pooled data.

118 The national average was 44 percent during the same time period.

119 The Hmong are an ethnic group originating in the mountainous regions of China, Vietnam, Laos, and Thailand. The Hmong faced persecution in Laos following the Vietnam War and Laotian Civil War, and thousands of Hmong refugees have been resettled since the late 1970s.
Figure 6. Share of Low-Income California Youth Ages 16 to 26, by Selected Race and National-Origin Groups, 2010-12

Notes: Low-income youth have family incomes below 200 percent of the federal poverty level. Rates are shown for all youth reporting a certain race/Hispanic origin, regardless of immigrant generation.
Source: MPI analysis of data from the American Community Survey (ACS), 2010-12 pooled.

Unauthorized Immigrant Youth and the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) Program.
Approximately 41 percent of California’s first-generation youth ages 16 to 26 (approximately 526,000 individuals) were unauthorized immigrants in the 2007-11 period. This rate is slightly below the national average of 47 percent for this age range. Overall, unauthorized immigrants represented 5.3 percent of the state’s total young adult population during this time period.

Many of these youth have been granted temporary relief from deportation and work authorization by the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program. Launched in August 2012 by United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS), DACA is available to young adults ages 15 to 30 who came to the United States before age 16, and who are currently enrolled in school or workforce training, have graduated from high school or earned a GED, or have been honorably discharged from the U.S. armed forces. MPI estimates that approximately 1.1 million unauthorized youth nationwide met DACA’s education and age requirements at the time of the program’s launch, including approximately 311,000 youth in California alone. More than

120 MPI analysis of data from 2007-11 CPS and 2006-08 CPS augmented with assignments of unauthorized status to noncitizens by Jeffrey S. Passel of Pew Hispanic Center.
121 For more information, see Jeanne Batalova and Michelle Mittelstadt, Relief from Deportation: Demographic Profile of the DREAMers Potentially Eligible under the Deferred Action Policy (Washington, DC: MPI, 2012), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/DACA-deferred-action-DREAMers; USCIS; “Consideration of Deferred Action.”
122 Batalova, Hooker, and Capps, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals at the One-Year Mark.
half of this group—183,000 individuals from California—had applied for DACA by April 1, 2014.\textsuperscript{123} DACA has significantly improved the opportunities available to unauthorized youth, and has also inspired many lower-educated young adults to enroll in adult education programs.

**Refugees.** California has historically been one of the top refugee-receiving states.\textsuperscript{124} In FY 2013, California received 6,400 new refugee arrivals.\textsuperscript{125} Today’s refugees represent a particularly diverse mix of national-origin groups: over the past five years, the top countries of origin of California’s refugee arrivals were Iraq, Iran, Burma, Bhutan, and Somalia.\textsuperscript{126} Refugee waves have varied significantly over the past several decades. During the 1980s and early 1990s, California received approximately 200,000 refugees from Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, along with 60,000 refugees from Russia. Meanwhile, the late 1990s saw large numbers of refugee arrivals from Ukraine, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Belarus.\textsuperscript{127}

National data on refugee arrivals from FY 2004 to FY 2013 indicate that the linguistic diversity of the refugee population has grown in recent years. The most common languages, in order of their prevalence, were Arabic, Nepali, Somali, Spanish, Sgaw Karen (a Burmese language), Russian, Farsi, Hmong, Chaldean (a language primarily spoken by Christians in northern Iraq), and Burmese.\textsuperscript{128} As most of these languages are not taught in U.S. schools and are rarely spoken by school district staff, refugee youth and families often face particular barriers to accessing linguistically appropriate services.

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**Refugee youth and families often face particular barriers to accessing linguistically appropriate services.**

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**Unaccompanied Alien Children.** A particularly vulnerable group of immigrant youth with distinct needs is unaccompanied alien children (UACs). Immigrant enforcement agencies have seen an unprecedented spike in the number of children who migrate to the United States alone (without a parent or legal guardian). The number of UACs apprehended by the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and transferred to the custody of the Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR) has approximately doubled annually over the last several years, rising from 7,000 in FY 2011 to nearly 25,000 in FY 2013, with as many as 60,000 expected in FY 2014.\textsuperscript{129} The largest numbers of such children paroled into the United States pending immigration court hearings come from the Central American countries of Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras.

These unaccompanied minors are typically placed in detention shelters or federally funded foster homes until they are released to the care of an adult relative in the United States who agrees to sponsor the child, and with whom the child will live until the resolution of his or her immigration case. Due to the relatively large Central American population in California, the state has a high concentration of unaccompanied children in many regions. Interviewees in several districts spoke to a notable increase in the number of

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126 Data for FY 2009-FY 2013. Ibid.

127 Ibid.

128 MPI analysis of ACS data from the 2009-2011 ACS, with assignments of refugee status based on immigrants’ national origin and year of arrival to the United States.

UACs enrolling in school after being released from ORR detention shelters. These youth often have had interrupted formal education and may lack literacy skills in their native language, as well as English. Many have also experienced trauma and violence in their home country and in the migration process. Addressing the myriad academic, socioemotional, and legal challenges facing this population represents a mounting challenge facing educators and advocates across the country.

*Due to the relatively large Central American population in California, the state has a high concentration of unaccompanied children.*

### IV. The Characteristics and Performance of Immigrant Youth in California’s High Schools

California's public school enrollment figures provide a clear picture of the state’s “majority-minority” child and youth population. More than half (53 percent) of the state’s 6.2 million students in grades K-12 were Latino in 2012-13, and white students made up 26 percent of enrollment (see Table 3). California also has a substantial population of Asian students, followed by smaller numbers of Black, Filipino, and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander students. The high school population (grades 9 to 12) had a slightly lower share of Latino students than the K-12 system overall.

<p>| Table 3. California Statewide Public Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment, 2012-13 |
|-----------------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Subgroup</th>
<th>Grades K-12 Enrollment (%)</th>
<th>Grades 9-12 Enrollment (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Learner</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Percentages do not add up to 100, as the groups “American Indian or Alaska Native” and “Two or More Races” have been omitted.


California enrolled more than one-third of U.S. students participating in ELL programs in 2010-11. During 2012-13, ELLs comprised 22 percent of all public school students. Notably, the ELL population includes a significant number of second-generation children who speak a non-English language at home and begin school with limited English proficiency. As in other states, ELLs in California tend to be concentrated in the early elementary grades; many are reclassified out of the ELL subgroup during elementary school. At the high school level, ELLs represented approximately 12 percent of students in 2012-13.

The vast majority of the state’s ELLs—85 percent—spoke Spanish as their primary language in 2012-


131 California Department of Education, “DataQuest.”

California enrolled more than one-third of U.S. students participating in ELL programs in 2010-11.
13. After Spanish, the most common languages were Vietnamese, Filipino, Cantonese, and Mandarin—each of which were spoken by less than 3 percent of ELLs.

A. The Demographic Profiles of Study Districts

The demographics of the five school districts featured in this study reveal significant regional differences in immigrant settlement patterns across California (see Table 4). Of the five sites, Los Angeles Unified School District—avec the nation’s largest ELL population—had the highest share of Hispanic students (74 percent) and the lowest share of Asian students (4 percent) in 2012-13. Anaheim Union High School District—located 25 miles from downtown Los Angeles in Orange County—was also majority Hispanic, but had a more diverse population, with a 12 percent Asian share. San Francisco Unified School District, by contrast, had the lowest share of Hispanic students and the highest share of Asian and Filipino students. Oakland Unified School District had the largest Black population (29 percent, compared to a state average of 7 percent), and also had a large Asian population. The smallest of the districts studied, Sanger Unified School District, enrolled fewer than 11,000 students, the majority of whom were Hispanic. All of the study school districts had lower shares of white students than the state average of 26 percent.

Table 4. Demographics of Study School Districts (%), 2012-13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Enrollment</strong></td>
<td>32,085</td>
<td>655,494</td>
<td>46,486</td>
<td>56,970</td>
<td>10,916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Data on the most common languages spoken by ELLs and information gathered during our site visits allow us to paint a more detailed picture of youth in immigrant families in different districts. In San Francisco, for instance, there has been a significant Chinese population for generations, and 33 percent of San Francisco’s ELLs spoke Cantonese in 2012-13. Both San Francisco and Oakland also have well-established Southeast Asian communities (including Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Laotians), dating back to refugee flows that occurred during from 1970s through the early 1990s. Sanger, located in an agricultural area of Central California, had the highest population of Hmong speakers among its ELLs, at 7 percent. Throughout the state, interviewees mentioned a rise in the number of Mexican and Central American immigrants who speak indigenous languages, some of whom have limited proficiency in Spanish as well as English.

B. Identifying Immigrant and ELL Subgroups with Unique Educational Needs

Differences in students’ immigration experiences, length of time in U.S. schools, and level of education attained in their country of origin correspond to differing educational and socioemotional needs. In our

132 Ibid.
133 California Department of Education, “DataQuest.”
research we highlight a number of subgroups within the ELL and immigrant youth populations.

1. **Children of Migrant Workers**

The children of migrant agricultural workers (termed “migrant” students in federal and state education policy) face a specific set of barriers, including interrupted education as well as changes in curriculum and graduation requirements when they move to different districts or states, or even across the U.S.-Mexico border. Migrant households also have high rates of poverty, and parents often have low levels of education. While these youth are not necessarily first- or second-generation immigrants, the majority fall within our study population. Most migrant agricultural workers in California have Mexican ancestry, with smaller numbers from Central American and Southeast Asian countries, including Hmong.\(^{134}\)

California receives Migrant Education Program (MEP) funds from the U.S. Department of Education that are subgranted to eligible districts, colleges, and other public and nonprofit organizations.\(^{135}\) The federal definition of migrant children includes those who are ages 3 to 21, have not graduated from high school or obtained a GED, have agricultural worker or fisher parents, and have moved from one district to another in the last 36 months for a parent to seek agricultural or fishing employment.

California has the largest population of children of migrant agricultural workers.\(^{136}\) As of July 2013, there were 140,000 children in California eligible for MEP services—substantially fewer than the 200,000 children eligible in 2008-09.\(^{137}\) The California Department of Education cited possible reasons for this decrease, including the economic downturn and reduced overall migration from Mexico during the same time period.\(^{138}\) Additionally, as families have fewer incentives to move in order to seek employment, children may lose the “migrant” designation—even though many remain in California—because they have not relocated within the past 36 months.

Immigrant youth who arrive during the middle- and high school years can be challenging to educate, because they often miss some years of schooling in their home countries.

Among our study districts, Sanger has historically had the largest share of migrant students, as it is located in an agricultural region of the Central Valley. Here too, the number of MEP-qualified students has declined in recent years as families have become less transient and settled in the region for longer periods of time. The district had approximately 300 migrant students in 2011-12, compared to 676 in 2009-10.\(^{139}\)

2. **Newcomers and Students with Interrupted Formal Education**

Immigrant youth who arrive during the middle- and high school years can be challenging to educate, because they often miss some years of schooling in their home countries, and the schooling they have received may be different from that provided in the United States. It is common for adolescents to immi-
grate after elementary school: 36 percent of California’s first-generation youth ages 16 to 26 arrived in the United States at age 16 or older, and another 16 percent arrived at ages 12 through 15. Late-arriving students may enter high school with very low levels of English proficiency, and they face the task of completing high school graduation requirements while simultaneously adjusting to the many potential challenges of acculturation.

Some newcomers received a strong education in their countries of origin, while others arrive significantly below grade level and can be characterized as students with interrupted formal education (SIFE). Interviewees frequently cited challenges in meeting the needs of adolescents who enter U.S. schools with very low levels of basic education. Some districts have developed specific interventions for these newcomers, which are discussed in greater detail in the next section.

3. Long-Term English Language Learners

Middle and high school students who have been classified as ELLs for several years, commonly referred to as “long-term ELLs,” have often been in U.S. schools for their entire education; many are U.S.-born. Long-term ELLs may have strong social English skills, but they typically struggle with academic reading and writing, and are not able to demonstrate proficiency on statewide assessments of language or content skills. They often lack literacy skills in their home language as well as English. A frequently cited 2010 report by Laurie Olsen helped to bring the scope and unique needs of California’s long-term ELLs to the attention of educators at the local and state levels. Olsen’s survey of 40 California school districts found that, on average, 59 percent of secondary-level ELLs have been in U.S. schools for more than six years without obtaining sufficient English proficiency to be reclassified, indicating that the instruction that they have received has not sufficiently addressed their language needs.

4. Former English Language Learners

Former ELLs—termed “reclassified fluent English proficient” (RFEP) students in California—are those who were initially designated as ELLs but have subsequently met their district’s criteria to be reclassified out of ELL programs. These students often are still developing the “academic English” skills required for college and careers, and their teachers may be unaware that they could benefit from continued support for their language development.

Federal law requires that students be monitored for up to two years after being reclassified, in order to address any persistent language barriers. After this two-year period, former ELLs lose this special designation, and are not officially tracked for federal accountability purposes. However, California, unlike many states, continues to track and report data on former ELLs’ standardized test performance throughout their K-12 education. As a whole, California’s former ELL students substantially outperform their Current ELL peers and demonstrate above-average achievement.

C. The Achievement Gap for High School English Language Learners and Immigrant Students

In this section we examine disparities in high school performance and graduation rates within the immigrant population, focusing primarily on ELLs and Latino students, as both groups have below-average high school completion rates.

140 Olsen, Reparable Harm, 2.
Achievement gaps between ELLs and their English-proficient peers persist throughout K-12 education. On the 2013 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 69 percent of the nation's eighth-grade ELLs scored at the "below basic" level in math, compared to 23 percent of their non-ELL peers. Former ELLs still had lower performance than non-ELLs, with 39 percent scoring below basic. California's NAEP scores followed a similar trend, though math performance was below the national average for all groups: 80 percent of ELLs scored below basic, compared to 27 percent of non-ELLs and 44 percent of former ELLs. As measured by these and other standardized tests, ELLs enter high school significantly behind their non-ELL peers; language barriers can severely limit ELLs' access to the content knowledge and skills necessary to succeed in school.

1. High School Test Performance

Students are required to pass the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE) in order to earn a high school diploma. The CAHSEE is administered in English, though ELLs are allowed to have certain testing accommodations, including having test directions read in their primary language and using bilingual glossaries.

In 2012-13, 54 percent of tenth grade students who were designated as ELLs (termed current ELLs in this section) passed the math portion of the CAHSEE (see Figure 7). By contrast, former ELLs had a particularly high rate of passing the math test, at 93 percent—exceeding the state average and outperforming white students. These data demonstrate that students who are able to meet the criteria to be reclassified have high rates of academic success.

CAHSEE passing rates also demonstrated clear achievement gaps between racial/ethnic subgroups, with Asian and Filipino students having the highest performance, and Black and Latino students having the lowest performance. Economically disadvantaged students also had below-average passing rates. Passing rates for the English Language Arts portion of the CAHSEE showed a similar pattern.

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141 Students at the "basic" level have demonstrated "partial mastery of prerequisite knowledge and skills that are fundamental for proficient work at each grade.” Students scoring below this level are considered "below basic.” See National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), “National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) — How Results are Reported,” http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/about/nathowreport.asp.

142 Reading scores showed similar gaps. NCES, "How Results Are Reported,” NAEP Data Explorer, last updated July 12, 2012, http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/.

143 Ibid.

144 The test is typically first taken in tenth grade, and can be repeated multiple times a year through twelfth grade. Certain students with disabilities are eligible for a waiver from the California High School Exit Examination requirement. California Department of Education, “CAHSEE Accommodations and Modifications,” accessed June 2, 2014, www.cde.ca.gov/ta/tg/hs/acccmod.asp.

145 The California Department of Education defines “economically disadvantaged” students based on eligibility for the federal Free-or-Reduced-Price Meals (FRPM) program; the eligibility threshold for this program is 185 percent of the federal poverty level.
Box 1. Former English Language Learners and Reclassification

The large gap between the outcomes of current English Language Learners (ELLs) and former ELLs merits closer examination. The high performance of the state’s former ELLs is encouraging, as it indicates that students who have completed ELL instruction are well-prepared for success in mainstream courses. The scores may reflect rigorous criteria used to reclassify students, as some districts set a high bar for demonstrating fluent English proficiency. Unlike many states, California districts have the authority to set their own ELL reclassification policies. The California State Board of Education suggests guidelines for reclassification criteria; however, the vast majority of school districts use more rigorous criteria. Recent research has found that districts with more rigorous reclassification policies have lower reclassification rates, but their former ELLs have slightly better outcomes, in terms of test scores and on-time grade progression, than former ELLs in other districts. These findings demonstrate a trade-off between the benefits of ensuring students’ success upon exiting ELL programs versus the potential dangers of keeping students classified as ELLs for a longer time period—which may contribute to California’s long-term ELL phenomenon.

In an effort to better understand the link between reclassification criteria and student outcomes, legislation passed in 2012 (SB 1108) directed the California Department of Education to examine the variance in reclassification rates and policies across districts, with the goal of informing future state policy. The issue of how and when California’s ELLs should be reclassified—as well as the appropriate state role in defining this threshold—remains subject to debate, and could become one of the state’s most prominent ELL policy issues in the future.

2. High School Graduation Rates

The same groups of students that have the most difficulty passing the CAHSEE in tenth grade also have the lowest high school graduation rates (see Figure 8). Sixty-three percent of current ELL146 graduated “on time” (in four years) in 2012-13, compared to 80 percent of all students. As California does not publicly report data on the graduation rates of former ELLs, we are unable to compare their progress at this milestone. Among racial/ethnic groups, Asian and Filipino students had the highest graduation rates, and Black and Latino students had the lowest graduation rate. Census data and fieldwork findings suggest that there is likely to be substantial variation in high school graduation rates among different subpopulations of Asian students.147 Children of migrant agricultural workers (“migrant” students), economically disadvantaged students, and special education students also had below-average high school graduation rates.

Figure 8. California Four-Year High School Graduation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Other Subgroups, 2012-13

![Graduation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Other Subgroups](http://data1.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/)

It was worth noting that California’s ELL graduation rates were substantially higher than those of Georgia and Washington, other states included in this study, during recent years. The size of the gap between ELLs and white students, however, was approximately the same in all three states.148

Graduation rates varied widely across our study districts in 2012-13. Overall graduation rates were highest in Sanger (96 percent), and lowest in Oakland (63 percent). ELL graduation rates ranged from 94

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146 For the purposes of determining graduation rate cohorts, the “current ELL” cohort includes those students who were classified as ELLs in the ninth grade—regardless of whether these students were subsequently reclassified. California Department of Education, Data Management Division, “4-Year Adjusted Cohort Outcome Data Processing,” updated March 6, 2012, [www.cde.ca.gov/ta/ac/sq/documents/sqsmethodoverviewdoc](http://www.cde.ca.gov/ta/ac/sq/documents/sqsmethodoverviewdoc).

147 High school graduation statistics do not disaggregate Asian ethnic groups beyond the Filipino and Pacific Islander subgroups, but ACS data on educational attainment (2008-10) suggest that Pacific Islander and Southeast Asian (i.e., Cambodian, Hmong, Lao, and Thai) young adults are less likely to have completed a high school diploma or its equivalent, as compared with other Asian youth (particularly those of Japanese, Indian, Korean, and Chinese ancestry). These statistics are presented in greater detail in a later section of this report.

148 Hooker, Fix, and McHugh, *Education Reform in a Changing Georgia*; Hooker, McHugh, Fix, and Capps, *Shaping Our Futures*. 
percent in Sanger to 47 percent in Los Angeles and 49 percent in Oakland (see Figure 9). Hispanic graduation rates followed a similar pattern, though San Francisco had the largest gap between graduation rates for Hispanic students (68 percent) and all students (82 percent).

**Figure 9. Four-Year High School Graduation Rates for ELLs in Selected California School Districts, 2012-13**

![Four-Year High School Graduation Rates for ELLs in Selected California School Districts, 2012-13](image)

Sanger’s above-average graduation rates are particularly noteworthy, as nearly 80 percent of the district’s students are low-income.\(^{149}\) Sanger ranked in the bottom 10 percent of California districts in 2004-05. In the years since, the district has received state and national recognition for its strong gains in achievement, which are frequently credited to Sanger’s successful approach to professional development, teacher collaboration, data analysis, and ELL instruction.\(^{150}\) These and other factors, including Sanger’s strategy of using its adult education system to help high school students complete graduation credits, are discussed in greater detail in subsequent sections of this report. Sanger has met Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)\(^{151}\) graduation rate targets every year since 2004.\(^{152}\)

Beyond the state’s minimum graduation requirements, the University of California (UC) and the California

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\(^{149}\) California Department of Education, “DataQuest.”


