GROWING SUPERDIVERSITY AMONG YOUNG U.S. DUAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

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February 2018

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Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to the Heising-Simons Foundation for their generous support of this research. This report is one in a series of three reports that explore the implications of superdiverse contexts for early childhood education and care (ECEC) programs and systems.

The authors also extend their thanks to Migration Policy Institute (MPI) colleagues Lauren Shaw, for her edits and advice, and Margie McHugh and Julie Sugarman for their comments and review. Finally, the authors wish to acknowledge Caitlin Katsiaficas and Anna O'Toole for their valuable research assistance and Sara Staedicke for the report's layout and design.

Cover Design and Layout: Sara Staedicke, MPI

Cover Photo: Seattle Parks and Recreation

Suggested citation: Park, Maki, Jie Zong, and Jeanne Batalova. 2018. *Growing Superdiversity among Young U.S. Dual Language Learners and Its Implications*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.

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Executive Summary

Diversity is on the rise across the United States, where Dual Language Learners (DLLs)—young children who have at least one parent who speaks a language other than English in the home—now make up nearly one-third of all young children between the ages of 0 and 8. Far from a homogenous group, differences within the DLL population are both considerable and increasing. Their families speak many different languages, identify with many races and ethnicities, and have widely varied countries of origin, socioeconomic statuses, levels of education, and migration histories—all important characteristics that influence DLL children's development. This superdiversity has important implications for early childhood education and care (ECEC) programs, schools, and other systems that face the challenge of building the capacity to effectively serve children with unique learning strengths and needs.

A strong research base demonstrates the benefits of bilingual education models in supporting DLLs' academic development. However, in superdiverse pre-K through grade 3 classrooms where no single non-English language is dominant, it may be impossible to implement such models. Much less is known about what works when serving DLLs in classrooms where multiple languages and cultures are represented.

This superdiversity has important implications for early childhood education and care (ECEC) programs, schools, and other systems.

Drawing on analysis of data from the U.S. Census Bureau's 2011–15 American Community Survey (ACS) and the 2000 decennial census, this report builds a portrait of the DLL population nationwide before delving into an exploration of diversity within it and at the state and local level. In doing so, the report sheds light on the demographic reality and related challenges that service providers encounter when serving the nation's youngest learners.

A. DLLs in the United States: Diversity across the Board and within Growing Subgroups

The DLL population in the United States has grown rapidly between 2000 and 2011–15, driving the net growth of the U.S. young child population at a time when the number of non-DLL children declined. This DLL population growth is also evident in all but a few states,[1] and DLLs now account for one-quarter or more of all young children in 19 states and the District of Columbia.

The DLL population exhibits diversity across a number of characteristics, including:

- ***Race and ethnicity.*** 62 percent of DLL children are Hispanic, 16 percent are White, 15 percent are Asian, 6 percent are Black, and 1 percent are American Indian.
- ***Countries of origin.*** 65 percent of parents of DLLs are immigrants, and an overwhelming majority of DLLs (95 percent) are U.S. born. Among the top countries of origin for DLLs' parents are Mexico (41 percent), India (7percent), El Salvador (4 percent), and China and the Philippines (3 percent each). Shifting migration trends, including a slow-down in migration from Mexico and increases in the number of arrivals from Asia and Africa, hint at changes that are likely to emerge in the coming years.

1 The Dual Language Learner (DLL) population declined slightly between 2000 and 2011–15 in Arizona, Maine, Montana, New Mexico, and West Virginia.

- ***Languages spoken.*** Spanish is by far the most prevalent language spoken in DLLs' households and is spoken by about 60 percent of parents of DLLs. Chinese is the second most common nationwide (spoken by 3 percent of DLLs' parents), followed by Tagalog, Vietnamese, and Arabic (spoken by 2 percent of parents each). As with countries of origin, these shares are likely to continue to shift; recently arrived DLL parents are less likely than the national average to speak Spanish, and other languages, such as Arabic, Hindi, Telugu, Tamil, and Kru are on the rise.

The families of DLLs also differ from those of their non-DLL peers in a number of ways, including several risk factors that can affect child wellbeing and make this group an important target for programs and services.

- ***Family income.*** Overall, DLLs are significantly more likely to live in poverty, with 31 percent living in families with incomes below the federal poverty level (FPL) compared to 22 percent of non-DLL children.
- ***Parental educational attainment.*** DLL parents are more likely to have lower levels of education compared to non-DLL parents, with 26 percent holding less than a high school diploma compared with 6 percent of parents of non-DLLs.
- ***Family structure.*** Overall, DLLs are more likely to live in two-parent families (77 percent) than non-DLL children (69 percent), which can act as a protective factor for this group since two-parent families are more likely to have higher incomes than one-parent families and to have more resources for child care and supervision.
- ***Linguistic isolation and limited English proficiency.*** 24 percent of DLL children live in linguistically isolated households, where all members of the family speak English less than very well. These DLLs may, as a result, have more limited access to educational, medical, and other critical services.

While these figures paint a portrait of the DLL population overall, they often mask considerable variation between highly diverse DLL subgroups. A closer look at three rapidly growing groups—Asian American and Pacific Islander DLLs (who represent 16 percent of the DLL population overall), Black DLLs (8 percent), and young children of refugees (for whom less data is available)—hint at the diversity of needs and backgrounds schools and ECEC service providers in many communities already encounter within the young child population.

1. Asian American and Pacific Islander DLLs

Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (AAPI) have been the fastest growing racial group in the United States since 2000 and are projected to become the largest immigrant group in the country by 2055. While AAPIs fare well in aggregate along several indicators of socioeconomic wellbeing, this group is highly diverse and encompasses high-skilled workers from India and China as well as refugees from South and Southeast Asia who are much more likely to experience poverty, low levels of English proficiency, and limited educational attainment.

Compared to the DLL population overall, the AAPI DLLs exhibit much higher levels of linguistic diversity, with many parents speaking less common languages. This linguistic diversity has grown over time, with a smaller proportion of AAPI parents speaking one of the top ten languages for the group in 2011–15 than in 2000. Currently, the top languages spoken in AAPI DLL households are Chinese (17 percent), Vietnamese (10 percent), Tagalog (10 percent), English only (8 percent), Hindi (7 percent), and Korean (6 percent). For parents who speak these and other languages with even fewer speakers, translated materials and resources may be unavailable, raising concerns about their ability to access ECEC and other services. And within the overall AAPI DLL population, several smaller groups (e.g., refugees from Myanmar and Bhutan) may face even more significant barriers to academic success, including high rates of poverty and lower parental educational attainment.

2. Black DLLs

The number of Black immigrants arriving in the United States has also increased substantially over the past two decades, and the number of children in Black immigrant families has nearly doubled during this period. Among the foreign-born parents of these children, most of whom come from African and Caribbean countries, there is a similarly high level of diversity. Black African immigrants fare well in the United States overall, with high levels of education and college completion and earnings on par with the U.S. average, though recent arrivals from refugee-source countries (e.g., Somalia and Sudan) tend to have lower economic outcomes. Black Caribbean immigrants also tend to have relatively high earnings, due in part to their overall high English skills and despite lower levels of education.

As with the AAPI DLL population, Black DLLs exhibit high and growing levels of linguistic diversity. As of 2011–15, the top languages spoken among parents of Black DLLs were Spanish (28 percent), English only (15 percent), French or Haitian Creole (14 percent), Kru (9 percent), French (8 percent), and Ethiopian languages (5 percent). As the Black DLL population continues to diversify in terms of languages spoken and countries and cultures of origin, this shift will have important implications not only for programs and policies that target DLLs, but also for those that serve the Black child population in the United States.

3. Young Children of Refugees

Young children in refugee families may face additional, unique risk factors compared with other DLL children. In many cases, their families have fled persecution and violence, have lived in refugee camps for years prior to resettlement, and arrived in the United States with limited or no social networks and economic resources. Most refugees speak a language other than English, and almost all of their children are therefore DLLs. The Migration Policy Institute (MPI) estimates that as of 2009–13, approximately 774,000 children in the United States had at least one refugee parent.

Because many refugees belong to ethnic and/or religious minority groups within their countries of origin, there is an even wider variety of infrequently spoken languages.

The refugee population in the United States has become increasingly diverse since the launch of the U.S. resettlement program in 1980. While refugees were resettled from 11 nationalities in this first year of the program, the United States resettled refugees from 110 countries between 2008 and 2017. As a result, children of refugees come from increasingly diverse linguistic backgrounds. Among refugees resettled in the past ten years, the most commonly spoken languages were Arabic (21 percent), Nepali (14 percent), Somali (8 percent), S'gaw Karen (7 percent), and Spanish (5 percent). Because many refugees belong to ethnic and/or religious minority groups within their countries of origin, there is an even wider variety of infrequently spoken languages. For example, 74 native languages were reported among the 150,874 refugees resettled from Myanmar between fiscal year (FY) 2008 and FY 2017, and 32 of these had fewer than 50 speakers within this group. This staggering level of diversity points to a need for inclusive and thoughtful approaches to the design of ECEC programs and education systems more broadly.

B. Superdiversity across States

In addition to variation between and within DLL subgroups at the national level, viewing the DLL population through a state-level lens brings to light additional variation across the country. Because ECEC and broader education systems and policies are generally designed and implemented at the state and local level, understanding localized diversity within this population is key to good program and instructional design. To gauge local superdiversity, linguistic diversity is a particularly useful proxy as

it often intersects with a range of other forms of diversity (e.g., race and ethnicity, country of origin, or immigration status).

While Spanish is the dominant language spoken by parents of DLLs nationwide and in most states, the Spanish-speaking share of parents relative to other top languages varies significantly by state—from 78 percent in Texas and 71 percent each in New Mexico and Arizona to as little as 16 percent in Vermont and Maine. The percentage of parents who speak another top language also varies significantly by state, as do the top languages themselves. Beyond Spanish, several other languages are represented in high numbers across states. Chinese, for example, is the second most commonly spoken language among parents of DLLs in ten states, including California and New York. Arabic, meanwhile, is the second most frequently spoken language in four states, including Michigan and Virginia, while Hmong is the second most commonly spoken language in Minnesota and Wisconsin.

Early learning programs will need to develop practical strategies and solutions to respond to both present and future classroom diversity.

Looking beyond the state level, linguistic diversity is often the most pronounced at local levels. Many states that do not appear to be very diverse may still contain counties that are experiencing superdiversity. As language composition and diversity across states and counties continue to change with shifting immigration trends, early learning programs will need to develop practical strategies and solutions to respond to both present and future classroom diversity.

C. Implications for Policy and Practice

The considerable and growing diversity of DLL populations in many U.S. communities has important implications for ECEC program and systems design across the birth through age-8 continuum. While much research remains to be done to better understand how to best serve different groups of DLLs and their families, several key program and policy implications stand out from this analysis:

- ***Data on DLLs and their language backgrounds should be collected at the state level.*** As a result of uneven data collection across early childhood programs, DLLs are often invisible in state ECEC systems until they enter K-12 schooling. At a minimum, information about DLLs and their home languages should be available across systems to ensure that they are visible to policymakers and program administrators.
- ***There is a pressing demand for research to develop effective instructional approaches for superdiverse classrooms and to identify the skills and competences educators need to support them.*** Much of the existing research on effective pedagogical methods and curriculum models for DLLs assumes the presence of a majority-minority language, which would allow for the implementation of bilingual or dual language programs. However, in the absence of a prominent minority language, such as Spanish, and in instances where it is not possible to hire staff members who share the languages and cultures of students in the classrooms, such models are often infeasible.
- ***The ECEC workforce urgently needs linguistic and cultural skills and diversity.*** While the ECEC workforce is relatively diverse compared to the K-12 teaching force, much of this diversity is concentrated in informal or unregulated sectors, likely due in large part to lower levels of education and English proficiency. Efforts to professionalize the ECEC field through, for example, mandatory participation in Quality Rating and Improvement Systems (QRIS) may also force diverse providers who offer trusted family or home-based child care for many immigrant groups

to close their doors. Such efforts would do well to include a focus on supporting and retaining diverse providers to ensure that improving the quality of care and the status of the ECEC workforce overall does not further limit the services available to DLL children.

- ***Assessment instruments and methods should take into account the learning needs and strengths of DLLs, and particularly speakers of low-incidence minority languages.*** As kindergarten entry or readiness assessments gain prominence as tools to guide ECEC program improvement, it is critical that the assessment instruments and evaluation methods are valid for DLLs with different home languages. In the absence of mechanisms to accurately assess the needs of DLLs, program development and improvement efforts will likely fail to recognize or will misunderstand the diverse needs of such children.
- ***Schools and ECEC programs should identify and implement family engagement strategies to communicate and partner successfully with parents of DLLs.*** Successfully engaging and partnering with families is a critical means of supporting young children in their early learning. DLLs may benefit disproportionately from efforts to bridge the divide between home and school environments, yet their parents are also more likely to find it challenging to engage, whether due to language and culture barriers, irregular work schedules, or other obstacles. Programs can help dismantle these barriers by, at a minimum, including translated materials and interpretation in outreach efforts.
- ***Expanded language-access provisions, including increased translation and interpretation capacity, are needed across ECEC and other systems.*** Improving language-access provisions across ECEC and human service agencies would help ensure families of DLLs are able to participate in available early childhood services, from child care subsidies to Head Start and state pre-K programs. Because providing even basic translation and interpretation can be challenging for smaller programs, state and local governments can play a coordinating role by ensuring that individual programs need not reinvent the wheel when sought-after materials are available elsewhere. The federal government could also assist by, for example, having regional health and human service offices of the Office of Refugee Resettlement establish a center for translation and interpretation for low-incidence languages.

At a time when DLL children are speaking a far more diverse range of languages, many communities across the United States are experiencing classroom superdiversity with little to no guidance on effective practices for promoting their cognitive and socioemotional development. As this diversity continues to grow and shift, ECEC systems and programs will need to build strategies to effectively meet the learning needs of these children and support their parents in doing the same.

I. Introduction

Across the United States, nearly one-third of all young children (ages 0 to 8) are growing up with exposure to more than one language at home and in the classroom. This Dual Language Learner (DLL) population[2] has grown substantially in recent years, increasing by 24 percent since 2000,[3] and the young children that comprise it are an increasingly diverse group, representing a wide range of languages and cultures. This "diversification of diversity"—often referred to as "superdiversity"—within the young child population has important implications for schools and early childhood programs, as children from different DLL subgroups demonstrate unique risk factors and strengths that shape their learning needs.

2 DLLs are young children under the age of 8 who have at least one parent who speaks a language other than English. Migration Policy Institute (MPI) research focuses on the languages spoken by the parents of young children, rather than those spoken by the children themselves, because the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey (ACS) only collects language data about respondents over the age of five. ACS respondents are asked to self-report which languages they speak, but not the extent of their knowledge of languages other than English.

3 MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Considerable research has demonstrated the benefits of bilingual education as the ideal method for supporting DLLs' academic development.[4] However, in an increasing number of communities across the United States, the sheer diversity of languages spoken by families with young children makes providing bilingual education to all DLLs an unrealistic and unattainable goal. Yet little research to date has focused on effective approaches for multilingual and multicultural early childhood classrooms and programs. And while some educational programs and systems now have practices in place to support Spanish-speaking children, similar provisions for speakers of other, less commonly spoken minority languages are rare, making such services even less accessible for a substantial proportion of DLLs and their families. Given the growth of the DLL population and this dearth of evidence on what works in superdiverse classrooms, there is an urgent need to develop concrete strategies for ensuring that all DLLs have, at minimum, an equitable opportunity to have their early learning needs met.

Little research to date has focused on effective approaches for multilingual and multicultural early childhood classrooms and programs.

This report seeks to improve understanding of the heterogeneity of the U.S. young child population by exploring the diversity within the DLL population. It begins by examining key characteristics of DLLs and diversity within this population as a whole, then offers a deeper look at three understudied subpopulations: Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI) DLLs, Black DLLs, and young children of refugees. Next, the report analyzes the prevalence and growth of linguistic diversity in states and counties across the United States. It concludes with a discussion of the policy implications of the growing diversity within the DLL population.

II. What Is Superdiversity and How Is It Measured?

First introduced in 2007 in the British context,[5] the term "superdiversity" has since spread and its meaning evolved in the process. It is frequently used to describe diversity both between immigrant and ethnic minority groups as well as within these groups, denoting the idea of "the diversification of diversity."[6] The concept also promotes the idea that diversity is more than a question of ethnicity alone.

