



University of Southern California

# WHAT'S AT STAKE FOR THE STATE

*Undocumented Californians, Immigration Reform, and Our Future Together*

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# Executive Summary

As we release this report, comprehensive immigration reform is being discussed and debated on Capitol Hill. While immigrants have long been high on the list of concerns of policy makers, civic leaders, philanthropists and others in states like California, Illinois, and New York, the majority of the nation is now taking interest – with nearly two-thirds of Americans believing that a path to citizenship should be afforded to those immigrants who are currently unauthorized. But just as this conversation is heating up in D.C., it is important that those of us in California stay focused on what this will mean in the state and what is needed in an immigration reform bill – and after – to help the state prosper.

After all, California is home to more than 10.3 million immigrants of which over 2.6 million of them are estimated to be unauthorized (a group we and others often also term “undocumented”). Indeed, according to the Pew Hispanic Center, the state is home to nearly one-quarter (23 percent) of the nation’s undocumented immigrants. In communities across California, the undocumented are more than the subject of political debates, they are our neighbors, relatives, colleagues, and friends: They are 7 percent of the state’s population, 8 percent of all adults, and 9 percent of the workforce. Many settled in California long ago – almost half (49 percent) of the state’s undocumented have lived here for more than 10 years. And they are deeply

connected to the state’s citizenry: more than 13 percent of the state’s children are citizens who have at least one undocumented immigrant parent. Immigration reform matters to California not only because of the sheer size of our immigrant population, but because immigrants have become woven into California’s social, civic and economic life.

Moreover, the legalization and potential naturalization of these immigrants would economically benefit the state. Several recent reports from the California

Immigrant Policy Center have highlighted the economic, social, and civic contributions immigrants make

to specific regions within California. Focusing specifically on the undocumented population, the Center for American Progress recently suggested that a roadmap to citizenship could generate a 25 percent boost in immigrant income, whereas a more conservative estimate for the state generated last year by

USC’s Center for the Study of Immigrant Integration suggests a more modest gain of over 14 percent. Either means a boost in state GDP, multiplied over multiple years and many sectors. And these are not the only benefits: roughly one in six of the state’s children have at least one undocumented immigrant parent – and stabilizing and improving the situation of their parents is an investment in our state’s long-term future.

Immigration reform matters to California not only because of the sheer size of our immigrant population, but because immigrants have become woven into California’s social, civic and economic life.

Of course, the immigration debate goes beyond the question of undocumented Californians – the state has multiple interests in getting reform right. There are a wide range of issues currently being discussed that are critical to California: the extent to which our high-tech industries will be able to recruit high-skill workers, the ways in which agricultural labor flows will be stabilized and those workers protected, and the degree to which family reunification remains a guiding principle for decisions about who to let into the country and how. But one of the issues most important for our state remains: ensuring a clear and rapid roadmap to citizenship for the currently undocumented population.

This report seeks to facilitate discussion of our stake in reform by offering a profile of the state’s currently undocumented population. We look at the characteristics of the undocumented generally and do a dive down to key counties in the state in a series of tables and charts available at the end of the report. How we did the calculations is explained in the main text – and expounded upon in the Technical Notes if you are into that sort of thing – but what it means is this analysis paints a much more multi-hued picture of who the undocumented are, how their authorization will benefit California, and how to tailor policy to best maximize their contributions.

Beyond the data, we suggest that California should begin planning for what comes the day after reform – immigrant integration. While the current policy debate has often been about enforcement and future flows, surely a crucial task is accelerating the progress of those who are already here. This will be a special challenge if, as expected, federal funding from fines and fees is

We suggest that California should begin planning for what comes the day after reform – immigrant integration

targeted at enforcement rather than at supporting the places where immigrant integration is happening – our state included. In fact, a relatively restrictive bill is expected – barring immigrants from eligibility of any public service for the first 10 years (the period over which the bill is economically assessed) – and so many of the direct costs will fall on states. This is problematic since funds will need to be immediately directed towards educational attainment, health insurance and English Language acquisition in order maximize the contributions of all immigrants to the Golden State.

California has had a long and convoluted relationship with its undocumented population (just think of Proposition 187), but the state now seems to be moving past punitive policies towards embracing its entire immigrant population. Santa Clara County has an Immigrant Relations and Integration Services office, Los Angeles has a cross-sector Council on Immigrant Integration, and State Senator Ricardo Lara recently introduced a bill (SB23) to establish a State Office of New Americans – much like those in Chicago and New York. Getting immigration reform right in the nation and in the state will require better understanding undocumented Californians and developing a shared and widespread understanding that their integration will benefit the state.


# Introduction

California currently has over 2.6 residents who are estimated to be undocumented – and roughly one in six of our children are estimated to have at least one undocumented parent. While the current debates in Congress over comprehensive immigration reform will have a big impact on immigrants and their host communities nationwide, there is an especially big stake in getting reform right for our state and its regions.

This research brief offers a new look at the numbers of undocumented residents in California and discusses some of the implications for the design and implementation of reform. We should stress that reform is likely to have many elements, including increased and more sophisticated enforcement mechanisms, new approaches to guaranteeing future flows of both high-skill and low-skill labor, and a new balance between meeting family and economic needs in our migration system. But central to reform – indeed, one reason why reform has been stymied for so many years – will be some sort of system by which America’s undocumented population will be able to come out of the shadows and it is that aspect of reform that we focus on here.

We begin with a brief discussion of the methodology used to conduct this study – after all, how does one develop estimates about the size and characteristics of a population that has generally sought to avoid the limelight? We note that the numbers here generally square with aggregate estimates by other demographers

studying undocumented migration but also emphasize that the particular community-based probability method employed here allows us to generate more detailed portraits of the population in larger metro areas such as Los Angeles, the Bay Area, the Inland Empire and the Central Valley. In general, however, the text focuses on the overall state with such detail mostly coming up by way of occasional comparison; the more detailed metro portraits are available in the tables at the end of this report.



Roughly one in six of our children are estimated to have at least one undocumented parent

We hope that the data are useful but we also seek to provide more than just a snapshot. We suggest the economic and social benefits that California might gain from a rapid path to legalization and naturalization – and we also consider some of the challenges that will face the state if, as expected, reform does pass and the task of immigrant integration becomes both central *and* local. We close by offering a few suggestions about what the state’s political, civic and philanthropic leaders might press for in reform – and how we might pull together as a state post-reform to maximize the potential contributions of this large, energetic and perhaps soon-to-be authorized population.

# Documenting the Undocumented

Estimates of the undocumented population in the U.S. have historically come in two forms. The first is a residual approach that has been employed since the late 1970s and more recently by the Office of Immigrant Statistics (OIS) in its official estimates of the undocumented population (Hoefer and Rytina 2012; see also Warren and Warren 2013). In this approach, the estimated number of legal residents in the United States (e.g., legal permanent residents, refugees, and non-immigrant visa holders) is subtracted from annual census-based estimates of the entire foreign-born population, with adjustments for emigration, mortality, and other factors. The residual or remainder is assumed to be the number of undocumented residents. Others have adjusted this residual approach for California-specific estimates, combining it with other administrative data such as Individual Taxpayer Identification Numbers (ITINs) to produce sub-state estimates (Hill and Johnson 2011).

The second basic estimating approach was pioneered by demographer Enrico Marcelli in the mid-1990s while at the University of Southern California. This method predicts legal status based on a community-based migrant household probability sample. These estimates are then applied to publicly available data at the individual-level allowing for legal status estimates to be generated across geographic areas (Marcelli and Heer 1997; Marcelli and Lowell 2005; Marcelli 2013). Other demographers have adopted variations on this approach; for instance, in an ongoing series of studies by the Pew Hispanic Center led by Jeffrey Passel, demographers have provided detailed estimates of the number and

characteristics of undocumented immigrants nationally and by state in a way that combines residual estimates and individual legal status prediction strategies (Passel and Cohn 2011).

The good news is that both these basic approaches generally arrive at statistically similar estimates. For example, the 2011 OIS estimates suggest that there are 11.5 million unauthorized residents in the U.S. while the Pew numbers for that year are 11.1 million, a small difference in light of the varying methods. We take this agreement as a starting point for our analysis and build on those efforts as follows.

We first take every non-citizen foreign-born resident of the United States who was not born in Cuba in a pooled national sample of the 2009-2011 American Community Survey (ACS) and calculate a probability of being an undocumented adult using legal status predictors computed from Marcelli's 2001 Los Angeles County Mexican Immigrant Legal Status survey (LAC-MILSS) data (Marcelli and Lowell 2005; Marcelli 2004). We make use of the 2011 OIS breakdown of the top 10 nations of origin of the undocumented (adjusted for the age distribution they provide to look just at adults), and essentially tag non-citizen immigrant adults with the highest probability of being unauthorized until we match the estimated adult totals for each of those nations of origin. We also make use of other information (see the technical notes at the end) to calibrate totals for 21 other national origin groups. And we make a modest adjustment for the fact that undocumented residents tend to be missed

in the Census and ACS (Marcelli and Ong 2002).

Once we obtain a national match close to the total adult count found by OIS, we move to a lower geography – the state of California which is our primary concern in this analysis and is also the state where the Marcelli 2001 estimators likely work best. We adjust the numbers to ensure a total that is roughly half-way between the implicit adult estimates by Pew and those generated by the OIS for California – both of which are well below the higher totals in Warren and Warren (2013). We then estimate and tag undocumented children, assuming that if a child is a non-citizen immigrant and at least one of the parents living in the household is undocumented, then the child is undocumented; the resulting totals are somewhat closer to the Pew figures than to the OIS figures. From here, we tag the adults and children who are likely to be undocumented in the ACS micro-sample, and then calculate the population characteristics noted in the tables in this report.

In the technical notes, we discuss the limitations of this estimation methodology – but also the fact that the overall results square quite well with other estimates currently being used. However, one caveat is important to stress here: the estimating equation for assigning legal status is based on a survey done by Marcelli in 2001. While these estimates have been used in recent research, including a study of the economic effects of authorization by Pastor and colleagues (2010), they are soon to be supplanted by a more appropriate set of estimators generated by fieldwork done by Marcelli in summer 2012 with funding from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and currently in the process of being evaluated. This suggests that while this report may be useful for giving readers a broad sense of what

California has at stake in the current debate about comprehensive immigration reform (CIR), post-CIR research about specific implementation issues would be better served if it were based on the more recent data and methods.



# Who are the Unauthorized?

## The Diversity of the Population

In California, the undocumented are a variety of people. They are children, they are adults; they are agricultural workers, they are retail workers; they have hardly any schooling, and they have bachelor's degrees or more. There is no single characterization of an undocumented immigrant in the state – but rather many – and this analysis paints this picture, vividly. The description that follows comes directly from the California data table on the following page.

The foreign-born comprise 27 percent of California's total population. We estimate that undocumented immigrants comprise 7 percent of our total population, and 26 percent of the total immigrant population. This means that more than 2.6 million people in California are without legal documentation, which is about twice the population of San Diego. Eight percent of adults are undocumented (2.4 million), as is 9 percent of the workforce. This makes sense: the median age of undocumented immigrants is 31 years – prime working age (as compared to 50 years for naturalized immigrants and 44 years for non-citizen immigrants with documentation).

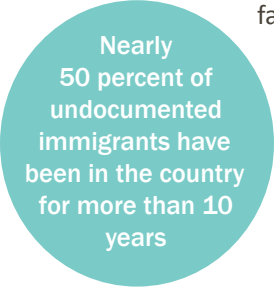
The typical undocumented resident living in California migrated to this country at the age of 20 and has been here for nine years. So contrary to popular misperceptions, we are talking about a fairly settled population. Put another way, nearly 50 percent of undocumented immigrants have been in the country for more than 10 years, and over 17 percent of household heads are

homeowners. While the latter may seem remarkably high, research has suggested that unauthorized immigrant status is not necessarily an insurmountable hurdle to homeownership, particularly given alternative forms of identification that can be used for home purchase, and the fact that the usual factors such as income are more important (McConnell and Marcelli 2007). All of this speaks to a population that is here to stay – as are their children.

Along with being a settled population, the undocumented are also more diverse than many Californians realize. Eighty-five percent are Latino and 12 percent are Asian/Pacific Islander. The predominant sending country is Mexico – the country of origin for 72 percent of undocumented immigrants. Following Mexico is not a country but a region, Central America. Given their geographic proximity to the U.S., Mexico and Central America have played a constant role in sending new immigrants; however, Asia is also an important sending region. The Philippines (3 percent), Korea (2 percent), and China (2 percent) are included among the top five countries of origin for undocumented immigrants.

## Interwoven Households, Economic Challenges

At the household level, it becomes clear that the undocumented are connected at a very intimate level with the state's citizenry. For example, 6 percent of all households are headed by an undocumented Californian and 74 percent of those households have at



Nearly 50 percent of undocumented immigrants have been in the country for more than 10 years



least one citizen in the house. Moreover, of those, one in six California children who have at least one undocumented parent, 81 percent are citizens. Californians of all types of documentation are wrapped up in the outcomes of CIR because their lives will be so closely affected.

How the nation does by its immigrants, including those who are currently undocumented, will help determine the trajectory of our state. Of real concern is that fully two-thirds (67 percent) of children with at least one undocumented parent are living in poverty – which we define as 150 percent of the federal poverty level, a more realistic understanding of poverty for a state with a very high standard of living. This rate declines when parents become documented and naturalize. Documented or not, nearly a majority of California’s children have at least one immigrant parent (47 percent) – and these families in their entirety will be affected by any federal policy changes.

