Center for American Progress

AP PHOTO/JEN MARGOT

The Case for a Two-Generation Approach for Educating English Language Learners

By Tracey Ross May 2015

Center for American Progress

The Case for a Two-Generation Approach for Educating English Language Learners

By Tracey Ross May 2015

Contents

1 Introduction and summary

4 ELL demographics

10 ELL educational outcomes

14 LEP employment outcomes

16 Why the two-generation approach is needed

18 Case studies: What communities are doing

26 Recommendations

31 Conclusion

33 Endnotes

Introduction and summary

"By focusing on the civic, economic, and linguistic integration of new Americans, we can help immigrants and refugees in the United States contribute fully to our economy and their communities."[1]

– President Barack Obama, November 2014

Over the past two decades, the United States has undergone a number of demographic shifts. Between 2000 and 2013, the Latino population grew by 43 percent, far outpacing the growth of non-Hispanic whites, whose population grew by 5.7 percent during the same time period.[2] The number of Asians in the United States is increasing as well; Asians recently surpassed Latinos as the nation's fastest-growing group of new immigrants. This population grew by 46 percent between 2000 and 2010.[3]

In November, President Barack Obama announced steps to allow nearly 5 million undocumented immigrants to remain temporarily in the country, the majority being the parents of U.S. citizens, legal permanent residents, or DREAMers—undocumented immigrants brought to the country as children.[4] This action will keep families in tact as the federal government uses its limited immigration enforcement resources to address more-pressing cases—for example, focusing on serious criminals and recent arrivals.[5] In addition, the president established the White House Task Force on New Americans to develop a coordinated federal strategy to better integrate new Americans into communities and support state and local efforts to do the same.[6] Together, these steps signify a greater understanding of how immigrants are already contributing to this nation, as well as a growing recognition that more must be done to ensure that they can reach their full potential as active participants in their communities.

For instance, when these roughly 5 million individuals are able to work legally, they will have greater opportunities to find jobs that match their skillsets and as a result be more economically productive.[7] In addition, immigrants buy goods and services from U.S. businesses, helping increase demand and create new jobs.[8]

As the leadership of Welcoming America, an organization that works to promote mutual respect and cooperation between foreign-born and U.S.-born Americans, stated, "How cities respond during this welcoming moment will reflect our commitment to the values that define us as Americans."[9]

One of the most significant ways that communities can respond to potential changes in the immigration system, as well as ongoing shifts in the nation's demographics, is by ensuring greater access to English language instruction, as a lack of English proficiency is a significant barrier to full participation in society. English language learner, or ELL, students must acquire language skills while studying the same core content areas as their English-speaking peers, essentially requiring that they do double the work. This challenge is exacerbated by the fact that ELL students are more likely than non-ELL students to attend high-poverty schools where resources are limited.[10] Furthermore, regardless of their own level of English proficiency, children are greatly affected by their parents' English skills. English proficiency among parents is critical when it comes to accessing the knowledge and resources necessary to help children navigate classrooms, health facilities, and even the juvenile justice system.[11]

Moreover, parents with limited English skills tend to have higher rates of unemployment and lower wages even when doing the same job as a person proficient in English.[12] Numerous studies have shown that immigrants who are proficient in English earn more than those who lack proficiency.[13] Depending on where they live, workers proficient in English earn anywhere from 17 percent to 135 percent more than ELL workers.[14] In essence, the language barrier can create a poverty trap for families and a loss of human capital for communities. Given the fact that the majority of labor-force growth in the United States over the next four decades is projected to come from immigrants and their children,[15] investing in these two populations is critical to the success of not only these families but also the U.S. economy. It is not surprising, then, that higher proficiency in English among immigrant parents is associated with greater academic and economic success of their children.[16]

As the number of ELLs will increase in the United States, historic and emerging so-called gateway communities—communities with established immigrant populations[17]—must engage ELL parents and students simultaneously, as the outcomes for both groups are closely linked. Such a two-generation approach has proven effective with English-proficient, high-poverty communities[18] and could be a successful strategy for the ELL population as well. This report proposes a number of recommendations for ways that communities can implement a two-generation approach to close the language gap and expand opportunities for English learners, including:

- Adopting the community school model to provide critical wraparound services for students and families
- Implementing extended learning time to ensure that students have additional instruction critical to help them learn English while learning their curricula
- Prioritizing family engagement at school to help parents become better advocates for their children
- Creating workforce-development programs with English as a second language, or ESL, classes and wraparound services
- Prioritizing ELL training for teachers

This report provides an overview of the ELL population in the United States; explains why a two-generation approach is a valuable strategy to improve English proficiency and the economic well-being of families and communities; and presents case studies of promising approaches for educating ELL students and parents while providing critical wraparound services to enhance the learning process.

ELL: A definition

An ELL student is a student whose native language is not English, or who comes from an environment where a language other than English is dominant.[19] In education, a number of terms are often used when referring to this population, including English language learners, or ELLs; English learners, or ELs; limited English proficient, or LEP; dual language learners; and non-native English speakers, among others. While these terms are often used interchangeably, school districts may define each term differently to distinguish between the levels of language skills that students possess. However, the federal government and many state governments use both ELL and LEP to mean the same thing.[20]

Furthermore, LEP is most often used to describe working-age adults who have limited English language skills, as well as in the context of immigrants applying for citizenship, as proficiency in English is a requirement to pass the citizenship exam.[21]

For the purposes of this report, ELL will be used to discuss broadly the non-native English speaking population, particularly students. LEP will be used when specifically discussing working-age adults.[22]

ELL demographics

According to the Migration Policy Institute, English language learners speak more than 150 languages, with Spanish being the most common "home or first language."[23] While immigration drives the growth in the ELL population, English skills vary widely among immigrants.[24] In other words, the ELL population does not perfectly mirror the immigrant population.

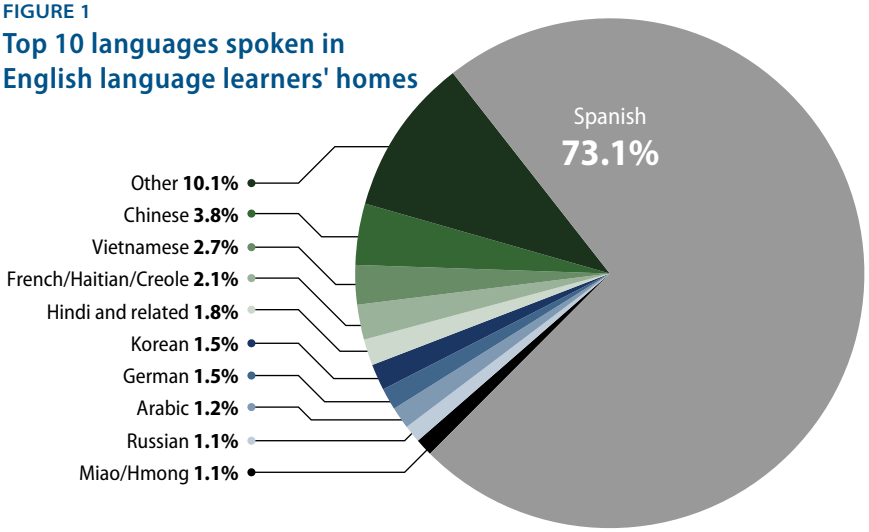
While the vast majority of ELLs in the United States are Spanish speakers, Asian Americans are among the most likely to be limited English proficient. The Asian American and Pacific Islander, or AAPI, population in the United States has the highest proportion of residents—77 percent—who speak a language other than English at home, compared with 75 percent of Latinos.[25]

According to a recent Center for American Progress report, 35 percent of the Asian American population has limited English proficiency—with 4 percent not speaking English at all; 12 percent speaking English "not well," and 19 percent only speaking English "well" but short of "very well."[26] The overall ELL figures among Asian Americans are on par with rates among Latinos. Among AAPIs, Chinese is by far the most common language spoken at home, with more than 2.7 million speakers.[27]

In addition to English proficiency at the individual level, the U.S. Census Bureau also measures the extent to which households are linguistically isolated, which means that there is no one in the household who is 14 years old or older who speaks English exclusively or "very well."[28] About one in five Asian households in the U.S. is linguistically isolated.[29] This proportion is similar to the linguistic isolation of Spanish-speaking households. In the United States, Vietnamese households have the highest rate of linguistic isolation, at 34 percent, followed by Chinese households at 30 percent, Korean households at 29 percent, and Bangladeshi households at 25 percent.[30]

FIGURE 1

Top 10 languages spoken in English language learners' homes



Source: Jeanne Batalova and Margie McHugh, "Top Languages Spoken by English Language Learners Nationally and by State" (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2010), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/top-languages-spoken-english-language-learners-nationally-and-state.

Students

As of 2012, children of immigrants comprised more than 25 percent of all children ages 8 or younger, and more than 90 percent of these children were U.S. citizens.[31] According to the U.S. Census Bureau, ELL students in the United States speak 150 different languages, but approximately 73 percent speak Spanish.[32] Chinese is the second most commonly spoken language, with nearly 4 percent of ELL students speaking the language.[33]

While Spanish is the most common language spoken by ELL students overall, in seven states—Alaska, Hawaii, Maine, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Vermont—the top language spoken is one other than Spanish.[34] In Alaska, Hawaii, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Montana, the majority of ELL students speak an indigenous language of the native populations.[35] And due to the resettlement of refugee populations that has taken place over the past two decades, ELL students in Vermont primarily speak Bosnian; in Maine, they speak Somali.[36]

While the widespread use of a language in a particular locale suggests that resources should be targeted to teaching speakers of that language, ELL students who speak less common languages require the same level of English instruction, making educating this diverse population complex for many school districts. Furthermore, in a number of states, the most common language is spoken by less than half of the ELL population in that state.