\(^{152}\) Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) is a target set for school, district, and state performance under the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* of 2002. States were required to establish their own criteria for meeting AYP based on expected growth in student achievement, with the goal of 100 percent proficiency in math and reading—and a 95 percent graduation rate—by 2014.

\(^{152}\) California Department of Education, “DataQuest.”
State University (CSU) systems have established a set of 15 approved, year-long courses that high school students must pass—with a grade of C or better—in order to be admitted to a public, four-year college. These courses are collectively known as the “A-G” requirements, in reference to the seven required subject areas.\(^{153}\) Only 38 percent of the state’s 2011-12 high school graduates completed the A-G requirements. Statewide, 67 percent of Asian graduates completed them, compared to 28 percent of Latino and 29 percent of black graduates.\(^ {154}\)

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The pressure on ELLs to both master English and learn academic content is particularly pronounced in grades 9 to 12.

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In recent years, many districts have revised their graduation requirements to match the A-G requirements. Among our study districts, San Francisco was the first to adopt the A-G requirements as the default graduation plan for all students beginning with the class entering ninth grade in Fall 2010, followed by Oakland in 2011 and Los Angeles in 2012. Meeting this threshold often proves challenging for ELLs.

V. Promising Practices and Ongoing Challenges at the High School Level

This section explores the specific programs and policies that affect the high school completion and college- and career-readiness of immigrant and ELL youth. The pressure on ELLs to both master English and learn academic content is particularly pronounced in grades 9 to 12, where the curriculum is the most challenging and time is limited for students to fulfill graduation requirements and pass high school exit exams.

A. State Policy Context: Changing Standards, Assessments, and Funding Mechanisms

Efforts to improve ELL instruction in California’s high schools must be viewed within the broader context of sweeping reforms affecting K-12 education.

1. Implementing New Standards

California has joined the ranks of 45 states and the District of Columbia in adopting the Common Core State Standards—the product of a state-led effort to define the knowledge and skills that students should master in reading and math throughout grades K-12, in order to graduate with the level of academic preparation required for postsecondary education and careers in an increasingly knowledge-based economy. California also adopted a similar set of standards for science, the Next Generation Science Standards, in Fall 2013.\(^ {155}\)

The Common Core and Next Generation Science Standards “represent a seismic shift for ELLs because of the prominent role that language plays in them,” according to ELL education experts Delia Pompa and...
Kenji Hakuta. These standards require students to use complex language skills, such as argumentation and analysis, to demonstrate content knowledge in all subjects. Accordingly, literacy development “across the curriculum” is all the more important in the context of the Common Core: all teachers need to help students learn the language skills required by subjects such as math and science.

Education researchers and advocacy groups in California are at the forefront of national efforts to identify the particular language skills implicit in the Common Core and Next Generation Science Standards, and to ensure that the specific learning needs of ELLs are not ignored in the changing educational landscape. The Understanding Language initiative at Stanford University brings together leading educators and researchers to focus on the challenges and opportunities that the Common Core presents for ELLs and offer guidance on implementation. Meanwhile, Californians Together provides resources and training to help educators and parents understand the Common Core and ensure that its benefits are extended to ELLs.

California adopted new English Language Development (ELD) standards in November 2012 to align language instruction for ELLs with the Common Core English Language Arts (ELA) standards for all students and address the language skills needed in other core content courses. The California Department of Education created a combined ELA/ELD “framework”—a comprehensive guide for curriculum, instruction, assessment, and professional development in both subjects—which is scheduled to be adopted by the State Board of Education in July 2014. This is the first time that ELA instruction for all students and ELD instruction for ELLs have been so closely integrated in California.

2. Assessment Systems and Accountability in Transition

As states roll out the Common Core State Standards, they are also preparing to implement new assessments to test students’ progress in mastering these standards. The two national consortia designing these assessments—the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (SBAC) and the Partnership for the Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC)—produced “field tests” for limited use in 2013-14, with the goal of uncovering problems with the tests before their full implementation in 2014-15. In California, however, this transition has occurred more rapidly: California was one of the only states to abandon its previous assessment system for grades 3-8 in 2013-14 and deliver SBAC field tests to all students in these grades. The U.S. Department of Education initially opposed this decision, as the field tests are not considered ready to be used for accountability purposes, but the federal government granted California a waiver allowing the state to move forward with its field testing plan in March 2014. This

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156 Pompa and Hakuta, “Opportunities for Policy Advancement for ELLs Created by the New Standards Movement.”
157 Haynes, The Role of Language and Literacy in College- and Career-Ready Standards.
161 Idaho and Montana also received waivers from the U.S. Department of Education to abandon their former state assessments in favor of Common Core-aligned field tests in February 2014.
162 State legislation passed in 2013 (A.B. 484) largely discontinued the use of California’s previous assessment system for these grades, with the rationale that students should not be tested on an outdated set of standards while the state is working to implement the Common Core.
waiver essentially gives California’s elementary schools, middle schools, and districts a reprieve from the accountability provisions of the federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act until Spring 2015.\(^{164}\)

This decision holds important implications for ELLs in California. While NCLB’s passage in 2002 initiated an era of heightened accountability for the performance of ELLs and other previously overlooked subgroups, California has temporarily suspended the accountability system during this Common Core transition year.\(^{165}\) According to concerns expressed by some advocacy groups, California’s school systems will lose a year of data to guide their professional development and school improvement efforts, and will be unable to measure year-to-year performance gains.\(^{166}\) The SBAC tests themselves may pose specific challenges for ELLs. These computer-based tests offer “designated supports” for ELLs, including translated test directions for math tests and access to bilingual dictionaries for the writing portion of English Language Arts tests, but the type of support needed by each student must be determined ahead of time. Ensuring that these decisions are made consistently across the state will require guidance and training for educators.

Box 2. California Office to Reform Education (CORE) District-Level Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) Waiver

Prior to the recent U.S. Department of Education waiver that granted California permission to suspend accountability reporting for grades 3-8, a consortium of eight California districts received a separate, more expansive waiver from many provisions of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in August 2013. While 42 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have been granted ESEA waivers based on state-developed plans to “improve educational outcomes for all students, close achievement gaps, increase equity, and improve the quality of instruction,” California was not among the recipients. However, the U.S. Department of Education granted an unprecedented, district-level waiver to a group of eight California school districts collectively known as the California Office to Reform Education (CORE).

The CORE districts collectively serve more than 1 million students. Four of our five study school districts—Los Angeles Unified, San Francisco Unified, Sanger Unified, and Oakland Unified—are members of CORE. The CORE districts are in the process of creating a new school grading system—the School Quality Improvement Index (SQII)—that includes academic growth measures as well as nonacademic components, such as surveys of school climate and assessments of socioemotional skills such as motivation and “grit.” The CORE districts plan to fully implement the SQII in 2015-16. As conditions of the waiver, the CORE districts must also demonstrate academic improvement in their lowest-performing schools and reform the teacher and principal evaluation process.

The CORE waiver does not define or standardize ELL services across districts, and interviewees commented that it is too early to evaluate the full implications of the alternative accountability system for ELL students.


\(^{164}\) California still delivered the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE) to tenth-grade students in Spring 2014, and the results of this test were used for federal accountability purposes for the high school grades.

\(^{165}\) California still tested ELLs’ language proficiency using the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) in 2014, the results of which will continue to be used for federal accountability. However, the state will not report the results of content assessments in English language arts and math (for ELLs or for any other group of students), since these assessments have been replaced by the SBAC tests.

3. Implications of the Local Control Funding Formula for ELL Education

At the same time that California districts are adapting to new standards, assessments, and federal accountability requirements, the transition to a new state funding mechanism for K-12 education, the LCFF, also presents new challenges and opportunities for ELL programs. Prior to the introduction of the LCFF in the 2013 Budget Act, elementary and secondary ELL instruction was supported through multiple state categorical funding streams. Most significantly, Economic Impact Aid (EIA) funded supplementary services for both ELLs and low-income students, and came with its own accountability provisions.

Under the new funding formula, EIA and many other categorical funding streams were eliminated, and their accountability requirements were repealed. Instead, ELLs are treated as one of three recognized groups of disadvantaged students—along with low-income students and foster children—generating additional funds above the formula’s base grant. Districts receive a “supplemental grant,” which is designated as 20 percent of the base grant, for each unduplicated ELL, low-income, or foster student. Additionally, districts with a high concentration of students from these disadvantaged groups—comprising at least 55 percent of district enrollment—receive a “concentration grant,” set at 50 percent of the base grant.

While the supplemental and concentration grants are designed to provide extra resources for high-need groups, the LCFF allows districts considerable autonomy in deciding how to use these funds. The trade-off between flexibility and accountability has proven highly controversial, with civil rights groups seeking assurances that funds generated by ELLs, low-income students, and foster students are spent specifically to improve and expand services for these groups. The State Board of Education passed temporary LCFF funding regulations in January 2014 that delineate the minimum share of spending that must be dedicated to high-need students.

The LCFF also changes the local budgeting process, requiring all districts to establish three-year goals for student subgroups and to describe actions to be taken to achieve these goals. Goals must correspond to eight state priority areas, which include student achievement (i.e. standardized test scores, graduation rates, and the rates at which ELLs achieve English proficiency) as well as less traditional factors such as parent involvement and “access to a broad course of study and programs for high-needs and exceptional students.” By July 2014, each district is required to develop a Local Control and Accountability Plan (LCAP). County Offices of Education will review LCAPs and assess district performance, and can flag districts for additional support. Districts that persistently fail to meet their goals will be referred to a newly created agency—the California Collaborative for Education Excellence—for assistance, and could ultimately be subject to state intervention in their LCAP and budget.

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167 Students who fall into more than one category (ELL, low-income, and/or foster youth) are only counted once for the purpose of generating supplemental or concentration grant funding.

168 California Budget Project, Final 2013-14 Budget Agreement Signals a New Chapter.

169 Letter to State Board of Education and Superintendent of Public Instruction, August 30, 2013, “Re: State Board of Education Meeting September 4, 2013, Agenda Item 6: Local Control Funding Formula.”


171 One measure of “access to a broad course of study” will be levels of enrollment in the courses needed for admission to a four-year public college or university in California (the so-called A-G requirements). EdSource, “A Bold New World: A Guide to the Local-Control Funding Formula,” http://edsource.org/today/local-control-funding-formula-guide#priority.

172 For more information, see Mac Taylor, An Overview of the Local Control Funding Formula (Sacramento, CA: Legislative Analyst’s Office, 2013), www.lao.ca.gov/reports/2013/edu/lcff/lcff-072913.pdf.
The LCAP process requires an unprecedented level of community involvement in financial decision-making, as spending plans must be presented to a variety of local stakeholders, including Parent Advisory Committees and District English Learner Advisory Committees (DELACs).\textsuperscript{173} for review and comment prior to adoption. Districts may face challenges in engaging parents in this process, however, including lack of information: a 2013 statewide survey found that most parents were unfamiliar with the LCFF.\textsuperscript{174} To include input from immigrant families, districts will likely need to enhance their translation and interpretation services, hold bilingual community meetings, and develop strategies for reaching parents who have limited literacy skills in their native language.\textsuperscript{175} Several state and local advocacy groups have undertaken the task of providing parent workshops on the new funding formula and the opportunity for parents to participate in education spending decisions. Some of these groups—including Californians Together, the California Rural Legal Assistance Foundation, and the California Association for Bilingual Education—have focused specifically on training DELAC members on their roles in shaping services for ELLs under the LCFF. Depending on effectiveness of these efforts, the LCAP process may prove a powerful lever for immigrant integration.

The consequences of the LCFF for ELL education remain to be seen. When fully implemented, districts with high numbers of ELLs—as well as low-income and foster students—stand to receive significantly more state funding than districts with few students in these subgroups.\textsuperscript{176} Increased resources could promote innovation and allow forward-thinking districts to invest in supporting ELLs through expanded learning time, summer school, college and career counseling, and other promising strategies. Local community members, advocates, and County Offices of Education stand to play a critical role in ensuring that the districts use new funds for their intended purposes, and that their investments lead to improved outcomes for ELLs.

Below we explore state, district, and school-level innovations that aim to improve the high school outcomes and college- and career-preparation of ELLs and immigrant students. We focus on instructional programs for diverse groups of ELLs; teacher training and professional development; expanded time to meet high school graduation requirements and prepare for college; opportunities to build career skills; and assistance in navigating the college planning process.

\section*{B. Tailored Programs that Serve a Diverse ELL Population}

Responsive educational strategies acknowledge the diversity within the ELL population, as the needs of first-generation, newcomer youth differ significantly from those of long-term ELLs, which differ from those of former ELLs. Programs for students with interrupted formal education (SIFE) may need to emphasize basic literacy, while also using native language instruction to help students understand grade-level curricula in subjects such as math and social studies.\textsuperscript{177} For long-term ELLs, on the other hand,

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{173} A district is required to include the input of a District English Learner Advisory Committee if ELLs represent at least 15 percent of the district’s enrollment, or 50 students.
\item \textsuperscript{174} Susan Fray, “Parents know little about funding law but want to get involved, EdSource survey finds,” EdSource, December 5, 2013, \url{http://edsourc.org/2013/parents-know-little-about-funding-law-but-want-to-get-involved-edsourc-survey-finds/53177/#U1FdPIWdVNY}.
\item \textsuperscript{175} Brenda Payton, “New funding law puts focus on translation for non-English speakers,” EdSource, February 25, 2014, \url{http://edsourc.org/2014/new-funding-law-puts-focus-on-translation-for-non-english-speakers/57514/#U1FduVdVNY}.
\item \textsuperscript{176} EdSource, “A Bold New World.”
\item \textsuperscript{177} Deborah J. Short and Beverly A. Boyson, \textit{Helping Newcomer Students Succeed in Secondary Schools and Beyond} (Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 2012), \url{www.cal.org/pdfs/newcomer/helping-newcomer-students-succeed-in-secondary-schools.pdf}.
\end{itemize}
researchers recommend exposing students to rigorous content courses and integrating them in classes with native English-speaking peers, while also providing ongoing, specialized support for their first and second language development and building an explicit focus on academic language in all subjects. Overall, experts encourage district and school administrators to develop plans for raising ELL achievement by basing instruction on student-level data.

As the state with the highest number of ELLs, along with substantial regional diversity, California has a particularly strong need, and many opportunities, to develop a nuanced range of instructional options for its students from immigrant families. California’s education policies, however, have not always encouraged innovation. Proposition 227, approved by voters in 1998, required ELL instruction to take place “overwhelmingly” in English, unless parents signed a waiver allowing native language instruction. Biliteracy and bilingual educational programs still operate in some schools and districts, but the overall share of ELLs receiving native language instruction has declined substantially since the law’s passage.

Since Proposition 227, California’s default ELL instructional model is Sheltered English Immersion (SEI). Under SEI, students at the beginning to intermediate levels of proficiency receive a certain amount of English Language Development (ELD) instruction each day, depending on guidelines developed at the district level. Apart from this designated ELD time period, ELLs should receive academic content instruction from teachers using specific strategies to “shelter” instruction, in order to make the core curriculum accessible. Once students have acquired a “reasonable level of proficiency,” they typically transition out of ELD classes—but they may still remain classified as ELLs. Many long-term ELLs have finished their districts’ entire sequence of ELD courses but still do not meet the criteria to be reclassified.

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178 Olsen, Reparable Harm.
183 Ibid.
184 Olsen, Reparable Harm.
In recent years, state and local efforts to reform ELL education have focused on developing targeted programs for specific groups of students with unmet needs, including long-term ELLs and newcomers. These efforts have been aided by improvements in the quantity and quality of data collected on ELLs, along a growing body of research on effective strategies for serving these populations.

1. State Legislation on Long-Term ELLs

California’s substantial long-term ELL population—comprised largely of second-generation immigrants—
has captured the attention of policymakers. While a 2010 survey found that approximately 60 percent of the state’s secondary-level ELLs were long-term ELLs, educators and policymakers have, until recently, lacked a clear picture of this population and the factors that contribute to students remaining in the ELL subgroup for many years. In September 2012, California became the first state to establish a common definition of the characteristics that qualify students as long-term ELLs, and to require the state education agency to disaggregate data on this group. According to A.B. 2193, long-term ELLs are those who are enrolled in grades 6-12; have been in U.S. schools for more than six years; have remained at the same English proficiency level for two or more consecutive years; and score “far below basic” or “below basic” on the state’s English language arts test given to all students. The bill also created criteria to identify students “at risk of becoming a long-term English learner,” based on their language proficiency and academic performance after four years in U.S. schools, and required the California Department of Education to report the number of students in each school and district meeting these characteristics. According to interviewees, this bill represents an important achievement in efforts to understand the long-term ELL phenomenon, and will pave the way for reforms focused on this large, underperforming group of students.

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2. District-Level Programmatic Changes and the Role of Judicial Oversight

Both Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) and San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD) have recast their district-wide ELL instructional programs based on the widely varied needs of different subgroups of ELLs. In each case, judicial action served as a catalyst for change. SFUSD’s efforts date back to the landmark Lau v. Nichols case of 1974, in which parents of Chinese-speaking ELL students sued the district for failing to provide appropriate language development services. The U.S. Supreme Court’s decision in the Lau case established a precedent requiring school districts nationwide to offer equal educational opportunities to ELLs. SFUSD developed the Lau Action Plan, which was most recently revised in 2008, to improve its ELL programs in accordance with the recommendations of the U.S. Department of Justice. Over the past several years, the district’s Multilingual Pathways Department has improved its capacity to collect data on subgroups of ELLs and expanded the instructional options available to ELLs. At the secondary level, offerings include English immersion programs, dual language pathways (which are geared to students who have a relatively high level of literacy in English and their native language), and newcomer pathways (which are geared to students who have been in the United States for less than two years).

Both Los Angeles Unified School District and San Francisco Unified School District have recast their district-wide ELL instructional programs.

In Los Angeles, meanwhile, an investigation by the U.S. Department of Education’s Office for Civil Rights (OCR) into the district’s approach to raising the achievement of ELLs and African American students led to the adoption of a new “English Learner Master Plan” in Spring 2012. The new Master Plan, a condi-

tion of a Voluntary Resolution Agreement with OCR, was the product of a year-long process that incorporated feedback from teachers, administrators, community members, and national experts.187

The Master Plan laid out a variety of instructional options for secondary-level ELLs, including a new “accelerated learning program” for long-term ELLs. LAUSD created two new courses specifically for these students: one that is designed for students with reading skills below the fifth-grade level, and a more advanced class focused on college- and career-readiness. The second course is modeled on Advanced Via Individual Determination (AVID), a national program that teaches study skills for middle-range students participating in college-preparatory classes. AVID is widely used in middle and high schools throughout California, and has been associated with improved standardized test performance and higher rates of completion of a college-preparatory high school curriculum among Latino and ELL students.188 Both of LAUSD’s courses for long-term ELLs have been approved by the University of California to qualify toward four-year college admissions requirements (the A-G requirements)— an important opportunity because of the challenges typically faced by ELLs in completing these requirements. The LAUSD Master Plan also directed each secondary school to designate a particular administrator or teacher to monitor the progress of long-term ELLs and conduct conferences with these students and their parents. Following the first year of implementation, interviewees report that students have greater awareness of specific language skills that they need to improve to be reclassified as former ELLs.

The LAUSD Master Plan also directed each secondary school to designate a particular administrator or teacher to monitor the progress of long-term ELLs.