The high levels of poverty make sense – workforce opportunities are limited for the undocumented. There is a \$30,000 difference in median annual earnings between full-time workers without lawful status (\$20,000) and U.S.-born workers (\$50,000). Most of this income is earned by men – labor force participation rates are 93 percent for undocumented men compared to 56 percent for undocumented women, although both have high rates of employment if they are in the labor force (90 percent and 84 percent, respectively). About the same share of the undocumented are in the labor force as all workers, in aggregate (74 percent compared to 79 percent), although a larger share of men (93 percent compared to 87 percent) and a smaller share of women (56 percent compared to 71 percent).

The undocumented in rural parts of California have higher homeownership rates

When we compare the top industries and occupations employing undocumented workers to those employing all workers (ages 25 to 64, employed), the data show an over-concentration of undocumented workers in lower-paying, seasonal industries and occupations. Almost one in four undocumented workers is employed in retail trade (23 percent). Agriculture is the second highest industry employing undocumented workers (15 percent), followed by manufacturing (13 percent), construction (13 percent), and business and repair services (10 percent). Similar trends are reflected in the top occupations of undocumented workers. At the top of the list is farming (16 percent) followed closely by food preparation and service occupations (13 percent), construction helpers and stock handlers (11 percent), cleaning, building and household service occupations (11 percent), and machine operators (10 percent).

### Regional Variations

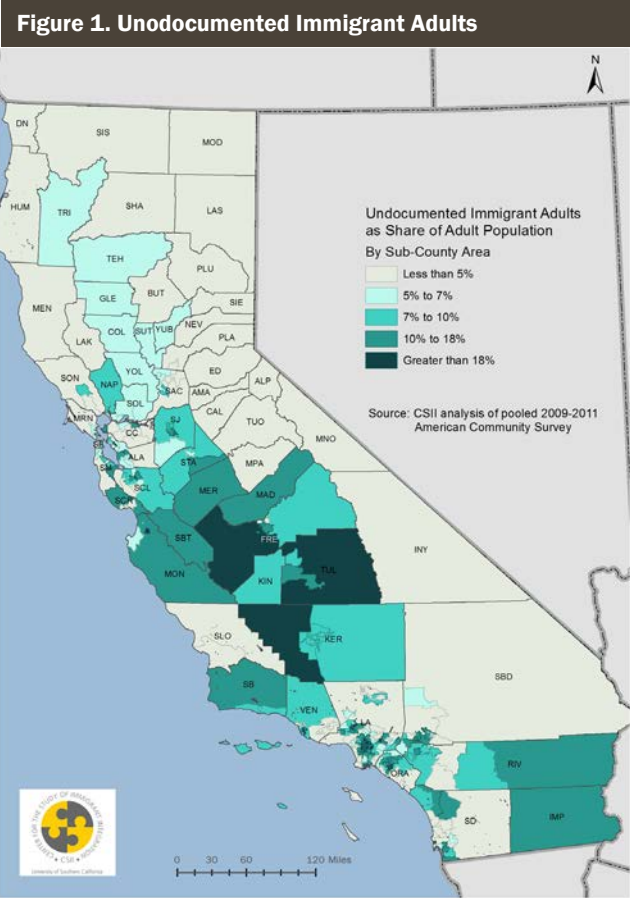
Industries and occupations are one of the biggest regional differences in the data. For example, in the Central Valley, nearly half (47 percent) of workers are employed in agriculture. The Central Valley also has some of the most extreme poverty: nearly 3 in 4 children with an undocumented parent are in poverty as well as 64 percent of the entire undocumented population. Nonetheless, homeownership is higher here (23 percent) and in the Inland Empire where about 1 in 3 undocumented heads of household own their home. The undocumented in rural parts of California have higher homeownership rates. Sacramento, as well – 20 percent – but what really sets Sacramento apart from the other regions is the relatively higher mix of sending countries. There, only 66 percent of

the undocumented are from Mexico; other top sending countries and regions include Russia and the former U.S.S.R., the Philippines, Central America, and China.

Regional variations showed up in the more urban regions of the state, as well. The Bay Area tends to have more Asian/Pacific Islanders who are undocumented – 22 percent in the East Bay (Alameda and Contra Costa counties), 24 percent in the Silicon Valley (Santa Clara and San Mateo counties), and 23 percent in the Bay Area at large (which we define as a seven county region, including San Francisco, Marin, Napa, Contra Costa, Alameda, Santa Clara, and San Mateo counties). Perhaps unsurprisingly, the undocumented in the Bay Area are also better educated than

statewide – more have a bachelor’s degree or better.

To the south, Los Angeles has the highest share of self-employed undocumented immigrants – about 14 percent and its undocumented are some of the most settled, having been in the state a median of 10 years. Orange County, just south, has some of the lowest rates of childhood poverty across the board but it also has one of the biggest discrepancies in that rate between children with U.S.-born parents (14 percent) and those with undocumented parents (61 percent), a 47 percentage point gap. Los Angeles and Orange counties have some of the highest rates of full-time work – 58 percent and 57 percent, respectively.



While this analysis does not include every region in California – it does include some of those with the largest shares of the undocumented. Figure 1 gives a view of the share of adults who are undocumented across the state by Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs). The PUMA is the lowest level of geography at which the individual answers of the Census and ACS are publically available; it is a geographic unit that contains a minimum population of 100,000 and provides a county level or lower view, depending on the size and density of the population. In metro areas like Los Angeles and San Francisco, the level of detail is below the city, allowing those who work with immigrants to better know where to focus their efforts.

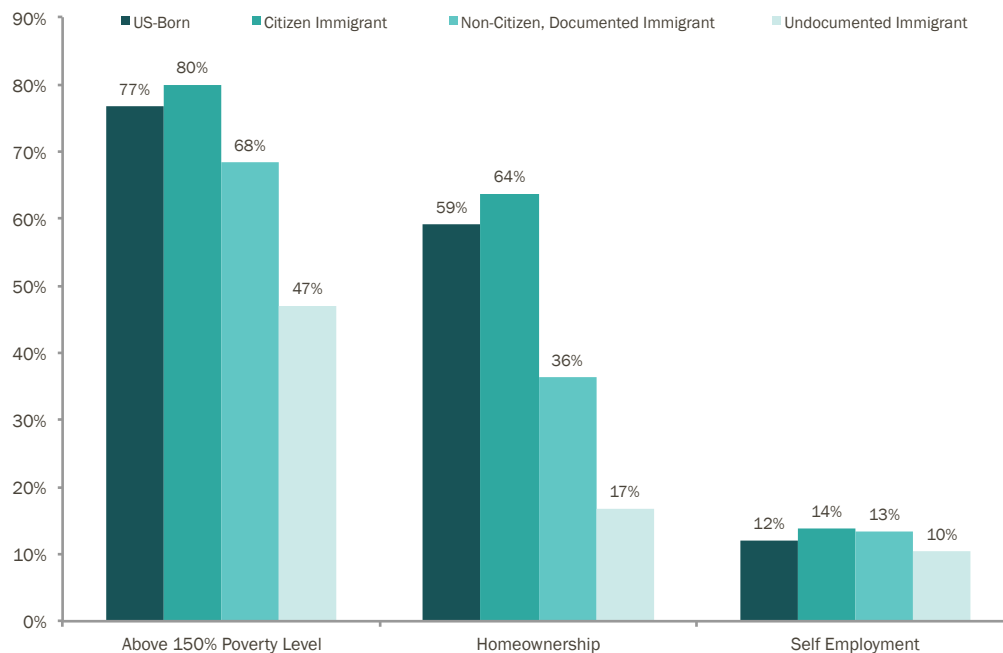
# California's Stake in Reform

As we have noted, California has a stake in comprehensive immigration reform. The state will be made better or worse off depending on the extent to which our high-tech industries will be able to recruit high-skill workers, the ways in which agricultural labor flows will be stabilized and those workers will be protected, and the degree to which family reunification remains a guiding principle for decisions about who to let into the country and how.

But California also has a clear stake in ensuring a simple and relatively rapid roadmap to citizenship for those who aspire to be Americans. A glimpse of the potentially positive future can be seen by looking at the economic characteristics of

Californians at different levels of authorization. Consider homeownership: only 17 percent of the undocumented own a home, compared to 36 percent of non-naturalized, documented immigrants and 64 percent of citizen immigrants (See Figure 2, below). In fact, citizen immigrants are performing more strongly than the U.S.-born – 59 percent of who own a home. This trend is the same across poverty and self-employment, as well: immigrants with citizenship have higher economic standing than less documented immigrants and even the U.S.-born. While some of that higher standing has to do with differences in human capital, such as education and English ability, the studies reviewed below

**Figure 2. Economic Outcomes by US-born and Immigrant Status  
2009-2011 ACS**



suggest that citizenship itself can make a difference.

### Potential Economic Gains

Is this current cross-section snapshot truly informative? Will a roadmap to citizenship unlock higher levels of economic integration which will benefit the state? Many researchers have used a variety of statistical approaches to analyze the economic boosts due to authorization and citizenship. For example, a longitudinal study conducted by the U.S. Department of Labor after the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 found that newly authorized immigrants saw a 15 percent increase in their wages after five years (Division of Immigration Policy and Research, U.S. Department of Labor 1996); a wide range of other tracking studies seemed to find similar effects (see the review in Hinojosa Ojeda 2010).

Similar effects have been found in cross-sectional studies that attempt to use multivariate statistical techniques to control for all the factors that predict wages or income (see, for example, Pastor et al. 2010). An interesting new wave of research has emerged that looks at the impacts of citizenship separately, with the argument being that becoming a citizen improves legal protections, shifts investments in education and training, and allows access to a wider range of employment (Lynch and Oakford

2013; Pastor and Scoggins 2012; Shierholz 2010).

In this report, we do not have time to go into all the methodological details of the different estimating approaches nor do we have the space in this brief to discuss all of the reasons why authorization and citizenship can matter so much for economic outcomes (although we do so in detail in Pastor and Scoggins 2012). Rather, we simply acknowledge here that gains are likely and thus point out the potential improvements in immigrant income based on a more conservative calculation generated at the Center for the Study of Immigrant Integration (Pastor and Scoggins 2012) and a more liberal (but also well-reasoned) calculation recently released by the Center for American Progress (Lynch and Oakford 2013). One reason for the differences between the two involves about how much each set of authors assumes that human capital itself (including English and education) might change as a result of authorization with a roadmap to citizenship.

The findings for California are in Table 1, below. The punch line: authorization and citizenship would inject an annual boost of more than \$4.5 billion into the California economy, by the more conservative estimate, and a nearly \$8 billion annual boost by the more generous estimate. And since undocumented workers tend to be lower-income, they will spend their

The punch line: authorization and citizenship would inject an annual boost of more than \$4.5 billion into the California economy

**Table 1. California Data Profile**

	Aggregate Annual Income	Income Boost, Annually
Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship Without Authorization (Current)	\$31,489,524,048	-
With Authorization, CSII Estimate (14%)	\$36,055,505,035	\$4,565,980,987
With Authorization, Center for American Progress (CAP) Estimate (25%)	\$39,393,394,584	\$7,903,870,536

**Table 2. Benefits of Authorization with a Roadmap to Citizenship**

Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship	Current Aggregate Annual Income	With Authorization	
		CSII Estimated Annual Income Boost	CAP Estimated Annual Income Boost
Bay Area	\$5,540,371,056	\$803,353,803	\$1,390,633,135
North Bay Area	\$879,001,198	\$127,455,174	\$220,629,301
East Bay Area	\$2,018,392,184	\$292,666,867	\$506,616,438
Silicon Valley	\$2,642,977,674	\$383,231,763	\$663,387,396
Sacramento Metro	\$877,864,706	\$127,290,382	\$220,344,041
Central Valley	\$3,270,849,308	\$474,273,150	\$820,983,176
Los Angeles	\$10,251,007,872	\$1,486,396,141	\$2,573,002,976
Orange	\$3,127,046,981	\$453,421,812	\$784,888,792
Inland Empire	\$2,833,599,361	\$410,871,907	\$711,233,440

paychecks versus putting it in savings. This means a strong multiplier effect on the state’s economy.

The profiles at the back of this report also detail the impacts in each region, but here is a summary in Table 2, above.

### Securing the Future of the State

While the immediate economic gains are important, perhaps more critical is what reform might mean for the future of the children of undocumented parents. Research suggests that approximately 5.5 million U.S. children reside with at least one undocumented immigrant parent and 4.5 million of these children are U.S.-born (Yoshikawa and Kholoptseva 2013). In California, our analysis suggests that roughly 1.5 million children live with at least one unauthorized immigrant parent – 1.2 million of whom are citizens (81 percent). Given that children with at least one undocumented parent constitute 16 percent of all children in the state, the well-being of their undocumented parents will have an impact on the future of the state.

Research indicates that children of undocumented parents face greater barriers to accessing social services and programs and tend to have more negative social, economic and health outcomes (Capps et al.

2007; Yoshikawa and Kholoptseva 2013). The impacts of workplace raids aimed at undocumented workers often fall on children. Advocates have found that absenteeism increased amongst children affected by the raids, that they had a hard time getting food and clothing, and that the majority showed trauma that made connecting at school and in their communities difficult (Capps et al. 2007; Shust and Moody 2008). Recognizing this harm and more broadly what is at stake for the Golden State, many legislators and school officials have become supporters of immigration reform. For example, the second largest school district in California, San Diego Unified, recently passed a resolution supporting comprehensive immigration reform.

In addition, U.S.-born children of undocumented parents often forgo social services and programs for which they are eligible for fear of releasing their parent’s status. In addition to fear, unauthorized parents may not enroll their eligible children because of a lack of information and linguistic barriers (Yoshikawa and Kholoptseva, 2013). However, the Children’s Health Insurance Program (CHIP), SNAP, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), and child-care subsidies are all available to citizen children with

Unauthorized parents – and they seem to pay off as they have been associated with better cognitive skills and better health in the first years of life. It is in our interest to ensure that all children that are eligible for these programs utilize them to their full potential – for their sake and the future of the state.