Under the federal Civil Rights Act of 1964,[37] schools are required to provide ELLs with additional services to ensure that they master English as well as the material other students are learning. Classroom instruction for ELLs varies depending upon state laws and the proportion of ELLs in a school district.

ELL services range from bilingual instruction, to English immersion classrooms where English is modified for ELLs, to mainstream classrooms where ELLs receive support either within the classroom or spend time in an English as a second language classroom.[38] However, ELLs are often not properly identified or are prematurely placed in mainstream classrooms without additional support. In addition, emerging research suggests that while there are advantages to learning a language at a younger age, maturing into adulthood can provide older students and adults with new techniques to learn. This suggests that instruction needs to adjust by group.[39]

According to the U.S. Department of Education's most recent biennial report to Congress on ELL funding to states:

> *Each state has its own standards, assessments, and criteria for 'proficiency,' for both English proficiency and academic content proficiency, as well as its own identification and exit criteria for English proficiency. Thus, the same child could be designated 'proficient' in English or in mathematics in one State, but not in another.*[40]

Working-age adults

Nearly 1 in 10 working-age adults in the United States—or 19.2 million people between ages 16 and 64—is considered LEP.[41] Two-thirds of this population speaks Spanish.[42] As a broad linguistic group, speakers of Asian and Pacific Island languages make up 18 percent of the working-age LEP population. Furthermore, at 47 percent, a larger percentage of speakers of Asian and Pacific Island languages are LEP compared with people who speak Spanish at home—totaling 45 percent.[43]

TABLE 1

Language spoken at home among the limited-English-proficient, or LEP, population, ages 16–64, in 2012

Language	Number of speakers	Percent of working-age LEP population
Spanish	12,705,412	66.3%
Asian and Pacific Island languages	3,524,709	18.4%
Chinese	833,276	4.4%
Vietnamese	651,786	3.4%
Korean	462,168	2.4%
Filipino/Tagalog	366,900	1.9%
Mandarin	196,809	1%
Cantonese	184,911	1%
Other Asian and Pacific Island languages	828,859	4.3%
Indo-European languages	2,278,667	11.9%
Russian	266,833	1.4%
French/Haitian/Creole	247,635	1.3%
Portuguese	190,078	1%
French	183,174	1%
Other Indo-European languages	1,390,947	7.3%
Arabic	289,393	1.5%
Other	353,603	1.8%

Source: Jill H. Wilson, "Investing in English Skills: The Limited English Proficient Workforce in U.S. Metropolitan Areas" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2014), available at http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/Research/Files/Reports/2014/09/english%20skills/Srvy_EnglishSkills_Sep22.pdf.

While the overwhelming majority of the working-age LEP population was born outside the United States, 13 percent is native born—including people born in Puerto Rico.[44] Most working-age LEP people are in the labor force but are concentrated in low-paying jobs and in different industries compared with other workers.[45] Specifically, within the LEP population, 30 percent of men work in construction, extraction—such as coal mining, or oil and gas extraction—and transportation, while nearly 40 percent of employed women in this group work in "service and personal care."[46] While slightly more than half of the native-born population is between ages 20 and 64, 79 percent of the foreign born population is in that age group.[47] Moreover, working-age LEP individuals will increasingly make up a significant portion of the U.S. labor force and will clearly need language training that focuses on the vocabulary related to growing industries, such as health care and hospitality.

Gateway communities

Historically, immigrants primarily came to the United States through key entry points before settling in ethnic enclaves in cities such as New York, Baltimore, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Chicago, or San Francisco. Such places, known as "gateway communities," helped many immigrants transition into their new lives in the United States.[48] According to Audrey Singer, senior fellow at the Brookings Metropolitan Policy Program, "As these communities developed, immigrants worked in local establishments, started their own businesses, sent their children to local schools, and organized places of worship."[49]

Today, many of these communities are still well-established gateways for new immigrants, where they can join others who speak a common language and even acquire goods and services from their country of origin. In short, they provide critical support that helps immigrants integrate. However, a number of communities are attracting large immigrant populations for the first time.

Over the past two decades, metropolitan areas in the South and West emerged as major destinations for new immigrants who were attracted to the growing economic opportunities in the construction, health, and service industries.[50] And in the past decade, nine metropolitan areas in the Southeast have experienced a doubling of their foreign-born populations.[51] These new gateways have a less established infrastructure for integration, and many communities are not prepared to address this influx in a way that helps integrate their newest citizens.[52]

Where the ELL population lives today

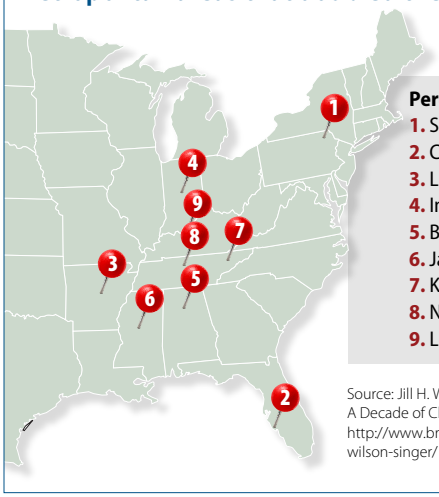
The largest immigrant gateways are home to the greatest number of working-age LEP residents. New York City and Los Angeles each account for about 12 percent of this population nationally, each with 2.3 million LEP residents.[53] And these two metropolitan areas, plus eight more—Miami, Florida; Chicago, Illinois; Houston, Texas; Dallas, Texas; San Francisco, California; Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, California; Washington, D.C.; and San Diego, California—account for half of the nation's working-age LEP population.[54] While these gateway communities continue to attract new arrivals, many new immigrants and refugee groups are settling in communities throughout the Southeast, Southwest, and Northwest.[55]

Twenty-one metropolitan areas gained at least 100,000 immigrants between 2000 and 2010; among those, Baltimore, Maryland; Orlando, Florida; Las Vegas, Nevada; Atlanta, Georgia; and Riverside, California saw the fastest rates of growth.[56] Immigrants are increasingly moving to metropolitan areas that have little history of immigration and are settling in suburbs rather than cities.[57] Job growth in the suburbs, along with affordable housing, good schools, and safe neighborhoods, has attracted immigrants and natives alike to these areas.

The new geography of immigration means that many cities and suburbs across the country are facing the challenges of a sizable ELL population for the first time, both in their schools and in the workforce. In these more recent immigrant destinations, insufficient funding, combined with a lack of infrastructure and experience working with ELL populations, has resulted in uneven and inadequate access to adult English instruction.[58]

FIGURE 2

Metropolitan areas that doubled their immigrant populations in the 2000s



Percent change:

1. Scranton-Wilkes-Barre, PA: **140.2%**
2. Cape Coral-Fort Myers, FL: **136.6%**
3. Little Rock-North Little Rock-Conway, AR: **124.1%**
4. Indianapolis-Carmel, IN: **117.4%**
5. Birmingham-Hoover, AL: **114.5%**
6. Jackson, MS: **110.5%**
7. Knoxville, TN: **109.7%**
8. Nashville-Davidson-Murfreesboro-Franklin, TN: **101.8%**
9. Louisville-Jefferson County, KY-IN: **100.9%**

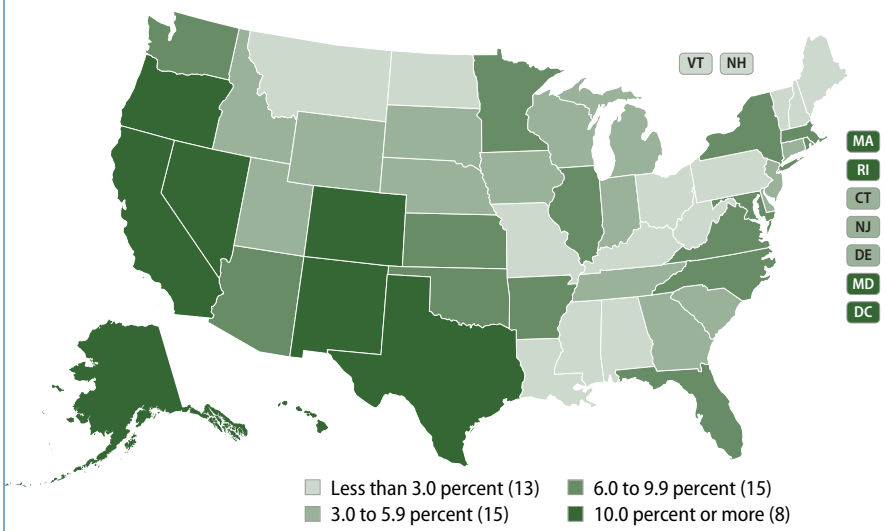
Source: Jill H. Wilson and Audrey Singer, "Immigrants in 2010 Metropolitan America: A Decade of Change" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2011), available at http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/papers/2011/10/13-immigration-wilson-singer/1013_immigration_wilson_singer.pdf.

ELL educational outcomes

As stated earlier, ELL students are more likely to attend high-poverty schools than their English-proficient counterparts. During the 2007-08 school year, for example, about 25 percent of students attending high-poverty elementary schools were identified as ELL, compared with 4 percent of students attending low-poverty elementary schools.[59] At the secondary level, about 16 percent of students attending high-poverty schools were identified as ELL, compared with just 2 percent attending low-poverty schools.[60] These conditions contribute to the persistent achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students.

