



A Center Policy Brief

Immigrant Children and Youth: Enabling Their Success at School

(April, 2011)

Abstract

A great deal has been written about immigrant children and youth. This brief focuses on implications for school improvement policy and practice. Discussed are (1) different reasons families migrate, (2) concerns that arise related to immigrant students, (3) prevailing school practices for addressing immigrant concerns, (4) a framework for broadening what schools and communities do, and (5) implications for policy.

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Immigrant Children and Youth: Enabling Their Success at School

In just under three decades, the immigrant population has tripled in the United States.... In 2007 the foreign born population of the US was 13%. (66% of all immigrants lived in six states: CA, NY, TX, FL, IL, and NJ). However, immigrant populations have grown rapidly in NC, GA, AR, SC and TN.

Fortuny, Chaudry, & Jargowsky, 2010

The United States is being transformed by high, continuing levels of immigration. No American institution has felt the effect of these flows more forcefully than the nation's public schools. And no set of American institutions is arguably more crucial to the future success of immigrant integration.

Ruiz-De-Velasco, Fix, & Clewell, 2000

All schools have an influx of newcomers. In some schools, many newcomers are from another country. Newcomers vary in the type and amount of supports they need to enable a successful transition and adjustment to school and neighborhood. Beyond initial supports, schools receiving students from other countries need to develop a full continuum of interventions to address immigrant concerns and a multicultural student body.

A sense of need is reflected in concerns heard at schools across the country, such as:

A large part of our dropout problem is that so many immigrant students leave early to go to work.

Immigrant girls are leaving school because their families have arranged marriages for them as early as 14 years of age.

The refugee organization in our community is bringing in many families whose children have never been in school.

Our schools have families who speak many different languages, and we don't have enough translators to facilitate communication"

On campus, student groups establish their territory and newcomers not only aren't invited in, they are stigmatized (e.g., labeled FOB -- Fresh Off the Boat).

Our ELL students aren't doing well learning English and aren't showing progress on the state achievement tests; this is having a serious negative impact on our average yearly progress.

Many parent are unhappy because we are not helping their children maintain their home language.

Unannounced immigration raids at the packing plants during the school day led to countless numbers of children coming home to find no adult there.

Available data indicate the numbers of immigrant children and youth in U.S. schools are increasing faster than any other group (Fortuny, Hernandez, & Chaudry, 2010). This includes those born in other countries, and those born in the U.S. of immigrant parents. With rates increasing, schools are confronted with growing pressures to address a variety of concerns.

In developing appropriate policies and practices, schools must understand the diverse nature of immigrant subgroups. The heterogeneity arises from a myriad of factors. Families leave their country of origin for different reasons. Youngsters experiences during migration vary considerably. Upon arriving in their new home, they are involved in complex transactions; other challenges arise during the settling in period. As they cope with diverse situations and events, the outcomes are sometimes positive, sometimes negative. Over time, most youngsters assimilate, albeit in a variety of ways; some, however, remain outsiders. (See the theory of segmented assimilation formulated by Portes and Zhou in 1993 and elaborated on by Portes and Rumbaut in 2001.)

Among the most obvious concerns for schools are addressing groups of students with limited English language and cultural differences, both of which may generate behaviors among peers and staff that are associated with prejudice and discrimination. Additional intervention concerns arise when students' families are undocumented, are refugees from war zones, are living in poverty, and so forth (Fazel, Doll, & Stein, 2009; Zigelbaum & Carlson, 2010).

Given how much has been written about immigrant children and youth, this brief only touches upon matters that have implications for school improvement policy and practice. Discussed are (1) different reasons families migrate, (2) concerns about immigrant students, (3) prevailing school practices for addressing immigrant concerns, (4) a framework for broadening what schools and communities do, and (5) implications for policy.

Understanding Why Families Migrate

Three prominent and not mutually exclusive reasons families leave their country of origin are (a) to enhance economic opportunity, (b) to reunify the family, and/or (b) for political considerations. Understanding these matters can help schools anticipate and plan for problems some students may bring with them to school.

