A PORTRAIT OF FOREIGN-BORN TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

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Executive Summary

Teachers play a vital, and often underappreciated, role in U.S. communities. They are responsible for educating our youth and young adults, and are instrumental in preparing the next generation of U.S. workers. Foreign-born teachers not only educate Americans, but also serve as cultural ambassadors for immigrant students who may not be as familiar with American traditions, customs, and social norms. Unfortunately, recent immigration policy changes and proposals could have a harmful impact on immigrant teachers and on potential immigrant teachers who have not yet arrived in the United States. This is unfortunate given the fact that there are teacher shortages in some regions of the United States and in some disciplines including bilingual education, foreign languages, mathematics, and science. Foreign-born teachers could help to alleviate these shortages.

This paper provides a statistical and demographic portrait of immigrant teachers in the United States and highlights differences between native- and foreign-born teachers as well as between postsecondary and non-postsecondary teachers. It also examines changes in immigration policy impacting foreign-born teachers. A summary is provided in the Key Findings below.

The data in this report comes from the Integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file and the U.S. Census. Five years of data are aggregated to increase the sample size and the accuracy of the estimates. Unless otherwise noted, data was limited to individuals who indicated their primary occupation was either a preschool and kindergarten teacher, elementary and middle school teacher, secondary school teacher, special education teacher, or postsecondary teacher.

Key Findings of the Report

- Immigrants are underrepresented in non-postsecondary teaching categories and overrepresented in postsecondary occupations. While immigrants comprise approximately 13 percent of the U.S. population, they make up only 11 percent of all teachers. Of the estimated 8.1 million teachers in the United States, approximately 857,200 are immigrant teachers, and nearly half of those are postsecondary teachers. Seven percent of non-postsecondary, and 22 percent of postsecondary teachers in the United States are foreign born.

- More than half of foreign-born teachers are U.S. citizens. Approximately 56 percent of all foreign-born teachers are naturalized citizens. Foreign-born postsecondary teachers are less likely to be naturalized citizens compared to all other foreign-born teachers (68 percent versus 41 percent).

- Non-postsecondary and postsecondary native- and foreign-born teachers differ along demographic characteristics including age, gender, and education. Immigrant non-postsecondary teachers are slightly older than their native-born peers, while immigrant postsecondary teachers are younger than their native-born counterparts. With the exception of immigrant postsecondary teachers, foreign-born teachers are more likely to be female. Immigrant teachers are significantly more likely than native-born teachers to have a master’s, professional, or doctoral degree (57 percent versus 49 percent).
• Foreign-born postsecondary teachers come from different countries compared to all other foreign-born teachers. The top five countries of origin among immigrant non-postsecondary teachers are Mexico (15 percent), India (5 percent), the Philippines (5 percent), Canada (4 percent), and Cuba (3 percent). On the other hand, the top five countries of origin among immigrant postsecondary teachers are China (17 percent), India (12 percent), Korea (5 percent), Canada (4 percent), and Mexico (3 percent). Forty-four percent of foreign-born teachers arrived in the United States more than 20 years ago, but post-secondary teachers tend to be more recent arrivals; 31 percent arrived in the last five years.

• A large share of noncitizen postsecondary teachers are also students. Among postsecondary teachers, 46 percent of noncitizens reported they are currently in school, compared to 24 percent of native-born teachers and 14 percent of naturalized U.S. citizens. They are likely graduate research assistants or lecturers, not full-time professors.

• Foreign-born postsecondary teachers earn slightly more than native-born teachers, but all other foreign-born teachers report slightly lower personal median incomes than their native-born counterparts. When we control for gender, race, age, location, education, and number of hours worked weekly, immigrant post-secondary teachers earn slightly more compared to their native-born counterparts. All other foreign-born teachers reported earning approximately $1,300 less compared to similarly-situated native-born teachers.

• Naturalized U.S. citizens and teachers who are proficient in English have slightly higher incomes. With the exception of special education teachers, foreign-born teachers who are naturalized citizens earned 11 to 55 percent more than noncitizens, depending on their teaching category. Foreign-born teachers who speak only English or speak English very well earn eight to 57 percent more than non-English proficient teachers.

• Immigrants are underrepresented in non-postsecondary occupations, in part due to barriers including work authorization, educational requirements, and licensing and certification. In order to teach in the United States, immigrants must have work authorization, must have their credentials evaluated and their degrees recognized, and must navigate state licensing requirements. These processes can be financially burdensome and time consuming.

• However, immigrants face a different set of circumstances which may contribute to their overrepresentation in postsecondary occupations. Of the estimated 1.8 million postsecondary teachers in the United States, approximately 393,100 teachers (22 percent) are foreign-born. This is explained by the large and increasing presence of international doctoral students studying in the U.S. Furthermore, universities are not subject to the same numerical limits on visas as many other employers. These two factors, combined with the disproportionately high number of noncitizen postsecondary teachers who are still in school, are likely responsible for the overrepresentation of foreign-born postsecondary teachers.

• Changes to immigration policies may affect foreign-born teachers’ ability to study and teach in the United States. Barriers to legal immigration including changes to student visas and cultural exchange visas, revisions to the H-1B visa program, bans on admissions on nationals from certain countries, and the termination of DACA and work authorization for spouses of highly-skilled workers threaten immigrant teachers’ ability to enter the United States. This is especially important given that there are teacher shortages across the United States that immigrant teachers might help alleviate.
Introduction

Teachers play a vital, and often underappreciated, role in U.S. communities. They are responsible for educating our youth and young adults, and are instrumental in preparing the next generation of U.S. workers. While immigrants* comprise approximately 13 percent of the U.S. population, they only make up 11 percent of all teachers. Thus, of the estimated 8.1 million teachers in the United States, approximately 857,200 are immigrant teachers. Foreign-born teachers are underrepresented in every teaching category except postsecondary education, where they make up 22 percent of the total.

Just as immigrants make important contributions to the U.S. economy and play key roles in many industries, immigrant teachers play an important role in the U.S. education system. Foreign-born teachers not only educate American youth, but also serve as cultural ambassadors for immigrant students who may not be as familiar with American traditions, customs, and social norms. Foreign-born teachers are more likely to incorporate the traditions, customs, and language of immigrant students in the curriculum and may share similar stories and histories with their students. Thus, immigrant teachers are more likely to have better relationships with families and students. Research shows that immigrant teachers tend to view their immigrant students’ skills and abilities more positively compared to native-born teachers and help native-born teachers to better understand their immigrant students. However, more research on the relationship between immigrant teachers and native-born students is necessary.