The state's civic future will also be strengthened: Advocates for immigration reform have been reinvigorating American civic life. They have connected with, trained, and mobilized thousands of residents – immigrants and U.S.-born – to respond to policy in a proactive way. Aside from



Advocates for immigration reform have been reinvigorating American civic life

actions specifically connected to immigration reform and immigrant rights, immigrants have also invigorated local civic engagement on issues that will benefit everyone – particularly undocumented parents' involvement in schools.

Research shows that despite the barriers undocumented parents face engaging in school systems (linguistic, cultural, economic), if given the opportunity, they will become actively involved in their children's schools (Terriquez 2011). In Los Angeles, immigrant mothers are just as involved as white mothers, after non-ethnic factors have been taken into account (Terriquez 2012). Certainly, in places like Los Angeles, schools need all the help they can get, and these undocumented parents are at the ready.

Another set of undocumented immigrants, the Dreamers (undocumented immigrant youth), mobilized a powerful movement, despite almost no paid staff, no lobbyists and few financial resources. They led actions such as the Trail of Dreams, Dream Freedom Ride, and hunger strikes across the nation (Wong et al. 2012). They were instrumental in the California Dream Act and the Obama Administration's enactment of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA). Most recently – despite an earlier

break from the immigration reform movement at large – they have been instrumental in elevating the need for comprehensive reform.

The Dream Movement has created a cohort of civically engaged youth who are changing the political and social ecosystem in California, the state with the largest Dreamer population. It is estimated that California has over a quarter of the 1.7 million youth who might be eligible for a Dream Act-type program (Hill and Hayes 2013). These youth are civically engaged on their school campuses, in their communities and elevating issues that go beyond immigration. They have become advocates for education reform, marriage equality, labor rights and economic prosperity. In essence, movements for social change have become infused with greater collectivity and efficacy because of these ambitious and civically involved youth.

California and the nation need those who can model and lead in this way. The state crossed the "majority-minority" line well before the 2000 Census, a landmark the nation is estimated to reach in 2043. With this sea change, policies will need to be refreshed to be tailored to the needs of our new demographic. With so many youth of color seeing poor outcomes in education and work – the result of systems that do not offer the same opportunities as whiter, wealthier kids – we will need to support them as they become the workforce of the future. For example, 33 percent of jobs projected for the U.S. for 2018 are expected to require an associate's degree or occupational program or higher. However, the share of U.S.-born Latinos with those qualifications in 2006-2008 was 24 percent and for immigrant Latinos was 14 percent (Blackwell and Pastor 2010). Immigrants and their allies can help lead the way in working to reshape local and statewide policies to make California's future, well, more golden.



# The Day After Reform

Undocumented Californians are intricately connected to the economic, social and cultural life of the state; offering them legal status and a roadmap to citizenship would be stabilizing for the state. It is also good politics: as can be seen in the polling data offered in Figure 3, a full roadmap to citizenship has overwhelming support in every corner of our state. Of 1,704 adult Californians surveyed by the Public Policy Institute of California, 63 percent said immigrants are a benefit to the state and 76 percent favored a path to legalization for California’s undocumented population.

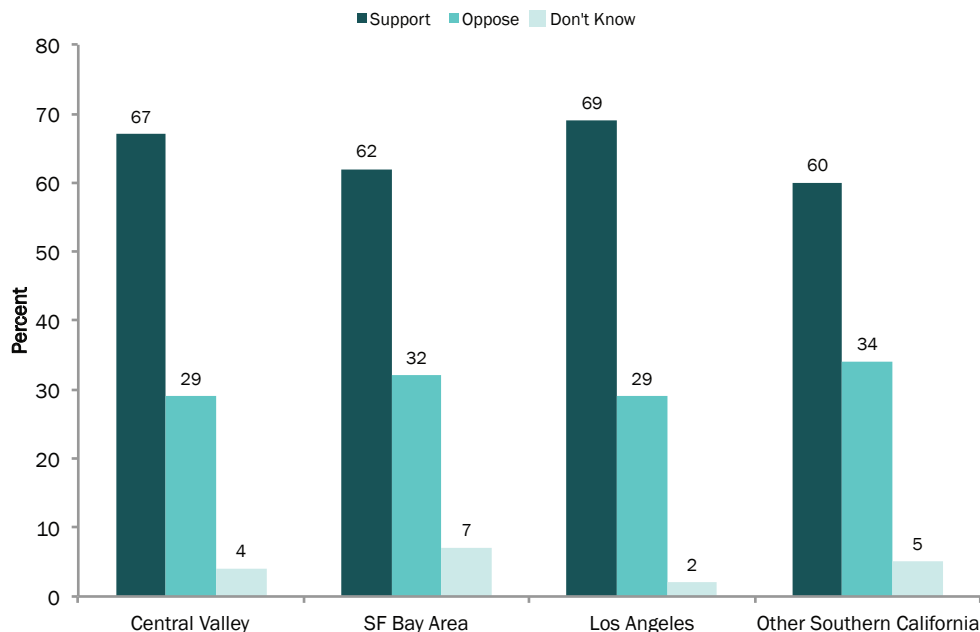
A full roadmap to citizenship has overwhelming support in every corner of our state

So suppose we do get immigration reform? What should California do to accelerate integration of these and other immigrants?

Unfortunately, there are many provisions within the proposed legislation that would bar the undocumented from multiple public programs and services for a minimum of 10 years – and it is likely that the relatively restrictive fiscal character of the reform will not change, given both economic and political realities.

Nonetheless, the data suggest that the undocumented already suffer from poor educational attainment, face linguistic barriers, and have lower rates of health

**Figure 3. Percent of Respondents Who Support a Path to Citizenship, March 2013**



Source: Public Policy Institute of California statewide survey on Californians and their Government (March 2013). Statewide Survey Interactive Tools, <http://www.ppic.org/main/survAdvanced-Search.asp>.

coverage. Improvements on these outcomes would be more likely if they were included in the programs and services from which they will likely be barred. If we want to make newly documented immigrants successful and facilitate their integration into our state, investments need to be made in a few areas.

English proficiency and ESL programs are needed to raise their human capital – and to prepare for naturalization. We estimate that only 42 percent of undocumented immigrants (ages five and older) speak English well or fluently. While these immigrants will need instruction, the state currently has a shortage of English language learning courses. According to an analysis by the Migration Policy Institute, only 32 percent of the needed ESL instruction was provided from 2000 to 2006, statewide (Grantmakers Concerned with Immigrant and Refugee Rights 2011). Other educational interventions will also maximize their potential: of all undocumented immigrants 25 years and older, 47 percent have less than a high school degree, 19 percent have some high school, and 22 percent have graduated from high school.

Reform is also likely to exclude the unauthorized from public health insurance, at least in the short- and medium- terms. This is of concern because we estimate that only 39 percent of undocumented, working age (25-64 years of age) immigrants statewide have health insurance coverage. Compare this to 60 percent of documented, non-citizen immigrants and 80 percent of citizen immigrants with health insurance. Considering that the average median annual earnings of undocumented immigrant workers is \$20,000 and that private health insurance is quite expensive, integrating the

undocumented into an affordable health care system would help ensure their well-being, so as to be productive contributors to our economy and society.

Reform should also include support for specific industries and occupations – both for employers and employees. Undocumented Californians tend to be concentrated in low-wage occupations at higher rates than U.S.-born workers. Their employers may need assistance as workers transition to a new status. For the employees with lower levels of human capital, job training and skills building programs will enable economic mobility – and for those with credentials from overseas, some form of degree recognition would make sense.

We also need to encourage something that may seem a long way off for some: naturalization. As suggested above, citizenship has its own economic and social rewards, both for immigrants and the state. Unfortunately, of all the states in the U.S., California has the highest share of those eligible to naturalize (who have the appropriate documents and length of residency) who have not yet done so – more than 2.3 million lawful permanent residents (Rytina 2011).

We should not reproduce that poor record of naturalization with a new set of immigrants. And we can better develop the political voice to get the right resources to make reform successful if we get more Californians actively involved in elections and public meetings. There are encouraging efforts underway to promote citizenship in the state and these deserve continued support even as attention shifts to incorporating the unauthorized in what will



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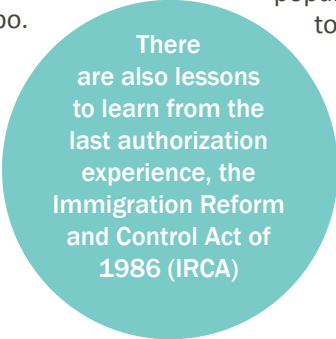
be a new sort of temporary status (Pastor and Sanchez 2012).

There are also lessons to learn from the last authorization experience, the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA). IRCA did not account for the demand for specific types of workers in the U.S. and, so, the nation continued to draw workers without providing a means for a legal flow of migration (Cooper and O’Neil 2005; Kerwin 2010). The Act also did not clearly extend benefits to family members of the eligible, increasing the number of mixed-status families and those in limbo. This is a major concern with the current legislation.

Beyond how IRCA was written, implementation left something to be desired. Immigration and Naturalization Services (INS) lacked capacity and infrastructure for implementation. This resulted in a 12 percent dropout of applicants, an increased backlog in applications for citizenship, and undermined integration efforts. Regarding the latter, states had to carry the fiscal burden of civics and English courses needed for naturalization, new public assistance enrollees, and new public health costs – in part because the reimbursement system with the federal government was faulty (Cooper and O’Neil 2005). One encouraging fact is that U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) did manage to get the DACA program up and running quickly (although there remain uncertainties for applicants and potential employers); that may be a good dry run for what is coming but resources, creativity, and partnership with community-based organizations may be essential.

The federal-level efforts are important but we also need to coordinate public and

private efforts at the level of the state. Legislation proposed by state Senator Ricardo Lara is calling for a State Office of New Americans (SB23) to help agencies coordinate their activities. There are local models as well: Santa Clara County has an Immigrant Relations and Integration Services office and the California Community Foundation in Los Angeles has established a cross-sector Council on Immigrant Integration. Getting the implementation of immigration reform right in California will require better knowing the population and then working together across sectors, interests and geographies.



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# Conclusion

In his influential book, *Immigrants and Boomers*, Dowell Myers identifies what he calls the “Peter Pan fallacy” (2008) – the idea that immigrants are seen only as day laborers on the corner or dishwashers in our restaurants, never growing older, never evolving, never moving up in society. His big point is that there is indeed change and mobility over time – and that those retiring now are dependent on that mobility continuing. But Myer’s insight suggests another often overlooked aspect of the foreign-born: immigrants are actually a remarkably diverse lot.

What is true of all immigrants is true of the unauthorized. From the self-employed in Southern California, to the homeowners in the Inland Empire, to the better educated in the Bay Area – the undocumented are very diverse. And perhaps because of that diversity, they are deeply woven into the fabric of California’s present and future – particularly because they are the parents of citizen children throughout the state.

Successful reform could facilitate the economic well-being and stability of both that population and the state as a whole

We hope that the analysis offered here will serve a few purposes. The first is simply to alter the narrative in the state – to recognize that the undocumented are intrinsically part of the state, that their future will affect the future of the state, and that successful reform could facilitate the economic well-being and stability of both that population and the state as a whole. The second is to highlight a few specific

issues – such as English language learning and access to insurance and medical care – that policy makers should account for in what is likely to be a long period of implementation. The third is to prepare Californians by being clear about the challenges ahead, particularly the need to build the public will for necessary investments as well as new public-private collaborations given that the newly authorized are likely to lack access to most social services.

California has an important stake in getting reform right. We have the country’s largest number of undocumented immigrants. We have an array of industries, such as high-tech and agriculture, that have significant interests in designing a system that will secure labor in the future. We share a border with Mexico and airports that welcome visitors and immigrants from all over the world. Comprehensive immigration reform matters to all Americans – but California has a special set of interests and a special role to play.

After all, we have sometimes been an example of how to get things wrong – think of the overheated debates in the 1990s about immigrants, affirmative action, and so much more. Luckily, we have evolved to a state where much of that racialized heat has been replaced with a light of understanding that shines on the many contributions of our immigrants and our state’s diversity. California and its civic leaders can and should step to the plate with good data, good policies, and good will – and both the Golden State and the United States will be better off for it.

## Technical Notes

This appendix provides some of the more technical details behind the calculations in the text. We concentrate on a discussion of the estimating technique, including clarifications, and caveats, and we also offer a review of a few other technical issues and data points.

As noted, we are combining the residual and community-based probability legal status estimation approaches: the basic strategy is to assume that previous residual totals are more or less correct and the task is to then generate micro-totals that add up correctly. We start by considering that in 2011, the OIS estimates suggest that there are 11.5 million unauthorized residents in the U.S. while the Pew number is 11.1, a very slight difference. While the Pew study offers no details on age distribution, the OIS data suggest that 11.7% of the nation's undocumented are under the age of 18, a figure we return to below.

We assume that the aggregate total of undocumented adults in the U.S. in 2011 is similar to that reported in the most recent OIS estimate (in the more detailed calibrations at the state, however, we also look at the Pew 2010 numbers which offer much more detail in terms of state of residence, something of critical importance for this exercise. Both Pew and OIS agree that the aggregate population of undocumented fell by about 100,000 between 2010 and 2011, a very modest amount). We then take every non-citizen, non-Cuban, foreign-born respondent in the sample we pooled (2009-2011) of the American Community Survey (ACS), with the specific versions of the ACS taken from the files made available by IPUMS-USA

(Ruggles et al. 2011), and assign to each of these respondents a probability of being an undocumented adult utilizing legal status predictors generated from Marcelli's 2001 Los Angeles County Mexican Immigrant Legal Status Survey (LAC-MILSS) data. These data were collected in collaboration with the Coalition for Humane Immigrant Rights of Los Angeles and El Colegio de la Frontera Norte (Marcelli and Lowell 2005; Marcelli 2013); we specifically use a variant in which the probability was calculated separately for householders and non-householders and the key factors include age, gender, time residing in the U.S., and education level.