Economic Opportunity for Some, Poverty for Many

The long-standing image of the U.S. as a land of milk and honey has drawn immigrants from all over the world. For some, the promise is fulfilled. For many, however, the reality is sobering. Fortuny, Chaudry, and Jargowsky (2010) report that in 2007 “Immigrant children had the highest poverty rate (26%); ... the rate for native-born children of immigrants was lower (19%), but above the rate for children of native born parents.”

Chaudry and Fortuny (2010) note that “Family incomes vary significantly for different countries and regions of origin. In 2008 ... wages were very low for Mexican (\$11) and Central American families (\$13), who earned about half as much hourly as workers in families with origins in the Middle East and South Asia (\$25): Europe, Canada, and Australia (\$24); and East Asia and the Pacific (\$23).”

Low income means insufficient access to common amenities and opportunities available to those with moderate to high incomes. It means food insecurity and crowded housing conditions. It means vulnerability to and difficulty in coping with stressors. For immigrants, poverty is associated with undocumented status, lack of English language facility, poor school performance, and no high school diploma. It is noteworthy that almost half of the estimated 11 million undocumented immigrants in the U.S. lack a high school diploma (Fortuny, Capps & Passel, 2007; Capps & Passel, 2004).

Reunifying Families

In the mid sixties, U.S. policy began stressing family reunification. Under this policy, parents, spouses, and children of U. S. citizens can become legal permanent residents. After five years, the adults are eligible to become naturalized citizens, and when parents become citizens, so do their children (Capps & Passel, 2004).

Studies indicate that the unification policy often means that one family member comes to the U.S. with others following after an interval of time. Psychological costs are attributed both to the family's period of separation and the process of reuniting. Suarez-Orozco, Bang, and Kim (2010) note that "Children separated from their parents were more likely to report symptoms of anxiety and depression in the initial years after migrating than children who had not been separated.... During the reunification stage, children and youth often report ambivalence about leaving behind their beloved extended family, caretakers, and friends and are anxious about meeting members of the biological family who have become strangers over the prolonged separation. "

Various factors related to reunification undoubtedly affect attitudes about self and others that new arrivals bring to school. For instance, degree of choice would affect feelings of self-determination (Deci & Moller, 2005). Degree of success in coping with a new language and a new culture would affect feelings of competence. Degree of connection with those who came before and others in the community and at school would affect feelings of relatedness to significant others. And all this would affect attitudes about bridging cultures (Greenfield, 2006).

Seeking Refuge

Refugees are persons admitted to the U. S. based on a well-founded indication that they have cause to fear persecution in their home country. Up to 70,000 refugees can be admitted in a year. Persons admitted as refugees can subsequently apply for legal permanent residency (Capps & Passel, 2004). In the period from 1975 to 2005, the U.S. has resettled over 2 million refugees, with approximately half having arrived as children (McBrien, 2005).

Fangen (2010) cautions: "There are differences between first-generation immigrants who come as refugees and those coming through family reunion, as well as differences between those coming from war areas

and those who do not have such experiences. This is partly a matter of having had any access to schooling before arriving in the host country, partly a matter of the extent to which one has experienced traumas or having or not having someone to relate to when arriving.”

By definition, refugees suffer from persecution (which often involves physical and emotional trauma), are forced to relocate to another country, and may experience social exclusion and discrimination in the U.S. This is a recipe for psychosocial and educational problems.

However, it must be noted that increasing references to post traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD) have generated a tendency to generalize and medicalize refugee experiences. To counter this tendency, Murray, Davidson, and Schweitzer (2010) note that “clinicians and researchers have begun to shift the emphasis away from experiences of trauma and symptoms of posttraumatic stress toward understanding refugees’ experiences and challenges within the resettlement environment and toward fostering strength, capacity, and resilience among individuals and communities. There is increased recognition of the need to take a holistic approach that acknowledges cultural differences, persons in context, and the inherent strengths and wisdom within the refugee community.... Researchers and practitioners must keep in mind the potential cultural ill fit and iatrogenic effects of cognitive-behavioral, pharmacological, and other Western interventions and the cultural factors which may influence responses to treatment.”