Foreign-born teachers fall into many immigration categories; they can be naturalized citizens, Lawful Permanent Residents (LPRs or “green card holders” obtained through family or employment relationships), or temporary nonimmigrants with work authorization (e.g. H-1B specialty workers, H-4 spouses of H-1B workers, J-1 cultural exchange visitors). They may have arrived as students, as refugees or asylees, through the family-based immigration system, as employment-based immigrants, or in other ways. There is no single path for immigrant teachers to follow. Unfortunately, data limitations make it impossible for us to know how many immigrant teachers arrived using each path.

Unfortunately, recent immigration policy changes and proposals could have a harmful impact on both current immigrant teachers and on potential immigrant teachers who have not yet arrived in the United States. This is unfortunate given the fact that there are teacher shortages in some regions of the United States and in some disciplines including bilingual education, foreign languages, mathematics, and science. Foreign-born teachers could help to alleviate these shortages.

This paper provides a portrait of immigrant teachers in the United States. It also examines why immigrants are overrepresented among postsecondary teachers and underrepresented in all other teaching categories. Finally, it discusses how current immigration policies, and expected policy changes, may impact foreign-born teachers and the schools and communities they serve.

*The terms “immigrant” and “foreign born” are used interchangeably throughout this document. Under immigration law, the term Immigrant refers to an individual who has been admitted to the United States on a permanent basis and as a Lawful Permanent Resident, or “green card” holder. However, this report uses “immigrant” colloquially and interchangeably with the term “foreign born.” Foreign born refers to an individual who was not a U.S. citizen at birth or who was born outside the United States, Puerto Rico, or other U.S. territories, and whose parents were not U.S. citizens. The foreign born may include naturalized U.S. citizens, Lawful Permanent Residents, temporary residents, refugees and asylees, and others. Native born includes those who are U.S. citizens at birth, those born in the United States, Puerto Rico, or other U.S. territories, and those born abroad to a parent who was a U.S. citizen.
A Portrait of Foreign-Born Teacher in the United States

Foreign-Born Teachers from Preschool Through College

In 2016, approximately 13 percent of the total U.S. population was foreign born. By contrast, approximately 11 percent of all teachers in the United States are foreign born, and they are distributed unevenly across five teaching categories – preschool and kindergarten, elementary and middle school, secondary school, special education, and postsecondary education. Figure 1 shows that the foreign-born comprise 11 percent of preschool and kindergarten teachers, seven percent of elementary and middle school teachers, seven percent of secondary school teachers, and six percent of special education teachers. Foreign-born teachers are overrepresented in postsecondary teaching positions (22 percent), a category that includes research faculty, lecturers, adjunct professors, term professors, and tenure-line professors, and other teaching occupations in universities and colleges. Unfortunately, data limitations do not allow for breakdowns between these postsecondary teaching occupations.

**Figure 1. Share of Teachers Who are Foreign Born by Teaching Category**

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Nearly Half of Foreign-Born Teachers are Postsecondary Teachers

Of the estimated 857,200 immigrants who identified their occupation as teachers, only two percent are special education teachers, 35 percent are elementary and middle school teachers, and 46 percent are postsecondary teachers (see Figure 2). Compared to native-born teachers, the percentage of foreign-born postsecondary teachers is significantly higher and the percentage of elementary and middle school teachers is much lower.

Figure 2. Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers by Category

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.

More than Half of Foreign-Born Teachers are Naturalized U.S. Citizens

Overall, 56 percent of all foreign-born teachers are naturalized U.S. citizens. The share of naturalized citizens varies by teaching category (Figure 3). Whereas more than 60 percent of foreign-born preschool and kindergarten teachers are naturalized citizens and about 70 percent of foreign-born primary, secondary, and special education teachers are naturalized citizens, less than half of foreign-born postsecondary teachers are naturalized U.S. citizens.

Figure 3. Foreign-Born Teachers by Citizenship Status

Note: “Not U.S. citizen” category may include Lawful Permanent Residents, temporary residents, refugees, asylees, unauthorized immigrants, and others. Also see footnote on page 3.

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Age Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers

Figure 4 shows that foreign-born preschool and kindergarten teachers, elementary and middle school teachers, secondary school teachers and special education teachers are older than their native-born counterparts. Notably, the median age of foreign-born preschool and kindergarten teachers is 42, which is five years older compared native-born teachers in those categories. Nearly 30 percent of foreign-born special education teachers are 54 or older. On the other hand, foreign-born postsecondary teachers tend to be younger than native-born postsecondary teachers. Two in five foreign-born postsecondary teachers are under 35 years old, compared to 20 percent of native-born postsecondary teachers. The median age of foreign-born postsecondary teachers is 39, which is eight years younger than their native-born counterparts.

Figure 4. Age Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
“An overwhelming majority of preschool and kindergarten teachers are female (98 percent).”

“Foreign-born postsecondary teachers are significantly more likely to be male (56 percent) compared to all other teachers (19 percent).”

Gender Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers

The proportion of foreign-born male and female teachers varies considerably across teaching categories (Figure 5). An overwhelming majority of preschool and kindergarten teachers are female (98 percent). Secondary school has the second largest share of male teachers (37 percent), followed by elementary and middle school (20 percent) and special education (15 percent). Foreign-born postsecondary teachers are significantly more likely to be male (56 percent) compared to all other teachers (19 percent).

With the exception of the secondary and postsecondary categories, similar patterns of gender distribution are found between native- and foreign-born teachers. Compared to the native born, foreign-born secondary teachers are more likely to be female, and foreign-born postsecondary teachers are more likely to be male.

Figure 5. Gender Among Foreign-Born Teachers by Teaching Category

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Countries of Origin of Foreign-Born Teachers

Analysis shows that foreign-born teachers come from many different countries of origin. Furthermore, foreign-born postsecondary teachers hail from different countries when compared to all other foreign-born teachers. The first pie chart in Figure 6 shows the top five countries of origin for foreign-born teachers in all non-postsecondary categories. Mexico is the top country of origin. Note that 27 percent of the entire foreign-born population of the United States is from Mexico, so Mexicans are underrepresented in teaching professions. Only eight percent of foreign-born non-postsecondary teachers are from China or India. The second pie chart in Figure 6 shows the top five countries of origin for foreign-born postsecondary teachers. More than one in four postsecondary teachers who are foreign-born came from China or India, although China and India make up only 10 percent of the foreign-born population in the United States.