We have special confidence in these estimates because they are based on a series of innovative surveys involving co-ethnics and community collaborators of the undocumented population, particularly unauthorized Mexicans in California. The characteristics associated with documentation are derived in logistic regressions from the resulting sample and then the probabilities of being undocumented are associated with individual answers in the decennial census, ACS or other public use data such as the Current Population Survey. Of course, these estimates work best with Mexicans and seem to work nearly as well with other non-Cuban Latinos, at least in terms of aggregate numbers (Cubans have an exception in immigration law that means they are immediately granted legal status upon arrival in the U.S. by any means so they are excluded from all our calculations of the undocumented immigrant population). Indeed, as suggested in Pastor and Ortiz (2009), when applied to the immigrant Latino population in Los Angeles

County, for example, the Marcelli approach yields a number quite consistent with other earlier estimates (such as Fortuny, Fix, and Passel 2007). It should also be noted that the Marcelli estimating equation works best in California where the surveys were done – but this initial national calibration is simply a step to estimates we only use for California.

We then take advantage of the fact that the OIS offers a breakdown of the top 10 nations of origin of the undocumented. We essentially use the 2011 OIS numbers, adjusted for age to look at adults, and tag in the pooled ACS those non-citizen, immigrant adults with the highest probability of being unauthorized until we match the adult totals for those nations of origin. Each adult, non-Cuban, noncitizen is also assigned a random number so that where a large number of non-citizen immigrants share the same probability we can adjust to the appropriate total. This probabilistic approach is similar to but simpler than that taken in recent work by the Pew Hispanic Center (Passel and Cohn 2009). There are two slight adjustments to the target total worth mentioning. The first is that we target a three-year average for Chinese undocumented because there is an improbably large surge in the OIS number in 2011. The second is that we use a two-year average from 2009 and 2010 for Brazilians and include them in the 2011 calculation. The “surge” in Chinese knocked the Brazilians out of the top ten but Marcelli’s research has shown a very high unauthorized rate for the Brazilian population, something that squares with the OIS estimates of unauthorized Brazilians as a share of the non-citizen Brazilian immigrant population reported in the ACS (Marcelli et al. 2009).

For the rest of the unauthorized population, the easiest approach would be to assume that all nations of origin have exactly the

same share of undocumented residents by comparing the remaining OIS numbers to the non-citizen non-Cuban immigrant numbers in the ACS. However, that is clearly not the case and we investigate the next 20 largest countries sending immigrants, taking advantage of several bits of knowledge in the field: first, an estimate of undocumented Canadians that was generated by the Migration Policy Institute (MPI) in 2008 (Slovic 2008); second, work by Marcelli as well as MPI that suggests that the share of undocumented is quite low in the Dominican community (Grieco 2004; Marcelli et al. 2009); and third, the fact that the legal status predictors likely work well with other non-Cuban Latinos and so we can make better guesses for those from Latin American countries that send fewer immigrants. Every adjustment up is matched by adjustments down and at the end of the process, and we have a total adult number that squares with the OIS totals.

While our totals match, this does not account for the problem of an undercount; there is a widely shared assumption that the undocumented are undercounted by around 10% in the decennial census (Marcelli and Ong 2002) and more in other samples. To account for this, we first apply a trim of around 9% (nation-by-nation so that each group falls by the same percentage amount, with the composition staying the same, with the trim applied to those individuals least likely to be unauthorized), and we then reweight all of those observations up by 10% (the initial reduction so we could (re-)arrive at the appropriate number). Warren and Warren (2013) contend, reasonably enough, that the undercount might be as high as 20% in recent years because the ACS is perceived as a more voluntary survey by respondents than is the Census; this is likely one reason why their estimates are higher than those of OIS and Pew. Indeed, unpublished evidence from Marcelli’s 2007 Boston Metropolitan

and 2012 Los Angeles County Immigrant Health & Legal Status Surveys (BM-IHLSS and LAC-IHLSS) suggests that 2000 and 2010 census undercoverage rates for unauthorized Dominican, Brazilian and Mexican migrants were higher than 10%. On the other hand, Pew works with the Current Population Survey, a similarly voluntary survey, and continues to employ an undercount rate of 10%. We stick with 10% and the reader should note that this means that the resulting totals for all Californians, immigrant and non-immigrant, are slightly higher than what we derived from the ACS because of the weighting up of the undocumented.

With this national matching done, we are finally ready to adjust to the level of the state. Fortunately, our estimates of adults for California actually seem to be just slightly higher than the implicit (that is, age-adjusted) estimates in Pew and OIS and relatively close to those of Warren and Warren (2013). We essentially employ the same sort of even-handed nation of origin “trim” to get to a total between Pew and OIS (again, those dropped are those with the least likelihood of being unauthorized). Finally, we account for the reweighting issue mentioned above – those trimmed are returned to the lower original weight while those tagged as undocumented retain the extra 10% adjustment for undercount.

There are admittedly a large number of necessary assumptions along the way in this process. It is likely, for example, that the legal status predictors are much more exact when applied to Mexicans and Central Americans and likely less exact when applied to those from Asian and European countries. But the vast bulk of the unauthorized in California are either from Mexico or Central America and the totals of the other groups have been tagged based on the national shares with the probabilities used only to assign till we get the right

amount. It is also hard to adjudicate between the California targets we derive from Pew, OIS and Warren and Warren (2013) since there is more divergence in their figures at the state level; the Warren and Warren approach offers numbers for California that are much higher than those used by most observers in this field so we try to strike an aggregate total (once we account for children, as discussed below) that falls between Pew and OIS.

With the undocumented adult count in place, we then turn to tagging undocumented children. To do this, we take advantage of the fact that the ACS includes easily accessed information on the relations between members of a household, particularly on the connections between parents and children. We associate all children living with their parents in the same household, and assume that if the child is a non-citizen immigrant and at least one of the parents is undocumented, then the child is undocumented. The resulting share of those under age 18 in the California unauthorized population is 10.6%, close to the national share given in the OIS estimates. We should also note that, unlike others, if a child is listed as a naturalized citizen and has an undocumented parent, we take that as correct. Others designate those children as undocumented and if we followed suit, our child share of the undocumented population would rise slightly to 11%. In either case, our figure may be a bit of an understatement given the past estimates in Fortuny, et al. (2007).

As for calculating the other citizen children with at least one undocumented parent, we make some modifications because the estimators used here, originally designed for an analysis of economic outcomes for adults, do not explicitly account for the immigration status of the spouse; if they did, spouses of similar immigration status would be more clustered together in

households in the data. While not accounting for the clustering does not affect our general estimates of adult or householder characteristics, it could easily overstate the number of citizen children with an undocumented parent (since they are more clustered in households in the real world than they are in our data).

For these citizen children, we assume that if our estimators suggest that both parents are undocumented, the child in question is indeed a citizen children of undocumented parents. However, the lack of accounting for clustering suggests that we might estimate too many citizen children with one undocumented parent when one of the parents is undocumented and the other is a citizen; a similar but smaller overestimate would exist for children who have one parent who is undocumented and the other is foreign-born. To correct for that, we take advantage of the fact that we have an estimate of the probability of being unauthorized for any relevant undocumented parent, and when we make adjustments for these two-parent mixed-status situations, we drop first those children whose undocumented parent has the lowest probability of being unauthorized. For technical reasons, we also make a slight adjustment in the very small share of cases in which a child has a single parent who is undocumented.

To the extent that a bias remains from all this fitting, we are likely to slightly understating the share of undocumented who are children and slightly overstating the share of citizen children with at least one undocumented parent. Nonetheless, our estimate of the total number of California's children with at least one undocumented parent are reasonably close to those given by Fortuny and colleagues (2007) if we account for the growth in the overall undocumented population since then and the fact that we have a much larger share of

Mexicans in the undocumented population (which squares with other estimates such as Wallace et al. 2013) because non-citizen Mexican immigrants tend to have significantly more children than other non-citizen immigrants in California.

This extensive discussion suggests why we caution the reader that the resulting estimates should be seen as reflecting a general sense of reality rather than offering hard specifics; instead, they constitute a framework for understanding the relative importance of the undocumented in California. That said, various characteristics of our regions do match what other research has suggested: the undocumented population has a longer time in country in Los Angeles, the share in agriculture in the Central Valley is significant, a super-majority of the state's children with undocumented parents were actually born in the U.S.

Moreover, while it is not surprising that our resulting totals are close to those of the Pew and OIS approaches – that was by design – what is more comforting is that some of the characteristics generated from this approach are quite similar to those generated by Steven Wallace and his associates in a new study looking at the way in which health care reform will impact undocumented immigrants in California (Wallace et al. 2013). Using data from the 2009 California Health Interview Survey (CHIS), in which questions were asked to ascertain documentation status, the authors find, for example, that 70% of California's undocumented are from Mexico, that 82% of all males of working age are employed, and that 90% of the non-elderly undocumented are between the ages of 18 and 44; similar calculations using our data are 72%, 83%, and 91%, respectively, remarkably close given the two very different approaches and data sources.



A final note on these estimates: as noted in the text, the estimators used here are likely to be supplanted soon by more recent legal status estimators generated from Marcelli's 2013 Los Angeles County Mexican Immigrant Health & Legal Status Survey (LAC-MIHLSS). These will be necessary or at least highly desirable for future research about specific post-reform implementation issues (Marcelli 2013).

As for the estimates of a gain from authorization with a roadmap to citizenship, these were derived as follows. The CSII calculations utilized in the estimated income gain come from a California-only regression analysis of the difference in income between undocumented and citizen immigrants (Pastor and Scoggins 2012). We note this simply because the fact most cited from that report – that there is a “citizen gain” of 8 to 11% nationwide – may cause some confusion. In the California case, we found a bigger gain, 13.9%, once we allowed for job mobility over time. We were also able to compare the earning of citizen immigrants to undocumented individuals in the workforce for Latinos only; that added .06% to earned income for immigrants. Adding the combined benefit of authorization plus citizenship in the study suggests a 14.5% increase on annual earnings in the state, holding all other aspects of human capital constant. The Center for American Progress study we cite uses national estimates for gain on income and similarly first breaks out the effect solely due to authorization, and second adds their own estimates of the benefits of citizenship alone. For the income gain from authorization, they use a 15.1% gain on income first generated by the Department of Labor in the historical study mentioned in the text (Division Of Immigration Policy and Research, U.S. Department of Labor 1996). Some of this came from simply shifting legal status while some likely came from modest gains in human capital. The authors then

estimate a 10% gain for citizenship, using a regression analysis similar to that in Pastor and Scoggins (2012), with the dual effects resulting in a 25.1% gain on annual income.

Those changes are applied to baseline income levels. Both those income levels as well as the resulting income boosts come from census data and are typically significantly lower than income measures generated by the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) whose estimates more closely approximate gross domestic product (GDP). The differences are technical (see, for example, Ruser, Pilot, and Nelson 2004) but include the fact that the census data excludes certain components of income, including the value of employer-paid benefits. Thus, the gains to the California economy are likely to be understated, particularly as we make no attempt to calculate a multiplier impact in this exercise.

Two other quick details: First, with regard to terminology, many demographers use the term “foreign-born residents” to capture (1) naturalized U.S. citizens, (2) legal permanent residents, (3) non-immigrant visa holders, and (4) unauthorized migrants. In this report, we frequently use the more accessible term immigrant to refer to that entire group. Second, the data mentioned in the executive summary on the nation's opinion about a roadmap to citizenship mentioned in the executive summary was taken from a nation-wide poll conducted in mid-April 2013 by the Associated Press and GfK Roper Public Affairs; see [http://ap-gfkipoll.com/main/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/AP-GfK-April-2013-Topline-Posted-FINAL\\_immigration.pdf](http://ap-gfkipoll.com/main/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/AP-GfK-April-2013-Topline-Posted-FINAL_immigration.pdf).