3. Instruction and Support for Newcomers

Newcomer students in SFUSD and Oakland Unified School District (OUSD) have the option to attend International High Schools, which are part of the Internationals Network for Public Schools established in New York City in 1985. The Internationals Network has earned national recognition for its innovative approach and strong results for immigrant youth who have been in the United States for four years or less and have low levels of English proficiency.189 These alternative, diploma-granting high schools teach English through academic content—with an emphasis on project-based learning—and also support students’ native language literacy development. One of the model’s core principles is heterogeneous grouping: schools do not separate students based on English proficiency level or native language, but instead foster collaboration among students with different strengths. The 380 students at Oakland International High School come from more than 30 different countries; one-third of them are refugees, and approximately one-quarter are students with interrupted formal education.190 The school has seen a recent influx of unaccompanied minors, most of whom are boys from Central America. Both Oakland and San Francisco International High Schools provide wrap-around support for students and their families, including physi-

cal and mental health services, through partnerships with community-based organizations. Interviewees noted that unaccompanied minors are especially hard to serve, however, because they do not qualify for most public benefits and have unique legal service needs.

4. Remaining Challenges

While several districts have made great strides in disaggregating data, identifying the particular needs of different groups of ELLs, and designing instructional models accordingly, capacity constraints still hinder the implementation and effectiveness of these reforms. Small schools face unique challenges in differentiating program options for ELL subgroups. These schools do not have enough ELLs to offer multiple ELD classes for students at differing levels of proficiency—an issue that is salient in LAUSD, as many large, comprehensive high schools have been divided into small schools or “small learning communities,” often based on particular career themes. Interviewees noted that because these schools generally provide the same, thematic curriculum for all students, small schools may offer fewer opportunities for specialized interventions such as sheltered courses.

Small schools face unique challenges in differentiating program options for ELL subgroups.

As a solution, several small schools located on the same campus often bring their ELLs together for language instruction. This strategy allows the schools to share ELD teachers and resources, and to provide course options for different students. LAUSD’s ELL Master Plan recommends that small schools take this approach; however, interviewees acknowledged that these schools may still have less flexibility in offering tailored programs for different groups of ELLs. Across the state, some districts continue to offer the same instructional program for all high school ELLs in spite of their varied needs.

Interviewees in several districts expressed continued concerns about long-term ELLs. At one school, teachers noted that most long-term ELLs drop out of high school after ninth or tenth grade because they are behind their peers. Long-term ELLs are often concentrated in remedial courses that are intended for struggling students but are not expressly designed to address the language development needs of non-native English speakers. These courses may hold them back from completing the requirements for high school graduation and four-year college admissions. However, some respondents questioned the notion that long-term ELLs should be segregated from their English-proficient peers into specialized courses; rather, they should be exposed to rigorous content in core courses, and teachers should be better-prepared to meet their needs.

C. Teacher Training and Professional Development

To target interventions to different ELL subgroups—including long-term ELLs and newcomers—content-area teachers need the knowledge and training to identify these various subgroups and differentiate instruction accordingly. National research underscores the importance of building “academic literacy” for adolescent ELLs, including the ability to understand and respond to the complex academic and professional texts that are required for college and career success. However, promoting academic literacy is not a simple proposition; it requires teachers who understand the principles of second-language acquisition and can foster students’ development across multiple domains of language—including reading, writing, listening, and speaking—within the context of the core academic subjects.191

for all educators to assume responsibility for the success of ELLs:

“... all teachers are teachers of language. With California’s adoption of the new Common Core State Standards, and their emphasis on academic language and literacy across the disciplines, educators can no longer say, ‘I am a third grade teacher,’ or ‘I teach geometry.’ We are all language teachers and our teachers in LAUSD hold the keys that unlock the language of academic success, the language of college and careers, and the language of power for all our students.”

This approach is supported by prior research, which has found that school systems demonstrating improvements in ELL outcomes have adopted a district-wide instructional strategy that includes professional development for all teachers of ELLs and school leaders.

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**School systems demonstrating improvements in ELL outcomes have adopted a district-wide instructional strategy that includes professional development for all teachers of ELLs and school leaders.**

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1. **Teacher Certification**

California’s teacher certification process has included a focus on ELL instruction for more than a decade. Since 2002, all new teacher candidates are required to earn an “English learner authorization” by completing coursework on language acquisition, along with the other requirements for their academic subject area. All teachers who have entered the profession via a California teacher credentialing program since this policy was enacted automatically meet the state’s requirements to provide both English Language Development (ELD) and sheltered content instruction. Teachers who obtained their initial teaching credentials prior to 2002 are required to complete an additional authorization in order to provide instruction for ELLs; the most common is the Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (CLAD) certificate, which can be earned by passing an exam, completing approved coursework, or through a combination of exams and coursework. Teachers can also be certified to provide bilingual instruction for ELLs (referred to as a “B-CLAD” certificate). All California teachers of core academic subjects must hold an ELL-specific authorization if they have at least one ELL student in their classes.

In the years since this policy was implemented, districts have met the challenge of providing certification opportunities for vast numbers of incumbent teachers, and holding an ELL authorization has become a nearly universal requirement for teachers in major districts such as LAUSD. Statewide, the number of educators who were teaching ELLs without the required certificate fell from 22,000 in 2005-06 to just 1,575 in 2010-11. Still, interviewees were adamant that CLAD requirements do not go far enough to prepare content-area teachers to work with ELLs.

192 Los Angeles Unified School District, *English Learner Master Plan*.
193 Horowitz et al., *Succeeding with English Language Learners*.
195 State legislation also created an alternative pathway for obtaining ELL authorization for incumbent teachers. The Certificate of Completion of Staff Development, which involves 45 hours of approved staff development or equivalent coursework, authorizes teachers to provide content instruction for ELLs; however, teachers with this certificate are not authorized to teach ELD courses. This certification pathway was discontinued in 2008, with some exceptions for certain types of teachers.
196 California Department of Education, “FAQs for English Learner Teacher Authorizations,” www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/elteachersfaq.asp.
At the local level, Anaheim Union High School District (AUHSD) and California State University Fullerton (CSUF) have established the Urban Teaching and Learning Partnership to develop a pipeline of future teachers with strong skills in teaching diverse learners, including ELLs. New teacher candidates from CSUF complete field placements in AUHSD classrooms and take courses based on the district’s specific student population. The program aims to implement “culturally responsive pedagogy,” with a focus on supporting long-term English language learners. AUHSD’s partnership with CSUF’s College of Education has led to other innovative projects focused on ELL instruction, including a research project funded by the National Science Foundation that trains Spanish-speaking teachers to provide dual language classes in science and math in AUHSD.

School systems demonstrating improvements in ELL outcomes have adopted a district-wide instructional strategy that includes professional development for all teachers of ELLs and school leaders.

2. District-Wide Professional Development

Acknowledging that raising ELL achievement requires ongoing training for content-area teachers, all of the districts included in this study have undertaken broad professional development initiatives focused on ELLs over the past several years. The approaches of these districts vary significantly, however, reflecting their differing contexts and histories.

In both San Francisco and Los Angeles, judicial oversight has spurred district-wide investments in ELL-focused professional development and granted new authority to the district administrators responsible for ELL programs. Following the revision of San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD)’s Lau Plan in 2008, the district redoubled its efforts to provide professional development for school-wide teams of teachers, counselors, and administrators. School teams were trained in analyzing ELL data and charged with developing site-specific plans for meeting the needs of various ELL subgroups. The U.S. Department of Justice also required SFUSD administrators to conduct classroom “walkthroughs” to provide feedback on ELL education in all schools over a three-year period. Interviewees report that this practice has led SFUSD to implement a revised “observation protocol” that helps principals identify whether teachers are using effective strategies to promote language development.

In both San Francisco and Los Angeles, judicial oversight has spurred district-wide investments in ELL-focused professional development.

In LAUSD, meanwhile, the district’s voluntary settlement agreement with the U.S. Department of Education’s Office of Civil Rights (OCR) included a commitment to train all educators in the requirements of the new English Learner Master Plan. LAUSD created a series of four online training modules that examine the program options for ELL subgroups. LAUSD has used a “train the trainer” approach to disseminate the required modules from the Central Office to the five local Educational Service Centers (ESCs). The ESCs

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198 “Urban Teaching and Learning Partnership” handout.
trained all principals, who in turn were required to present the modules to their entire staff. LAUSD’s Multilingual and Multicultural Education Department (MMED)—which oversees ELL education—conducted week-long Master Plan Institutes for 800 school-site ELL coordinators during summer 2013, with similar Institutes planned for summer 2014. The Institutes cover topics such as data and accountability, effective practices for implementing the Common Core State Standards with ELLs, and strategies for promoting immigrant parent engagement.

Unlike our other study sites, Oakland Unified School District (OUSD) has seen a recent increase in its ELL population and has had to build new expertise among administrators and teachers to serve this growing group—at a time when the district has faced the broader challenge of improving its reputation and raising outcomes for all students after a recent period of controversial school closures and enrollment declines. The district was under state control from 2003 to 2009 due to financial mismanagement. Over the past several years, however, the district has received accolades for its efforts on behalf of ELLs, particularly as OUSD implements the Common Core State Standards. Reform strategies include pairing content and ELD teachers to jointly develop lesson plans that promote dialogue and vocabulary development and using classroom observations to provide feedback to teachers. OUSD has also offered training in the research-based Quality Teaching for English Learners (QTEL) model to high school math, science, and English language arts teachers every summer since 2011.

In Sanger Unified, English Language Development (ELD) was one of several focal points of district improvement efforts over the past decade. As a foundation for these reforms, Sanger implemented professional learning communities (PLCs). Teams of grade-level or subject-area teachers meet regularly to define goals for student learning, assess students’ progress, and modify instruction. The leaders of PLCs participate in school-based leadership teams and attend district-wide training sessions throughout the year. During 2011-12, these training sessions focused on developing ELLs’ academic language proficiency in the content areas, and 2012-13 the focus was on the language skills required by the Common Core. Principals also participate in PLCs with other schools, and focus on topics such as integrating ELD and core content instruction. As interviewees describe, Sanger’s approach to professional development is largely “homegrown,” relying on few outside vendors, and the strategy appears to have paid off: Sanger’s Academic Performance Index (API) gains have outpaced state averages for all students as well as for ELLs since 2005.

Anaheim Union High School District (AUHSD), meanwhile, has implemented its own professional development model called the Lesson Design Initiative, which aims to provide all teachers with the skills to incorporate academic language development into their lessons on an everyday basis. The initiative is based on the principles of the widely adopted Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. According to interviewees, the model is especially effective for long-term ELLs, though it has been framed as a mainstream reform effort benefitting all students in AUHSD. The district disseminated the model through a peer-led process: a team of mentor-teachers called Lesson Design Specialists serve as coaches and offer workshops for other teachers at their schools. By the third year of the program (2011-12), several schools chose to implement the model school-wide and committed to training all teachers.

3. Remaining Challenges

Interviewees in various districts reported challenges in building support for ELL-focused professional development from administrators and mainstream teachers. ELLs’ needs also compete with numerous other priorities for scarce space on the professional development calendar: Teachers’ contracts also limit the number of professional development hours that can be mandated without extra compensation—and most California districts lack the resources to fund any additional staff time. In SFUSD, for instance, the

201 For more information about QTEL, see WestEd, “Quality Teaching for English Learners.”
202 David and Talbert, Turning Around a High-Poverty District.
203 Ibid.
district’s three annual professional development days are subject to being replaced by furlough days, depending on the district’s fiscal situation. Due to this uncertainty, interviewees report that it is very difficult to plan any district-wide professional development focused on cross-cutting issues, such as the state’s new ELD standards.

During the worst years of the budget crisis, large class sizes made it especially challenging for educators to differentiate instruction for various ELL subgroups. In OUSD, high school classes contained as many as 42 students in 2011-12. Even now that the district’s finances have improved, OUSD faces high rates of teacher turnover, and interviewees reported difficulty recruiting and retaining experienced educators. Oakland is unable to match the pay offered by neighboring districts in the San Francisco Bay Area. OUSD relies on a large share of young teachers and interns who are new to the profession, and some interviewees contend that many of these teachers are not adequately prepared to work with ELLs.

**ELLs’ needs compete with numerous other priorities for scarce space on the professional development calendar.**

**D. Expanded Learning Time and Pathways to Graduation**

Across all of our study states, the issue of *time* emerged as a major concern among high school administrators, teachers, and counselors. ELLs must develop English language skills, complete required high school credits, and prepare for college and careers, all within a few years. National education experts Deborah Short and Shannon Fitzsimmons have written that adolescent ELLs must perform “double the work” of native English speakers, as they are “learning English at the same time they are studying core content areas through English.”205 Due to the extra demands on ELLs, extended time—in terms of the school day, out-of-school time, and in some cases extra years in high school—plays a critical role in high school completion and college readiness.

In general, high school ELLs have less flexibility in their schedules than other students, as they have to complete required English Language Development (ELD) classes in addition to their required academic courses. While dedicated language development instruction is critical to building English proficiency, there is also a trade-off between the amount of time spent in ELD versus other courses. In some California districts, students scoring “below basic” on statewide assessments in English Language Arts—many of whom are long-term ELLs—are required to take a two-period intensive reading class, which further constrains their time.

**Across all of our study states, the issue of time emerged as a major concern among high school administrators, teachers, and counselors.**

ELLs also face extra hurdles to completing the courses needed for four-year college admission (the A-G requirements). In particular, ELLs often struggle with finishing the four year-long English language arts courses that meet A-G approval. Only one ELD course is allowed to count toward these requirements. Students with lower English proficiency are expected to complete several levels of ELD, however, and thus are automatically behind schedule. As an increasing number of districts have adopted the A-G course plan as their default graduation requirements, they have encountered roadblocks with ELLs, and some dis-

205 Short and Fitzsimmons, *Double the Work.*
Districts have developed special policies for late-arriving immigrants. In San Francisco, foreign-born students who enter U.S. schools at age 15 or older and have no accessible transcripts or school records are exempt from the A-G graduation plan. These students can opt for an alternative graduation plan that includes a less extensive set of requirements and confers a high school diploma, but does not qualify for admission to a UC or CSU institution. Providing ELLs with the same core curriculum and college-preparatory opportunities as native English-speaking students, however, requires expanded learning time.

I. Beyond the School Day: Summer School and other Expanded Learning Opportunities

Before the budget crisis, summer school offered the most significant opportunity for students to catch up on graduation requirements or A-G courses. California historically funded summer school through a variety of categorical state funding streams for struggling students. However, school districts were granted the flexibility to consolidate funds from these streams into general purpose funds beginning in 2009-10, as described above. As districts struggled to retain their basic educational programs in light of budget cuts, expanded learning time and supplemental instruction all but disappeared. The impact in Los Angeles was particularly striking, as summer school spending fell from $51 million in 2008 to $3 million in 2011. As district budgets improve, however, some have had the chance to restore summer school funding. LAUSD’s 2014 summer school budget was $29 million—a vast improvement over the past several years, though still below its 2008 level. Three-quarters of summer school funds were dedicated to helping high school students earn required credits.

Still, these restorations come too late for the cohort of students who were in high school during the worst years of the recession. Interviewees in all of our study districts spoke to the disproportionate effects of summer school funding cuts on secondary ELLs, as these students are often behind in credits. As one district administrator noted, “There’s no longer any safety net.”

Without a protected state funding stream for summer school, districts have had to become all the more innovative in their approach to promoting high school graduation and college readiness for students who need extra time, including ELLs. Many districts and schools have leveraged support from external partners, and some have adopted the “community schools” approach, attempting to turn traditional schools into full-service resource centers that provide wrap-around support for students and their families—including physical and mental health services—along with afterschool programs and tailored academic interventions for struggling learners. This model depends on collaboration between schools and community-based organizations, many of which provide bilingual and culturally relevant services to certain ethnic groups. Oakland Unified School District (OUSD) has adopted the community school model as the centerpiece of its 2011-16 Strategic Plan, “Community Schools, Thriving Students.”

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Youth Center (EBAYC) serves as a key partner for several OUSD community schools, providing on-site resource centers, afterschool programs, and summer enrichment programs, including an “accelerated English” program for ELLs. Reflecting the diverse demographics of the service area, most of the youth and families that participate in EBAYC programs are Chinese, Southeast Asian, Mexican, and Central American.

A few of the schools we visited used resources from federal School Improvement Grants (SIG) to increase learning time. These schools, found to be “persistently low-achieving” under NCLB, committed to expanding the school day, along with other reforms. A school we visited in San Francisco uses SIG funds to support comprehensive summer programs for all students in transition years: entering ninth grade students who need assistance preparing for high school, and graduating seniors who need assistance preparing for college. According to interviewees, other districts in California have added an extra period to the school day specifically for their secondary-level ELLs.

Without a protected state funding stream for summer school, districts have had to become all the more innovative in their approach to promoting high school graduation and college readiness for students who need extra time.

The City of San Francisco Board of Supervisors has also contributed funding for SFUSD to provide summer school for ELLs since 2012. The funding was initially limited to newcomer students, but was expanded in 2013 to serve any high school ELL who was behind in completing A-G requirements or had failed a core course. SFUSD’s Multilingual Pathways department now plays an integral role in planning district-wide summer school offerings, in order to ensure that ELLs have access to the courses that they need.

2. Strategies for Late-Arriving Immigrants

Some immigrant newcomers are still not prepared to graduate and pursue postsecondary education after their senior year. Adopting a unique approach, one school that we visited in San Francisco allows students to sign a “Fifth Year Contract” and remain in high school beyond their expected graduation date. This option is used on case-by-case basis for students who need additional language development courses; those who need extra time to complete A-G courses; and those who need to remain in high school for another year in order to meet the requirements of California’s policy granting in-state tuition to unauthorized immigrants, Assembly Bill (AB) 540.\textsuperscript{210}

Oakland International High School, which serves a particularly high share of students with interrupted formal education, also has a program for “fifth year seniors” who need extra time. These students take a class designed to prepare them for the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE), participate in an internship and career readiness program, and receive individualized advising. The flexible program allows students to graduate at multiple points throughout the school year, and some take classes at the local community college at the same time that they are finishing their high school requirements and attempting to pass the CAHSEE. Because Oakland International High School is an alternative school, it is exempt from the graduation rate accountability pressures facing traditional high schools; interviewees note that the school serves a large number of immigrants who arrive in late adolescence and may be discouraged from enrolling in other schools due to their potential impact on graduation rates.

\textsuperscript{210} As interviewees explained, some newcomer students enter in the eleventh grade. In order to qualify for AB 540, these students must complete at least three years in a California high school; the extended graduation timeline gives them the opportunity to meet this requirement and subsequently receive in-state tuition.
3. **Earning High School Credits through the Adult Education System**

Following a different approach, many districts allow high school students who are off-track for graduation to "co-enroll" in the district’s adult education program. Unlike in some states, California districts are allowed to use adult education funds to serve high school students who need additional opportunities to earn required credits due to gaps in their education or the need to repeat failed courses. These programs are offered to a wide range of struggling students, including ELLs, and have played an increasingly important role in promoting high school completion as districts have raised their graduation requirements. In Sanger Unified School District, the adult school is located on the same campus as the district’s comprehensive high school, allowing students to take regular high school classes during the school day and then enroll in evening courses which are supported by state adult education dollars. According to district policy, up to one-quarter of all high school students can participate in co-enrollment. This strategy has helped Sanger attain a strikingly high graduation rate: 96 percent in 2012-13.211

![LAUSD's adult education programs "recovered" 8 percent of the previous year's dropouts in 2011-12.](image)

Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) also relies on the adult education system to serve high school students and dropouts, through a comprehensive array of programs—or "alternative pathways to graduation”—tailored to various student profiles. In spite of deep cuts to LAUSD’s adult education program in the 2012-13 school year—which are discussed in greater detail in a later section of this report—the district placed a priority on maintaining programs for high school-age youth. More than 5,000 students took courses through Individualized Instruction Labs located on their high school campus in Fall 2012. LAUSD also offered an Alternative Education and Work Center program, which provided independent study courses for youth ages 16-18 who had dropped out of traditional high schools but wished to complete a diploma.212 This program graduated 1,400 students in 2011-12. Overall, LAUSD’s adult education programs “recovered” 8 percent of the previous year’s dropouts in 2011-12—meaning that these students were enrolled in an adult education program or had completed a diploma or GED by the following October. Interviewees in both LAUSD and Oakland Unified School District (OUSD) noted that the districts have placed a high priority on dropout recovery programs for their former high school students, continuing to fund these programs—albeit on a limited basis—during a period of deep cuts to their overall adult education offerings. The inherent trade-off, however, is that fewer resources are available for the population traditionally served by adult schools, including lower-skilled adults and recently arrived immigrants needing English language instruction.