“More than one in four postsecondary teachers who are foreign-born came from China or India, although China and India make up only 10 percent of the foreign-born population in the United States.”

Geographic Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers

Foreign-born teachers are distributed unevenly across the United States. Figure 7 highlights foreign-born teachers by U.S. Census Bureau division and shows that the Pacific division has the highest share of foreign-born teachers as a percentage of the division’s total teacher population. The Middle Atlantic division ranks second. Foreign-born teachers are underrepresented when compared to the total immigrant populations in all divisions except the East South Central district. In other words, even in the Pacific and Middle Atlantic divisions where the percent of foreign-born teachers is largest, it is still far below the share of immigrants as a percent of total population.

Figure 7. Geographic Distribution of Foreign-Born Teachers by U.S. Census Bureau Division

Percent of all Teachers Who are Foreign Born, by Geographic District

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Figure 8. Metropolitan Areas with the Highest Share of Non-Postsecondary Foreign-Born Teachers

Figure 8 shows the top ten metro areas in terms of share of non-postsecondary foreign-born teachers as a percentage of the total non-postsecondary teacher population. Thirty-eight percent of all foreign-born non-postsecondary teachers are located in these ten metro areas. Notably, all of the top ten metro areas except the New York and Miami metro areas are found along the U.S.-Mexico border.

As would be expected, foreign-born postsecondary teachers are found in places with large universities. The metro areas with the largest shares of foreign-born postsecondary teachers are Morgantown, WV (37 percent), State College, PA (36 percent), and Ithaca, NY (35 percent).

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Years in the United States Among Foreign-Born Teachers

Nationwide, 44 percent of foreign-born teachers arrived in the United States more than 20 years ago, but there is some variation by geographic region. Figure 9 shows that in the Middle Atlantic and Pacific Divisions, 49 percent and 54 percent, respectively, of all foreign-born teachers had been living in the United States for more than 20 years. In the New England Division, 40 percent arrived more than 20 years ago. In contrast, foreign born teachers in the East North Central, West North Central and East South Central Divisions are relatively new immigrants—more than 40 percent of them arrived in the past decade.

Figure 9. Years in the United States Among All Foreign-Born Teachers by U.S. Census Bureau Division

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>0-5 years</th>
<th>6-10 years</th>
<th>11-15 years</th>
<th>16-20 years</th>
<th>21+ years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New England Division</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Atlantic Division</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East North Central Division</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West North Central Division</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Atlantic Division</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East South Central Division</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West South Central Division</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain Division</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Division</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
When looking at categories of teachers, one sees that foreign-born postsecondary teachers tend to have arrived more recently (see Figure 10). Specifically, 31 percent of foreign-born postsecondary teachers arrived in the United States in the past five years compared to 11 percent of all other foreign-born teachers. More than half of non-postsecondary foreign-born teachers arrived in the United States more than 20 years ago, compared to one-third of foreign-born postsecondary teachers.

Figure 10. Years in the United States Among Foreign-Born Teachers

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Foreign-Born Teachers are Highly Educated

Foreign-born teachers in the United States tend to be highly educated. Overall, 57 percent of foreign-born teachers have a master’s, professional, or doctoral degree, compared to 49 percent of native-born teachers. However, rates of educational attainment between native- and foreign-born teachers differ across teaching categories (see Figure 11). Among preschool and kindergarten, elementary and middle school, secondary, and special education teachers, native-born teachers report slightly higher rates of educational attainment compared to foreign-born teachers. Postsecondary teachers report the highest educational attainment overall, with foreign-born postsecondary teachers reporting higher rates of educational attainment than the native born. More than three-in-four immigrant postsecondary teachers (76 percent) report having a master’s, professional or doctoral degree compared to 68 percent of native-born postsecondary teachers.

**Figure 11. Educational Attainment Among Teachers by Teaching Category**

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
A Large Share of Noncitizen Postsecondary Teachers are Still Students

Among postsecondary teachers, 24 percent of native-born teachers, 14 percent of naturalized U.S. citizens, and 46 percent of noncitizens reported they are currently in school (See Figure 12). In other words, nearly half of noncitizen postsecondary teachers are likely pursuing graduate and doctoral degrees while simultaneously teaching at their universities.
The relatively large share of those combining teaching and attending school also explains why a large share of postsecondary teachers work part time. Approximately one-fourth of all native-born and foreign-born postsecondary teachers reported working part time (less than 35 hours per week). However, when the foreign-born population is broken down by citizenship status, a larger share of noncitizens are working part time (Figure 13). Non-U.S. citizens (39%) are more likely to be employed part-time compared to naturalized citizens (27%) and native-born U.S. citizens (24%). A full 75 percent of part-time noncitizen postsecondary teachers are still in school compared to 27 percent of U.S. citizen part-time postsecondary teachers.

Since many of these part-time faculty positions are non-tenure track, such as adjunct, research faculty, and post-doctoral research and education positions, these individuals are likely to be poorly compensated and have ambiguous future career paths, regardless of educational credentials and talents. The issue of non-tenure track faculty is a universal problem in institutions of higher education. However, the immigration rules prohibiting international students from obtaining full-time or off-campus jobs is likely at least partially responsible for the large share of international students in part-time postsecondary teachers.

Figure 13. Employment Status Among Postsecondary Teachers by Citizenship Status

Individuals in the Labor Force and Employed, Age 16+

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Overall, the estimated personal median incomes of full-time teachers varies by teaching category (Figure 14). Full-time is defined as employed 200 days or more out of the year and working 35 hours or more a week. Postsecondary educators reported the highest personal median incomes ($66,617) followed by secondary ($52,718) and elementary and middle school teachers ($50,632). Preschool and kindergarten teachers reported the lowest median income of $25,345. These patterns remain consistent across all U.S. geographic regions.