For the purposes of this report, superdiversity is used to describe the diversification of communities in the United States along several dimensions, including languages spoken, race and ethnicity, countries of origin, socioeconomic status, levels of education, and modes of arrival or migration history. While the report initially analyzes the DLL population in terms of a number of these indicators, in some sections it shifts to focus on linguistic diversity as a primary proxy for superdiversity within communities. The U.S. Census Bureau reported that at least 350 languages, including multiple indigenous languages, were spoken in the United States in 2015, hinting at the richness of the linguistic diversity in homes and communities across the country.[7] This metric is also of crucial importance to localities and service providers as linguistic diversity and increasing multilingualism have direct and tangible implications for K-12 schools and early childhood education and care (ECEC) programs and systems, which face the challenge of building the instructional and logistical capacity to effectively serve young children and families who speak languages other than English.

4 Ilana Umansky and Sean F. Reardon, "Reclassification Patterns among Latino English Learner Students in Bilingual, Dual Immersion, and English Immersion Classrooms," *American Educational Research Journal* 51, no. 5 (2014): 1–34.
5 Steven Vertovec, "Super-Diversity and Its Implications," *The Journal of Ethnic and Racial Studies* 30, no. 6 (2007): 1024–54.
6 David Hollinger, *Postethnic America: Beyond Multiculturalism* (New York: Basic Books, 1995).
7 U.S. Census Bureau, "Census Bureau Reports at Least 350 Languages Spoke in U.S. Households" (press release, November 3, 2015), www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2015/cb15-185.html.

A. *Using Census Data to Explore Superdiversity*

With a wide range of factors to consider, this report analyzes data from the U.S. Census Bureau's annual American Community Survey (ACS) and the 2000 decennial census to describe the demographic, social, and family background characteristics of DLL children (see Box 1). These data also shed light on these children's home learning and linguistic environments (including parental education and English proficiency levels) and family income, factors that may affect future educational outcomes for this group. Because this research aims to explore superdiversity not only at the national but also the state and local (county) levels, Migration Policy Institute (MPI) researchers have combined five years of ACS data (2011 to 2015) to boost the sample size and, in doing so, ensure the precision of the estimates presented here.

Box 1. Strengths and Limitations of ACS Data

The American Community Survey (ACS) is based on a large, representative sample and collects a significant amount of detailed data about U.S. families, including languages spoken at home. However, ACS data also have limitations when it comes to examining diversity, whether linguistic, cultural, or in terms of nativity. A few of these include:

1. Undercounted Populations

- ***Unauthorized immigrants.*** Approximately 5 million children under age 18 reside in families with at least one unauthorized parent. Research shows that children with unauthorized parents may struggle in school due to poverty, residential segregation, and fear of immigration enforcement. Such children are likely to have different educational and linguistic needs compared to children with U.S.-citizen or legally present parents. Because ACS is a government survey, unauthorized immigrants are less likely to participate, meaning ACS data likely undercount the number and characteristics of children in unauthorized families.

- ***Speakers of less common languages.*** To collect information from survey respondents who do not speak English, ACS provides translations and bilingual interviews in more than 30 languages, including Spanish, Portuguese, Chinese, and Russian. However, speakers of less common languages for which translation is unavailable are less likely to participate if they do not also speak English.

2. Refugee Status. The ACS questionnaire does not ask foreign-born respondents about their visa or legal status, making it impossible to identify which hold refugee status. Refugees are a particularly important group for discussions of superdiversity as many come from linguistically diverse communities in Africa and Asia and speak languages other than those considered official by their countries of origin.

3. Lack of Important Details for Specific Subgroups

- ***Arab Americans.*** Persons who trace their origins to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region come from more than twenty countries and a variety of cultural backgrounds. Yet because many do not see themselves in the race/ethnicity categories Census Bureau questionnaires offer, Arab Americans are significantly undercounted. There was a push to include a distinct MENA category in the upcoming 2020 decennial census, however, the proposed change has since been dropped.

- ***Children of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (AAPI) and Black immigrant parents.*** The AAPI category commonly used in government reporting includes both large groups, such as Chinese and Filipinos, and small groups, such as Marshallese and Bhutanese. Likewise, the Black immigrant population in the United States includes individuals from a wide range of African and Caribbean countries. Both AAPI and Black immigrant-origin populations are extremely diverse in terms of origins, languages, socioeconomic background, size of the community, and patterns of integration. But often the data are not detailed enough to allow examination of the barriers that different subgroups face and to target resources to these diverse communities.

Source: Paul Overberg, "Census Change to Race, Ethnicity Questions Shelved by Trump Administration Delay," *The Wall Street Journal*, January 30, 2018, www.wsj.com/articles/census-change-to-race-ethnicity-questions-shelved-by-trump-administration-delay-1517262931.

B. Who Are Dual Language Learners?

DLLs are children who start learning a second language (English) while they are still acquiring their first (home or heritage) language.[8] In practice, defining and quantifying this population is challenging. Depending on the linguistic background and practices of their families, DLLs may be exposed to either low or significant levels of English, home, and sometimes additional languages. For instance, parents and grandparents may speak one language with each other, a different language with children, and English with school staff. While the ideal data source would capture these rich language dynamics within families with young children, such data are unavailable in aggregate at the national level.[9]

The ACS collects data on whether respondents (and everyone else in their households) speak a language other than English at home. Drawing on this information, MPI researchers take an inclusive approach and define DLLs as all children living in a household where at least one parent (or the householder, if neither parent is present) speaks a language other than English. This approach is based on the assumption that these children have at least some exposure to English as well as a non-English language in their formative years. This early exposure to two or more languages brings with it the possibility that these young children could, with the proper support, develop as bilingual or multilingual individuals, and it has direct implications for their cognitive and socioemotional development.

III. A Portrait of DLLs and their Diversity

An analysis of the DLL population in the United States shows rapid growth of this population both nationally and in almost all states in recent years. Largely as a result of shifting immigrant and refugee settlement patterns, DLLs now make up a substantial proportion of young children not only in traditional destinations for immigrants, such as California and New York, but across the country. In some communities, educators and public service providers may have little prior experience serving DLLs. The growth and incredible diversity of this population, detailed in the subsections that follow, pose an important question for ECEC systems and schools nationwide: how to serve all young children in a way that best prepares them for kindergarten entry and future academic success.

A. Size and Growth of the DLL Population Nationwide

More than 11.5 million U.S. children between ages 0 and 8 are DLLs, according to the 2011–15 ACS, accounting for almost one-third of the 36.3 million children in that age range, up from one-quarter in 2000. More than 70 percent of DLLs had at least one foreign-born parent, compared to 4 percent among non-DLL children.[10] Given the fact that the overwhelming majority of DLLs (95 percent) are U.S. born, the federal and local resources invested in their education, language development, and socioemotional wellbeing represent an important investment in future U.S. students and workers.

The number of DLLs in the United States has also grown since 2000, up by 24 percent, and is likely to continue to grow due to high fertility rates among immigrant populations.[11] In contrast, the number of non-DLL children declined by about 5 percent during this same time period (from 26 million in 2000 to 24.8 million in 2011–15). This means that the growth of the overall young child population between 2000 and the 2011–15 period occurred exclusively due to DLL population growth.

8 Keira Gebbie Ballantyne, Alicia Sanderman, and Nicole McLaughlin, *Dual Language Learners in the Early Years: Getting Ready to Succeed in School* (Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008), https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED512635.

9 Ibid.

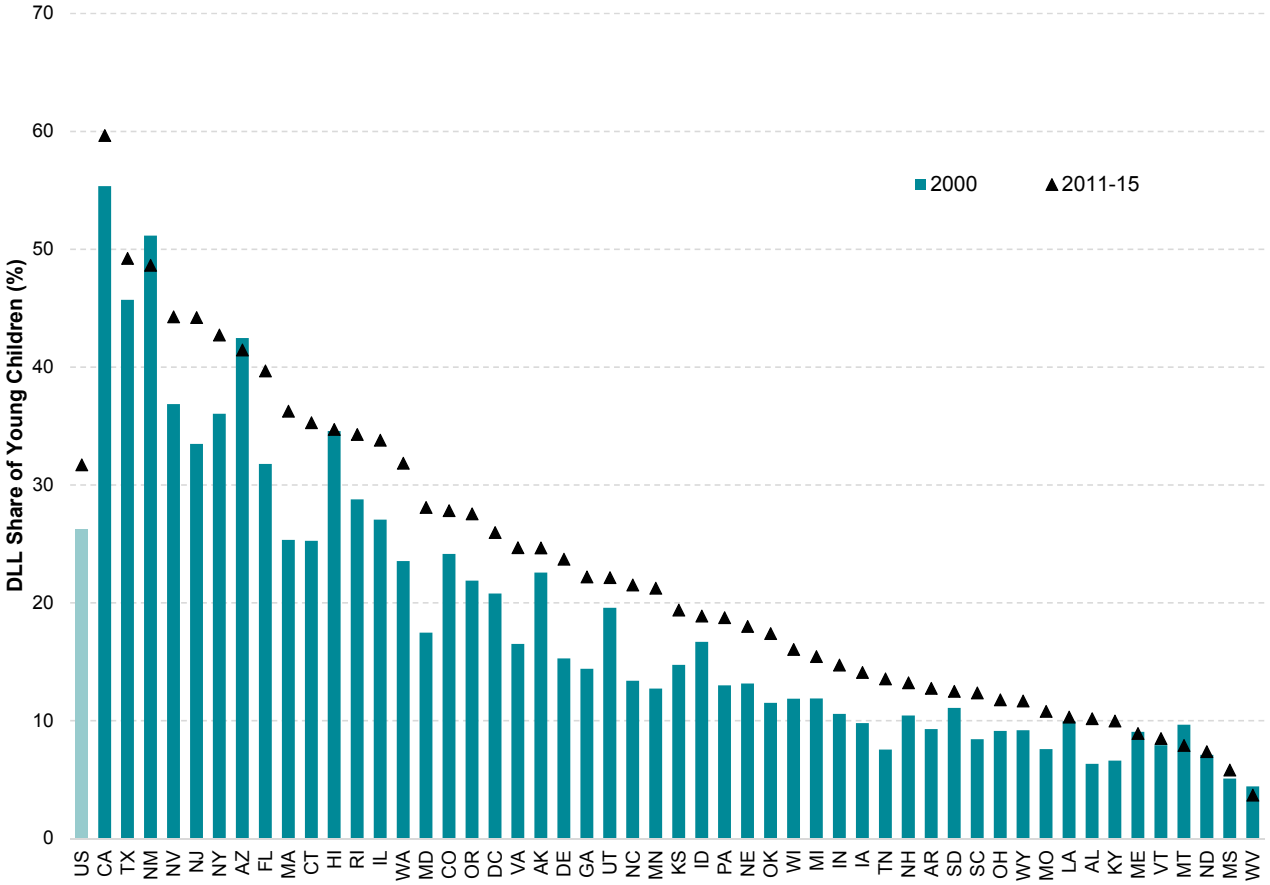
10 See Appendix A for a detailed profile of the sociodemographic characteristics and family backgrounds of DLL and non-DLL children.

11 Gretchen Livingston, *5 Facts about Immigrant Mothers and U.S. Fertility Trends* (Washington, DC: Pew Research Center, 2016), www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2016/10/26/5-facts-about-immigrant-mothers-and-u-s-fertility-trends/.

B. Growing DLL Presence at the State Level

While DLLs have long made up a sizeable share of the young child population in some states and a more modest share in others, most states have seen this population grow over time. The DLL share of young children increased in all but five states[12] across the country between 2000 and 2011–15, with the biggest gains (10–11 percentage points) occurring in Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maryland, and Connecticut (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. DLL Share of Young Children (ages 0 to 8), Nationwide and by State, 2000 and 2011–15



Source: Migration Policy Institute (MPI) analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data from the 2000 decennial census and pooled 2011–15 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

In 19 states and the District of Columbia, DLL children accounted for about one-quarter or more of all young children. These states include not only those with numerically large DLL populations (e.g., California, Texas, and New York), but also those with relatively small overall child populations, such as Rhode Island, Alaska, and the District of Columbia (see Table 1).

12 The DLL population declined slightly between 2000 and 2011–15 in New Mexico (by 2.5 percentage points), Arizona (by 1 percentage point), Montana (by 2 percentage points), and Maine and West Virginia (by less than 1 percentage point each).

Table 1. Top States by DLL Share of the Young Child Population, 2011–15

	Total Children	DLL Children	State Share of All DLLs in the Country (%)	DLL Share of All Children in the State (%)
United States	**36,261,900**	**11,495,600**	**100.0**	**31.7**
California	4,541,000	2,708,600	23.6	59.6
Texas	3,553,300	1,749,100	15.2	49.2
New Mexico	251,900	122,500	1.1	48.6
Nevada	331,000	146,500	1.3	44.3
New Jersey	973,600	430,300	3.7	44.2
New York	2,091,900	893,300	7.8	42.7
Arizona	798,400	330,900	2.9	41.4
Florida	1,969,800	781,300	6.8	39.7
Massachusetts	663,500	240,500	2.1	36.2
Connecticut	360,000	127,000	1.1	35.3
Hawaii	157,300	54,600	0.5	34.7
Rhode Island	102,100	35,000	0.3	34.3
Illinois	1,465,400	495,100	4.3	33.8
Washington	798,600	254,200	2.2	31.8
Maryland	667,100	187,400	1.6	28.1
Colorado	618,100	171,800	1.5	27.8
Oregon	423,600	116,600	1.0	27.5
District of Columbia	64,400	16,700	0.1	26.0
Virginia	926,200	228,400	2.0	24.7
Alaska	95,900	23,600	0.2	24.6

Note: Data are shown for all states in which approximately one-quarter or more of the young child population are DLLs.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

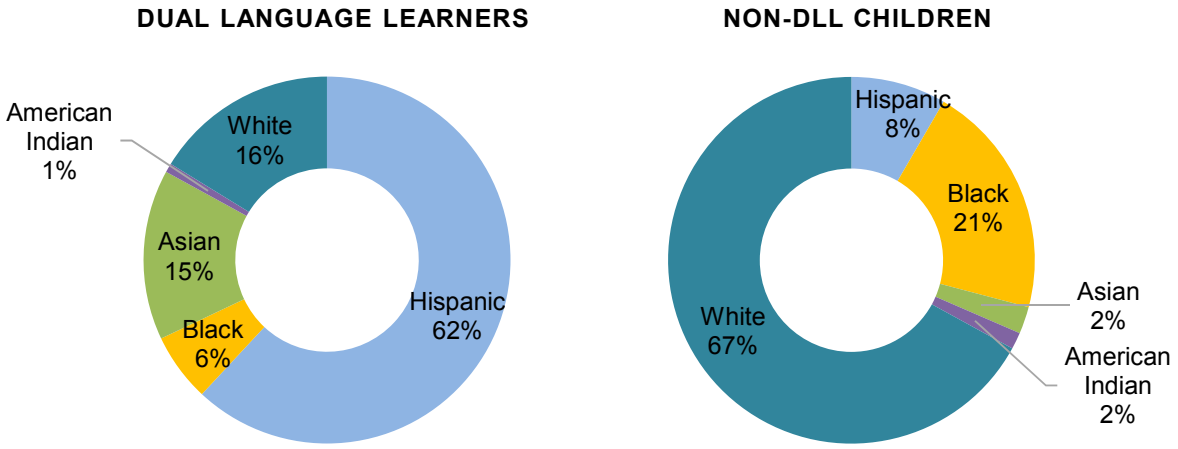
C. *Multifaceted Diversity within the DLL Population*

Far from being a homogeneous group, the DLL population represents diverse backgrounds along a number of dimensions, including race and ethnicity, countries of origin, languages spoken, family characteristics, and socioeconomic status—all of which may affect the early learning experiences of young children.

1. Race and Ethnicity

The racial and ethnic distribution of young children differs significantly between DLLs and non-DLLs. More than 60 percent of DLL children are Hispanic, with Asian and Black children representing the next two largest groups (15 percent and 6 percent, respectively) (see Figure 2). The non-DLL population, by comparison, is significantly more White (67 percent, versus 16 percent among DLLs).

Figure 2. Race and Ethnicity of DLL and Non-DLL Children (ages 0 to 8), 2011–15



Notes: In this figure, the categories "American Indian," "Asian," "Black," and "White" refer to children who are not Hispanic. "White" includes a small number of children whose race was recorded as "other." "Asian" includes children whose race was recorded as "Pacific Islander."
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

2. Parental Countries of Origin

Many DLLs have at least one immigrant parent, and some are immigrants themselves. Of the 12.8 million parents of DLL children nationwide, 65 percent are immigrants. More than one-quarter of these 8.3 million immigrant parents are newcomers to the United States, meaning they arrived within the last decade (see Appendix B).

Indian, Chinese, and other Asian-born parents make up large shares of the immigrant parents who have arrived in the United States in the past ten years.