4. **Remaining Challenges**

While recent months have seen some relief from the budget cuts of previous years, resources for expanded learning time remain far below their pre-recession levels. Summer school has gone from being a common intervention to one that is limited to a small number of schools and students. Some districts—including Anaheim Union High School District—offered no summer school courses in 2012 or 2013.213 Without summer school, completing the A-G curriculum is even more challenging for ELLs. The adult education system, meanwhile, has limited capacity to provide programs for high school-age youth and recent dropouts. LAUSD’s Individualized Instruction Labs providing are at capacity and maintain waiting lists.

Interviewees also spoke to the extra challenges facing late-arriving immigrant youth who are unable

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211 California Department of Education, “DataQuest.”
213 Freedberg, Frey, and Chavez, *Recovering from the Recession*. 

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to graduate by age 18 or 19. While these students are legally entitled to remain in high school through age 21 as long as they are making progress and earning required credits toward a diploma, interviewees noted that many schools are uneasy about serving this population. School administrators may fear that keeping older students enrolled in high school—instead of referring them to an adult education program—will bring down graduation rates. However, adult education courses are oversubscribed, and are generally disconnected from the programs and services offered to high school ELLs. In LAUSD, for instance, the provisions of the recently revised ELL Master Plan, which include intensive support for long-term ELLs, are not transferred to the adult education system.

Resources for expanded learning time remain far below their pre-recession levels.

E. Building Students’ Career Skills

In addition to college-preparatory academics, career-oriented programs play an important role in advancing the employment and economic prospects of youth from immigrant families. Career and technical education (CTE), afterschool programs, and internships allow young people to explore future employment options and build both technical expertise and “soft” skills. Nationwide, business leaders and policymakers have called for revitalizing CTE programs, emphasizing models that integrate academics with training that leads to industry-recognized credentials.214 In many cases, federal and state investments in CTE involve partnerships between high schools, community colleges, employers, and CBOs that serve immigrants and other underrepresented groups.

CTE programs can increase student engagement by connecting classroom learning with jobs paying a family-sustaining wage. These opportunities may be critical for immigrant youth, as programs that expose them to middle-skill and high-skill careers may raise their professional aspirations. Previous MPI research found that ELLs who work while in high school are more likely to enroll in college.215 Employment can help ELLs to build their English skills in a real-world setting, while earning money for college.

California has been home to innovative efforts to incorporate CTE into broader high school reform strategies for decades, and immigrant students have often reaped the benefits of these initiatives.

Career-oriented programs play an important role in advancing the employment and economic prospects of youth from immigrant families.

1. Career Academies and Linked Learning

Many popular high school reform models have embraced the concept of “career academies:” redesigning large high schools into smaller learning communities focused on a particular career theme or industry sector. California has supported a network of career academies—the California Partnership Academies (CPAs)—since the mid-1980s. The CPAs, organized around the state’s 15 recognized CTE industry clusters, incorporate CTE, academics, mentorship, business partnerships, and work-based learning. In addition to regular public school funding, CPAs receive state-funded grants, which must be matched by funds from the local school district and contributions from local employers. At least half of students must be low-income or low-performing. Seniors in CPAs had above-average graduation rates in 2009-10; Latino and Black students, in particular, had higher graduation rates than their peers statewide.

More recently, the Linked Learning school reform model—which combines college-ready academics with technical knowledge and skills, work-based learning, and support services through a “career pathways” approach—has gained prominence in many California school districts. Developed by the organization ConnectEd, the Linked Learning model can be implemented in CPAs as well as other small, themed schools. Beginning in 2009, the James Irvine Foundation has supported district-wide Linked Learning implementation in nine districts, including Oakland and Los Angeles. These districts have embraced the Linked Learning approach as part of a broader school redesign process that involves a shift toward smaller learning communities, student choice, and integrated, project-based curricula.

A recent evaluation of the Linked Learning District Initiative found that compared to similar peers, “pathway” students had completed more credits during the ninth and tenth grades; were more likely to be on track to completing A-G requirements; and were more likely to report that high school has helped them to develop real-world skills such as the “ability to work with people in professional setting.” Another evaluation of four Linked Learning schools found that these schools typically eliminate barriers to A-G course access and career preparation that often affect Latino, Black, and low-income students in traditional high schools. For instance, Linked Learning schools generally provide the same curriculum and career-focused content to all students, avoiding tracking. State legislation passed in 2011 (A.B. 790) funded the expansion of Linked Learning, creating 20 additional programs throughout the state, and Los Angeles received a federal YouthCareer Connect grant in 2014 to support Linked Learning.

2. Online Career and Technical Education in Anaheim

Online courses in Anaheim Union High School District (AUHSD) provide an innovative platform for extending CTE courses to a broad population of students, including ELLs. In 2011-12, more than 900 students took online courses in subjects such as accounting and web design, and approximately 80 percent of participants were long-term ELLs or former ELLs. Interviewees report that online learning is popular among ELLs and comfortable for students at various levels of language proficiency. The teachers of online...
courses also participate in the district’s Lesson Design Initiative and receive training in strategies for supporting the language development of ELLs. Students who complete online accounting courses can receive IRS certification in tax preparation, and many volunteer at community tax preparation clinics.

3. Career and Technical Education Dual Enrollment in San Francisco

A partnership between San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD) and City College of San Francisco (CCSF) provides CTE-focused dual enrollment opportunities for students from four SFUSD high schools, two of which enroll a large number of students from low-income, immigrant families. The CCSF Academy and Pathway Dual Enrollment Program was part of the James Irvine Foundation’s Concurrent Courses Initiative from 2008-11, which supported efforts to expand career-focused dual enrollment. CCSF tuition is free for students in the program, and the school district provides funding for textbooks. Approximately 400 CTE students took dual enrollment courses at CCSF in Fall 2012. Since the James Irvine Foundation grant has ended, CCSF and SFUSD have secured additional grants from private foundations and state funds to continue the partnership.222

4. Afterschool and Community-Based Organization Programs

Beyond the opportunities provided to career academy students, all SFUSD students are eligible to participate in Tech 21, a program which offers afterschool courses and internships in architecture, construction, engineering, building trades, and automotive industries. Students who complete these programs may be eligible for City and Union apprenticeships upon graduation. Interviewees noted that the afterschool scheduling of Tech 21 helps to make the program accessible for ELLs, who often lack the time during the regular school day to participate in CTE.

Young people also need on-the-job work experience, and CBOs—in partnership with local government agencies—play a critical role in expanding access to jobs, internships, and workforce development training.

Young people also need on-the-job work experience, and community-based organizations (CBOs)—in partnership with local government agencies—play a critical role in expanding access to jobs, internships, and workforce development training for low-income youth. In 1991, San Francisco became the first city in the nation to pass a voter-approved initiative setting aside a portion of local tax funds for children and youth.223 The Department of Children, Youth, and their Families (DCYP) provides competitive grant funding for approximately 200 CBOs, and also supports wellness, out-of-school-time, and family engagement programs in SFUSD schools. Many of the grantees have a long history of serving the city’s immigrant communities, such as the Vietnamese Youth Development Center and the Community Youth Center of San Francisco (which serves a predominately Chinese population). These organizations provide subsidized youth employment and internship programs for in-school youth as well as those that have dropped out. Similarly, the Oakland Fund for Children and Youth, established in 1996, also reserves a portion of local government funds for direct services including afterschool programs for youth of all ages. A 2012-13 survey of youth participating in Oakland’s afterschool programs showed promising results: a majority of high school participants reported that their program helped them to get an internship or paying job, and 92 percent reported that the program increased their confidence about going to college.224

5. Remaining Challenges

ELLs may face barriers to reaping the full benefits of CTE and workforce development programs. In Linked Learning high schools, interviewees noted that ELLs often miss out on project-based learning—which is a central component of the model—because they must take required language courses during the same timeframe. An external evaluation of Linked Learning also cited capacity challenges faced by many small, career-focused schools, with regard to supporting ELLs and other students with special needs, and noted that schools and teachers need guidance on how to structure Linked Learning pathways to accommodate these students.225 Once again, the transition to smaller, themed high schools has implications for ELLs that warrant further examination.

More broadly, state and local funding for CBOs providing youth employment and internship programs declined during the recession due to reduced tax revenue. Interviewees from immigrant-serving CBOs reported that they have discontinued some programs and reduced the number of youth served in others due to constrained resources, especially since stimulus funding has ended.

Research has found that guidance, counseling, mentorship, and family engagement play a key role in increasing college access for students of color.

F. College Knowledge and Preparation for the Postsecondary Transition

Beyond academic knowledge and relevant career skills, youth also need to build “college knowledge,” which refers to the information and social capital that students need to enroll in college and navigate the higher education system.226 College knowledge involves an understanding of complex processes such as applying for admission; completing required placement testing; accessing financial aid and scholarships; and making critical decisions about courses, majors, and degrees to pursue. There is substantial literature on the barriers faced by students who are the first in their families to attend college, as well as low-income students and students from underrepresented minority groups; immigrant and second-generation youth typically fall into at least one of these categories. Research has found that guidance, counseling, mentorship, and family engagement play a key role in increasing college access for students of color, including Latino and African American males—the groups that typically have the lowest educational attainment.227 The entire college-going process is all the more daunting for families that have a limited understanding of the U.S. education system and do not speak English proficiently.228

1. San Francisco’s Citywide College Access Initiative

Several districts and institutions of higher education have launched large-scale initiatives to promote college knowledge. One example of a comprehensive, citywide approach is Bridge to Success, a partnership between the City and County of San Francisco, San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD), City College of San Francisco (CCSF), San Francisco State University, and local education funders. The initiative aims to

225 Guha et al., Taking Stock.
double the number of youth in San Francisco who complete a college degree or certificate.\(^{229}\) The partners have targeted seven steps—spanning early childhood education to college persistence—that play a role in postsecondary success, and have created programs and policies that address each step.

As part of this effort, the San Francisco Promise engages cohorts of low-income middle school students in a mentoring, college counseling, and career exploration program, with the promise of scholarships to San Francisco State University for those who graduate meeting A-G requirements. All SFUSD ninth graders take a one-semester course called Plan Ahead, in which students map out their high school and postsecondary goals. The Plan Ahead Curriculum, which was developed by Gap, Inc. and the Pearson Foundation, incorporates a focus on building literacy skills, and includes optional activities that teachers can use to support ELLs.\(^{230}\) At some schools, teachers also provide after-school mentoring and college application assistance for ELLs.

2. **GEAR UP in Orange County**

In Orange County, a partnership between Anaheim Union High School District (AUHSD) and CSU Fullerton demonstrates how institutions can tailor broader college access initiatives to meet the needs of ELLs. The district and the university have two federal GEAR UP\(^{231}\) grants to provide college awareness and enrichment activities for entire grade-level cohorts at three high schools and two middle schools. Because AUHSD has committed to a district-wide focus on long-term ELLs, the GEAR UP partnership targets this population for building college-level literacy skills. Students participate in a weekly book club, and family college-planning events and advising sessions are conducted in Spanish and English. According to interviewees, the GEAR UP program has been especially helpful in schools that have gone through a recent demographic change, and need to build their capacity to help immigrant students and families in the college-planning process.

Several districts and institutions of higher education have launched large-scale initiatives to promote college knowledge.

3. **Community-Based Efforts to Improve College Counseling**

In many regions of California, networks of nonprofit agencies and community-based organizations play a vital role in guiding youth and families through the college-going process. For instance, the Southern California College Access Network (SoCal CAN) is a coalition of more than 50 organizations working to promote the college enrollment and completion of low-income students, many of whom are first- or second-generation immigrants. The network provides a forum for organizations to share effective practices and build the field of college access providers, and conducts media and web-based campaigns to increase college knowledge in the region. SoCal CAN’s Peer Ambassador program trains ninth- and tenth-grade students to promote college aspirations and college planning on their high school campuses.

\(^{229}\) In 2010, San Francisco was also selected as one of four cities nationwide to participate in the Communities Learning in Partnership initiative of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, receiving a three-year grant to improve high school-college alignment and create support systems to increase college success among students from underrepresented groups. This grant supported Bridge to Success efforts in San Francisco. Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, “Four Cities Receive $12 Million to Improve College,” (news release, September 2010), [www.gatesfoundation.org/ Media-Center/Press-Releases/2010/09/Four-Cities-Receive-12-Million-to-Improve-College-Graduation-Rates](http://www.gatesfoundation.org/Media-Center/Press-Releases/2010/09/Four-Cities-Receive-12-Million-to-Improve-College-Graduation-Rates).

\(^{230}\) Plan Ahead, “Course Overview,” [www.whatsyourplana.com/about/course-overview](http://www.whatsyourplana.com/about/course-overview).

\(^{231}\) GEAR UP (Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs) is a discretionary grant program that aims to increase the college preparation and enrollment rates of low-income students. GEAR UP funds college outreach and early intervention activities for cohorts of students starting at the middle school level and continuing through high school.
Tapping into the potential of technology, the California College Guidance Initiative (CCGI) assists secondary school students and families in navigating the college-going process with an online college-planning portal and a mobile app. In several pilot districts, transcripts are linked to CCGI’s portal automatically, and students receive virtual feedback and assistance in choosing courses that will meet the requirements for admission to a four-year college.

**Tapping into the potential of technology, the California College Guidance Initiative assists secondary school students and families in navigating the college-going process.**

Our site visits also revealed several examples of organizations and coalitions focused specifically on supporting college-going for DACA recipients and unauthorized immigrants, as these students face particular barriers to affording higher education and often need help accessing financial aid through the *California Dream Act*.232 In the San Francisco Bay Area, the organization Educators for Fair Consideration (E4FC) provides scholarships, advising, peer mentoring, informational resources, and legal services for DREAMers through a unique apprenticeship model. E4FC trains cohorts of college-level DREAMers to serve as Outreach Ambassadors, who are charged with providing presentations for high school students their families, and Legal Advocates, who answer web-based inquiries from youth nationwide about DACA and other forms of immigration relief. In addition, E4FC also hosts an annual conference for educators and counselors to disseminate best practices for supporting unauthorized immigrant youth in pursuing their college and career goals.

4. Remaining Challenges

Across California, college counseling programs were decimated by budget cuts during the recession. As of 2011-12, California’s guidance counselor-to-student ratio was the second-highest in the nation, with more than 800 students (in grades K-12) per counselor—compared to a national average of approximately 470 students per counselor.233 A 2013 survey found that 27 of the state’s 30 largest school districts still had fewer counselors than in the years prior to the recession. The reduction in counselors was sharpest in Los Angeles.234 Interviewees reported that many counselors are unable to help students with college applications, as their time is taken up with course registration and discipline issues. Without the supplemental resources provided by community-based organizations, federal grant programs, and foundations, the schools that we visited would be unable to sustain the promising practices discussed above.

**Across California, college counseling programs were decimated by budget cuts during the recession.**

More broadly, efforts to address gaps in the pipeline from high school to college and careers are hindered by a lack of disaggregated data on students’ postsecondary transitions. Unlike several other states, Califor-

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232 California’s AB 130 and AB 131, which are collectively known as the *California DREAM Act*, expanded access to institutional and state-funded financial aid, as well as community college fee waivers, for eligible unauthorized immigrant students. More information on these policies is provided in a later section of this report.


234 Freedberg, Frey, and Chavez, *Recovering from the Recession*. 

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California does not have a statewide longitudinal data system that can track individual student records from preschool through K-12 and postsecondary education and into the workforce. While 2008 state legislation authorized the development of this type of “P-20 database,” subsequent efforts to link data from various levels of education have stalled in light of concerns about the associated costs. A state-level workgroup representing the California Department of Education, the three state higher education systems, and the Employment Development Department continues to pursue strategies for sharing data across systems, but these data are not provided to educators, researchers, or the general public. Without these data, stakeholders cannot evaluate the impact of new policies and programs on the success of targeted groups, such as ELLs and former ELLs.

Prior to the recession, California had the largest and most robust adult education system in the nation, and its services played a central role in the integration of immigrants and refugees.

VI. Adult Education as an On-Ramp to Postsecondary Success

Prior to the recession, California had the largest and most robust adult education system in the nation, and its services played a central role in the integration of immigrants and refugees. While adult education courses have historically enrolled a large number of older adults, they also provide an important second-chance system for first- and second-generation youth who have dropped out of traditional high schools and those who immigrated in late adolescence and never “dropped in.” The most common adult education offerings are English as a Second Language (ESL) courses, adult basic education (ABE) courses for those with low literacy and numeracy skills, adult secondary education (ASE) courses that prepare students to earn high school diploma or equivalent, and career and technical education (CTE) courses.

A. The Need for Adult Education among California’s Immigrant Youth

Data on the educational attainment of California’s immigrant youth demonstrate the scale of the task facing the adult education system. Among young adults ages 21-26—those who are beyond the age limits of the traditional K-12 education system—29 percent of first-generation immigrants lacked a high school diploma or its equivalent during the 2009-13 period, compared to 13 percent of all California youth and 10 percent of all youth nationwide.

Breaking down these figures by Hispanic origin, it is evident that California’s first-generation Hispanic youth are substantially more likely to lack a high school education than other youth in this age range (see Figure 10). Forty-three percent of first-generation Hispanics ages 21-26—approximately 230,000 individuals—lacked a high school diploma or GED. The data suggest that many Hispanic youth in this age range had limited schooling in their countries of origin before immigrating and may have never enrolled in U.S. schools. As new job growth will be concentrated in jobs requiring postsecondary education and train-

235 Florida and Washington, which were also included in this study, have each developed a “P-20W Data Warehouse,” which is a central repository for data from the early childhood, elementary, secondary, postsecondary, and workforce systems. For more, see Institute of Education Sciences, “Building a Centralized P-20W Data Warehouse” (SLDS Issue Brief, Institute of Education Sciences, Washington, DC, 2013), http://nces.ed.gov/programs/slds/pdf/centralized_warehouse.pdf.
236 Warren and Hough, Increasing the Usefulness of California’s Education Data.
237 MPI analysis of 2009-13 CPS-ASEC data.
California faces the imperative of addressing the skills gap of this large, working-age population. At the same time, Figure 10 demonstrates considerable generational progress for California’s Hispanic youth. By the second generation, the share of Hispanic youth without a high school diploma drops to 13 percent: a rate still substantially higher than that of second-generation non-Hispanics (5 percent), but far better than first-generation Hispanics. It is important to note, however, that these data are based on youth born between 1983 and 1992. It remains to be seen whether the second-generation children of immigrants who arrived during the 1990s and 2000s will have the same outcomes by the time they reach their twenties.

**Figure 10. Shares of California Youth Ages 21 to 26 without a High School Diploma or Equivalent, by Generation and Hispanic Origin, 2009-13**

Analyses of educational attainment by racial groups—regardless of immigrant generation—demonstrate wide variations within the Asian population. Individuals with Southeast Asian origins (Cambodian, Laotian, or Hmong) are less likely to have completed a high school diploma or its equivalent than Asian youth. Many Southeast Asian youth are the children of refugees who arrived in the 1970s and 1980s. Overall, California is home to 4.1 million adults of all ages (18-64) who lack a high school diploma or GED, and 5.1 million adults with limited English proficiency. There are 2.5 million individuals who fall into both categories—a group that faces significant barriers to advancement in the labor market.

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239 MPI analysis of 2010-12 ACS data.
240 MPI analysis of 2010-12 ACS data. Limited English proficiency is defined as those who report speaking English “less than very well.”
B. Enrollment in California’s Adult Education Programs

Even prior to the recent recession and state budget crisis, California’s adult education programs only had the capacity to serve only a limited share of the state’s population with low levels of basic skills or limited English proficiency. During 2008-2009, California’s “adult schools”—which were operated primarily by K-12 school districts and County Offices of Education—served 1.2 million students.\(^\text{241}\) Enrollment has declined sharply over the last five years, as programs for low-skilled adult learners were particularly vulnerable to cuts during the recent budget crisis. In the words of one interviewee, when the state legislature granted school districts the flexibility to redirect adult education funding to other purposes in 2009, “we knew it would be the death knell for adult education.” In 2011-12 approximately 50 to 60 percent of California’s categorical funding for adult education was redirected to other purposes.\(^\text{242}\)

Flexibility resulted in the rapid shrinking and closure of adult schools in many districts. Anaheim Union High School District closed its entire adult education program in June 2011.\(^\text{243}\) Oakland Unified School District (OUSD)—which had the second-oldest adult education program in California—went from serving approximately 25,000 adult education students in 2008-09 to 1,500 students in 2012-13.\(^\text{244}\) Today, the district only offers GED classes and family literacy classes for parents of OUSD students. Other types of programs have been discontinued, including ESL classes for the broader community. OUSD now spends approximately $1 million of state funds on adult education courses, compared to nearly $12 million in 2008-09.