Teachers’ personal median incomes also vary by nativity (Figure 14). When looking at all teachers, and not accounting for differences in education, geography, or other factors, foreign-born teachers employed full-time reported slightly higher personal median incomes than their native-born colleagues. Special education teachers are an exception; while foreign-born special education teachers report personal median incomes that are slightly greater than their native-born counterparts, this difference was not found to be statistically significant. The biggest discrepancy between personal median incomes of native- and foreign-born is in the secondary teacher category. Foreign-born secondary teachers report a personal median income of $55,641 while native-born teachers in the same category reported personal median incomes of $52,657.

Immigrant teachers in the Northeast or Western regions report annual personal incomes that are higher than immigrant educators employed in the Midwestern and southern regions.

*Differences are statistically significant at the 0.05 level
Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Figure 15. Personal Median Income of Full-Time Educators by Citizenship and Teaching Category
Foreign-Born Individuals in the Labor Force and Employed Full-Time, Age 16+

*Differences are statistically significant at the 0.05 level
Note: “Not U.S. citizen” category may include Lawful Permanent Residents, temporary residents, refugees, asylees, unauthorized immigrants, and others. Also see footnote on page 3.
Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Further analysis finds that when controlling for gender, race, age, location, education, and number of hours worked weekly, foreign-born preschool and kindergarten, elementary and middle school, secondary, and special education teachers actually earn approximately $1,300 less compared to similarly-situated native-born teachers. This means that when native- and foreign-born primary and secondary teachers have the same characteristics, the foreign-born teachers earn less, on average (See Appendix A for more detail).

Similar findings did not extend to postsecondary teachers. Previously we noted that foreign-born postsecondary teachers employed full-time report personal median incomes that are slightly higher compared to native-born postsecondary teachers. These findings continue to hold once we control for general demographics, education, and number of hours worked. Immigrant postsecondary teachers report personal median incomes that are approximately one percent greater than their similarly-situated native-born counterparts (See Appendix A). Pay discrepancy among postsecondary teachers can be a function of several variables, including type of institutions for which they are employed (e.g., University, two-year community college, public, private), faculty rank, or discipline, none of which are characteristics captured in our available dataset.

Naturalized Citizens and Teachers Who Are Proficient in English Have Higher Incomes

Overall, with the exception of special education teachers, foreign-born teachers who are naturalized citizens earn a premium of 11 to 55 percent more than teachers who are not U.S. citizens (Figure 15). The most notable discrepancy between personal median incomes is seen between naturalized postsecondary teachers and non-U.S. citizen postsecondary teachers. Naturalized postsecondary teachers report personal median incomes that are on average 55 percent greater than postsecondary teachers who are not U.S. citizens. Naturalized citizens tend to be older, and generally have higher educational attainment, more work experience, and higher English proficiency than noncitizens, and citizenship itself has proven to lead to economic advantage. Foreign-born special education teachers who are naturalized citizens are the only exception in that they report earning very similar personal median incomes compared to their non-U.S. citizen counterparts.
A similar premium is seen in the case of foreign-born educators who are proficient in English (speak only English or speak English very well). Figure 16 shows that across each teaching category, foreign-born educators who are proficient in English report higher personal median incomes compared to foreign-born educators who are not proficient in English. The most notable discrepancy between median personal incomes is seen between postsecondary teachers who are proficient in English and postsecondary teachers who are not proficient in English. Postsecondary teachers who are proficient in English earn on average 57 percent more compared to postsecondary teachers who are not proficient in English. The smallest difference between personal median incomes exists between foreign-born teachers in secondary school, where teachers who are proficient in English report personal median incomes that are eight percent higher than their non-proficient counterparts. Existing literature suggests that immigrants who are proficient in English earn more than those who are not proficient in English, because they have spent more time in the host country, possess the necessary language required to negotiate pay, take on more tasks, and advance in their careers. This cultural competency may also help them overcome the obstacles that some foreign-born teachers face when trying to find work in the United States.

Figure 16. Personal Median Income of Full-Time Educators by English Proficiency and Teaching Category
Foreign-Born Individuals in the Labor Force and Employed Full-Time, Age 16+

* Differences are statistically significant at the 0.05 level
Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Obstacles Facing Immigrant Teachers

Immigrants are underrepresented in all teaching categories other than postsecondary. One reason is that immigrants who wish to be teachers in these other categories face at least three key obstacles related to: 1) immigration status, 2) education, and 3) licensing and certification. Of course, it is important to note that foreign-born teachers do not all follow the same path and do not all face the same obstacles to teaching in the United States. Some arrived as children and grew up in the United States. Others arrived recently and studied at U.S. universities, while others were educated abroad and came for a teaching job.

1. **Immigration status and work authorization.** Immigrants who wish to teach at any level must be authorized to work lawfully in the United States. This means that some qualified immigrants may not have the work authorization needed to secure a teaching job. This might include unauthorized immigrants, but also legal immigrants in the United States on visa categories that do not provide work authorization.

2. **Education.** In order to teach in the United States, individuals must meet educational requirements. Preschool teachers must generally have at least an associate degree or its foreign equivalent. A bachelor’s degree in education or the relevant field is generally required for kindergarten, elementary, middle school, high school, and special education teachers. Some other teaching careers, such as career and technical education teachers and adult literacy teachers also require a bachelor’s degree. School principals, college administrators, and postsecondary teachers generally require a master’s degree or PhD. Foreign-born individuals who attended school in the United States generally do not face difficulties with degree recognition, but immigrants who received their degrees outside of the United States and wish to pursue a teaching occupation must first obtain a credential evaluation and have their degree recognized by U.S. institutions. This process can be expensive and difficult to navigate. Therefore, some immigrants who were teachers in their home countries may not be able to teach in the United States unless they receive further education in the United States, which can be expensive and time consuming.

