

Georgetown University



Improving Washington, DC: Working to Achieve the Impossible?

The Likelihood of Ending Poverty in DC

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SFS 2006
Senior Thesis

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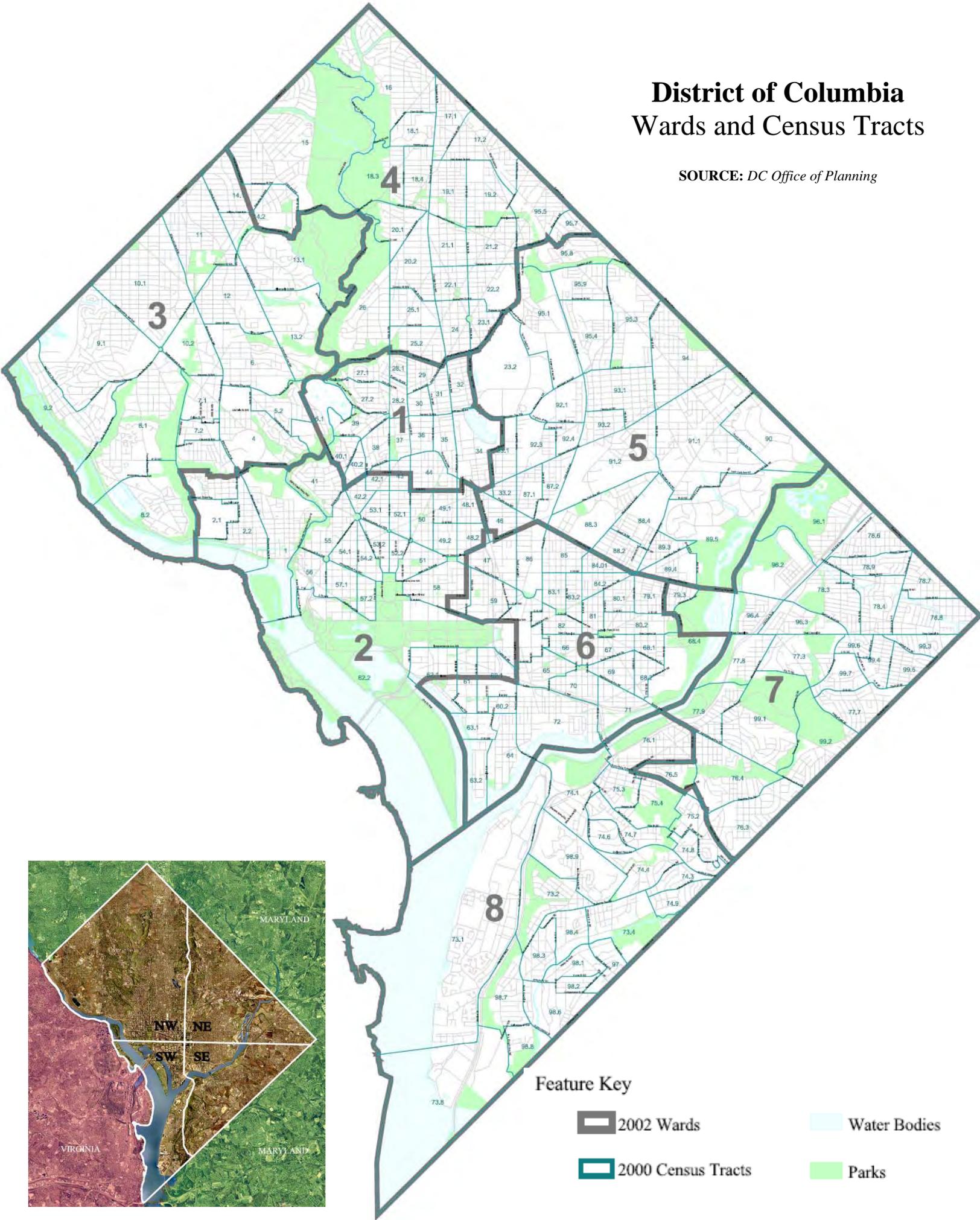
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District of Columbia Wards and Census Tracts

SOURCE: DC Office of Planning



INTRODUCTION

Judging by the incredible number of programs and policies implemented in the United States aiming to decrease poverty, and the fact that after 40 years, poverty still exists in the United States, one can assume that the “best,” i.e. most successful way to fight poverty has not been discovered. The reasons that poverty still exists are many; among others, a coordinated effort led by the U.S. government is non-existent, programs and policies are not updated to reflect changes in the condition of poverty, and definitions of poverty focus on measurement rather than causes. According to Peter Kettner, Robert Moroney and Lawrence Martin, authors of Designing and Managing Programs, one of the biggest mistakes of program planning and implementation is the “assumption that the problems are fully understood and the solutions are known.”¹ Moreover, the causes of the problem of poverty vary with time and place to the extent that programs and policies must be refreshed and updated. The U.S. has not updated its definition of poverty since the 1980’s. If that’s any indication, one can only guess how long it has been since local programs and policies were truly revamped. According to Kettner, Moroney and Martin, when policies and programs are not updated the problems become the solutions², meaning that policies and programs are guided by the problems, rather than the causes of the problems and the needs those causes define. Further, the easiest response when programs and policies are not working becomes the need for *more*: more money, more resources, more people, when really the answer is closer to the need for more understanding of the problem one is trying to combat.

In the end, the answer to the question of how poverty should be combated is that the solution cannot be dictated, it must be specialized for different locations and people.

¹ Kettner, 33.

² Kettner, 32.

However, the solution can be guided, and current programs and policies are not receiving that from U.S. agencies. While this research does not aim to effect change in the national agencies' view on poverty, it must be understood that any local efforts established in Washington, DC, or any place, must work within the framework provided by the national government. With this in mind, what this research does intend to do is look at the current poverty alleviation efforts in DC, assessing if the efforts, as they are now, will be successful in their endeavor.

Poverty is only one of the many problems that affect the DC community, so why focus on it rather than another issue? Poverty is an interesting issue to choose in the fact that despite its nominal focus in national and local politics, little is done at the national level to guide the fight, leaving much up to local governments and policy makers to create a solution to a highly intricate problem. Poverty, as a problem with a variety of causes that affect a broad portion of the U.S. population, is an easy and appropriate problem to mention, but a difficult one to actually impact positively, so concerted action is avoided. Further, with revamped global efforts to combat international poverty that were ushered in with the new millennium through initiatives like the Millennium Development Goals and the ONE campaign, it is intriguing to look at the state of this problem in the capital of the most powerful country in the world.

This analysis will be completed by adapting the program planning process laid out by Kettner, Moroney and Martin in their book, Designing and Managing Programs. The process will help the researcher create a model solution to the problem of poverty in Washington, DC. Then, by comparison, this research will find how far off or close Washington, DC programs and policies are to the model solution. In an ideal solution

against poverty, the five main areas on which to focus are: education, health, community development, crime and recognition. If the programs and policies in Washington, DC do not focus on these areas in a coordinated effort, then the fight against poverty in Washington, DC will not be successful. Other requirements for a successful solution will be outlined more specifically in Part II, when the model solution is created.

Methodology

Part I: Condition and Needs of Poverty

The first step, according to Kettner, Moroney and Martin, in the proper planning process that must take place before policies and programs are created is analysis of the problem: what it is, what causes it and who does it affect. This part of the process is not trying to create a succinct definition of poverty, but, instead, to understand as much as possible what is poverty. The causes must be understood before the needs and solution. Recognizing the influential power of the U.S. provided definitions on program planning, and the fact that all available poverty statistics are created based on these definitions, this first section must address the short-comings of the U.S. definitions.

Once this is completed, the research will continue to describe the condition of poverty in the U.S., of which income level (the focus of the U.S. definitions) is only one part. It is important during this part to focus on understanding poverty without thinking of solutions in order to avoid the issue of defining problems as solutions. Because rural poverty is very different from the poverty in Southeast, DC, the idea of urban poverty will be the guiding principle behind the description of poverty so that the analysis will be appropriate for comparison to the poverty experienced in Washington, DC.

Once the condition of urban poverty is understood, the needs created by this condition can be extracted. In the Kettner, Moroney and Martin model, the condition must define the needs, and the needs will prescribe the solution. So that they can be easily referenced, the needs will be laid-out in a chart with four over-arching needs: a need for a guided response against poverty, the need to combat the poverty cycle, the need for a better job and basic needs. Despite the ease of listing these needs, they are actually highly connected and reactionary towards changes in other needs.

Part II: Model Solution

According to Kettner, Moroney and Martin, the needs should define the response. Thus, using the needs found in Part I, a model solution to urban poverty can be created. The model solution is an ideal response that will map out key ideas that must be remembered when implementing programs and policies. This section will not purport the need of specific programs and policies, but may use specific programs and policies as examples. To assist in forming a solution, a general health promotion schematic will be used. Modes of intervention as defined under a general health schematic exist as a guiding principle for health officials coordinating a campaign against a specific health problem. The modes of intervention include health promotion and specific protection, detection, early diagnosis and prompt treatment and, lastly, rehabilitations and limitation of disability. **[See Appendix I]** While this schematic exists for health campaigns, its ideas can be applied to a campaign against poverty as well.

Part III: Efforts in DC

Ideally, according to Kettner, Moroney and Martin, the programs and policies would all be created anew from this understanding of poverty, and its needs, while using

the created solution as a model. However, many responses to poverty already exist, and have existed for years. Thus, at this point, the research must deviate from Kettner, Moroney and Martin's model. Instead of recommending that the programs and policies be created anew, the researcher will analyze DC's current programs and policies, making sure that all of the needs discovered in Part I are addressed in the way developed in Part II.

A few assumptions precede the analysis of DC in Part III. First, an assumption exists that people will help themselves if help is available. The coverage of the programs as well as their recruitment methods will be considered, but, in the end, if people remain that do not wish to receive help (if there exists such people), then the programs are not expected to forcibly assist them. Second, there are certain groups of people who may be in poverty, but whose condition differs enough to put them beyond the scope this research. The conditions of the poverty faced by the homeless, elderly and disabled³ as well as drug abusers and criminals are sufficiently unique as to require specialized responses. Thus, throughout this paper, their conditions and needs will not be included. However, it is encouraged that research into their needs continue, and that programs and policies be developed to assist them specifically.

The conclusion will sum up the findings, and discuss the overall outlook for poverty alleviation in Washington, DC. While Washington, DC appears to have sufficient sources to be capable of a successful campaign against poverty, it lacks the guided efforts such an endeavor requires.

³ Homeless are understood as the chronically homeless; families in assisted living and housing programs are included in the population of this research. Also included are those with learning disabilities; excluded are people with physical and mental disabilities.

Part I: Condition and Needs of Poverty

Condition

Poverty is a difficult concept to understand; its causes and effects vary as well as the public's opinions about the extent of the condition of poverty. Almost every political platform mentions alleviation of poverty as an important issue – President George Bush talks about in terms of an “ownership society,⁴” putting emphasis on personal values, responsibility, economic liberty and the owning of property; but it is just talk. The most expansive effort against poverty that the United States is associated with deals with international poverty. Despite constant mentioning of poverty in domestic debates, no nationally guided effort against domestic poverty has been established, only a history of definitions which will be outlined below. This research will endeavor to better understand the condition of poverty, specifically urban poverty so that other, more local, program coordinators, policy-makers and government officials will be able to fill the void established by government agencies and guide a coherent effort against poverty. The “causes of poverty are always multiple, interrelated and mutually reinforcing,⁵” and lead to the constant low well-being that defines the poor population in the U.S.

The U.S. government does not approach poverty from a view of causes. It only goes as far as to offer a definition of poverty that simply measures who is in poverty or not within the U.S. Measuring poverty is not sufficient in understanding the intertwined causes and issues of poverty, and using a simple definition that focuses on measurement to guide policy and program is not the best way to combat the issue. In actuality, the U.S. is not trying to guide a fight against domestic poverty, and defends its definition as just

⁴ “Poverty in the United States,” 1.

⁵ Hilfiker, 5.

that, a definition, letting programs know that they are welcome to use their own definitions. Whether it means to or not, the U.S. is offering guidance on how to look at poverty. Directors of programs and policy-makers use the standard set by the U.S. government to understand on who their programs and policies should focus. Further, these definitions lead to a low estimation of poverty that cannot be avoided, especially because these definitions establish the poverty level for all poverty related statistics. Thus, it is important to point out the short-comings of the U.S. definition so that programs coordinators and policy-makers understand that using only the U.S. definition to guide their efforts is not sufficient.

Poverty at the national level falls under two departments: the United States Census Bureau (BOC) and the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). Both departments have poverty websites that are linked to each other and that offer statistical information and debates about poverty in the U.S. as well as the historical information about the development of the poverty definitions. Mollie Orshansky of the Social Security Administration presented the first definition of poverty to a national committee in 1965. She developed a system that defined thresholds, which are, basically, absolute poverty lines broken down by family size and composition of the family.⁶ If an individual or family's income falls under the threshold associated with their living situation, that individual or family is defined as poor.

Orshansky based her definition on the idea that the "proportion of income allocated to 'necessaries,' and in particular to food, is an indicator of economic well-

⁶Composition breakdowns include age of the householder and number of related children under the age of 18. Orshansky's original definition further broke down the thresholds based on urban or farm location and sex of the householder; these distinctions were dropped from the definition during revision in 1981.

being.⁷” Thus, to develop the thresholds, Orshansky multiplied the cost of the economy food plan by the number of people in the family. The food plans were nutritionally adequate diets of different costs developed by the Department of Agriculture. The *economy* food plan was the cheapest of the four food plans offered. Over the next four years, Orshansky’s thresholds were used on a trial basis for the national statistics on poverty. Discussion surrounding the thresholds focused mostly on how to adjust them as the standard of living increased in the United States. Originally, the thresholds were updated according to the changes in the prices of the items on the economy food plan. In 1969, a review committee decided, instead, that the thresholds would be adjusted for inflation, not changes in the standard of living, using the most recent multiplier from the Consumer Price Index (CPI)⁸. The poverty thresholds were then adopted as the official statistical definition of poverty. Each year, the poverty thresholds are issued by the US Census Bureau and are intended for use in statistical work. **[See Table 1]**

The second official measure of poverty is the poverty guidelines, issued by the HHS. They are a simplified version of the thresholds recommended for use by federal assistance programs to judge who is eligible for assistance. The guidelines do not offer separate income figures distinguished by age or for one-person or two-person families like the thresholds. **[See Table 2]**

Few alterations have been made to the thresholds and guidelines since their creation and the changes that have occurred have not drastically changed the way poverty is viewed from a national perspective. However, the lack of updates is not even the most pronounced critique against the definition. While the definition does not attempt to

⁷ Fisher, 8.