Providing a full picture of the scope of these losses is challenging, as many districts have not reported data on their state-funded adult education programs since flexibility was introduced in 2009.\(^\text{245}\) Data on programs receiving federal funds from Title II of the Workforce Investment Act (WIA)\(^\text{246}\) provide a partial portrait of California’s adult learners, as these programs must still submit annual reports on enrollment to the U.S. Department of Education’s Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education (OCTAE; formerly the Office of Vocational and Adult Education). Enrollment in California’s WIA-funded adult education courses peaked in 2008-09, then declined each year through 2012-13 (see Table 5).\(^\text{247}\) The number of students served dropped by more than 50 percent during this time period, with declines across all three types of WIA-funded programs. This change reflects the impact of state budget cuts and local funding decisions; federal WIA funding did not change substantially during this time period. ESL students accounted for approximately two-thirds of all federally funded adult education enrollment in California.


\(^\text{242}\) Taylor, Restructuring California’s Adult Education System.

\(^\text{243}\) Little Hoover Commission, Serving Students, Serving California.

\(^\text{244}\) Data provided by Oakland Unified School District to MPI. Information on file with the authors.

\(^\text{245}\) The 2009 State Legislature granted school districts the flexibility to use certain categorical funding streams—including adult education funds—for general purposes, in an effort to help school districts weather budget cuts, and removed reporting and other statutory requirements attached to these programs.

\(^\text{246}\) Title II of the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) is the primary federal funding stream for adult education.

\(^\text{247}\) In accordance with federal guidelines, these data include only students who persisted in the program for more than 12 hours and who were not concurrently enrolled in grades K-12.
Table 5. California Enrollment in Workforce Investment Act Title II Adult Education Courses, by Program Type, 2007-13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Enrollment in Adult Basic Education</th>
<th>Enrollment in Adult Secondary Education</th>
<th>Enrollment in English as a Second Language</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>122,601</td>
<td>71,579</td>
<td>408,657</td>
<td>602,837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>134,422</td>
<td>77,501</td>
<td>406,844</td>
<td>618,767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>97,976</td>
<td>37,192</td>
<td>299,260</td>
<td>434,428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-11</td>
<td>98,721</td>
<td>33,013</td>
<td>261,184</td>
<td>392,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>95,891</td>
<td>32,266</td>
<td>225,909</td>
<td>354,066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-13</td>
<td>85,347</td>
<td>31,079</td>
<td>185,743</td>
<td>302,169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In a few regions throughout the state—including San Francisco—community colleges are the sole providers of adult education.

The California Community Colleges (CCC) also offer a broad menu of basic skills courses, some similar to offerings in adult schools. Noncredit basic skills courses are designed to help low-skilled adults improve their English or obtain a high school diploma or its equivalent. These courses typically are offered free of charge, and institutions receive state funding for them based on student attendance. In a few regions throughout the state—including San Francisco—community colleges are the sole providers of adult education and provide a vast array of noncredit courses; in other regions, however, the community colleges do not offer any noncredit courses.

Credit-bearing basic skills courses provide remedial education for degree-seeking college students. These courses cost the same as other community college courses ($46 per unit), though low-income students can receive fee waivers. Many basic skills courses that confer credit are geared toward recent high school graduates requiring developmental education, and thus may be inappropriate for adults with limited prior education and low levels of English proficiency. Overall, there were approximately 350,000 students in credit-bearing basic skills courses and 100,000 students in noncredit basic-skills courses in CCC in 2010-11.

C. Adult Education and Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals

Access to adult education classes has been made all the more urgent by the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program, which provides temporary relief from deportation and work authorization. DACA eligibility is predicated on educational attainment, as applicants must have completed a high school diploma or GED, or be currently enrolled elementary or secondary school or an education, literacy, or workforce training program at the time of their application. MPI estimates that there were 423,000 young adults nationwide—nearly one-third of whom lived in California (122,000)—who would otherwise have been eligible for DACA, but did not meet these education requirements at the time of program's

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248 In addition to generating revenue from student fees, colleges are reimbursed at a higher rate for these courses, based on full-time equivalent students (FTE).

249 California Community Colleges’ Chancellor’s Office, *Basic Skills Accountability*.
launch. By enrolling in adult education programs, these youth have the opportunity to take advantage of DACA while also improving their English and basic skills. Access to adult education for California youth who are potentially DACA-eligible holds significant implications for the national reach of the deferred action initiative. Moreover, if Congress enacts potential DREAM Act legislation in the future, the policy is likely to require applicants for citizenship to hold a high school diploma and complete at least two years of postsecondary education.

**Access to adult education classes has been made all the more urgent by the federal Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program.**

Not surprisingly, California's adult education programs saw an immediate spike in demand after DACA was announced. In Oakland for instance, respondents spoke of a trend of increasing enrollment in both English and Spanish GED programs from youth who were hoping to apply for DACA. As they described, many of the students seeking deferred action were parents with their own minor children. Nationally, 30 percent of immigrant youth who would be eligible for DACA but for the education requirements are parents. For this group in particular, access to adult education—and, ultimately, to deferred action or legal residency—holds critical implications for the success of the next generation. A parent's level of education has been found to be the most important protective factor influencing children's academic outcomes and future income; meanwhile, a parent's lack of legal immigration status has been linked to lower levels of cognitive development and educational progress for children.

The enactment of comprehensive immigration reform legislation would likely stimulate an even greater surge in demand for adult education programs from the broader population of unauthorized immigrants, one-quarter of whom live in California. Such a bill may require applicants for legal residency to demonstrate English proficiency and knowledge of U.S. civics. As approximately 70 percent of unauthorized immigrants nationwide have limited English proficiency, it is expected that a substantial share will attempt to access free or low-cost adult education programs provided by California's school districts and community colleges.

**The enactment of comprehensive immigration reform legislation would likely stimulate an even greater surge in demand for adult education programs.**

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251 Batalova, Hooker, and Capps, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals at the One-Year Mark.
D. The Changing Landscape of Adult Education California: State Policy Directions

In California, perhaps more than any other state, adult education is at a watershed moment. Policymakers and practitioners nationwide are increasingly focused on moving adult education students into postsecondary education, as part of broader, statewide efforts to promote college degree completion. There is ample room for improvement, as adult education courses historically have had low persistence rates, and students who complete these programs face tall odds of earning a postsecondary degree or certificate. At City College of San Francisco, for instance, 8 percent of students entering noncredit ESL courses in 1998 to 2000 made the transition to credit courses within seven years.\(^{255}\)

Bridging the gap between adult schools and college-based courses—or between noncredit and credit courses within a community college—can be challenging, as each system has its own admissions and placement criteria, fee structures, and cultural expectations, and until recently, few resources have been available to help students navigate the path to postsecondary education. Accordingly, the most advanced students in adult education programs stand to benefit from new opportunities to make a faster, smoother transition into degree and certificate programs. Adult education advocacy groups have warned, however, that this shift in emphasis may bring unintended consequences for the hardest-to-serve students—including immigrants with low levels of English proficiency—who will likely need additional support.

In California, perhaps more than any other state, adult education is at a watershed moment.

At the same time, the budget crisis has proved a catalyst for structural changes in California’s provision of adult education, as stakeholders have demanded greater efficiency. Policymakers have called into question the state’s “bifurcated” model, and pushed for increased alignment between the various funding streams, program offerings, and outcome metrics in adult schools and CCC basic-skills programs.\(^{256}\) Some elected officials and analysts have proposed moving all adult education funding and responsibility to CCC.\(^{257}\) Many educators have firmly opposed such a change, however, arguing that adult schools run by K-12 school districts play a unique role in serving the most underprepared learners, and that many colleges are ill-equipped to meet the needs of this group. Further, immigrants may find colleges to be inaccessible, due to the physical location of their campuses (and lack of transportation) as well as the perceived social distance from their communities. As interviewees described, adult schools were generally located in familiar and trusted locations near K-12 schools; by contrast, college campuses may be seen as impersonal and intimidating.

Following the recommendation of the State Legislative Analyst’s Office, the state legislature has maintained California’s “dual delivery” model of adult education, but has taken steps to standardize policies, funding models, and data systems across K-12 school districts and community colleges.\(^{258}\) Legislation passed in 2013 (AB 86) imposed a maintenance of effort requirement on school districts—meaning that they must continue funding adult education programs at their FY 2012-13 level for the next two fiscal years (even though this level of spending remains far below pre-recession levels).

In addition, school districts and community colleges now have an incentive to collaborate at the regional level.\(^{259}\) AB 86 provided $25 million for two-year planning grants for regional consortia of school districts and community colleges. These consortia are charged with developing “regional comprehensive plans” to

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256 Taylor, Restructuring California’s Adult Education System.

257 Brown, Governor’s Budget Summary 2014-2015: Higher Education.


259 California Budget Project, Final 2013-14 Budget Agreement Signals a New Chapter.
address gaps in adult education service delivery and create clearer and more streamlined pathways from adult education into postsecondary education and the workforce.\footnote{California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, \textit{Certification of Eligibility Instructions, Terms & Conditions}.} These plans, which must be finalized by March 2015, will inform a report to the governor and state legislature on recommendations for funding in 2015-16 and beyond.\footnote{Ibid.} The future funding level and structure of adult education programming—including the balance of responsibilities and resources between K-12 school districts and community colleges—remains to be seen.\footnote{California Council for Adult Education, “Special Legislative Edition,” November 14, 2013, \url{http://archive.constantcontact.com/fs103/1108948661241/archives/1115668829657.html}.}

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\textbf{The future funding level and structure of adult education programming—including the balance of responsibilities and resources between K-12 school districts and community colleges—remains to be seen.}

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\section*{E. Efforts to Improve College and Career Transitions for Adult Education Students}

Predating the recent development of regional consortia, some K-12 school districts, community colleges, and workforce agencies had already begun to develop partnerships focused on the transition from adult schools into college and careers.

\subsection*{1. Policy to Performance}

California was one of eight states to receive a Policy to Performance (P2P) grant from the Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education during the 2011-12 school year, which funded pilot programs in ten school districts. These programs primarily served students who were close to completing their high school diploma or earning a GED, and who wanted to attend college. These programs built college knowledge through campus visits, application and financial aid workshops, counseling, and preparation for college placement testing, as well as career exploration, job search assistance, and life skills. In some cases, students could enroll in college credit courses during the spring semester, while still receiving counseling and other support services from the adult school.\footnote{For more information on California’s P2P pilot programs, see Outreach and Technical Assistance Network (OTAN), “Transitioning Adults to Opportunities,” \url{www.otan.us/cap2p/pilots.html}.} Apart from the P2P grant, some districts have developed similar initiatives for ESL students, including courses that emphasize the vocational English skills needed for CTE programs in local community colleges.\footnote{For more information on California’s P2P pilot programs, see Outreach and Technical Assistance Network (OTAN), “Transitioning Adults to Opportunities,” \url{www.otan.us/cap2p/pilots.html}.} Overall, approximately one-third of the state’s federally funded ESL providers offered classes to help students make the transition into postsecondary education in 2012-13.\footnote{Some of these transition-focused programs for ESL students received Promising Practices Awards from Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment Systems (CASAS). For more information, see CASAS, “Promising Practices,” \url{www.casas.org/training-and-support/casas-peer-communities/california-accountability/pp}.}

\subsection*{2. Regional Coordination Between Providers in Silicon Valley}

Another example of a regional effort to link local school district and community college ESL programs, the Silicon Valley Community Foundation created the Alliance for Language Learners’ Integration, Education, and Success (ALLIES) in 2011. The goal is to address local gaps in adult ESL services in San Mateo and Santa Clara counties by improving regional program alignment and efficiency, and establishing pathways

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item \footnote{California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, \textit{Certification of Eligibility Instructions, Terms & Conditions}.}
\item \footnote{Ibid.}
\item \footnote{For more information on California’s P2P pilot programs, see Outreach and Technical Assistance Network (OTAN), “Transitioning Adults to Opportunities,” \url{www.otan.us/cap2p/pilots.html}.}
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\item \footnote{Some of these transition-focused programs for ESL students received Promising Practices Awards from Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment Systems (CASAS). For more information, see CASAS, “Promising Practices,” \url{www.casas.org/training-and-support/casas-peer-communities/california-accountability/pp}.}
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
to career and technical training. In its first few years, ALLIES' ESL Providers Network supported and documented institutional partnerships between adult schools and community colleges to support students’ transitions. Several partnerships focused on aligning assessments, curricula, and placement procedures between the two systems.266 In late 2012, ALLIES joined with three local Workforce Investment Boards to successfully apply for a federal Workforce Innovation Fund (WIF) grant from the U.S. Department of Labor to improve articulation between school district and community college ESL programs and workforce training in high demand fields.267 ALLIES was the only WIF grantee to focus exclusively on immigrants with limited English proficiency.

3. Basic Skills Initiative in Community Colleges

The California Community Colleges (CCC) launched the Basic Skills Initiative (BSI) in 2006 to improve access and success for academically underprepared students. In recent years, many colleges have also used BSI funds for professional development, supplemental instruction, tutoring, and advising and counseling services. In 2013, the CCC Chancellor’s Office Basic Skills Advisory Committee released a resource guide featuring successful practices and lessons learned from the state’s BSI investments over the previous six years. The guide is intended to help colleges research and design alternative models to better-serve their basic-skills students.268 According to the resource guide, the most effective interventions include those that embed academic support and counseling into basic-skills classes. Instead of assuming that basic-skills students will seek out the college’s tutoring and counseling resources, these models bring these resources directly to basic-skills students at a time and place that is accessible for them: during their scheduled class period.

Some colleges have begun to develop programs based on Washington State’s Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST) model.

4. Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training

In an effort to compress the pathway from ESL courses to obtaining a community college certificate, some colleges have begun to develop programs based on Washington State’s Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST) model that combine English language learning with workforce skills training.269 City College of San Francisco (CCSF) has piloted a program for ESL students leading to a Community Health Worker (CHW) certificate. During the “pre-I-BEST” semester, students take a noncredit, intensive ESL course. They also attend an orientation course and receive assistance in completing their application to the CHW program. During the “I-BEST” semester, ESL students enroll in CHW credit courses along with mainstream students, with classes co-taught by a CHW instructor and an ESL instructor. While the program is still relatively small, CCSF hopes to include a Community Mental Health Worker certificate pathway, as well as pathways to other fields with a high demand for bilingual employees. The CCC Chancellor’s Office and California Department of Education recently encouraged regional adult education consortia to pursue new, integrated models of adult and career-technical education—based on the I-BEST model—as part of the regional planning process funded through AB 86.270

266 ALLIES, ESL Providers’ Network Progress Report (unpublished working draft, October 1, 2012).
268 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Basic Skills Completion: The Key to Student Success in California Community Colleges (Sacramento, CA: California Community Colleges, 2013), www.saddleback.edu/uploads/la/basic_skills_completion_the_key_to_student_success_-_ccc.pdf.
269 For more information the role of I-BEST in serving immigrant youth in Washington State, see Hooker, McHugh, Fix, and Capps, Shaping Our Futures.
270 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Certification of Eligibility Instructions, Terms & Conditions.
5. Flexible Scheduling and Modular Courses

Nationwide, “modular” courses have emerged as popular alternatives to standard, semester-based adult and developmental education programs. These programs break remedial instruction into shorter “modules,” allowing students to complete a customized program focused on their specific remedial needs. At Los Angeles Trade-Tech College (LATTC), for example, most noncredit programs are offered in short blocks that have three different entry and exit points throughout the semester. These modules are helpful for students who miss registration deadlines for credit-based courses, as they allow students to start taking courses tuition-free courses and build their skills without delay. In many cases, these programs integrate technology-based instruction with in-person support.

6. Remaining Challenges

a) Capacity and Collaboration

While the worst years of the budget crisis have passed, California’s adult education programs today operate at only a fraction of their previous capacity, and the state has a long way to go to fulfill the vision of a well-aligned, coherent set of adult education courses in school districts and community colleges. Community college interviewees stated that their institutions are unable to fill the demand created by the closure of adult schools, and spoke to a lack of options for students with the greatest literacy and basic skills needs. Los Angeles Trade-Tech College, for instance, has historically referred students seeking a high school diploma or GED to the LAUSD adult schools. According to interviewees, the local area (Central Los Angeles) lacks the capacity to meet the needs of disconnected youth without the adult schools. While some charter schools specifically serve this population, these small schools are typically full and maintain a waiting list. As mentioned previously, access to adult education has only become more challenging—and more critical—since DACA’s implementation.

The state has a long way to go to fulfill the vision of a well-aligned, coherent set of adult education courses in school districts and community colleges.

As California tries to move toward a more coordinated model of service provision, the regional consortia planning process will likely vary considerably across the state. According to interviewees, it appears that in many cases school districts are taking the lead in this planning process, especially in areas where community colleges traditionally have not offered many noncredit or integrated career pathway courses for adult learners. Further, some community colleges do not view adult education as part of their mission, and already face capacity challenges serving their traditional, degree-seeking populations. College administrators and faculty will need to be involved to create smoother pathways from adult education into postsecondary degree and certificate programs. Meanwhile, adult educators from the K-12 system stand to play an important role in ensuring that the lowest-skilled learners are not left out of new service delivery plans.

b) Data Quality

Improving the quality and consistency of adult education data across the state’s various providers is critical component of system reform efforts. School district and community college programs have historically maintained separate data systems and tracked different metrics, making it difficult for regional or state-level stakeholders to evaluate the effectiveness of their investments. Making matters worse, some school districts have not reported data on their state-funded adult education courses since flexibility was enacted in 2009. Meanwhile, community colleges submit a separate set of data to the CCC Chancellor’s

271 Taylor, Restructuring California’s Adult Education System.
Office for the annual Accountability Reporting for the Community Colleges (ARCC)—Basic Skills Accountability Supplement. Still, this report provides less information on students beginning their studies in noncredit basic skills courses than those in credit-based courses.272

California does not currently have the capacity to track longitudinal data on students’ transitions from district-provided adult education programs into community colleges or the workforce. While WIA-funded programs are required to report data on “core follow-up measures” for adult education students—which include entering postsecondary education or entering or retaining employment—California obtains these data through student surveys, which typically have low response rates. In its 2012 report, the Legislative Analyst’s Office recommended implementing an aligned data system that uses a single student identification number across all adult education providers.273 Doing so would likely provide a much clearer picture of the long-term progress of ESL students and other adult learners in education and the workforce.

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**Improving the quality and consistency of adult education data across the state’s various providers is critical component of system reform efforts.**

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c) Challenges Serving Students with Low Language Skills and Educational Attainment

Beyond systemic challenges with funding and coordinating adult education programs in California, several interviewees spoke to persistently low success rates for adults at the lowest levels of English proficiency and basic skills. Research from City College of San Francisco (CCSF) finds that the students who are most successful in intermediate to advanced ESL courses generally have at least a 10th grade level of education.274 Our interviewees from CCSF echoed this finding, adding that students’ educational background is the most important factor in predicting their chance of advancing into workforce training programs. Many students do not have the level of academic skills or English proficiency needed for courses leading to a certificate or degree, and it could take them several years to reach this threshold in traditional adult education programs. In California as well as nationwide, educators are attempting to design new, accelerated models for the hardest-to-serve populations. Interviewees also stressed an urgent need for programs teaching literacy and numeracy in immigrants’ native languages, to give students a stronger academic foundation to support their success in ESL courses and postsecondary-level workforce training programs.