3. **Licensing and certification.** All persons who wish to teach in K-12 public schools must obtain a license or teacher certification from the state in which they wish to teach (private schools generally do not require U.S. licenses). Teaching licenses issued in foreign countries are typically not accepted in the United States. Licensing is governed by each individual state, and many states do not recognize out-of-state licenses, meaning teachers who relocate need to go through the licensing process again. Navigating state licensing requirements and exams can be very difficult for anyone, but immigrants who may be new to the United States and who may not be native English speakers can have a great deal of difficulty obtaining a license. Licensing or certification requirements vary by state, but generally involve completing a teacher preparation program (in the United States or abroad, depending on the state), completing a required number of university-level credit hours in education and a specific subject area, and passing a U.S.-based certification exam. Generally, internationally trained teachers must pass an English proficiency exam as well. Some states also require teachers to complete student teaching under the supervision of another teacher. In addition to the difficulties of navigating the system, these tests and processes can be financially burdensome and time consuming.
Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA)

DACA granted work authorization and temporary relief from deportation to certain eligible noncitizens who were brought to the United States without authorization when they were children. There are approximately 8,800 DACA beneficiaries working in education, training and library occupations. Teach for America, a program that sends teachers to work in low-income communities, supports DACA and encourages DACA recipients to apply. Since 2013, Teach for America has had 190 “DACAMENTED” teachers in its membership serving in 18 Teach for America regions across the country.

As a result of these challenges, some immigrants who are qualified teachers abroad may end up underemployed in the United States because they do not have work authorization, their education is not recognized by U.S. institutions, or they are unable to complete the licensing and certification process. Some of these highly-educated immigrants are employed as teacher assistants or in other teaching-related occupations. Figure 17 shows that immigrants in these teaching categories are slightly more likely to hold at least a bachelor’s, master’s, or doctoral degree compared to the native born. This provides some evidence of “brain waste,” meaning that some highly-educated immigrants who are not able to become teachers are working in lower level teaching-related occupations.

Figure 17. Education Levels Among Teacher Assistants and Uncategorized Teachers and Instructors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Foreign-Born</th>
<th>Native-Born</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No High School Diploma</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Diploma</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College or Associate's Degree</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's, Professional or Graduate Degree</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.
Teacher Shortages and Foreign Teacher Recruitment

According to federal government data, there are teacher shortages across the United States, and these shortages vary by field, subject, and by state. For example, in 2016-2017, Idaho reported shortages in 38 fields/subjects; Alabama reported shortages in 14 field/subjects; and Colorado reported shortages in only six field/subjects.\(^\text{17}\) Shortages vary within states as well, with schools in poor and rural districts being the hardest hit.\(^\text{18}\) Bilingual education, English language acquisition, foreign languages, mathematics, reading specialists, science, and special education teachers appear to be high demand everywhere.\(^\text{19}\) These are disciplines in which qualified foreign-born teachers are likely to be found.\(^\text{20}\) However, the obstacles faced by immigrant teachers inhibit their ability to fill these shortages.

Low teacher retention rates appear to explain most of the shortages.\(^\text{21}\) The reasons cited for high turnover rates typically include low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, poor student motivation, and lack of teacher influence over decision-making.

Furthermore, there is evidence that fewer college students are pursuing teaching careers, and enrollment in teacher preparation programs decreased between 2008 and 2014.\(^\text{22}\)

To address these shortages, some school districts have recruited foreign teachers to fill these open positions either instead of, or in addition to, addressing obstacles faced by immigrant teachers or increasing wages and making these jobs more attractive to U.S. teachers.

Hiring Foreign-Born Teachers

The Pendergast Elementary School district in the Phoenix, Arizona metro area has hired more than 50 teachers from the Philippines since 2015.\(^\text{a}\) They are on J-1 cultural exchange visas, which allow them to work temporarily in the United States. According to news reports, while teacher pay in Pendergast school district was $10,000 below the national average of $59,000 per year, Filipino teachers were drawn to these jobs because the wages are well above what they would make in the Philippines. In fact, U.S. Census data show that foreign-born Filipino teachers living in the Phoenix metro area report personal average incomes that are, on average, $10,000 less than that of native-born teachers and all other foreign-born teachers.\(^\text{b}\) However, in order to obtain the J-1 visa, foreign teachers are paying thousands of dollars to recruitment companies and sponsors as well as airfare and living expenses.\(^\text{c}\) These Filipino teachers typically speak English and have the required college degrees and experience. But since J-1 visas are temporary and cannot be adjusted to permanent residency in most cases, school districts that hire these foreign teachers must continuously find new teachers to replace them, adding to the poor teacher retention numbers, and lack of continuity in staff.\(^\text{d}\)


\(^\text{b}\) IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012-2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.

\(^\text{c}\) Goldstein 2018.

\(^\text{d}\) The length of duration of a J-1 visa is dependent on the specific program, though the maximum is usually seven years. Teachers, scholars, researchers, and professors can generally remain up to five years. See Public Law 87-256, as amended, 22 U.S.C. 2451, et seq. (1988), also known as the Fulbright-Hays Act.
Why Are Immigrants Overrepresented in Postsecondary Teaching Occupations?

While immigrants account for 13 percent of the U.S. population, foreign-born individuals account for 22 percent of postsecondary teachers. One reason may be that postsecondary teachers do not face all of the same licensing obstacles that other teachers do. But beyond that, there are other explanations for the overrepresentation of immigrants in postsecondary teaching occupations.

**Increasing Number of International Doctoral Students.** Postsecondary teachers tend to have postsecondary degrees. Therefore, high educational attainment and the increasing presence of international doctoral students studying at U.S. universities is one clear explanation for why immigrants are overrepresented in postsecondary teaching occupations.

According to the Survey of Earned Doctorates (SED) conducted by the National Science Foundation (NSF) over the past two decades, there has been an increase in the share of foreign-born doctoral recipients completing a doctoral degree as temporary nonimmigrants. As indicated in Figure 18, the share of foreign-born students on temporary visas who obtained their doctorate has increased from 17 percent in 1986 to 30 percent in 2016. Of course, not all foreign-born doctoral students are on temporary visas, but due to data limitations, we are unable to provide data on other foreign-born doctoral students.

**Figure 18. Share of PhDs Obtained by U.S. Citizens, Permanent Residents, and Temporary Visa Holders**

Note: Total percentages do not add up to 100% because the citizenship status of the doctoral recipient was unknown in some cases, and were therefore omitted from the graph.

Source: Survey of Earned Doctorates (SED), select years 1986 - 2016
As discussed above, many foreign-born doctoral students are not only becoming postsecondary teachers when they graduate, but many are teaching while they are still in school. Noncitizens make up a disproportionately large share of them. In fact, 23 percent of postsecondary teachers who are in school are not U.S. citizens compared to 10 percent of postsecondary teachers who are not in school (Figure 19). Overall, one-third (33 percent) of all immigrant postsecondary teachers are in school, and of those, 82 percent are noncitizens. This overrepresentation of noncitizens who are postsecondary teachers and still in school helps to better understand the overall overrepresentation of foreign-born postsecondary teachers.