The predominance of Hispanic and Asian children among the DLL population is not surprising given the significant shift in the composition of immigration to the country following major changes to U.S. immigration law in 1965; with the elimination of national-origin quotas that strongly favored immigrants from Northwestern Europe, arrivals have become more diverse and now include significant shares of immigrants from Latin American, Asian, and African countries.[13] MPI analysis shows that almost 80 percent of the 8.3 million immigrant parents of DLLs came from 20 countries, most of which are in Latin America and Asia. Parents from Mexico made up the largest share (with 41 percent), followed by those from India (7 percent), El Salvador (4 percent), and China and the Philippines (3 percent each) to round out the top five (see Table 2, left panel). Another shift in immigration patterns has occurred more recently, with migration from Mexico declining and the number of immigrants from India and China (as well as some other countries in Asia and Africa) rising since 2010.[14] This shift has yet to be fully reflected among the DLL population overall, though Indian, Chinese, and other Asian-born parents make up large shares of the immigrant parents who have arrived in the United States in the past ten years (see Table 2, right panel).

13 Jie Zong and Jeanne Batalova, "Frequently Requested Statistics on Immigrants and Immigration in the United States," *Migration Information Source*, March 8, 2017, www.migrationpolicy.org/article/frequently-requested-statistics-immigrants-and-immigration-united-states.
14 Ibid.

Table 2. Top Countries of Origin of All and Recently Arrived* Immigrant Parents, 2011–15

All Immigrant Parents		Recently Arrived Immigrant Parents	
Number of Parents	**8,263,000**	**Number of Parents**	**2,311,000**
Mexico	40.8%	Mexico	28.6%
India	6.9%	India	11.8%
El Salvador	4.1%	China	4.1%
China	3.3%	Philippines	3.6%
Philippines	3.0%	El Salvador	3.4%
Vietnam	2.9%	Guatemala	3.0%
Guatemala	2.8%	Dominican Republic	2.2%
Dominican Republic	2.1%	Honduras	2.1%
Honduras	1.8%	Korea	2.1%
Korea	1.6%	Vietnam	1.9%
Cuba	1.4%	Cuba	1.8%
Haiti	1.4%	Haiti	1.4%
Colombia	1.2%	Japan	1.2%
Ecuador	1.1%	Brazil	1.2%
Pakistan	1.0%	Pakistan	1.2%
Peru	0.9%	Myanmar (Burma)	1.2%
Brazil	0.9%	Colombia	1.1%
Poland	0.8%	Iraq	1.1%
Ukraine	0.7%	Nigeria	1.0%
Bangladesh	0.6%	Bangladesh	0.9%

* "Recently arrived" refer to immigrants who had resided in the United States for fewer than ten years at the time they completed the ACS.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

3. Languages Spoken in DLLs' Homes

The language DLL children are exposed to at home reflect the increasing diversity of their parents' origins. In DLLs' homes, almost one in ten parents speak English only (see Table 3, left panel). Spanish, however, is by far the most prevalent household language, and is spoken by about 60 percent of parents of DLLs nationally. Chinese is spoken by about 3 percent of DLLs' parents. The next largest language groups were Tagalog, Vietnamese, and Arabic, which are spoken by about 2 percent (each) of parents of DLLs. Data on languages spoken by parents who arrived in the United States in the past decade show a higher level of linguistic diversity (see Table 3, right panel). The proportion of Spanish speakers is much lower among these recent arrivals (46 percent) compared to the overall parent population (59 percent), and the proportions of speakers of other languages—for example, Arabic, Hindi, Telugu, Tamil, and Kru—are significantly higher. Linguistic diversity among DLL families is even more pronounced at state and local levels, as will be discussed in Section V.

Table 3. Top Languages Spoken by All Parents of DLLs and by Recently Arrived* Immigrant Parents of DLLs, 2011–15

All U.S.-Born and Immigrant Parents of DLLs		Recently Arrived Immigrant Parents of DLLs	
Number of parents	**12,755,000**	**Number of parents**	**2,311,000**
Spanish	59.0%	Spanish	46.2%
English	9.2%	Chinese	4.9%
Chinese	3.3%	Arabic	4.0%
Tagalog	1.9%	Hindi	3.4%
Vietnamese	1.9%	Tagalog	3.3%
Arabic	1.9%	Telugu	2.6%
Hindi	1.4%	Korean	2.1%
French	1.3%	Tamil	1.9%
German	1.2%	French	1.9%
Korean	1.1%	Vietnamese	1.8%
Russian	1.1%	Russian	1.7%
French or Haitian Creole	1.1%	Kru	1.4%
Portuguese	0.9%	French or Haitian Creole	1.4%
Telugu	0.9%	Portuguese	1.3%
Urdu	0.8%	Urdu	1.3%
Kru	0.7%	English	1.2%
Tamil	0.6%	Japanese	1.2%
Polish	0.6%	Bengali	1.2%
Japanese	0.5%	Nepali	1.1%
Bengali	0.5%	Ethiopian	0.9%

* "Recently arrived" refer to immigrants who had resided in the United States for fewer than ten years at the time they completed the ACS.
Notes: Chinese includes Cantonese, Mandarin, and other Chinese languages. Ethiopian includes Amharic and other Ethiopian languages. French includes Patois and Cajun. German includes Pennsylvania Dutch.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

4. Pre-K Enrollment

Language acquisition represents a critical aspect of early childhood development, and the increasing diversity in home language environments has implications for the support these children are likely to receive in learning both English and their home languages. High-quality early learning opportunities increase the likelihood that DLLs will be prepared to start learning academic content as they enter kindergarten and to keep pace with their peers throughout their educational careers. Children from multilingual backgrounds stand to benefit disproportionately from high-quality learning environments compared to their monolingual, English-speaking peers,[15] marking the importance of access to ECEC services for this group.

15 Linda M. Espinosa, *Early Education for Dual Language Learners: Promoting School Readiness and Early School Success* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2013), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/early-education-dual-language-learners-promoting-school-readiness-and-early-school-success.

However, ACS data show that DLL children (ages 3 to 4) were less likely than their non-DLL counterparts be enrolled in pre-K programs (42 percent versus 48 percent, respectively). Several factors may contribute to these different rates of pre-K enrollment. Mothers of DLL children are more likely not to be in the labor force than mothers of non-DLL children, increasing the likelihood that they may choose to provide child care themselves (see Appendix B). But many parents of DLLs also face significant language barriers to accessing early learning programs, as more than 40 percent of them are limited English proficient. Coupled with lower income levels, limited knowledge about available resources and programs, and other obstacles, preschool enrollment remains low among DLLs despite the fact that they stand to benefit even more than most children from such opportunities.

5. Family Background

The wellbeing of young children is strongly influenced by the characteristics of their families. The following indicators—some positive, some negative—shape the environments in which DLL children and their non-DLL peers grow up:

- ***Family income.*** One of the most important risk factors for children's overall wellbeing is poverty.[16] DLLs are significantly more likely to live in poverty than non-DLL children. As of 2011–15, 31 percent of DLLs lived in families with incomes below the federal poverty level (FPL), compared with 22 percent of non-DLL children (see Appendix A).
- ***Parental educational attainment.*** The level of education parents have achieved is strongly correlated to the future educational outcomes of their children.[17] The parents of DLLs are four times more likely to have less than a high school diploma than the parents of non-DLLs (26 percent compared with 6 percent) (see Appendix B).
- ***Family structure.*** Living in a family in which one adult is both the provider and caretaker has been linked to lower levels of educational attainment and behavioral and psychological problems among children.[18] Data show that DLL children were more likely to live in two-parent families (77 percent) than non-DLL children (69 percent) (see Appendix A), indicating a protective factor for this group. An additional 18 percent of DLL children resided with a single mother and 3 percent with a single father, compared with 24 percent of non-DLLs who reside with a single mother and 4 percent with a single father.
- ***Linguistic isolation and limited English proficiency.*** Research has shown that learning two or more languages at the same time comes with multiple benefits, provided that the child is supported in their acquisition of both languages.[19] Yet accessing the types of services and ECEC programs that would support this optimal language development can be difficult for some families. ACS data from 2011–15 show that 24 percent of DLL children (or 2.7 million) are part of families in which all members are considered to be limited English proficient (LEP), a situation that demographic research refers to as linguistic isolation.[20] If parents are unable to access educational, medical, and social services for themselves or their children, this linguistic isolation can lead to poorer outcomes for DLL children.

16 Child Trends, *Children in Poverty: Indicators of Child and Youth Well-Being* (Bethesda, MD: Child Trends, 2016), www.childtrends.org/indicators/children-in-poverty/.

17 Child Trends, *Parental Education: Indicators of Child and Youth Well-Being* (Bethesda, MD: Child Trends, 2015), www.childtrends.org/indicators/parental-education/.

18 Child Trends, *Family Structure: Indicators of Child and Youth Well-Being* (Bethesda, MD: Child Trends, 2015), www.childtrends.org/indicators/family-structure/.

19 Dina Castro, Eugene García, and Amy Markos, *Dual Language Learners: Research Informing Policy* (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina, Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center, 2013), http://fpg.unc.edu/sites/fpg.unc.edu/files/resources/reports-and-policy-briefs/FPG_CECER-DLL_ResearchInformingPolicyPaper.pdf.

20 A household is considered linguistically isolated if all adults (individuals age 14 and older) speak a language other than English and none speaks English "very well." See Paul Siegel, Elizabeth Martin, and Rosalind Bruno, *Language Use and Linguistic Isolation: Historical Data and Methodological Issues* (Bethesda, MD: U.S. Census Bureau, 2001), www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/language/data/census/li-final.pdf.

As this analysis shows, despite the valuable language skills they bring with them as they embark on their education, DLLs also demonstrate several important risk factors, including significantly higher rates of poverty and lower levels of parental educational attainment. As a result, these children are an important target for high-quality early childhood programs that can mitigate the effects of some of these challenges and help to foster a strong foundation for their future success and wellbeing.

IV. Exploring Diversity within DLL Subpopulations

In addition to the growth and diversification of the DLL population overall, there has been notable (if far less studied) growth among different DLL subpopulations, including AAPI and Black DLLs and young children of refugees. Each group demonstrates high levels of internal diversity, meaning children from these populations have unique and varied needs when it comes to ECEC and early learning.

A. Asian American and Pacific Islander DLLs

With growing numbers of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders settling in the country, the population of AAPI children ages 0 to 8 has increased significantly, from 1.7 million in 2000 to 2.6 million as of 2011–15.[21] Among these, 71 percent or 1.8 million young AAPI children are DLLs.

1. Characteristics of the AAPI Population

Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders have been the fastest growing racial group in the United States since 2000,[22] with most of this growth due to immigration from Asia. The number of Asian immigrants in the country has grown 15-fold since 1970, and such immigrants account for one out of every four immigrants who arrived in the United States since 1965.[23] If current trends continue, Asians are projected to become the largest immigrant group in the United States by 2055.[24]

The number of Asian immigrants in the country has grown 15-fold since 1970.

Although the AAPI population overall performs well on economic measures of wellbeing, wide variations exist between subgroups, often as a result of when and how different groups originally arrived in the United States. For instance, Japanese Americans have a relatively long history in the United States. Japanese immigrants began arriving in the 19th century as agricultural workers in what is now the state of Hawaii, and most have integrated well economically. Large shares of Indian Americans and Chinese Americans, meanwhile, arrived after 1965 as high-skilled workers, international students, or family members of existing residents. Some Chinese Americans—most notably in large urban centers such as New York City and San Francisco—experience poverty or exploitation due to a lack of legal status. For the most part, however, these communities are made up of individuals who were relatively affluent in

21 The population this section describes as Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI) are children whose race was recorded as Asian "alone," Pacific Islander "alone," or "with other races." The AAPI children in this section include both Hispanic and non-Hispanic children. By contrast, Figure 2 and Appendix A define "Asians/PIs" as "non-Hispanic Asians/PIs."

22 Gustavo López, Neil G. Ruiz, and Eileen Patten, "Key Facts about Asian Americans, a Diverse and Growing Population," Pew Research Center Fact Tank, September 8, 2015, www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/09/08/key-facts-about-asian-americans/.

23 Pew Research Center, Hispanic Trends, "Modern Immigration Wave Brings 59 Million to U.S., Driving Population Growth and Change Through 2065," updated September 28, 2015, www.pewhispanic.org/2015/09/28/modern-immigration-wave-brings-59-million-to-u-s-driving-population-growth-and-change-through-2065/.

24 López, Ruiz, and Patten, "Key Facts about Asian Americans."

their home countries and are doing well economically in the United States. By contrast, the majority of Bhutanese and Burmese Americans arrived recently as refugees and continue to face significant barriers to economic advancement. As of 2013–15, more than one-third of Bhutanese and Burmese in the United States lived in poverty, and 82 percent of Bhutanese and 65 percent of Burmese had completed less than a high school education.[25]

Although the majority of Asian immigrants arrive in the United States via legal channels, some are unauthorized either having overstayed their visa or entered the country illegally. MPI estimates that in 2010–14, 13 percent or 1.5 million of the 11 million unauthorized immigrants in the United States were from Asia, with top countries of origin including China (268,000), India (267,000), South Korea (198,000), the Philippines (188,000), Vietnam (118,000), Japan (63,000), and Pakistan (50,000).[26]

A significant share of Asian Americans are intermarrying and having multiracial children. In 2015, about 29 percent of Asian newlyweds had a spouse of a difference race or ethnicity,[27] and about 3 percent of U.S. infants were Asian and another race or ethnicity.[28]

2. Socioeconomic Characteristics

As of 2011–15, the approximately 1.8 million AAPI DLLs represented 16 percent of the nation's total DLL population. Compared to DLL children overall, AAPI DLLs were relatively better off socioeconomically, with more living in households with two parents and higher incomes (see Appendix C).

Foreign-born parents of AAPI DLLs are more likely to be recent arrivals compared to all immigrant parents of DLLs.

AAPI children who are DLLs also differ notably from their DLL peers in several other sociodemographic aspects. AAPI DLLs, for example, were more than twice as likely to be foreign born than the DLL population overall (11 percent versus 5 percent) and significantly more likely to be children of immigrant parents (90 percent versus 71 percent). Moreover, foreign-born parents of AAPI DLLs are more likely to be recent arrivals compared to all immigrant parents of DLLs (see Appendix D); more than one-third (36 percent) of foreign-born parents of AAPI DLLs have resided in the United States for fewer than ten years, compared to 28 percent of all foreign-born parents of DLL children. Immigrant parents who arrived in the country more recently may face barriers to finding and accessing high-quality ECEC services as a result of their more limited exposure to U.S. society and the education system.

On the other hand, parents of AAPI DLLs exhibited lower rates of limited English proficiency compared to parents of DLLs overall. Nonetheless, LEP status is still prevalent among parents of AAPI DLLs, with 36 percent identifying as speaking English less than "very well" (see Appendix D). As with DLLs overall, roughly one in five AAPI DLL children resided in a linguistically isolated household. Low levels of parental English proficiency can limit parents' ability to participate in school-related activities as well as to perform other important tasks, such as accessing health care.

An overwhelming majority of AAPI DLLs lived in households with two parents (89 percent), a higher-than-average rate compared with all DLLs (77 percent). Additionally, the family incomes for the

25 Ibid.

26 MPI Data Hub, "Unauthorized Immigrant Populations by Country and Region, Top States and Counties of Residence, 2010-14," accessed November 15, 2017, www.migrationpolicy.org/programs/data-hub/charts/unauthorized-immigrant-populations-country-and-region-top-state-and-county.

27 Gretchen Livingston and Anna Brown, "Intermarriage in the U.S. 50 Years after Loving v. Virginia," Pew Research Center, Social and Demographic Trends, May 18, 2017, www.pewsocialtrends.org/2017/05/18/intermarriage-in-the-u-s-50-years-after-loving-v-virginia/.

28 Gretchen Livingston, "The Rise of Multiracial and Multiethnic Babies in the U.S.," Pew Research Center Fact Tank, June 6, 2017, www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/06/06/the-rise-of-multiracial-and-multiethnic-babies-in-the-u-s/.

households in which AAPI DLLs live were, on average, significantly higher than those of DLLs overall—31 percent of AAPI DLLs lived in low-income families compared to 58 percent of all DLLs (see Appendix C).