⁸ The CPI is an annual index that reveals the changes in the cost of a basket of goods defined by the Consumer Expenditures Survey, when traces the consumer trends of a sample urban population.

Table 1: Poverty Thresholds 2005

Size of family unit	Related children under 18 years								
	<i>None</i>	<i>One</i>	<i>Two</i>	<i>Three</i>	<i>Four</i>	<i>Five</i>	<i>Six</i>	<i>Seven</i>	<i>Eight or more</i>
One person (unrelated individual)....									
Under 65 years.....	10,160								
65 years and over.....	9,367								
Two persons.....									
Householder under 65 years.....	13,078	13,461							
Householder 65 years and over.....	11,805	13,410							
Three persons.....	15,277	15,720	15,735						
Four persons.....	20,144	20,474	19,806	19,874					
Five persons.....	24,293	24,646	23,891	23,307	22,951				
Six persons.....	27,941	28,052	27,474	26,920	26,096	25,608			
Seven persons.....	32,150	32,350	31,658	31,176	30,277	29,229	28,079		
Eight persons.....	35,957	36,274	35,621	35,049	34,237	33,207	32,135	31,862	
Nine persons or more.....	43,254	43,463	42,885	42,400	41,603	40,507	39,515	39,270	37,757

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/poverty/threshld/thresh05.html>

define what incomes at each threshold will be used for, the thresholds are designed to reflect a household's needs, implying that those incomes below the thresholds are "lacking the resources to meet the basic needs for a healthy living,"⁹ basic needs being food, shelter, water and clothing. Thus, those above the thresholds should be able to afford these basic needs. However, the thresholds were originally based solely on a capability to afford the least expensive of *food* plans with no expenses for clothing, housing or other basic needs. This base income amount has never been altered, only adjusted for inflation. Thus, it can be assumed that the thresholds vastly overestimate the buying capability at each threshold, and, alternatively, underestimate the number of people that have difficulty meeting these needs, being, thus, in poverty. This underestimation remains in any statistics obtained using the government provided definition. Expectedly, those defined as in poverty by the thresholds reported having problems meeting basic needs. However, "people with income between the poverty level and twice the poverty level also reported serious problems in those areas,"¹⁰ proving that certain people experiencing aspects of poverty are left out in the government definitions.

The second critique of the U.S. provided definition is brought against the income definition used to compute poverty status. The income used is important because it is directly compared to the thresholds to determine poverty status. Orshansky's original definition was based on an after-tax money income, but used now is the Census Survey's before-tax income, a money income that only includes any real money earnings (income, unemployment, social security, interest, etc.) The recognized inconsistency was expected

⁹ "Poverty in the United States," 1.

¹⁰ "Poverty in America," 1.

to “yield a conservative underestimate of poverty.”¹¹ Thus, the income thresholds were low estimates of poverty when established. The income used is further questioned because it does not include non-cash benefits like those received by assistance programs (ex. food stamps) nor does it reflect benefits gained from owning large, long-term assets like cars or homes.

Table 2: 2006 HHS Poverty Guidelines

Persons in Family or Household	48 Contiguous States and D.C.	Alaska	Hawaii
1	\$ 9,800	\$12,250	\$11,270
2	13,200	16,500	15,180
3	16,600	20,750	19,090
4	20,000	25,000	23,000
5	23,400	29,250	26,910
6	26,800	33,500	30,820
7	30,200	37,750	34,730
8	33,600	42,000	38,640
For each additional person, add	3,400	4,250	3,910

SOURCE: *Department of Health and Human Services*, <http://aspe.hhs.gov/poverty/06poverty.shtml>

Overall, an understanding of what the used definition of income is actually meant to show is diluted. Beyond this, the real problem remains in the fact that program and policies are actually based on this definition, leaving out a lot of people who need help or pronouncing some people as being out of poverty who continue to need assistance.

There are some who would argue that the debate about who is poor or not in the U.S. is moot. Most of the poor in this country are not completely lacking the basic needs of food, shelter, water and clothing. Indeed, those fully lacking these basic needs,

¹¹ Fisher, 2.

particularly the homeless, have already been established as unique groups needing special assistance. Robert Rector and Kirk A. Johnson of The Heritage Foundation provide a developed analysis of this point of view in their report, “Understanding Poverty in America.” They cite that “most of America’s “poor” live in material conditions that would be judged as comfortable or well-off just a few generations ago.¹²” Overall, “the living standards of most poor Americans are far higher than is generally appreciated.¹³” What Johnson and Rector fail to appreciate is, while the poor in the U.S. may not lack the basic needs on a daily basis, they often lack the ability to maintain them and the security to know that they will continue to have them in the future.

Table 3: Percent of Households with Selected Indicators of Well-Being, 1998

Indicator	All Households	Non-Poor Households	Poor Households
Stove	98.7	99.0	96.7
Telephone	96.2	97.5	87.0
Dishwasher	56.0	60.3	25.7
Computer	42.0	45.3	18.4
Air Conditioner	77.7	79.1	67.7
No unmet need for Doctor	93.9	95	85.9
No Roof/Ceiling Leaks	93.1	93.7	89.1
No abandoned houses in neighborhood	92.0	92.6	88.3

SOURCE: *Supplemental Measures of Well-Being: Basic Needs*, see bibliography; pp. 3, 6

Johnson and Rector provide an array of convincing statistics for their argument that present an image of the conditions in which poor families live. Despite that fact that their choice to report the statistics as “poor households” versus “all households,” rather than “poor households” versus “non-poor households” consistently bumps down the “all households” statistics, minimizing the percent difference between the two groups,

¹² Rector, 1.
¹³ Rector, 12.

Johnson and Rector have a point. Most Americans do enjoy the luxuries of cars, televisions, telephones as well as the necessities of housing, clothing and food. [See **Table 3**] And, yet, there remain differences between the richest and poorest in this country that contribute to the condition of poverty and that must be addressed. Many, like Johnson and Rector, miss the other aspect of basic needs- as stated above, the basic needs must provide for a healthy living. So, while a person may have food, shelter, water and clothing, even some who are above the defined thresholds, they may live in a neighborhood with high violence, dilapidated housing, insecure water sources and low quality public education- is that family not lacking basic needs for a healthy living in some ways? The majority of the poor in the U.S. may not face the constant lack of basic needs, but they face a disparity of well-being with the richest in the U.S. that is constant. It is almost an absolute that *more* low-economic households experience problems of quality of life than non-poor households, no matter what the indicator. Some examples of this absolute are found in the following table with information gathered from the American Housing Survey 2001, the same source Johnson and Rector used to present their argument. The table presents the statistics using rates rather than percentages so that the differences are clear. Also, the statistics are presented as non-poor households versus poor households, thereby avoiding the minimization of the disparity between the groups. [See **Table 4**]

Through multiple publications, U.S. agencies have been developing alternative ways of looking at poverty with the idea of well-being in mind, rather than simply considering *having* basic needs as being out of poverty. The BOC and HHS have used statistics with the goal of expanding the understanding of the population in poverty, not

Table 4: Number of Households Per 1000 with Selected Characteristics, 2001

Characteristic		Non-Poor Households	Poor Households	Difference ¹⁴
Street Noise or Traffic Present		273.5	330.1	-56.6
Neighborhood Crime Present		143.6	190.7	-47.1
Odors in Neighborhood Present		57.3	82.9	-25.6
Persons Per Room	.50 or less	699.2	679.2	+20.0
	.51-1.00	280.9	236.2	+44.7
	1.0-1.50	16.4	44.3	-27.9
	1.51 or More	3.4	13.3	-9.9
Water Supply	With Hot & Cold Piped Water	998.5	989.7	+8.8
	No Stoppage last 3 months	952.0	940.2	+11.8
	No Stoppage > 6 hrs	15.4	14.8	+.6
	4 or more > 6 hrs	1.3	4.3	-2.4
Sewage Disposal	With Public Sewer	785.4	813.9	-28.5
	No breakdowns last 3 months	983.4	977.2	+6.2
	None > 6 hrs	6.3	7.9	-1.6
	4 or more > 6 hrs	1.1	2.0	-.9

SOURCE: American Housing Survey for the United States: 2001

¹⁴ Read: Non-Poor households have insert difference more or less than poor households.

sticking strictly to the threshold definitions, but comparing conditions between different people in the U.S. population. It is important to remember, however, that these ideas are not the official definitions of poverty.

In “Extended Measures of Well-Being,” the agencies used the idea of basic needs to develop a more sophisticated method, using a list of capabilities to outline the success of the U.S. population in obtaining basic needs. This recognized that basic needs in the U.S. are not obtained through a simple process. If one or more of the activities on the list occurred in a given year, that family or individual was defined as not meeting basic needs. The basic needs capabilities are:

- Didn't pay utility bills
- Didn't pay mortgage or rent,
- Needed to see the doctor or dentist but didn't go
- Had telephone or utility service shut off,
- Evicted
- Didn't get enough to eat,
- Otherwise didn't meet essential expenses

Another report issued in 2005 called “Supplemental Measures of Material Well-being: Basic Needs, Consumer Durables, Energy and Poverty” looked beyond basic needs and income to a measure of material well-being. This report focuses on the benefits derived from money spent or items owned in order to discover the condition in which people are living. Indicators used in this report included:

- Owning consumer durables (freezer, computer, dryer, washer, TV, stove, etc.)
- Housing Conditions (No problems with mice, rats or insects, No roof or ceiling leaks, No broken windows, No plumbing problems, etc.)
- Crime and Safety (Neighborhood is considered safe, Does not carry anything to protect self, etc.)
- Neighborhood Conditions (Free from traffic noise problems, free from street repair problems, no smoke or odors in neighborhood, etc.)

The findings for both reports are outlined in the following table.

As Johnson and Rector would expect, the findings from both reports were overall optimistic in the fact that the *majority* of the U.S. population did not *not* meet their basic needs, owned the majority of consumer durables listed and lived in relatively safe and clean neighborhoods and houses. [See Tables 3 & 4] The fact that households below poverty on average had greater difficulties in all of the indicators than the general population is not astonishing. It follows the absolute already established above, that the quality of life experienced by poor households is consistently less than that of non-poor households.

Besides offering support to the absolute, the BOC and HHS reports support research about other aspects of the condition of poverty. These other aspects explain more directly why poverty remains an important issue in the U.S. beyond the obvious disparity of quality it creates.

According to “Dynamics of Economic Well-Being,” which studied the tendency of persons to enter and exit poverty, 49.5% of people, about 14.8 million, who were in poverty in 1996 had managed to exit poverty by 1999. In contrast, only 3.5% of people,

about 7.6 million, who were not in poverty in 1996 had entered poverty by 1999. The trend is obviously in favor of people leaving poverty over people entering, but notice that 14.8 million people represent about half of the people who were in poverty in 1996. Thus, in 1996, about 29.6 million people were in poverty. If its assumed that the same entry to exit ratio, which favors exits, existed from 1993 to 1996, then in 1993, about 36.8 million people would have been in poverty.¹⁵ The situation is hypothetical, but it does show that an entry to exit ratio that favors exits, while positive, hides the fact that the initial population actually in poverty is very large. Thus, the implied trend seems to be that people *start* out poor and exit, rather than starting as non-poor, entering poverty and then exiting. Accordingly, 17.4% of children are living in families below the poverty line, growing up poor, they are among the population that starts out poor. These children, according to the ratio, have a 50/50 chance of getting out of poverty. People who grow in non-poor households only have a 4% chance of entering poverty. Overall, this trend supports the argument that poverty deals more with structural cause rather than individual causes as it is not a child's fault where he or she is born. This debate will be further developed later, but, at this point, its important to note that a fair percentage of the poor population described below have lived in the conditions described all their lives.

Already discussed has been that income is not sufficient in describing who is poor. The difficulty in meeting basic needs is another indicator of who is poor. While most did not have difficulty meeting these needs, the small percentage that did are an important group to remember. Throughout all of these indicators, there were specific groups that continually had more difficulty. While “the poor in our country are still split

¹⁵ See Appendix II for related tables and math.

pretty evenly between white, black, Latin American¹⁶” as well as between rural (suburban) and urban settings, some groups of people do, across the board, face the most difficulties. Unrelated individuals are more affected because of the exclusion they face by having no family support system, renters because they have “fewer assets and other resources to draw on,¹⁷” females because of the “persistent disparities in salaries for men and women,¹⁸” and single-parents because of the “disproportionate economic burden [parents] face raising children alone.¹⁹” Low-income families face a lot of difficulty because the parents support more people on a low income and often have to work two jobs, which affects the well-being of the family. Also, while poverty is split across the races, like the consistent disparity seen between the rich and poor, there remains a consistent disparity between white and minorities like Hispanic and Black with minorities always facing a little more difficulty. David Card and John DiNardo sum it up succinctly in their report, *The Impact of Technological Change on Low Wage Workers*:

“They [the poor] are younger, less educated, more likely to be minority and/or female, less healthy, live in worse neighborhoods, have few family or friends with good jobs, work in low-wage industries and in smaller firms, and have limited job tenure.²⁰”

While the populations described above are split evenly between rural and urban neighborhoods, because this report focuses on Washington, DC, an urban area, it is necessary to highlight the conditions faced by those living in poor urban neighborhoods. While it is difficult to know if all poor people in an urban setting live in impoverished

¹⁶ Hilfiker, 2.

¹⁷ Bauman, 5.

¹⁸ “Poverty,” 1.

¹⁹ “Poverty,” 1.