FIGURE 3

Percentage of public school students participating in programs for English language learners, by state, 2011-12



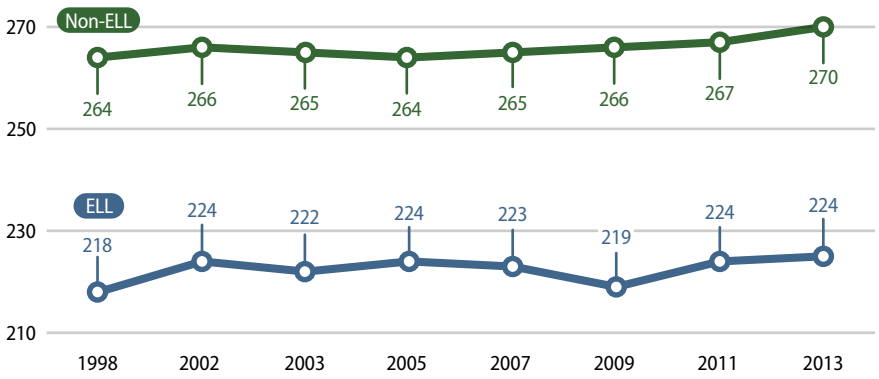
Note: Includes students served in regular school districts, excluding regional education service agencies and supervisory union administrative centers, state-operated agencies, federally operated agencies, and other types of local education agencies, such as independent charter schools.

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, "Local Education Agency (School District) Universe Survey Data," available at https://nces.ed.gov/ccd/pubagency.asp (last accessed September 2013).

FIGURE 4

Average National Assessment of Educational Progress eighth-grade reading scale score, by English language learner, or ELL, status

Selected years, 1998–2013

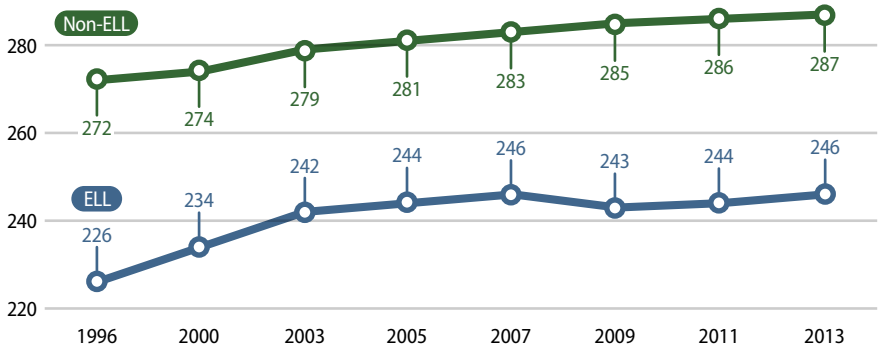


Source: National Center for Education Statistics, "NAEP Data Explorer," available at http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/ (last accessed November 2013).

FIGURE 5

Average National Assessment of Educational Progress eighth-grade math scale score, by English language learner, or ELL, status

Selected years, 1996–2013



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, "NAEP Data Explorer," available at http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/ (last accessed November 2013).

The National Assessment of Educational Progress, or NAEP, measures student performance in reading and mathematics at grades 4, 8, and 12. In 2013, the reading achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students on the assessment was 38 points at the fourth-grade level and 45 points at the eighth-grade level.[61] At both grade levels, this gap was not measurably different than it was in 1998.[62] Similarly, the mathematics achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students was 25 points at the fourth-grade level and 41 points at the eighth-grade level, with no measurable difference from 1996.[63] The outcomes contribute to ELL

students having much lower graduation rates than their non-ELL peers. While nationally, 80 percent of the class of 2012 graduated high school, ELL students had below-average graduation rates of 59 percent.[64] However, graduation rates vary among states. In Arizona, for example, only 24 percent of ELL students graduated on time, while in West Virginia, 83 percent of ELLs graduated on time.[65]

There are a number of factors that contribute to this steady achievement gap. In 2014, the Department of Education released an evaluation brief focused on 11 schools with high proportions of ELL students—a median of 45 percent ELLs.[66] The brief identified a number of unique needs of ELLs that schools might target in order to better serve this population, including:[67]

1. **Access to the academic curricula.** In addition to learning social English, ELLs must develop the academic language and literacy skills needed to meaningfully access the grade-level curricula.

2. **Culture and socialization needs.** Schools may be able to enhance ELLs' educational experiences by taking diversity into account through "culturally-familiar content."[68]

3. **Parent and family engagement.** Language barriers and a lack of familiarity with the U.S. system of schooling may make parental engagement challenging.

4. **Issues of isolation and segregation.** ELLs who reside in linguistically isolated households or communities may have limited opportunities to model English speakers.

5. **Interruptions in schooling or limited formal schooling.** Some ELLs have experienced interruptions in their schooling, or arrive in U.S. schools with limited prior schooling, so are less academically prepared.

6. **Exiting from ELL status.** Schools might use focused strategies to help students satisfy ELL exit criteria, which vary across states and districts.

7. **High school completion.** Adolescent ELLs face a limited time frame in which to develop English language and literacy skills, master academic content, and satisfy course requirements for graduation.

Threats to funding

Under current law, traditionally underserved students have dedicated federal funding streams with mechanisms in place to ensure that the money gets spent on them. Earlier this year, however, conservative members of Congress proposed legislation for elementary and secondary education that would bundle these separate funds into a block grant, giving money to states with little accountability to serve high-need students, including ELLs.

Sen. Lamar Alexander's (R-TN) and Rep. John Kline's (R-MN) proposed legislation—the Student Success Act and the Every Child Ready for College or Career Act of 2015, respectively—would eliminate the targeting of federal dollars to schools and districts with the highest concentrations of low-income students.[71] If this change were to go into effect, funding would essentially leave the neediest schools and, in some cases, go to affluent schools. Rep. Kline's bill also eliminates the maintenance of effort, or MOE, provision, which requires states and districts to "maintain" their own funding levels at amounts similar to the previous year's budget.[72] Eliminating this provision would mean that states and districts could reduce their education spending by any amount without accountability. These ongoing funding cuts come at a critical time when our country should be investing more into the newest members of our society.

According to the Department of Education study, schools that provided stronger attention to the above areas of need utilized dedicated staff, such as ELL coordinators, ELL coaches, and ESL and bilingual teachers and tutors.[69] The study also stressed the need for extended learning time to address the challenges that ELL students face in mastering content, learning English, and graduating on time. Specifically, the study stated, "schools can help mitigate those challenges by creating instructional supports that accelerate ELLs' acquisition of English and academic content, afford opportunities for credit recovery, allow flexible scheduling, or provide extended instructional time."[70]

LEP employment outcomes

Across the United States, 19.2 million working-age adults are considered limited English proficient, comprising almost 10 percent of the nation's working-age population. As discussed earlier, English proficiency is a strong predictor of economic standing among immigrants, regardless of educational attainment.[73] In 2011, about 26 percent of the English language learner population lived in households with an annual income below the federal poverty line, compared with the 14 percent of the English-proficient population who lived in poverty.[74]

According to a recent report by the Brookings Institution, English proficiency translates into higher earnings when compared to a lack of English proficiency, particularly for higher-skilled LEPs.[75] Moreover, even high-skilled LEP workers are twice as likely to work in unskilled jobs as immigrants who are proficient in English. According to the report's author, Jill Wilson, "This underemployment represents a loss of productivity that yields lower wages for individuals and families and lower tax revenues and consumer spending for local areas."[76] LEP immigrants also have higher unemployment rates than their English-proficient counterparts, according to the report.

Funding for adult English instruction

These higher rates of unemployment and poverty are particularly troubling, as virtually all of the growth in the U.S. labor force over the next 40 years is projected to come from immigrants and their children.[77] According to Wilson, the working-age LEP population has already increased two-and-a-half times since 1980.[78] Despite this ongoing growth, public funding for adult English instruction has lagged, and the quality of instruction and programming has seen little improvement.

Since 2000, funding from the U.S. Department of Education for adult English for speakers of other languages, or ESOL, instruction has declined, with the number of adults served decreasing from about 1.1 million in 2000 to 700,000 in 2011, or 0.5 percent of the adult LEP population.[79] To make matters worse, Even Start,

a family literacy program specifically geared toward immigrant families of low socioeconomic status, was terminated in 2011 due to budget cuts.[80] Meanwhile, states—which have typically contributed about three-quarters of the funding for adult ESOL instruction—have faced growing deficits, leading many states to slash ESOL budgets and funding for adult education more broadly.

Many LEP adults face barriers to accessing English as second language classes, including but not limited to financial barriers:

1. **Limited funding.** As discussed above, most ESL classes are funded through federal and state government funds, as well as through foundation support.[81] Given the fact that many LEP adults are economically disadvantaged, public funding is critical for enabling communities to offer these programs. However, with ongoing budget cuts, communities are not able to meet the current need.