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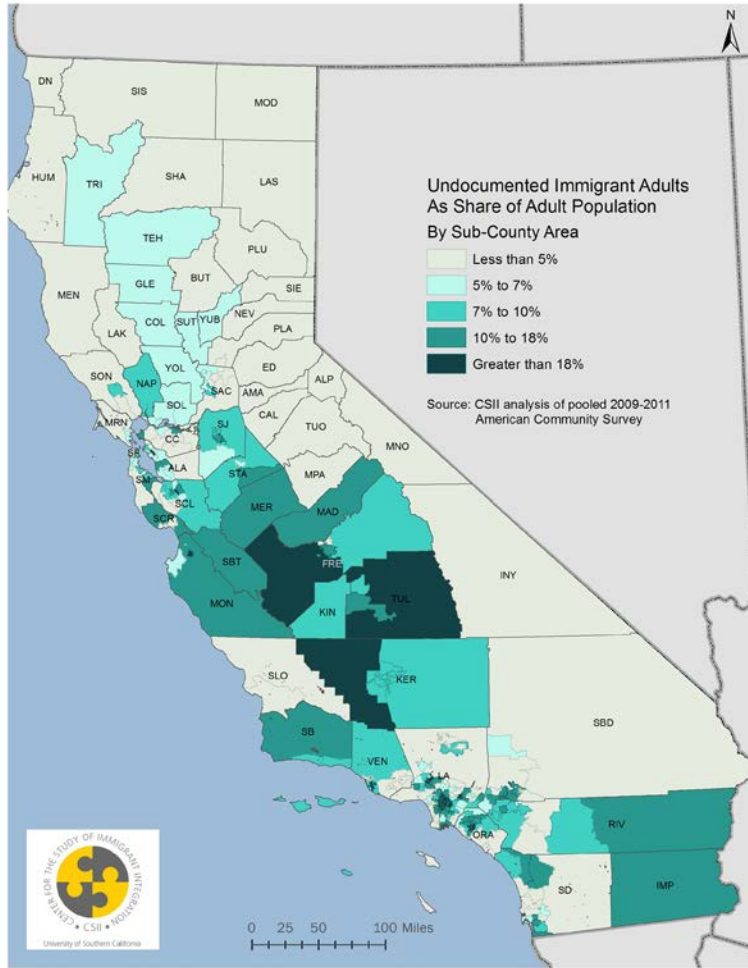
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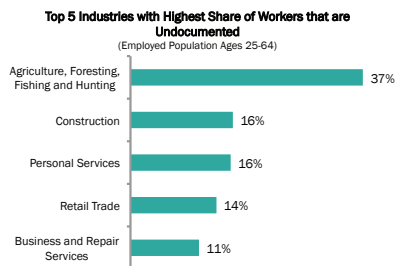
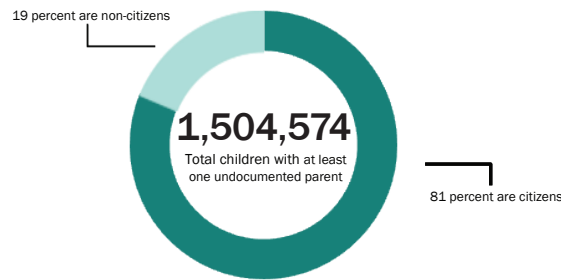
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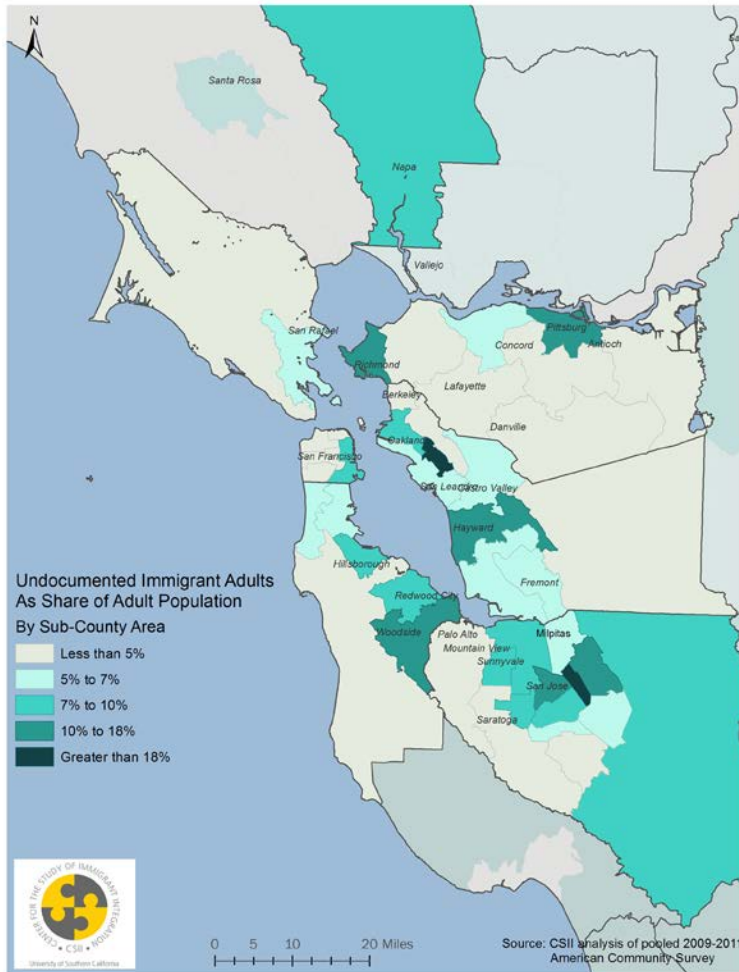


**16 percent** of children in California have at least one undocumented parent

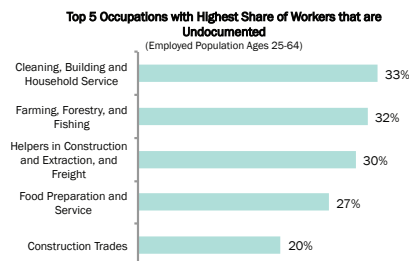
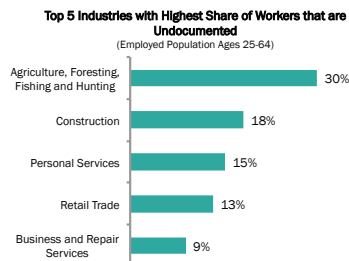
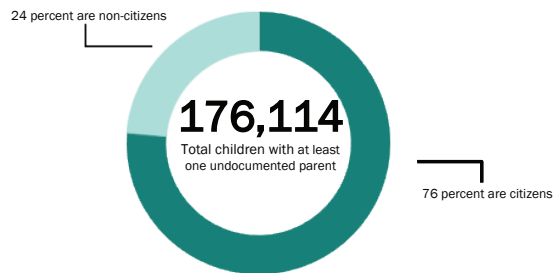








**13 percent** of children in the Bay Area have at least one undocumented parent



## 2009-2011 DATA PROFILE: CENTRAL VALLEY (Fresno, Kern, Kings, Madera, Merced, San Joaquin, Stanislaus, and Tulare Counties)

<b>Total Population</b>	3,989,754	
US- Born	666,602	78%
Immigrant	890,335	22%
Naturalized	298,460	7%
Non-Citizen, Documented	260,291	7%
Non-Citizen, Undocumented	331,584	8%
<b>Median Years in Country...</b>		
Immigrant, Citizen	28	
Immigrant, Non-Citizen, Documented	22	
Immigrant, Undocumented	10	
<b>Adults who are undocumented</b>	292,439	10%
<b>Workforce who are undocumented</b>	160,206	11%
<b>Total Child Population</b>	1,189,031	
US- Born	1,128,296	95%
Immigrant	60,734	5%
Children with Immigrant Parent	506,549	43%
Children with Undoc. Imm. Parent	224,958	19%
Of whom,		
Citizen Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	185,813	83%
Non-Citz. Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	39,146	17%
<b>Child Poverty (below 150% of poverty line)</b>		
With US-Born Parent	38%	
With Immigrant Parent	58%	
With Undocumented Parent	76%	
<b>Race/Ethnicity*</b>		
Non-Hispanic White	1%	
Black	N/A	
Latino	93%	
Asian/Pacific Islander	6%	
Other	N/A	
<b>Top 5 Countries/Regions of Origin for Undocumented Residents</b>		
Mexico	88%	
Central America	4%	
India	3%	
Philippines	2%	
South America	0.5%	

### Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship

Aggregate Earned Income for Undoc.	\$3,270,849,308
CSII Estimated Annual Gains	\$474,273,150
CAP Estimated Annual Gains	\$820,983,176

### Median Annual Earnings, Full-time Workers<sup>†</sup>

US-born	\$41,939
Undoc Imm	\$20,631

### Speaks English Well<sup>#</sup>

Citizens (US-born & Imm)	97%
Non-Citizen Documented Immigrants	50%
Undocumented Immigrants	35%

Undoc Imm All

### Educational Attainment<sup>‡</sup>

No School or Less than High School	60%	11%
Some High School	18%	11%
High School Grad	17%	26%
Some College or AA Degree	3%	34%
BA or Better	2%	18%

### Top 5 Industries<sup>§</sup>

Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	47%	12%
Retail Trade	14%	14%
Manufacturing	8%	9%
Construction	8%	7%
Wholesale Trade	6%	4%

### Top 5 Occupations<sup>¶</sup>

Farming, Forestry, and Fishing Occupations	48%	11%
Helpers in Construction and Material Handlers	9%	4%
Food Preparation and Service Occupations	6%	4%
Machine Operators, Assemblers, and Inspectors	6%	4%
Cleaning, Building and Household Service	5%	3%

### Labor Force Participation (share of working age pop.)<sup>§</sup>

Males, in Labor Force	93%	84%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	87%	87%
Females, in Labor Force	54%	67%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	75%	86%

	Median Age	Age at Migration	Living in Poverty <sup>‡</sup>	Health Insurance <sup>§</sup>	Home Ownership	Self Employment	Full-Time Employment	Burdened Renters <sup>¶</sup>	Overcrowded Housing <sup>**</sup>
US-Born	26	N/A	33%	79%	60%	10%	63%	53%	1%
Imm., Citizen	48	19	27%	76%	71%	13%	64%	51%	3%
Imm., Non-Citizen, Documented	46	20	43%	55%	48%	10%	54%	49%	6%
Imm., Undocumented	31	19	64%	41%	23%	6%	43%	62%	11%

#### Notes

All data calculated by USC CSII using IPUMS 2009-2011 American Community Survey (ACS) data (Ruggles et al. 2011).

<sup>†</sup> Latino includes all who marked "Hispanic;" all other categories are Non-Hispanic

<sup>‡</sup> For full-time workers, age 16+, not in group quarters

<sup>§</sup> For ages 5+, respondents who speak English well or better

<sup>¶</sup> 25 and older, not in group quarters

<sup>\*\*</sup> Employed workers ages 25-64, not in group quarters

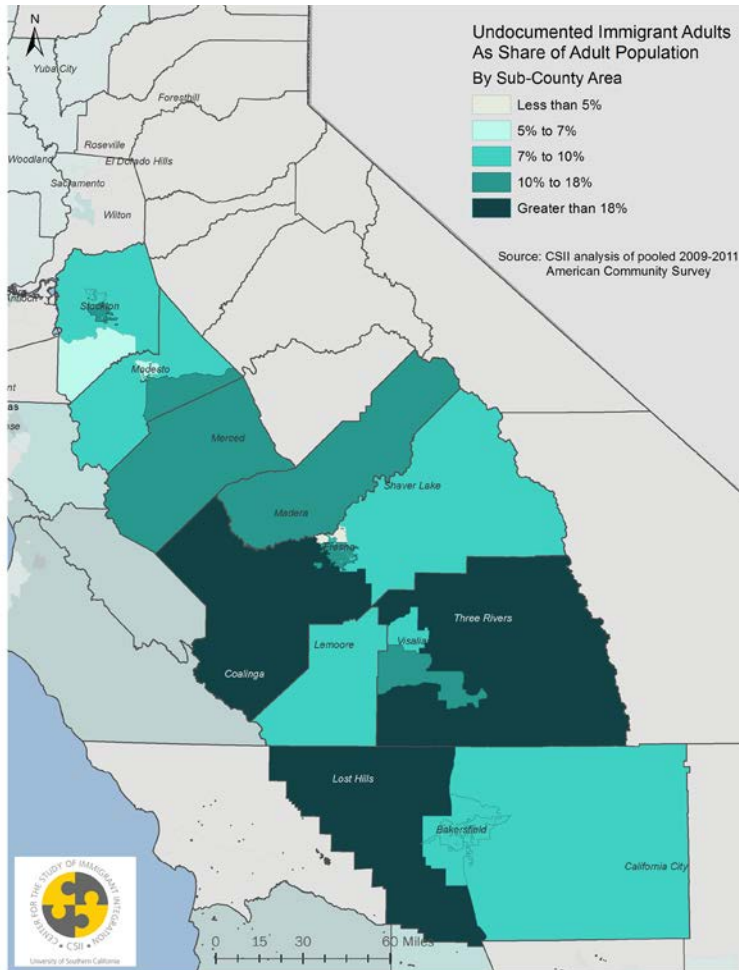
<sup>§</sup> Workers (employed and unemployed) ages 25-64, not in group quarters

<sup>‡</sup> Poverty is calculated at below 150% of the federal poverty line because of California housing costs

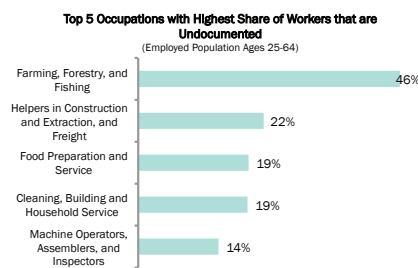
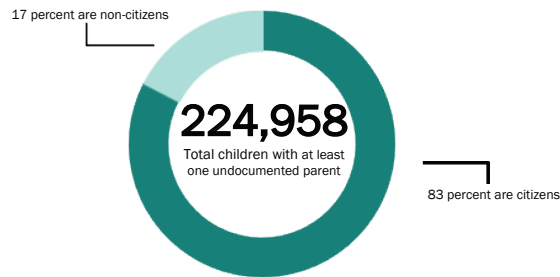
<sup>¶</sup> Ages 25-64

<sup>\*\*</sup> Renter-occupied households that spend more than 30% of household income on rent

<sup>\*\*</sup> Defined as more than 1.5 people per room in household



**19 percent** of children in the Central Valley have at least one undocumented parent



## 2009-2011 DATA PROFILE: EAST BAY (Alameda & Contra Costa Counties)

<b>Total Population</b>	2,577,752	
US- Born	1,855,943	72%
Immigrant	721,809	28%
Naturalized	359,763	14%
Non-Citizen, Documented	208,137	8%
Non-Citizen, Undocumented	153,910	6%
Median Years in Country...		
Immigrant, Citizen		24
Immigrant, Non-Citizen, Documented		13
Immigrant, Undocumented		8
Adults who are undocumented	136,662	7%
Workforce who are undocumented	78,459	7%