Concerns About Immigrant Students

Whatever the reason for leaving their country of origin, obviously many immigrant families adapt successfully after arriving in the U.S. And researchers have cautioned about tendencies to stereotype students from immigrant families as low performers (Feliciano, 2006). For example, Crosnoe and Turley (2011) highlight that group data on children of Asian and African immigrants indicate higher performance than other groups.

But for some immigrant students the challenges they experience can be overwhelming. Problems can begin with events related to the decisions to migrate and the migration process itself; other concerns are associated with the complexities of the post-migration period (Ko & Perreira, 2010; Sluzki, 1979). As Perreira and Ornelas (2011) underscore, the mobility process of migrating includes matters such as “whether the children walk, drive, fly, or come by ship; whether they travel with a trusted family member or friend or are smuggled into the country; and whether they experience hardships during travel such as detainment in a refugee camp, assault, or hunger. The post-migration stage pertains to the settlement experiences of children; the process of navigating life in a new country; and the realization of changes in family economic situations, dynamics, and social roles. Pre-migration

and migration influences are critical to children of immigrants, whereas post-migration influences are critical to second and later immigrant generations as well.”

The stress of coping with a new language and a new culture, a less than welcoming reception, racism, discrimination, school and community violence all are recipes for learning, behavior, and emotional problems (Qin, 2009; Suarez-Orozco, Rhodes, & Milburn, 2009). In addition, many immigrant students report feeling that their teachers view them in unfavorable ways (Peguero & Bondy, 2010); also analyses of informal social patterns at schools indicate an isolation from their English speaking peers (Daoud, 2003; Peguero, 2009).

Other factors causing stress include intergenerational conflict and psychological reactance to parental guidance appear as a youngster identifies with the peer culture at school and with what is learned from the school curriculum. As Qin (2009) stresses, immigrant children and youth must traverse multiple cultural worlds “and the often conflicted expectations they face in daily life. Many are torn between the attachment to their parents’ culture, the lure of the adolescent peer culture, and aspirations to join the American mainstream culture.”

Relatedly, immigrant parents and other family members bring varying understanding and attitudes about schooling and about how to interact with school staff (Carreon, Drake, & Barton, 2005). Some of this reflects their own experiences with schools, cultural and religious values, and the reasons they left their country of origin. As a result, home involvement and engagement with the new culture and with the school varies markedly. And if the youngsters learn to cope in the new environment faster than their parents, they may find themselves having to assume adult functions in their families (e.g., as language translators, as agents in economic transactions). All this can add to stress and role friction.

Undocumented immigrant families experience additional stressors (Capps, Castaneda, Chaudry, & Santos, 2007). As the Immigration Policy Center states: “Raids and other Immigration and Customs Enforcement actions that separate parents and children pose serious risks to children’s immediate safety, economic security, well-being and long-term development.” According to the center, there are roughly 5.5 million children living in the U.S. with unauthorized immigrant parents. Three-quarters of these are U.S. born citizens. In a recent 10 year period, over 100,000 immigrant parents of U. S. citizen children were deported (<http://www.imigrationpolicy.org/just-facts>).

McBrien (2005) views refugee students as among the most vulnerable for school failure and its consequences. In addition to the stress of migration and adaptation to the new, they may have been victimized in their country of origin and often seem to feel personal and cultural bereavement to a greater extent than non-refugee immigrants.

Immigrant Resilience

While the emphasis in this report is on addressing concerns, it is well to note that there are immigrant students who rise above their negative experiences. Some students display remarkable resilience, and whenever feasible, schools need to understand and promote protective buffers (Hooberman, Rosenfeld, Rasmussen, & Keller, 2010). For example, from a motivational perspective, research suggests that resilience is associated with experiences that enhance feelings of competence, relatedness, and connectedness with others (Deci & Moller, 2005).