The U.S. immigration system. The immigration system provides another explanation as to why the foreign born are overrepresented in postsecondary teaching. International students on temporary student visas (F-1) are typically allowed to work only on campus. Thus, many of them work as part-time teachers and researchers. Those who wish to remain in the U.S. after graduation may face obstacles, even if they find a job with an employer who is willing to sponsor them. Generally, international students are not able to get an employer-sponsored green card immediately after graduation and must take a longer path to permanent residency.

One common pathway begins with the Optional Practical Training program (OPT), which provides an opportunity for recent graduates to gain practical work experience related to their major area of study. This allows time for the employer to evaluate a potential employee before making a greater commitment and sponsor the student for an H-1B visa. The H-1B nonimmigrant (temporary) visa allows qualified employers to hire qualified foreign workers to work in specialty occupations, which are defined as requiring highly-specialized knowledge and the attainment of a bachelor’s degree or higher (or its equivalent) in the field of specialty. Because there is no cap on H-1B visas issued to universities, nonprofit research organizations, or government research organizations, universities have an advantage over other employers when it comes to hiring foreign-born graduates. While not all foreign-born postsecondary teachers arrived in the United States on a student visa, the increasing numbers of nonimmigrant doctoral students combined with this pathway is likely responsible for the overrepresentation of foreign-born postsecondary teachers.
Impact of New Immigration Policies on Immigrant Teachers

Donald Trump made immigration a cornerstone of his presidential campaign, and since his inauguration, he and his administration have made sweeping changes to the U.S. immigration system. These shifts in rhetoric and implementation have a broad impact on large proportions of the foreign-born population in the United States as well as on potential future immigrants. Refugees, asylum seekers, highly-skilled workers, unauthorized immigrants, and family members of U.S. citizens and legal immigrants have all been targeted. In fact, recent reports find that even naturalized U.S. citizens are at newfound risk for denaturalization.

The following outlines the federal immigrant policy changes that are most likely to affect immigrant teachers:

- **Barriers to legal immigration:** The Trump administration has put in motion significant changes to the legal immigration system that have resulted in slowed and reduced admissions. Applicants must comply with new “enhanced vetting” procedures including attending additional interviews, submitting additional information including information about 15 years’ worth of addresses, travel dates and destinations, employment histories, and social media history. These policies have also made it more burdensome for U.S. employers to petition for foreign workers. Furthermore, new policy guidance issued in July 2018 enhances the power of U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) to engage in immigration enforcement. This policy mandates USCIS to begin deportation proceedings for individuals when an application or petition for an immigration benefit is denied. Furthermore, a rule proposed in 2018 would change the definition of “public charge” and make it more difficult for individuals to become permanent residents if they use public benefits or fail to meet income requirements. Experts suggest that these changes could discourage people—including foreign-born teachers and educators—from immigrating to the United States, even when they have education and skills that are needed here.

- **Changes to student visas:** As of August 9, 2018, students have begun to accumulate unlawful presence immediately after their student visas expire, if they fail to maintain lawful status, even if an employer has petitioned for them. This means that if an employer’s petition for an H-1B visa is denied, USCIS can begin deportation proceedings and the graduating student may be deemed inadmissible and subject to a three- or ten-year bar. If the student was ever out of status, even unknowingly or inadvertently, an employer’s H-1B petition for the student can make them vulnerable to deportation. NAFSA found that during the 2016-2017 academic year, there were 1,078,822 international students studying at U.S. colleges and universities who contributed $36.9 billion and supported more than 450,000 jobs to the U.S. economy.

- **Ban on nationals of seven countries:** In June 2018, the U.S. Supreme Court held that President Trump’s most recent iteration of a travel ban executive order did not violate the law or the Constitution and could be fully implemented. The executive order places restrictions on nationals...
from seven countries — Iran, Libya, North Korea, Somalia, Syria, Venezuela, and Yemen. Individuals from these countries who wish to enter the United States on either an immigrant (permanent admission) or nonimmigrant (temporary) basis are subject to restrictions. There are approximately 28,800 immigrants from these seven countries who are teachers in the United States; more than half of them (52.1%) are postsecondary teachers. The travel ban will likely have a severe impact on nationals from these countries who wish to study and work in the United States, including those who may have eventually become teachers and university professors. Potential students and teachers from these countries will not be able to come to the United States, and those already in the country may not be able to travel outside the United States because they will not be readmitted.

- **Reducing cultural exchange visa programs:** President Trump has signaled that he would like to restrict J-1 cultural exchange programs, particularly those that allow the beneficiaries to work in the United States. It is unclear whether this includes the J-1 program for foreign educators who teach full-time at primary or secondary schools or the J-1 program for professors who teach, lecture, observe or consult at postsecondary academic institutions, museums, or libraries. There is currently no statutory cap on the number of J-1 visas available annually. According to the U.S. Department of State, in 2017 there were 2,876 participants in the J-1 teacher program and 36,363 participants in the J-1 professor and research scholar program.

- **Revising the H-1B visa program:** The “Buy American Hire American” Executive Order signed April 18, 2017 orders the executive branch to suggest reforms to the H-1B visa program that would award H-1Bs to the employers who offer the highest wages and the workers who have the highest skill level. While these changes have not been made yet, this signals that school districts may have trouble securing H-1B visas for foreign teachers. It is not clear whether universities would be affected since they are not subject to the same numerical caps as other employers.

