UNITED STATES COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS

THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA: AN OVERVIEW

STAFF REPORT

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Acknowledgements

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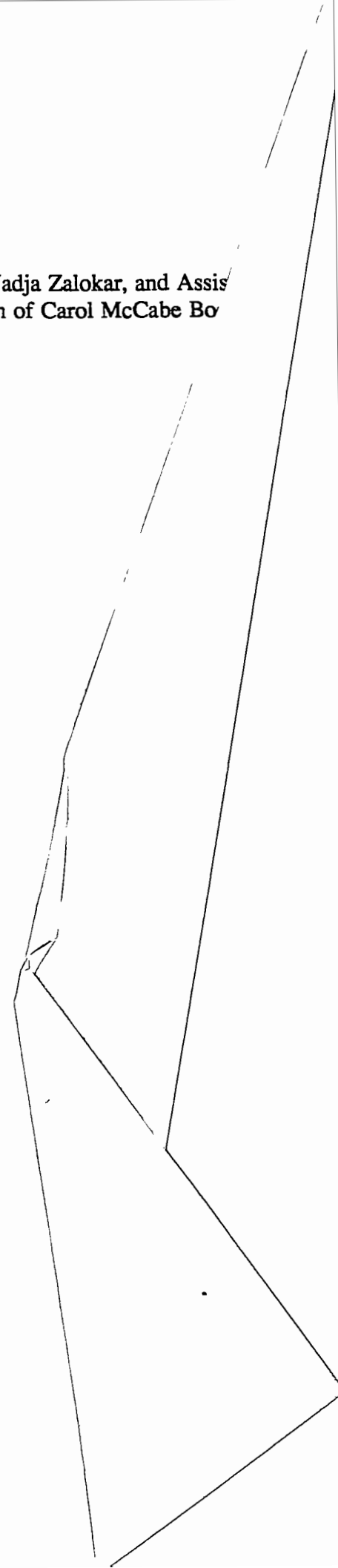

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INTRODUCTION

In May of 1991, racial and ethnic tensions erupted into three days of violence and looting in the Latino neighborhoods of Mount Pleasant and Adams Morgan. The disturbance was sparked by the shooting of a Salvadoran man by a District police officer.

In the aftermath of the disturbance, the D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force was formed. The Task Force attributed the disturbance to police abuses, discriminatory hiring practices by the D.C. government, and disproportionately few services and contracts provided to the Latino community. The Task Force warned that violence could explode in the near future if these underlying problems, needs and grievances were not addressed. It then requested that the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights initiate a hearing into the treatment of Latinos in the District of Columbia and investigate police-community relations, equal employment opportunities for Latinos within the D.C. Government, and delivery of services to the Latino community.

The District of Columbia Advisory Committee to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights held a briefing on May 15, 1991 to gather comments on the civil rights complaints and community grievances emerging from the disturbances in Mount Pleasant and neighboring areas. Subsequently, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights authorized a public hearing to be held January 29-31, 1992.

This staff report provides background material on the District of Columbia, both current and historic, with a particular emphasis on the District's Hispanic community and the Mount Pleasant/Adams Morgan neighborhoods where many District Hispanics live. In so doing, it recognizes that national trends tell much about local institutions and events.

Chapter I examines the structure of the District of Columbia's government. As the capital of our nation, the District government has many unique responsibilities and constraints in governing its municipality, which may affect is ability to provide social services to its residents in need.

Chapter II discusses demographic and economic trends over the past twenty years, including the growing ethnic and racial diversity of our population, increasing income inequality, and the current economic recession. The chapter also examines trends in the socioeconomic status of Hispanic Americans. These national trends serve as a backdrop for the next chapter, which focuses on how these trends affect the District of Columbia.

Chapter III describes Washington D.C. and looks at many of the same socioeconomic trends discussed in the preceding chapter as they affect the District of Columbia, the Mount Pleasant/Adams Morgan neighborhoods, and the District's Central American, largely El Salvadoran, population, which has been responsible for much of the growth in the District's Hispanic population in recent years.

The remaining chapters, Chapter IV through Chapter VII provide background information on the provision of social services in the District of Columbia. Chapter IV covers a variety of social and human services; Chapter V looks at housing; Chapter VI discusses the Metropolitan Police; and Chapter VII considers the District's public school system.

I
THE DISTRICT GOVERNMENT

A. *Historical Introduction.*

The District of Columbia's odyssey as a political entity has been fascinating, if not always consistent. The District has evolved in perception, growth, forms of government, and political representation. This evolution is likely to continue unabated in the decades to come as the District and the Nation address issues concerning both the Federal seat of government and the District's residents. An understanding of the political growth of the District will allow many facets of today's issues to be comprehended.

The District is in part an outgrowth of distinctive 18th century apprehension about the Federal Government's ability, as a sovereign nation, to protect itself. This concern is evidenced by a pre-Constitution incident in which the Continental Congress was meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. In 1783, soldiers, angered over Congress' failure to pay them, rebelled and confronted Congress. Congress' request for assistance to Pennsylvania was futile.[1] Congress, thereupon, relocated in Princeton, New Jersey.[2]

James Madison, in number 43 of the *Federalist Papers*, expressed the concern for Federal control:

> The indispensable necessity of complete authority at the seat of government carries its own evidence with it. It is a power exercised by every legislature of the Union . . . by virtue of its general supremacy. Without it not only the public authority might be insulted and its proceedings interrupted with impunity, but a dependence of the members of the general government on the State comprehending the seat of government for protection in the exercise of their duty might bring on the national councils an imputation of awe or influence equally

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[1] [S]ome troops, stationed at Lancaster, [Pennsylvania] mutinied and though they did not openly threaten congress, their purpose was to force some definite action in regard to their back pay. Congress appealed to the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania but was told that no reliance could be placed on the state militia . . . .

Note, *Home Rule for the District of Columbia Without Constitutional Amendment*, 3 GEO. WASH. L. REV. 205 (1935) (hereafter *Home Rule*).

[2] "[T]he congressional leadership 'signified, that, if the city would not support Congress, it was high time to remove to some other place' . . . ." Raven-Hansen, *Congressional Representation for the District of Columbia: A Constitutional Analysis*, 12 HARV. J. ON LEGIS. 167 169 (1975), quoting 5 *Elliott's Debates in the Congress of the Confederacy* 92-93 (1901).

See generally Constance M. Green, *Washington: Village and Capital, 1800-1878* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1962), pp. 8-11; and Judith Best, *National Representation for the District of Columbia* (Frederick, MD: University Publications of America, 1989), pp. 14-15.

> dishonorable to the government and dissatisfactory to the other members of the Confederacy.[3]

As a result of such concerns, the Constitution of the United States, in Article I, Section 8, clause 17, provides that the Congress has the authority:

> To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases . . . over [the] district . . . as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States . . . .

Both Maryland and Virginia in 1788[4] and 1789,[5] respectively, authorized land to be granted to the Federal Government for the new capital.[6]

The District was divided into two counties, Washington and Alexandria, in 1801.[7] Subsequently, the District was partitioned into five governments: the counties of Alexandria and Washington, the cities of Alexandria and Washington, and the town of Georgetown.[8] After many decades, the former Virginia land played a limited role in the District, with no Federal buildings. As a result, the residents petitioned both Congress and the Commonwealth to be returned to Virginia. Eventually, in 1846, the Virginia land was returned (or retroceded) to the Commonwealth of Virginia.[9]

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[3] *Federalist Papers*, (J. Madison), no. 43, 271, 272 (New York: Mentor Books, 1961), pp. 271-272.

[4] Act of Dec. 23, 1788, 2 Kilty Laws of Md., ch. 46, *reprinted* in 1 D.C. CODE ANN. 33 (1991).

[5] Act of Dec. 3, 1789, 13 Hening's Stat. 43, *reprinted in* 1 D.C. CODE ANN. 32-33 (1991). *See* Home Rule, *supra* note 1, at 206 n. 8-9.

[6] The clause "was effectuated in 1788 and 1789 when Maryland and Virginia ceded territory to the Federal Government, and Congress, by acts which were approved on July 16, 1790, and March 3, 1791, established the District of Columbia. After the elections of 1800, the District of Columbia was proclaimed to be the national capital. On the first Monday of December, 1800, jurisdiction over the District was vested in the United States." *Hobson v. Tobriner*, 255 F.Supp. 295, 297 (1966).

The Federal Government accepted the land but with the provision that the state law would continue to government "until the time fixed for removal of the [Federal] government thereto, and until Congress shall otherwise by law provide." *See Home Rule, supra* note 1, at 206, citing Act of July 16, 1790, 1 Stat. 130.