Suarez-Orozco and colleagues (2009) note that:

“Successful adaptations among immigrant students appear to be linked to the quality of relationships that they forge in their school settings. ... Social relations provide a variety of protective functions – a sense of belonging, emotional support, tangible assistance and information, cognitive guidance, and positive feedback. ... Relationships with peers, for example, provide emotional sustenance that supports the development of significant psychosocial competencies in youth. ... In addition, connections with teachers, counselors, coaches, and other supportive adults in school are important in the academic and social adaptation of adolescents and appear to be particularly important to immigrant adolescents.”

Prevailing School Practices for Addressing Immigrant Concerns

The mission of schools is to provide all students with a good education. Toward this end, there is consensus that schools should welcome and orient newcomers, enhance English language skills of those with limited English proficiency, and connect families with neighborhood services as much as feasible. In addition, when problems arise related to prejudice and violence involving immigrant students, schools tend to react with various programs designed to address relational concerns (e.g., conflict resolution and mediation, programs designed to enhance supportive relationships). And in low performing schools, dropout data are a red flag indicator, and thus dropout prevention programs may pay special attention to subgroups such as immigrant students (Leos & Saavedra, 2010).

A number of federal education programs are available to support newly arrived students. In addition to Title III's emphasis on ensuring that limited English proficient students master English, schools with high poverty rates can use Title I resources in addressing concerns related to newly arrived students and their families. In addition, 15% of IDEA funds may be used for Coordinated Early Intervening Services. Such services are for students who are not currently identified as requiring special education, but who need additional academic and behavioral support to succeed in a general education environment. (U. S. Department of Education, 2009). The Refugee Children School Impact Grant Program in the Office of Refugee Resettlement also provides for some of the costs of educating refugee children (Morse, 2005).

Beyond the above matters, there is considerable disagreement over what else schools should do to help immigrants and others of concern. This is not surprising given the diversity in and between the subgroups. As Tienda and Haskins (2011) note:

Although Mexicans are the nation's largest immigrant group and the subject of many studies, their experiences cannot be generalized to all recent immigrant groups, even those from Latin America.

Conflicting agenda about immigrant policy are another reason for the many disagreements about practice. The matter is exacerbated further by the lack of an overall intervention framework guiding development of student and learning supports. Moreover, there is relatively little leadership and infrastructure for integrating efforts to enable equity of opportunity for success at school.

Exhibit 1 highlights some examples of prevailing school and neighborhood programs designed for immigrant students. While the emphasis here is on K-12, there are relevant programs related to the full life span.

Exhibit 1

Current School and Neighborhood Programs

Some School based Support:

>Welcome Centers & Newcomer Programs

Many districts have a central location for enrollment of students from other countries. The focus often is on orienting newcomers and assessing the skill level in a student's native language in order to plan the best academic placement. In some cases student support services are available to assess social and emotional needs and provide follow up support to the student and family.

Newcomer programs are short-term programs (usually 6-18 months) for recent immigrant students. The intent is to address limited English proficiency, low literacy, limited schooling, and ease transition. Other services for students may include health care, mental health, career counseling, and tutoring. Programs sometimes serve families as well, providing not only outreach specific to the school, but also adult ESL, orientation to the community, and help with accessing social services, health care, housing and employment. Schools often partner with the community to serve parents and families (Morse, 2005; Short, 2002). Cautions are raised, however, about segregating students and about putting them in situations where there are few English speaking peers (Feinberg (2000). Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera (2006) state that "Effective newcomer programs recognize that they provide temporary, short-term supports, in some cases for only part of the school day...." Further they suggest as guidelines for maximizing benefits and minimizing risks that "following their placement in a newcomer programs these students will continue to require additional support to meet high academic standards in mainstream classrooms. Most newcomer programs are characterized as a first step in a long-term process within which the students transition into increasingly integrated settings with decreasing levels of support." They conclude: "For this model to be successful, teachers must coordinate curriculum and instruction across newcomer programs, ESL/bilingual programs, and mainstream classes."