- **Optional Practical Training (OPT):** OPT allows certain foreign students at U.S. universities to work after graduation. It provides temporary employment that is related to an F-1 student’s major area of study. Eligible students can receive up to 12 months of OPT employment authorization before or after completing their academic studies. Foreign students with degrees in certain STEM fields may apply for a 24-month extension of OPT under certain circumstances. In early 2018, USCIS reinterpreted the employer-employee relationship. A student on OPT may not work for a third-party employer, and all training must take place on-site at the employer’s worksite, and no third-party trainers or supervisors may be used to fulfill the training obligation. Trump’s April 2017 “Buy American, Hire American” executive order seeks to “protect American workers from foreign workers,” and early drafts of the executive order included cuts to the OPT program. These policies may negatively impact foreign students’ ability to work in the United States after graduation. In fact, recent data show that growth in the number of foreign students receiving OPT has slowed.
• **Termination of DACA:** In September 2017, President Trump announced he would terminate the DACA initiative. Since the announcement, the decision has been challenged and several court decisions have delayed the final termination of the program leaving the future of new applications and renewals unclear. If the initiative is terminated, current DACA beneficiaries will not be allowed to renew their work authorization and will face deportation. As a result, the nearly 9,000 teachers who are DACA beneficiaries will no longer be allowed to teach in the United States unless Congress passes legislation that would provide a new pathway to legal status for them. This means that thousands of qualified teachers and the school districts that employ them are currently in limbo. The American Federation of Teachers, Teach for America, and other organizations continue to advocate on behalf of DACA teachers and have urged that “teachers who were brought here as children must be able to continue to strengthen our schools and our nation.”  

• **Termination of work authorization for spouses of highly-skilled workers:** The spouses of specialty workers on H-1B visas receive H-4 visas. H-4 visa holders are currently able to work due to a February 2015 rule that allows certain H-4 visa holder to apply for work authorization if their H-1B visa holder spouse was in the process of obtaining a green card. This rule acknowledged that H-1B visa holders and their families must often wait for years for a green card to become available, and recognized that H-1B families may have difficulty living on one salary. More than 100,000 spouses—who are often highly-skilled professionals themselves—have been granted work authorization. In late 2017, the Trump administration announced it would terminate work authorization for H-4s, in order to “protect American workers” from job competition. However, it has not been terminated yet. An unknown number of H-4 visa holders are working as teachers, and losing their work authorization would mean losing their teaching jobs.

**Conclusion**

Immigrant teachers play an important role in U.S. schools. Eleven percent of all teachers in the United States are immigrants. Foreign-born teachers tend to be underrepresented in all teaching categories except postsecondary education. Despite nationwide teacher shortages, immigrant teachers in these teaching categories face obstacles to obtaining professional licenses and teaching positions. These foreign-born non-postsecondary teachers are likely to be naturalized citizens, to have been in the United States more than 16 years, and to be slightly older than their native-born counterparts. On the other hand, immigrants comprise 22 percent of all postsecondary teachers. Foreign-born postsecondary teachers stand out from all other immigrant teachers in that they are younger, come from different countries of origin, arrived in the United States more recently, are more likely to be male, are less likely to be U.S. citizens, and are more likely to be students who are teaching part-time.

Unfortunately, changes to U.S. immigration policies by the current administration increasingly threaten the ability of many immigrant teachers to work and thrive in the United States. This, in turn, has a negative impact on U.S. school districts and universities that depend on these qualified, experienced immigrant teachers to educate and prepare the next generation of American workers.
APPENDIX A: Methodology

Data in this report is analyzed using data from the Integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file and data from the U.S. Census Bureau’s 2012 to 2016 American Community Survey five-year estimates, the most recent five-year data available at the time of analysis. Five years of data are aggregated to increase the sample size and the accuracy of the estimates. Unless otherwise noted, data was limited to individuals who indicated their primary occupation was either a preschool or kindergarten teacher, elementary or middle school teacher, secondary school teacher, special education teacher, or postsecondary teacher.

Additional steps were taken in analyzing the data for personal income, which is defined as the total pre-tax personal income or losses from all sources for the previous year. Prior to analyzing data on personal incomes, we further limited the dataset to teachers who were in the labor force and employed full-time. Full-time employment is defined as working 35 hours or more per week for 40 weeks or more out of the year. We excluded all other respondents from our analysis because the reported personal median incomes varied drastically between full-time and part-time educators and were therefore not comparable. Additionally, outliers that fell outside the 99th percentile for full-time educators, or outside the top one percent of pre-tax annual income, were removed from the final analysis. This was done separately for non-postsecondary and again for postsecondary teaching categories.

A Note on Statistical Significance

When we refer to statistically significant relationships or statistical significance tests, we refer to the probability that the observed relationship is likely to occur in the larger population. Statistical significance is determined by a numerical indicator called a p-value. In social science research, a p-value of less than 0.05 is considered statistically significant. A p-value of less than 0.05 indicates that there is less than a five percent chance that the observed relationship in the sample is due to chance rather than a similar relationship in the entire population. Similarly, a p-value of less than 0.01 means that there is a less than one percent chance that the observed relationship in the sample is due to chance.
APPENDIX B: Regression Analysis

We conducted further analysis to understand the factors that may have affected observed income differences between native- and foreign-born teachers who are employed full-time.

We utilized Ordinary Least Squares Regression (OLS) based on two groups of full-time employed teachers: non-postsecondary, and postsecondary. The analyses are based on the weighted sample, thus adjusting for differences in the probability of selection and nonresponse differences across groups. Results are reported at the 0.05 level of statistical significance. The models only include individuals for whom data was available, and omitted individuals with missing data or with incomes higher than the 99th percentile. As a result, 39 percent of the eligible sample was omitted from the regression analysis.

The independent variables included in these analysis include nativity (foreign-born compared with native-born), gender (males compared with females), race (non-white versus white), marital status (married compared with unmarried), age (ages 16 - 24, 25 - 34, 45 - 54, 55 - 64, and 65+ compared with 35 - 44), geography, or location, (the northeast, west, and midwest, compared with the south), education (less than bachelor’s and master’s, professional, or doctoral degree compared to those with a bachelor’s), and number of hours worked (works over 40 hours a week compared to those who work 40 hours or less). The manner in which we controlled for education for postsecondary teachers varied slightly. Due to the small sample of postsecondary teachers with less than a Bachelor’s, we omitted individuals with less than a Bachelor’s from our analysis and instead used those with a master’s degree as the reference group (Bachelor’s and doctoral degree compared to those with a master’s, professional, or graduate degree). Existing research indicates that productivity may account for discrepancies in pay. Productivity among postsecondary educators is usually operationalized by collecting data on number of publications, books, and conferences attended. To account for such non-teaching activities, we control for working more than 40 hours a week. The dependent variable, or outcome, used in this analysis is personal income.