The complexity of the cession of the current District is seen in the five acts resulting in the cessation of the land: An Act to Cede to Congress a District of Ten Miles Square in This State for the Seat of Government of the United States; An Act concerning the Territory of Columbia and the City of Washington (ratifying the cession); and supplementary acts in 1792 and 1793. *See* 1 D.C. CODE ANN 33-41 (1991).

[7] Act of Feb. 27, 1801, 2 Stat. 193.

[8] *See Home Rule*, supra note 1, at 205-06.

[9] District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 8 (August 1991), p. 9.

After the petition, Virginia:

(continued...)

B. Form of Government and Electoral Participation.

While the Constitution established the authority to create the District, it did not grant its residents any authority to participate in the election of members of Congress or the Executive, or even the election of District leadership.[10] For a brief period, before Congress assumed control, residents did have the opportunity to vote in the respective states from which the land was ceded--the last such election being 1800.[11] Congress possesses, except to the extent delegated to the District, the dual power of a local and national legislature.[12] Congressional authority over the District is plenary, and it may change the District's form of government.

The government has varied considerably over time. In 1801, Congress established the first District government with legislation establishing the two counties and requiring presidential appointees for justices of peace, judge of the orphans' court, and a register of wills. The following year, the city of Washington was chartered. A mayor was appointed by the President and a two body council was popularly elected. The council was replaced by a board of aldermen and board of common council in 1812. In 1820, a new charter allowed an elected mayor along with the two boards.

In 1871 Congress simplified the form of government in the District by creating a single entity instead of the multiple governments of the county of Washington, city of Washington, and town of Georgetown. Accepting a territorial form of government, the structure gave the President the authority, with the consent of Congress, to appoint a governor. During this period, a two house legislature was established, with popular election of the lower house and a presidentially appointed upper house.[13]

In 1874, the government was again changed, apparently because of fiscal problems of the District, with three presidentially appointed commissioners charged with the administration of the District.[14] It was not until 1967 that this commissioner form of government was changed. At that time, President Johnson established a mayor-council government, with the mayor named by

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[9](...continued)

> immediately passed an act offering to accept the territory if Congress should retrocede it. The necessary act was passed by Congress with the proviso that the question of retrocession be first submitted to a vote of the citizens of that territory. As a majority voted in its favor, by presidential proclamation the town and county of Alexandria ceased to form a part of the District of Columbia.

See Home Rule, supra note 1, at 208 (footnotes omitted).

[10] *Hobsen,* 255 F.Supp. at 297-8.

[11] *See* Green, *supra* note 2, at 12.

[12] *See Kendall v. United States,* 12 Pet. 524 619 (1838); *O'Donaghue v. United States,* 289 U.S. 516, 539 (1932).

[13] Schrag, *The Future of District of Columbia Home Rule,* 39 CATH. U. L. REV., 311, 312 n. 6 (1990).

[14] Act of June 11, 1878, 20 Stat. 102.

the President and council chosen by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate.[15]

The District's residents have strived to increase their political autonomy in recent years. During the years from 1874 until 1967, the District had neither a popularly elected local governing body nor any representation in Congress.

In 1961, the District was authorized to participate in presidential elections with approval of the Constitution's Twenty-Third Amendment. The 1973 District of Columbia Self-Government and Governmental Reorganization Act,[16] commonly known as the Home Rule Act, established a popularly elected mayor and 13 member Council. Congress, however, reserved legislative powers, including final approval over the District's annual budget and the power to prevent local legislation from going into effect.[17] In 1978, a proposed constitutional amendment, which would have given the District representation in the House and Senate, was passed by Congress. The proposed amendment, requiring ratification by three-quarters of the States, failed when only 16 States passed it.[18] In 1980, the District approved an initiative for a statehood constitutional convention. The constitution from the resulting convention was ratified by District voters in 1982. In 1983, the District applied to Congress for statehood. The House Committee on the District of Columbia approved a statehood bill in 1987, but the House never held a floor vote.[19]

C. National Representation.

To further the national representation of District residents, two distinct versions of legislation have been submitted to Congress. One proposal would make the District the State of New Columbia.[20] The second proposal calls for retrocession of the land to Maryland.[21] The latter proposal received the support of Maryland's Governor.[22] Both proposals would establish a

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[15] Reorg. Plan No. 3, *reprinted* in 1 D.C. STAT. ANN. 126 (1989).

For a general discussion of the type of governments, see Newman & DePuy, *Bringing Democracy to the Nation's Last Colony: The District of Columbia Self-Government Act*, 24 AMER. U. L. REV. 537 (1975).

[16] Pub. L. No. 93-198, 87 Stat. 774 (1973). The intent of the law was "to provide the District 'a system of municipal government similar to that provided in all other cities throughout the United States.'" *Clarke*, 886 F.2d at 407, quoting H.R. REP. NO. 482, at 2.

[17] Schrag, *supra* note 13, at 312-13.

[18] Seidman, *The Preconditions for Home Rule*, 39 CATH. U. L. REV. 373, 376 (1990).

The States had seven years to ratify the proposed amendment.

[19] Schrag, *supra* note 13, at 317.

[20] H.R. 2482, 102nd Cong., 1st Sess. (1991) [hereinafter *Statehood Bill*].

[21] H.R. 1204, 102nd Cong., 1st Sess. (1991).

[22] Baker, *Schaefer Invites the District to Reattach Itself to Maryland*, Washington Post, Feb. 26, 1990, at A6, col.1.

"Federal enclave," allowing the White House, Congress, Mall, Federal memorials, and certain Federal buildings to remain Federal property.[23]

Although statehood has been granted by legislation in the past, the special constitutional status of the District has been considered a limit on the method of achieving Statehood. For example, Assistant Attorney Generals in the Carter and Reagan Administration have indicated an amendment would be necessary.[24]

D. Current Congressional Representation.

The District is represented by a non-voting delegate in the House of Representatives. Each territory has a similar non-voting delegate.[25] Delegate status was granted for a few years beginning in 1871 with the advent of the territorial form of government, and the status did not return until recently.

The District Delegate may not vote on the floor of the House. However, under current House rules, the Delegate may hold committee office and vote in committees.[26] Former Delegate Walter Fauntroy, for example, was the Chairman of the Subcommittee on Fiscal Affairs of the Committee on the District of Columbia. The District Delegate has "floor privileges, office space, and committee assignments and committee voting rights--but no voting rights in the Committee of the Whole or on the House floor."[27]

The District authorized the election of "shadow representatives" for both houses. The District council passed the "Representative and Senators Term of Office, Duties, and Use of Private

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[23] Under both bills, the enclave is called the National Capital Service Area and includes the principal Federal monuments, White House, Capitol Building, Supreme Court, and Federal buildings adjacent to the Mall and Capitol Building. *See*, e.g., H.R. 1204, *supra* note 21, § 4(a).

[24] *See District of Columbia Representation in Congress, Hearings on S.J. Res. 65 before the Subcomm. on the Constitution of the Senate Comm. on the Judiciary*, 95th Cong., 2nd Sess. (1978) (statement of John M. Harmon, Assistant Attorney General, Office of Legal Counsel, U.S. Dept. of Justice); *D.C. Statehood, Hearings on H.R. 51 before the Subcomm. on Fiscal Affairs and Health of the Comm. on The District of Columbia*, 100st Cong., 1st Sess., (1987) (statement of Steven J. Markham, Assistant Attorney General, Office of Legal Policy, U.S. Dept. of Justice), 341.

[25] *See* U.S. Library of Congress. Congressional Research Service. Shadow Representatives in Congress: History and Current Developments 3 (1991).

[26] *Id.* at 3-4.

> [D]elegates from territories and the District of Columbia [may] be assigned to any standing committees and [may] vote on standing committees in the same manner as Members of the House. The exception [is] the Delegate from the District of Columbia who, in accordance with House Rules, must be assigned to the District of Columbia Committee in addition to any other committee assignments. (In 1973, the House Democratic caucus amended its rules to ensure that a Democratic delegate and a Resident Commission received the same rights to chair a subcommittee as any other Democratic committee member.)

Id. at 4.

[27] *Id.*

Funds for Public Purposes Amendment Act of 1990." The purpose of the shadow representatives is to lobby for statehood for the District. Concerned that city funds might be used for these representatives, Congress prohibited this. Shadow representatives are not recognized by Congress. Following its practice with representatives and senators, Congress requests certification of election for the Delegate. Since the shadow representatives are not Federal positions, no such recognition is accorded these individuals.