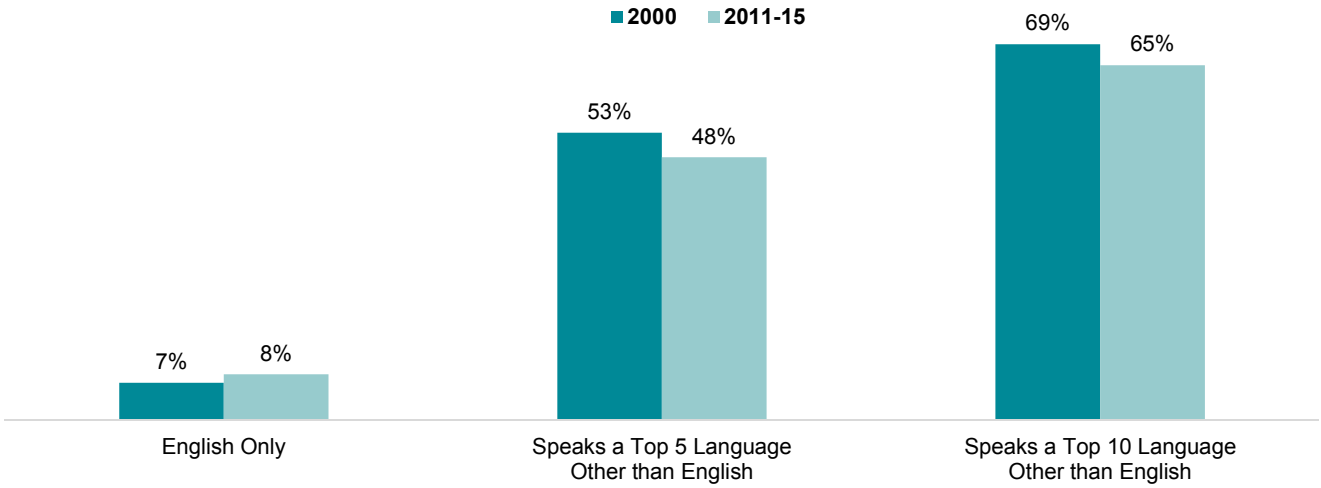
Generally speaking, the parents of AAPI DLLs are well educated and have high paternal employment rates. Very few parents of AAPI DLLs (9 percent) have less than a high school diploma, compared to 26 percent of parents of DLLs overall. Additionally, they were more than twice as likely as all parents of DLLs to have at least a bachelor's degree (60 percent versus 29 percent) (see Appendix D).

Due in part to their relatively high levels of socioeconomic wellbeing, AAPI DLLs participate in preschool at a higher rate than DLLs overall, contributing to their likelihood of future academic success. As of 2011–15, 51 percent of AAPI DLLs ages 3 to 4 were enrolled in preschool programs, compared to 42 percent of all DLLs of the same age (see Appendix C).[29]

3. Linguistic Diversity among Families with AAPI DLL children

Compared to the DLL population overall, AAPI DLLs exhibit notably high and growing levels of linguistic diversity. Between 2000 and 2011–15, as the population of AAPI parents of DLLs grew by more than 41 percent (from 1.7 million to 2.4 million), linguistic diversity within this group also increased substantially. In addition to increases in the total number of languages spoken, a growing number of AAPI parents today speak less common languages. In 2000, 53 percent of parents of AAPI DLLs spoke one of five language other than English (i.e., Chinese, Tagalog, Vietnamese, Korean, or Hindi), and 69 percent spoke one of the top ten languages for this population (see Figure 3). In 2011–15, a smaller share (48 percent) spoke one of the top five language other than English, and 65 percent spoke one of the top ten non-English languages.

Figure 3. Linguistic Diversity among Parents of AAPI DLLs, 2000 and 2011–15



Source: MPI analysis of data from the 2000 decennial census and pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

At the same time, composition of the top languages spoken by parents of AAPI DLL children has also changed. In 2000, the top five languages were Chinese (17 percent), Tagalog (13 percent), Vietnamese (11 percent), Korean (8 percent), and English only (7 percent). As of 2011–15, this ranking had shifted somewhat; while Chinese remained the most commonly spoken language (17 percent), Vietnamese had entered second place (10 percent), followed by Tagalog (10 percent), English only (8 percent), and Hindi (7 percent). (For a detailed language table, see Appendix E.)

29 Preschool enrollment rates are calculated for the population of children ages 3 to 4 who are not enrolled in kindergarten.

Although, as this analysis shows, AAPI DLLs have lower risk factors compared to DLLs in aggregate, there is wide variation along these indicators for certain AAPI subgroups. For instance, in California, where the AAPI population tends to be more educated, AAPI children lived in families with lower poverty rates than the national average. By contrast, in Minnesota, where a sizeable share of AAPI residents are refugees, AAPI children were more likely to live in poverty and their parents had lower levels of educational attainment. Such variations between AAPI subgroups are often overlooked. The prevalent "model minority" myth often applied to Asian Americans without distinction in many cases obscures the obstacles certain communities or individuals within this population face. Moreover, because many AAPI DLLs speak less common minority languages for which translated materials and resources are less likely to be provided, some members of this group may find it considerably more difficult to access ECEC and other services that are central to their wellbeing.

B. Black Immigrant DLLs

Driven by growing immigration from African countries and ongoing migration from the Caribbean, the number of Black immigrants in the United States has increased substantially over the past two decades.[30] As a result, the number of children residing in Black immigrant families nearly doubled during this period.[31] In the 2011–15 period, approximately 927,000 Black children ages 0 to 8 had at least one parent who spoke a language other than English at home. These DLLs account for 8 percent of the DLL population nationwide, 15 percent of all Black children of this age, and 3 percent of the overall U.S. young child population. This demographic shift has important implications for the Black child population in the United States and programs that serve it, as these children come from increasingly diverse backgrounds in terms of countries of origin, languages spoken, cultural values, and other characteristics.

1. Characteristics of the Black Immigrant Population

Compared to the overall immigrant population, African immigrants are more likely to be admitted to the United States as refugees or through the diversity visa program, though roughly half also arrived via family unification channels.[32] Black African immigrants in the United States fare well overall; that is, they are well educated with high college completion rates, and their earnings are on par with the rest of the U.S. population. [33] However, underemployment is well documented among high-skilled Black African immigrants, with many working in jobs for which they are overqualified, often due to factors such as limited English skills, difficulty in transferring home-country credentials, and discrimination.[34] As was the case with the AAPI population, Black African immigrants from countries from which significant number of refugees come, for instance, Somalia and Sudan, have the lowest economic outcomes.[35] Meanwhile, those from Nigeria, Kenya, and Ghana tend to have higher educational attainment.[36]

In contrast, the majority of Black Caribbean immigrants entered the United States through family reunification pathways. And compared to Black African immigrants and the overall U.S. population, a

30 The population this section describes as Black are children whose race was recorded as Black "alone" or Black "with other races." The Black children in this section include both Hispanic and non-Hispanic children. In contrast, Figure 2 and Appendix A define "Blacks" as "non-Hispanic Blacks." For more on diversity within this population, see Randy Capps, Kristen McCabe, and Michael Fix, *Diverse Streams: African Migration to the United States* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2012), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/CBI-african-migration-united-states.

31 Donald J. Hernandez, *Changing Demography and Circumstances for Young Black Children in African and Caribbean Immigrant Families* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2012), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/CBI-changing-demography-black-immigrant-children.

32 Capps, McCabe, and Fix, *Diverse Streams*.

33 Ibid.

34 Jeanne Batalova, Michael Fix, and James D. Bachmeier, *Untapped Talent: The Costs of Brain Waste among Highly Skilled Immigrants in the United States* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2016), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/untapped-talent-costs-brain-waste-among-highly-skilled-immigrants-united-states.

35 Jie Zong and Jeanne Batalova, "Sub-Saharan African Immigrants in the United States," *Migration Information Source*, March 3, 2017, www.migrationpolicy.org/article/sub-saharan-african-immigrants-united-states.

36 Ibid.

larger share of Black Caribbean immigrants were women (55 percent).[37] Despite their relatively low levels of educational attainment, Black Caribbean immigrants had higher earnings than Black African immigrants, an advantage due in part to their higher levels of English proficiency since English is widely spoken in the Caribbean region, with the exception of Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Haiti.[38]

In spite of a higher growth rate among the Black African immigrant population in recent years, they are still outnumbered by Black Caribbean immigrants. For example, in 2011–15, there were 1.4 million Black immigrants from Africa and 1.9 million from the Caribbean.

MPI estimated that about 16 percent of Black immigrants from the Caribbean are unauthorized, compared to 21 percent of Black immigrants from Africa. However, due to its larger overall population size, the number of unauthorized Black Caribbean immigrants was still higher. In addition, 59,000 immigrants from Haiti currently hold Temporary Protected Status (TPS) in the United States, a time-limited form of humanitarian protection for nationals of designated countries unable to return home due to conflict or national disaster.[39] As the Trump administration has announced that TPS for Haitians will end in July 2019,[40] many immigrants from Haiti and their U.S.-born children face great uncertainty and difficult choices about their future.

2. Socioeconomic Characteristics

On the whole, Black DLLs' socioeconomic status was similar to that of DLL children overall, though they are more likely to live in single-parent families (see Appendix C). The parents of Black DLLs are slightly more educated than DLLs' parents overall, and they have similar rates of paternal labor force participation (see Appendix D). Approximately 30 percent of parents of Black DLLs held at least a bachelor's degree, comparable to the share for parents of all DLLs (29 percent). And a much lower share (13 percent) of parents of Black DLLs possessed less than a high school diploma or equivalent, compared with more than one-quarter (26 percent) of all parents of DLLs. Fathers of Black DLLs were slightly less likely to be employed than fathers of all DLLs (85 percent versus 89 percent). Black DLL children were slightly more likely than DLL children overall to live in poverty (32 percent versus 30 percent).

In other ways, Black families with DLL children are more distinct from other families with young children. The parents of Black DLLs were more likely to be U.S. born, speak English very well, and—for those born abroad—to have arrived in the United States more recently compared to parents of DLLs overall. Approximately 39 percent of parents of Black DLLs were born in the United States, compared to 35 percent of parents of all DLL children. Furthermore, a smaller share of parents of Black DLLs spoke English less than very well (28 percent) than parents of DLLs overall (41 percent). This higher rate of English proficiency is coupled with a lower rate of linguistic isolation; compared to all DLLs, a smaller share of Black DLL children resided in linguistically isolated households (24 percent versus 16 percent, respectively). More than one-third (34 percent) of foreign-born parents of Black DLLs have resided in the United States for fewer than ten years, compared to 28 percent of foreign-born parents of DLLs overall.

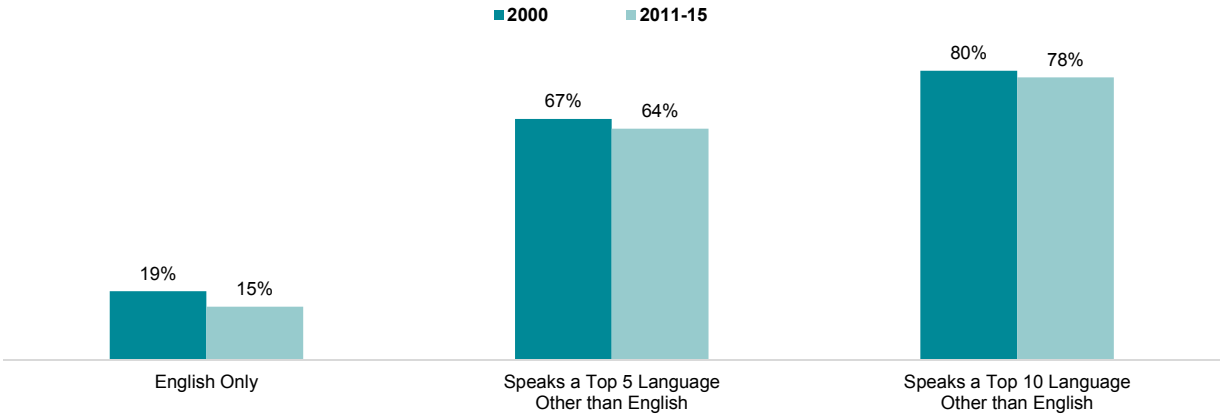
Black children overall participated in preschool at a higher rate than the U.S. average, and Black DLLs are equally likely to be enrolled as their non-DLL peers. As of 2011–15, 48 percent of Black DLLs ages 3 to 4 who were not in kindergarten were enrolled in preschool programs—a rate higher than the 42 percent average for all DLLs. High program participation among Black children is likely related at least in part to the fact that in a significant segment of these households, mothers are in the workforce. (Their employment rate is 66 percent versus 55 percent for all mothers of DLLs.)

37 Kevin J. A. Thomas, *A Demographic Profile of Black Caribbean Immigrants in the United States* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2012), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/CBI-demographic-profile-black-caribbean-immigrants.
38 Ibid.
39 Jill H. Wilson, *Temporary Protected Status: Overview and Current Issues* (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, 2018), https://fas.org/sgp/crs/homesec/RS20844.pdf.
40 Miriam Jordan, "Trump Administration Ends Temporary Protection for Haitians," *The New York Times*, November 20, 2017, www.nytimes.com/2017/11/20/us/haitians-temporary-status.html.

3. Linguistic Diversity among Families with Black DLL Children

Black DLLs, like their peers in the AAPI population, exhibit high and growing levels of linguistic diversity. Between 2000 and 2011–15, the number of parents of Black DLLs increased by 27 percent, from 742,000 to 943,000, and the linguistic diversity of this population grew considerably. In 2000, 19 percent of parents of Black DLLs spoke English only. A further 67 percent spoke one of five other languages, and 80 percent spoke one of the top ten non-English languages for this group (see Figure 4). By 2011–15, the English-only share, as well as the share who spoke a top-five language other than English, had decreased.

Figure 4. Linguistic Diversity among Parents of Black DLLs, 2000 and 2011–15



Source: MPI analysis of data from the 2000 decennial census and pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

At the same time, the ranking of languages with the most speakers also changed somewhat. In 2000, the top five languages spoken by parents of Black DLLs were Spanish (35 percent), English only (19 percent), French or Haitian Creole (13 percent), French (9 percent), and Kru (7 percent). As of 2011–15, the languages that comprise the top five remained the same, but their order and shares had shifted; there were smaller shares of Spanish (28 percent), English only (15 percent), and French speakers (8 percent) and larger shares of French or Haitian Creole and Kru speakers (14 percent and 9 percent, respectively). In addition, a number of African languages (including Somali, Swahili, and Ethiopian languages) had also gained notable shares. (For a detailed language table, see Appendix F.)

A large number of the families in which Black DLLs grow up speak low incidence minority languages which may hinder their access to programs and services.

Taken together, the characteristics of Black DLLs and their families are in some ways similar to the overall DLL population. However, in several areas, including family structure and parental levels of education, this group is notably different. Equally important, and as was the case for AAPI DLLs, Black DLLs are themselves an increasingly diverse population. Subgroups within the population—whether native versus foreign born, Caribbean versus African immigrant origins, or specific national or ethnic groups within these broad categories—exhibit unique learning strengths and needs that require a nuanced approach to service provision. Finally, a large number of the families in which Black DLLs grow up speak low incidence minority languages which may hinder their access to programs and services.

C. Young Children in Refugee Families

While young children in refugee families face some of the same challenge as other DLLs—and indeed, some fit into the broader AAPI and Black immigrant categories discussed above—these children represent a population of particular note because of their families' migration experiences, the conditions under which they arrived in the United States, and the unique support needs these factors may create for children. Refugee parents, and in some cases the children themselves, have fled persecution and violence. Many have also lived in refugee camps for years before being resettled to the United States and arrived in the country with few or no social networks, economic resources, English skills, or knowledge of U.S. society.

Most refugees, with the exception of a small number from Liberia and other African countries where English is an official language, speak a language other than English. As a result, almost all children of refugees are DLLs. MPI estimates that as of 2009–13, there were 774,000 children (ages 0 to 8) with at least one refugee parent in the United States, and of these children, approximately 70,000 or 9 percent were refugees themselves.[41] Because refugee status is not identified in ACS data, this section uses data on refugees recorded as they enter the country by the U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration's Worldwide Refugee Admissions System (WRAPS). Doing so allows for the exploration of key trends within this population as a proxy, since a good number of refugees either arrive with their children or start families in the United States.

These children represent a population of particular note because of their families' migration experiences.

The United States has historically operated the largest refugee resettlement program in the world, admitting more than 3 million refugees since it was established in 1980. Research has demonstrated that, despite the challenges described above, refugees generally make steady progress in integrating into U.S. society the longer they are in the country.[42] However, many still face significant barriers that can include low income levels, lack of upward mobility, linguistic isolation, and underemployment for those with professional qualifications.[43] Recent refugees with low levels of education and native-language literacy at arrival, including those from Somalia, Iraq, Myanmar (also known as Burma), Bhutan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Liberia, are more likely to experience poverty than the overall immigrant population.

1. Recent Trends among Children of Refugees

Young children of refugees are a highly diverse group. Over time, the United States has come to resettle refugees from a wider range of countries, and a notable share of refugees are ethnic, religious, or linguistic minorities within their countries of origin. This increasing diversity has made it more complicated for resettlement agencies to locate culturally and linguistically competent staff to provide orientation, employment, and other reception services for new arrivals.