²⁰ Card, 3.

neighborhoods, it is safer to assume that high-income families and individuals *do not* live in the neighborhoods described below. These living conditions are not exactly desirable, so, as would be expected, they have “encouraged the exodus of middle-class families to the suburbs.²¹” This has left the poor in those urban communities in a worse condition because the decreased tax revenue that could have been used to fix local infrastructure. Also, political influence tends to follow the middle class, making “the voice of those in the inner city least heard and their problems least addressed.²²” Unlike the middle class, poor families often do not have the luxury of choosing their neighborhood.²³

Poor urban neighborhoods are classified by many, interconnected norms like, less public services, low quality education, insecure jobs and crime, among many others. Low-income neighborhoods have lower quality public schools that lack basics like “adequate classroom and school sizes,²⁴” as well as trained professional teachers. The schools are often unable to attend to individual learning needs of the children enrolled and have a high tendency to overlook learning disabilities. Further, due to lack of funding, many schools are unable to offer preschool or after-school programs which double for parents as child-care programs. The additional stress this puts on families often “hampers their ability to provide an environment that reinforces the learning process and prepares the children for school.²⁵” Also, the violence in low-income neighborhoods, associated with crime and drugs, often deters school attendance.²⁶ All of these connected factors contribute to an overall difficulty in receiving a good basic

²¹ Malombe, 6.

²² Malombe, 6.

²³ Fauth, 3.

²⁴ “What is Urban Poverty,” 1.

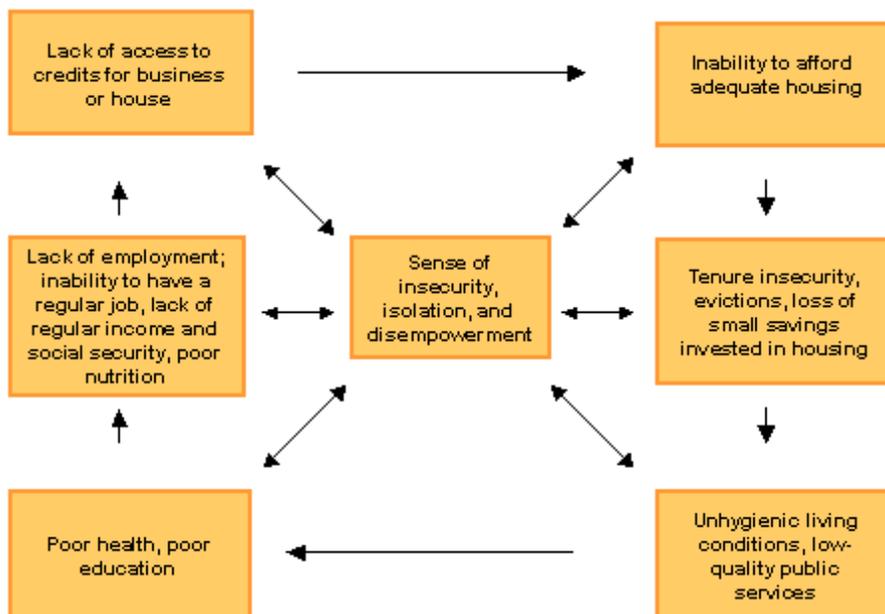
²⁵ Malombe, 6.

²⁶ “What is Urban Poverty,” 2.

education, which leads to students having difficulty finishing high school and few who are even capable of attaining higher education.

In these neighborhoods, capability does ensure one will achieve higher education. Often, poor people have a “tendency... to decline educational opportunities²⁷” because of the immediate need for income. The immediacy of the lives of the poor in these neighborhoods causes them to lack other options like to retire early, to save money or to be a stay-at-home parent.

Chart 1: Cumulative Impacts of Urban Poverty



SOURCE: “What is Urban Poverty,” see bibliography.

Some associate the trend to decline higher education with a lower confidence caused by the stigma associated with coming from a particular neighborhood. This same stigma often leads employers to use a screening process. Employers will often only advertise jobs in certain neighborhoods or accept applications from certain addresses,

²⁷ Miller, 2.

screening²⁸ out addresses of “certain areas within cities [seen as] centers of crime and desolation.”²⁹ Thus, the job mobility and opportunity of the people in these neighborhoods is further diminished; most end up in low-wage earning jobs.

Of course, this stigmatization is not the only reason for low job mobility and low-wage earnings of people living in poor urban neighborhoods. The low levels of formal education discussed above also help explain the trend. This trend is only becoming more and more stressed as technological advances are demanding employees with educations that exceed the generally accepted minimum of a high-school degree or GED. Even more than this, the technological advances are making some jobs obsolete, shrinking the job market available to these less-skilled workers. Also, in an attempt to solve the problem of profit caused by the price of the new technologies, employers will reduce the wages of the remaining manual jobs or will offer them as only part-time jobs. As time passes, “the level and kind of educational attainment will have an even stronger relationship³⁰” to one’s ability to attain jobs, income and security.

All of the above further interconnect to cause an overall “unfavorable physical and mental health³¹” in poor neighborhoods. These communities often face a “failure of public services³²” like water and sewerage that leads to a detrimental health environment. Further, because of job immobility, individuals often face unsafe or unhealthy working environmental that lead to health problems that are difficult to deal with because the majority of low-wage jobs rarely include health insurance or any other benefits. All of

²⁸ Hilfiker, 5.

²⁹ “What is Urban Poverty,” 1.

³⁰ Miller, 1.

³¹ Fauth, 32.

³² “What is Urban Poverty,” 2.

these factors combined often lead to a “higher levels of psychological distress among residents of disadvantaged neighborhoods.³³”

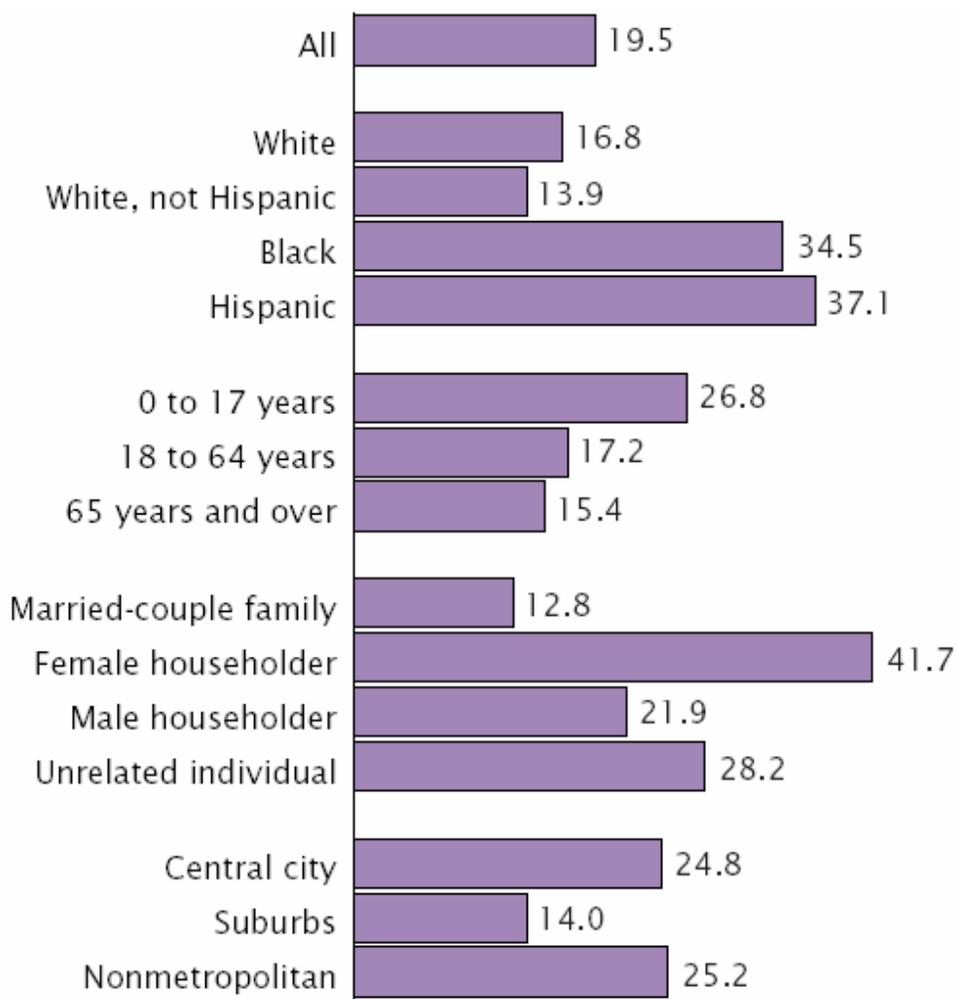
Issues of technical lay-offs, bad health, seasonal job structure and difficulty getting to work, etc. all contribute to a daily instability that is faced by poor urban workers, and create a general cycle of poverty that is difficult to sustainably exit. **[See Chart 1]** The entry to exit ratio described above uses an at-a-glance measurement of poverty and does not reflect this cycle in which low-income people experience a highly volatile well-being, fluctuating above and below the poverty line a lot in the short run. To better see the cycle, one must look at the tendency of individuals to have episodes of poverty. Episodic poverty is defined by spells which are two or more consecutive months of poverty that are separated by at least two months of not being poor. The average spells last around four months. **[See Chart 2]**

The poverty cycle of poor urban neighborhoods is caused by the sum of all the impacts discussed above as well as other various stressors. Normal, everyday changes like marriage, birth, death or even a cold have a much stronger impact on lower-income families and individuals who may be pushed into poverty because of an inability to easily adapt to these changes. These changes also occur seasonally, especially during birthdays and holidays. Part of this inability to adapt comes from having a low-income which is “linked to subsistence living,³⁴” no savings and an inability to look long-term, keeping people from investing in anything that does not produce immediate benefits. Thus, while Johnson and Rector were correct in pointing out that people at all income levels

³³ Boardman, 151.

³⁴ Miller, 2.

Chart 2: Episodic Poverty Rates: 1999
(Percent of people poor at least 2 months)



SOURCE: *Dynamics of Economic Well-Being 1996-1999*, see bibliography

experience “temporary discomfort due to food shortages,³⁵” the impact of this one temporary strain is much greater on a poor individual or family in this urban poverty cycle. More than this, members of poor urban neighborhoods “often faced more than one problem at a time... [playing] one type of need against another,³⁶” further contributing to the poverty cycle. One final stressor that contributes to this cycle is that “most [poor

³⁵ Rector, 2.

³⁶ Bauman, 3.

people] try to deal with problems on their own.³⁷” Among poor populations, most people would turn first to family or friends for help, many of whom are also be dealing with difficulties and are unable to sustain their generosity.³⁸ This factor combined with a general “lack of safety nets and social support³⁹” as well as “insufficient channels of information,⁴⁰” all increase the severity of the poverty cycle.

Despite all of the information above, no one can deny that there are exceptions to the rule. The U.S. is indeed a place of success stories about people who have overcome the odds. As Dr. Juanita Miller points out, “they are not the norm, but they manage to find ways to apply their human resources, often by migrating to places that offer more and varied opportunities.⁴¹” The necessity to *leave* the poor neighborhoods is, thus, related to the ability to succeed. As pointed out, moving is not an option for many parts of the poor population, especially single-parents and families.

Overall, when discussing whether poverty is caused by individual or structural factors, the evidence seems to support that the “cumulative effect of the “surround” is more than the sum of the individual forces.⁴²” The implication of the individual factors argument is that any person would be able to lead a life equivalent in quality to the one they live now if they moved into a poor neighborhood. Life would be without a doubt made more difficult because the person would be is used to “stable and predictable circumstances... without disruptions to income or living conditions,⁴³” circumstances that do not exist in lower-income urban neighborhoods. Even individual contributors to

³⁷ Bauman, 9.

³⁸ Bauman, 7.

³⁹ “What is Urban Poverty,” 2..

⁴⁰ “What is Urban Poverty,” 2..

⁴¹ Miller, 2.

⁴² Hilfiker, 2.

⁴³ Bauman, 4.

poverty, like lack of confidence, unemployment, drug user, laziness, poor education, cannot fully be afforded as the complete fault of the individual, especially after seeing the conditions in which most poor individuals grow up.

Still, due to many reasons, most Americans do not know of the conditions faced by poor Americans. According to a survey conducted by National Public Radio, the Kaiser Family Foundation and Harvard's Kennedy School of Government, "About half of the public says the poor are not doing enough to help themselves out of poverty and the other half says the circumstances beyond their control cause them to be poor."⁴⁴ Even more than that, most Americans do not identify poverty or welfare as "one of the top issues the government should address."⁴⁵ Thus, the individuals and families daily facing the hardships of the condition of poverty have a hard road ahead of them.