E. Legislative Limitations.

The Council's authority to pass law is limited in a number of ways. First, numerous specific statutory provisions proscribe certain limitations. As examples, the District cannot establish a personal income tax on out-of-state residents.[28] Second, its legislation is subject to Congressional review. With the exception of emergency rules which cannot exceed 90 days, all legislation must be submitted to Congress. The legislation may then be vetoed within 30 days by a joint resolution of both houses.[29] During this time, no funds may be obligated or spent under the new provision. For legislation involving criminal law or procedure or prisoners, the time period for congressional review is extended from 30 to 60 days.[30] Congress has utilized its authority over the District legislative process by implementing changes through appropriation riders. For matters covered under the 60 day review, the Home Rule Act provides special provisions to permit Members of Congress to discharge matters from committee.[31] This provision was enacted to preclude a committee from "bottling up" a bill in committee, thus preventing full congressional review.

Budget. "Congressional review . . . does not actually affect the overwhelming majority of District laws. On the other hand, the District's annual appropriations must endure a searching review by the appropriations committees on Capitol Hill and cannot become law without being affirmatively enacted by Congress."[32] The Council must approve the budget within 50 days after receipt by the Mayor. In general, no money may be contracted or expended by the District without the approval of the budget by Congress.[33] One aspect of the budget approval process is that it takes, if all goes according to plan, some 15 months for the budget process to be completed. With Federal delays in budget approval, this time period can be extended.

The District budget is required by Federal law to be balanced. Many groups have expressed concern that the present budgetary structure severely limits the ability of the District to meet its current needs. Over the past few years, the District has raised 87 percent of its own revenues,

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[28] D.C. CODE ANN. § 1-233(a)(5) (1987).

[29] *Id.* § 1-233(c)(1).

[30] *Id.* § 1-233(c)(2).

[31] *Id.* § 1-207(e). The motion to discharge is highly privileged, with debate on the motion not to exceed one hour. *Id.*

[32] Schrag, *supra* note 13, at 340.

[33] D.C. CODE ANN. § 47-304 (1981).

with the Federal payment accounting for the remainder. According to *Financing the Nation's Capital*, the 1990 report of the Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia (sometimes known as the Rivlin Report), the Federal Government "has treated the District government unfairly" by:

- Severely restricting its ability to raise revenue
- Inadequately compensating it, through the federal payment, for the cost of restrictions
- Passing on to the [District] at the beginning of its operations under home rule [in 1973] an accumulated operating deficit estimated at $378 million
- Saddling the government with an enormous unfunded pension liability that threatens its financial stability
- Transferring responsibility for a large mental hospital in a state of disrepair with inadequate funds to repair and consolidate the facilities.[34]

The Rivlin Report's analysis went further, concluding that if the District's revenue sources are limited by the Federal Government and if the District is obliged to incur costs it has "not chosen to incur, District residents alone should not bear the consequences of those decisions."[35] The Rivlin Report, therefore, recommended in part that the Federal Government (1) "grant the District the authority to tax income at its source," (2) implement a federal payment based on a formula to adequately compensate the District for "cost and revenue-raising restrictions imposed upon it by virtue of being the nation's capital," and (3) eliminate the accumulated operating deficit.[36]

F. Wards.

The District is composed of eight wards. Wards have existed since 1801, but the political structure and boundaries of those that exist today were created in 1968. Registered voters in each ward elect one person to serve on the Council of the District of Columbia and one person to serve on the Board of Education. Voters also elect the chairman of the council, four at-large council representatives and three at-large school board members. Ward boundaries are redrawn after each decennial census, if necessary, to ensure that ward populations are as near to equal size as possible, thereby ensuring equal representation.

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[34] The Report of the Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia, *Financing the Nation's Capital*, p. 6-9 (1990).

[35] *Id.*

[36] *Id.*

II
SOME MAJOR U.S. SOCIOECONOMIC TRENDS, 1970 TO THE PRESENT

To a large extent, demographic and economic patterns in the District of Columbia reflect trends occurring in the nation as a whole. As such, familiarity with broad socioeconomic trends at the national level is necessary background for understanding trends in the District of Columbia. This chapter provides a brief summary of recent socioeconomic trends, particularly concerning income inequality, economic status, and education attainment, in the United States with emphasis on trends affecting Hispanic Americans.

A. Increasing Racial and Ethnic Diversity of the Population.

Over the past two decades, the United States population has undergone a remarkable transformation from a population that was largely white[37] and black to a population that is increasingly comprised of diverse races and ethnic groups: the proportion of the population that was not white or black (largely Hispanics, Asian Americans, and Native Americans) more than doubled between 1970 and 1990, growing from 5.8 to 12.7 percent (table II-1). The United States Hispanic population grew considerably during this time, and the Hispanic percentage of the U.S. population doubled. The 1990 Census counted an Hispanic population in the United States of 22.4 million, or 9.0 percent of the total U.S. population (table II-1).

The changing complexion of the U.S. population is, in large part, the result of a substantial rise in immigration, particularly from Latin America and Asia, that has been taking place over the past several decades. Between 1961 and 1988, over 12.5 million immigrants were admitted to the United States, with roughly one-third of these immigrants coming from Latin America.[38] Among Latin American immigrants arriving in the 1980s, Central and South Americans constituted 32 percent; Mexicans 36 percent; Cubans 9 percent; and persons from the Dominican Republic, 11 percent.[39]

Immigration was responsible for almost half of the growth of the Hispanic population during the 1980s.[40] As a result, roughly 30 percent of Hispanics living in the United States today are foreign born.[41]

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[37] For purposes of this staff report, the term "white" refers to persons of the white race who are not of Hispanic origin, except as otherwise noted.

[38] Gregory DeFreitas, *Inequality at Work: Hispanics in the U.S. Labor Force* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991), table 2.3, p. 19.

[39] Ibid.

[40] Frederick W. Hollmann, *United States Population Estimates by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1988*, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 1045, table L, p. 15.

[41] DeFreitas, table 2.2, p. 13.

B. Increasing Income Inequality.

There is a widespread consensus among researchers that the United States income distribution has become more unequal over the past two decades, particularly during the 1980s.[42] For example, one recent study of U.S. household incomes found that the Gini coefficient,[43] an index commonly used to measure the extent to which income is distributed unequally across a population, increased from .391 to .429 in the two decades following 1969.[44] Over the same time period the share of total U.S. income received by the bottom one-fifth of U.S. households decreased from 4.1 percent to 3.8 percent, while the share received by the top one-fifth increased from 43.0 percent to 46.7 percent.[45] These changes correspond to a significant increase in the inequality of income over the period, with those at the top of the income distribution growing richer, and those at the bottom growing poorer. Although income inequality increased slightly in the 1970s, the bulk of the increase occurred in the 1980s.

A similar pattern of growing inequality has characterized the distribution of labor market earnings. For instance, one recent study found that among men working full-time, year round, the Gini coefficient increased from .296 in 1978 to .337 in 1988.[46] This study found that, among Hispanics, income inequality grew slightly faster than in the general population. Over the ten-year period between 1978 and 1988, the Gini coefficient for Hispanic men working full-time, year round increased from .269 to .339. Black men experienced a slightly lesser increase in earnings inequality than Hispanic men (from .264 to .324), but still a larger increase than among the general population.[47]

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[42] Recent examples are: John A. Bishop, John P. Formby, and W. James Smith, "Lorenz Dominance and Welfare: Changes in the U.S. Distribution of Income, 1967-1986," *Review of Economics and Statistics*, vol. 73, no. 1 (February 1991), pp. 134-39; and Fred Campano, "Recent Trends in U.S. Family Income Distribution: A Comparison of All, White, and Black Families," *Journal of Post Keynesian Economics*, vol. 13, no. 3 (Spring 1991), pp. 337-44.

[43] As defined in Ryscavage, Green, and Welniak., the Gini coefficient "is a statistical measure of income equality ranging from 0 to 1. A measure of 0 indicates perfect equality, i.e., all households having equal shares of income; a measure of 1 indicates perfect inequality, i.e., one household has all the income and the rest have none. Thus, higher levels of the Gini [coefficient] indicate higher levels of income inequality. The Gini [coefficient] is derived by calculating the ratio of the area between a Lorenz curve (which is obtained by plotting the cumulative percent of households against the cumulative percent of aggregate income) and a diagonal to the area below the diagonal." Paul Ryscavage, Gordon Green, and Edward Welniak, "The Impact of Demographic, Social, and Economic Change on the Distribution of Income," paper presented at the 13th Annual Research Conference of the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management in Bethesda, MD, Oct. 26, 1991, app. B, p. B-1.

[44] Ibid., table 1.

[45] Ibid.

[46] Paul Ryscavage and Peter Henle, "Earnings Inequality Accelerates in the 1980s," *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1990, table 1, p. 4.

[47] Ibid., table 4, p. 6.