2. **Lengthy waiting lists.** The decline in funding is exacerbating another challenge—growing waiting lists for these programs.[82] Through a survey of studies that looked at waiting list times among ESL providers, Wilson found that hundreds of thousands of individuals are on waiting lists. In fact, wait times doubled from 2008 to 2010.[83]

3. **Unaware of classes.** A Department of Education study found that 58 percent of LEP adults who did not participate in any ESL classes but who were interested in participating attributed this disconnect to a lack of knowledge of class availability.[84]

4. **Lack of supportive or wraparound services.** Child care costs, along with transportation and time constraints, are also major barriers to ELL service access. More than 60 percent of respondents in a Department of Education survey cited the above reasons as major barriers preventing ESL class participation.[85]

According to the Migration Policy Institute, investments in English instruction for immigrants can yield a number of social and economic benefits, including higher productivity, earnings, and income tax payments; lower poverty and use of public assistance; and better educational and labor-market outcomes for the children of immigrants.[86] Moreover, as stated previously, higher proficiency in English among immigrants is associated with greater academic and economic success of their children. As Wilson states, "assuming that immigrants will 'pick up the language,' while proving true in the long run, is not an efficient strategy for improving labor market outcomes in the shorter term."[87] This strategy also is not particularly efficient for overcoming the achievement gap and its long-term impacts.[88]

Why the two-generation approach is needed

A growing body of research shows that parental engagement in school yields higher levels of academic achievement, particularly for children with greater barriers due to low family educational attainment or income levels. As a result, a number of communities are recognizing the importance of incorporating parental engagement in early learning and pre-K programs, but such involvement is not possible for all parents.

Across the country, millions of people struggle to balance work and family responsibilities, but for low-income people, the balancing act can mean the difference between staying afloat and falling deeper into poverty.[89] According to a recent report from the Annie E. Casey Foundation, there are a number of challenges that low-income parents face "at work, in their child's care and education and at home—that exacerbate the inherent difficulties of raising a family."[90] These include:

1. Jobs with unpredictable schedules that do not pay family-supporting wages
2. Lack of access to quality early child care and/or education
3. Household stress for both parents and children

For English language learners, the language barrier exacerbates all of these challenges. Children in linguistically isolated households depend on their parents to seek out educational opportunities, health care, and community resources to bolster their healthy growth and development. All of these challenges are even greater for undocumented immigrants, who often do not attempt to access services for fear of revealing their immigration status. But without translation and interpretation assistance, ELL parents use limited and/or imperfect information that is filtered through community brokers, burden young children to translate for them, and sometimes forgo available supports altogether.[91]

Many of the critical federal and state programs designed to help low-income families address these challenges operate in isolation from one another, despite the fact that these families would greatly benefit from the ease of a coordinated approach for addressing the needs of parents and children. The following components are key to establishing a successful two-generation strategy:

- **Provide parents and guardians with pathways to secure, family-supporting jobs and help them achieve financial stability.** Research shows that additional family income, particularly when raising very young children, can improve childhood outcomes. Even an additional $3,000 annually for families can result in a 15 percent increase in earnings once a child reaches adulthood.[92] As the Annie E. Casey Foundation report states, "We therefore must create opportunities for parents to develop the skills necessary to increase their income and achieve financial stability by providing access to education and training programs that prepare them for today's jobs."[93]

- **Ensure access to high-quality child care and early education.** Most higher-income workers have access to high-quality child care, which is critical for working families. Lower-income families would benefit from similar supports, which would enable them to work and gain added flexibility when addressing family challenges.[94] Furthermore, the research is clear that providing a solid educational foundation in children's early years sets them on a path to greater behavioral and educational outcomes.[95]

- **Enable parents and guardians to better support their children socially and emotionally and to advocate for their children's education.** Parents not only have to ensure that they are addressing their children's financial and educational needs, but they also must support their emotional needs. According to the Annie E. Casey Foundation report, "When parents are able to reduce their stress and anxiety, they can better respond to their children's emotional needs and help them weather substantial difficulties."[96] Many parents would benefit from guidance on addressing their children's physical and mental health, resolving conflicts, and being an advocate for their children's overall well-being. Providing English as a second language classes to parents and children at the same time could help parents deepen their understanding of how their children are progressing and enable them to better work with school staff, while improving their own language skills.

Such an approach also must acknowledge the modern structure of today's families. According to a recent CAP report, children of immigrant parents are more likely to live with two married parents than are children of U.S.-born parents.[97] However, children of immigrant parents are also more likely to live in a wider variety of family arrangements, such as multigenerational homes.[98] While children, regardless of their parents' immigration status, live with grandparents at very similar rates, the children of immigrant parents are more likely to live with other relatives than are children of U.S.-born parents.[99]

Case studies: What communities are doing

Given the challenges that English language learner children and adults face, it is evident that communities must develop a two-generation approach that ensures children get the additional instruction and support they need and that working-age limited English proficient adults are able to help support their families socially and economically. The following case studies demonstrate promising efforts to educate student and working-age ELLs, including two-generation approaches in action and successful education and training strategies that can be incorporated into the two-generation framework.

Oakland, California: Family Literacy program

Oakland, California, has a particularly diverse school district where 49 percent of students speak a language other than English at home and 30 percent of students classify as ELLs. Further, 71 percent of the district's 37,000 students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunches.[100] Throughout the Oakland Unified School District, or OUSD, 47 languages are spoken at home, with Spanish—at 33.5 percent—and Cantonese—at 5.2 percent—among the top languages spoken by these students.[101]

In June 2011, the OUSD Board of Education adopted a five-year strategic plan to implement a full-service community schools model for each of the district's 86 schools.[102] The plan focused on providing high-quality instruction and a wide spectrum of wraparound supports, including physical and mental health services, nutrition, physical education, before-school and after-school programs, housing, employment, parenting and language acquisition courses, and a range of other programs.[103] These elements are important steps toward integrating extended learning time for ELLs, as many of the key community-based organizations partnering with the school districts provide bilingual services for ELL youth and their families.[104]

A component of OUSD's work is the Family Literacy program, which provides LEP parents with English as a second language and computer literacy skill building.[105] These programs are integrated into children's school environment, giving parents the opportunity to use the same resources as their children and to gain a greater understanding of how their children are learning.[106] For instance, at one district school focused on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics, or STEM, fields, ELL parents were taught a simple science experiment that their children would be learning, giving them an opportunity to learn the scientific terms and be able to discuss at home what their children learned in the classroom.[107] Currently, the Family Literacy program is offered in eight OUSD schools.[108]

OUSD's efforts are based on a growing body of research. According to a 2010 study by the National Institutes of Health, "A mother's reading skill is the greatest determinant of her children's future academic success, outweighing other factors, such as neighborhood and family income. … Programs to improve maternal literacy skills may provide an effective means to overcome the disparity in academic achievement between children in poor and affluent neighborhoods."[109] With this approach, OUSD's Family Literacy program has seen great gains in parents' English reading skills. During the 2013-14 school year, 197 ESL Family Literacy parents completed and/or advanced a full grade level in reading and literacy skills.[110] When asked on a survey to respond to the statement "I am better able to help my child do well in school because I attend my Family Literacy class," 308 of the 431 participants said that they agreed with the statement. Further, 207 parents volunteered at their child's school during the school year.[111] The Family Literacy program, which benefits from state funding as well as partnerships with other organizations, hopes to expand to more families in the city, but expansion depends on state funding dedicated to adult education.[112]

Many older ELL students have periods of interruption in their formal education, so they need extra time dedicated to their instruction. While all students are legally entitled to remain in high school through age 21, some schools are reluctant to enroll students who are unlikely to earn a diploma by age 18 or 19 due to the potential impact on their graduation rates. Oakland International High School, or OIHS, opened in 2007 with the support of the Internationals Network for Public Schools, OUSD, and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. OIHS is a full community school that offers wraparound services to its 100 percent ELL-student population, comprised of recent immigrants who, according to program literature, are in "a fragile state academically, linguistically, socially, and economically."[113]

OIHS is a member of the Internationals Network for Public Schools, which designs high school curricula and prepares educators to specifically serve low-performing ELL students.[114] In addition, OIHS offers a fifth-year program that includes enhanced academics and internships for late-arriving ELLs who need extra learning time.[115]

Language learning is part of every class from math to social science. OIHS also has an after-school program that runs until 6:00 p.m., seven days per week, and offers homework tutoring and advanced math courses to students, as well as math for students with interrupted formal education and English literacy classes.[116] In addition, fifth-year seniors and 12th-grade students participate in an internship program focused on career readiness, preparation for higher education, and enhancing English skills for the workplace. Fifth-year seniors also receive specialized counseling that helps transition students from high school to community college via a concurrent enrollment program, which features English-learning support for students and their families.[117] Students in international high schools routinely outperform their counterparts in other schools and often are the first generation in their families to graduate from high school and attend college. By way of comparison, in 2013, a similar international school in New York City had a graduation rate of 58 percent, compared with just 32 percent for New York City ELLs overall.[118]

Chula Vista, California: Community school model

Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood is the recipient of one of the U.S. Department of Education's Promise Neighborhood grants, which recognizes the role that an entire community plays in a child's education by focusing on supporting families, improving education, and building a strong community. The community, known as Castle Park, is located just six miles from the U.S.-Mexico border and has a large immigrant population and high rates of unemployment and poverty. Fifty-eight percent of Castle Park students are ELLs, and 62 percent of pre-kindergarten-age children do not attend preschool. Moreover, fewer than half of households have an adult employed full time.[119] Through community focus groups, local leaders learned that a pervasive fear of deportation has kept individuals from accessing needed services, such as violence prevention and early intervention family support.[120]

The Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood is coordinated by South Bay Community Services, or SBCS, and brings together a collaboration of partners focused on family, education, health, and community to provide children in the Castle Park neighborhood with the kind of opportunities they need to excel in school, enroll in college, find good jobs, and lead healthy lives. Students from grades 7 through 12 in the Castle Park neighborhood are also connected directly with academic advocates, who serve as advisors to approximately 50 students each, provide mentorship, connect with their families regularly, and collaborate with school staff.[121]

At the five targets schools in the Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood, there are a number of unique programs to provide students and their families with a range of wraparound services. For example, Universidad de Padres is a three-part program for parents and caregivers of children up to age 3 focused on various topics such as health, learning, and community.[122]