Needs

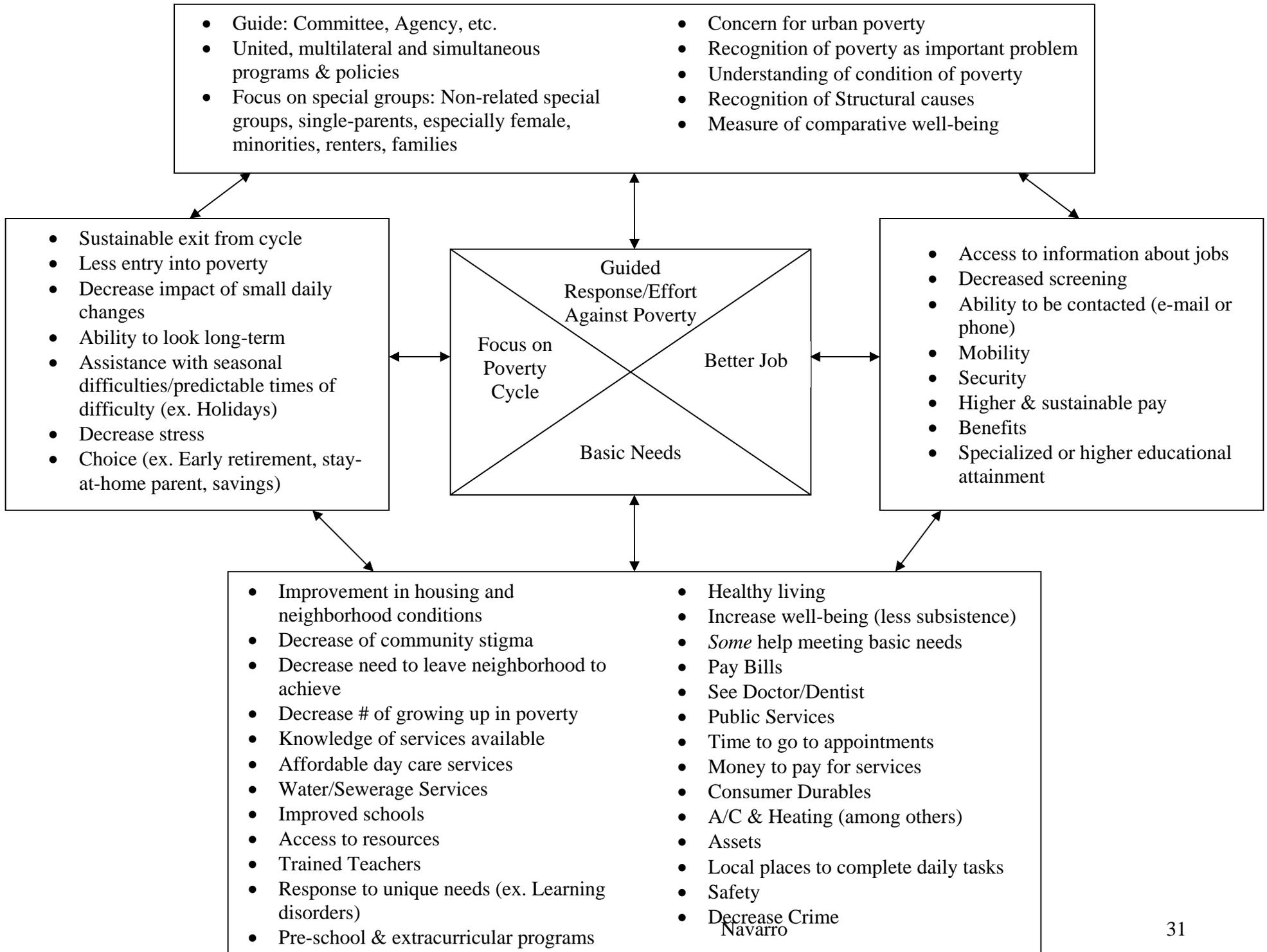
Understanding the condition of poverty helps to recognize the needs of the families and individuals facing this condition on a daily basis. This process is required before one can create a model solution to the condition, as this research aims to do in Part III. After each sentence in the above discussion, one can formulate a corresponding need, which is the basic methodology behind this section. As pointed out in the introduction, the goal here is to discover the true needs of the condition of poverty because most policies and programs focus on the need of "more" rather than the true necessities of poverty. Also as pointed out earlier, the information about the deficiencies of the U.S. provided definitions implies many needs, but they are beyond the scope of this research since adjustments to them are more difficult to achieve. Thus, the need created by this

⁴⁴ "Poverty in America," 1.

⁴⁵ "Poverty in America," 1.

information should be seen as the need to provide an improved understanding of poverty for local program coordinators and policy makers to use. While the process of nominally listing needs is simple, it is extremely important to remember the needs are all intricate and interrelated. **[See Chart 3]**

Chart 3: Needs of Condition of Poverty



Part II: Model Solution

The condition of urban poverty is multidimensional and complex, and its needs, although simply displayed in Chart 3, require an equally complex solution that recognizes that these needs are connected and stem from one another. To develop the model solution, the researcher first considered, what, ideally, would address the majority of these needs? Increased money and well-being were the ideal responses. With enough money, a person could pay for the basic needs and the necessary changes to the community (or she could just move). With increased well-being, even if a cycle exists in which a person's ability to attain what she wants fluxes, the difficulty of being at the bottom of the cycle would decrease. In fact, people at all economic levels tend to fluctuate in a type of cycle as they deal with various issues. For the poor, however, this cycle is far more threatening. Of course, a realistic solution would never offer programs that just give away money. Also, there is no program that can just provide well-being. However, focusing on *increasing* well-being and income through programs and policies is an appropriate guide for the rest of the model solution. By approaching the solution from this angle, five areas of focus become obvious, which also address all of the needs defined in Part I. Some of the needs are directly addressed by one or more of the focus areas, while others, like the need for less stress, would be improved by the overall impact of all of the focus areas. A model solution to urban poverty would focus on the five focus areas simultaneously: crime, education, health, community development and recognition.

These five focus areas are discussed below, but it is important to note that, while some programs are used as examples, this section is not meant to dictate what *specific*

programs to implement because resources and capabilities vary from city to city. The solution model presented in this section is a model of general goals, ideas and guidelines that program coordinators and policy makers should follow in order to ensure the needs of the condition of poverty are addressed in an appropriate and promising way.

Crime

Through decreased crime and increased safety, one's well-being as well as the one's chances of increasing income are addressed. Increased safety decreases the stigmatization faced by poor neighborhoods, which, besides opening up job opportunities for individuals, also increases the attractiveness of the neighborhood for investors. The importance of investment will be discussed further under community development. Increasing safety in these neighborhoods will also decrease any deterrents caused by violence and crime, like the deterrent to attend school discussed above, or the deterrent to work late, take night jobs, allow children to play outside, etc. Decreasing crime will also reduce the stress associated with living in an unsafe neighborhood.

Education

Having a good basic education directly increases one's intellectual well-being as well as one's chances for higher educational attainment, better jobs and increased income. In the first place, individuals who receive a good basic education will be more likely to get better jobs with increased security and benefits. Benefits and security both help decrease stress and allow people to better deal with unexpected changes. Next, a good education increases one's confidence and will increase the likelihood that an individual will *want* to move on to higher education. By attaining higher education, a person will be able to obtain higher paying jobs and sidestep the issue of technical

unemployment. Also, higher education provides increased mobility for workers. The positive effects of increased income, security and mobility (all partially caused by a good basic education) include increased assets and increased ability to see long-term and to meet all basic needs consistently as well as ridding individuals and families of some of the major contributing factors to the poverty cycle.

Programs and policies under this area should focus on improving public primary and secondary schools by increasing available resources, teacher training and the ability to recognize special learning considerations, like learning disabilities. Also, schools should “promote activities that give children a sense of opportunity and a better outlook for the future,⁴⁶” through things like field trips or career day.

The overall success of this focus area requires that programs and policies implemented in other focus areas are also successful. For example, programs and policies that help people side-step the problem of screening or that reduce the stigma associated with a neighborhood like those implemented under community development, will further the impact of a good basic education.

Health

No one can do anything properly and full-heartedly without being healthy. Thus, health is an extremely important aspect that assists in the success of all other programs and policies in this model solution. Literally, programs and policies should be implemented with the goal of promoting good health through nutritional food and exercise as well as access to places that promote activity like YMCAs or gyms. Health programs and policies have a key role in decreasing the poverty cycle. If people are

⁴⁶ Miller, 2.

made sustainably healthy, they have less stress and their jobs become more secure, both of which impact the poverty cycle.

Information about any programs should be compiled through a clearinghouse that connects people to the services available to them like free legal assistance, immediate food or shelter, low-cost health insurance or where to go for free health treatment, if they do not have insurance. If programs like these do not exist, they should be created. Their existence impacts a person's stress level and the poverty cycle, which, in turn, affects emotional and physical health. For these reasons, a clearinghouse type program is included under the Health focus area.

Community Development

One of the most obvious responses to the needs presented in Part II is improving one's home, meaning their literal house as well as their community. The success of programs and policies under other focus areas are contingent upon the ability to implement correct and successful community development programs. An underlying goal of this focus area is the improvement of the poor urban community to the extent that individuals and families will want and be able to stay in the neighborhood. As mentioned in Part I, success stories of those who got out of the poverty cycle often featured people who had to leave their neighborhoods to achieve success. Helping people leave the poor urban community is not an applicable or desirable goal. Instead, the communities need to be improved.

Programs and policies in this area should, first, help create a desire for residents to stay and for others to enter and invest in the neighborhood. Programs successful in this endeavor would help decrease the stigma associated with a specific area, bring jobs and

money to the community and help develop local infrastructure. Simple things like improving community parks and public transportation can have huge effects on a neighborhood's image and on the stress levels of the residents.

Second, while certain policies, like those that enforce housing codes or manage the availability of water, sewerage treatment, etc. in neighborhoods should already exist, it is important that these policies recognize that residents of poor neighborhoods often face more than one challenge at a time. The policies should focus intently on the stable provision of basics in poor neighborhoods.

Recognition

The idea of recognition, although generally vague, encompasses both the need for recognition of the problem of poverty by the public as well as the need for a guide *and* a guided, united effort against poverty. As pointed out in Part II, most Americans do not recognize poverty as a problem, thus any efforts to fix the condition are only known to and supported by those individuals in charge of the efforts. A large-scale solution like the one suggested by this research requires a wider base of support as well as a decrease in criticisms like the ones cited in Part I, that poverty is exaggerated or is caused solely by individuals. A program like the Truth Campaign is an example of a program that could be imitated to help build economic and personal support for the endeavor.

Another part of the focus on recognition is the need for a guide, as the U.S. government does not fulfill this requirement, which is essential to a successful solution. The CB and HHS provide definitions, but there exists no "Sub-Department on Poverty" or something similar in the CP, HHS or in any other government agency. Coordination helps ensure that program leaders and policy makers understand the extent of the effects

of their respective programs and policies on other programs and policies, and, thus, work together accordingly. The guidance can come from a coalition of program leaders or local government; in either case, it is preferred that the guidance be a local source because the campaign must be supported locally if it is to be accomplished.

Important Concepts for Each Focus Area

Programs and policies implemented under any of the focus areas must all keep in mind several ideas essential to an overall successful solution. First, programs and policies developed under each focus area, while offered to all individuals and families in poor urban neighborhoods should recognize that some groups require a little more attention, like unrelated individuals, families, minorities and single-parent households, especially female-headed. All programs and policies target these populations. To do this, the specific populations must be located. This helps determine if a specific program provides enough of a service to cover the needy population. Along with coverage, programs and policies must focus on *where* the service is provided, as “the spatial accessibility of service providers is an important determinant of service utilization among welfare recipients.⁴⁷” Coverage and proximity are important concepts to remember while developing programs and policies.

Finally, where appropriate, solutions under each focus area should set-up programs and policies so that they imitate a general schematic of health promotion. Nominally, the stages of intervention in a health schematic include health promotion and protection, early diagnosis and treatment, rehabilitation and limitation of disability.⁴⁸ What these stages represent is an effort to, first, recognize portions of the population that

⁴⁷ Allard, 12.

⁴⁸ See Appendix I.

are susceptible to the disease in order to keep that population from contracting the disease, i.e. prevention. Secondly, health officials attempt to recognize who is in the early stages of the disease and treat them before the disease develops fully. The third stage of health promotion focuses on limiting the long-term effects of the disease.

Health promotion using these stages has been very successful and can be adapted to a model solution against poverty. In this effort, the first stage for the poverty solution would focus on prevention by limiting entry into poverty and focusing on the vulnerable parts of the population. An equivalent second stage would respond to any immediate needs like decreasing the severity of the immediate aspects of the poverty cycle and limiting stress. The adaptation of the third stage includes solutions meant to cause long-term positive change that helps people help themselves and limits the condition of poverty over time in a lasting and sustainable way. Examples of solutions at this stage are those that take time, like improving schools and building infrastructure in a community.

In summary, a model solution is one which focuses its efforts on five areas: crime, education, health, community development and recognition. The programs and policies that should be in place under each focus area should directly relate to at least one of the needs established in Part II. The solutions implemented should be coordinated with and responsive to each other, and should be implemented simultaneously. They should also recognize the people that are most in need of help and the specific locations from where these people can best be served. Solutions should aim to empower people, so as to prevent them from slipping back into poverty. Finally, solutions should be established

that focus on short-term needs and long-term needs, in imitation of the schematic for health promotion.

Part III: Efforts in DC

It has been the main purpose of this paper all along to judge the capability of Washington, DC to combat poverty within the city. However, it is important to keep in mind that the capability of the local DC government to establish policies and reforms has, in the past, been met with some difficulty.

Washington, DC's history is truly unique. The citizens of Washington, DC were not able to vote for the President of the U.S. until 1961, when the 23rd Amendment to the U.S. Constitution granted them that right. In 1974, DC citizens voted for their first mayor, Walter Washington. Before this time, the District had been a "capital governed under the exclusive jurisdiction principle,⁴⁹" meaning its local government was in fact the Congress. A limited "Home Rule" legislation in 1975 changed this, allowing for a local government. However, in accordance with the U.S. constitution, Congress remains "the sole authority over the federal district,⁵⁰" with the local mayor and government operating under it. DC residents elected Marion Barry, a civil rights activist, in 1978 who served almost three whole terms before being arrested for drug use in 1990. He became Mayor again from 1994 to 1998. In 1997, Barry formally declared that "the city could no longer sustain the cost of functions normally absorbed by the state government."⁵¹ In response, the Congress set up a DC Control Board made up of two Senators, *not* elected by the citizens of the District, who assert a tremendous amount of control over the DC budget. In 1998, Barry was beat in the mayoral races by Anthony Williams, DC's current mayor. The widespread poverty that has defined DC over the last 40 years is related, in part, to