Another recent study confirms that both whites and Hispanics had widening income distributions since the early 1970s.[48] That study found that the earnings of the top one-fifth of white male wage earners increased by 16.3 percent between 1971 and 1987, whereas the earnings of the bottom one-fifth declined by 13.0 percent.[49] The top one-fifth of Hispanic male wage earners gained less than their white counterparts -- their earnings grew by only 5.3 percent -- but the bottom one-fifth of Hispanic male wage earners lost more than their white counterparts -- 19.9 percent.[50]

A major thrust of recent research on income trends is the accumulation of evidence suggesting that the growing income inequality over the 1980s is tied to an increase in the returns to education: As the economy increasingly moved from a manufacturing to a technological/service base, the demand for high skilled workers increased, raising their earnings relative to those with low skills. As an example, in 1975, a college graduate with 5 years of experience or less earned 27 percent more than a high school graduate. Just five years later, in 1985, a college graduate earned 55 percent more than a high school graduate counterpart.[51] Thus, for new entrants to the labor force, the earnings differential between those with a college degree and those with only a high school diploma had doubled in less than five years. A similar but less dramatic pattern prevailed for more experienced workers.

C. The Economic Recession.

The United States is currently experiencing an economic recession that began in the middle of 1990, and came after several years of sluggish economic growth following high rates of growth throughout most of the 1980s.[52] The recession is not a deep recession by modern standards. The current unemployment rate around 7 percent is much lower than the 10.8 percent unemployment rate at the trough of the 1981-82 recession and far less than the 37.6 percent unemployment rate reached during the Great Depression in the 1930s. Gross national product has declined by 1.4 percent, less than the roughly 5 percent decline experienced in the 1981-82 recession and no where near the 33 percent decline experienced during the Great Depression. Nonetheless, the current recession, which by January 1992 had lasted 18 months, is the longest economic decline since the Great Depression. Furthermore it has hit particularly hard at the industries that experienced the greatest growth during the 1980s, primarily the retail industry, and regions of the country that had not been much affected by the 1981-82 recession, including the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area.[53]

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48 James P. Smith, "The Emerging Hispanic Underclass," 1991 (mimeo).

49 Ibid., table 7, p. 19.

50 Ibid., table 8, p. 23.

51 Kevin Murphy and Finis Welch, "The Structure of Wages," April 1988 (mimeo).

52 The 1981-1982 recession and one-quarter of negative growth in 1986 were exceptions.

53 John Greenwald, "Why We're So Gloomy," *Time*, January 13, 1992, p. 34.

Coming on top of a long-term stagnation in individual earnings, the current recession has generated in many Americans a sense of unease about the future. According to a national opinion poll conducted for *Time* magazine, almost one-third of Americans believe that Americans have a lower standard of living now than in the past and that the United States is in a long-term economic decline.[54]

D. The Economic Status of Hispanic Americans.

This section examines recent trends in several measures of the economic status of Hispanic Americans, drawing comparisons with other population groups. These measures all suggest that Hispanic Americans, as a group, have been falling behind relative to other population groups over the past two decades.

Family Income. Over the past twenty years, the family income of Hispanic Americans has fallen relative to that of other population groups. Gregory DeFreitas, an author of a recent study of Hispanics in the U.S. labor force, observed that "adjusted for inflation, median Hispanic income have fallen in both absolute and relative terms since the early 1970s."[55] Comparing the average income of Hispanic and white families, DeFreitas found that average Hispanic family income had been 69 percent as much as average white family income in 1973. By 1987, however, the average Hispanic family income had fallen to 63 percent as much as average white family income.[56] Hispanic family income fell not only relative to white family income but also relative to black family income: in 1973, Hispanic family income was 20 percent higher than black family income, but by 1987, it was only 7 percent higher.[57]

In 1989, median Hispanic family income was just over two-thirds of the national average, and 16 percent higher than median black family income (calculated from table I-2).[58]

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54 Ibid., p. 38.

55 DeFreitas, p. 57.

56 Ibid.

57 Ibid.

58 One reason why Hispanics continue to have slightly higher family income than blacks may be that Hispanics live in larger households than blacks (3.38 persons vs. 2.82). However, two considerations suggest that having a greater proportion of employed people per household is more important. First, the household income of Hispanics is greater than blacks for every size household. Second, the family income of Hispanics is more likely to increase as the size of the household increases. For example, black households with 7 or more persons have lower household incomes than those with 4 or 5 persons, but Hispanic households with 7 or more persons have the highest household income. Thus, compared to blacks, the slightly larger Hispanic households appear to include more wage earners and fewer children and unemployed persons. A possible explanation for the increased proportion of wage earners is that Hispanic households may be more likely to contain more than one family. Indeed, a recent report on doubled-up households in the District of Columbia found that 27 percent of Hispanic households in Washington, D.C. contain more than one family, much above the rate for other population groups. In comparison, 16 percent of black households and 4 percent of white households were doubled up. Office of the Special Assistant for Human Resources Development, Office of the Mayor, District of Columbia, *Doubled-Up Households in the District of Columbia*, February 1989, p. 8.

Labor Market Earnings. Labor market earnings of family members is the major income source for virtually all pre-retirement families. Like Hispanic family income, the relative labor market earnings of Hispanic Americans fell over the past two decades. For instance, one study found that, in comparison to white men, the relative wages of Hispanic men were roughly constant (around 73 percent) in the 1970s, but they fell steadily during the 1980s: the average wage of Hispanic men declined from 72.5 percent of that of white men in 1980 to 64.7 percent in 1987.[59] Hispanic men have also lost ground in comparison to black male wage earners. Whereas Hispanic male wage earners earned 11 percent more than their black counterparts in 1971, by 1980, this figure had declined to one percent, and by 1987, the average wage of Hispanic men was one percent less than black male wage earners.[60] Interpreting these data, one researcher observed, "[a]cross the last two decades, Hispanic workers have replaced black workers at the bottom of the male workforce."[61]

In 1989, Hispanic men, employed full-time, year round, earned only 66 percent as much as the national average and 88 percent as much as black men similarly employed (table I-2).

Unemployment Rates. Like other minority groups, Hispanic Americans are particularly vulnerable to cyclical fluctuations in the economy. Hispanics consistently had an unemployment rate at least 50 percent higher than that of whites over the years 1973-84, and their unemployment rates increased more in absolute terms than those of whites during the three recessions (1975, 1980, and 1982) that occurred over that period.[62] One expert offers several explanations for why the employment of Hispanics might be particularly sensitive to variations in economic activity, including:

- "[T]he relatively high proportion of Hispanics in marginal firms and casual employment situations;"[63]

- The recent immigration of many Hispanics, which means that they have relatively low tenure on their current job and few years of U.S. work experience;[64]

- "[T]he heavy representation of Hispanics in seasonal and cyclically sensitive occupations and industries."[65]

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59 DeFreitas, table 3.2, p. 58.

60 Smith, table 4, p. 9.

61 Ibid., p. 9.

62 DeFreitas, table 4.1, p. 115.

63 Ibid., p. 113.

64 Ibid.

65 Ibid.

Another possible explanation is that employers who are biased against Hispanics may be more able to discriminate in slack labor markets, whereas they might not be able to do so when labor markets are tight.

In 1989, Hispanics continued to have an unemployment rate that was fifty percent greater than the national average and only slightly under that of blacks (table II-3).

Occupations and Industries. As noted by above, Hispanics may be employed in the industries or occupations that are suffering most from the current slow economy, and consequently they may be experiencing more lay-offs, unemployment, and difficulty in finding jobs than groups that tend to be employed in industries or occupations that are more stable.

Table II-4 shows black and Hispanic employment shares by industry. Although Hispanics and blacks are overrepresented relative to their shares of the employed labor force in some of the same industries, including the personal services industry, there are several industries in which Hispanics are overrepresented but blacks are not. These industries include: agriculture, construction, manufacturing, retail trade, and the automobile services industry.

Table II-5 shows a similar pattern for occupations. Blacks and Hispanics are overrepresented in many of the same occupations, especially service occupations and "operators, fabricators, and laborers."[66] Hispanics are overrepresented in several occupations where blacks are not, however, notably in "farming and forestry" and "precision production, craft, and repair occupations," including construction.

Some occupations where Hispanics are overrepresented are growing.[67] For example "janitors and cleaners," "retail salespersons," and "automotive mechanics" are among occupations predicted to have the largest job growth between 1988 and 2000. However, most of the fastest growing occupations are professional, technical, and administrative support occupations where Hispanics are underrepresented. Nine of the 11 fastest declining occupations are in manufacturing where Hispanics are overrepresented.

The data indicate two things. First, Hispanics tend to be employed more often in some industries and occupations rather than others, suggesting that a decline in certain industries and occupations could have a dramatic effect on them. Second, the industries and occupations in which Hispanics are overrepresented are sometimes different from those in which other disadvantaged groups, such as blacks, are overrepresented. Thus, a decline in some occupations and industries could affect Hispanics more than other similarly disadvantaged groups.