Community leaders found that more than half of children younger than age 4 in Castle Park had never been enrolled in early learning programs. With support from partners, such as the United Way of San Diego County, Wells Fargo, and Chula Vista Elementary School District, the Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood established Escuelita del Futuro, a free, full-day, quality preschool program to provide children with learning and social experiences based on their individual abilities, interests, and developmental needs, along with a specialized curriculum for ELLs.[123]

The Promise Neighborhood also includes full-day preschools, such as Mi Escuelita, a school for students exposed to family violence. Children are referred to Mi Escuelita by various agencies, including local law enforcement, Child Welfare Services, and emergency shelter and transitional housing programs. The school has a bilingual staff and three full-time therapists on staff.[124]

In addition, the Promise Neighborhood has implemented the Granger Turnaround Model, or GTM, at Castle Park Middle School**.** One of the poorest schools in the district, 65 percent of students at Castle Park Middle School are deemed ELLs.[125] The GTM is an innovative program that uses a well-defined, data-driven system that intervenes immediately to keep students from falling behind. For example, when students are absent, they make up that learning time during the weekend. If a student fails a quiz, he or she is provided additional instruction and retested the following week. During the 2011-12 school year, the first year of GTM implementation, Castle Park Middle School dramatically increased its math and science proficiency scores, reduced incidences of misbehavior, and achieved a 99 percent

attendance rate.[126] In 2013, the school's principal attributed the use of this model to increases in scores for all students: English language arts scores increased from 49 percent to 61 percent; seventh-grade math scores rose from 28 percent to 49 percent; students in algebra raised their scores from 35 percent to 58 percent; and science scores saw a 9 percentage-point jump from 66 percent to 75 percent.[127]

Each of the Promise Neighborhood's target schools also has its own parent center and literacy cafes, where parents and students can access resources and have access to a library and computers. The centers and cafes can also be utilized for community meetings, classes, and other group activities. All parent centers are run by promotores, bilingual-trained parents from the neighborhood who are on hand to assist families and connect them to programs. The promotora model is based on a Latin American program model that reaches underserved populations through peer education.[128]

In addition, Chula Vista Careers Academy Manpower, a Promise Neighborhood partner, brings its successful WorkPath program to the Castle Park neighborhood. The program provides skills training, resume development, personal development, ongoing mentoring and support, job coaches, and career management workshops to unemployed adults and youth. Workshops run for three weeks, five days per week, and up to eight hours per day. Participants also receive laptops when they complete the workshop training.[129]

Massachusetts: Expanded learning time for ELL students

Between 2001 and 2012, the number of ELLs in Massachusetts school districts increased by 64 percent—to almost 8 percent of all students.[130] That share is expected to rise given the fact that much of the state's population growth comes from an increase in the immigrant population.[131]

In 2005, the Massachusetts state legislature established funding for the Expanded Learning Time Initiative in Massachusetts, which provided schools with funding to offer children new learning and enrichment opportunities possible through an expanded school schedule.[132] This is particularly important for ELLs, who must keep up with the core curricula while learning English.[133] Furthermore, considering that many students see a decline in achievement over the summers when school is out of session, even maintaining scores can be seen as an improvement.[134] The state expects to bring ELL students to proficiency on state tests within two years, and expanded learning time is expected to help.[135]

Additionally, in 2013, as part of Gov. Deval Patrick's (D-MA) Gateway Cities Education Agenda, his administration created grants to support Summer English Learning Academies to provide middle and high school ELLs with expanded learning time. District applicants were also able to submit proposals to operate complementary enrichment programs during the spring, including after-school academies, Saturday sessions, or academies during spring break.[136]

The ELL summer programs in the Worcester and Boston school districts have yielded positive results. In Worcester, 50 students spend six weeks, five days per week, practicing English by reading, writing, and practicing their skills with other students. It is largely seen as a success, with some students showing double-digit gains in scores and others maintaining the same level of achievement.[137] In Boston, more than 2,000 students have completed an intensive four-week ELL Summer Enrichment Academy since 2013.[138]

An initial study of three academies during summer 2013 showed that providing students with a combination of academic instruction and enrichment activities seemed to be effective at diminishing summer learning loss.[139] In addition, the majority of students in the study maintained or increased their initial language levels in reading and listening between the beginning and end of the program. While schools faced challenges in establishing the academies, such as recruiting and retaining teachers, there was consensus among participants that the programs were valuable.[140]

In 2014, through a $135,000 Gateway Cities grant, the New Bedford Public Schools established the ELL Teachers for Alternative & Accelerated Language Development Program to help ELLs establish and achieve college and career goals.[141] Approximately 30 middle and high school students participated in the program over 10 Saturdays, three days during spring vacation, and over the summer.[142] Staff members from New Bedford Public Schools, other districts, the Immigrants' Assistance Center, and Northstar Learning Center administer the program. In addition to developing vocabulary, the program emphasizes family engagement and focuses on college and career readiness, through campus visits as well as lessons on the college admissions process and navigating financial aid.[143]

Washington state: Integrated language and training programs

While the examples above show how educating parents can be integrated into the school environment, currently, some of the best literacy- and workforce-development strategies are separate programs. The Integrated Basic Education and Skill Training, or I-BEST, model in Washington is one of the country's premier models for states and localities to train workers and develop English language skills at the same time. Often, schools require students to complete a year or two of basic skills training before they can further their education. However, I-BEST students start earning college credits immediately, so they can earn living wages to support their families more quickly.[144]

In addition, each student has one instructor who teaches basic skills in reading, writing, language, and math, and another who focuses on vocational instruction—depending on whether the student is on the college path or the career path. The instructors work collaboratively to develop appropriate learning plans for their students.[145] Lastly, I-BEST offers wraparound services, including college navigation and financial-aid counseling, to empower students to pursue higher education or a career track that offers higher wages.

I-BEST's students boast higher rates of success on multiple factors compared with students in other basic skills training courses. For example, they are three times more likely to earn college credits, nine times more likely to earn a workforce credential, are employed at double the hours per week, and earn an average of $2,310 more per year.[146] I-BEST has been so successful that in 2013, the U.S. Department of Labor attempted to replicate this model in four other states. Many other states and localities have taken the initiative on their own to follow Washington state's model.[147]

Washington, D.C.: Adult charter school

Founded 40 years ago as the first adult charter school in the nation, the Carlos Rosario International Public Charter School provides language, literacy, GED, workforce-development, and comprehensive support services to the 2,500 students from immigrant background it serves annually.[148] Fifty-one percent of these students have not received an equivalent of a high school diploma, and 84 percent live below the poverty line.[149] The success of the school is centered on the integration of ESL courses with courses that focus on life, parenting, and technology skills, as well as health education, civics, and workforce training.

The school's success is also tied to its wraparound services, which seek to remove the barriers many of these working students face in continuing their education. These services include but are not limited to child care referrals, mental health counseling, career counseling and job placements, and college training and advising.

In fiscal year 2013-2014, the school provided 2,534 hours of student support services, including 1,718 hours in employment services and around 300 hours for mental health and other health screenings. These services are offered in four languages: English, Vietnamese, Spanish, and Amharic.[150] The school also has successfully partnered with 70 local organizations to increase the breadth and strength of these services. These organizations, according to the school, provide "field training opportunities such as internships and shadowing, participate in activities such as mock interviews and resume reviews, and present in-class workshops on relevant industry topics."[151]

Recommendations

Immigrant households help shape the U.S. economy and contribute to their communities every day. However, persistent language barriers inhibit many immigrants' full participation in society and affect the future prospects of their family as a whole. As mentioned earlier, workers with lower proficiency in English have higher rates of unemployment and poverty than their English-proficient counterparts, and lower proficiency in English among immigrants is associated with lower levels of academic and economic success for their children.[152] Despite these hurdles, the efforts described above demonstrate that communities are learning how to better help English language learners of all ages. Based on the successful components of the case studies above, the following recommendations can help guide communities interested in developing a two-generation approach for helping ELLs.

Adopt the community school model

Many schools face the challenge of teaching students whose life circumstances create barriers to learning. For instance, ELL students are expected to learn a new language while keeping pace with their English-proficient classmates who are continuing to advance their literacy skills. On top of that, most of these students attend high-poverty schools with limited resources. Communities cannot expect teachers to address these students' unmet needs by themselves. As the work in the Oakland and Chula Vista school districts demonstrates, community schools that align education and community resources are a promising strategy for improving student outcomes.

A CAP study on community schools in the Redwood City School District in California found that ELLs with consistent program participation who received multiple services showed gains in English language development scores over time.[153] As part of that initiative, stakeholders from each district school—including Family Resource Center staff, teachers, parents, and students—came together to develop and implement community school plans that emphasized high-quality academic supports, comprehensive youth and family resources, shared leadership between school administrators and community school coordinators, and youth engagement.