Examples:

- *Student Intake Center* in the Dallas Independent School District is part of a multi-language enrichment program. All immigrant and refugee students new to the district are "enrolled, oriented, and assessed at the Student Intake Center. The center's staff provides support to families and students to begin the path toward academic success."
[Http://www.dallasisd.org/inside_disd/depts/mlep/intake.htm](http://www.dallasisd.org/inside_disd/depts/mlep/intake.htm)
- *ESL Newcomer Academy*, Jefferson County Schools, KY. The stated goal is "to provide a welcoming and respectful environment to meet the needs of sixth through tenth grade English language learners. All students at the academy are beginning English speakers, and many are in their first year of instruction in a U. S. school. Many ... have had limited or interrupted educational experiences in their native countries. The teachers at the ESL Newcomer Academy work together to help student to learn the English language skills, social skills, and cultural awareness they need to succeed in the American school system. ESL Newcomer Academy students go to a different middle or high school with an ESL program after one to three semesters at the Newcomer Academy."
<http://jcps.jefferson.k12.ky.us/eslnewcomeracademy/>

(cont.)

>Family Involvement

“When looking at the growing immigrant population, two-generation strategies often focus on parental involvement in education ... engaging them more fully in the educational process in the home, school and community could bring academic returns for their children. For the most part, these efforts have targeted parental involvement through, for example, programs to help immigrant parents construct home literacy environments or to help teachers better communicate with immigrant parents. Yet, attempts to alter the barriers to involvement behavior through, for example, programs to help parents increase their education or their own English proficiency, have also gained traction” (Crosnoe, 2010).

Example:

As reviewed by Golan and Petersen (2002) the programs of *the Parent Institute for Quality Education* (PIQE) focus on recent immigrant families and aim “to increase parents’ knowledge and skills to support the academic achievement of their children. ... PIQE has developed and widely implemented a model for increasing parent involvement in K-12 schools where parent participation has been difficult to achieve. PIQE uses informal education techniques ... dedicated to promoting social change, such as using dialogue to build community and social capital, situating educational activity in the lived experience of participants, and raising participants’ consciousness about their situations and their own power to take informed action.”

>Language Acquisition and Quality Instruction

- *ESL* – The *What Works Clearinghouse* lists programs that have been effective in enhancing language acquisition and reading for students who are English language learners. The Clearinghouse indicates there is a dearth of effective programs for older students.
<http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/topicarea.aspx?tid=10>
Calderon, Slavin, and Sanchez (2011) note that “In spite of their striking diversity, English learners in secondary schools have typically been lumped into the same English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom, with one teacher addressing the needs of students with dramatically varied English proficiency, reading, and writing skills. In elementary schools, a common practice is to pull out English learners across grades K–5 for thirty minutes of ESL instruction. For the remainder of the day these English learners attend regular classes in a sink-or-swim instructional situation, usually with teachers who are unprepared to teach them (Ingersoll, 2008).”
- *Instruction in general* – Calderon, Slavin, and Sanchez (2011) stress that “what matters most in educating English learners is the quality of instruction.” For them, such quality is found in comprehensive preschool to twelfth grade reform models which include the following elements: (1) school structures and leadership, (2) language and literacy instruction, (3) integration of language, literacy, and content instruction in secondary schools, (4) cooperative learning, (5) professional development, (6) parent and family support teams, (7) tutoring, and (8) monitoring implementation and outcomes.
- *General principles for developing effective teaching and learning contexts for immigrants adolescents* – Walqui (2000) outlines 10 general principles and profiles a program at Calexico High School in Calexico, California that puts the principles into practice. Calexico is a bilingual/bicultural community on the southern border of the United States; 98% of the students are Latino, and 80% are English language learners.
<http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0003strategies.html> (cont.)

>Professional/Staff Development

Everyone stresses the importance of teacher and sometimes other staff development related to enhancing cultural understanding and competence.