In 1980, when the program began, the United States resettled refugees of 11 nationalities. By comparison, in the decade between fiscal years (FY) 2008 and 2017, the United States resettled 671,000 refugees from 110 countries.[44] Major countries of origin today include Myanmar, Iraq, Bhutan, Somalia, and the

41 MPI analysis of pooled 2009–13 ACS data.
42 Randy Capps et al., *The Integration Outcomes of U.S. Refugees* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2015), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/integration-outcomes-us-refugees-successes-and-challenges; Colorado Department of Human Services, *The Refugee Integration Survey and Evaluation (RISE) Year Five: Final Report* (Denver: Colorado Department of Human Services, 2016), https://cbsdenver.files.wordpress.com/2016/03/rise-year-5-report-feb-2016.pdf.
43 Colorado Department of Human Services, *The Refugee Integration Survey and Evaluation (RISE) Year Five.*
44 Capps et al., *The Integration Outcomes of U.S. Refugees.*

Democratic Republic of Congo (see Table 4). Combined, these top five countries of origin accounted for almost three-fourths (74 percent) of all refugees resettled in this ten-year period.

Table 4. Top 20 Countries of Origin for Refugees Resettled in the United States, FY 2008–17

Country	Number	Share of Total (%)
Total	**671,374**	**100.0**
Myanmar (Burma)	150,874	22.5
Iraq	140,926	21.0
Bhutan	93,914	14.0
Somalia	60,284	9.0
Democratic Republic of Congo	48,602	7.2
Iran	32,844	4.9
Cuba	28,988	4.3
Syria	21,101	3.1
Eritrea	16,544	2.5
Ukraine	11,847	1.8
Sudan	10,518	1.6
Afghanistan	8,721	1.3
Burundi	6,909	1.0
Ethiopia	6,484	1.0
Vietnam	4,148	0.6
Moldova	3,234	0.5
Russia	2,993	0.4
Colombia	2,211	0.3
Pakistan	2,006	0.3
Liberia	1,972	0.3
Other Countries	16,254	2.4

Source: MPI analysis of data from U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, "Worldwide Refugee Admissions System (WRAPS)," accessed November 1, 2017, www.wrapsnet.org/.

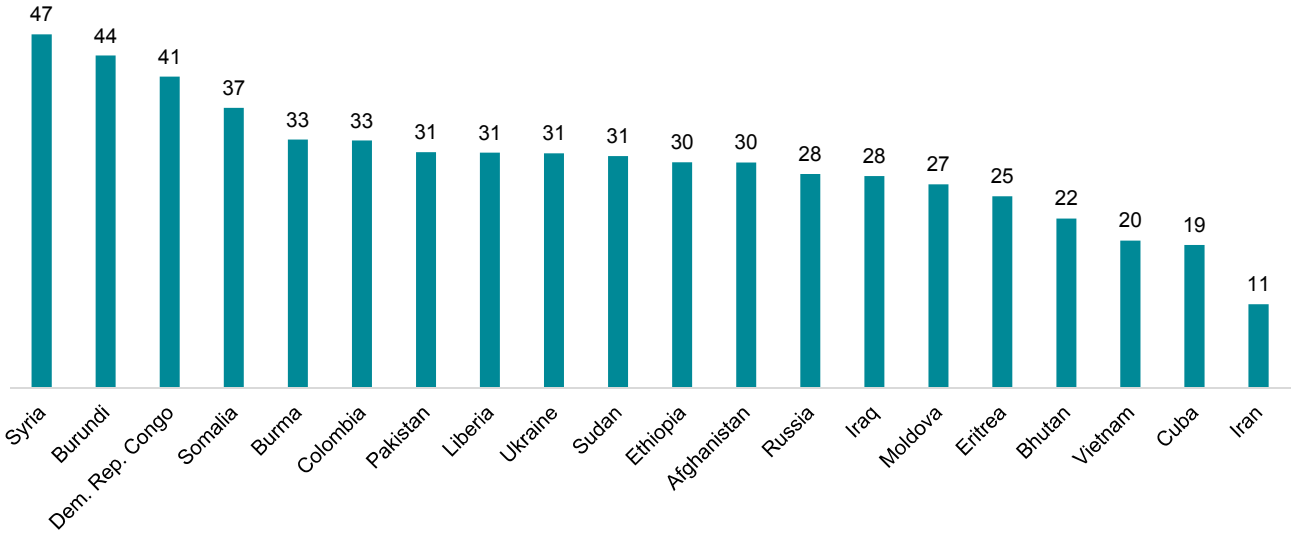
Among the top 20 refugee origin countries, the share of arrivals under the age of 14 varies quite dramatically, ranging from close to half of Syrian refugees to one out of ten Iranian refugees (see Figure 5).[45] Refugees from Syria, Burundi, Congo, and Somalia are fleeing widespread violence in their home countries and are therefore more likely to migrate with family members and live in refugee camps while awaiting resettlement. By comparison, refugees from some other common countries of origin are seeking protection from more targeted forms of persecution that may not result in mass displacement and affect entire families or communities. The experience of living in a refugee camp exposes children to a set of conditions with serious ramifications for their mental health and future academic success long after they have been resettled. Children who have lived in camps are more likely to have their education interrupted, experience economic hardship, and develop mental health issues as a result of trauma, social isolation, and discrimination.[46] Effective services for these children should include access to mental health care

45 The U.S. Department of State only provides these data for all refugees under 14; data on more specific age ranges (e.g., children ages 0 to 8—DLLs) are unavailable.

46 Selcuk R. Sirin and Lauren Rogers-Sirin, *The Educational and Mental Health Needs of Syrian Refugee Children* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2015), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/educational-and-mental-health-needs-syrian-refugee-children.

and trauma-informed care. Research has demonstrated that such interventions are particularly effective if provided at the community or school level, as compared with more traditional models of providing mental-health services that focus solely on individuals.[47]

Figure 5. Share of Refugee Arrivals under Age 14, by Country of Origin, (%), FY 2008–17



Source: MPI analysis of data from U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, "Worldwide Refugee Admissions System (WRAPS)."

Children born in the United States to refugee parents, who account for more than 90 percent of all children of refugees,[48] will have markedly different experiences in their early years. But while these children may not experience flight and trauma first hand, their parents' exposure to trauma, time spent in refugee camps, and resulting physical and mental-health issues may nonetheless affect them. Taking a holistic approach to providing services to such families can help refugee parents find their footing in a new society, learn to participate in their children's education, and advocate on their behalf within the school system.

2. Linguistic Diversity among Refugee Families with Young Children

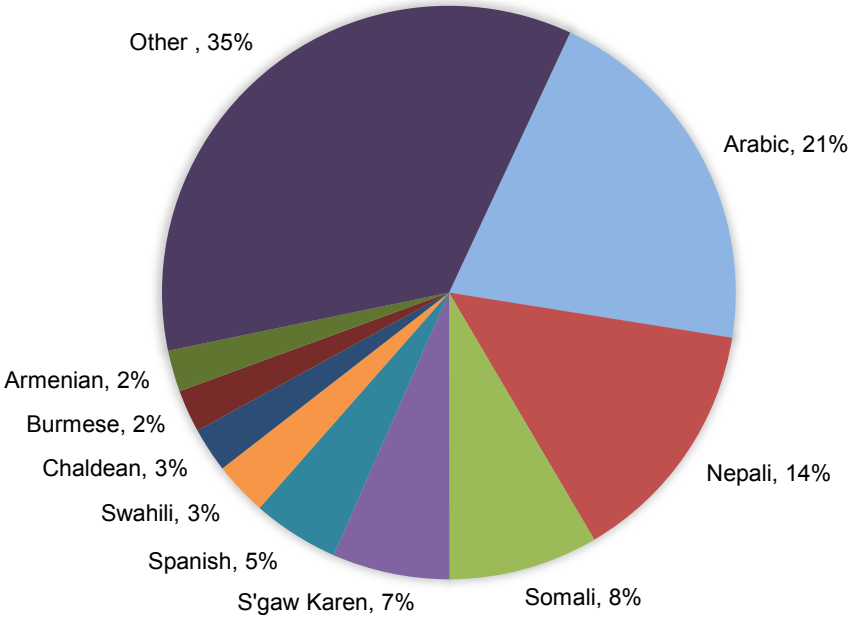
In addition to—and in part because of—their wide range of origin countries, refugee families with young children have highly diverse linguistic backgrounds. MPI research has also shown that the number of native languages spoken by refugees arriving in the United States has increased significantly in recent years, from 114 languages in FY 2004 to 162 in FY 2013.[49] Of the 671,000 refugees the United States admitted in the decade between FY 2008 and FY 2017, some of the most commonly spoken languages were Arabic, Nepali, Somali, S'gaw Karen (a language spoken by S'gaw Karen people in Myanmar), Spanish, Swahili, Chaldean (a language primarily spoken by Christians in northern Iraq), and Burmese (see Figure 6).

47 B. Heidi Ellis, "Multi-Tier Mental Health Program for Refugee Youth," *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 81, no. 1 (2013): 129–40.

48 Kate Hooper, Jie Zong, Randy Capps, and Michael Fix, *Young Children of Refugees in the United States: Integration Successes and Challenges* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2016), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/young-children-refugees-united-states-integration-successes-and-challenges.

49 Capps et al., *The Integration Outcomes of U.S. Refugees*.

Figure 6. Top Native Languages of Refugee Arrivals, FY 2008–17



Notes: S'gaw Karen is spoken primarily by S'gaw Karen people in Myanmar (Burma); Swahili is a Bantu language widely used in East Africa; Chaldean is primarily spoken by Christians in northern Iraq; and Burmese is the official language in Myanmar, spoken by the Bamar (Burman) people and related ethnic groups as a first language and by other ethnic minority groups as second language. "Other" represents two classifications in WRAPS data: "other minor language" and "other language/data incomplete."
Source: MPI analysis of data from U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, "Worldwide Refugee Admissions System (WRAPS)."

The linguistic diversity even within individual origin groups is remarkable. For instance, almost all (99.8 percent) of the 93,914 Bhutanese refugees resettled to the United States in FY 2008–17 speak Nepali, but the remaining 0.2 percent speak nine other, less common languages. Among Burmese refugees, meanwhile, 74 native languages were reported, and 32 of these languages had fewer than 50 speakers among the 150,874 refugees resettled from Myanmar during this period. Further complicating the provision of services to refugee families, refugees who arrive from the same country but speak different languages are likely to be of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, to have different socioeconomic statuses in their countries of origin, and to even have different experiences of displacement and resettlement. For example, refugees from Myanmar who speak Burmese are more likely to be college graduates, proficient in English, and have work experience prior to resettlement than speakers of minority languages (e.g., Karen, Karenni, and Ka Chin).[50]

The religious backgrounds of refugees resettled to the United States have also shifted over time. Between FY 2008 and FY 2015 and again in FY 2017, the United States admitted more Christian than Muslim refugees. In FY 2016, however, the United States resettled slightly more Muslim refugees as a result of ongoing conflict and displacement in Syria, Somalia, Iraq, Afghanistan, and Myanmar.[51] These refugee groups include significant shares of children (see Figure 5), and studies have shown that Muslim refugee children are at risk of anti-Islamic discrimination in U.S. schools.[52]

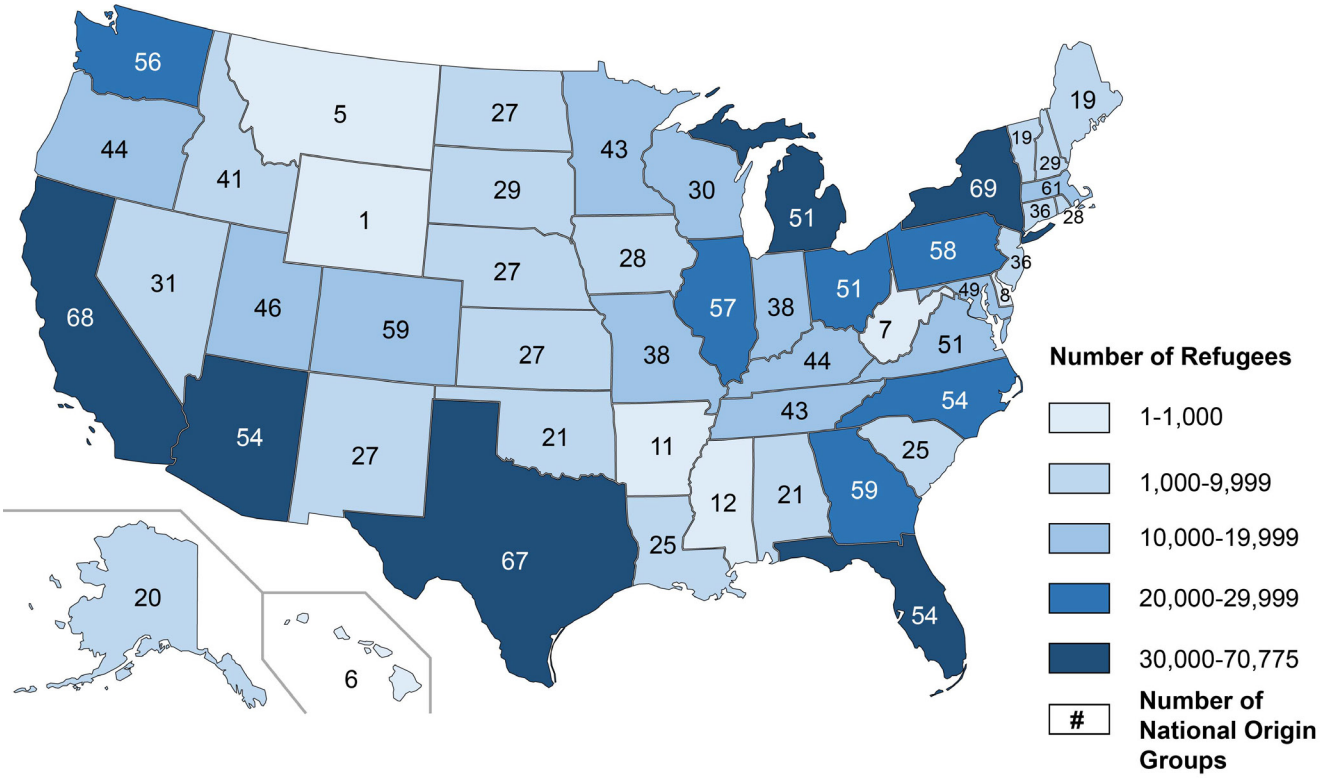
50 Russell Jeung et al., *From Crisis to Community Development: Needs and Assets of Oakland's Refugees from Burma* (San Francisco: San Francisco State University, César E. Chávez Institute, 2011), https://cci.sfsu.edu/burma.
51 Jie Zong and Jeanne Batalova, "Refugees and Asylees in the United States," *Migration Information Source*, June 7, 2017, www.migrationpolicy.org/article/refugees-and-asylees-united-states.
52 See, for example, J. Lynn McBrien, "Educational Needs and Barriers for Refugee Students in the United States," *Review of Educational Research* 75, no. 3 (2005): 329–64.

3. Resettlement Patterns

In the midst of the growing diversity of the U.S. refugee population, each state has a slightly different landscape in terms of the characteristics and needs of its resident refugee families. Much of this is due to evolving resettlement patterns. Although the placement process aims to distribute refugees across the nation to avoid overburdening certain communities, refugees with family ties in the United States are usually placed near their relatives to ease their transition and long-term integration. Those without family ties are assigned to different host communities based on their language and health needs, local host organizations' capacity, cost of living, and availability of employment opportunities, education, and health services.

California and Texas are the largest resettlement states, receiving 70,775 and 67,562 refugees respectively between FY 2008 and FY 2017, followed by New York, Michigan, Florida, and Arizona (see Figure 7). Although many states resettle large numbers of refugees from the most common origin groups (e.g., Burmese, Iraqi, Bhutanese, and Somali), significant variations exist between states. For example, Florida resettled the most Cuban refugees due to its geographic proximity to Cuba and the presence of established Cuban communities in the state. California received large numbers of Iraqi and Iranian refugees, while New York received significantly more Burmese, Bhutanese, and Somali refugees. In addition, the level of diversity within states' overall refugee populations varies significantly. New York, California, Texas, and Massachusetts received refugees from more than 60 countries between FY 2008 and FY 2017, while Montana, West Virginia, and Delaware each received refugees from fewer than ten countries.

Figure 7. Number of Refugees and Number of National Origin Groups Resettled, by State, FY 2008–17



Note: Wyoming does not have an official refugee resettlement program, and the state only resettled one Somali refugee in FY 2017.
Source: MPI analysis of data from U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, "Worldwide Refugee Admissions System (WRAPS)."

These recent trends in refugee resettlement and placement within the United States mean that the population of young children of refugees, while increasingly diverse across the board, will be different in each state. Although these children generally benefit from several protective factors (including living in two-parent families, high parental employment and education levels, and access to health insurance and public benefits), they also face important risk factors, such as low levels of parental English proficiency and high poverty rates.[53] In particular, children of refugees from certain countries in Africa (Liberia, Somalia, and Sudan) and Asia (Bhutan, Iraq, Laos, and Myanmar) have relatively high risk factors; they are more likely to live in low-income and/or single-parent families, to have parents with limited levels of formal education, and to be linguistically isolated.