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[66] Both groups are underrepresented in many of the same occupations as well, especially managerial or professional occupations and in those providing technical, sales, or administrative support.

[67] U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1991*, 11th ed., table 653.

Poverty Rates. The proportion of Hispanic families below the poverty level has been growing during the past two decades. Since 1973, the poverty rate of Hispanic families increased by 6 percentage points. During the same period, the black poverty rate remained relatively constant.[68] Moreover, the number of Hispanic families at or below the poverty level is significantly higher than for other groups. In 1989, the poverty rate for Hispanic families was 23.7 percent, or two and a half times that of white families and fifteen percent less than that of black families (table II-2).

E. The Educational Attainment of Hispanic Americans.

Hispanic Americans generally have low levels of educational attainment, and Hispanic youth, in particular, face what one observer has called an "educational crisis."[69] The low educational levels of Hispanics limit their economic opportunities. With minimal education, Hispanics have little opportunity of obtaining anything but low-skilled, generally low-paying, jobs. The availability and pay of most such positions are particularly sensitive to cyclical variations in the economy. Furthermore, as noted earlier, there has been a long-term trend over the past several decades for these jobs to pay increasingly less relative to jobs requiring higher levels of education.

Educational Attainment of Adults. Hispanic adults over the age of 25 have much less education than their white or black counterparts. The proportion of Hispanics 25 years old and over with less than a high school education (49.1 percent) is more than double the proportion for the total population (23.1 percent) and substantially greater than that for blacks (35.4 percent). Fully one-third of Hispanics (34.4 percent) have eight years of schooling or less, about triple the rate for the population as a whole (11.6 percent) and double that for blacks (17.3 percent) (table II-6). The median number of years of schooling completed by Hispanics is 0.7 years less than that of the general population and 0.4 years less than the black population (table II-6). One reason for the disparity in education levels may be the limited education obtained by foreign-born Hispanics in their country of birth.

Hispanic Youth. Hispanic youths also are not achieving the same levels of education as the general population, although many of them were born in this country and are being educated in U.S. schools. Moreover, they do not appear to have made significant educational gains in recent years.

The high school dropout rate of Hispanic youth is more than twice that of any other population group (table II-6). Furthermore, although the gap between black and white students has been narrowing, the disparity between Hispanic and white students in high school completion rates has not closed since 1970.[70]

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[68] Ibid., table 3.4, p. 65.

[69] Ibid., p. 186.

[70] National Council of La Raza, *Hispanic Education: A Statistical Portrait*, 1990, p. 61.

Hispanics are also much more likely than other groups to be held back in grade, a factor that has been shown to be related to dropping out of high school. Over 22 percent of Hispanic eighth graders have been held back at least one grade, in comparison to 16 percent of whites and 26 percent of blacks. Although Hispanic students are less likely than black students to be held back at least one grade, they are more likely to be held back two or more grades.[71] Over 40 percent of Hispanic youngsters enrolled in grades 5-12 are behind the modal grade for their age, in comparison to under 30 percent of the general population and roughly 40 percent of black students.[72]

Hispanic youth lag behind other groups in educational achievement as well. In 1988, 17-year-old Hispanic students scored comparably with black students (slightly lower on reading and science, and higher on mathematics) and well below white students on the National Assessment of Educational Progress Tests that were developed to measure educational achievement (table II-7). Unlike black students, Hispanic students' test scores have increased only slightly over the decade of the 1980s (table II-7). Furthermore, research conducted for the National Council of La Raza indicates that even Hispanic students whose usual language is English have low reading proficiency scores, suggesting that the problem is not caused only by limited English proficiency.[73]

Consistent with their low achievement and high dropout rates, Hispanic eighth graders possess low expectations for themselves. One-third expect to graduate from college, in comparison to 45 percent of whites and 39 percent of blacks.[74]

F. Implications.

Recent economic trends have had the effect of restricting economic opportunities, and possibly of dashing the hopes for success, of persons at the bottom of the economic scale. A growing income inequality has meant that low-income Americans have fallen further behind their high-income counterparts over time, and the present economic recession has further threatened their economic livelihood. Because of their low education levels and high concentrations in cyclically sensitive jobs, Hispanic Americans may be particularly affected by these trends. These trends have a serious national impact, and, as Chapter III demonstrates, they have visible effects in the District of Columbia in general, and in its Latino community in particular.

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71 Ibid., figure 3.28, p. 46.

72 Ibid., figure 3.6, p. 19.

The modal grade is the grade in which the largest number of children their age are enrolled.

73 Ibid., figure 3.13, p. 28.

74 Ibid., figure 3.41, p. 60.

III
SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC TRENDS IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington, D.C. is a center of world politics and a symbol of democracy. The District is diamond shaped, except on the southwest side, where the Potomac River forms the boundary with the State of Virginia. The northern and southeastern sides of the diamond are surrounded by the State of Maryland.

The Federal presence is evident in the District of Columbia in many ways. For example, fifty-six percent of the land in the District is federally owned. The Federal Government is the District's major employer. Nearly one-third of the employees who work there are employed by the Federal government (220,400 of 687,900 in 1990).[75]

A. Demographics in the District of Columbia.

The District is home to more than 606,900 people. The population of the District has been culturally diverse from its inception, primarily because of a large proportion of blacks. In 1800, about one-fourth of the District's population was composed of blacks. From the Civil War to the turn of the century, black people represented about 32 percent of the District's populace. In 1890, the District had the largest urban population of blacks in the United States. After a short decline, the black population began expanding again in the late 1920s.[76]

In the late 1940s, the District of Columbia population peaked at over 870,000, dropped sharply and continued a steady decline through 1960. This trend was due to a substantial exodus of whites from the District and the explosion of growth in the suburbs. As a consequence, the sustained migration of blacks into the District created a black majority among D.C. residents by the late 1950s. The loss of white residents in the District continued unabated in the 1960s. By 1970, blacks comprised nearly three-fourths (71.1 percent) of the District population. Subsequently, blacks also began a sustained exodus to the suburbs.[77]

The foreign-born white population in Washington, D.C. declined over time, dropping from 12.6 percent in 1870 to 7.0 percent in 1920 and eventually to 4.6 percent in 1970. Indeed, in the 1960s and 1970s, foreign-born whites also relocated to the Washington suburbs. Beginning in the 1960s, rapid social changes in Third World countries began a profound shift away from Western European immigrants and in the 1970s the District's foreign-born population increased

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[75] District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 8 (August 1991), p. 171.

[76] Robert D. Manning, "Multicultural Change in Washington, D.C.," in Francine Cary and Joseph Jordan (eds.), *The Urban Odyssey of Washington, D.C.: Many Voices on a Common Ground* (Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, forthcoming).

[77] Ibid.

sharply for the first time in nearly 70 years. Between 1970 and 1980, immigrants increased from unabated through the 1980s. The new immigrant groups included Southeast Asians, Koreans, Indians, Iranians, Salvadorans, Guatemalans, Jamaicans, Haitians, Cubans, Ethiopians, and Nigerians. Mexicans and Dominicans were noticeable by their absence.[78]

In the 1990 Census, Washington's population was 65.8 percent black, 29.6 percent white, and 4.5 percent other races.[79] Hispanics, or Latinos, may be counted among various racial categories. The 1990 Census in the District of Columbia counted 32,710 Hispanics, or 5.4 percent of the population. Hispanics, however, increased in size by 85 percent in the decade after the 1980 Census, while the population as a whole, and the majority black population, was decreasing (-4.9 percent and -11.0 percent, respectively) (table III-1).

The actual number of Hispanics in the District may be somewhat higher than the Census count. A post-enumeration survey by the Bureau of the Census indicated that, as a whole, the District's population was undercounted by 5 percent.[80] Moreover, nationally, Hispanics have been undercounted at a higher rate than either blacks or whites.[81] The Census Bureau has estimated that the Hispanic undercount rate for the South Atlantic region of the United States was five percent. If the same rate applied to Hispanics in the District, Hispanic residents may number as high as 34,500.[82]

The D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force estimates that the Latino community in Washington, D.C. numbers 65,000 to 85,000. The Task Force also states that the Mayor's Office on Latino Affairs recognizes that Latino residents make up at least 10 percent of the District population.[83]

While estimates of the number of undocumented Hispanics[84] vary widely, one source estimates that 35 to 40 percent of the total Hispanic population is undocumented.[85]

The Wards. Ward 1 is at the center of the District, surrounded by four other wards. It is the smallest ward. The May disturbance occurred in this ward. Ward 2 extends into all four

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78 Ibid.

79 *Indices*, 1991, p. 32.