- Spaulding, Carolino, and Amen (2004) have developed a compendium of best practices for professional development of teachers of immigrant students for the Council of Chief State School Officers – <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED484705.pdf>
- The Bridging Cultures Project provides a recent example of resources to support teachers use of cultural knowledge to increase student success at school. The project stresses a framework for “understanding and preventing conflicts experienced by many students, which are often invisible to teachers” – <http://www.wested.org/cs/we/view/pj/26>

Some Related Community Supports:

>Family Services and Resources

Most communities with new immigrants pull together resources to assist them. For example, the NY City, Department of Youth and Community Development, Immigrant Family Services website provides immigrant families with the tools and links so they can “take full advantage of the educational, professional, health, and social resources available to them.” http://www.nyc.gov/html/dycd/html/immigrant/immigrant_family_services.shtml

>Mental Health Supports

- Caring Across Communities is an initiative of the Center for Health and Health Care in Schools; it is designed to help meet the mental health needs of immigrant children and youth. Available are tools, resources, and strategies to effectively address the needs as well as lessons learned from demonstration sites. <http://www.healthinschools.org/en/immigrant-and-refugee-children.aspx>
- FACES the International family, adult, and child enhancement services is a community-based comprehensive services model for refugee children in resettlement. It is a program for bilingual and bicultural paraprofessionals to serve as a bridge to existing mental health services for refugees (Birman, Harris, Everson, et al. 2008). This program is noteworthy because “treatment teams include a range of mental health providers and ethnic/culturally diverse mental health workers who were previously refugees themselves. Also, unlike most treatment programs for trauma victims (which typically focus on a single traumatic experience), FACES staff address multiple traumatic events reported by these refugees.” See Data Trends summary – http://datatrends.fmhi.usf.edu/summary_153.pdf

>Refugee Orientation

The Cultural Orientation Resource Center offers cultural orientation to prepare refugees for what they as a group are likely to encounter in the United States. The focus is on helping individual refugees deal with what they are actually experiencing in their new communities. <Http://www.cal.org>

>Immigration Raids Aftermath Support

In communities that have experienced immigration raids, community based organizations, churches, non-profit service providers, lawyers, public human services agencies, and child welfare agencies have provided short-term aid to families affected. <Http://www.imigrationpolicy.org/just-facts>

Broadening What Schools and Communities Do

It often is suggested that lack of proficiency in English is the primary cause for the high dropout rates among language-minority students. For example, Morse (2005) notes:

Immigrant children attend schools that are not just racially and ethnically segregated but also linguistically isolated. In many parts of the United States, persistent neighborhood-level racial and ethnic segregation is reflected in segregated schools. ...over one-half of all LEP students attend schools where more than 30 percent of students are LEP.... LEP children are twice as likely as their English speaking counterparts to drop out of school.

While it is evident that language is a fundamental concern, it is not the only concern. And in addressing that particular concern, care must be taken not to marginalize other factors related to poor transitions and adjustment in a new school, neighborhood, and country and ongoing obstacles to healthy social and emotional development.

Needed: Language and Much More

One facet of the problem of paying adequate attention to the broad range of immigrant student concerns stems from the mandate to teach immigrants English. For schools, this mandate is rooted in past judicial decisions (i.e., *Lau v. Nichols*, U.S. Supreme Court, 1974) and ongoing policy debates and actions. As a result of the many issues related to ensuring English is learned, this has emerged as the prevailing emphasis in school improvement policy with respect to addressing the needs of immigrant students. And the need for a focus on language is certainly evident. K-12 public school enrollment data for 2007-2008 indicate a rapidly growing group of English language learners – 10.6 percent or 5.3 million students (Batalova & McHugh, 2010). And Calderon, Slavin, and Sanchez (2011) stress that this segment of students is highly diverse (e.g., about 20–30 percent are recent immigrants; many others are second generation; some, including children of migrant workers, have had their formal education disrupted; some students are designated as long-term English learners; some are in special education; 79% speak Spanish as their native language).