V. How Prevalent Is Superdiversity across States?

With such diversity across the U.S. DLL population, as well as within subgroups such as those profiled in the previous section, education policymakers and practitioners will need to take an inclusive and multifaceted approach to designing ECEC programs and education systems more broadly to best serve these children. As the majority of ECEC and K-12 systems and policies are designed and implemented at the state and local level, and because immigrant and refugee settlement patterns vary across states, it is equally necessary to consider how increasing levels of diversity have reshaped the young child population at the subnational level.

Using linguistic diversity as a proxy, this section aims to illustrate the pervasiveness of superdiversity across states by comparing the top languages spoken in each state and the number and share of parents who speak them. While there are far more factors of state-level diversity than can be fully explored in this report, language is a particularly telling indicator both because it has wide-reaching implications for services designed for DLLs and because language is often intertwined with other factors such as race or ethnicity and country of (family) origin. This linguistic analysis thus hints at the broader diversity experienced in each state.

A. Language Dynamics at the State Level

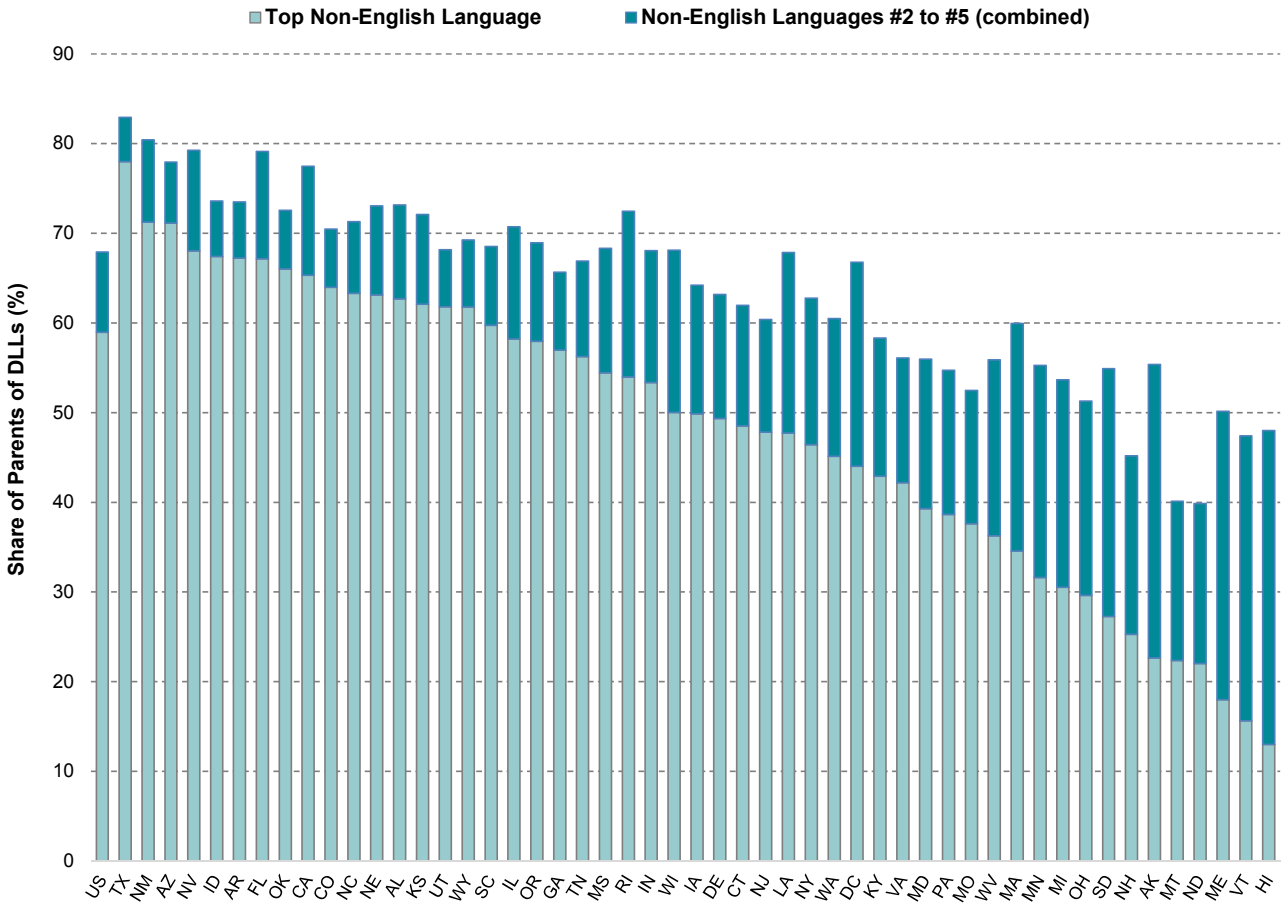
The linguistic landscape in DLL families across the United States is extremely rich,[54] with more than 90 percent of parents of DLLs speaking a language other than English. As previously shown in Table 3, the most frequently spoken language in DLL homes was Spanish as of 2011–15 (spoken by 59 percent of parents). This pattern holds true in nearly all states. The prevalence of Spanish is not surprising given the fact that immigrants from Mexico and other Latin American countries represent 51 percent of all immigrants to the United States, up from 44 percent in 1990.[55] Several states have bucked the national trend, however. The top language in Alaska was Aleut (spoken by 23 percent of parents of DLLs at home); Tagalog came out on top in Hawaii (13 percent), reflecting the long-standing presence of Filipino immigrants in the state; and French was most common in Maine (18 percent) (see Appendix H).

Even though, when viewed through a national lens, a clear majority of parents of DLL children speak Spanish, this picture is considerably different at the state level. The share of Spanish-speaking parents is much larger in some states than others, ranging from 78 percent in Texas and 71 percent in New Mexico and Arizona, to about 50 percent in Wisconsin and Iowa, about 30–31 percent in Michigan and Ohio, and about 16 percent in Vermont and Maine (see Appendix H).

53 Hooper, Zong, Capps, and Fix, *Young Children of Refugees in the United States*.
54 Rubén G. Rumbaut and Douglas S. Massey, "Immigration and Language Diversity in the United States," *Daedalus* 142, no. 3 (Summer 2013): 141–54, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4092008/.
55 MPI Data Hub, "State Immigration Data Profiles: United States," accessed November 15, 2017, www.migrationpolicy.org/data/state-profiles/state/demographics/US.

States also vary in terms of the share of parents who speak one of the top five most common languages, regardless of which ranks highest (see Figure 8).[56] Whereas speakers of the second through fifth most common languages combined accounted for less than 9 percent of all parents of DLLs nationwide, that share was higher in 38 states. The greatest diversity of languages (i.e., where fewer parents were concentrated into the top languages) was observed in states with relatively small DLL populations (such as Vermont and North Dakota), those that have large Native American populations (Alaska and South Dakota), and those that are home to recently arrived immigrants and refugees from African and Middle Eastern countries (Michigan and Minnesota). In states where no one or two languages predominate, linguistic superdiversity has even greater implications for service providers.

Figure 8. Share of Parents of DLLs Who Speak the Top Non-English Languages in Each State, (%), 2011–15



Note: Spanish was the top language in all states except in Alaska, Hawaii, and Maine.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

The diversity in languages spoken in DLLs' homes stretches far beyond Spanish and English to reflect past and current trends in immigrant and refugee settlement. Chinese, for example, is the second most commonly spoken language among parents of DLLs in ten states; among them, California and New York have historically been popular destinations for Chinese immigrants, whereas Alabama and South Carolina have become destinations more recently. As of 2011–15, German was also a commonly spoken language among DLL parents in several states, such as Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Iowa, where German immigrants settled in the 19th century and their traditions and language have been kept alive.

56 See also Appendix G for a detailed table with the shares of parents of DLLs who speak on of the top languages in each state as of 2000 and 2011–15.

Meanwhile, Michigan has for decades been a place of settlement for immigrants and refugees from the Middle East. As a result, Arabic is the second most frequently spoken language in DLLs' homes in this state, as it is in Tennessee and Virginia. Similarly, Washington, DC has long been a destination for immigrants from various parts of Africa. Today, Amharic is commonly spoken in the homes of DLLs whose parents come from Ethiopia. And Minnesota has been an important destination for several refugee groups, including those from Laos and some parts of Vietnam who speak Hmong. In contrast, Portuguese-speaking immigrants from several countries (Portugal, Brazil, and Algeria) have tended to settled in the Northeast (Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island) and in Utah.

Notably, the top languages spoken in DLLs' homes is likely to continue to shift as a result of new immigration trends. Since 2010, immigration from Mexico has begun to decline and arrivals from Europe continue to drop, while those from Asia and Africa are on the rise. Service providers who work with DLLs and their parents thus face the challenge of designing linguistically and culturally responsive care not only for the children in their charge today, but for those likely to be in years to come.

B. Language Dynamics at the County Level

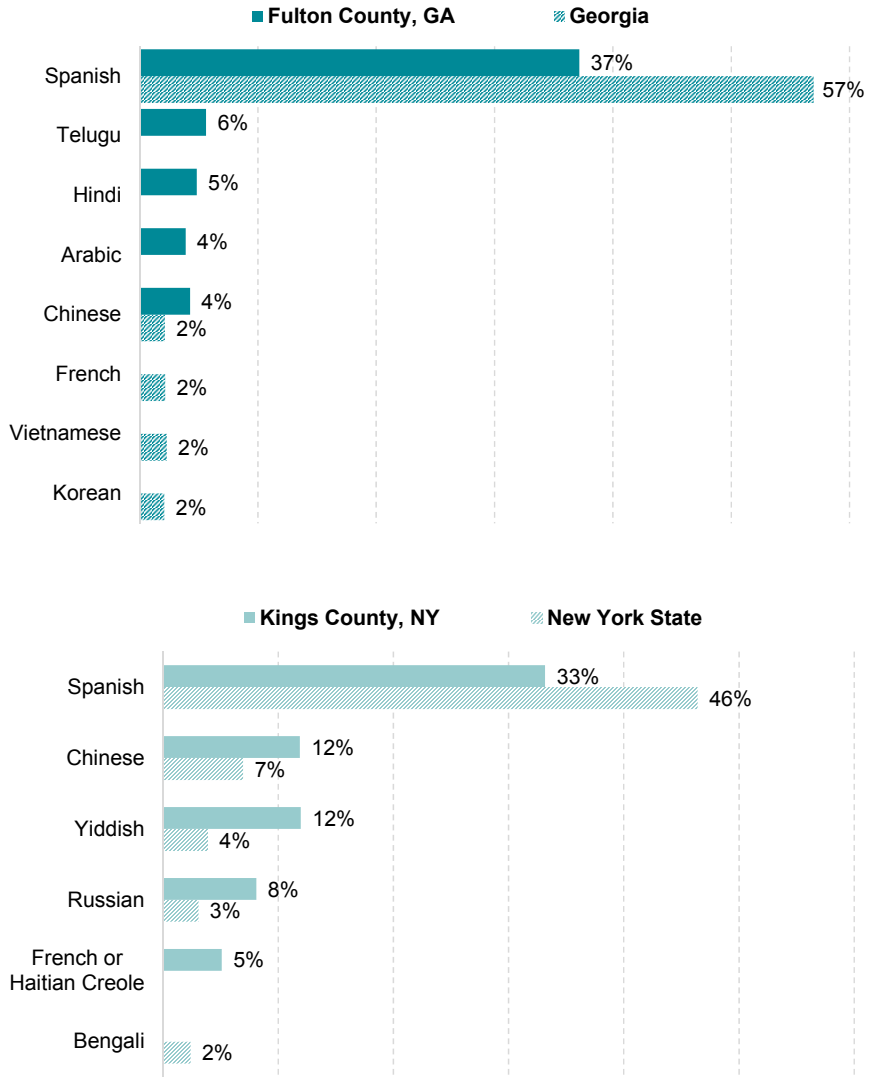
Just as a wider set of variations can be seen in the characteristics of DLLs at the state level than the national level, much of this diversity becomes even more pronounced when looking at individual counties. Figure 9 displays the five languages most frequently spoken by parents of DLLs in two states and a prominent county within each—the state of Georgia and Fulton County, GA (the most populous county in the state, which includes the city of Atlanta) (top panel), and New York State and Kings County, NY (also known as Brooklyn, one of the five boroughs of New York City) (bottom panel).[57] As this figure shows, Fulton County's top languages differ from those of Georgia overall (only Spanish and Chinese are represented in both). Speakers of Telugu, Hindi, and Arabic account for greater shares in the county than in the state, whereas Vietnamese, French, and Korean have a greater share of speakers when viewed from the state level. In contrast, parents of DLLs in Kings County and New York State share the same top four languages—Spanish, Chinese, Yiddish, and Russian—though the proportions of speakers of these languages differ. The language that comes in fifth is also different: French or Haitian Creole in King's County and Bengali in the state overall. Other counties within these states are also likely to have DLL parent populations with linguistic profiles that are significantly different, both from each other and from the state as a whole.

As the case of Georgia illustrates, states that do not appear to be highly diverse may still contain superdiverse counties.

These figures, as well as additional data for other states and counties provided in Appendix I, demonstrate the high levels of linguistic diversity that local ECEC and K-12 systems are contending with across the country, as well as the diversity of languages spoken by DLL families in different communities within states. Many counties show a significantly lower predominance of Spanish speakers than is seen at the state level, as well as higher shares of speakers of languages that are less common in the state overall. These localized language profiles are notably different not just from their respective states, but from the United States as well. Additionally, as the case of Georgia illustrates, states that do not appear to be highly diverse may still contain superdiverse counties.

57 For more detail on language diversity at the state versus county level, see Appendix I, which presents data for the top ten immigrant-receiving states as of 2015 (i.e., California, Texas, New York State, Florida, New Jersey, Illinois, Massachusetts, Georgia, Virginia, and Washington State).

Figure 9. Top Five Non-English Languages Spoken by Parents of DLLs, Select States and Counties, 2011–15



Notes: Chinese includes Mandarin, Cantonese, and other Chinese languages. French includes Patois and Cajun.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

For administrators of ECEC and K-12 systems and programs, many of whom are situated at the local level, understanding this localized and evolving diversity is crucial to good service design. As language diversity is likely to continue to grow in the coming years, it will be imperative to develop practical strategies and solutions that enable programs to respond to the diverse characteristics, backgrounds, experiences, and needs of the young children they serve.

VI. Conclusion and Implications for ECEC and K-12 Systems and Programs

The high level of diversity within the large and growing population of DLLs in communities across the country has important and immediate implications for K-12 schools and for ECEC program and systems design. While some states, districts, and programs may have more experience working with different groups of DLLs and capacity to do so than others, the need for improved understanding of how to best serve diverse families is universal. There is a particular dearth of—and critical need for—information on what constitutes high-quality instruction and services for young speakers of low-incidence minority languages and their families. The following are some of the key program and policy implications to emerge from the report's sociodemographic analysis:

- ***Data on DLLs and their language backgrounds should be collected at the state level.*** At a minimum, information about DLLs and their home languages need to be made available across systems to ensure that they are visible to policymakers and program administrators. Currently, many states do not explicitly track enrollment of DLLs, for example, in their state pre-K programs,[58] and most are unable to report DLL enrollment in pre-K programs by home language.[59] As a result of these gaps in data collection, DLLs are often invisible in state ECEC systems and only become known when they enter the K-12 school system. This means that program and policy improvement efforts are currently made without a full understanding of the linguistic and cultural diversity of the young children in question, or of the experiences, successes, and challenges DLLs often face in early learning programs.

- ***There is a pressing demand for research to develop effective instructional approaches for superdiverse classrooms and to identify the skills and competences educators need to support them.*** The current literature on effective DLL instruction does not, in general, distinguish between superdiverse and less diverse contexts, despite the considerably different implications of each for pedagogical methods and curriculum. This research generally assumes the presence of a majority-minority language in the community, which would allow for the implementation of bilingual or dual-language programs, for example, that have been proven to be beneficial for DLLs in such contexts. In the absence of a prominent minority language such as Spanish, however, and in instances where programs are unable to hire staff members who share the many languages and cultures of their students—a common experience in many schools and classrooms across the nation—alternative strategies are needed. Professional development and teacher training that prepare educators and other staff to work effectively in superdiverse contexts are also necessary to support successful instruction.

- ***The ECEC workforce urgently needs linguistic and cultural skills and diversity.*** While hiring staff who represent all of the many languages spoken in a superdiverse classroom may be an unrealistic goal in many contexts, this should not detract from the value of building a diverse ECEC workforce that reflects the demographics of the young child population they serve. While research shows that the ECEC workforce is relatively diverse compared to the K-12 teaching force, much of this diversity is concentrated in informal or unregulated sectors of the field.[60] This stratification within the ECEC workforce is likely due in large part to the lower levels of education and English proficiency among many linguistically and culturally diverse workers in the field, which raises concerns regarding barriers to their professional development and advancement.[61]

58 W. Steven Barnett et al., *The State of Preschool 2015: State Preschool Yearbook* (New Brunswick, NJ: National Institute for Early Education Research, 2016), http://nieer.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/Yearbook_2015_rev1.pdf.