The study looking at the Redwood City district went on to conclude that community school programs are also linked to positive attitudes about school for middle school students. Students with family engagement in elementary school entered middle school more likely to say that their school provided a supportive environment compared with those without family engagement.[154] Once in middle school, frequent participation in expanded learning programs was linked to increases in students' perceptions of their school as a supportive environment. Feeling supported at school was linked to students' motivation and academic confidence, both of which were associated with gains in achievement in math for all students and English language development scores for ELLs.[155] The results of the study suggest that "English learners stand to benefit from the combination of both family engagement and extended learning services, meaning that strengthening the ties between these services could have long-term academic benefits for students."[156]

Currently, there are several federal funding sources to support community schools, such as the U.S. Department of Education's Full-Service Community School grants, Promise Neighborhoods, and 21st Century Community Learning Centers. Federal and state policy can continue to help by streamlining funding sources that go toward community schools in order to prevent fractured service delivery and competition among service providers within a community. Such services, as demonstrated from the work of the Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood, can include everything from counseling, health services, after-school programs, and parental engagement. Schools can also encourage multiagency and nonprofit collaboration by aligning curricula between after-school programs and classrooms, creating cross-program communication structures for providers to make referrals and share data, and integrating student programs with family engagement opportunities.[157]

Implement extended learning time

The educational attainment of immigrant and refugee youth lags behind that of their U.S.-born peers. Moreover, the traditional school day is particularly challenging for immigrant students who enter the U.S. school system in later grades.[158] Time affects the ease of learning a new language and the likelihood of high school graduation, especially among immigrant ELLs in high school.[159]

High school ELLs must increase their English proficiency, complete required credits, and prepare for college and careers in a short time frame. They must perform double the work of native English speakers, since ELLs learn English while concurrently studying core subject areas that are taught in English. This challenge

is compounded by the setbacks that occur during the summer months when school is not in session. That is why summer school and other extended learning opportunities play a key role in helping ELLs build their skills and complete credits needed for high school graduation.[160]

Extended learning time, a school-wide strategy that entails redesigning and lengthening the school day and/or year to help support teaching and learning for all students, can be particularly beneficial for ELLs. Current efforts to promote the expansion of learning time suggest increasing the school day by two hours or lengthening the school year by 360 hours, providing the equivalent of at least 30 percent more learning time.[161] This additional learning time can be pivotal in closing both the academic and language gaps for ELLs.[162] Schools and districts that have incorporated more academic learning time appear to confirm these research findings.[163]

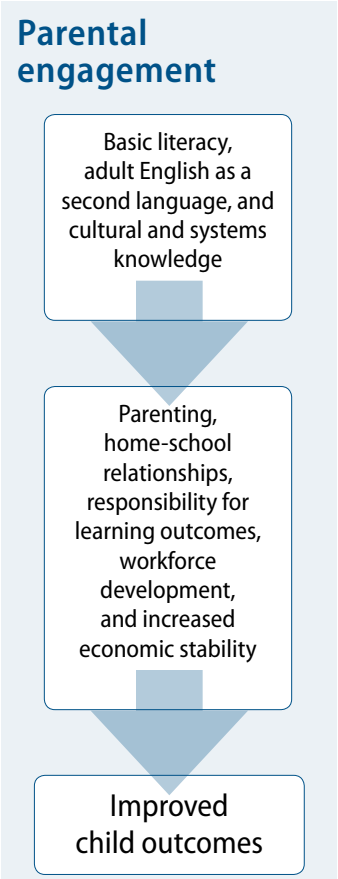
States and school districts should target extended learning time to schools that serve high concentrations of ELL students. Well-designed schools that use significantly more time for students and teachers will have a greater capacity to provide the additional support required.

While extended learning time initiatives appear to hold significant promise for ELLs, it is important to have school-wide implementation. Unless all students in a school are involved, redesigning the school schedule to maximize the opportunities of additional time is unlikely, and success will be limited. Both the research and schools' experience incorporating extended learning time suggest that more time is a necessity for ELLs, but all students benefit from extended learning time.[164]

Prioritize family engagement at school

As mentioned earlier, creating a role for parental engagement at community schools is critical to the success of ELL children. However, parents' own language barriers must be addressed in order to facilitate this process. Local leaders can encourage family engagement by reaching out to parents and inviting them to be partners in a variety of different opportunities both at school and at home.[165] Schools should make household visits in order to create better lines of communication and to gain a deeper understanding of the best ways to engage students' families, particularly if guardians are grandparents who may not be readily able to come to school programming. The peer-to-peer parent-mentoring model utilized by the Chula Vista district can be particularly helpful in strengthening the social cohesion within the school community.

In addition, integrating programs for families into the regular school environment, as Oakland Unified School District's Family Literacy program does, can provide opportunities for families to gain the skills and confidence to be more actively involved in their children's education and help parents gain important skills for their everyday lives. Furthermore, if after-school English as a second language classes are offered to parents and children together, this can help parents understand what their children are working on in class and help parents who cannot participate in school activities during the day.



Create workforce-development programs with wraparound services

Increasing adult ESL instruction enhances the human capital of immigrants and creates better outcomes for their children.[166] Investing in English instruction for immigrants can lead to higher productivity and earnings, lower poverty, and improved academic and economic opportunities for children.[167] A 2011 McGraw-Hill Research Foundation report found that adult education and workforce-development programs boost human capital and individual employment prospects, while reducing spending on health care, public assistance, and incarceration.[168] However, lengthy waiting lists, a lack of supportive services for adults with children, and cost inhibit many people from accessing these services. These services include but are not limited to child care referrals, mental health counseling, career counseling and job placements, and college training and advising.

Prioritize ELL training for teachers

Earlier this year, the Department of Education and the Department of Justice released joint guidance reminding states, school districts, and schools that they are required by federal law to ensure that ELL students have equal access to a high-quality education.[169] Despite this guidance and the rapid growth in the ELL population, many teachers are not fully prepared to educate these students.[170] Today, schools face federal and state demands for improving student performance with limited funding and inadequately prepared teachers.[171] Currently, at the various stages of teacher preparation, certification, and evaluation, there is insufficient information on what teachers should know about teaching ELLs. Communities with large ELL populations should work with schools to ensure that teachers are trained to work with these students.

Since 2013, Denver Public Schools, or DPS, has required all its teachers to be certified to teach ELL students. As a result, ELLs in Denver are outpacing the rest of the state on tests that measure English language proficiency. Denver's ELL students improved 8 percentage points between the 2012-13 school year and the 2013-14 school year on the state test, compared with a 4-percentage-point gain in the rest of the state. Additionally, Denver ELL third-graders saw the biggest gain at 19 percentage points.[172] "We have focused closely on improving our training and support for teachers to strengthen instruction for our English-language learners," explains DPS Superintendent Tom Boasberg.[173] About 3,500 Denver teachers are in the process of earning their English Language Acquisition, or ELA, designation, with approximately 1,800 going through the district's training throughout this school year.[174]

Some schools in the Denver school district have elected to have all teachers earn an English Language Acquisition -English certification. ELA-E is a type of ELA certification that helps teachers work with ELL students while teaching their classrooms entirely in English, so teachers do not have to become bilingual. Teachers in ELA-E classrooms are trained to use strategies—depending on the students' proficiency levels—to help students make connections between their native language and English. Teachers might learn to use specific vocabulary, such as words that have similar meanings in two languages, and learn to show students to look for root words as one way to break down the meaning of bigger words.

If a goal is to see change in teacher-preparation programs, then guidance at the federal level is essential, as is the involvement of accrediting bodies and state agencies. For example, state agencies can require that teacher candidates demonstrate their knowledge and skills on state exams or performance evaluations. Finally, school district policy can include a specific focus on teacher-observation rubrics that require teachers to demonstrate how they are meeting the language and learning needs of ELLs in their classrooms. This information can in turn be used to support professional development aligned with teacher needs.[175]

Conclusion

Over the next 40 years, the U.S. labor force will become increasingly dependent on immigrants and their children. While immigrants already contribute to communities across the country, this population will face a number of barriers to actively and fully participating in American society. As discussed above, English language learner students are more likely to attend high-poverty schools than their English-proficient counterparts and to have below-average graduation rates. Furthermore, limited English proficient adults face lower wages, as well as higher rates of unemployment and underemployment. Ultimately, the language barrier creates a poverty trap for families and a loss of human capital and economic activity for communities and the nation. Higher proficiency in English among LEP adults is associated with greater academic and economic success for their children. In other words, the outcomes of adults and children are closely associated.

As the number of ELLs continues to increase in the United States, one of the most significant ways that communities can respond to make a positive difference and improve outcomes for ELL students is by ensuring greater access to English language instruction. However, parents of ELL students, who are key to the process, face their own set of challenges when it comes to balancing their children's education, parenting duties, and work responsibilities that make acquiring English skills for themselves and their children difficult despite the necessity. Such families would benefit from strategies that integrate the lived experiences of parents and children and help ELL students and LEP adults simultaneously.

Moreover, changes in the settlement patterns of immigrants means that many communities are facing the challenges of sizable ELL populations for the first time. It is critical that leaders in these communities take a two-generation approach to successfully integrate these families. Investing in these two populations is critical to the success of these families and the U.S. economy as a whole.

About the author

Tracey Ross is a Senior Policy Analyst with the Poverty to Prosperity Program at the Center for American Progress. In this role, she focuses on place-based responses to fighting poverty. Prior to joining CAP, she was a program associate at Living Cities, where she worked on its signature effort, The Integration Initiative, supporting cities as they worked to transform broken systems to meet the needs of low-income residents. She was selected as a "Next American Vanguard," Next City's recognition of 40 urban leaders under age 40, in 2012.

Acknowledgments

The author would like to thank Tiffany Miller, Catherine Brown, Philip Wolgin, Silva Mathema, and Farah Ahmad at the Center for American Progress for their guidance in writing this report. Thanks also go out to Melissa Boteach and Rebecca Vallas at the Center for their many contributions to the process.

Special thanks to Kathie Lembo, Monica Martin, and Sue Pon for their insights on serving communities with high English language learner populations.

Endnotes

1 The White House, "Presidential Memorandum — Creating Welcoming Communities and Fully Integrating Immigrants and Refugees," Press release, November 21, 2014, available at http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2014/11/21/presidential-memorandum-creating-welcoming-communities-and-fully-integra.