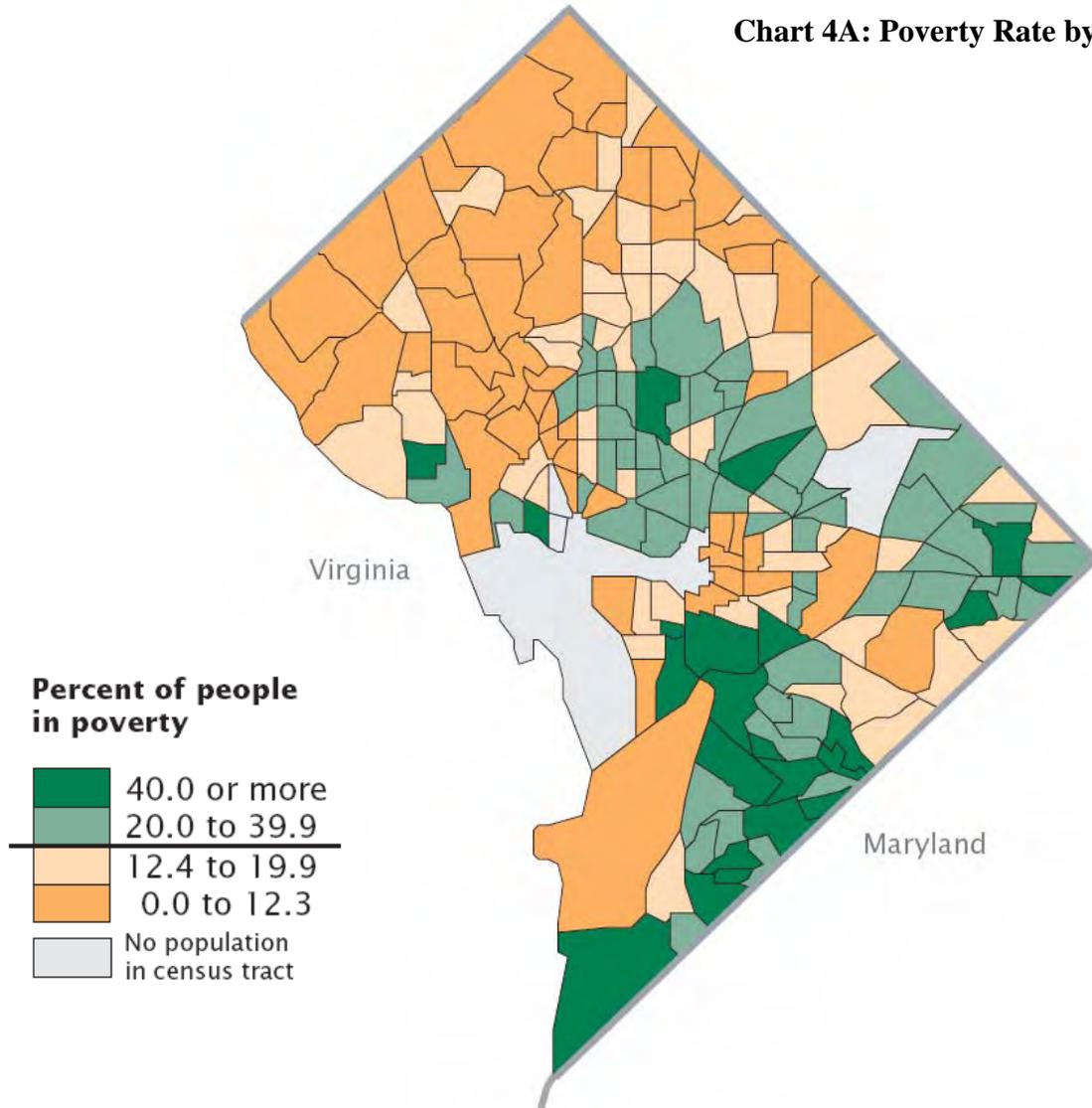
⁴⁹ Malombe, 9.

⁵⁰ "Washington, DC," 2.

⁵¹ Malombe, 11.

the instability of power in DC. All policies and programs implemented in DC must work within this context.⁵² [See Charts 4A-I]

Chart 4A: Poverty Rate by Census Tract



SOURCE: *Areas of Concentrated Poverty: 1999*, pp. 7; see Bibliography

Charts 4A-I will be good to refer to throughout this section. In the following pages, the focus areas developed in the model solution will guide an overview of efforts currently being implemented in DC. After review of relevant information, the researcher

⁵² Malombe, 11.

will discuss if DC is within reach of poverty elimination by judging how close the efforts in DC match the model solution.

Chart 4B: Ward 1

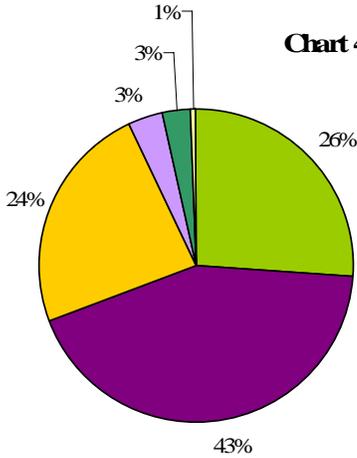
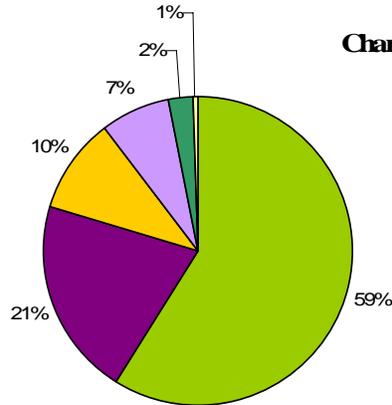


Chart 4C: Ward 2



- White
- Black/African American
- Hispanic/Latino
- Asian alone
- Two or More Races
- Other

Charts 4B-I: Race Distribution in District Wards

Charts 4A-I are all useful in helping the reader visualize the disparity that exists in Washington, DC.

In case the key is difficult to read:
Light Green: White
Dark Purple: Black/Afro-American
Orange: Hispanic/Latino
Light Purple: Asian Alone
Dark Green: Two or More Races
Light Yellow: Other

SOURCE: U.S. Census, SF3 Data

Chart 4D: Ward 3

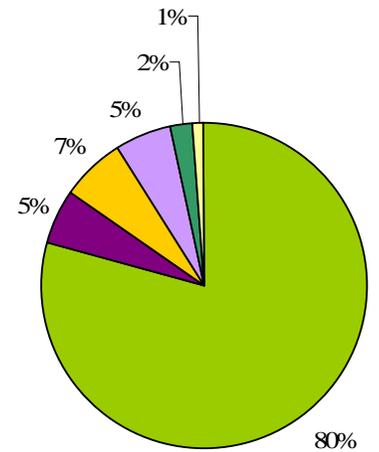


Chart 4I: Ward 8

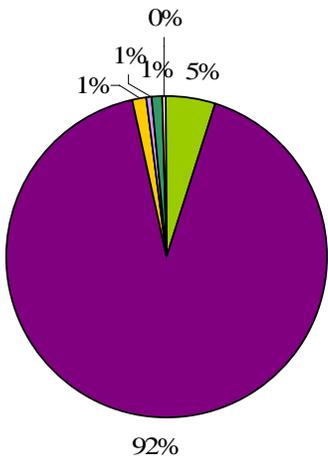


Chart 4E: Ward 7

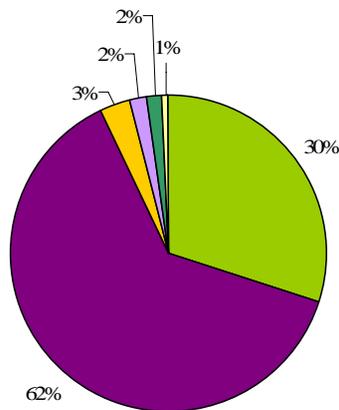
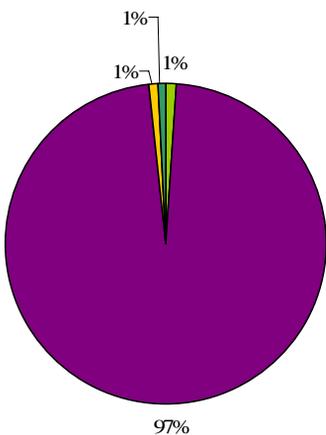


Chart 4G: Ward 6

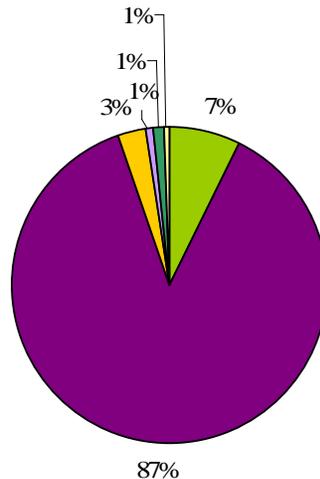


Chart 4F: Ward 5

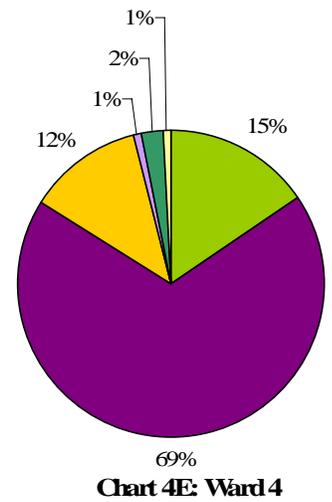
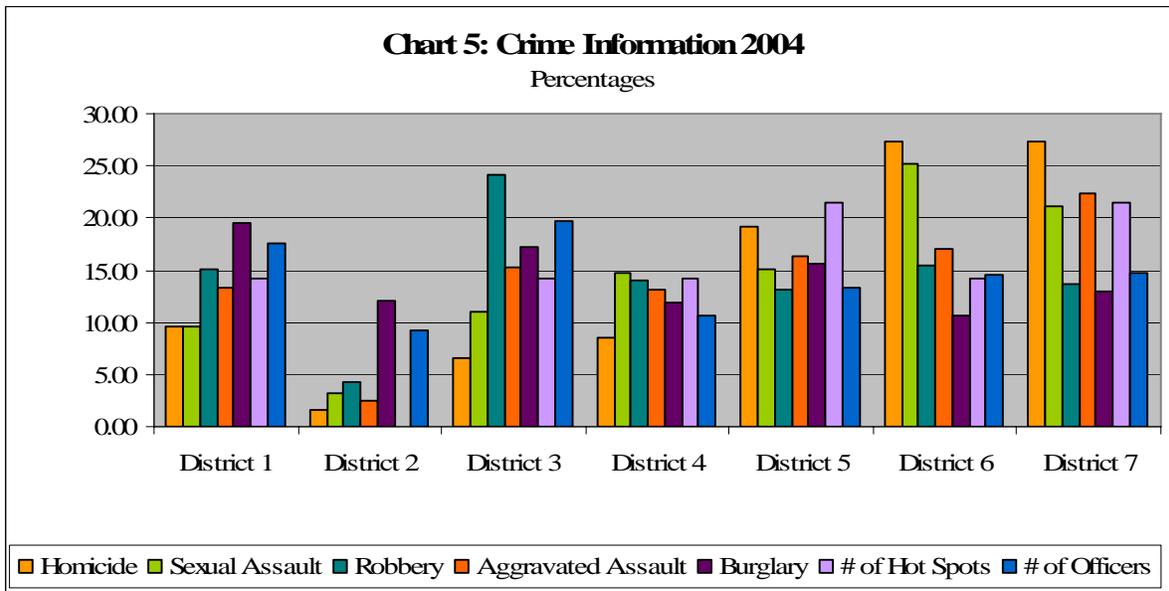


Chart 4E: Ward 4

Crime

Washington, DC has a stigma of being a very dangerous city. Chart 5 shows a compilation of crime statistics from 2004. Each bar represents the percentage that police district had for that specific indicator. For example, 9% of the total number of homicides in 2004 occurred within the limits of District 1.^{53*} [See Chart 5]

Districts 3, 6 & 7 (roughly Wards 1, 7 & 8) are the only districts with any indicators nearing or surpassing 25%. District 7 has three indicators (not counting Hot Spots) that surpass 20%, district 6 has two, and districts 3 and 5 (roughly Ward 5) each have one. The interesting thing to notice in this chart is that, while districts 6 and 7 obviously have a higher ratio of crime compared to the other districts, they have the third and fourth highest number of police officers.



^{53*}Please note that the Police Districts do not line up with DC Wards; thus, to continue with the already established Ward comparison, one must interpret the information. See Appendix III to see the Police Districts.

The number of homicides actually went down in 2004, to 198 total; the “lowest levels in 40 years.”⁵⁴ Overall, while crime continues in DC, trends over the years have shown that it has been either decreasing or maintaining, not increasing.

The Metropolitan Police Department (MPD) calls its strategy for dealing with crime in the district “Policing for Prevention,” identifying a three-fold method of focused law enforcement, neighborhood partnerships and systemic prevention. The strategy was developed to “address immediate crime problems... [while] using ... the resources of government and other organizations to work on the underlying causes of crime.”⁵⁵

Focused Law Enforcement efforts include identifying areas of the city most in need of increased attention and assistance in fighting crime through an initiative called Hot Spots. In 2004, 14 areas across the city were recognized as “breeding grounds for crime.”⁵⁶ By January of 2005, nine spots had improved so much that they were removed from the list and nine new locations were added. [See Appendix III] These Hot Spots receive special police attention, “additional patrols... [and] specialized units targeting drugs, gangs, prostitution and auto theft.”⁵⁷ They are also concurrently used with the New Communities initiative, a community development program to “improve the quality of life for families and individuals in distressed neighborhoods.”⁵⁸ This initiative will be discussed further under the Community Development focus area, but, basically, the Hot Spots define where the New Communities will be developed. The first New Community is Northwest One which encompasses the Hot Spot Sursum Corda.

⁵⁴ “40-Year Low for Murders,” 1.

⁵⁵ “Three Approaches to Prevention,” 1.

⁵⁶ “Hot Spots,” 1.

⁵⁷ “Hot Spots,” 1.

⁵⁸ “New Communities,” 1.

Besides identifying Hot Spots, the MPD also identifies Drug Free Zones. Under a law passed almost 9 years ago, the MPD can name any public area a no loitering zone for, at the most, 120 consecutive hours. Naming these zones and hot spots has allowed the MPD to target crime in very specific areas.

In an effort to involve the community in fighting crime, the MPD has developed various programs. One option for community members is to look out for “Open-Air MiniStations” set-up around DC periodically, more so in high crime areas, where one can file a police report and give or receive information about crimes, basic services available at any regular police station. Another major program, co-sponsored by the DC government, is the Citizen Advisory Councils. One council exists for each police district. The councils, made up of civilians, meet once a month with the Chief of Police to offer guidance to crime efforts in the district.

MDP’s third effort in its strategy against crime, Systemic Prevention, is the least developed of the three. It is meant to identify factors that are the “root of chronic, long-term problems,⁵⁹” like low quality education and unemployment. The MPD seems to recognize that this third effort requires much more cooperation across government departments and between programs, and cannot be addressed by the MPD alone. The MPD offers mostly awareness and information dispersion programs under this initiative.