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**VII. Persistence and Success in Postsecondary Education**

California historically has had a strong tradition of access and affordability in its public colleges and universities, and these institutions have played a key role in educating the nation’s immigrant undergraduates. The state’s three higher education systems—the California Community Colleges, the California State University (CSU), and the University of California (UC)—each have a distinct mission and set of admissions requirements. The California Community Colleges (CCC) confer two-year degrees and short-term certificates in specific career fields. Many community colleges also provide noncredit, adult education programs. The CSU system, meanwhile, provides baccalaureate and master’s-level degree programs, and enrolls the majority of students transferring from two-year colleges.275 The UC system is the state’s most

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272 California Community Colleges’ Chancellor’s Office, Basic Skills Accountability.
273 Taylor, Restructuring California’s Adult Education System.
274 City College of San Francisco, Summary Report on the Non-Credit ESL Study (San Francisco: City College of San Francisco, 2010); Anne Whiteside and Denise McCarthy, Full Report on the Non-credit ESL Study (San Francisco: City College of San Francisco, 2010), https://www.ccsf.edu/dam/Organizational_Assets/Department/Research_Planning_Grants/Program%20Review%202011-2012/ProRev/Intl/AttachD-ESLstudyFullReport.pdf.
275 CSU institutions can also award one specific type of doctoral degree—the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in Educational Leadership. Other doctoral degrees can be awarded jointly with UC institutions or private universities.
selective public university system and awards degrees ranging from the baccalaureate to doctoral levels.

A. Enrollment in California’s Postsecondary Institutions

Enrollment data suggest that some groups of students are underrepresented in California’s institutions of higher education, while others are overrepresented—and these disparities become more pronounced as institutional selectivity increases (see Figure 11). In Fall 2012, Latinos comprised 51 percent of all high school students but only 39 percent of community college students, 30 percent of CSU undergraduates, and 20 percent of UC undergraduates. This trend suggests that Latinos face substantial barriers to enrollment in four-year colleges and universities; they are the only major ethnic group that experiences such a steep drop-off in enrollment at each increasingly selective level of education. This disparity does not appear to be a function of demographics: the proportion of Hispanics within the 14-17 age group (the traditional high school-age years) and within the 18-22 age band (the traditional college-going years) was similar.

The enrollment of Asian students showed the opposite trend. While Asians made up 9 percent of students in grades 9-12, they comprised 33 percent of UC students. Within the UC system, disaggregated data show that Chinese, Korean, and East Indian/Pakistani students together comprised the vast majority of Asian students.276

California historically has had a strong tradition of access and affordability in its public colleges and universities, and these institutions have played a key role in educating the nation’s immigrant undergraduates.

The share of Black students in community colleges was proportional to their share of California’s high school population (7 percent), though Black students were underrepresented in four-year universities (comprising 5 percent of CSU students and 4 percent of UC students).

276 University of California, Statistical Summary of Students and Staff: Fall 2012.
Figure 11. Racial/Ethnic Composition of California’s Educational Sectors, Fall 2012

Notes: The “Other” category includes the groups “unknown,” “two or more races,” “nonresident alien” (i.e. international student visa-holders), “American Indian or Alaska Native,” and “Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander” (which was omitted because data on this group are not reported in the UC system). Data from the community colleges include credit and noncredit students attending eight or more hours during the fall term.


B. Demographics of Study Colleges

Community colleges are a central focus of this series of reports, as they enroll more immigrants than any other type of postsecondary institution.277 The CCC Chancellor’s Office explicitly recognized these colleges’ important role as a gateway to English instruction, workforce development, and academic programs of study for immigrants and their children in its 2013 Strategic Plan.278

As with the school districts included in this study, the enrollment patterns of the participating colleges reflect substantial regional and demographic diversity (see Table 6).

277 Stalkis and Horn, New Americans in Postsecondary Education; Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, and Suárez-Orozco, “Immigrants in Community Colleges.”
Table 6. Demographics of Study Colleges, 2012-13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fresno City College</th>
<th>Fullerton College</th>
<th>Los Angeles Trade-Tech College</th>
<th>City College of San Francisco</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>All Students</td>
<td>29,744</td>
<td>27,207</td>
<td>23,129</td>
<td>41,621</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian (%)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black (%)</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino (%)</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hispanic (%)</td>
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<td>47</td>
<td>57</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander (%)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (%)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Data reflect students who attended a credit or noncredit course for a minimum of 8 hours (or earned at least a half credit) during one or more terms. Students who attend multiple terms are counted only once for the academic year. Percentages do not add to 100 as the groups American Indian/Alaska Native, “Two or More Races,” and “Unknown” have been omitted.


Interviewees at study colleges estimated that they enrolled a substantial number of DACA recipients and unauthorized immigrants.

Three of the study colleges—Fresno, Fullerton, and Los Angeles Trade-Tech—enrolled a greater share of Latino students than the CCC system average (39 percent). Los Angeles Trade-Tech College also enrolled a substantially higher share of Black students (27 percent) than the system average (7 percent), and a much smaller share of white and Asian students. This institution is located just south of downtown Los Angeles, and its service area includes neighborhoods with high levels of poverty and low levels of educational attainment. The City College of San Francisco (CCSF)—like the San Francisco Unified School District—enrolled a much higher share of Asian students (29 percent) in 2012-13, compared to the CCC average (11 percent). It is important to note that these figures include both credit and noncredit enrollment. Noncredit students are more likely to be Latino or Asian than the CCC overall. CCSF had an especially large noncredit program, while Fullerton College did not offer any noncredit courses.

Interviewees at study colleges estimated that they enrolled a substantial number of DACA recipients and unauthorized immigrants (commonly termed “AB 540 students” in California, in reference to 2001 state legislation qualifying certain unauthorized immigrants to pay in-state tuition rates). Several institutions reported that they enrolled approximately 1,000 to 2,000 AB 540 students per term.

C. Postsecondary Degree Completion Rates

In California, as in the nation, Hispanic immigrant youth had considerably lower rates of college degree attainment than non-Hispanic immigrants in the 2009-13 period (see Figure 12). It is noteworthy, however, that California’s second-generation Hispanic youth also lag other second-generation Hispanic youth.


280 California Community Colleges’ Chancellor’s Office, Basic Skills Accountability.
nationwide: just 16 percent of California’s second-generation Hispanics had earned at least a two-year college degree by age 21-26, compared to a national average of 21 percent. Among non-Hispanic immigrant youth, California’s second-generation youth also had slightly lower college degree attainment rates than their peers nationwide (39 versus 41 percent). These data indicate that the children of immigrants in California—particularly those from Hispanic families—experience less educational upward mobility than their peers nationwide. On the other hand, California’s nonimmigrant youth (those in the third or subsequent generations) had higher levels of college degree attainment than their peers nationwide—and this difference was particularly notable among Hispanics. California has had a large, well-established Hispanic American population since the state’s founding, and these data indicate continued generational progress among Hispanics with U.S.-born parents, though their overall outcomes continue to lag non-Hispanics.

The children of immigrants in California—particularly those from Hispanic families—experience less educational upward mobility than their peers nationwide.

Figure 12. Share of Young Adults Ages 21 to 26 with at Least a Two-Year College Degree, by Generation, 2009-13

Note: The data on the first generation include youth who received a degree in their home country prior to immigrating, as well as those who completed degrees from public and private colleges in the United States. Source: MPI analysis of 2009-13 CPS-ASEC data.
1. Community College Graduation Rates

Longitudinal data from the California Community Colleges (CCC) offer more insight into the progress and completion of diverse groups of students in the state’s two-year colleges. The community college system’s Student Success Scorecard—a web-based resource introduced in Spring 2013—provides more detailed information about student outcomes, disaggregated by race/ethnicity as well as gender and age, than previously published. As these data are not disaggregated for first- or second-generation immigrants, we describe patterns here by race/ethnicity for the cohort that entered college in 2007-08. As mentioned previously, the majority of the state’s Hispanic (77 percent) and Asian (88 percent) youth are members of either the first or second generations.

As of 2012-13, approximately half (48 percent) of all degree-seeking students had achieved a degree, certificate, or a transfer-related outcome within six years. Asian students were the most likely to have graduated or transferred, while Black and Hispanic students were the least likely. It is worth noting that these data reflect both full-time and part-time students.

Figure 13. Percentage of Students in California Community Colleges Completing a Certificate, Degree, or Transfer-Related Outcome in Six Years (2007-08 Entering Cohort)

![Graph showing completion rates by race/ethnicity.]

Note: The cohort includes only degree- and/or transfer-seeking students who attempted at least 6 credits. Students were tracked through 2012-13. The California Community Colleges’ Student Success Scorecard counts a student as completing a “transfer-related outcome” if the student has transferred four-year institution of higher education, or if the student has achieved “Transfer Prepared” status by earning 60 UC/CSU transferrable credits with a Grade Point Average of at least 2.0. Source: California Community Colleges, “Student Success Scorecard,” http://scorecard.cccco.edu/scorecardrates.aspx?CollegeID=000#home.

2. Factors Influencing College Completion Rates

One factor associated with low completion rates is the need for developmental education (also commonly referred to as remediation, or “basic skills” coursework) upon college enrollment. An overwhelming

281 The California Community Colleges’ Student Success Scorecard counts a student as completing a “transfer-related outcome” if the student has transferred four-year institution of higher education, or if the student has achieved “Transfer Prepared” status by earning 60 UC/CSU transferrable credits with a GPA of at least 2.0; California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, “Methodology for College Profile Metrics,” accessed June 11, 2014, http://extranet.cccco.edu/Portals/1/TRIS/Research/Accountability/ARCC2.0/2014%20specs.pdf.
number of students entering California's two-year colleges lack the minimum academic skills required for "transfer-level" courses (i.e. courses that confer credits needed to transfer to a four-year college or graduate with an associate's degree). According to the CCC Student Success Task Force, 70 to 90 percent of students taking placement tests require developmental education in English, math, or ESL. National research found that first-generation Latino and Asian immigrant students are more likely to require developmental education courses than the average undergraduate. Developmental education courses generally have low success rates, and many students spend multiple semesters completing them. Among students entering CCC institutions in 2006-07, the majority of students requiring developmental education never progressed to transfer-level courses. In fact, only one-quarter of students entering "below transfer-level" in math ended up completing a transfer-level math course in six years.

In addition to requiring developmental education, immigrant students often face a number of other risk factors that are associated with lower rates of college retention and degree completion. First- and second-generation students, as a whole, are more likely to be low-income than their nonimmigrant peers. They also are more likely to be "nontraditional" college students, meaning that they often enroll in college at older ages; attend part time; work while going to school; and juggle family responsibilities along with their coursework. Within the first generation, these characteristics are generally shared by both Latino and Asian immigrants. In the second generation, however, this trend is reversed for Asian undergraduates: they enroll in college at a younger age than their peers, and they are more likely to enroll full time. Second-generation Latinos, on the other hand, continue to enroll part time in greater numbers than the overall college population.

Potential DREAM Act Implications

For the subset of immigrant youth who are DREAMers, delays in the process of earning a college degree may have particularly significant consequences in the future. Potential federal DREAM Act legislation may offer a pathway to citizenship for this population, but such an opportunity would likely be predicated on college completion. Previous versions of the DREAM Act have required college degree completion, or at least two years of postsecondary education toward a bachelor's degree. Nationwide, MPI estimates that 10 percent of the DACA-eligible population has completed at least an associate's degree. California's large share of the country's DACA youth means that the challenge of raising the college completion rates of this group falls disproportionately on the state's public higher education institutions.

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282 California Community Colleges' Student Success Task Force, Advancing Student Success. Some students are able to bypass college placement tests and automatically enroll in transfer-level courses, due to their scores on college admission tests such as the SAT or ACT or prior completion of college-level courses.

283 Stalkis and Horn, New Americans in Postsecondary Education.

284 Data are for degree-seeking students only. California Community Colleges, "Student Success Scorecard," http://scorecard.cccco.edu/scorecardrates.aspx?CollegeID=000#home.


286 Stalkis and Horn, New Americans in Postsecondary Education.

287 Ibid.

288 Batalova, Hooker, and Capps, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals at the One-Year Mark.
3. **Ongoing Capacity Challenges in the Community College System**

When discussing the resource constraints facing the state’s two-year college system, Californians frequently recall the legacy of the state’s Master Plan for Higher Education established in 1960. At the time of its passage, California was lauded for its commitment “access, affordability, and excellence.” The community colleges were directed to accept “all students capable of benefitting from instruction,” and to serve as a pipeline for students to prepare to transfer to four-year institutions. The subsequent decades brought tax policy changes and budget cuts that substantially reduced resources for higher education in general, and community colleges in particular. As mentioned previously, community college enrollment declined by nearly half a million students during the height of the state’s fiscal crisis, as colleges cut approximately 25 percent of course sections, and students were placed on lengthy waiting lists for required courses. This reduction occurred at the same time that the state’s total youth population increased by more than 200,000, compounding the impact on college access for students graduating from high school during the recession. According to many educators and advocates, the principles of the Master Plan have been undermined by these cuts, as well as insufficient opportunities for community college students to transfer to four-year institutions. Some interviewees concluded that budget cuts had a disproportionate impact on college access for low-income immigrant students, for whom the community college system represents the primary—and often the only—avenue to pursue postsecondary education. While enrollment began to rebound after Proposition 30’s passage—with an additional 40,000 students admitted in 2012-13—a significant backlog remains and new graduating classes continue to enter the pool of students seeking admission.

The remainder of this section focuses on institutional and statewide efforts to improve student outcomes, especially for first- and second-generation youth, at various stages of their college career. We start with a discussion of affordability of postsecondary education.

**D. College Affordability and Financial Aid**

Affordability plays an indisputable role in access to college for first- and second-generation immigrant students. High school students from low-income families have higher rates of college enrollment if they apply for financial aid; those receiving aid also have higher persistence rates at the postsecondary level. However, access to financial aid is closely related to the issue of college knowledge; immigrants tend to underuse financial aid, and may have misperceptions about college costs. Research has shown that Latino youth and families also tend to be particularly loan-averse; for this reason, maintaining low college tuition prices and offering grant aid are critical components of efforts to promote college access for this group of students.

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290 University of California Office of the President, *California Master Plan for Higher Education: Major Features*.
291 California Community Colleges’ Chancellor’s Office, “Key Facts.”
296 Ibid.
1. Financial Aid Programs

California provides a comprehensive array of need-based and merit-based financial aid supports, and has historically been one of the most generous states in its average financial aid award relative to the cost of tuition.297

The state’s primary financial aid mechanism, the “Cal Grant” program includes “entitlement” scholarships—which provide funding for all students who meet income, GPA, and other requirements—and a relatively small number of competitive grants reserved for students who do not meet income criteria for need-based aid. Students attending UC and CSU institutions can receive grants to cover full tuition and fees for up to four years, and may also be eligible to receive funding for books and other living expenses.

CCC costs have risen substantially in recent years298 but still remain the lowest in the nation,299 at $46 per credit, and low-income students can receive a Board of Governors (BOG) Fee Waiver exempting them from this cost. Approximately 40 percent of CCC students attend cost-free.300

2. College Affordability for DREAMers

In recent years, California has also emerged as a national leader in increasing college affordability for unauthorized immigrant students. Assembly Bill (AB) 540, approved in 2001, allows unauthorized immigrant students meeting specific requirements—including having attended a California high school for at least three years and having earned a high school diploma or its equivalent—to pay in-state tuition at public colleges and universities.301 In 2011, the California General Assembly built on the benefits of AB 540 by passing two additional bills addressing college financing for unauthorized youth meeting these same requirements, which are collectively known as the California Dream Act. AB 130 allowed unauthorized students to receive privately funded scholarships and grants, and AB 131 expanded access to entitlement-based Cal Grants and community college BOG Fee Waivers to those meeting merit and income eligibility criteria—making California one of only four states that currently provide state-funded financial aid for this population.302 As 2013-14, unauthorized immigrant students can receive Cal Grants, BOG waivers, and institutional aid.303

California...has historically been one of the most generous states in its average financial aid award relative to the cost of tuition.

The passage of the California Dream Act has coincided with the Obama administration’s Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) initiative, allowing eligible youth to obtain temporary work authorization. Further, DACA has opened up the opportunity for unauthorized youth to obtain a driver’s license in Cali-

297 Washington State Institute for Public Policy, State Need Grant: Student Profiles and Outcomes.
298 California community college fees rose from $20 per unit in 2008-09 to $46 per unit in 2012-13.
299 The College Board, “In-State Tuition and Fees by State Sector, 2013-14.”
301 To qualify, students must also complete an application stating that they will apply to legalize their immigration status as soon as they are eligible to do so.
302 The other three states are New Mexico, Texas, and Washington State—which passed this legislation on February 26, 2014.
fornia. Together, these policy developments remove significant hurdles to higher education and careers for a sizeable share of the state’s unauthorized immigrant youth.

3. Remaining Challenges

Implementation of the California Dream Act encountered some unanticipated challenges during the program’s first year. While more than 20,000 students submitted on-time Dream Act applications for the 2013-14 school year, just 7,500 were awarded Cal Grants. Applications were rejected for multiple reasons, including problems verifying students’ academic information without using a Social Security number. Some colleges also had difficulty dispersing funds to unauthorized immigrant students, many of whom do not have bank accounts. To address these and other challenges, the Commission has provided additional guidance to colleges and high schools, and collaborated with Educators for Fair Consideration to disseminate information to immigrant students. According to interviewees, there is an ongoing need for advocacy to remove barriers that prevent some students from realizing the benefits of the California Dream Act legislation.

California lawmakers have also placed new restrictions on financial aid programs affecting all students. Starting in Fall 2016, students will lose their eligibility for BOG Fee Waivers if they do not maintain satisfactory academic standing and progress, or if they complete more than 110 credits without earning a degree or certificate. Separately, new Cal Grant eligibility rules implemented in 2011 and 2012 introduced more stringent requirements for the institutions enrolling Cal Grant recipients. The new rules particularly affect for-profit colleges, more than 80 percent of which were deemed ineligible under the new standards.

While more than 20,000 students submitted on-time Dream Act applications for the 2013-14 school year, just 7,500 were awarded Cal Grants.

The imperative to improve student outcomes has assumed added urgency in light of diminished state resources, as stakeholders have demanded a stronger return on their investments.

These changes are intended to focus limited resources on the most effective institutions and the most motivated college students who are making progress toward completion. However, such requirements will likely restrict access for the least-prepared students, including some immigrants.

E. Matriculation: Placement Testing, Registration, and Educational Planning

Over the past few years, the imperative to improve student outcomes has assumed added urgency in light of diminished state resources, as stakeholders have demanded a stronger return on their investments

304 AB 2189, Chapter 862 (September 30, 2012), http://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billNavClient.xhtml?bill_id=201120120AB2189.

305 Students were required to meet the “on time” deadline of March 2, 2013, to be eligible for CalGrants. Students could still submit California DREAM Act applications after this date to receive institutional aid and fee waivers. Nearly 9,000 students submitted applications after the deadline.


307 Ibid.

308 Data provided by Educators for Fair Consideration to MPI, May 6, 2014. Information on file with the authors.

in community colleges. From the perspective of some interviewees, the recession bolstered support for several significant postsecondary education reform initiatives. These efforts have focused on increasing college readiness, reducing the amount of time it takes students to earn a degree, discouraging excess course-taking, and requiring colleges to publish data on the outcomes of students from various racial/ethnic subgroups.

I. State Policy Changes: The Student Success Act

California’s Student Success Act of 2012 (SB 1456) required community colleges to provide certain “matriculation services” for entering students—including orientation, assessment, counseling, and help developing an “educational plan.” The 2013-14 state budget provided $50 million to the CCC system to build colleges’ capacity to implement matriculation services, also known as Student Success and Support Programs, and the governor’s proposed 2014-15 budget allocates $100 million for these programs. Particularly relevant to immigrant youth, regulations adopted by the CCC Board of Governors in 2013 required colleges to ensure that these services are “accessible to English language learners and are appropriate to their needs.”

Beginning in Fall 2014, incoming students have an incentive to complete all aspects of the matriculation process: they will be able to register for classes earlier than those who have not finished orientation, assessment, and educational planning. Meanwhile, students who are not in good academic standing or who have accumulated an excess number of credits without completing a degree stand to lose their priority enrollment privileges. Colleges are also directed to intervene if a student has not declared a “course of study” (i.e. a major, degree, certificate, or transfer goal) by their third semester. As one interviewee articulated, course registration is now “being used as a carrot” to motivate student behavior, with the underlying assumption that space in community college courses will continue to be in high demand.