2 CAP Immigration Team, "The Facts on Immigration Today" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2014), available at https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/immigration/report/2014/10/23/59040/the-facts-on-immigration-today-3/#latinos.

3 Ibid.

4 The White House, "FACT SHEET: Immigration Accountability Executive Action," Press release, November 20, 2014, available at https://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2014/11/20/fact-sheet-immigration-accountability-executive-action.

5 Ian Millhiser, "Federal Judge Blocks Obama's Immigration Action At The 11th Hour. Here's Why It Probably Won't Work," ThinkProgress, February 17, 2015, available at http://thinkprogress.org/justice/2015/02/17/3623484/breaking-republican-judge-halts-key-prong-president-obamas-new-immigration-policy/.

6 CAP Immigration Team, "The Facts on Immigration Today."

7 Silva Mathema, "Assessing the Economic Impacts of Granting Deferred Action Through DACA and DAPA," Center for American Progress, April 2, 2015, available at https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/immigration/news/2015/04/02/110045/assessing-the-economic-impacts-of-granting-deferred-action-through-daca-and-dapa/.

8 American Immigration Council, "Value Added: Immigrants Create Jobs and Businesses, Boost Wages of Native-Born Workers," January 13, 2012, available at http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/just-facts/value-added-immigrants-create-jobs-and-businesses-boost-wages-native-born-workers.

9 David Lubell and Rachel Peric, "A Welcoming Moment for U.S. Cities," Living Cities' Catalyst Blog, January 13, 2015, available at https://www.livingcities.org/blog/753-a-welcoming-moment-for-u-s-cities.

10 Institute of Education Sciences, "2010 Spotlight: High-Poverty Public Schools," available at http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/analysis/2010-section1c3.asp (last accessed April 2015).

11 Rodolfo Estrada and Susan Shah, "'We Want to Know What They Are Saying': A Multiagency Collaborative Effort to Address Parental Language Barriers and Disproportionate Minority Contact" (Washington: Vera Institute of Justice, 2009), available at http://www.aecf.org/m/resourcedoc/AECF-WeWantToKnowWhatTheyAreSaying-2009.pdf.

12 Jill H. Wilson, "Investing in English Skills: The Limited English Proficient Workforce in U.S. Metropolitan Areas" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2014), available at http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/Research/Files/Reports/2014/09/english%20skills/Srvy_EnglishSkills_Sep22.pdf.

13 Ibid.

14 Ibid.

15 Dowell Myers, Stephen Levy, and John Pitkin, "The Contributions of Immigrants and Their Children to the American Workforce and Jobs of the Future" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2013), available at https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/immigration/report/2013/06/19/66891/the-contributions-of-immigrants-and-their-children-to-the-american-workforce-and-jobs-of-the-future/.

16 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

17 Ibid.

18 Annie E. Casey Foundation, "Creating Opportunity for Families: A Two-Generation Approach" (2014), available at http://www.aecf.org/m/resourcedoc/aecf-CreatingOpportunityforFamilies-2014.pdf.

19 Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students, *The Biennial Report to Congress On the Implementation of the Title III State Formula Grant Program: School Years 2008—10* (U.S. Department of Education, 2013), available at http://www.ncela.us/files/uploads/3/Biennial_Report_0810.pdf.

20 The Glossary of Education Reform, "English-Language Learner," available at http://edglossary.org/english-language-learner/ (last accessed April 2015).

21 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

22 The Glossary of Education Reform, "English-Language Learner."

23 Jeanne Batalova and Margie McHugh, "Top Languages Spoken by English Language Learners Nationally and by State" (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2010), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/top-languages-spoken-english-language-learners-nationally-and-state.

24 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

25 Karthick Ramakrishnan and Farah Z. Ahmad, "Language Diversity and English Proficiency:, Part of the 'State of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders' Series" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2014), available at https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/AAPI-LanguageAccess.pdf.

26 Ibid.

27 Ibid. Of the 2.7 million Chinese speakers, 472,000 are Mandarin speakers and 454,000 are Cantonese speakers.

28 Ibid.

29 Ibid.

30 Ibid.

31 Maki Park and Margie McHugh, "Immigrant Parents and Early Childhood Programs: Addressing Barriers of Literacy, Culture, and Systems Knowledge" (Washington: Migration Policy institute, 2014), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/immigrant-parents-early-childhood-programs-barriers.

32 Batalova and McHugh, "Top Languages Spoken by English language learners Nationally and by State."

33 Ibid.

34 Ibid.

35 Ibid.

36 Ibid.

37 *Civil Rights Act of 1964*, Public Law 88-352, 88th Cong., 2d sess. (July 2, 1964), 78 stat. 241.

38 Jennifer F. Samson and Brian A. Collins, "Preparing All Teachers to Meet the Needs of English Language Learners: Applying Research to Policy and Practice for Teacher Effectiveness" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2012), available at https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2012/04/pdf/ell_report.pdf.

39 Alex Hammond, "Does it get harder to learn a language as you get older?", A World Of Languages Blog, March 3, 2014, available at http://blog.esl-languages.com/blog/learn-languages/harder-to-learn-language-older-age/.

40 Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students, *The Biennial Report to Congress on The Implementation of the Title III State Formula Grant Program: School Years 2004-06* (U.S. Department of Education, 2008), available at https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/title3biennial0406.pdf.

41 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

42 Ibid.

43 Ibid.

44 Ibid.

45 Monica Whatley and Jeanne Batalova, "Limited English Proficient Population of the United States"

(Washington: Migration Policy institute, 2013), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/limited-english-proficient-population-united-states#12.

46 Ibid.

47 Audrey Singer, "U.S. Immigration Demographics and Immigrant Integration" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2014), available at http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/presentations/2014/07/16-singer/singer-wh-integration-convening-fin5.pdf.

48 Audrey Singer, "Contemporary Immigrant Gateways in Historical Perspective," *Dædalus* 142 (3) (2013): 76–91, available at http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/articles/2013/09/05%20immigrant%20gateways%20singer/singer%20immigration%20article%209513.pdf.

49 Ibid.

50 Ibid.

51 Ibid.

52 Ibid.

53 Audrey Singer and Jill H. Wilson, "Immigrants in 2010 Metropolitan America: A Decade of Change" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2011), available at http://www.brookings.edu/research/papers/2011/10/13-immigration-wilson-singer.

54 Ibid.

55 Ibid.

56 Ibid.

57 Singer, "Contemporary Immigrant Gateways in Historical Perspective."

58 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

59 National Center for Education Statistics, "2010 Spotlight: High-Poverty Public Schools."

60 Ibid.

61 National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education 2014* (U.S. Department of Education, 2014), available at http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2014/2014083.pdf.

62 Ibid.

63 Ibid.

64 Lyndsey Layton, "National high school graduation rates at historic high, but disparities still exist," *The Washington Post*, April 28, 2014, available at http://www.washingtonpost.com/local/education/high-school-graduation-rates-at-historic-high/2014/04/28/84eb0122-cee0-11e3-937f-d3026234b51c_story.html.

65 Ibid.

66 National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, *A Focused Look at Schools Receiving School Improvement Grants That Have Percentages of English Language Leaner Students* (U.S. Department of Education, 2014), available at http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pubs/20144014/pdf/20144014.pdf.

67 Ibid.

68 Ibid.

69 Ibid.

70 Ibid.

71 *Student Success Act of 2013*, H. Rept. 5, 113 Cong., 1 sess (2013), available at http://edworkforce.house.gov/uploadedfiles/student_success_act_-_introduction.pdf; *Every Child Ready for College or Career Act of 2015*, 114 Cong., 1 sess (2015), available at http://www.help.senate.gov/imo/media/AEG15033.pdf.

72 Ibid.

73 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

74 Whatley and Batalova, "Limited English Proficient Population of the United States."

75 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

76 Ibid.

77 Ibid.

78 Ibid.

79 Ibid.

80 Park and McHugh, "Immigrant Parents and Early Childhood Programs," p. 17.

81 Marcie Foster and Lennox McLendon, "Sinking or Swimming: Findings from a Survey of State Adult Tuition and Financing Policies" (Washington: Center for Law and Social Policy and National Council of State Directors of Adult Education, 2012), p. 5, available at http://www.clasp.org/resources-and-publications/files/Sinking-or-Swimming-State-Adult-Education-Tuition-and-Financing-Policies.pdf.

82 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

83 Ibid.

84 James Thomas Tucker, "The ESL Logjam: Waiting Times for Adult ESL Classes and the Impact on English Learners" (Washington: National Association of Latino Elected and Appointed Officials, 2006), available at http://www.naleo.org/downloads/ESLReportLoRes.pdf.

85 Ibid.

86 Margie McHugh, Julia Gelatt, and Michael Fix, "Adult English Language Instruction in the United States: Determining Need and Investing Wisely" (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2007), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/adult-english-language-instruction-united-states-determining-need-and-investing-wisely.

87 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

88 Ibid.

89 Annie E. Casey Foundation, "Creating Opportunity for Families."

90 Ibid.

91 William Monson and Julia Gelatt, "One in fifteen children in the DC metro area are linguistically isolated," Urban Wire, January 7, 2015, available at http://blog.metrotrends.org/2015/01/fifteen-children-dc-metro-area-linguistically-isolated/.

92 Annie E. Casey Foundation, "Creating Opportunity for Families."

93 Ibid.

94 Shawn Fremstad and Melissa Boteach, "Valuing All Our Families: Progressive Policies that Strengthen Family Commitments and Reduce Family Disparities" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2015), available at https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/FamilyStructure-report.pdf.