59 Ibid.

60 Maki Park, Margie McHugh, Jie Zong, and Jeanne Batalova, *Immigrant and Refugee Workers in the Early Childhood Field: Taking a Closer Look* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2015), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/immigrant-and-refugee-workers-early-childhood-field-taking-closer-look.

61 Ibid.

Equally concerning, efforts to raise standards in the ECEC field may end up crowding out some divers providers if not paired with resources to help them access and participate in the evolving system. As efforts to professionalize the field through, for example, mandatory participation in Quality Rating and Improvement Systems (QRIS) move forward in some states, trusted family or home-based child care providers on which many immigrant groups rely may be forced to close their doors,[62] exacerbating existing shortages of linguistically and culturally relevant care. Efforts to improve the quality of care and raise the status of the ECEC workforce would thus do well to include a focus on retaining and expanding language and cultural competence skills within the field to ensure that improving program quality overall does not result in more limited service for DLL children and their families.

- ***Assessment instruments and methods should take into account the learning needs and strengths of DLLs, and particularly of speakers of low-incidence minority languages.*** As instruments such as kindergarten entry or readiness assessments gain prominence as tools to guide ECEC program improvement, it is critical that the assessment instruments and evaluation methods developed are valid for DLLs with diverse home languages. In the absence of a purposeful strategy to assess DLL children, decisionmakers will be unable to meaningfully consider and include the needs of these learners when making program improvements; with this incomplete information, they may also mistakenly refer children for additional screening or fail to recognize the need for such screening, and developmental delays may go unrecognized.

Family engagement and partnership in the early childhood field is being recognized as a critical means of supporting young children in their early learning.

- ***Programs should identify and implement family engagement strategies to communicate and partner successfully with parents of DLLs.*** Increasingly, family engagement and partnership in the early childhood field is being recognized as a critical means of supporting young children in their early learning. Yet DLLs, who may benefit disproportionately from efforts to bridge the divide between home and school environments, may not profit from such initiatives if their parents are unable to take part due to language and culture barriers, irregular work schedules, or difficulty accessing transportation.[63] Given that many parents of DLLs have limited English proficiency, at a minimum, translated materials and interpretation are needed to include these families in outreach efforts. To accomplish this goal, programs will need to develop new strategies for accommodating the large number of minority languages spoken among families with DLLs and for reaching parents with low levels of home-language literacy.
- ***Expanded language-access provisions, including increased translation and interpretation capacity, are needed across ECEC, K-12, and other systems.*** Relatedly, improving language-access provisions across ECEC programs and state and local human service agencies would be a critical step toward ensuring that DLL families are able to participate in available early childhood services, from child care subsidies to Head Start and state pre-K programs. Providing even a basic level of translation and interpretation, however, can be challenging for smaller programs that may lack the resources to address the needs of speakers of less commonly spoken languages. State and regional governments can potentially play an important role in lightening this burden and ensuring that individual programs need not reinvent the wheel by translating materials that may already be available in translation elsewhere. The federal government could also play a role by, for

62 Julie Sugarman and Maki Park, *Quality for Whom? Supporting Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Children and Workers in Early Childhood Quality Rating and Improvement Systems* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2017), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/supporting-culturally-and-linguistically-diverse-children-and-workers.

63 Maki Park and Margie McHugh, *Immigrant Parents and Early Childhood Programs: Addressing Barriers of Literacy, Culture, and Systems Knowledge* (Washington, DC: MPI, 2014), www.migrationpolicy.org/research/immigrant-parents-early-childhood-programs-barriers.

example, having regional health and human service offices of the Office of Refugee Resettlement partner to establish a center that could provide translation and interpretation support for low-incidence languages.

Spanish has long been the dominant minority language in the United States, yet even the strategies and resources that research has demonstrated to be effective in supporting Spanish-speaking DLLs are not widely deployed in the majority of ECEC and K-12 systems. For DLLs in families with other home languages, resources are often scarcer still. With diversity on the rise among DLLs and the young child population more broadly, many communities are experiencing superdiversity in their classrooms with little to no guidance on effective practices to promote the cognitive and socioemotional development of DLLs in this context. DLLs bring a rich and growing spectrum of languages, cultures, identities, and backgrounds into classrooms across the country, including many characteristics that could serve them well and enrich the early learning experiences of their peers. To make the most of this potential, ECEC systems and programs will need to build capacity and develop strategies to effectively meet the learning needs of these children and support their parents in doing the same.

With diversity on the rise among DLLs and the young child population more broadly, many communities are experiencing superdiversity in their classrooms with little to no guidance.

Appendices

Appendix A. Key Characteristics of DLL and Non-DLL Children (ages 0 to 8) in the United States, 2011–15

	Dual Language Learners		Non-DLL Children	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
Total young children	**11,496,000**	**100.0**	**24,766,000**	**100.0**
Age				
0-2	3,732,000	32.5	7,858,000	31.7
3-4	2,665,000	23.2	5,604,000	22.6
5-8	5,098,000	44.4	11,304,000	45.6
Race/Ethnicity				
Hispanic	7,122,000	62.0	2,078,000	8.4
Black	692,000	6.0	5,136,000	20.7
Asian	1,726,000	15.0	592,000	2.4
American Indian	92,000	0.8	364,000	1.5
White/other	1,864,000	16.2	16,597,000	67.0
Nativity				
Foreign born	546,000	4.7	109,000	0.4
U.S. born	10,950,000	95.3	24,657,000	99.6
Parental Nativity				
Children of immigrant parents	8,197,000	71.3	1,013,000	4.1
Preschool Enrollment				
Total population ages 3 to 4*	2,552,000	100.0	5,496,000	100.0
Enrolled in pre-K	1,060,000	41.5	2,630,000	47.9
Family Structure				
Two parents	8,817,000	76.7	17,031,000	68.8
Single mother	2,093,000	18.2	5,847,000	23.6
Single father	356,000	3.1	1,013,000	4.1
No parent present	229,000	2.0	874,000	3.5
Family Poverty**				
Below 100% of FPL	3,503,000	30.5	5,549,000	22.4
100–199% of FPL	3,160,000	27.5	5,091,000	20.6
At or above 200% of FPL	4,832,000	42.0	14,127,000	57.0
Linguistic Isolation***				
Children in linguistically isolated households	2,735,000	23.8	N/A	N/A
Health Insurance Coverage				
Private health insurance	4,803,000	41.8	15,157,000	61.2
Public health insurance only	5,764,000	50.1	8,550,000	34.5
No insurance	929,000	8.1	1,059,000	4.3

* Preschool enrollment rates are calculated for the population of children ages 3 to 4 who are not enrolled in kindergarten.

** The federal poverty level (FPL) is calculated based on total family income before taxes (excluding capital gains and noncash benefits such as food stamps). In 2015, the FPL for a family of four was $24,260.

*** A household is considered linguistically isolated if all adults (individuals age 14 and older) speak a language other than English and none speaks English "very well."

Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Appendix B. Key Characteristics of Parents of DLL and Non-DLL Children (ages 0 to 8) in the United States, 2011–15

	Parents of DLLs		Parents of Non-DLLs	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
Nativity	12,755,000	100.0	26,588,000	100.0
U.S. born	4,492,000	35.2	25,778,000	97.0
Foreign born	8,263,000	64.8	809,000	3.0
Years of U.S. Residence (among foreign-born parents)				
Fewer than 5	842,000	10.2	66,000	8.2
5 to 9	1,469,000	17.8	99,000	12.2
10 to 14	2,131,000	25.8	143,000	17.7
15 to 19	1,497,000	18.1	123,000	15.2
20 or more	2,324,000	28.1	377,000	46.7
English Proficiency				
LEP (speak English less than "very well")	5,230,000	41.0	N/A	N/A
Low LEP (speak English less than "well")	2,821,000	22.1	N/A	N/A
Educational Attainment				
Parents (age 25 and older)	11,812,000	100.0	24,342,000	100.0
0-8th grade	1,607,000	13.6	239,000	1.0
9th-12th grade	1,436,000	12.2	1,206,000	5.0
High school diploma or equivalent	2,663,000	22.5	5,333,000	21.9
Some college	2,674,000	22.6	8,434,000	34.6
Bachelor's degree or higher	3,433,000	29.1	9,130,000	37.5
LEP Status of Low-Educated Parents (age 25 and older)				
Parents with less than a high school diploma or equivalent	3,042,000	100.0	1,445,000	100.0
LEP	2,295,000	75.4	N/A	N/A
Employment Status (civilian population)				
Mothers age 16 and older	6,862,000	100.0	14,949,000	100.0
Employed	3,771,000	55.0	9,787,000	65.5
Unemployed	451,000	6.6	993,000	6.6
Not in the labor force	2,639,000	38.5	4,169,000	27.9
Fathers age 16 and older	5,835,000	100.0	11,408,000	100.0
Employed	5,204,000	89.2	10,063,000	88.2
Unemployed	291,000	5.0	575,000	5.0
Not in the labor force	339,000	5.8	771,000	6.8

LEP = Limited English Proficient.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Appendix C. Demographic Profile of Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI) DLLs, Black DLLs, and All DLLs in the United States, 2011–15

	All DLLs		AAPI DLLs*		Black DLLs*	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
Total young children (ages 0 to 8)	11,496,000	100.0	1,847,000	100.0	927,000	100.0
Age						
0-2	3,732,000	32.5	613,000	33.2	319,000	34.4
3-4	2,665,000	23.2	418,000	22.6	217,000	23.4
5-8	5,098,000	44.4	816,000	44.2	391,000	42.2
Nativity and Family Background						
Foreign born	546,000	4.7	198,000	10.7	56,000	6.0
U.S. born	10,950,000	95.3	1,648,000	89.3	872,000	94.0
Children of immigrant parent/s	8,197,000	71.3	1,670,000	90.4	642,000	69.2
Children of Hispanic origin	7,122,000	62.0	91,000	4.9	235,000	25.4
Family Structure						
Two parents	8,817,000	76.7	1,651,000	89.4	615,000	66.4
Single mother	2,093,000	18.2	137,000	7.4	259,000	27.9
Single father	356,000	3.1	37,000	2.0	29,000	3.2
No parent present	229,000	2.0	22,000	1.2	23,000	2.5
Preschool Enrollment						
Total children (ages 3 to 4) not in kindergarten	2,552,000	100.0	403,000	100.0	205,000	100.0
Enrolled in preschool	1,060,000	41.5	206,000	51.1	99,000	48.3
Linguistic Isolation**						
Children in linguistically isolated households	2,735,000	23.8	396,000	21.4	150,000	16.1
Income and Poverty***						
Below 100% of FPL	3,503,000	30.5	253,000	13.7	293,000	31.6
100-199% of FPL	3,160,000	27.5	324,000	17.6	256,000	27.6
At or above 200% of FPL	4,832,000	42.0	1,270,000	68.8	379,000	40.9
Health Insurance Coverage						
Private health insurance	4,803,000	41.8	1,306,000	70.7	403,000	43.4
Public health insurance only	5,746,000	50.1	452,000	24.4	465,000	50.2
No insurance	929,000	8.1	89,000	4.8	59,000	6.4

* AAPI DLLs and Black DLLs in this table include both Hispanic and non-Hispanic children.
** A household is considered linguistically isolated if all adults (individuals age 14 and older) speak a language other than English and none speaks English "very well."
*** The federal poverty level (FPL) is calculated based on total family income before taxes (excluding capital gains and noncash benefits such as food stamps). In 2015, the FPL for a family of four was $24,260.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–2015 ACS data.

Appendix D. Demographic Profile of Parents of AAPI DLLs, Black DLLs, and All DLLs in the United States, 2011–15

	All Parents of DLLs		Parents of AAPI DLLs*		Parents of Black DLLs*	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
Total parent population	12,755,000	100.0	2,439,000	100.0	943,000	100.0
Nativity						
U.S. born	4,492,000	35.2	413,000	16.9	368,000	39.0
Foreign born	8,263,000	64.8	2,027,000	83.1	576,000	61.0
Years of U.S. Residence (among foreign-born parents)						
Fewer than 5	842,000	10.2	333,000	16.4	81,000	14.0
5 to 9	1,469,000	17.8	405,000	20.0	117,000	20.4
10 to 14	2,131,000	25.8	433,000	21.4	149,000	26.0
15 to 19	1,497,000	18.1	303,000	15.0	97,000	16.8
20 or more	2,324,000	28.1	553,000	27.3	131,000	22.8
English Proficiency						
LEP (speak English less than "very well")	5,230,000	41.0	865,000	35.5	261,000	27.7
Low LEP (speak English less than "well")	2,821,000	22.1	308,000	12.6	97,000	10.3
Educational Attainment						
Parents (age 25 and older)	11,812,000	100.0	2,389,000	100.0	879,000	100.0
0-8th grade	1,607,000	13.6	100,000	4.2	53,000	6.1
9th-12th grade	1,436,000	12.2	111,000	4.6	64,000	7.3
High school diploma or equivalent	2,663,000	22.5	304,000	12.7	197,000	22.4
Some college	2,674,000	22.6	446,000	18.7	302,000	34.4
Bachelor's degree or higher	3,433,000	29.1	1,428,000	59.8	262,000	29.9
LEP Status of Low-Educated Parents (age 25 and older)						
Parents with less than a high school diploma or equivalent	3,042,000	100.0	211,000	100.0	117,000	100.0
LEP	2,295,000	75.4	171,000	80.9	75,000	63.8
Employment (civilian population)						
Mothers age 16 and older	6,862,000	100.0	1,249,000	100.0	541,000	100.0
Employed	3,771,000	55.0	721,000	57.7	357,000	66.0
Unemployed	451,000	6.6	53,000	4.2	54,000	9.9
Not in the labor force	2,639,000	38.5	475,000	38.0	130,000	24.1
Fathers age 16 and older	5,835,000	100.0	1,178,000	100.0	395,000	100.0
Employed	5,204,000	89.2	1,064,000	90.3	335,000	84.9
Unemployed	291,000	5.0	42,000	3.5	30,000	7.7
Not in the labor force	339,000	5.8	72,000	6.1	29,000	7.4

LEP = Limited English Proficient.
* AAPI DLLs and Black DLLs in this table include both Hispanic and non-Hispanic children.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–2015 ACS data.