80 "Recommendation to the Secretary on the Issue of Whether or not to Adjust the 1990 Decennial Census from Michael R. Darby, Under Secretary for Economic Affairs," App. 1, table 4.

81 Ibid., table 3.

82 Howard Hogan, "1990 Post Enumeration Survey: Operations Results," paper presented at the meetings of the American Statistical Association, August 1991. These estimates are currently undergoing revision.

83 D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force, *The Task Force Blueprint for Action*, Final Recommendations to the District of Columbia Government, October 1991, p. 10.

84 The term "undocumented" conventionally refers to aliens who are in the United States illegally, that is, they do not have proper immigration "documents."

85 See Manning, n. 16.

quadrants of the District. It encompasses the areas that were the original city of Washington and has the greatest number of historic landmarks and the most historic districts. Many Federal buildings, the Mall and Georgetown are located in Ward 2. Ward 3 is in the northwest quadrant. It is the largest Ward in land area. However, because it contains Rock Creek Park, it has the lowest population density. Ward 4 is east of Ward 3, covering the northern most point of the District's diamond. Many of the District's health care facilities, including Walter Reed Army Medical Center, Veterans Administration Hospital, and Washington Hospital Center, cover this ward's acreage. Ward 5 is in the District's Northeast quadrant and contains the National Arboretum. Ward 6 contains Capitol Hill. Ward 7 is the District's easternmost ward. Nearly half of the land in this ward, most of which is park land, is owned by the Federal government. Ward 8 is the District's southernmost ward. Saint Elizabeth Hospital, Bolling Air Force Base, and a large District government tract at Blue Plains Wastewater Treatment Plant are among the facilities and uses that reduce the taxable land to the smallest percent of any ward in the District.

In 1990, the population in each ward ranged from 68,869 to 83,204 residents. Table III-2 gives some demographic characteristics and unemployment rates of each ward. For example, Wards 5, 7 and 8 have populations that are more than 90 percent black. The remainder of this report will focus on Ward 1 when presenting ward-specific data, although occasional references are made to other wards.

Ward 1. Both the Mount Pleasant and Adams Morgan neighborhoods are located in Ward 1. Demographically, Ward 1 differs from other District of Columbia wards because of the large proportion of Latinos living there and the density of the population. The last decade's growth in the ward's population, particularly in the Latino population, is also higher than for most other wards.

Although the population of the District of Columbia is shrinking, that of Ward 1 is growing. The number of residents in Ward 1 in 1990, was 79,729, of which 14,002 were Hispanics.[86] Although the population in this Ward increased by 1.3 percent over the past decade, the Hispanic population increased by 131 percent during that period (table III-3). The Ward has more Hispanics than any other ward in the District -- about 2 1/2 times as many.[87] The population density in Ward 1 is three times that of the District: 66 residents per acre compared to 22 (table III-2). Ward 1 is the most densely populated ward in the District and is more than twice as dense as even the next most densely populated ward (e.g., Ward 6 has 31 residents per acre).[88]

B. Employment and Unemployment in the District of Columbia.

The District of Columbia is the largest employment center of the Washington metropolitan region, with 31 percent of all jobs. However, the majority of District positions are filled by non-

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[86] Based on the official Census, this figure does not adjust for any undercount of Latinos.

[87] *Indices*, 1991, p. 79.

[88] Using only residential acreage, Ward 1 is the second most dense ward with 119 residents per acre. Ward 2 has 129 per residential acre. Ibid., p. 29.

residents. In 1980, approximately 50 percent of the jobs based in the District were held by District residents. Since then, District-based employment increased (from 616,100 to 687,900 in 1990), but the District's labor force decreased (from 323,000 in 1980 to 298,000 in 1990), with the result that an even lower proportion of District jobs are now held by residents.[89]

Employment in the District declined during the period 1980 to 1983 (from 616,100 to 596,600), a time in which there was a national recession. Since 1983, employment in the District has been increasing. However, the increases have slowed in recent years. The number of workers in the District of Columbia continued to grow over the most recent five years, but the growth in 1989 and 1990 was less than half what it was in the two years prior to that (table III-4). The District-resident labor force was smaller in 1989 and 1990 than it was at any time in the five previous years. Both the number of residents unemployed and the unemployment rate increased in 1990 (20,000 and 6.6 percent) over levels in the previous two years (16,000 and 5.0 percent for each year).

This trend is not due to increasing unemployment rates for youth. Although youth aged 16 to 19 are unemployed at substantially higher rates than for adults, their unemployment rate continued to drop from 1984 to the present.

Employment by Specific Industries. Employment trends often vary by industry. Three industries are reported to have grown in employment in the District of Columbia over the decade of the 1980s. These industries are District government, services, and construction and manufacturing. In particular, employment in services grew by 43.5 percent across the decade.[90] Table III-5 shows recent yearly growth in employment for these industries in the District of Columbia. The employment growth for these industries had slowed by 1989 and remained low in 1990. The construction and manufacturing industry suffered a loss of jobs in 1988 and 1989. After the industry added one to two thousand jobs for several years, it peaked with 30,700 jobs in 1987, dropped to 30,400 in 1988, and to 30,200 in 1989 and 1990. The District government had added 1,400 to 2,600 jobs each year in the mid 1980s, but lost 1,100 jobs in 1989. Thus, industries that had new jobs early in the decade had fewer new positions to offer later on.

Latinos' Overrepresentation in Specific Industries and Occupations. The previous chapter showed that nationwide, Hispanics tend to be employed more often in some industries and occupations rather than others. Furthermore, the industries and occupations in which Hispanics are overrepresented are sometimes different from those in which other disadvantaged groups, such as blacks, are overrepresented. Thus, a decline in some occupations and industries could affect Hispanics more than other similarly disadvantaged groups.

In the District of Columbia, the industries in which Hispanics are overrepresented nationally -- construction and manufacturing, retail trade, and some services -- do show the pattern, noted

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[89] Ibid., p. 170.

[90] Ibid.

earlier, of a slowdown in growth of employment or even loss of jobs beginning in 1987 or 1988. District government shows a similar pattern.[91] Except for services, these industries are growing more slowly (or are declining more) than employment in the District as a whole. Although employment in services is still growing faster than District employment as a whole, U.S. Hispanics are only overrepresented in some segments of the industry and may not be employed in the segments responsible for the growth. Because of the industries and occupations in which Hispanics are employed nationally, it therefore seems likely that Latinos in the District of Columbia may be suffering more unemployment because of the recent economic downturn than other disadvantaged or minority groups.

Recall that except for the wholesale and retail trade, the industries listed in table III-5 grew during the decade as a whole. For example, growth in employment in construction far exceeded overall growth in the District between 1984 and 1987. But a loss of jobs occurred in 1988 and 1989, followed by no additional growth in 1990. If a booming industry encouraged workers to uproot their homes or invest in long-term training to take advantage of employment in that industry, they may be particularly frustrated when the growth slows and jobs are harder to find. In particular, Hispanics whose expectations for economic welfare were created during the growth spurt and those who laid plans to immigrate based upon the success of others during that period may be frustrated now.

C. Growth in Personal Income vs. Inflation.

The annual average wage and salary earnings of employed persons increased from $27,137 in 1986 to $32,106 in 1989, the most recent year for which this information is available (table III-6).

Per capita personal income in the District of Columbia increased from $23,436 in 1989 to $24,181 in 1990. The growth rate of this income measure over the previous year, however, was only 3.2 percent and followed upon several years where income had grown by double this amount (e.g., 6.7 percent in 1988 and 8.2 percent in 1989, table III-6). At the same time, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) shows that goods and services that cost $100 in 1982 cost on average $128.00 in 1989 and $135.60 in 1990 in the Washington metropolitan area. The percent change, or inflation, from 1989 to 1990 was 5.9 percent, or nearly double the growth in personal income. Thus, real income, or purchasing power, fell from 1989 to 1990.

The economic recession has hit Washington, D.C. worse than the United States as a whole. While the per capita personal income for the United States ($18,685 in 1990) is lower than that in the District of Columbia, it continued to grow by 6.4 percent between 1989 and 1990.[92] This rate is (1) similar to the growth rates of the previous two years, (2) double the 1989 to 1990 growth rate of the District, and (3) higher than the inflation rate of 5.4 percent for the United

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[91] The underrepresentation of Hispanics in District government employment was a special concern of the D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force. The task force reports that Hispanics account for only 1.5% of the District's 48,000 employees. *Latino Blueprint for Action*, p. 45.

[92] Ibid., pp. 83-4.

States or of 5.9 percent for Washington, D.C. Thus, the District's halt in growth of personal income between 1989 and 1990 was unlike what occurred in the country as a whole. Additionally, the inflation rate was higher in the District than in the rest of the country, augmenting the extent to which growth in personal income failed to match it.