95 Annie E. Casey Foundation, "Creating Opportunity for Families."

96 Ibid.

97 Boteach and Fremstad, "Valuing All Our Families."

98 Ibid.

99 Ibid.

100 Education Pioneers, "Oakland Unified School District," available at http://educationpioneers.org/where-we-work/partners/oakland-unified-school-district (last accessed April 2015).

101 Oakland Unified School District, "Fast Facts, 2013-14," available at http://ousd.k12.ca.us/cms/lib07/CA01001176/Centricity/Domain/4/OUSDFast-Facts2013-14.pdf (last accessed April 2015).

102 Ibid.

103 Ibid.

104 Sarah Hooker, Margie McHugh, and Michael Fix, "Critical Choices in Post-Recession California: Investing in the Educational and Career Success of Immigrant Youth" (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2014), available at http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/critical-choices-post-recession-california-educational-career-success-immigrant-youth.

105 Melissa Greenwood, "Family literacy: One district's approach to ELL instruction," SmartBlog on Education, February 5, 2015, available at http://smartblogs.com/education/2015/02/05/family-literacy-one-districts-approach-to-ell-instruction/.

106 Oakland Unified School District, "Community Schools, Thriving Students: A Five Year Strategic Plan" (2011), available at http://www.thrivingstudents.org/sites/default/files/Community-Schools-Thriving-Students-Strategic-Plan.pdf.

107 Personal communication from Sue Pon, administrator, Adult and Career Education, Oakland Unified School District, March 3, 2015.

108 Greenwood, "Family literacy: One district's approach to ELL instruction."

109 Narayan Sastry and Anne R. Pebley, "Family and Neighborhood Sources of Socioeconomic Inequality in Children's Achievement," *Demography* 47 (3) (2010): 777–800.

110 Personal communication from Pon.

111 Ibid.

112 Greenwood, "Family literacy: One district's approach to ELL instruction."

113 Julie Kessler, "Oakland Unified School District Case Study: Oakland International High School" (Stanford, CA: The School Redesign Network at Stanford University, 2009), available at http://qualitycommunityschools.weebly.com/uploads/4/1/6/1/41611/oakland-unified-school-district-case-study-oakland-international-high-school.pdf.

114 Internationals Network for Public Schools, "About Us," available at http://internationalsnps.org/about-us/ (last accessed April 2015).

115 Hooker, McHugh, and Fix, "Critical Choices in Post-Recession California."

116 Oakland International High School, "After School Programs & Clubs," available at http://www.oaklandinternational.org/#!after-school-programs--clubs/cxsy (last accessed April 2015).

117 Oakland International High School, "Continuing Education for Adult Learners," available at http://www.oaklandinternational.org/#!adult-education/cni9 (last accessed April 2015).

118 International Network for Public Schools, "Annual Report 2012-2013" (2013), available at http://internationalsnps.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/INPS-2012_2013_AnnualReport-FINAL-compresssed.pdf.

119 South Bay Community Services, "Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood Implementation Grant Application" (2012), available at http://www2.ed.gov/programs/promiseneighborhoods/2012/app-southbay.pdf.

120 Ibid.

121 Ibid.

122 Ibid.

123 Ibid.

124 South Bay Community Services, "Mi Escuelita Therapeutic School," available at http://www.southbaycommunityservices.org/index.php/services/90-mi-escuelita-therapeutic-preschool (last accessed April 2015).

125 Robert Moreno, "Numbers are up at Castle Park," *The Star News*, August 24, 2013, available at http://www.thestarnews.com/chula-vista/numbers-are-up-at-castle-park/#sthash.23ML5nkk.dpuf.

126 Samuel Sinyangwe, "Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood Gets Results with Innovative School Turnaround Model," Promise Neighborhoods Institute Blog, June 7, 2013, available at http://blog.promiseneighborhoodsinstitute.org/chula-vista-promise-neighborhood-gets-results-with-innovative-school-turnaround-model/.

127 Moreno, "Numbers are up at Castle Park."

128 Chula Vista Promise Neighborhood, "Promotoras," available at http://cvpromise.org/index.php/promotores (last accessed April 2015).

129 South Bay Community Services, "Results Report 2013" (2013), available at http://cvpromise.org/images/Resultsreport2013web.pdf.

130 *The Boston Globe*, "English language learners need help, not an inflexible state mandate," April 20, 2014, available at

http://www.bostonglobe.com/opinion/editorials/2014/04/19/english-language-learners-need-help-not-inflexible-immersion-mandate/5kdgJetLpPCYQH6wLiHJtM/story.html.

131 Ibid.

132 Mass 2020, "Expanded Learning Time Initiative," available at http://www.mass2020.org/elt-initiative (last accessed April 2015).

133 Melissa McKeon, "ELL spells 'success' for English-learning students," Telegram Towns, August 22, 2014, available at http://www.telegram.com/article/20140822/TOWNNEWS/308229996&TEMPLATE=TOWNPORTAL.

134 Ibid.

135 Colin A. Jones, "Beyond the Bell: Options for Increased Learning Time" (Boston: Massachusetts Budget and Policy Center, 2014), available at http://www.massbudget.org/report_window.php?loc=Beyond%20the%20Bell.html.

136 Massachusetts Department of Education, "The Gateway Cities Education Agenda" (2012), available at http://www.mass.gov/edu/docs/eoe/gateway-cities/20120904-gateway-cities-fact-sheet.pdf.

137 McKeon, "ELL spells 'success' for English-learning students."

138 Boston Public Schools, "English Language Learners," available at http://www.bostonpublicschools.org/Page/4693 (last accessed April 2015).

139 Lynne Sacks, "About Time: A Mixed-Methods Evaluation of the Massachusetts Gateway Cities Summer Academies for English Language Learners," Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 2014, available at http://gradworks.umi.com/36/62/3662080.html.

140 Ibid.

141 New Bedford Guide, "New enrichment academy aims to prepare local English Language Learners for college and career success," June 20, 2014, available at http://www.newbedfordguide.com/new-enrichment-academy/2014/06/20.

142 Ibid.

143 Ibid.

144 Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges, "I-BEST Overview," available at http://www.sbctc.ctc.edu/college/_e-ibest-overview.aspx (last accessed February 2015).

145 Ibid.

146 Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges, "Washington's Community and Technical Colleges: Integrated Basic Education and Skills Training (I-BEST)" (2012), available at http://www.sbctc.ctc.edu/college/abepds/WEB_IBESTone-pager_11.5.12.pdf.

147 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

148 Carlos Rosario International Public Charter School, "2014 Annual Report" (2014), available at http://www.joomag.com/magazine/annual-report-2013-14/0697043001422637363?short.

149 Ibid.

150 Ibid.

151 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

152 Ibid.

153 Sebastian Castrechini and Rebecca A. London, "Positive Student Outcomes in Community Schools" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2012), available at https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2012/02/pdf/positive_student_outcomes.pdf.

154 Ibid.

155 Ibid.

156 Ibid.

157 Samson and Collins, "Preparing All Teachers to Meet the Needs of English Language Learners."

158 Melissa Lazarín, "A Race Against the Clock: The Value of Expanded Learning Time for English Language Learners" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2008), available at https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2008/12/pdf/ell.pdf.

159 Ibid.

160 Hooker, McHugh, and Fix, "Critical Choices in Post-Recession California."

161 Lazarín, "A Race Against the Clock."

162 Ibid.

163 Ibid.

164 Ibid.

165 Castrechini and London, "Positive Student Outcomes in Community Schools."

166 Park and McHugh, "Immigrant Parents and Early Childhood Programs."

167 Wilson, "Investing in English Skills."

168 Tia Elena Martinez with Ted Wang, "Supporting English language acquisition: opportunities for foundations to strengthen the social and economic well-being of immigrant families: a briefing paper" (Baltimore and Sebastopol, CA: Annie E. Casey Foundation and Grantmakers Concerned with Immigrants and Refugees, 2006), available at http://www.voced.edu.au/content/ngv25735; Lennox McLendon, Debra Jones, and Mitch Rosin, "The Return on Investment (ROI) from Adult Education and Training" (New York: McGraw-Hill Research Foundation, 2011), available at http://www.mcgraw-hillresearchfoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/the-return-on-investment-from-adult-education-and-training.pdf.

169 Email from U.S. Department of Education to Brian Halstead, "Guidance from the Departments of Education and Justice on Equitable Educational Access for English Learner Students," June 7, 2015, available at http://www.education.ne.gov/natlorigin/ESL%20Federal/Guidance%20from%20Dept%20of%20Education%20and%20Justice%20on%20Equitable%20Education%20Access%20for%20English%20Language%20Learners.pdf.

170 Samson and Collins, "Preparing All Teachers to Meet the Needs of English Language Learners."

171 Ibid.

172 Jenny Brundin, "Denver's English-language learners make strong gains in mastery tests," Colorado Public Radio, May 30, 2014, available at http://www.cpr.org/news/story/denver-s-english-language-learners-make-strong-gains-mastery-tests#sthash.FnTbzXZ2.dpuf.

173 Ibid.

174 Yesenia Robles, "Denver teachers learning to reach English language learners," *The Denver Post*, October 26, 2014, available at

http://www.denverpost.com/news/ci_26799285/denver-teachers-learning-reach-english-language-learners.

175 Samson and Collins, "Preparing All Teachers to Meet the Needs of English Language Learners."

Our Mission

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

Our Values

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

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

Our Approach

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

Center for American Progress

1333 H STREET, NW, 10TH FLOOR, WASHINGTON, DC 20005 • TEL: 202-682-1611 • FAX: 202-682-1867 • WWW.AMERICANPROGRESS.ORG