With regard to the assessment process, the CCC has historically allowed each college to choose its own placement tests and cutoff scores required for transfer-level courses. This approach has had significant drawbacks, however, as assessment results may not be portable between institutions, and students, families, and educators lack a clear definition of the requirements for college-level courses. Efforts to move the CCCs to a uniform assessment system for math, English, and ESL have been underway for several years, and the Student Success Act redoubled the CCC’s commitment to this effort. The CCC plans to implement a new, common assessment in Fall 2015. Additionally, students going directly from high school to college will be able to use their scores on new Common Core-aligned assessments, which will be available at the high school level in 2014-15, to demonstrate college readiness.

Finally, the Student Success Act also created the Student Success Scorecard, the CCC’s new web-based report card providing data on longitudinal cohorts of students. While the Scorecard does not disaggregate student outcomes by immigrant generation or ELL status, it does allow stakeholders to examine trends by race and ethnicity across a wide variety of outcome measures.

Student Equity Plans

The Student Success Act revitalized the CCC system’s focus on equity, with regard to the access, achievement, and transfer outcomes of all student subgroups. Since 2002, the Board of Governors has required

310 SB 1456 Chapter 624 (September 27, 2012), http://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billNavClient.xhtml?bill_id=20120120SB1456.


312 Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges, “Revisions to Title 5 Regulations.”


314 California Community Colleges, “Implementation of Student Success Task Force Recommendations.”

315 California Community Colleges, Student Success Task Force, Advancing Student Success.

316 California Community Colleges, “Implementation of Student Success Task Force Recommendations.”
colleges to develop "student equity plans" that spell out the institutions’ plans for raising the success of the following student groups: "American Indians or Alaskan natives, Asians or Pacific Islanders, Blacks, Hispanics, Whites, men, women, and persons with disabilities." Such plans were to be updated regularly; however, this requirement was suspended during the state budget crisis due to categorical program flexibility. The Student Success Act of 2012 spurred the CCC Chancellor’s Office to review, update, and reinstate the student equity planning process. The CCC recently released a new template for colleges to revise their equity plans by November 2014.

The CCC Chancellor’s Office also produced a guide for colleges on assessing disproportionate impact in matriculation programs. The guide provides colleges with the tools to analyze their data and identify any ways in which new matriculation policies and procedures may disadvantage certain subgroups, and offers examples of strategies to remedy inequities. While the student equity planning process does not require an explicit focus on immigrant students, it creates an important mechanism for colleges to examine the effectiveness of new programs and identify any unintended consequences for particular subgroups, including Hispanic students, ESL students, and any other groups tracked in colleges’ data.

As further evidence of the heightened emphasis on equity in the CCC system, the governor’s proposed 2014-15 state budget allocates an additional $100 million to support colleges’ efforts to close achievement gaps in access and success, as identified in their equity plans.

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Some community colleges have already begun developing partnerships with local K-12 school districts to offer early placement tests, education planning, and other services.

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2. Local Partnerships to Promote Early Registration, Counseling, and Placement Testing

Some community colleges have already begun developing partnerships with local K-12 school districts to offer early placement tests, education planning, and other services before students begin their first semester of college. For instance, Fresno City College (FCC) provides on-site counseling and registration assistance to seniors at feeder high schools through the Registration-to-Go program, and students who complete all steps of the program receive priority course registration. FCC has also provided training for high school guidance counselors on how to assist students with the financial aid process. From the perspective of college interviewees, these partnerships are particularly important during a time of stretched resources.

Early registration and priority enrollment at City College of San Francisco (CCSF) are also key features of San Francisco’s Bridge to Success initiative. CCSF has taken steps to revise its placement process and developmental education requirements, based on the results of research conducted by Stanford University for the Bridge to Success initiative. A 2012 analysis that found that only 10 percent of SFUSD graduates placed into transfer-level English at CCSF, with a substantially lower rate (4 percent) for Latino, Filipino, and Black students.

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318 Ibid.
319 California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Ensuring Equitable Access and Success.
320 Michalowski, “Updated Student Equity Plan.”
321 These data are for students who were not classified as ELLs during twelfth grade. Oded Gurantz, “English Articulation Between the San Francisco Unified School District and the City College of San Francisco” (Youth Data Archive Issue Brief, John W. Gardner Center for Youth and Their Communities, Stanford, CA, 2012), http://gardnercenter.stanford.edu/resources/publications/Gurantz_IB_120203_English%20Articulation%20Between%20the%20San%20Francisco%20Unified%20School%20District%20and%20the%20City%20College%20of%20San%20Francisco.pdf.
for English skills, as some students who received an “Advanced” score on the high school English language arts test were unable to meet this benchmark.\textsuperscript{322} CCSF now allows incoming students to use alternative measures, such as high school GPA in English courses, to move up to a more advanced English course.\textsuperscript{323} These alternatives may prove particularly beneficial for students who struggle with the placement test, including former ELLs.

3. **Enhanced Orientation**

As a college serving many disadvantaged students—including working adults and first- and second-generation youth who dropped out of traditional high schools—Los Angeles Trade-Tech College (LATTC) revamped its orientation program to provide a smoother transition to higher education. The Introduction to Postsecondary Education program is a three-day noncredit course that focuses on goal-setting, educational planning, and navigating the college’s programs and services. All students are encouraged to take this free course, which has been offered at multiple starting points throughout the semester since 2011-12. According to interviewees, the course allows students a chance to "try college risk-free." Some learners need this "lead time" to organize child-care arrangements, work schedules, and other responsibilities before starting credit-bearing courses. Faculty also encourage students to enroll in the college’s half-semester, noncredit basic-skills classes before taking the LATTC placement test, as some can quickly revamp their skills and avoid being placed in regular, semester-length developmental education courses.

4. **Remaining Challenges**

a) **Implications for Access for Underprepared Students**

Some interviewees voiced concern that the policy changes included in the *Student Success Act* may effectively "push out" the least-prepared students. The requirements of educational planning, declaring a program of study, and maintaining good academic standing assume that students will be fairly self-directed. Many low-income students, including those from immigrant families, lack the cultural knowledge and social capital to navigate college requirements on their own. Speaking to the underlying tension between access and rigor, one college administrator stated: "Our success rates may go up, but this is because the hardest-to-serve students are being shut out." Unfortunately, the adult education system is not in a strong position to step in and provide a safety net for these students.

The student equity planning process, however, charges colleges with examining any disproportionate impacts of new matriculation requirements and programs. Institutions have the opportunity to identify and remove barriers affecting the least academically prepared students.

b) **Overstretched Counseling Resources**

The *Student Success Act* also brought new demands on institutions at a time in which colleges still faced significant capacity constraints coming out the recession. At City College of San Francisco, for instance, the student-to-counselor ratio rose from 700 to 1 before the recession to approximately 1,400 to 1 in Spring 2012. While the 2013-14 state budget brought funds dedicated to the matriculation process and Proposition 30 bolstered institutional resources, colleges continue to report challenges in providing matriculation services to all students. As one college administrator stated, "There is no way we are going to be able to meet this demand through individual counseling for every student." Instead, colleges are experimenting with online orientations and virtual counseling, as well as group counseling. While these solutions increase efficiency, immigrant students who have limited knowledge of the U.S. education system will likely continue to need one-on-one support.

\textsuperscript{322} Ibid.

c) **Assessment and Placement for ESL Students**

While recent Board of Governors regulations require colleges to provide appropriate matriculation services for English learners, interviewees spoke to the challenges that ESL students have historically faced in the assessment and placement process. Many colleges have a separate placement exam for non-native English speakers, but some students avoid taking this exam because they feel that there is a stigma associated with being in ESL courses. However, students with limited English proficiency often perform poorly on mainstream college placement tests and end up being placed in lower-level basic skills courses. One interviewee commented that many "Generation 1.5" students—those who were born abroad but were educated primarily in the United States—do not think they need ESL, "but they still have language issues that get in the way of college and job success." This challenge suggests a need for enhanced counseling and outreach—with a specific focus on issues relevant to English learners—prior to placement testing. Meanwhile, students entering college from adult ESL programs face a separate set of challenges, as ESL assessments and course levels are not standardized across systems, and the process of enrollment and course registration can be much more confusing and bureaucratic at the postsecondary level. As the CCCs implement a common placement test for ESL, as well as English and math, whether the college system will ensure that students with limited English proficiency are appropriately assessed and placed in courses that accelerate—rather than delay—their progress to degree completion will bear continued monitoring.

**F. Academic and Social Support Services to Improve Retention and Completion**

Efforts to bolster college persistence and academic success often incorporate support services, such as counseling, and mentoring. National research has long demonstrated the critical importance of nonacademic support for students from underrepresented minority groups, low-income students, and those who are the first in their families to attend college. Just as high school students need guidance in building college knowledge, older youth need assistance in navigating the various requirements, processes, expectations, and resources available at the college level. Establishing a welcoming college culture that promotes diversity also promotes college enrollment and retention for immigrant students.

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**Our site visits in California revealed a number of innovative approaches to supporting the success of students from underrepresented groups.**

Many colleges have begun to integrate social support services with academic interventions for struggling students, including those in developmental education courses. According to some interviewees, successful campus-wide reforms require collaboration between the divisions of instruction and student services, including the commitment of senior administrators.

Our site visits in California revealed a number of innovative approaches to supporting the success of students from underrepresented groups. In some cases, these efforts specifically target underrepresented immigrant groups, including Latinos, Southeast Asian students, and unauthorized immigrant students (commonly referred to as AB 540 students in California). These tailored initiatives can be resource-intensive, however, posing hurdles to their broad adoption.

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324 Engle and Tinto, *Moving Beyond College Access*.
1. Learning Communities

A popular intervention strategy that has been implemented in community colleges across California and the nation, "learning communities" place small cohorts of students together in linked courses and provide extra academic and social supports. These programs are most commonly offered for one semester to one year at the beginning of a student’s college education, and in many cases they include a developmental education course in math, English, or ESL. This model is intended to promote more personalized relationships between students and their peers, instructors, and counselors. National evaluations have found that learning communities produce short-term benefits such as increased course completion rates, and, in some cases, lead to long-term benefits including higher graduation rates. Learning communities are organized around various themes at the colleges that we visited, and some focus on serving immigrants and other underrepresented minority groups.

As a federally designated Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI), Fresno City College (FCC) received a Camino Hacia el Futuro/Pathways to Education grant from the U.S. Department of Education to offer a learning community program targeting low-income Latino students. Participants enroll in a six-week summer bridge program prior to their first semester, during which they take accelerated versions of developmental English and math courses as well as a counseling course focused on college success skills and career planning. During the fall semester of their freshman year, Camino students enroll in a learning community linking either a transfer-level English course or a developmental math course with another counseling course. Participants receive support from peer mentors and faculty counselors.

All of our study colleges offer the Puente (Bridge) Program, a learning community and support program operating at 61 community colleges throughout California.

FCC has similar learning community programs that target students from other racial/ethnic groups, including United Southeast Asian Americans (USEAA), a one-year program that was created to support students from Southeast Asian refugee families. Another learning community, the Network, does not have a specific cultural focus but is designed to serve developmental education students entering with more extensive remedial needs in multiple subject areas, including ESL students. Participants in this three-semester program take three linked courses each semester: one developmental math course, one ESL or developmental English course, and one general education course in topics such as computer literacy or political science. While students in The Network have to follow a relatively long trajectory before they are eligible for college-level courses, they receive a high level of support to promote retention and success. This program is particularly small, enrolling approximately 30 students per cohort.

All of our study colleges offer the Puente (Bridge) Program, a learning community and support program operating at 61 community colleges throughout California. The goal of the 30-year-old Puente organization is to increase the number of disadvantaged students who transfer to four-year colleges and universities, earn four-year degrees, and return to their communities as mentors and leaders of future generations. During the year-long program, Puente students enroll as a cohort in a two-semester English class which integrates a focus on Latino literature, as well as a counseling component led by a designated Puente Counselor. Respondents at one of our study colleges noted that many Puente participants are

327 Students from all racial/ethnic groups are eligible to participate in the program.
329 Puente also has a secondary-level program operating in 34 high schools in California.
former ELLs and DACA recipients. The program is somewhat selective, as participants must qualify for English or ESL courses at the upper end of the developmental education spectrum and intend to transfer to a four-year college. Puente has documented strong outcomes, including a transfer rate of 56 percent in the 2009-10 school year, exceeding the California Community Colleges system average of 44 percent. 331 At Fullerton College, Puente students had a 91 percent persistence rate from Fall 2011 to Fall 2012. 332

2. Individualized Academic Assistance

Several of the colleges that we visited provide specialized tutoring and academic support resources for ESL students. At Fullerton College, the Academic Support Center employs ESL tutors with graduate degrees in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL). These tutors provide one-on-one support for immigrant students in ESL classes and other academic subjects, and also facilitate conversation groups and tutorials. As a component of the Academic Support Center, the Skills Center provides computer-based programs to help students practice ESL, reading, writing, and foreign language skills. The Skills Center is staffed by student employees receiving federal Work Study funds, many of whom are ESL learners themselves. According to interviewees, this opportunity allows immigrant students to gain work experience, practice their English skills, and build confidence.

Fullerton College also recently initiated a tutoring and life skills coaching program for lower-performing Latino and Black males. The Student Diversity Success Initiative (SDSI) serves students with a GPA of 2.0 or lower. SDSI staff meet with students on a walk-in basis, provide weekly workshops on academic success skills, and offer group math tutoring sessions.

3. Counseling Services and Social Support

At City College of San Francisco (CCSF), the Multicultural Retention Services Department coordinates four programs targeting Latinos, Asian/Pacific Islanders, Filipinos, and African Americans. All of the programs serving students from immigrant backgrounds offer bilingual academic and personal counseling, along with cultural events, workshops, and referrals to other campus and community resources. 333 As stated by one interviewee, these programs: “provide the same types of support that most middle class families provide to their kids.” We also observed a range of programs that support DACA recipients and unauthorized immigrant students. Some colleges have dedicated counseling centers that focus on this population, or have faculty or staff mentors who have taken on this role; in other cases these efforts are entirely student-led. DREAMer student clubs and organizations across the state successfully advocated for the passage of the California Dream Act in 2011, and have also played a prominent role in national advocacy for a pathway to legal status and citizenship for this population. In addition to focusing on federal and state policy, these groups have backed changes to institutional policies and practices that posed obstacles to unauthorized immigrant students. “Dream-Team” groups also provide informal peer mentoring for current and prospective college students and, in some cases, conduct workshops and outreach in local high schools. These youth leaders serve as role models for younger students who are facing the at times daunting process of applying for college and financing higher education without legal immigration status.

This social support is often accompanied by financial support. DREAMer groups often raise funds for student scholarships and book stipends, and some groups have developed informal textbook lending systems for their members. One of the colleges that we visited created on-campus, paid internships for unauthorized immigrants prior to the announcement of DACA—which now allows youth who are granted deferred action to receive temporary work authorization.

331 Puente, “Accomplishments.”
332 Data provided by Fullerton College to Migration Policy Institute. Information on file with the authors.
4. Remaining Challenges

a) Institutional Capacity

The clearest obstacle to the type of academic and social support programs discussed above is limited funding. Learning communities, tutoring centers, and specialized counseling services all aim to personalize aspects of the college experience and help students address obstacles that may affect their persistence and completion. The effectiveness of these programs may stem from their comprehensive approach and the strength of relationships among students, faculty, and support staff—attributes which are difficult to take to scale. One of our respondents described learning communities as “boutique programs” that can only serve small numbers of students. Puente, for instance, is frequently cited as one of the most successful programs, but Puente cohorts are typically limited to 30 or 40 new students per year. According to an interviewee, “upscaling” is now a buzzword in the community college system: administrators are interested in identifying interventions that can be expanded and, in some cases, discontinuing those that cannot. Two of our study colleges mentioned plans to expand the Puente program to serve two cohorts per fall, but it will still touch a relatively small number of students, and it remains to be seen whether the program can be expanded effectively and efficiently. This central conflict of scale versus intensity recurred as a common theme throughout our fieldwork.

Interviewees also spoke to the challenge of maintaining the benefits of learning communities after the intervention period has ended. Many programs such as Puente, Camino, and USEAA focus intensive resources on students’ first year in college, and often demonstrate strong outcomes during this year. These positive benefits often disappear when participants rejoin the college mainstream, suggesting a need for continued academic and social support. Extending the duration of learning communities may improve retention and graduation rates, but college administrators must weigh these benefits against the programs’ costs.

b) Course Availability

Interviewees also report ongoing challenges with ensuring that students can enroll in the courses needed for timely completion. Many learning community programs provide guaranteed enrollment in certain, linked courses, such as Puente’s English and counseling courses. However, new students may still struggle to get a spot in remedial and transfer-level math courses, and often end up waiting several semesters before taking their first math course. This situation has improved somewhat since the passage of Proposition 30, but access to required courses remains challenging in some institutions. These delays due to overcrowding reduce graduation and transfer rates for special programs such as Puente, as well as the college system as a whole.

c) Selectivity of Support Programs

Some learning community programs require students to enroll full time, excluding the many immigrant students who attend part time. Others target students who only have moderate remedial needs, and are not designed to serve students requiring more than one or two semesters of developmental education courses or ESL. Respondents spoke to a need for additional, effective models tailored to the needs of the least-prepared, nontraditional students, including those who work full time while attending school.
G. Transition from Two-Year to Four-Year Colleges

While our focus has been the transition from high school or adult education into the two-year college system, this research project’s overall goal is to examine the success of first- and second-generation youth in achieving degrees and credentials that will allow them to obtain a job paying a family-sustaining wage. Each progressive level of education is generally associated with a higher earning potential, and our previous research shows that the greatest wage premium comes from completing a bachelor’s degree. Among first- and second-generation young adults, it is only at the bachelor’s degree level that all groups—including immigrants who arrived after age 16—earn average incomes above a family-sustaining wage.\textsuperscript{334}

\begin{center}
Community college students have faced multiple barriers to transfer.
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According to California’s Master Plan for Higher Education, all eligible community college transfer students should be guaranteed a place in the CSU or UC systems.\textsuperscript{335} However, stakeholders have long acknowledged that this goal has not been realized, and community college students have faced multiple barriers to transfer. As discussed above, many students never make it to transfer-level coursework, in spite of their intentions to pursue a four-year degree.

For this reason, calculating the state’s transfer rate can be complicated. The CCC Transfer Velocity Report defines transfer seeking-students as those who complete at least 12 credits and attempt a transfer-level math or English course in their first three years of enrollment. According to this method, 42 percent of transfer-seeking students who entered college in 2005-06 transferred within six years, with Latino students lagging behind the state average at 32 percent.\textsuperscript{336} A separate calculation used by the Institute for Higher Education Leadership and Policy, which includes all students who enrolled in more than six units during their first year of college, found a six-year transfer rate of 23 percent for all students, and 14 percent for Latinos.\textsuperscript{337} The community college system’s Student Success Scorecard, launched in early 2013, does not provide data on transfer rates per se. Rather, the Scorecard includes data on “completions,” grouping together students who have earned a certificate or degree, transferred, or achieved the status of “transfer prepared” in six years.\textsuperscript{338}

\begin{center}
Latino students, in particular, remain underrepresented among students transferring within six years.
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Regardless of the data source used, Latino students, in particular, remain underrepresented among students transferring within six years—a remarkably long time period in a young person’s life. Among stu-

\textsuperscript{334} Batalova and Fix, \textit{Up for Grabs}.
\textsuperscript{335} University of California Office of the President, \textit{California Master Plan for Higher Education: Major Features}.
\textsuperscript{336} California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, Data Mart, “Transfer Velocity Cohort Report,” \url{https://webprod.cccco.edu/datamarttrans/dmtrnsstucsel.aspx}.
\textsuperscript{337} Colleen Moore and Nancy Schulock, \textit{Divided We Fail: Improving Completion and Closing Racial Gaps in California’s Community Colleges} (Sacramento, CA: Institute for Higher Education Leadership and Policy, California State University Sacramento, 2010), \url{www.csus.edu/ilhelp/PDFs/R_Div_We_Fail_1010.pdf}.
\textsuperscript{338} Students are considered “transfer prepared” after earning 60 UC/CSU transferrable credits with a GPA of at least 2.0. For more information on data considerations with the Student Success Scorecard, see The Campaign for College Opportunity, \textit{The State of Latinos in Higher Education in California}. 
dents who persist and eventually transfer, many accumulate excess credits—indicating that many of their lower-division courses did not count toward their chosen major at the four-year level. The consequences of excess credits include excess spending for students and taxpayers, and added pressure on colleges facing capacity constraints.