D. Hispanics in the District of Columbia.

Latinos in the District of Columbia appear to be differ somewhat from Latinos elsewhere in the country in their greater tendencies to be immigrants from El Salvador, slightly older, and living in smaller households.

The Recent Immigration of Salvadorans. An examination of recent patterns of immigration in the United States suggests that immigrants from El Salvador may be responsible for much of the growth in the Hispanic population in the District of Columbia since 1989.

In 1989, over 1 million immigrants were admitted to the United States (table III-7). Mexico and El Salvador are the two countries that immigrants were most likely to come from in 1989. During that year, over 37 percent of the immigrants admitted were from Mexico and over 5 percent were from El Salvador. The small country of El Salvador accounted for more than a third of the immigrants from Central and South America. Together Mexico and countries from the Caribbean, and Central and South America account for 60 percent of immigrants to the United States in 1989.[93]

There are several reasons to believe that Hispanic immigrants in the District of Columbia (and Ward 1) are to a large extent Salvadorans. First, despite the fact that more than a third of the United States immigrants in 1989 came from Mexico, immigrants from Mexico seldom designated the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area as the area in which they intended to reside. Table III-7 shows that only 1.2 percent of those intending to reside in the Washington metropolitan area (including neighboring segments of Virginia and Maryland) were Mexicans. Only 1.5 percent of those designating Maryland or Virginia as their intended residence were Mexicans. Second, 30.6 percent of U.S. immigrants who intended to reside in Maryland or Virginia[94] were from Mexico, Central and South America, and the Caribbean. Yet, 10.4 percent of these immigrants--more than a third of these Hispanics--were Salvadorans. Third, the 16.5 percent of all immigrants from El Salvador who intended to settle in the Washington metropolitan area was larger than the percentage of Salvadoran immigrants intending to reside in Maryland

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[93] This figure would only be a rough estimate of Hispanic immigrants. Immigrants from these areas need not be of Hispanic origin. Also, immigrants of Hispanic origin from other countries are not included in this estimate.

[94] Some statistics were available for the Washington metropolitan area including parts of Maryland and Virginia and for the States of Maryland and Virginia but not the District of Columbia. The two areas overlap because both contain parts of Maryland and Virginia that are in the Washington metropolitan area. At the same time, more accurate statistics for the District of Columbia cannot be obtained by subtraction, because the State figures include other cities, towns and rural areas that are not part of the metropolitan area.

and Virginia (10.4 percent). These figures suggest that perhaps close to half of recent Hispanic immigrants to the District of Columbia are Salvadorans.

Furthermore, the D.C. Public Schools' Division of Bilingual Education finds that 46 percent of the foreign-born Latino students were born in El Salvador alone. Their bilingual adult education program shows that although 15 percent of Latino students attending the program were from El Salvador in 1978-79, by 1980-82, 80 percent were Salvadorans.[95]

Salvadoran immigration is a recent phenomenon. The immigration of Salvadorans increased dramatically in 1989. Nationwide, less than 2 percent of the immigrants in 1988 were from El Salvador (table III-7). The number of immigrants from El Salvador increased nearly five-fold from 12,045 in 1988 to 57,878 in 1989. Salvadorans were less than 5 percent of the immigrants who intended to settle in Maryland and Virginia in 1988, not even half the 1989 proportion. The 4,408 Salvadoran immigrants who intended to establish residence in the Washington metropolitan area during 1989[96] represent more than a quarter of the number that swelled the Latino population in the District of Columbia over the entire last decade (i.e., 15,031, table III-1).

Table III-8 gives some characteristics of foreign-born Hispanics, including those from El Salvador. These figures come from the 1980 Census and may not adequately represent characteristics of immigrants of the past 2 years. Compared with all foreign-born residents of the United States, Salvadorans are much less likely to be citizens and more likely to have immigrated in the last 5 years. About 50 percent of the foreign-born population lack U.S. citizenship; the comparable figure for Salvadorans is 85 percent. Less than a quarter of the nation's foreign-born population had immigrated in the past 5 years, but more than half of the Salvadorans had, even in 1980. The abrupt increase in immigrants from El Salvador in 1989 (table III-7) also suggests that Hispanics in the District are likely to be very recent immigrants.

In 1980, Salvadorans were less likely than immigrants as a whole to be high school graduates (41.4 percent graduates vs. 53.1 percent) or college graduates (6.5 percent vs. 15.8 percent), more likely to be in service occupations (31.7 percent vs. 16.1 percent), and less likely to be in professional specialties (2.6 percent vs. 12 percent) than the foreign-born population in general (table III-7). The influx of Salvadorans since the 1980 Census, however, could change the characteristics of the group.

Socioeconomic Characteristics of District of Columbia Hispanics. Latinos in the District of Columbia appear to differ somewhat from Hispanics nationwide. The characteristics considered below include age, educational attainment, unemployment rate, household income, housing, and children and fertility.

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[95] District of Columbia, Office on Latino Affairs, memorandum titled "The Latino Community, The District of Columbia Experience," circa February 1989.

[96] Of course, some of them may have settled in parts of Maryland and Virginia.

Table III-9 contrasts some of the characteristics of Ward 1 and District of Columbia residents with Central and South Americans, Hispanics throughout the United States, and the general population. Nationally, Hispanic residents tend to be younger than blacks (26.1 vs. 27.7 years) and especially the total population (32.7 years). Thirty percent of Hispanics are below the age of 15, but only 28 percent of blacks and 22 percent of the United States population are. In Ward 1, 17 percent of the population is under 18 years old, while 19 percent of the population throughout the District is. The percentage of these groups under age 15 would be even smaller. Thus, District of Columbia residents, and particularly Ward 1 residents, are older than the general population, and much older than the U.S. Hispanic population.

U.S. Latinos from Central and South America are somewhat more educated than Hispanics as a whole. Only 34 percent of U.S. Hispanics from Central and South America have less than a high school education, and about 23 percent have 8 or fewer years of education (table III-9).

Residents of Ward 1 and the District of Columbia are also somewhat more educated than U.S. Hispanics -- closer to one-third, rather than one-half, of them have less than a high school education. They are slightly more likely to be educated beyond the 8th grade than Central and South Americans living throughout the U.S. Twenty percent of Ward 1 residents did not go beyond the 8th grade; 23 percent of U.S. residents from Central and South American did not. However, because the Ward 1 and District of Columbia statistics are based upon 1980 information, they may not reflect the education levels of the most recent immigrants.

The 1990 unemployment rate for Ward 1 (7.3 percent)--is higher than for the District as a whole (table III-9). In fact, Ward 1's unemployment rate is higher than the 1989 rate for Hispanics throughout the nation and matches the 1989 nationwide rate for blacks. However, three other District wards (Wards 5, 7, and 8), all of which have 90 percent or more blacks (and 2 percent or fewer Hispanics), fare as poorly or worse than Ward 1, with unemployment rates of 7.2 percent, 8.8 percent and 10.8 percent (see table III-2). Thus, unemployment rates in the District are bad, including in Ward 1, but other wards face even more severe unemployment.

The median household income is lower for Ward 1 than for the District ($18,900 vs. $22,400 in 1986). However, the median household income of Hispanics living in Ward 1 is not too different from that of U.S. Hispanics ($18,900 vs. $18,352 in 1986).

Throughout the United States, Hispanics generally live in larger households than blacks and the population as a whole. They average 3.38 persons per household compared to 2.82 for blacks or 2.62 for the whole population (table III-9). Despite the high concentration of minorities in Washington, D.C. and minorities' tendency to have larger households, District residents live in smaller households than the population in general, averaging 2.32 persons per household. Residents in Ward 1 live in households that are even smaller than the typical District resident, averaging only 2.14 persons per household. This finding supports the contention of one

researcher that Hispanic households in the District are composed of solitary males supporting the families they left in El Salvador.[97]

The District of Columbia and Ward 1 have a high proportion of renter-occupied housing units. In 1989, 63 percent of the units in the District of Columbia and 72 percent of those in Ward 1 were renter-occupied or vacant.[98]

Table III-10 presents some national data on renters and some comparing renters and owners. Blacks and Hispanics (58 percent) are more likely to be renting their housing than the U.S. population (36 percent). Central and South Americans residing in the United States are even more likely to be living in renter-units (68.6 percent).[99] United States statistics show that renters of all racial or ethnic groups have smaller households (e.g., averaging 3.19 persons for Hispanics, 2.82 for blacks, and 2.62 for all groups) than those who own their units.

U.S. Hispanics spend more on monthly housing costs than blacks (e.g., $400 vs. $350 for renters). The amount they spend compares with that of the population as a whole for renters (about $400 per month). Hispanic owners spend more than all U.S. owners spend ($416 vs. $375, table III-10).