<b>Total Child Population</b>	602,298	
US- Born	563,283	94%
Immigrant	39,014	6%
Children with Immigrant Parent	285,836	47%
Children with Undoc. Imm. Parent	73,575	12%
Of whom,		
Citizen Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	56,328	77%
Non-Citz. Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	17,247	23%
<b>Child Poverty (below 150% of poverty line)</b>		
With US-Born Parent		18%
With Immigrant Parent		27%
With Undocumented Parent		55%

<b>Race/Ethnicity*</b>		
Non-Hispanic White		3%
Black		N/A
Latino		72%
Asian/Pacific Islander		22%
Other		N/A

<b>Top 5 Countries/Regions of Origin for Undocumented Residents</b>		
Mexico		60%
Central America		12%
Philippines		6%
China		6%
India		5%

### Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship

Aggregate Earned Income for Undoc.	\$2,018,392,184
CSII Estimated Annual Gains	\$292,666,867
CAP Estimated Annual Gains	\$506,616,438

### Median Annual Earnings, Full-time Workers\*

US-born	\$60,000
Undoc Imm	\$24,000

### Speaks English Well#

Citizens (US-born & Imm)	96%
Non-Citizen Documented Immigrants	73%
Undocumented Immigrants	48%

### Educational Attainment+

No School or Less than High School	38%	5%
Some High School	17%	5%
High School Grad	30%	19%
Some College or AA Degree	5%	29%
BA or Better	10%	42%

### Top 5 Industries\*

Retail Trade	28%	13%
Construction	18%	7%
Business and Repair Services	12%	9%
Professional and Related Services	9%	31%
Manufacturing	9%	10%

### Top 5 Occupations\*

Food Preparation and Service Occupations	16%	4%
Helpers in Construction and Material Handlers	14%	3%
Cleaning, Building and Household Service	13%	3%
Construction Trades	10%	3%
Sales Occupations	7%	10%

### Labor Force Participation§

Males, in Labor Force	92%	87%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	90%	90%
Females, in Labor Force	57%	74%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	86%	91%

	Median Age	Age at Migration	Living in Poverty £	Health Insurance*	Home Ownership	Self Employment	Full-Time Employment	Burdened Renters-	Overcrowded Housing**
US-Born	32	N/A	17%	88%	61%	11%	65%	52%	1%
Imm., Citizen	49	22	14%	87%	69%	12%	70%	49%	2%
Imm., Non-Citizen, Documented	41	25	21%	76%	41%	11%	62%	46%	3%
Imm., Undocumented	30	21	44%	51%	18%	11%	50%	65%	9%

#### Notes

All data calculated by USC CSII using IPUMS 2009-2011 American Community Survey (ACS) data (Ruggles et al. 2011).

\* Latino includes all who marked "Hispanic;" all other categories are Non-Hispanic

† For full-time workers, age 16+, not in group quarters

\* Among population ages 5+, share who speak English well or better

† For population ages 25+, not in group quarters

\* For employed workers ages 25-64, not in group quarters

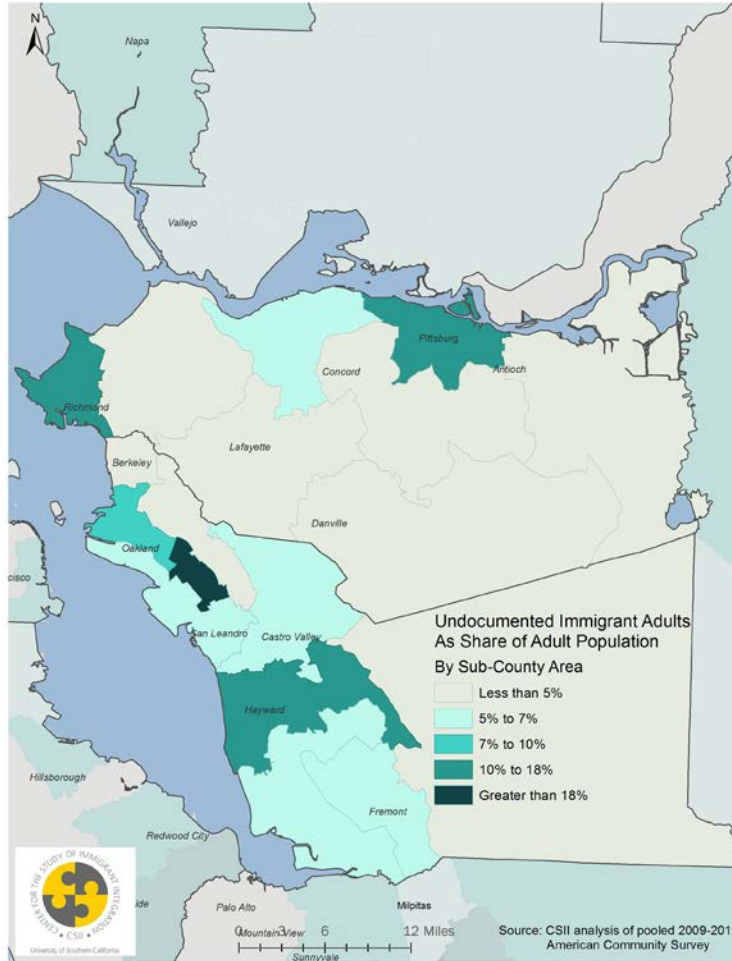
§ Workers (employed and unemployed) ages 25-64, not in group quarters

‡ Poverty is calculated at below 150% of the federal poverty line because of California housing costs

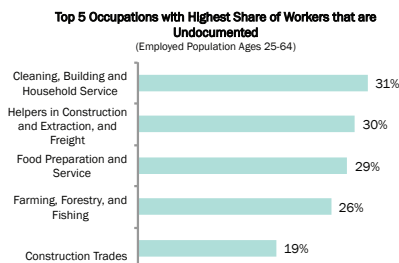
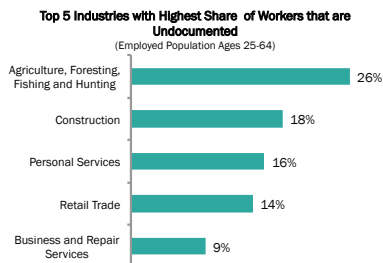
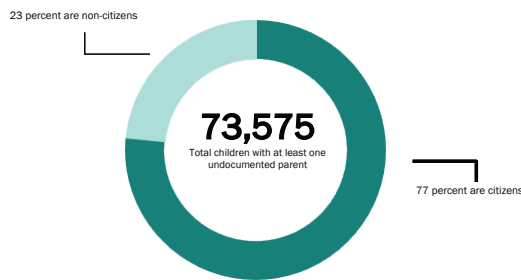
\* Ages 25-64

- Renter-occupied households that spend more than 30% of household income on rent

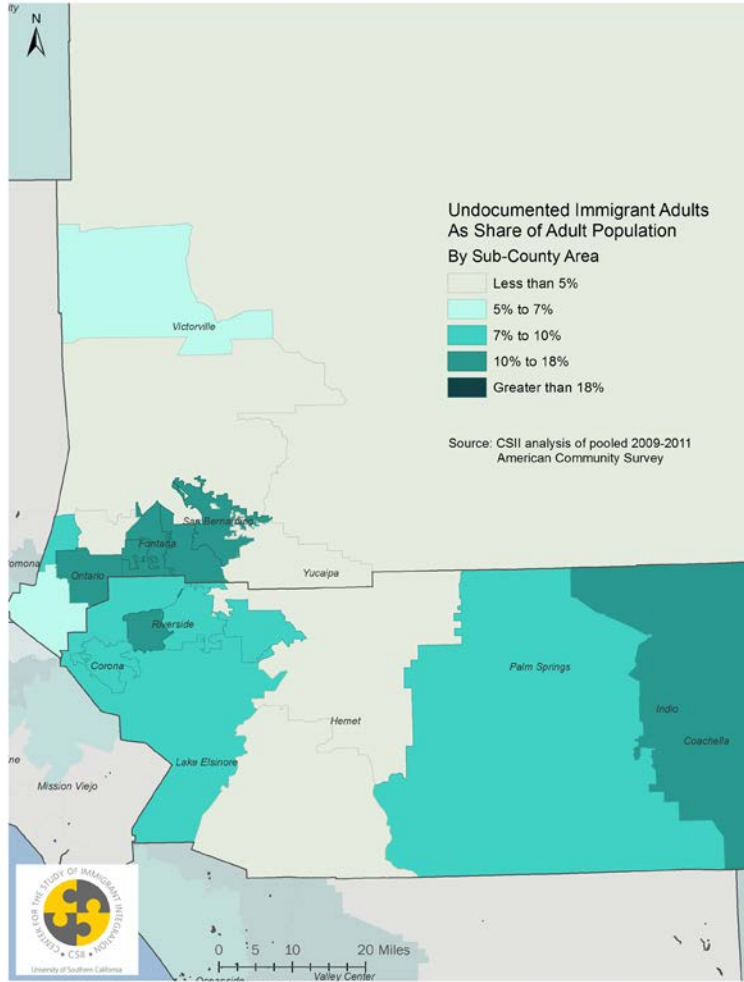
\*\* Defined as more than 1.5 people per room in household



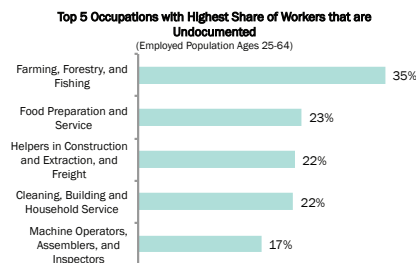
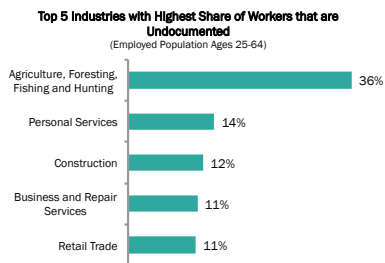
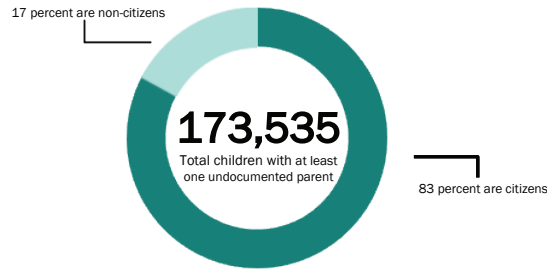
**12 percent of children in the East Bay have at least one undocumented parent**







**14 percent** of children in the Inland Empire have at least one undocumented parent



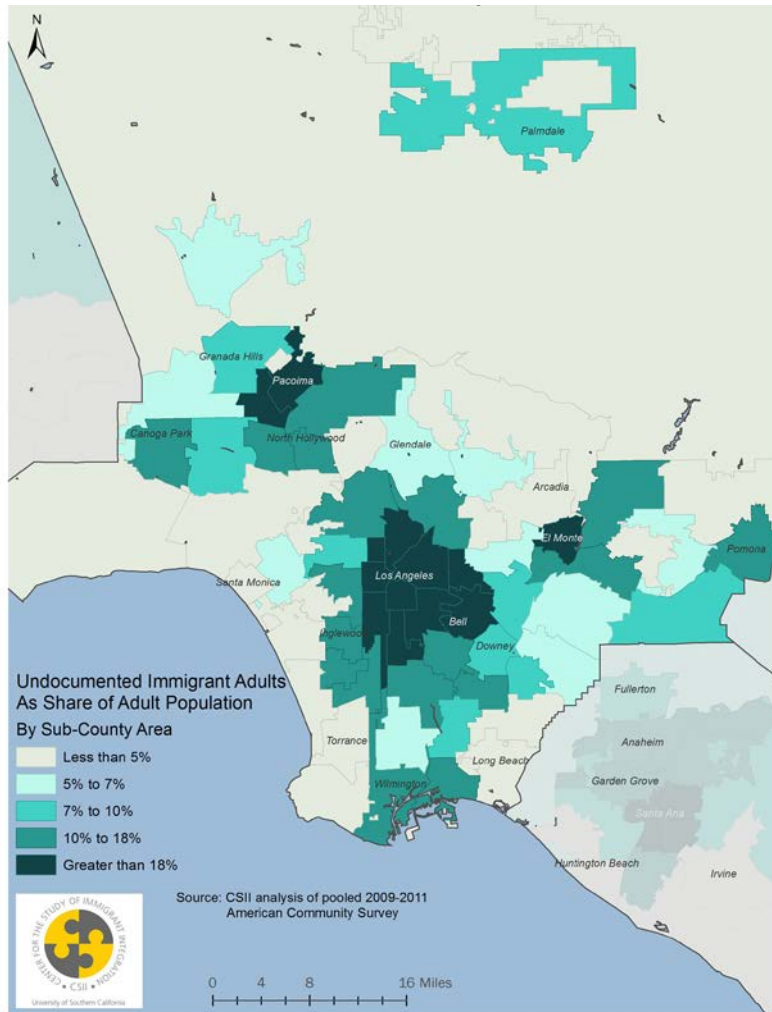
## 2009-2011 DATA PROFILE: LOS ANGELES COUNTY