1. State Transfer Policies

Legislation passed in 2010, the Student Transfer Achievement Reform Act (SB 1440), streamlined the transfer process between community colleges and the CSU system, which is the destination for the majority of the state’s transfer students, by creating the Associate Degree for Transfer (ADT) Program.\(^{339}\) The bill directed the two college systems to identify the courses needed for transferrable degrees in common majors, required the community colleges to offer ADTs, and directed CSU institutions to admit students holding these degrees at junior-level standing. Implementation of these new degrees lagged initially at many community colleges,\(^{340}\) leading to the passage of subsequent legislation (SB 440) establishing a clear timeline for colleges to develop the required degree programs.\(^{341}\) The CCC Chancellor’s Office also set a goal of 80 percent implementation\(^{342}\) at each college by Fall 2013, and 100 percent implementation by Fall 2014. According to the Campaign for College Opportunity—one of the original champions of transfer reform legislation—colleges’ progress in offering these new degrees still varies widely, with less than half of CCCs meeting the 80 percent target as of February 2014.\(^{343}\) One of our study institutions, Fullerton College, was among the leaders in the state and offered 19 ADTs in various fields.

While these legislative achievements signify historic statewide efforts to streamline the transfer process, improving the transfer success of immigrant students will also depend on campus-level practices that aim to make four-year degrees more accessible to this population.

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2. Transfer-Focused Learning Communities

In an effort to improve the transfer experience and increase the success of students from underrepresented groups, City College of San Francisco (CCSF) and San Francisco State University (SFSU) created the Metro Academies initiative in 2007. Metro Academies “reconfigure the first two years of college” by enrolling cohorts of students in a learning community comprised of courses recognized by both the two-year and the four-year college. The model shares many of the elements of the learning communities discussed previously: small class sizes, high levels of personalization, a structured curriculum with linked courses, and integrated support services. Students can participate in Metro Academies at either CCSF or SFSU; those beginning at the community colleges are guaranteed admission to the four-year college upon successful completion of the program and are guided through the transfer process. The first Metro

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342 The number of Associate Degrees for Transfer (ADTs) required by each college varies, depending on the majors offered at each institution. Letter from Chancellor Jack Scott to Chief Executive Officers, Chief Instructional Officers and Academic Senate Presidents, May 22, 2012, “Associate Degrees for Transfer,” http://extranet.cccco.edu/Portals/1/AA/Credit/AssociatesDegreesforTransferS52212.doc.pdf.

Academies focused on health careers, and the model has since been expanded to include early childhood education and STEM majors. The curriculum includes an intensive focus on writing, which was identified by faculty as a critical skill for succeeding in upper-division courses at SFSU, and faculty receive related professional development. Each Metro Academy cohort includes approximately 140 students. Recruitment focuses on low-income, underrepresented minority students. The early cohorts were predominately Latino, with some Asian and African American students. Approximately 80 percent of participants require remediation.344 The Metro Child Development Academy addresses a specific need for college coursework among early childhood education providers, many of whom are low-income immigrant women, seeking a permit to work in state-funded programs. Most of the students in this Academy already work full time as early childhood care and education providers, and attend classes in the evening.

An evaluation of the initial cohorts of Metro Health Academies found that participants had higher persistence, transfer, and graduation rates than a comparison group of similar peers.345 A separate study determined that Metro Academies result in total cost savings per graduate for both CCSF and SFSU, as participants have higher persistence rates and shorter pathways to degree completion.346 The initial Metro Health Academies demonstration and evaluation were supported by a mix of private foundation support and public funds from the U.S. Department of Education’s Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE).347 More recently, new public and private grants have supported dissemination and expansion of the model. CSU has also dedicated permanent funding for the program at SFSU, with plans to implement 13 Metro Academies at the college—and serve up to 25 percent of each freshman class—by 2015.348

Some of the other learning community models discussed above have a goal of increasing the transfer rates of students from particular immigrant and racial/ethnic groups. The Puente program, for instance, is designed for students who intend to transfer and earn a bachelor’s degree. The Transfer Achievement Program (TAP) at Fullerton College also works with underrepresented students who aim to transfer. This program accepts students with slightly lower levels of academic preparation than Puente. Both Puente and TAP provide fieldtrips for participants to visit four-year colleges, and counselors walk students through the transfer application process.

3. Remaining Challenges

California’s budget crisis had an undeniable impact on opportunities for community college students to transfer to public, four-year institutions. CSU cut enrollment by 10,000 students in Fall 2011. Interviewees at all of our study colleges reported that transfer to the CSU system has become more difficult in recent years, as four-year colleges reduced enrollment and accepted fewer transfer students. CSU cut enrollment by 10,000 students in Fall 2011, as part of a long-term plan that would have reduced system-wide enrollment by 40,000 if Proposition 30 had not passed.349 The system also “froze” admission for the

344 Ibid.
347 Ibid.
348 Metro Academies Fall 2013 Newsletter, November 20, 2013.
Spring 2013 term, accepting only a limited number of applicants—those who were attempting to transfer from a community college and had earned an Associate Degree for Transfer—at ten institutions.350 After the passage of Proposition 30, CSU was able to increase enrollment by approximately 6,000 students in Fall 2013. Still, the system does not have the capacity to accept all academically qualified freshman or transfer applicants.351

As a result, community college students face steep competition for limited transfer slots. In the words on one interviewee, “There’s no more messing around. Expectations have to be higher if students hope to transfer.” In light of this context, guidance and academic support stand to play an even more crucial role in ensuring that immigrant and second-generation students have a fair shot at earning a bachelor’s degree.

VIII. Conclusions and the Road Ahead

Due to sheer demographics, the outcomes of California’s first- and second-generation youth hold critical national implications. The reach of federal initiatives such as Deferred Action for Childhood arrivals (DACA)—as well as potential future immigration legislation—will be largely determined by immigrant participation in California. More broadly, national efforts to improve educational attainment also depend on the success of California’s youth—more than half of whom are immigrants or have an immigrant parent.

The state’s K-12 schools, higher education institutions, and adult education programs are all in the midst of significant changes affecting their funding, structure, governance, and accountability requirements.

A. Looking Ahead: Levers for Change

Coming out of a historic recession, California’s public education system is at a transformative moment. Policymakers and taxpayers are anxious to see increased student achievement, college degree completion, and better workforce preparation as evidence of returns on their investments. The state’s K-12 schools, higher education institutions, and adult education programs are all in the midst of significant changes affecting their funding, structure, governance, and accountability requirements. The overall success of these reforms will be shaped significantly, for better or worse, by the extent to which local communities and educational institutions use existing reform levers to better serve the state’s immigrant youth. These levers for improving system outcomes include:

Local Control Funding Formula (LCFF). The LCFF gives K-12 school districts greater autonomy in their spending of state funds, while providing extra resources based on the number and concentration of ELL students, low-income students, and students in foster care. As districts develop and annually update their plans to improve achievement, they have the opportunity to analyze detailed data on their ELL students and identify research-supported instructional strategies. While this flexibility can spur innovation, it also relaxes state accountability requirements, relying instead on oversight from county-level education offices and local stakeholders, including the parents of ELLs. Investments in training and translation services will be needed to help build the capacity of immigrant parents to fulfill this role. Depending on the effectiveness of its implementation, the LCFF may prove a powerful engine for improving the educational outcomes of ELLs and in turn improving the overall long-term economic and civic integration of immigrants in the state.

Adult Education Regional Consortia. After several years of dramatically declining capacity, the 2013 budget averted further cuts to adult education. The legislature also dedicated funding for school district and community college consortia to align their adult education services. These regional consortia could help create programs that offer more direct pathways to postsecondary credentials for immigrant youth with relatively high skill levels, and the comprehensive plans they create can demonstrate the multi-level needs of adult learners in local communities. Depending on the scope and quality of these efforts and the choices made by state leaders, current efforts to align systems’ services could result in expanded and better-targeted state investments in adult education.

Student Success Act of 2012. The Student Success Act appropriated funding for matriculation services, including counseling and educational planning, and for an improved, web-based report card for community college data. Community colleges are also required to evaluate the impact of new programs and policies on students from underrepresented groups and develop Student Equity Plans to address disparities. Colleges can apply these resources to students from immigrant families and intensify the academic and personal support they receive.

B. Recommendations for Action

As California begins to reinvest in its education systems, state and local leaders will face many critical choices. As these policy and budget choices unfold, they can heed the imperative to improve educational access and quality for first- and second-generation immigrant youth.

Recommendations at the High School Level

- **Reinvest in expanded learning time.** Districts could choose to use LCFF funds to expand the school day and rebuild summer school opportunities for ELLs, and more broadly implement “fifth year” programs for late-arriving immigrant youth. Without such innovative and explicit strategies, these students will likely face even lower odds of earning a diploma as California implements the Common Core and many districts adopt more challenging high school graduation requirements.

- **Improve teacher professional development and establish an expectation that all teachers are teachers of language.** Raising ELL achievement requires an educator workforce that is trained in strategies for supporting academic language development. While California has made great strides in requiring all teachers with at least one ELL student in their classes to have a special authorization in English Language Development, our interviewees stressed that this authorization alone is not enough to ensure that teachers have the skills to help ELLs meet new, language-rich academic standards. District leaders stand to play a critical role in keeping ELLs at the forefront of their professional development agendas for all teachers and by ensuring that principals also have the skills to evaluate classroom instruction for ELLs and support effective practices.
- **Restore support for college counseling and increase guidance for immigrant youth.** California’s guidance counselor caseloads are among the largest in the nation, leaving counselors limited capacity to provide the personalized college planning assistance needed by many immigrant students and families. While nonprofit college access organizations and emerging technology-based initiatives play a vital role in supplementing school-based counseling services, these efforts are limited in scope. Though California has recently expanded state-funded financial aid to unauthorized immigrants through the *California Dream Act*, accessing these funds and navigating other complex aspects of college admissions and registration depends, for many youth, on the assistance of well-trained counselors.

**Recommendations for Adult Education**

- **Rebuild the capacity of the adult education system to meet the needs of learners across the basic skills spectrum.** California’s adult schools attempted to meet a range of adult education, workforce preparation, family literacy and immigrant integration needs prior to the recession—all of which remain critical to the state’s longer-term economic and civic vitality. Continuing to improve the basic skills of the state’s adults will require different approaches for diverse types of learners, ranging from recent high school dropouts to parents with young children and older immigrants preparing for naturalization.

  Statewide investments in accelerated program models that integrate basic skills with postsecondary training and support services could significantly increase credential completion for immigrant youth at the upper levels of ESL and ASE. Other state and federal investments could support the expansion of effective models for serving immigrants with lower English proficiency and limited prior education. Newly formed adult education consortia can play an important role by illuminating the full range of adult education needs in their region and designing strategies to expand effective, high-quality programs for various groups—particularly, those that would support immigrant youth in progressing to two- and four-year degrees.

- **Increase capacity to serve youth seeking deferred action.** Adult education programs hold the key to DACA eligibility for unauthorized immigrant youth who do not have a high school diploma or equivalent and are no longer enrolled in school. Yet demand for these programs far exceeds supply—and while they are stuck on waiting lists for courses, many youth face the risk of deportation. The quantity and range of programs offered by adult schools and community colleges for youth seeking deferred action should be expanded. Philanthropic organizations interested in supporting DACA youth can invest in local system coordination and navigation initiatives that identify appropriate adult education services for these youth, and also in expanding programs for those with high barriers to education success, especially in areas of the state that experienced the most severe program cuts and school closures.

  These investments are critical to the success of applicants for DACA as well as potential beneficiaries of future immigration reform legislation. Not only would federal *DREAM Act* legislation likely require at least two years of postsecondary education for individuals to qualify for an expedited path to citizenship, but broader legalization measures would likely require unauthorized immigrants to demonstrate English proficiency as a condition for legal residency.

**Recommendations at the Two-Year College Level**

- **Provide incentives for colleges to enroll and retain students with multiple barriers to success.** While the *Student Success Act* aims to accelerate college degree completion, interviewees expressed concern that underprepared students will be the most likely to face penalties for lack of degree progress or excess accumulation of credits. Community colleges already offer a range of academic and social support programs for underrepresented students, though findings from California’s Learning Community programs suggest that interventions will be most effective if they are intensive and long-term. To maintain the community colleges’ open access mission while also improving student outcomes, California could provide innovation funding for colleges
that demonstrate systematic progress for students with limited English proficiency and former adult education students pursuing college degrees and certificates. In Washington, for instance, community colleges are able to earn additional funding by accumulating “momentum points” based on student success in achieving critical milestones on the way to college completion or transfer—including English proficiency gains for ESL students.

- **Improve Assessment and Counseling for English Learners.** Students with limited English proficiency have unique needs in the college assessment and placement process. These students often avoid taking the ESL placement test, even though they may be less successful in developmental English classes designed for native speakers. Meanwhile, students entering college from the adult education system encounter new assessments and enrollment requirements, and may be required to repeat ESL courses they have already taken elsewhere. English learners would benefit from targeted advising to inform their assessment and course registration decisions and ensure they have access to Learning Communities and other programs that can accelerate their progress.

**Recommendations Across Systems**

- **Improve longitudinal data capacity and track ELL outcomes.** Unlike the other states included in this study, California does not have a statewide longitudinal data system that can track individual students from early childhood into postsecondary education and the workforce. Such a longitudinal data system would significantly expand the evidence available to educators, policymakers, and the general public on the effectiveness of their investments. The system’s value will be higher if it disaggregates information in meaningful ways, including ELL and former ELL status, and incorporates data from adult education programs.

> California is at a critical juncture in its efforts to raise high school graduation rates and pursue postsecondary success for all youth—more than half of whom are first- or second-generation immigrants.

In sum, California is at a critical juncture in its efforts to raise high school graduation rates and pursue postsecondary success for all youth—more than half of whom are first- or second-generation immigrants. At the K-12 level, standards, assessments, accountability requirements, and funding mechanisms are in transition. Meanwhile, regional adult education consortia have embarked on a planning process that will shape the future of basic skills instruction, and community colleges have redoubled their focus on retention, completion, and equity. The results of these reforms across the education system hold critical implications for the success of ELLs and immigrant youth in California and—by virtue of the state’s sheer demographics—the United States as a whole.

The Obama administration has set a goal of leading the world in college completion by seeking a 60 percent college degree attainment rate among young adults by 2020. Currently, 40 percent of Californians ages 25 to 34 hold at least an associate’s degree. Undeniably, California’s 3.3 million first- and second-generation youth are positioned to play a vital role in shaping the competitiveness of the state and nation’s workforce in coming years. Addressing educational challenges and expanding opportunities for this group is critical to California’s future success and meeting the nation’s higher education goals, and therefore should be an area of intense focus for policymakers at all levels of government.


353 National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, “ACS Educational Attainment by Degree-Level and Age-Group,”.
Appendix: Study Approach

This report’s findings are based on research using a mixed-methods approach, integrating quantitative data analyses with qualitative fieldwork. Our quantitative analyses used survey data from the U.S. Census Bureau—specifically, the most recent available years of the American Community Survey (ACS) and U.S. Current Population Survey (CPS)\(^{354}\)—to examine sociodemographic characteristics and differences in educational attainment among immigrant youth and their peers in California.

We focus on the population between ages 16 and 26, as this time period plays a critical role in a young person’s educational, professional, and personal development.\(^{355}\) We also disaggregate the youth population by generation, defining the first generation as those who immigrated to the United States; the second generation as U.S.-born youth with immigrant parents; and the third (or subsequent) generations as U.S.-born youth with U.S.-born parents. Within the first-generation population we also disaggregate youth from the most prevalent international origins (Mexico, Central America, and several East Asian and Southeast Asian countries, in the case of California), as well as those with and without legal authorization to reside in the United States. The degree of disaggregation depends on the measures employed and the strength of the available data.

We also examine administrative data from state agencies, including the California Department of Education and the California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office. The study districts and colleges also provided us with additional data upon request.

In general the survey data (ACS and CPS) describe self-reported school attendance and completion, rather than actual enrollment or graduation rates. The administrative data lack the demographic detail available in the ACS and CPS—in particular, they seldom include the immigrant origins of students or their parents—but they provide more complete and accurate counts of school enrollment and completion, while also describing a broader range of educational outcomes.

We also review a wide body of literature on California’s education and workforce development initiatives. Analyzing previous research allowed us to explore how the first and second generation youth populations have fared within the broader context of state and local efforts to promote college- and career-readiness.

Our fieldwork centered on secondary schools and community colleges, as well as youth-serving nonprofit organizations and state agencies. We conducted site visits in five school districts and four community colleges, located in three geographic regions of the state: Northern, Central, and Southern California (see Table A-1).

Table A-1. California Fieldwork Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>School Districts</th>
<th>Community Colleges</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>San Francisco Unified School District</td>
<td>City College of San Francisco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oakland Unified School District</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Sanger Unified School District</td>
<td>Fresno City College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern</td>
<td>Los Angeles Unified School District</td>
<td>Los Angeles Trade Tech College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anaheim Union High School District</td>
<td>Fullerton City College</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{354}\) We incorporated data from the 2012 ACS and 2013 CPS—the most recently available statistics at the time of this writing.

\(^{355}\) Batalova and Fix, *Up for Grabs.*
We chose these sites based on a variety of factors, including:

**Concentration of English Language Learners (ELLs) and immigrants.** We limited our site selection to school districts and colleges located in regions with high immigrant densities. Los Angeles County, for instance, has the highest number of immigrant residents of any county in the United States, and Los Angeles Unified School District enrolls more ELLs than any other district.

**Diversity of immigrant communities.** Immigrant settlement patterns across different parts of California lead to striking regional differences in predominant ethnic and national-origin groups. While Mexicans and Central Americans comprise the vast majority of immigrants statewide, Northern California has a particularly large population of Asian immigrants, originating from countries such as China, the Philippines, Korea, and Vietnam. California’s Central Valley, meanwhile, has the highest number of Hmong refugees and immigrants in California. We wanted to select sites that would allow us to capture this diversity.

**Reputation for high levels of achievement, commitment, and promising practices in serving immigrant youth.** Finally, we selected institutions that had developed a reputation for their effective and innovative approaches to the promoting the achievement of ELL and immigrant youth. We consulted with researchers and stakeholders across California to help us identify schools, districts and colleges that had demonstrated a commitment to serving our target population.

As a result of this process, we chose the sites listed in Table A-1. We recognize that these sites are not a representative sample of districts and community colleges in California, and that many more schools and colleges throughout the state are undertaking high-quality, innovative reforms targeting first- and second-generation youth. Additionally, we did not include private or for-profit colleges in our analysis.

In the five school districts, we conducted semi-structured, qualitative interviews with district and school administrators, teachers, and counselors. At the colleges, we interviewed senior administrators and small groups of faculty in degree programs as well as noncredit, “basic skills” programs. We also met with several nonprofit, immigrant-serving organizations, and conducted state-level telephone interviews with groups of administrators in the California Department of Education and the California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office. In total, our fieldwork in California consisted of approximately 125 in-person and telephone interviews.
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Sanger Unified School District. Data provided to the Migration Policy Institute. On file with authors.


Urban Teaching and Learning Partnership. Handout. On file with authors.


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Prior to joining NYIC, Ms. McHugh served as Deputy Director of New York City’s 1990 Census Project and as Executive Assistant to New York Mayor Ed Koch’s chief of staff. She is the recipient of dozens of awards recognizing her efforts to bring diverse constituencies together and tackle tough problems, including the prestigious Leadership for a Changing World award. She has served as a member and officer on the boards of directors for both the National Immigration Forum and Working Today; on the editorial board of *Migration World* Magazine; and has held appointive positions in a variety of New York city and state commissions, most notably the Commission on the Future of the City University of New York and the New York Workers’ Rights Board.

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The Migration Policy Institute is a nonprofit, nonpartisan think tank dedicated to the study of the movement of people worldwide. MPI provides analysis, development, and evaluation of migration and refugee policies at the local, national, and international levels. It aims to meet the rising demand for pragmatic and thoughtful responses to the challenges and opportunities that large-scale migration, whether voluntary or forced, presents to communities and institutions in an increasingly integrated world.

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