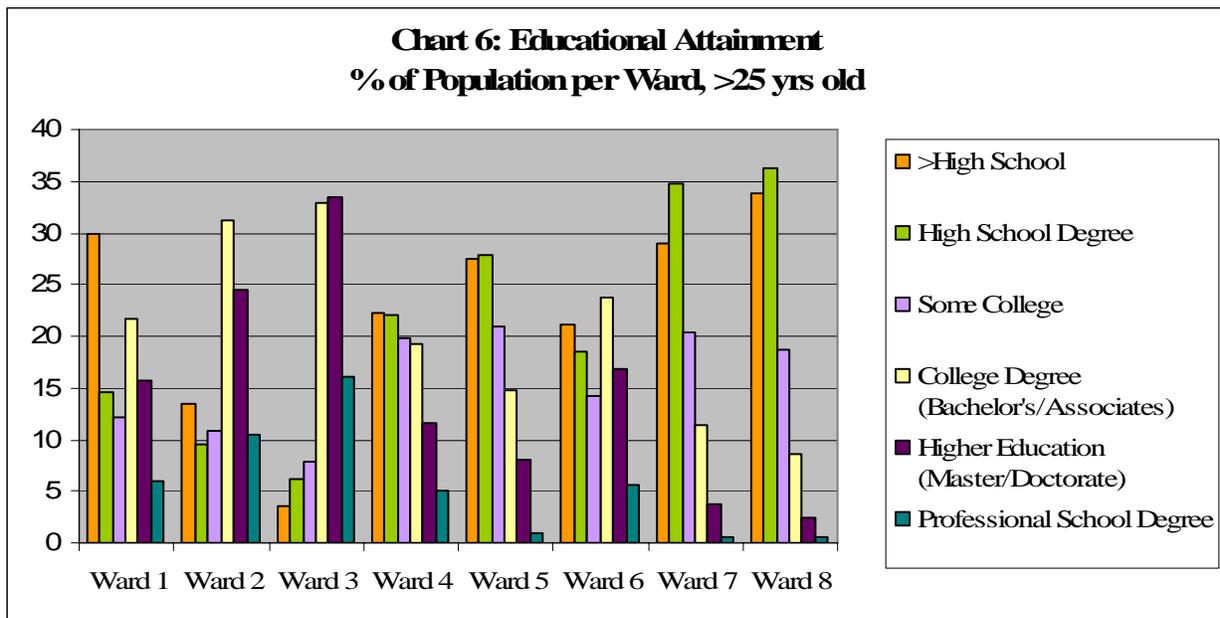
Overall, the programs and policies under the Crime focus area recognize short-term and long-term goals and are working towards those goals in some way. Prevention is the least developed solution. Proximity and coverage requirements are met through the creative programs that bring the police department to the people. Overall, the current

⁵⁹ “Systemic Prevention,” 1.

programs and policies establish a good basis for success on which other programs and polices can be established.

Education

The statistics that follow highlight education attainment in Washington, DC and will give the reader an idea of the disparity of educational attainment within DC, which has a lot to do with basic education. [See Chart 6]



SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, SF3 Data⁶⁰

Education in Washington is far more unorganized than the efforts under the crime focus area. This disorganization is partly due to politics. The city council won a year-long battle against the Mayor’s Office in April 2004, finally voting down what was called the “school takeover bill,⁶¹” proposed by Mayor Williams which would have kept a Board of Education from being established. The City Council’s legislation requires that

⁶⁰ Statistics from Charts 4B-1 & 6 were compiled from sources identified above; as shown on pp. 3, the Wards and Census Tracts do not line up perfectly. See Appendix IV for explanation on how discrepancies were resolved.

⁶¹ “Truce in the Takeover,” 1.

the Board of Education be an elected political body by the beginning of 2009. In the meantime, the Board will retain an appointed membership.

Policy behind public education remains debated. In January of 2006, DC City Council presented a “DC Education Rights Charter Amendment,” which requires a fundamental change in the Home Rule legislation of 1975. When enacted, the Home Rule law did not have a provision that *required* the DC government to establish “a system of free high quality public schools.⁶²” If the new legislation were enacted, DC public schools (DCPS) would be entitled to more funding from the DC government.

Another debate which affects DCPS is over charter versus public schools. The idea behind charter schools is to give residents of DC the option of sending their children to a different school if they find the nearby public school unsatisfactory. They are considered public schools, and receive funding, based on enrollment numbers, from the DC government like all DCPS. However, there are not enough charter schools to provide every child with a spot, so enrollment is on a first-come, first-served basis. Herein lies the controversy as charter schools take away funding which would otherwise go to local public schools. A parent-group called “Save Our Schools Southeast/Northeast” is active in the debate and is currently protesting Mayor Williams’s effort to establish a new charter school near RFK stadium. They argue that the only charter school that meets the congressional criteria for expansion, School of Education Evolution and Development (SEED) is a program that according to Save Our Schools has “flawed educational methods that have produced only 41 graduates since the school was founded in 1998.⁶³”

⁶² “Parents United for the DC Public Schools: Media Advisory,” 1.

⁶³ Sinzinger, 1.

Save Our Schools argues that the money that would go to SEED would be better spent on the DCPS that can serve everyone.

Despite the shaky political basis of the DCPS, Superintendent Clifford B. Janey, Ed. D. released an ambitious “Declaration of Education” in May, 2005. As is his role, Janey focuses on the current non-chartered public schools and their current difficulties. The plan he lays out in the Declaration is based on the DC Education Compact, a half-year discussion between all interested parties (students, volunteers, teachers, parents, etc.) on how to improve student achievement. The three goals outlined are to “improve teaching and learning..., provide more efficient management and operation systems to support teachers [and] to create a culture of ... open communications.”⁶⁴ Janey is also working in findings from a report presented by a committee of the Office of Special Education, which provided various recommendations for improvement of providing for the over 11,000 children in need of special education in DCPS.⁶⁵

While the goals are obviously necessary, DCPS requires an extremely well-planned timeline to achieve these goals without causing more problems. Difficulty was seen right away in Janey’s attempt to follow his plan by requiring all teachers in the District be certified. In January of 2006, he notified 1,100 uncertified teachers, a fourth of the total working in the district, that if they failed to show proof of certification by the end of the school year, they would be fired.⁶⁶ The policy has not been questioned because it requires certification, but rather “the system’s ability to recruit enough certified teachers to fill vacancies⁶⁷” is questioned.

⁶⁴ Janey, 1.

⁶⁵ Graham, 6.

⁶⁶ Haynes, 1.

⁶⁷ Haynes, 2.

Janey may get some help in implementation with the other goals as the DC City Council has proposed legislation that would give DCPS \$1 billion over the next ten years. This would complement the \$150 million already allocated to DCPS through the School Modernization Fund, which aims to address maintenance and construction issue in public schools.

Even though basic education is in the midst of reorganizing, adult education and assistance is fairly well-developed in DC. Adult education programs, focusing on attainment of basic and higher-level skills, exist throughout the city. According to the DC government sponsored public service site, 211 Answers, Please! there are 43 programs that offer some sort of adult education. Ten of these programs, almost a fourth of the programs exist in Ward 2. There are five in Ward 8 and four in Ward 1; every Ward has at least one program. Similarly, career-counseling programs, of which there are 51 according to the same site, exist in every Ward in the city. Ward 2 has the most programs, 15, while Ward 8 has five and Wards 1 and 5 each have four. Chart 6 shows that adult education programs are probably needed in every Ward because each Ward has a population over 25 years old that did not graduate high school. Wards 1, 5 & 8 have the greatest percentage of population that did not graduate from high school. Overall, the adult education and career counseling programs seem to focus on the correct Wards. Ward 2, which also has a large number, is the most connected ward which explains the high number of programs.

Education in DC is in dire need of improvement, but the plans laid out seem to adequately address most long-term concerns. Programs with short-term impacts, like tutoring programs and such are existent in every school, although after-school and

before-school programs could be added. All of the issues identified in Part II (teacher qualifications, special learning, etc.) are focused on in the new education policy. Overall, education needs a lot of work, but the current policies and programs seem to be a good start. Bring education up to an acceptable standard will take many years.

Health

Basic health requires the basic needs of food, clothing, housing and water. Programs that offer short-term and immediate assistance in obtaining clothing, food, housing and even rent or money for bills exist across the city. According to 211 Answers, Please! there are 237 different programs that offer food alone. The programs are spread out well in the city; almost no programs exist in Ward 3 which is appropriate. However, Ward 7 has the least amount of programs located directly in it even though it “leads all wards in death rates of diabetes, heart disease and other illnesses.”⁶⁸

Actual health care is also seemingly available in DC. There are 60 low-income or free health clinics spread out throughout the city. DC Healthy Families, a program run by the DC government, provides low-income families with children less than 18 years old and pregnant mothers with free health insurance. Health Right, a DC based provider, and Medicaid are both low-income health care providers in the District. Almost half of insurance coverage is provided by employers, one-fourth is provided by Medicaid and only 9% of the DC population remains uninsured.⁶⁹ Because of eligibility requirements, the majority of this 9% of the population are single males and unrelated females. The Health Care Safety Net Administration and DC Healthcare Alliance are both meant to

⁶⁸ Levine, 2.

⁶⁹ “Working Together for Health: Medicaid Annual Report,” 5.

target these residents who are otherwise left out. DC's health insurance efforts have been very successful, and "the District's uninsured rate is on of the lowest in the nation."⁷⁰

The DC government intends to continue promoting the successful Healthcare Alliance, a program that offers healthcare to individuals not insured through other programs. Besides this, the Mayor and City Council intend to expand "Medical Homes," another program led in association with the Brookings Institute that helps ensure that all health clinics improve primary care and that all residents have and know their doctor. Finally, Mayor Williams has proposed, in coordination with Howard University, a National Capital Medical Center. This hospital that will essentially address the lack of specialty doctors in the east part of the city as well as the "uneven distribution of hospitals throughout the city,"⁷¹ since DC General was closed.

The current health care programs and policies have excellent coverage and proximity. As pointed out, there are some focus populations that are not provided for, but current policies are working to change that. Long-term and short-term provisions are found as well as a well-developed clearinghouse (211 Answers, Please!) for available programs and policies. Overall, the current programs and policies seem to be having a positive impact as "the rate of avoidable hospitalization"⁷² has decreased, signifying better health in DC's poorest populations.

Community Development

If Anthony Williams has done anything in office, it has been supporting community development programs in the District. Each Ward has at least one currently active "Neighborhood and Revitalization Plan." Ward 6 has the most, including the first

⁷⁰ "National Capital Medical Center," 4.

⁷¹ "National Capital Medical Center," 8.

⁷² "National Capital Medical Center," 5.

New Community Project in Northwest One. Ward 7 and 3 only have one program each, and Wards 4 and 8 only have two programs each. As far as coverage of the appropriate areas, the small number of programs in Ward 4, 8 and 7 are not ideal. However, both Wards 7 and 8 will be highly affected by the huge Anacostia Waterfront Initiative discussed below.

The main community development programs are outlined below. The majority of the programs referred to in the last paragraph are part of or similar to one of these four projects.

- **New Communities Initiative**

As mentioned before, this program works with the Hot Spots initiative sponsored by the MPD. The goal of this initiative is to use community development to “maintain the gains that have been made,⁷³” through the Hot Spots program. Through development, “the concentration of poverty and crime⁷⁴” will be decreased; the goal is to establish a mixed-income neighborhood. Further, to keep families from staying in poverty, programs are created in conjunction with the development programs that “strengthen families by providing opportunities for education, training, job and childcare.⁷⁵” Northwest One, located in Ward 6 and encompassing Hot Spot Sursum Corda has been designated as the first New Community, and a plan of action is being developed now.

- **Great Streets Initiative**

This program responds to Mayor Williams' conviction that “major corridors ... have significant potential to be “great streets” – places where people want to be.⁷⁶” The initiative is significantly backed by the local government and has been designated up to \$16 million in 2006 budget. Seven initial corridors have been identified: Georgia Avenue NW, H Street NE, Benning Road NE, MLK Jr. Avenue SE with South Capitol Street, Pennsylvania Avenue SE, Minnesota Avenue and Nannie Helen Burroughs Avenue NE. Many of these corridors will complement the Anacostia Waterfront Initiative. The initiative is well-focused with no projects in Ward 3, four in Ward 7 and three in both Ward 8 and 6. Most of the design and planning for the corridors is done and major construction is due to start at the end of this year and throughout 2007.

⁷³ “From Hot Spots to New Communities,” 1.

⁷⁴ “From Hot Spots to New Communities,” 1.

⁷⁵ “From Hot Spots to New Communities,” 1.

⁷⁶ “Great Streets: Avenues of Opportunity,” 1.

- **Hope VI Program**

Hope VI is a federal program introduced by the Department of Housing and Urban Development over ten years ago. Washington, DC “is the 4th largest recipient of Hope VI funding nationally,⁷⁷” and has implemented projects in Carrolsburg, Wheeler Creed, New East Capitol, Capitol Hill and Henson Ridge. The projects are generally described as successful, in part due to the regulations of the HOPE VI Program. Recognizing that physical infrastructure change is not enough, the Program requires every plan to include a Community and Supportive Services Program (CSSP). The CSSP is meant to “provide for economic development and self-sufficiency programs, such as job training.⁷⁸” Funding for the program has been cut at the federal level for the past two years, but a bill proposed last year hoped to revive the program, setting aside “\$600 million... for the HOPE VI program through 2011.⁷⁹”

- **Anacostia Waterfront Initiative (AWI)**

This initiative was designed by a coalition of federal and District agencies in 2000. Since this initial agreement, 8 target areas have been identified and planning for the projects in these areas has begun. [See **Appendix V**] These projects are guided by the AWI Framework Plan which encourages planning along five themes: restore, connect, play, celebrate and live. The 8 target areas are meant to maintain a neighborhood feel while providing access and space to visitors (think Downtown Baltimore or the Riverwalk in San Antonio.) The 8 target areas are: Southwest Waterfront, South Capitol Street Corridor, Near Southeast, Poplar Point, East of the River Gateway, Kingman and Heritage Islands and Anacostia Riverwalk/Riverparks. According to the current timeline, significant construction would begin by 2010.