Appendix E. Top 20 Languages Spoken by Parents of AAPI DLLs and Top 20 Countries of Birth of Foreign-Born Parents of AAPI DLLs in the United States, 2011–15

Languages Spoken	Number	Share (%)	Country of Birth	Number	Share (%)
Total AAPI DLL Parent Population	**2,439,000**	**100.0**	**Total Foreign-Born AAPI DLL Parent Population**	**2,027,000**	**100.0**
Chinese	405,000	16.6	India	549,000	27.1
Vietnamese	234,000	9.6	China	269,000	13.2
Tagalog	233,000	9.5	Vietnam	239,000	11.8
English only	206,000	8.4	Philippines	238,000	11.7
Hindi	167,000	6.8	Korea	131,000	6.5
Korean	140,000	5.7	Pakistan	78,000	3.9
Telugu	110,000	4.5	Bangladesh	52,000	2.6
Urdu	91,000	3.7	Taiwan	49,000	2.4
Tamil	77,000	3.2	Japan	48,000	2.4
Spanish	72,000	2.9	Laos	43,000	2.1
Gujarati	63,000	2.6	Thailand	39,000	1.9
Bengali	62,000	2.6	Myanmar (Burma)	32,000	1.6
Japanese	59,000	2.4	Hong Kong	27,000	1.3
Other Pacific Island Languages	59,000	2.4	Cambodia	27,000	1.3
Hmong	55,000	2.2	Nepal	19,000	0.9
Khmer	39,000	1.6	Indonesia	16,000	0.8
Lao	26,000	1.1	Mexico	13,000	0.6
Arabic	17,000	0.7	Bhutan	12,000	0.6
Thai	16,000	0.7	Afghanistan	9,000	0.5
Farsi	12,000	0.5	Malaysia	9,000	0.4

Notes: Chinese includes Cantonese, Mandarin, and other Chinese languages.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Appendix F. Top 20 Languages Spoken by Parents of Black DLLs and Top 20 Countries of Birth of Foreign-Born Parents of Black DLLs in the United States, 2011–15

Languages Spoken	Number	Share (%)	Countries of Birth	Number	Share (%)
Total Black DLL Parent Population	**943,000**	**100.0**	**Total Foreign-Born Black DLL Parent Population**	**576,000**	**100.0**
Spanish	267,000	28.3	Haiti	115,000	19.9
English only	139,000	14.8	Nigeria	52,000	9.0
French or Haitian Creole	135,000	14.4	Ethiopia	45,000	7.8
Kru	84,000	8.9	Somalia	32,000	5.6
French	72,000	7.7	Ghana	28,000	4.9
Ethiopian	48,000	5.1	Mexico	27,000	4.7
Other African Languages	40,000	4.3	Dominican Republic	26,000	4.5
Cushite, Beja, Somali	38,000	4.0	Africa, ns/nec*	24,000	4.1
Swahili	25,000	2.7	Kenya	20,000	3.4
Arabic	20,000	2.1	Jamaica	15,000	2.6
Portuguese	11,000	1.1	Western Africa, ns*	12,000	2.2
German	8,000	0.9	Sudan	12,000	2.1
Tagalog	7,000	0.7	Cameroon	9,000	1.6
Japanese	4,000	0.4	Liberia	8,000	1.3
Chinese	4,000	0.4	Eritrea	7,000	1.3
Other American Indian Languages	3,000	0.3	Sierra Leone	7,000	1.2
Other Pacific Island Languages	3,000	0.3	Senegal	6,000	1.1
Russian	2,000	0.2	El Salvador	6,000	1.1
Italian	2,000	0.2	Eastern Africa, nec/ns*	6,000	1.0
Korean	2,000	0.2	Cape Verde	6,000	1.0

* ns/nec mean “not specified” and “not elsewhere classified”
Notes: Chinese includes Cantonese, Mandarin, and other Chinese languages. Ethiopian includes Amharic and other Ethiopian languages. French includes Patois and Cajun. German includes Pennsylvania Dutch.
Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Appendix G. Number and Share of Parents of DLLs Who Speak Top Languages, Nationwide and by State, 2011–15 and 2000

State	Number of Parents (2011–15)	Share Speaking English (%) (2011–15)	Share Speaking Top Non-English Language (%) (2011–15)	Share Speaking Top 5 Non-English Languages (%) (2011-2015)	Share Speaking Top Non-English Language (%) (2000)	Share Speaking Top 5 Non-English Languages (%) (2000)
United States	**12,755,000**	**9.2**	**59.0**	**67.9**	**58.5**	**67.3**
Alabama	61,000	13.0	62.7	73.1	45.3	58.3
Alaska	25,000	18.4	22.6	55.4	18.3	35.7
Arizona	350,000	10.2	71.1	78.0	70.8	80.0
Arkansas	50,000	11.6	67.2	73.5	56.5	66.5
California	3,030,000	7.3	65.3	77.5	66.7	78.2
Colorado	194,000	11.8	64.0	70.5	62.8	70.8
Connecticut	154,000	11.2	48.5	62.0	44.3	61.5
Delaware	26,000	10.2	49.4	63.2	46.9	60.5
District of Columbia	18,000	12.4	44.0	66.8	55.6	70.9
Florida	872,000	8.7	67.2	79.1	65.8	77.5
Georgia	302,000	9.2	57.0	65.7	51.1	62.0
Hawaii	60,000	18.8	13.0	41.2	21.9	61.1
Idaho	44,000	14.2	67.4	73.6	65.4	71.9
Illinois	568,000	7.8	58.2	70.7	60.5	71.7
Indiana	124,000	11.2	53.3	68.1	44.8	62.8
Iowa	57,000	11.4	49.9	64.2	44.4	60.8
Kansas	81,000	10.8	62.1	72.1	60.9	72.2
Kentucky	53,000	12.9	42.9	58.3	34.5	55.3
Louisiana	65,000	16.7	47.7	67.8	26.9	60.6
Maine	13,000	22.4	18.0	50.1	39.7	56.8
Maryland	218,000	10.5	39.3	56.0	34.5	53.1
Massachusetts	279,000	9.9	34.6	59.9	34.3	58.5
Michigan	189,000	12.0	30.5	53.7	28.4	49.9
Minnesota	151,000	11.8	31.6	55.3	31.1	54.9
Mississippi	25,000	15.3	54.4	68.3	37.8	56.3
Missouri	83,000	15.7	37.6	52.5	36.2	54.2
Montana	9,000	29.8	22.4	40.1	21.2	41.9
Nebraska	48,000	9.9	63.1	73.1	59.6	69.9
Nevada	163,000	9.4	68.0	79.3	70.7	79.1
New Hampshire	22,000	16.7	25.3	45.2	20.4	49.6
New Jersey	509,000	8.1	47.8	60.4	45.9	59.1

Appendix G. Number and Share of Parents of DLLs Who Speak Top Languages, Nationwide and by State, 2011–15 and 2000 (cont.)

State	Number of Parents (2011–15)	Share Speaking English (%) (2011–15)	Share Speaking Top Non-English Language (%) (2011–15)	Share Speaking Top 5 Non-English Languages (%) (2011-2015)	Share Speaking Top Non-English Language (%) (2000)	Share Speaking Top 5 Non-English Languages (%) (2000)
New Mexico	126,000	12.0	71.3	80.4	67.2	81.9
New York	971,000	8.1	46.4	62.8	48.1	62.3
North Carolina	258,000	8.8	63.3	71.3	55.4	64.8
North Dakota	8,000	23.4	22.0	39.8	22.5	49.4
Ohio	162,000	14.1	29.6	51.3	26.9	48.8
Oklahoma	85,000	12.3	66.0	72.6	54.7	65.9
Oregon	134,000	10.7	57.9	69.0	54.9	67.4
Pennsylvania	268,000	12.3	38.6	54.7	35.3	54.0
Rhode Island	38,000	11.4	54.0	72.5	45.9	67.4
South Carolina	74,000	12.5	59.8	68.5	45.9	59.7
South Dakota	13,000	18.3	27.3	54.9	21.0	58.3
Tennessee	108,000	11.0	56.2	66.9	43.0	57.2
Texas	1,852,000	7.5	78.0	82.9	80.3	84.4
Utah	109,000	15.3	61.8	68.2	51.9	62.1
Vermont	6,000	19.6	15.6	47.4	27.7	50.7
Virginia	274,000	10.9	42.2	56.1	39.3	54.0
Washington	296,000	10.4	45.1	60.5	43.1	60.3
West Virginia	9,000	23.0	36.3	55.9	25.9	47.5
Wisconsin	113,000	11.9	50.0	68.1	42.7	63.4
Wyoming	9,000	18.4	61.8	69.2	47.8	59.9

Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

Appendix H. Top Five Non-English Languages Spoken by Parents of DLLs, Nationwide and by State, 2011–15

State	Total Parents of DLL Children	Language 1		Language 2		Language 3		Language 4		Language 5	
		Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%
United States	**12,755,000**	**Spanish**	**59.0**	**Chinese**	**3.3**	**Tagalog**	**1.9**	**Vietnamese**	**1.9**	**Arabic**	**1.9**
Alabama	61,000	Spanish	62.7	Chinese	3.0	Vietnamese	2.8	Korean	2.8	-	-
Alaska	25,000	Aleut	22.6	Spanish	17.6	Tagalog	9.5	-	-	-	-
Arizona	350,000	Spanish	71.1	Navajo	3.5	Tagalog	1.2	Arabic	1.1	Chinese	1.0
Arkansas	50,000	Spanish	67.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
California	3,030,000	Spanish	65.3	Chinese	4.4	Tagalog	3.6	Vietnamese	2.7	Korean	1.5
Colorado	194,000	Spanish	64.0	Vietnamese	1.8	Chinese	1.6	Russian	1.6	French	1.6
Connecticut	154,000	Spanish	48.5	Portuguese	4.2	Chinese	3.4	Polish	3.3	Hindi	2.7
Delaware	26,000	Spanish	49.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
District of Columbia	18,000	Spanish	44.0	Ethiopian	9.1	French	8.1	-	-	-	-
Florida	872,000	Spanish	67.2	French or Haitian Creole	7.9	Portuguese	1.5	Vietnamese	1.3	Arabic	1.3
Georgia	302,000	Spanish	57.0	Vietnamese	2.3	French	2.2	Chinese	2.1	Korean	2.1
Hawaii	60,000	Tagalog	13.0	Llocano, Hocano	12.4	Spanish	10.5	Japanese	6.6	Chinese	5.6
Idaho	44,000	Spanish	67.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Illinois	568,000	Spanish	58.2	Polish	5.2	Arabic	2.6	Chinese	2.4	Tagalog	2.3
Indiana	124,000	Spanish	53.3	German	7.7	Chinese	3.1	Arabic	2.4	Hindi	1.5
Iowa	57,000	Spanish	49.9	German	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kansas	81,000	Spanish	62.1	Vietnamese	3.6	Chinese	2.5	German	2.2	Arabic	1.7
Kentucky	53,000	Spanish	42.9	German	6.0	Arabic	3.8	French	3.0	Chinese	2.7
Louisiana	65,000	Spanish	47.7	French	7.7	Vietnamese	7.3	Arabic	2.8	Chinese	2.4
Maine	13,000	French	18.0	Spanish	16.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maryland	218,000	Spanish	39.3	French	5.1	Chinese	4.7	Kru	4.2	Tagalog	2.8
Massachusetts	279,000	Spanish	34.6	Portuguese	11.5	Chinese	6.4	French or Haitian Creole	4.7	French	2.9
Michigan	189,000	Spanish	30.5	Arabic	14.1	Chinese	3.7	German	2.7	Chaldean, Syriac, Aramaic	2.7
Minnesota	151,000	Spanish	31.6	Hmong	9.7	Cushite, Beja, Somali	8.8	Chinese	2.7	Vietnamese	2.4

Appendix H. Top Five Non-English Languages Spoken by Parents of DLLs, Nationwide and by State, 2011–15 (cont.)

State	Total Parents of DLL Children	Language 1		Language 2		Language 3		Language 4		Language 5	
		Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%
Missouri	83,000	Spanish	37.6	German	5.2	Chinese	3.4	Arabic	3.3	Serbo-Croatian	2.9
Montana	9,000	Spanish	22.4	German	10.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nebraska	48,000	Spanish	63.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nevada	163,000	Spanish	68.0	Tagalog	6.7	Chinese	2.1	Ethiopian	1.4	Vietnamese	1.0
New Hampshire	22,000	Spanish	25.3	French	7.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Jersey	509,000	Spanish	47.8	Hindi	3.6	Chinese	3.6	Portuguese	2.7	Arabic	2.7
New Mexico	126,000	Spanish	71.3	Navajo	7.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
New York	971,000	Spanish	46.4	Chinese	7.0	Yiddish	3.9	Russian	3.1	Bengali	2.4
North Carolina	258,000	Spanish	63.3	Chinese	2.2	Vietnamese	2.1	Arabic	1.9	French	1.8
North Dakota	8,000	Spanish	22.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ohio	162,000	Spanish	29.6	German	8.9	Arabic	5.8	Chinese	3.9	French	3.0
Oklahoma	85,000	Spanish	66.0	Vietnamese	2.3	German	1.6	-	-	-	-
Oregon	134,000	Spanish	57.9	Chinese	3.3	Vietnamese	3.3	Russian	3.0	Korean	1.4
Pennsylvania	268,000	Spanish	38.6	German	6.7	Chinese	4.6	Arabic	2.5	Vietnamese	2.2
Rhode Island	38,000	Spanish	54.0	Portuguese	11.0	French or Haitian Creole	3.3	-	-	-	-
South Carolina	74,000	Spanish	59.8	Chinese	2.9	Arabic	2.4	German	1.9	Tagalog	1.7
South Dakota	13,000	Spanish	27.3	Lakota, Dakota, Nakota, Sioux	15.8	-	-	-	-	-	3.2
Tennessee	108,000	Spanish	56.2	Arabic	4.9	Vietnamese	2.1	Chinese	2.1	German	1.6
Texas	1,852,000	Spanish	78.0	Vietnamese	1.8	Chinese	1.4	Hindi	0.9	Arabic	0.8
Utah	109,000	Spanish	61.8	Portuguese	2.0	Chinese	1.6	Vietnamese	1.4	French	1.3
Vermont	6,000	Spanish	15.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Virginia	274,000	Spanish	42.2	Arabic	4.2	Chinese	3.3	Vietnamese	3.3	Telugu	3.1
Washington	296,000	Spanish	45.1	Chinese	4.6	Russian	4.2	Vietnamese	3.7	Tagalog	2.9
West Virginia	9,000	Spanish	36.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wisconsin	113,000	Spanish	50.0	Hmong	8.8	German	5.3	Chinese	2.1	Arabic	1.9
Wyoming	9,000	Spanish	61.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Notes: "-" indicates a sample size too small to generate result. Chinese includes Mandarin, Cantonese, and other Chinese languages. Ethiopian includes Amharic and other Ethiopian languages. French includes Patois and Cajun. German includes Pennsylvania Dutch. Hmong refers to Miao or Hmong. Serbo-Croatian includes Croatian and Serbian

Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 data.

Appendix I. Top Five Non-English Languages Spoken by Parents of DLLs, Select States and Counties, 2011–15

	Total Parents of DLL Children	Language 1		Language 2		Language 3		Language 4		Language 5		Share Speaking Top Five Languages (%)
		Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	Name	%	
United States	**12,755,000**	**Spanish**	**59.0**	**Chinese**	**3.3**	**Tagalog**	**1.9**	**Vietnamese**	**1.9**	**Arabic**	**1.9**	**67.9**
California	3,030,000	Spanish	65.3	Chinese	4.4	Tagalog	3.6	Vietnamese	2.7	Korean	1.5	**77.5**
Santa Clara, CA	196,000	Spanish	34.5	Chinese	11.2	Vietnamese	9.8	Hindi	6.8	Tagalog	3.7	**65.9**
Florida	872,000	Spanish	67.2	French or Haitian Creole	7.9	Portuguese	1.5	Vietnamese	1.3	Arabic	1.3	**79.1**
Duval, FL (incl. entire Nassau)	22,000	Spanish	40.2	Tagalog	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	**53.6**
Georgia	302,000	Spanish	57.0	Vietnamese	2.3	French	2.2	Chinese	2.1	Korean	2.1	**65.7**
Fulton, GA	33,000	Spanish	37.2	Telugu	5.6	Hindi	4.8	Chinese	4.3	Arabic	3.7	**55.6**
Illinois	568,000	Spanish	58.2	Polish	5.2	Arabic	2.6	Chinese	2.4	Tagalog	2.3	**70.7**
Du Page, IL	52,000	Spanish	40.0	Polish	7.0	Urdu	4.9	Chinese	4.6	Hindi	4.0	**60.5**
Massachusetts	279,000	Spanish	34.6	Portuguese	11.5	Chinese	6.4	French or Haitian Creole	4.7	French	2.9	**59.9**
Boston, MA	205,000	Spanish	31.8	Portuguese	10.7	Chinese	7.5	French or Haitian Creole	5.8	Arabic	3.2	**59.1**
New Jersey	509,000	Spanish	47.8	Hindi	3.6	Chinese	3.6	Portuguese	2.7	Arabic	2.7	**60.4**
Middlesex, NJ	74,000	Spanish	31.7	Hindi	10.3	Telugu	8.6	Chinese	5.4	Gujarati	5.3	**61.3**
New York State	971,000	Spanish	46.4	Chinese	7.0	Yiddish	3.9	Russian	3.1	Bengali	2.4	**62.8**
Kings, NY	200,000	Spanish	33.2	Yiddish	12.0	Chinese	11.9	Russian	8.1	French or Haitian Creole	5.1	**70.2**
Texas	1,852,000	Spanish	78.0	Vietnamese	1.8	Chinese	1.4	Hindi	0.9	Arabic	0.8	**82.9**
Collin, TX	55,000	Spanish	37.9	Chinese	7.5	Telugu	5.4	Hindi	4.8	Vietnamese	3.8	**59.3**
Virginia	274,000	Spanish	42.2	Arabic	4.2	Chinese	3.3	Vietnamese	3.3	Telugu	3.1	**56.1**
Fairfax, VA (incl. the cities of Fairfax and Falls Church)	86,000	Spanish	33.8	Arabic	5.4	Vietnamese	5.2	Korean	5.2	Chinese	4.6	**54.0**
Washington State	296,000	Spanish	45.1	Chinese	4.6	Russian	4.2	Vietnamese	3.7	Tagalog	2.9	**60.5**
King, WA	117,000	Spanish	27.5	Chinese	8.5	Hindi	4.8	Vietnamese	4.6	Russian	3.6	**49.0**

Notes: This table presents data for the top ten immigrant-receiving states as of 2015. Within these states, the authors identified counties in which no single language accounts for more than 50 percent. Of this subset of counties, the authors selected the one county in each state with the largest number of parents of DLLs to be used for comparison. "-" indicates a sample size too small to generate result. Chinese includes Mandarin, Cantonese, and other Chinese languages. French includes Patois and Cajun.

Source: MPI analysis of pooled 2011–15 ACS data.

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

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