The total number of respondents varies by model. The first model includes a weighted analysis of 4,008,443 non-postsecondary teachers while the second model includes an analysis of 895,709 postsecondary teachers, based on a sample of 6,300,490 non-postsecondary and 1,801,885 postsecondary teachers.
Table 1 shows results from the OLS model of the impact of nativity on non-postsecondary teachers. The results indicate that foreign-born teachers report personal incomes that are lower compared to their native-born counterparts. The first step showed nativity held a significant and negative relationship with personal income at the $p<.01$ level. What this means is foreign-born teachers report lower personal incomes an average $881 compared to native-born teachers. Controls representing general demographics (i.e., gender, race, age, and geography) were included in model 2, which drastically impacted the effect nativity had on average personal incomes. The data indicate that foreign-born teachers are penalized an additional $1,907 annually after taking into account a combination of demographic factors. However, once we controlled for education and whether or not individuals worked more than 40 hours a week (Model 3) pay discrepancy between native- and foreign-born teachers was reduced. Although foreign-born teachers continue to report personal incomes that are significantly lower than their native-born colleagues, once we take into account level of education and the number of hours a week worked, foreign-born teachers’ personal average incomes are improved by 54 percent, or roughly $1,300 annually. The amount of variance explained by the final model is 0.37.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Nativity (Foreign Born = 1)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(42.99)</td>
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<td>Gender (Male = 1)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(22.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race (Non-white = 1)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(26.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status (Married = 1)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(20.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 24</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 34</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 44</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 - 54</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 - 64</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
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<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Less than BA</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Bachelors</td>
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<tr>
<td>MA+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works over 40 hr/week</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>51,422.11**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>4,008,443</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.001
Table 2 shows results from the OLS model for the impact of nativity on full-time postsecondary teachers’ reported annual personal incomes. Due to the small sample size, postsecondary teachers with less than a bachelor’s degree were omitted from analysis. The results indicate that foreign-born postsecondary teachers report personal incomes that are slightly higher compared to the reported personal incomes of native-born postsecondary teachers. Model 1 showed nativity held a significant and positive relationship with personal incomes at the $p<.01$ level. Foreign-born postsecondary teachers earn on average $630 more annually compared to native-born postsecondary teachers. Once we controlled for general demographics (i.e., gender, race, age, and geography) in Model 2, the effect of nativity on personal incomes greatly increased. Data from Model 2 indicates that immigrant postsecondary teachers are awarded $4,100 annually for a combination of demographic factors. However, once we controlled for education and whether or not postsecondary teachers worked more than 40 hours a week (Model 3) pay discrepancies between native- and foreign-born postsecondary teachers were reduced, and foreign-born postsecondary teachers reported personal incomes that were on average $500 more annually. The amount of variance explained by the final model for postsecondary teachers was 0.30.

Table 2. Impact of Nativity on Personal Income of Postsecondary Teachers Before (Model 1) and After Controls (Models 2 and 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Models</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<td>(136.38)</td>
<td>(133.98)</td>
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<td>11,974.90**</td>
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<td>(101.75)</td>
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<td>(111.35)</td>
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<td>(328.71)</td>
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<td>(150.55)</td>
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<td>35 - 44</td>
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<td>45 - 54</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>14,827.83**</td>
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<td>(148.39)</td>
<td>(143.62)</td>
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<td>26,166.56**</td>
<td>25,667.73**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(149.96)</td>
<td>(145.14)</td>
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<td>65+</td>
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<td>51,714.78**</td>
<td>50,585.05**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(197.05)</td>
<td>(190.89)</td>
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<td>Geography</td>
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<tr>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10,533.79**</td>
<td>9,085.41**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(137.40)</td>
<td>(133.07)</td>
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<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,162.88**</td>
<td>4,152.93**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(139.44)</td>
<td>(134.96)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>75.13NS</td>
<td>-1,046.85**</td>
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<td>(134.72)</td>
<td>(130.49)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(152.16)</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>18,869.67**</td>
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<td>(111.65)</td>
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<td>Works over 40 hr/week</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>11,952.83**</td>
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<td>79,597.29**</td>
<td>54,855.90**</td>
<td>43,281.96**</td>
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<td>(65.73)</td>
<td>(156.54)</td>
<td>(166.69)</td>
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<td>N</td>
<td>895,709</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**p<.001 NS=Not significant
Endnotes

1 Authors are listed alphabetically.


13 Ibid.

14 Ibid.


16 Ibid.


19 Ibid.

20 Cross 2016.


22 Ibid.

23 Cross 2016.


28 Ibid.


30 Ibid.


32 Ibid.


35 IIR Analysis of the American Community Survey (ACS) 2012 - 2016 5-year sample from the integrated Public Use Microdata Sample (IPUMS-USA) file.


For example, see Purkayastha, Bandana. 2005 “Skilled Migration and Cumulative Disadvantage: the Case of Highly Qualified Asian Indian immigrant Women in the US.” Geoforum 36(2) 181-96.


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The Institute for Immigration Research thanks Katharine Rupp, Mayra Parada, Sean Doody, and James C. Witte, PhD for providing valuable feedback and suggestions and for providing editing, fact checking, and production assistance on the report.

About the Institute for Immigration Research

The Institute for Immigration Research (IIR) is a multidisciplinary research institute at George Mason University. The IIR is dedicated to informing and refocusing the immigration conversation among academics, policymakers, and the public by producing and disseminating valid, reliable, and objective multidisciplinary academic research related to immigrants and immigration to the United States. Our faculty affiliates, graduate students, and partners are at the forefront of research examining the economic contributions of all immigrant in the United States, with an emphasis on immigrant entrepreneurs with high levels of education and skills. The IIR produces high quality, timely research and analysis intended to promote informed action.

The IIR was founded in 2012 through the generous donation of Ms. Diane Portnoy, educator and philanthropist, and is a joint venture with The Immigrant Learning Center, Inc. (ILC) of Malden, Massachusetts.

The IIR is located on the campus of George Mason University in Fairfax, Virginia, outside the nation’s capital, Washington, DC. Its strategic location allows the IIR to draw on unparalleled academic, government, and private resources to advance its mission in research, education, and professional opportunities for current and future scholars of immigration studies. Through conferences, workshops, lectures, and other events, the IIR is able to engage in community outreach with one of the most diverse populations in the United States.
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