The programs have received wide-spread political support, and most have made tremendous efforts to include community opinion in the development of the programs and plans, but serious reservations about the plans remain in a large part of the population. The first concern is simply budgeting. According to a study released by the Center for Washington Area Studies (CWAS) at George Washington University, all current DC infrastructure needs require a at least \$16 billion and at the most \$31 billion over the next 20 years. The Federal Contribution last year was a measly \$800 million, not even approaching the CWAS estimates. DC will have more difficulty than other

⁷⁷ “Hope VI,” 2.

⁷⁸ “Hope VI,” 1.

⁷⁹ Lemke, 1.

major cities in meeting budget needs because “unlike other major U.S. cities, major infrastructure costs, such as those for transportation... cannot be shared with a state government.⁸⁰” Community members, like Walter Smith of the advocacy group D.C. Appleseed, are concerned that the AWI and other projects may be unfinished efforts, “if planners get behind in their goals, there’s a risk they’ll never catch up... and the history of the region suggest little margin for error.⁸¹” For funding, the DC government is considering a variety of taxes focused mostly on residents *outside* the city, like a commuter tax or an amendment that will allow DC to tax the incomes of those who work within the city limits. Also, DC has been highly successful in getting local groups and nonprofits involved in development. DC’s Grant Funding Alert, a successful newsletter, alerts local groups and nonprofits to applicable grant programs.

The general mixed reviews about past housing development efforts lead to more concern about community development efforts. Three years ago, many DC residents who took part in housing projects sponsored by U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) were unexpectedly threatened to be kicked out of their homes. While HUD claimed they had every right to foreclose because certain regulations had not been met, DC residents maintained that “they [had] never received training, technical assistance or effective monitoring from the HUD project manager.⁸²” This tend of not focusing on the impact of programs on residents has resonated in the current program development plans as well. The new housing projects have forced some “out of their homes by rising costs.⁸³” The debate on gentrification is not a new one in DC. In 2004,

⁸⁰ Hanson, 5.

⁸¹ Goffman, 5.

⁸² Johnson, 1.

⁸³ “Is it Really ‘Affordable?’” 1.

despite the fact that many DC residents displaced during the Clifton Terrace apartment reconstruction had “hosing vouchers,” most were unable to find housing anywhere except another poor part of DC, increasing the strain on resources there. Further, many were not able to return to their neighborhoods after reconstruction because of increased prices.

To address this issue, the DC Campaign for Mandatory Inclusionary Zoning (DCMIZ) has been very active. Inclusionary Zoning is a provision that would require developers in the city to reserve a certain amount of truly affordable housing for moderate and low-income families. In March of 2005, the DCMIZ succeeded in its efforts when “the Zoning Commission (ZC) issued an historic ruling... creating a Mandatory Inclusionary Zoning program⁸⁴” in DC. The DCMIZ explains the importance of this ruling stating that “The District’s long term health depends on housing for its workforce.⁸⁵”

The programs and policies focusing on community development are well-developed and highly ambitious. If done properly, they could have very positive effects on the low-income neighborhoods in DC, but programs must be sure to not simply displace the problem or make it worse.

Recognition

A variety of problems are definitely recognized in Washington, DC. Many of the programs and policies implemented in DC mention poverty as a cause of other problems or as a condition faced by the residents. Poverty is not considered a problem in and of itself with its own causes that must be addressed. Instead, poverty is used to identify someone who *needs* services. In the Neighborhood Action Plans worked on

⁸⁴ “DC Campaign for Mandatory Inclusionary Zoning,” 1.

⁸⁵ “DC Campaign for Mandatory Inclusionary Zoning,” 1.

collaboratively by the Mayor's Office and the local neighborhood committee, top priorities for each neighborhood cluster were identified. The priorities ranged from decreasing traffic to increasing economic opportunity, but none mentioned poverty alleviation directly, even though most of the problems listed are "needs of poverty" as identified in Part I of this research. Even neighborhoods with more than 40% of the population in poverty do not identify "poverty" as a problem. [See Chart 4A] The Citizens Summit, held in November of 2005, also failed to identify poverty *as a problem* in DC, despite the fact that over a quarter of the attendees were in poverty. As mentioned before, the District sponsors a very thorough public service website, 211 Answers, Please! On this site, there is no specified group of programs self-identified as assisting in poverty alleviation or anything else poverty focused.

Last year Bill 16-387 was introduced to the DC Council recommending the establishment of a "Commission on Poverty." This is an incredible step towards recognizing poverty as problem rather than an indicator. The legislation has since been revised and renamed to the "Commission on Poverty in the District of Columbia Establishment Act of 2006." The legislation is slowly receiving endorsement, the last from the Committee of Human Services in March; it should go up for a vote of approval this year. According to the report released in March, the bill will:

"Create a Commission on Poverty that will work to improve the quality of life for those individuals living below the federally established poverty guidelines. The Commission is tasked with serving as advocates for those living in poverty, and will review and evaluate programs and agencies that work to address poverty, as

well as recommend action to address the needs of impoverished residents of the District.⁸⁶”

The report also recognizes the unique situation of poverty in DC, the disparity caused by poverty and the resilience of poverty itself, requires “close examination.”⁸⁷ The Commission would be established for a two-year period with 21 members, at least five of which must have direct experience living in poverty.

While a guide for poverty alleviation efforts in DC does not exist currently, the Commission on Poverty could fulfill that role. The proposed commission use of the government poverty guidelines is less than desirable as is their focus on programs that impact poverty, as there are not many that nominally and directly focus on poverty. The Commission, if it gets created, should discover these trends and adjust their mission accordingly. Aspects that should be added in include promoting the truth about poverty, so as to increase support as well as increasing coordination between programs that address *different needs* of poverty.

Concerns

The five focus areas are all addressed in some form in Washington, DC, however, there remain some key concerns. Prevention efforts are most lacking in programs established under the crime focus area. The MPD recognizes the need for these programs, suggesting through the few they offer that youth recreation opportunities in targeted areas are the best preventative response. This is the right response, reports released by the Special Committee on the Prevention of Youth Violent Crime suggest that “idleness [is] one of the major factors contributing to the rise in violent offenses by

⁸⁶ Fenty, 1.

⁸⁷ Fenty, 3.

children.⁸⁸ Working against an issue like idleness requires collaborative effort; MPD lacks the resources to cover the needy populations. What the MPD does have is a proven ability to identify at-risk areas that can be used by other programs in a collaborative effort. Overall, there seems to be few options for youth activities in the more poor neighborhoods due to a mixture of violence and lack of appropriate public space. Who should assist the MPD in an effort to provide youth activities is debatable— the Public School system definitely has enough on its plate, and communities cannot assist until space is available. If poverty were to be identified properly, with the correct causes and needs, as established in Part II, then a Commission on Poverty would be perfect in coordinating this type of effort. Prevention through youth activity will not be possible without increased coordination.

Most of the programs and policies under each focus area recognize either that there is a need for long-term and short-term responses to poverty or that their specific efforts only address short-term needs and long-term “prevention” programs need to be developed. Community Development is the only focus area with programs that seem to ignore entirely short-term effects on residents in favor of intended long-term impacts. This is mistake as it adds to stress and to the difficulty of the daily lives of people in poor neighborhoods, continuing the poverty cycle. This lack of concern for short-term effects is connected to a general lack of attention paid to the vulnerable populations as identified in Part II (single-parent households, etc.). While insurance coverage is extremely high in Washington, DC, it almost completely excludes single-adults, one of the identified high-risk populations. Also, as mentioned in Part II, it is not an ideal or plausible solution to encourage all residents to simply leave bad neighborhoods. In the same sense, it is not

⁸⁸ Kirk, 1.

plausible or right to kick residents out, especially if they are part of the vulnerable population. The researcher was greatly concerned by the “Right to Return Protocol” attached to the New Communities program. DC has made it a goal to create “economically integrated communities⁸⁹” (described as more ambitious than regular renovations). However, this basically means that returning to the communities is not automatic for displaced residents. The “Right to Return” protocol is still being developed, but, according to the “Frequently Asked Questions” section of the New Communities Initiative, the Right to Return Protocol will “govern eligibility for families to return to new housing units.⁹⁰” The proposed rules consider things like past crime convictions, credit history or substance abuse history. While it is understandable that one may not want to ship crime back into to newly developed neighborhoods, an argument of against stereotyping is easy to make as well as an argument that keeping out individuals with problems that are due, in part, to the *structural* poverty in which they live is unjust. Not allowing people to return simply does not solve the problem of poverty and, instead, displaces it along with the residents. All families in the vicinity of the New Community will, whether they moved or not, will be subject to the Right to Return protocol.

Recognition of poverty as a problem is definitely lacking in DC. Certain health care providers recognized that simply providing insurance is not enough, “a lot of what we see here has to do with people’s state of poverty... struggling against debilitating, chaotic lifestyles.⁹¹” This is exactly why poverty must be identified as a cause and not an indicator. Issues of poverty that encompass the entire problem, like the poverty cycle, and the existence of overlapping problems are only partially affected by all the programs

⁸⁹ Popkin, 2.

⁹⁰ “Northwest One Community Outreach,” 1.

⁹¹ Levine, 2.

separately. They are not *directly* targeted, which allows them to persist easily.

Coordination is necessary to combat these overarching issues. Further, currently, the programs are making the classic mistake identified by Kettner, Moroney & Martin of identifying the problem as the solution, making the problem part of the solution (poverty becomes the identification for those in need, rather a cause of their neediness.) Only with proper recognition can poverty be combated properly.

The need for collaboration, not specifically on poverty, but in general was mentioned by a large majority of policies and programs under each of the focus areas. Crime and health programs especially recognized this needs, noting that to succeed in sustaining the progress their programs make, the progress cannot be undermined by continued problems in other aspects of life. Building upon this recognition, a Commission on Poverty could have great influence. The purpose established by the Commission was disheartening. Right off, they established the focus population as those “individual living below the federally established poverty guidelines,⁹²” which under-represent the population suffering the condition of poverty. However, later, within the report, they do identify that definitions often “fail to measure the number of people who are struggling to survive.⁹³” Which position the commission will base their analysis (if the commission is created), is still unsure. Further, the Commission will only study the condition of poverty and make recommendations. While studying the condition is obviously necessary, this Commission could do much more. The Commission will surely discover the need for a collaborative effort and the need for a leader in that effort through their own analysis. And, while, the Commission does not mean to directly affect poverty,

⁹² Fenty, 1.

⁹³ Fenty, 3.

it has great potential to play the necessary role of guide and to lead in the creation of increased collaboration between the various programs that impact poverty.

Conclusion

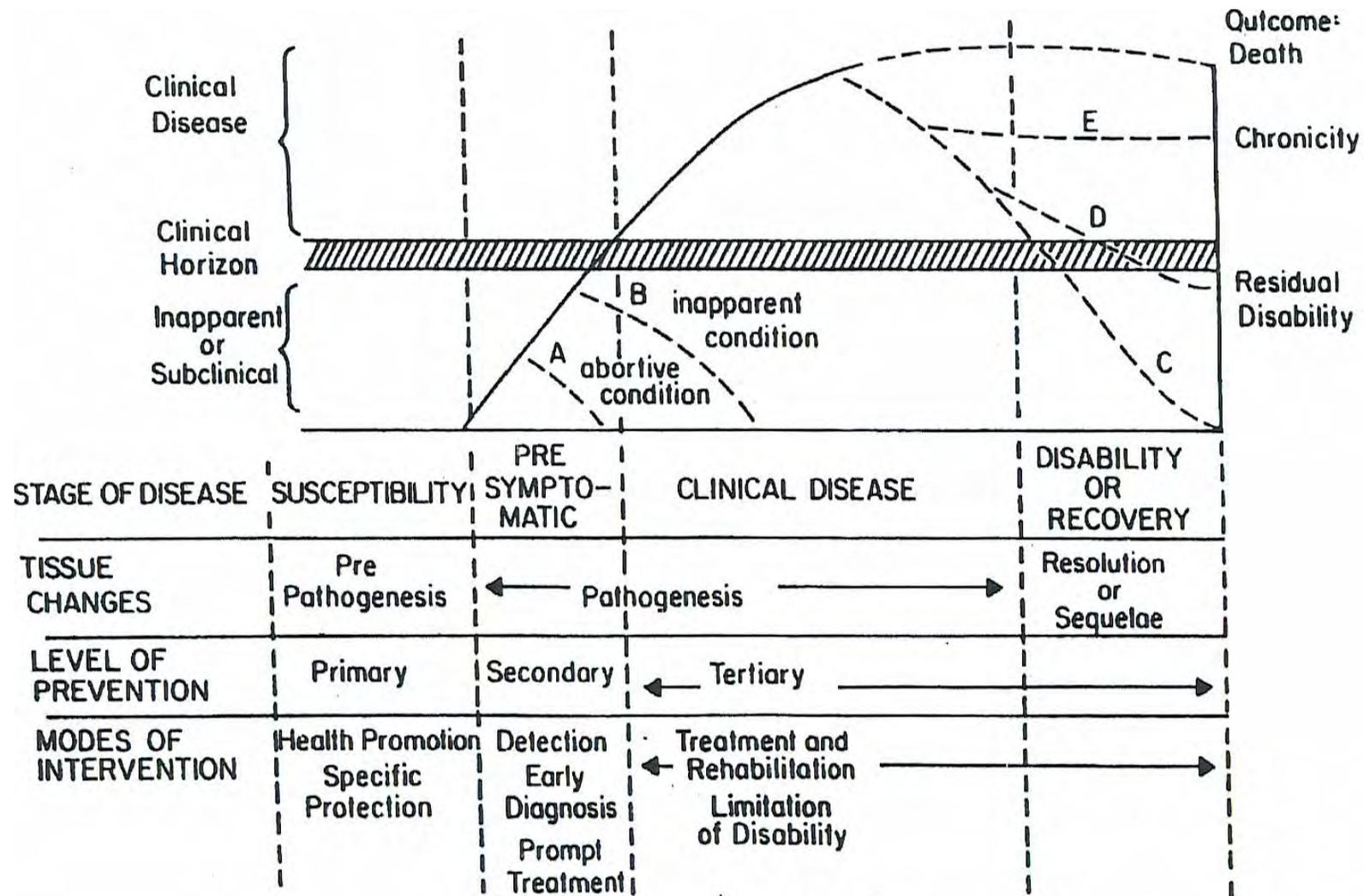
There is no direct effort against poverty in Washington, DC, which is huge hindrance to a successful alleviation of poverty. However, the five areas are all addressed and some coordination exists between them. The Education focus area needs the most improvement; however, judging by the impulses behind change and reformation, the outlook is positive for the creation of a well-rounded and successful public school system in DC. The Community Development focus area is the most volatile. The vast array of development programs across the city and tremendous amount of money involved lead to a barely stable situation that can be hindered by any number of set-backs. Also, the programs do not seem to adequately focus on at-risk populations. This, of course, could be adjusted. However, if it is not, problems could become worse for those populations.