To ensure a high priority focus on teaching English, the federal government requires that school districts address the needs of limited English proficient students and report the subgroup separately. Ironically, while research indicates that for many students it takes five to seven years to achieve advanced proficiency in a second language, after three years federal accountability criteria call for reading and language arts testing

of these students in English (albeit with accommodations and alternative tests if indicated). For schools with many limited English proficient students, the accountability policy works against their efforts to make the amount of adequate yearly progress required by the law and also works against providing a broader set of student and learning supports for these students (Hall, 2011).

English proficiency is a necessary, if insufficient, condition for eliminating achievement gaps....

Tienda & Haskins

The irony is that, when schools attend too narrowly to the broad range of student concerns highlighted above, a significant number of immigrant students continue to do poorly in learning English at school, and many misbehave, disengage, and eventually dropout.

As the examples in Exhibit 1 indicate, schools have a range of interventions in place. However, critics stress that a broader and more proactive focus is needed, and greater attention must be given to equitable intervention access, availability, and affordability. For example, with respect to refugee children, various advocates call for schools to expand the education mission to encompass restoration of social and emotional health, support for rapid socialization and acculturation, maintenance of language spoken at home and of ethnic culture, and provision of high quality early care, preschool, kindergarten, and after school programs (Karoly & Gonzales, 2011; McBrien, 2005; Tienda & Haskins, 2011).

Toward a Comprehensive System of Student and Learning Supports

Enabling equity of opportunity to succeed at school means moving away from marginalized, fragmented, and piecemeal programs for specific subgroups of students. Necessary is development of a comprehensive system of interventions for addressing barriers to learning and teaching of all students. Such a system is being introduced into pioneering state and local education agencies across the country (Center for Mental Health in School, 2011a). The intervention and operational infrastructure frameworks for the system provide a template both for generally supporting all newcomers to the country and specifically supporting particular needs of diverse subgroups. The prototype intervention framework is illustrated in Exhibit 2.

Development of a comprehensive system of interventions that is fully integrated into school improvement policy and practice enhances a school's focus on addressing barriers to learning and teaching and re-engaging disconnected students (Adelman & Taylor, 2006a, b). Such a system is key to promoting the well-being and intrinsic motivation for school success of all students, their families, and the school staff and is a key element in facilitating emergence of a positive school climate. The intent is to fully embed the concerns about immigrant students into a system of student and learning supports designed for all students.

Exhibit 2

Framework for a Comprehensive System of Student and Learning Supports

Integrated Intervention Continuum

		Subsystem for Promoting Healthy Development & Preventing Problems	Subsystem for Early Intervention	Subsystem of Care
Arenas of Intervention Content	In Classroom			
	Support for Transitions			
	Crisis response/prevention			
	Home involvement			
	Community engagement			
	Student & Family Assistance			

A few examples of activity in each of the six arenas highlighted in Exhibit 1 illustrate a broad focus on enhancing students' positive attitudes toward school by promoting feelings of competence, self-determination, and relationship.

1. *Classroom focused interventions to enable & re-engage students in learning* – By opening the classroom door to bring in available supports (e.g., student support staff, resource teachers, volunteers), teachers are enabled to enhance options, facilitate student choice and decision making, and personalize instruction in ways that increase the intrinsic motivation of all involved.
2. *Crisis assistance and prevention* – School-focused crisis teams can take proactive leadership in developing prevention programs to avoid or mitigate crises by enhancing protective buffers and student intrinsic motivation for preventing interpersonal and human relationship problems.

3. *Support for transitions* – Welcoming and ongoing social support for students, families, and staff new to the school provide both a motivational and a capacity building foundation for developing positive working relationships and a positive school climate.
4. *Home involvement and engagement in schooling* – Expanding the nature and scope of interventions and enhancing communication mechanisms for outreaching in ways that connect with the variety of motivational differences manifested by parents and other student caretakers enables development of intrinsically motivated school-home working relationships.
5. *Community outreach for involvement and support* – Weaving together school and community efforts to enhance the range of options and choices for students, both in school and in the community, can better address barriers to learning, promote child and youth development, and establish a sense of community that supports learning and focuses on hope for the future (higher ed/career choices).
6. *Student and family assistance* – Providing personalized support as soon as a need is recognized and doing so in the least disruptive ways minimizes threats to intrinsic motivation; and when such support is implemented with a shared and mutually respectful problem-solving approach, it can enhance intrinsic motivation and a sense of competence and positive relationship among all involved.