<b>Total Population</b>	9,929,683		<b>Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship</b>		
US- Born	6,365,475	64%	Aggregate Earned Income for Undoc.	\$10,251,007,872	
Immigrant	3,564,208	36%	CSII Estimated Annual Gains	\$1,486,396,141	
Naturalized	1,607,298	16%	CAP Estimated Annual Gains	\$2,573,002,976	
Non-Citizen, Documented	1,064,828	11%			
Non-Citizen, Undocumented	892,081	9%			
Median Years in Country...			<b>Median Annual Earnings, Full-time Workers*</b>		
Immigrant, Citizen	28		US-born	\$47,182	
Immigrant, Non-Citizen, Documented	20		Undoc Imm	\$18,000	
Immigrant, Undocumented	10		<b>Speaks English Well#</b>		
Adults who are undocumented	810,205	11%	Citizens (US-born & Imm)	93%	
Workforce who are undocumented	475,721	11%	Non-Citizen Documented Immigrants	57%	
			Undocumented Immigrants	40%	
					Undoc Imm    All
<b>Total Child Population</b>	2,424,940		<b>Educational Attainment *</b>		
US- Born	2,263,482	93%	No School or Less than High School	48%	10%
Immigrant	161,458	7%	Some High School	19%	9%
Children with Immigrant Parent	1,397,706	58%	High School Grad	23%	20%
Children with Undoc. Imm. Parent	480,569	20%	Some College or AA Degree	5%	28%
Of whom,			BA or Better	5%	32%
Citizen Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	398,692	83%	<b>Top 5 Industries*</b>		
Non-Citz. Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	81,876	17%	Retail Trade	24%	14%
<b>Child Poverty (below 150% of poverty line)</b>			Manufacturing	18%	12%
With US-Born Parent		26%	Construction	13%	6%
With Immigrant Parent		46%	Business and Repair Services	10%	8%
With Undocumented Parent		71%	Personal Services	8%	5%
<b>Race/Ethnicity*</b>			<b>Top 5 Occupations*</b>		
Non-Hispanic White		3%	Machine Operators, Assemblers, and Inspectors	14%	5%
Black		0.3%	Food Preparation and Service Occupations	13%	5%
Latino		86%	Helpers in Construction and Material Handlers	12%	4%
Asian/Pacific Islander		11%	Cleaning, Building and Household Service	11%	4%
Other		0.4%	Sales Occupations	8%	10%
<b>Top 5 Countries/Regions of Origin for Undocumented Residents</b>			<b>Labor Force Participation (share of working age pop.)<sup>§</sup></b>	74%	79%
Mexico		63%	Males, in Labor Force	93%	88%
Central America		22%	Employed (as a share of the labor force)	91%	90%
Philippines		3%	Females, in Labor Force	57%	71%
Korea		3%	Employed (as a share of the labor force)	84%	90%
China		2%			

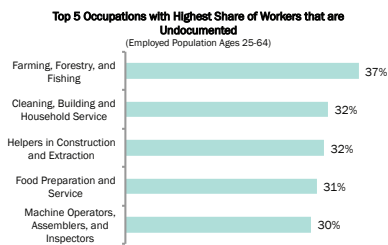
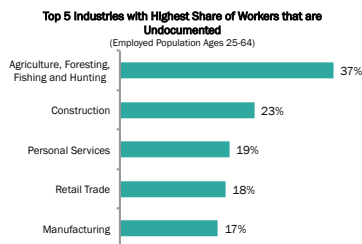
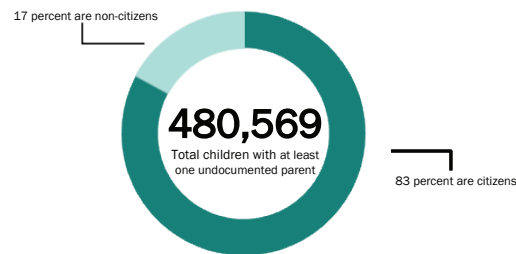
	Median Age	Age at Migration	Living in Poverty <sup>‡</sup>	Health Insurance <sup>†</sup>	Home Ownership	Self Employment	Full-Time Employment	Burdened Renters <sup>¶</sup>	Overcrowded Housing <sup>**</sup>
US-Born	26	N/A	26%	81%	51%	12%	65%	54%	2%
Imm., Citizen	51	22	22%	75%	57%	16%	70%	56%	4%
Imm., Non-Citizen, Documented	45	23	35%	53%	29%	16%	63%	60%	11%
Imm., Undocumented	32	20	56%	33%	12%	14%	58%	73%	24%

Notes  
 All data calculated by USC CSII using IPUMS 2009-2011 American Community Survey (ACS) data (Ruggles et al. 2011).  
 \* Latino includes all who marked "Hispanic;" all other categories are Non-Hispanic  
 † For full-time workers, age 16+, not in group quarters  
 ‡ For ages 5+, respondents who speak English well or better  
 † 25 and older, not in group quarters  
 \* Employed workers ages 25-64, not in group quarters  
 § Workers (employed and unemployed) ages 25-64, not in group quarters  
 ¶ Poverty is calculated at below 150% of the federal poverty line because of California housing costs  
 \* Ages 25-64  
 ¶ Renter-occupied households that spend more than 30% of household income on rent  
 \*\* Defined as more than 1.5 people per room in household





**20 percent** of children in Los Angeles County have at least one undocumented parent



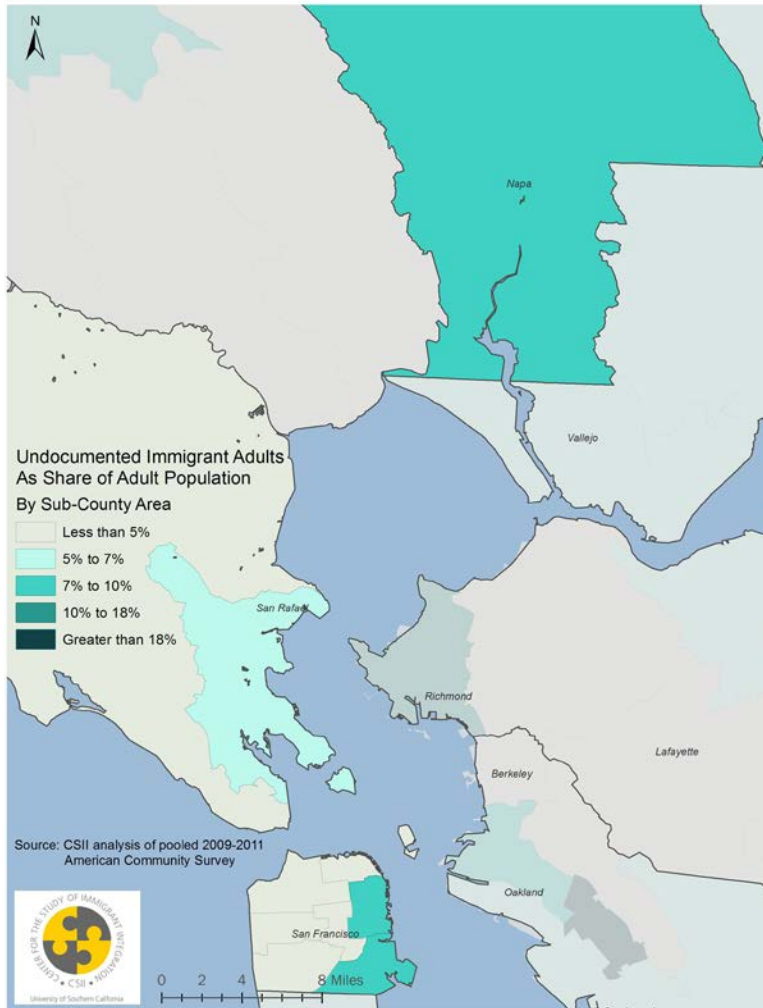
# NORTH BAY AREA

## 2009-2011 DATA PROFILE: NORTH BAY AREA (San Francisco, Marin, and Napa Counties)

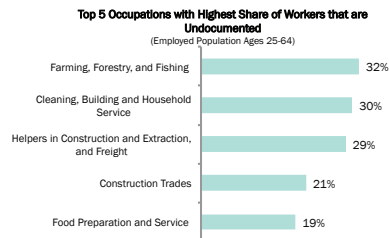
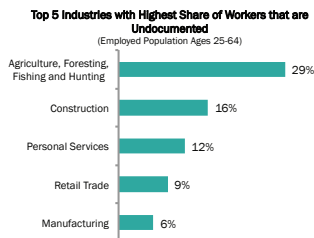
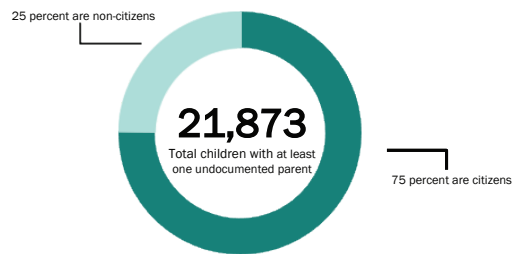
<b>Total Population</b>	1,205,294		<b>Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship</b>		
US- Born	836,242	69%	Aggregate Earned Income for Undoc.	\$879,001,198	
Immigrant	369,053	31%	CSII Estimated Annual Gains	\$127,455,174	
Naturalized	211,158	18%	CAP Estimated Annual Gains	\$220,629,301	
Non-Citizen, Documented	98,672	8%	<b>Median Annual Earnings, Full-time Workers<sup>†</sup></b>		
Non-Citizen, Undocumented	59,223	5%	US-born	\$63,000	
Median Years in Country...			Undoc Imm	\$23,726	
Immigrant, Citizen	26		<b>Speaks English Well<sup>#</sup></b>		
Immigrant, Non-Citizen, Documented	11		Citizens (US-born & Imm)	93%	
Immigrant, Undocumented	7		Non-Citizen Documented Immigrants	69%	
Adults who are undocumented	53,813	5%	Undocumented Immigrants	53%	
Workforce who are undocumented	33,142	6%		Undoc Imm	All
<b>Total Child Population</b>	194,894		<b>Educational Attainment<sup>‡</sup></b>		
US- Born	181,062	93%	No School or Less than High School	40%	6%
Immigrant	13,832	7%	Some High School	13%	5%
Children with Immigrant Parent	93,786	48%	High School Grad	28%	13%
Children with Undoc. Imm. Parent	21,873	11%	Some College or AA Degree	8%	23%
Of whom,			BA or Better	11%	53%
Citizen Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	16,463	75%	<b>Top 5 Industries<sup>¶</sup></b>		
Non-Citz. Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	5,410	25%	Retail Trade	23%	15%
<b>Child Poverty (below 150% of poverty line)</b>			Professional and Related Services	14%	33%
With US-Born Parent	13%		Construction	14%	5%
With Immigrant Parent	29%		Personal Services	11%	5%
With Undocumented Parent	62%		Business and Repair Services	10%	10%
<b>Race/Ethnicity*</b>			<b>Top 5 Occupations<sup>¶</sup></b>		
Non-Hispanic White	6%		Food Preparation and Service Occupations	19%	5%
Black	N/A		Cleaning, Building and Household Service	16%	3%
Latino	70%		Helpers in Construction and Material Handlers	12%	2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	23%		Farming, Forestry, and Fishing Occupations	11%	2%
Other	N/A		Construction Trades	8%	2%
<b>Top 5 Countries/Regions of Origin for Undocumented Residents</b>			<b>Labor Force Participation (share of working age pop.)<sup>§</sup></b>		
Mexico	48%		Males, in Labor Force	93%	87%
Central America	22%		Employed (as a share of the labor force)	94%	92%
China	10%		Females, in Labor Force	66%	79%
Philippines	5%		Employed (as a share of the labor force)	90%	93%
South America	5%				

	Median Age	Age at Migration	Living in Poverty <sup>‡</sup>	Health Insurance <sup>§</sup>	Home Ownership	Self Employment	Full-Time Employment	Burdened Renters <sup>¶</sup>	Overcrowded Housing <sup>**</sup>
US-Born	36	N/A	16%	89%	46%	15%	67%	44%	1%
Imm., Citizen	54	24	20%	88%	51%	13%	69%	49%	4%
Imm., Non-Citizen, Documented	41	27	27%	77%	24%	13%	59%	53%	8%
Imm., Undocumented	30	21	47%	51%	6%	11%	51%	75%	22%

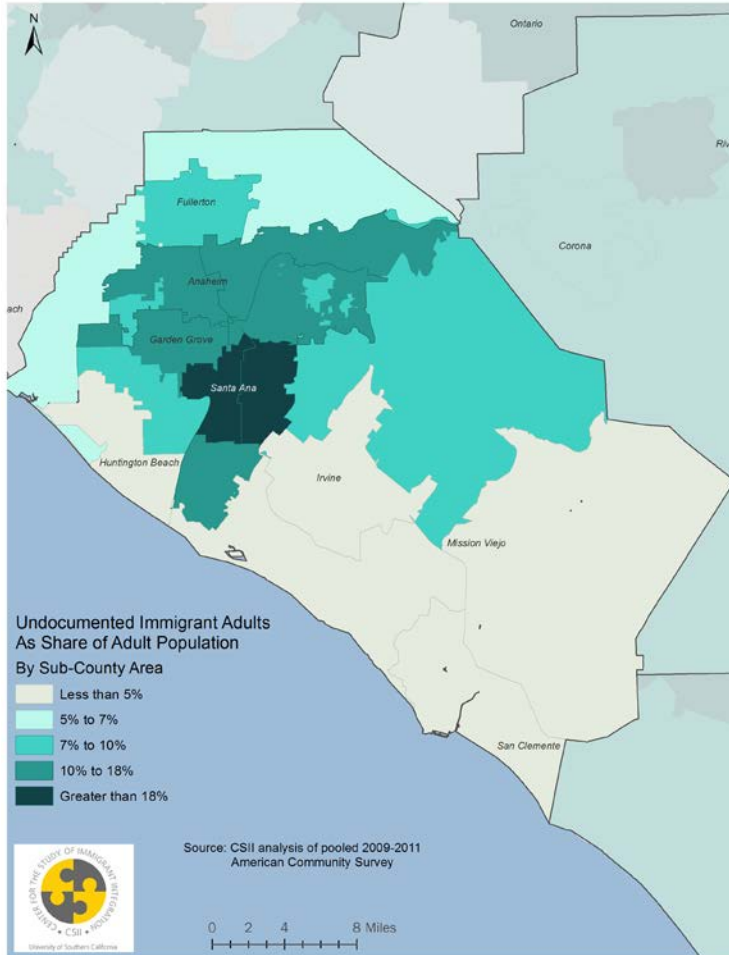
**Notes**  
 All data calculated by USC CSII using IPUMS 2009-2011 American Community Survey (ACS) data (Ruggles et al. 2011).  
<sup>†</sup> Latino includes all who marked "Hispanic;" all other categories are Non-Hispanic  
<sup>‡</sup> For full-time workers, age 16+, not in group quarters  
<sup>§</sup> For ages 5+, respondents who speak English well or better  
<sup>¶</sup> 25 and older, not in group quarters  
<sup>\*\*</sup> Employed workers ages 25-64, not in group quarters  
<sup>‡</sup> Workers (employed and unemployed) ages 25-64, not in group quarters  
<sup>§</sup> Poverty is calculated at below 150% of the federal poverty line because of California housing costs  
<sup>¶</sup> Ages 25-64  
<sup>\*\*</sup> Renter-occupied households that spend more than 30% of household income on rent  
<sup>\*\*</sup> Defined as more than 1.5 people per room in household