Ward 7 appears to be in danger of sliding into a deeper condition of poverty. It has high indicators of crime, a high population that is in poverty and a low education attainment, but Ward 8 is worse off in all indicators. Because of this, Ward 8 is intently focused on while Ward 7 is often ignored; Ward 7 has only one community development program, no hospital and the least number of health care programs.]The lack of attention paid to Ward 7 by program directors and policy makers across the board could allow problems to easily displace from other wards to Ward 7.

Overall, the *capability* of DC, as in sheer numbers of programs and funding, is present for a successful campaign against poverty. The programs have, overall, successfully identified the areas most in need, although more attention should be paid to Ward 7. Further, the energy and enthusiasm behind the programs and policies is

encouraging. The main need remains for DC to identify poverty as an important problem and for local government to provide guidance in an integrative effort against poverty. The Commission would be a great first step for DC is recognizing poverty as an issue with its own causes. As a first step, it is highly recommended by this research that the DC Council pass the Bill 16-387, establish a Commission on Poverty and work towards a coordinated poverty alleviation effort.

Appendix I: Health Promotion Schematic



Schematic representation of the natural history of disease.

SOURCE: Hand-out in *HEST 444: Global Patterns of Disease*. (Spring 2006) Professor Jose Teruel, MD. Georgetown University

Appendix II: Poverty Entries & Exits, Tables and Math

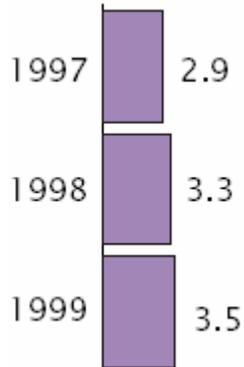
Number of People Entering and Exiting Poverty: 1996 and 1999



SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation, *Dynamics of Economic Well-Being 1996-1999*, see bibliography

Poverty Entries

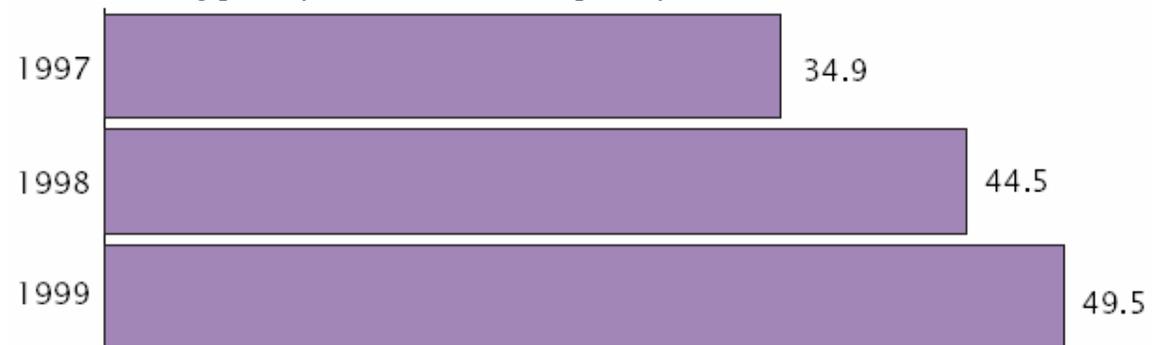
Percent of People Who Were Not Poor in 1996 But Poor in 1997, 1998 or 1999
(Percent entering poverty based on an annual poverty measure)



SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation, *Dynamics of Economic Well-Being 1996-1999*, see bibliography

Poverty Exits

Percent of People Who Were Poor in 1996 But Not Poor in 1997, 1998 or 1999
(Percent exiting poverty based on an annual poverty measure)



SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation, *Dynamics of Economic Well-Being 1996-1999*, see bibliography

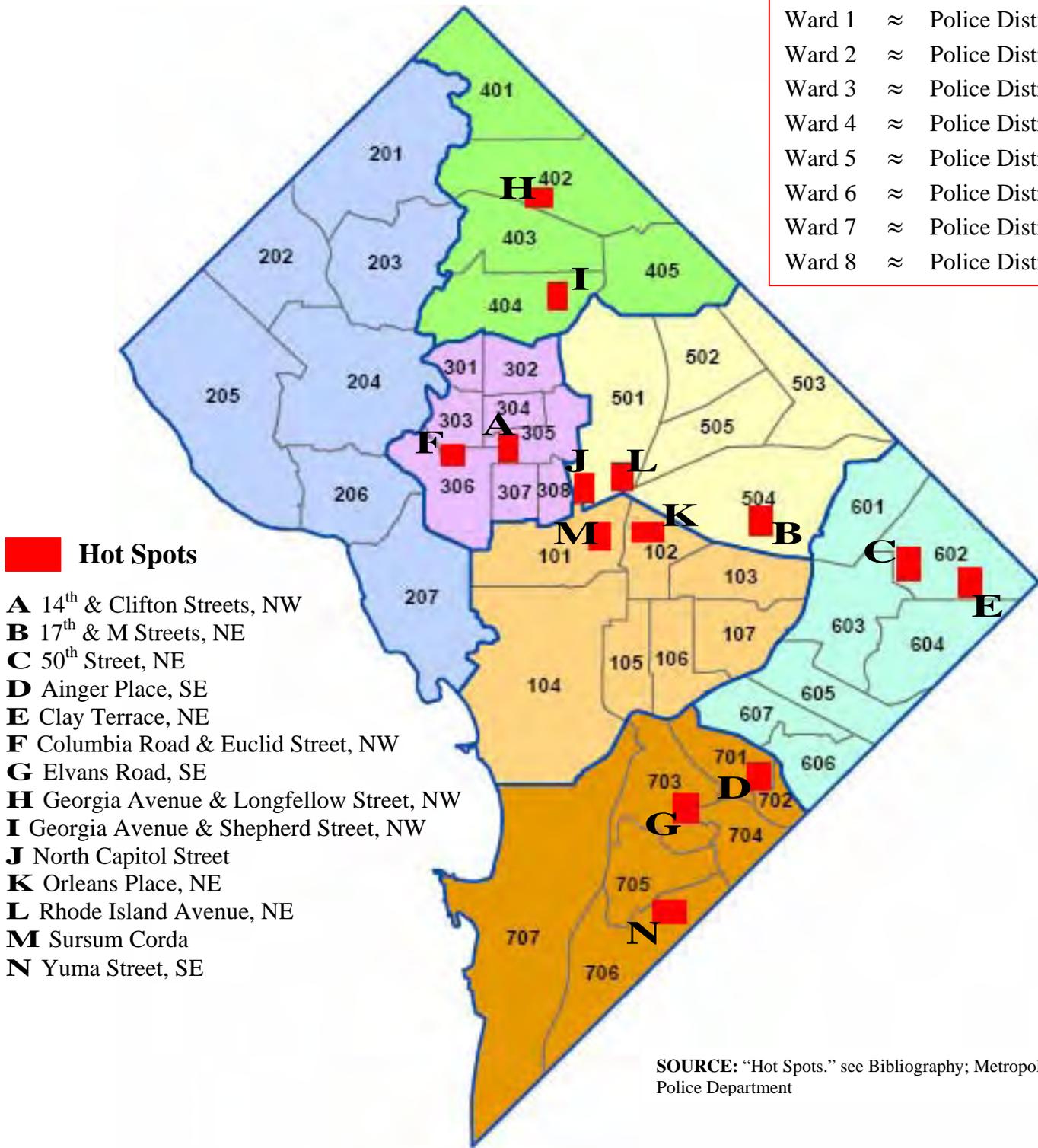
Math Used to Compute Hypothetical Poor Population (pp. 21)

Year	1993	1996	1999
Exit		<i>-14.8</i>	<i>-14.8</i>
Entry		<i>+7.6</i>	<i>+7.6</i>
# Poor (in millions)	36.8	29.6	22.4

Italicized numbers were given. The rest were estimated using the given numbers.

Appendix III: Police Districts and Hot Spots 2006⁹⁴

Wards Compared to Districts		
Ward 1	≈	Police District 3 (300s)
Ward 2	≈	Police Districts 1 & 2
Ward 3	≈	Police District 2
Ward 4	≈	Police District 4
Ward 5	≈	Police Districts 1 & 5
Ward 6	≈	Police District 1
Ward 7	≈	Police District 6
Ward 8	≈	Police District 7



SOURCE: "Hot Spots." see Bibliography; Metropolitan Police Department

⁹⁴ These are the general locations of the Hot Spots; size of red rectangle is not relative to size of problem.

Appendix IV: U.S. Census Bureau Tracts by DC Wards

SOURCE: DC Government; <http://www.planning.dc.gov/planning/cwp/view,a,3,q,570104.asp>

Ward 1	Ward 2	Ward 3	Ward 4	Ward 5	Ward 6	Ward 7	Ward 8
5.01*	1.00	3.00*	14.01*	23.02	46.00*	76.03	73.01
27.01	2.01	4.00	14.02*	33.01	47.00*	76.04	73.02
27.02	2.02	5.01*	15.00	33.02	48.02*	76.05*	73.04
28.01	3.00*	5.02	16.00	34.00*	58.00*	77.03	73.08
28.02	41.00	6.00	17.01	46.00*	59.00	77.07	74.01
29.00	42.01*	7.01	17.02	86.00*	60.01*	77.08	74.03
30.00	42.02	7.02	18.01	87.01	60.02	77.09	74.04
31.00	43.00*	8.01	18.03	87.02	61.00*	78.03	74.06
32.00	47.00*	8.02	18.04	88.02	62.01*	78.04	74.07
34.00*	48.01*	9.01	19.01	88.03	62.02*	78.06	74.08
35.00	48.02*	9.02	19.02	88.04	63.01	78.07	74.09
36.00	49.01	10.01	20.01	89.03	63.02	78.08	75.02
37.00	49.02	10.02	20.02	89.04	64.00	78.09	75.03
38.00	50.00	11.00	21.01	89.05	65.00	79.03	75.04
39.00	51.00	12.00	21.02	90.00	66.00	96.01	76.01
40.01	52.01	13.01	22.01	91.01	67.00	96.02	76.05*
40.02	52.02	13.02	22.02	91.02	68.01	96.03	97.00
42.01*	53.01	14.01*	23.01	92.01	68.02	96.04	98.01
43.00*	53.02	14.02*	24.00	92.03	68.04	99.01	98.02
44.00	54.01		25.01	92.04	69.00	99.02	98.03
48.01*	54.02		25.02	93.01	70.00	99.03	98.04
	55.00		26.00	93.02	71.00	99.04	98.06
	56.00		95.05	94.00	72.00	99.05	98.07
	57.01		95.07	95.01	79.01	99.06	98.08
	57.02			95.03	80.01	99.07	98.09
	58.00*			95.04	80.02		
	60.01*			95.08	81.00		
	61.00*			95.09	82.00		
	62.01*				83.01		
	62.02*				83.02		
					84.02		
					84.10		
					85.00		
					86.00*		

***Census Tracts that are split between two DC Wards**

The Census Bureau provides statistics based on Census Tracts. These tracts do not always fit perfectly within the Wards used by the DC government to separate the city. In order to present the statistics the CB provides in a meaningful way, the discrepancies of the borders must be addressed. Presenting the statistics by Wards is more helpful because most people recognize the separation of DC by Wards rather than Census Tracts.

<u>Census Tract</u>	<u>Resolution</u>
3.00	Halved almost perfectly between Wards 3 & 2; available statistics will be included as both Ward 3 and Ward 2 statistics
5.01	Located mostly in Ward 1; available statistics will be included as Ward 1 statistics
14.01	Located mostly in Ward 3; available statistics will be included as Ward 3 statistics
14.02	Located mostly in Ward 4; available statistics will be included as Ward 4 statistics
34.00	Located almost entirely in Ward 1; available statistics will be included as Ward 1 statistics
42.01	Split between Wards 1 & 2; Located right next to Census Tract 43.00; both tracts are in the same DC-defined neighborhood cluster (Cluster 3). Because of the close proximity and shared neighborhood resources (and to minimize the inclusion of statistics twice), available statistics for Ward 42.01 will be included in Ward 1; statistics for Tract 43.00 will be included in Ward 2
43.00	See Resolution for Census Tract 42.01; all available statistics will be included in Ward 2
46.00	Located almost entirely in Ward 5; available statistics will be included as Ward 5 statistics
47.00	Located almost entirely in Ward 6; available statistics will be included as Ward 6 statistics
48.01	Located almost entirely in Ward 2; available statistics will be included as Ward 2 statistics
48.02	Located almost entirely in Ward 2; available statistics will be included as Ward 2 statistics
58.00	Located almost entirely in Ward 2; available statistics will be included as Ward 2 statistics
60.01	Split between Wards 2 & 6; Located next to Census Tracts 61.00 & 62.01, both also split between Wards 2 & 6. To minimize the inclusion of statistics twice, all available statistics for Tract 60.01 will be included as Ward 6 statistics; see below for other tracts

- 61.00 See Resolution for Census Tract 60.01; available statistics will be included as both Ward 2 and Ward 6 statistics
- 62.01 See Resolution for Census Tract 60.01; available statistics will be included as Ward 2 statistics
- 62.02 Located almost entirely in Ward 2; available statistics will be included as Ward 2 statistics
- 76.05 Located almost entirely in Ward 7; available statistics will be included as Ward 7 statistics
- 86.00 Located almost entirely in Ward 6; available statistics will be included as Ward 6 statistics

Appendix V: Anacostia Waterfront Initiative Target Areas (Eight in Total)



SOURCE: "The AWI Target Areas." see Bibliography

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