School systems are not responsible for meeting every need of their students.

But when the need directly affects learning, the school must meet the challenge.

Carnegie Task Force on Education

Policy Implications

On the one hand, immigrant students and their families raise special concerns for schools. On the other hand, many of the concerns overlap with those of other students who require student and learning supports to enable them to succeed at school.

Rather than enact so many piecemeal and fragmented policies related to specific subgroups of students and problems, it is time to recognize commonalities in the underlying dynamics causing learning, behavior, and emotional problems. From this perspective, interventions to address concerns associated with many designated subgroups can be embedded into a broad framework for enabling success at school. This does not mean ignoring or marginalizing any subgroup. To the contrary, the point is to directly address common underlying factors interfering with students benefitting from good instruction and to do so in a way that avoids fragmentation, redundancy, and counterproductive competition for sparse resources.

To these ends, policy makers need to move from a two- to a three- component framework for school improvement. The third component, focused on addressing barriers to learning and teaching and re-engaging disconnected students. This component must be fully integrated with efforts to improve instruction and management/governance and pursued as a primary and essential component of school improvement policy and practice. In addition, the accountability framework for schools must be expanded to encompass direct indicators of work carried out related to the third component (Center for Mental Health in School, 2011b, 2011c).

Policy guidelines should specify the intent of developing the third component as a comprehensive system, with dedicated leadership and a connected operational infrastructure at all levels to accomplish the work over a period of several years. Specific guidelines should emphasize that:

- (1) the third component be conceived as a unifying concept for developing a comprehensive, multifaceted, and cohesive system that encompasses all efforts related to providing student and learning supports;
- (2) establishment of the third component should begin with analysis of all current resources used by schools for student and learning supports with a view to realigning and redeploying resources to reduce redundancy and identifying high priority system gaps;
- (3) capacity building related to the third component should include
 - identifying dedicated leadership positions for the component
 - redefining job descriptions of student and learning support personnel
 - connecting relevant resources across families of schools
 - enhancing collaboration with community resources to weave together overlapping functions and related resources into a comprehensive system
 - pursuing relevant professional and other stakeholder development

While the proposed policy shift can be done now at district and state levels, federal accountability demands tend to maintain the ongoing marginalization of student and learning supports. Therefore, the emphasis on a third component for school improvement definitely must be a major focus in reauthorizing the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*. With this in mind, in previous reports we suggested specific changes in wording (e.g., see Center for Mental Health in Schools, 2007).

The next decade must mark a turning point for how schools and communities address the problems of all children and youth. Needed in particular are initiatives to transform how schools work to prevent and ameliorate the many learning, behavior, and emotional problems experienced by students. The end product must be schools where everyone – staff, students, families, and community stakeholders – feels supported. This will require reshaping the functions of all school personnel who have a role to play in addressing barriers to learning and promoting healthy development. And, it requires fully integrating a third component into school improvement planning.

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Note: For a set of useful resources, go to the
 Cultural Orientation Resource Center, Center for Applied Linguistics
<http://www.cal.org/co/publications/welcome.html>

See especially:

- > *Welcome to the United States: A Guidebook for Refugees*
- > *A New Day: Refugee Families in the United States*
- > *Be Who You Are: Refugee Youth in the United States*

Also, for a wide and growing range of relevant resources see the Center's Online Clearinghouse Quick Finds on:

- > *Cultural Competence* – <http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu/qf/culturecomp.htm>
- > *Immigrant Students and Mental Health* – <http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu/qf/immigrantkids.htm>