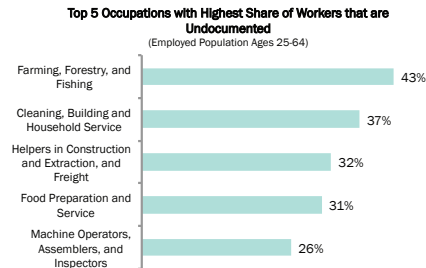
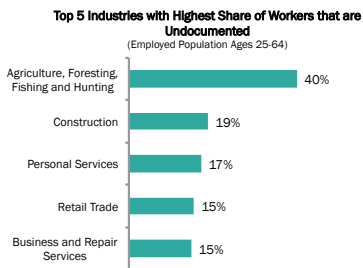
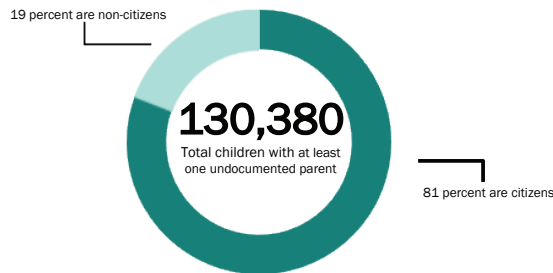
**11 percent** of children in the North Bay have at least one undocumented parent







**18 percent** of children in Orange County have at least one undocumented parent



# SACRAMENTO

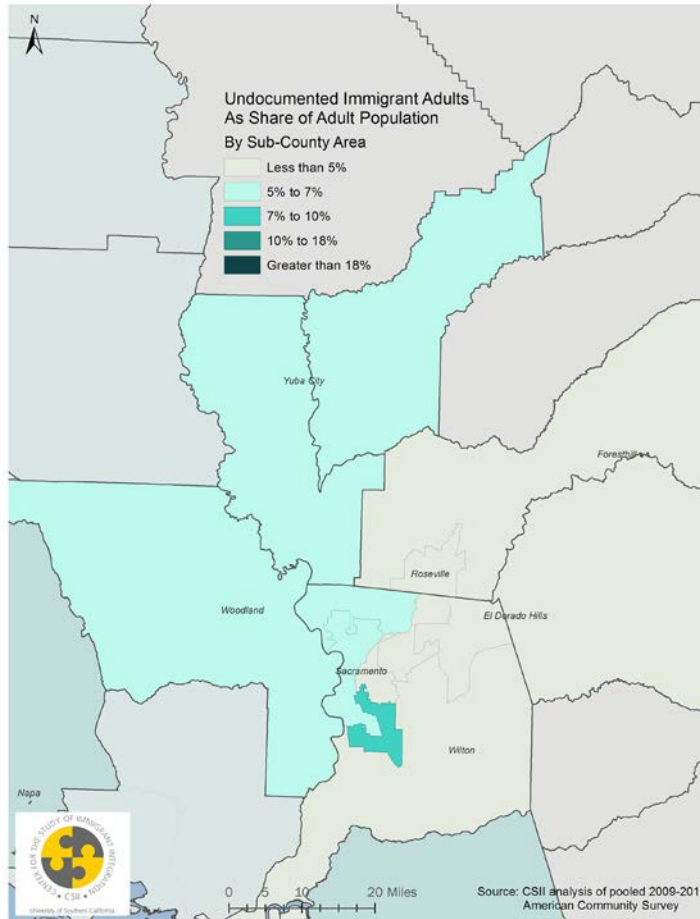
## 2009-2011 DATA PROFILE: SACRAMENTO METRO (El Dorado, Placer, Sacramento, Sutter, Yolo, and Yuba Counties)

<b>Total Population</b>	2,159,674
US-Born	1,780,139 82%
Immigrant	379,534 18%
Naturalized	188,850 9%
Non-Citizen, Documented	107,205 5%
Non-Citizen, Undocumented	83,480 4%
<b>Median Years in Country...</b>	
Immigrant, Citizen	24
Immigrant, Non-Citizen, Documented	15
Immigrant, Undocumented	8
Adults who are undocumented	71,078 4%
Workforce who are undocumented	38,659 4%
<b>Total Child Population</b>	533,627
US-Born	506,521 95%
Immigrant	27,106 5%
Children with Immigrant Parent	178,781 34%
Children with Undoc. Imm. Parent	48,207 9%
Of whom,	
Citizen Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	35,805 74%
Non-Citz. Children w/ Undoc. Imm. Parent	12,402 26%
<b>Child Poverty (below 150% of poverty line)</b>	
With US-Born Parent	24%
With Immigrant Parent	42%
With Undocumented Parent	71%
<b>Race/Ethnicity*</b>	
Non-Hispanic White	10%
Black	N/A
Latino	71%
Asian/Pacific Islander	19%
Other	N/A
<b>Top 5 Countries/Regions of Origin for Undocumented Residents</b>	
Mexico	66%
Other USSR/Russia	8%
Philippines	6%
Central America	4%
China	3%

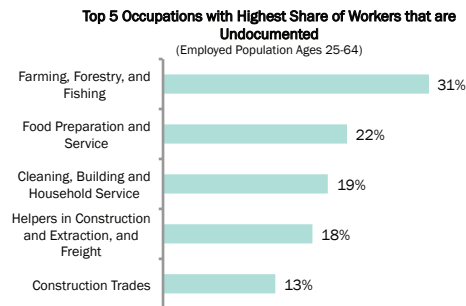
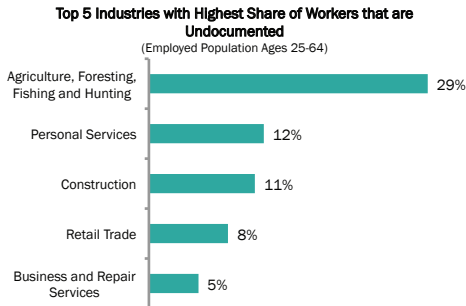
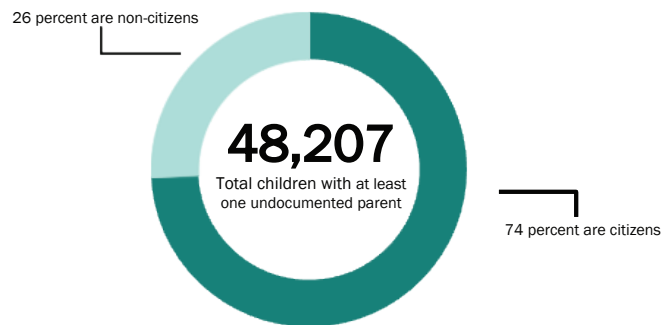
<b>Benefits of Authorization, with Roadmap to Citizenship</b>	
Aggregate Earned Income for Undoc.	\$877,864,706
CSII Estimated Annual Gains	\$127,290,382
CAP Estimated Annual Gains	\$220,344,041
<b>Median Annual Earnings, Full-time Workers*</b>	
US-born	\$50,000
Undoc Imm	\$20,631
<b>Speaks English Well#</b>	
Citizens (US-born & Imm)	98%
Non-Citizen Documented Immigrants	68%
Undocumented Immigrants	44%
	Undoc Imm      All
<b>Educational Attainment†</b>	
No School or Less than High School	44%      4%
Some High School	18%      6%
High School Grad	28%      21%
Some College or AA Degree	5%      38%
BA or Better	6%      31%
<b>Top 5 Industries‡</b>	
Retail Trade	26%      14%
Construction	18%      7%
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	16%      2%
Personal Services	9%      3%
Professional and Related Services	8%      30%
<b>Top 5 Occupations‡</b>	
Food Preparation and Service Occupations	19%      4%
Farming, Forestry, and Fishing Occupations	16%      2%
Cleaning, Building and Household Service	12%      3%
Construction Trades	10%      3%
Helpers in Construction and Material Handlers	10%      3%
<b>Labor Force Participation (share of working age pop.)§</b>	
Males, in Labor Force	73%      78%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	91%      83%
Females, in Labor Force	54%      72%
Employed (as a share of the labor force)	80%      87%

	Median Age	Age at Migration	Living in Poverty <sup>‡</sup>	Health Insurance <sup>§</sup>	Home Ownership	Self Employment	Full-Time Employment	Burdened Renters <sup>¶</sup>	Overcrowded Housing <sup>**</sup>
US-Born	33	N/A	22%	86%	62%	11%	64%	55%	0%
Imm., Citizen	47	20	22%	82%	68%	13%	67%	54%	2%
Imm., Non-Citizen, Documented	43	24	36%	69%	43%	12%	56%	56%	4%
Imm., Undocumented	30	20	57%	42%	20%	11%	44%	66%	8%

Notes  
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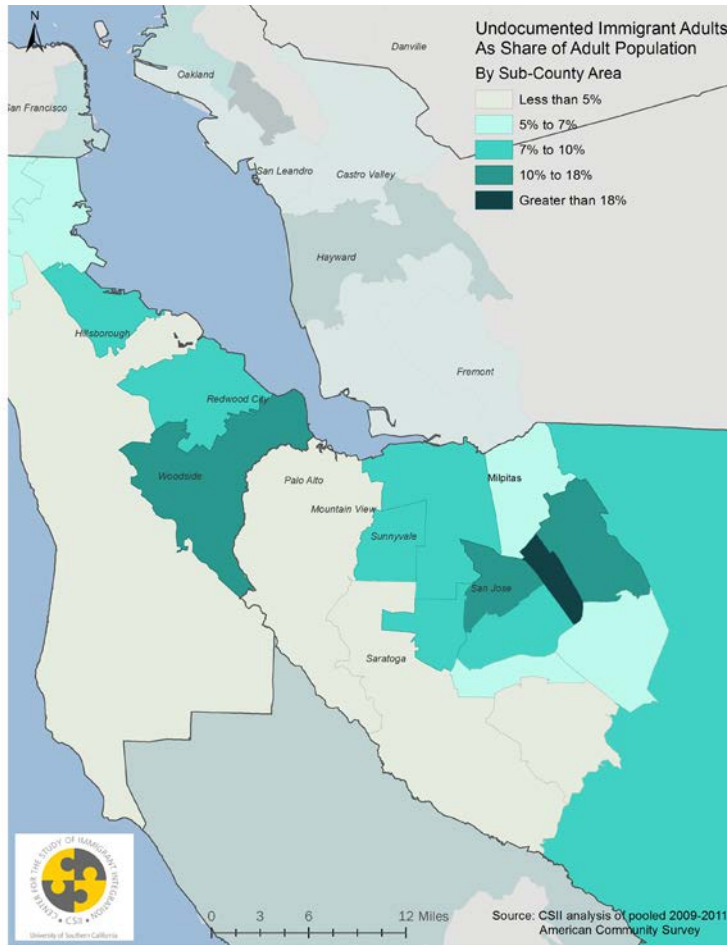


**9 percent** of children in the Sacramento Region have at least one undocumented parent

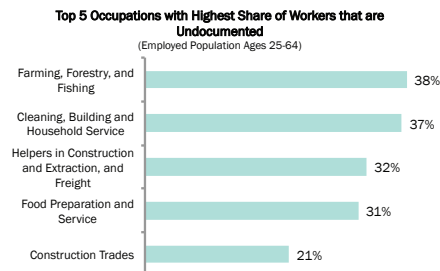
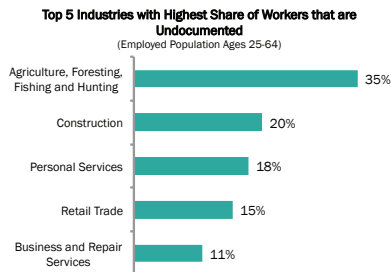
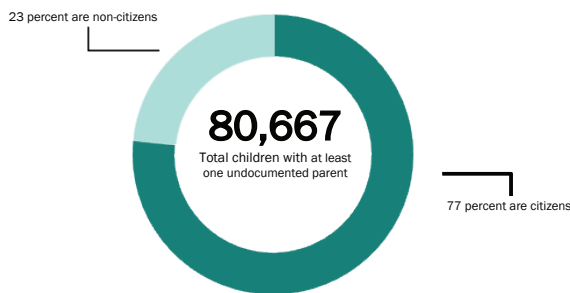








**14 percent** of children in the Silicon Valley have at least one undocumented parent





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