The percent of income U.S. Hispanics spend on housing, however, is more than the total population spends and about equal to what blacks spend. Black and Hispanic renters spend 32 percent of their income on housing; all renters spend 29 percent. Black and Hispanic owners spend 20 to 21 percent of their income compared to 18 percent for owners in general (table III-10).

Because patterns of fertility and child care of Hispanic women differ so much from the rest of the United States population, they deserve mention here. However, no local data are available to confirm whether these patterns hold true in the District of Columbia and Ward 1.

Nationally, Hispanic women aged 18 to 44 are more likely to have had a child in the last year than black women or women in general. But births to teenage or unmarried mothers, which occur quite often among blacks, are much less common among Hispanic women. Indeed, the percent of Hispanic births with unmarried mothers is little more than half of that for blacks, although it is more than for the population as a whole. Also, Hispanic children under 18 years old are substantially less likely to be living with only one parent than are blacks, although they are more likely to be living with only one parent than children in general. Hispanics spend more

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[97] November 25, 1991 conversation with George Grier, Greater Washington Research Center. Also, his research shows that among households that moved to metropolitan Washington (i.e, including parts of Maryland and Virginia) in 1884-1985, 64 percent had only 1 or 2 persons; 65 percent had no children. See George Grier, *Jobs and Housing: The Dual Crisis* (Washington, D.C.: Greater Washington Research Center, July 1990), p. 25.

[98] *Indices*, 1991, p. 33.

[99] U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1991*, 11th ed., table 45.

than blacks on weekly child care expenses for children under 15 whose mothers are employed, both in terms of the amount and its percentage of income. Thus, although Hispanic women are more likely to give birth than others, their children are less likely to be the products of teenage or unmarried mothers or raised by single parents, and, when their mothers are employed, receive more paid child care than other disadvantaged groups such as blacks.

IV
FEDERAL AND DISTRICT PROVISION OF SOCIAL SERVICES

Chapter III described the people living in the District of Columbia, and specifically in Ward 1, where the Mt. Pleasant and Adams Morgan neighborhoods are located. It indicated some recent trends that have exacerbated the needs of poor people in these areas. This chapter will discuss social services and some of the special circumstances recent Hispanic immigrants may face in obtaining the services they need. The many social services include income assistance, unemployment insurance or compensation, training and job services, health services, food services, human services, and minority business services. Housing, police protection and/or misconduct, and educational services will be discussed in the chapters that follow.

A major concern of the D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force is that the Latino community is not receiving an equitable share of District services. The Task Force is measuring an equitable share against a figure of 10 percent, which the Task Force states is the proportion recognized by the Mayor's Office on Latino Affairs. Many agencies may apply a figure of 5.4 percent, taken from official Census data.

The recent influx of Hispanic immigrants in Ward 1 creates special problems for those who wish to receive social services and for those who provide them. First, are recent immigrants eligible to receive social services? Second, do they have any established networks to learn what social services are available and where to apply for them? Third, do service providers have Spanish-speaking translators when Hispanics apply for services? Such factors may interfere with Latinos receiving social services.

Federal laws and regulations require proof of citizenship or U.S. residency status as a condition of eligibility for many social services. Although Federally funded programs rule undocumented immigrants as ineligible, many locally funded programs are not subject to such regulations.[100] The D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force contends that the District of Columbia government personnel who administer these programs are confused about the required Immigration Naturalization Service (INS) documentation. Consequently they may discriminate against undocumented immigrants.[101]

Second, the recent, non-English-speaking immigrant faces special problems in accessing social services. Other groups needing services have a knowledge of the availability of those services through living in the United States and through their own or their friends' past experience in receiving social services. A social network can provide information on how and where to apply

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[100] Office of the Mayor, "Clarification of Benefits Available to Non-Citizens or Individuals Without U.S. Residency Status," Mayor's Order 86-91, June 9, 1986.

[101] D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force, *The Task Force Blueprint for Action*, Final Recommendations to the District of Columbia Government, October 1991, p. 33.

for services even to those who are illiterate. Recent immigrants have little or no past experience with United States social services. Friends and others in their social network are likely inexperienced as well. According to the Task Force, literature on social services is seldom readily available in Spanish. The recent immigrant may not receive social services because he or she does not know about the availability of those services or where and how to apply. The D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force notes an absence of outreach programs to the Latino community.[102]

Finally, non-English-speaking immigrants may not receive adequate social services if service providers lack sufficient bilingual personnel to communicate with the applicants. The Task Force found a lack of Latinos or other bilingual employees of the District government who deal with the public. Furthermore, the training that such employees receive for cultural sensitivity was minimal.[103]

Unfortunately, data is seldom available to show either that Latinos are underrepresented among social service recipients or that the service needs of Latinos or other poor people are grossly unmet. Descriptions of a variety of human service programs are presented below along with readily available data on these programs in the District of Columbia.

A. Overview of Human Support Services.

Table IV-1 shows five year trends for the provision of social services. During the period of 1986 to 1990, District government expenditures on human support services have increased from $613,330 to $830,775. The total expenditures, however, convey little about how many people were served and the extent to which individual needs were met.

A total of 26.9 percent of appropriated District spending is directed toward human support services. Although this appropriation has increased by 35.5 percent between 1986 and 1990, the increase is largely because of demands placed on the District's social service programs for foster children, delinquent youths and the homeless, and because Saint Elizabeth's Hospital was transferred from the Federal government to the District.[104]

Clients in human services programs may participate in one or more of 11 programs: Medicaid, Food Stamps, Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Health Services, Supplementary Security Income (SSI), Medical Charities, General Public Assistance, Rehabilitation Services, Social Services Block Grant, Mental Health Services, Foster Care, and Emergency Assistance. In 1990, 179,603 individuals, or nearly 30 percent of the District's population, received at least one such service. However, 92 percent of the total number of persons in the 11 programs receive

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102 Ibid.

103 Ibid.

104 Among other program areas are economic development, public education and public safety. District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 8 (August 1991), p. 117.

aid from more than one program. The most frequent combination of human services received includes AFDC, Medicaid, and food stamps. In 1990, 51,987 District residents received aid from these three programs.[105]

The number of participants in human services programs decreased between 1986 and 1988, then increased in 1989 and 1990. During this period, the District government broadened the eligibility criteria for Medicaid and maintained AFDC eligibility to cover categories eliminated by federal welfare reform in the early 1980s. Thus, the declining number of program participants indicates a real decrease, rather than a shift in eligibility.

B. Income Assistance.

The District government offers several financial aid programs to assist families, children, and adults whose incomes fall below established minimum levels of economic self-sufficiency. These programs include AFDC, General Public Assistance (GPA), Emergency Assistance (EA), and SSI. In addition some employment and training programs are specifically for recipients of other assistance.

AFDC is the largest of these programs. Seventy percent of the beneficiaries of AFDC were children who were deprived of parental support because of the death, incapacity, continued absence, underemployment, or unemployment of one or both parents.[106]

AFDC is jointly funded by the Federal and District governments. Therefore, recipients must have proof of citizenship or U.S. residency status. Children who are born in the United States are citizens and may qualify for benefits even though their parent(s) or guardian(s) may not. Thus, an undocumented parent or guardian may be a payee for a child who is a citizen.

From 1986 to 1990, the number of children receiving AFDC declined from 41,907 to 34,403. The number of households receiving AFDC also declined from 21,325 in 1986 to 18,010 in 1989 and had a small increase (to 18,527) in 1990 (see table IV-2).

Of the 35,532 children who were supported by AFDC in September 1990, 12.7 percent of them were in Ward 1. The largest proportion of children receiving AFDC were in Ward 8 (28.7 percent). Ward 5 had 15.6 percent of the children receiving AFDC. Two others--Wards 6 and 7--have proportions similar to Ward 1 (12.5 percent and 12.3 percent).[107]

Financial assistance levels vary by family size and are established by the Council of the District of Columbia. Public assistance benefits are adjusted by an amount equal to the percentage increase in the Consumer Price Index. As a result of this adjustment, AFDC benefits increased

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105 Ibid., pp. 223-224.

106 Ibid., p. 226.

107 Ibid.

by 4 percent in 1986, 4.2 percent in 1987, 3.7 percent in 1988, 3.9 percent in 1989 and 4.7 percent in 1990. The District of Columbia's average monthly payment in fiscal year 1990 was $382 (table IV-2).

During 1986 to 1989, District funds spent on AFDC hovered near $40 million. In 1990, these funds increased by almost $4 million to $43.2 million. Total AFDC payments, including funds from the Federal government, ranged near $78 million during 1986 to 1989, but increased to $84.8 million in 1990. Thus, the District government paid 50.9 percent of the total AFDC expenditures in fiscal year 1990.[108]

General Public Assistance (GPA) is funded entirely by District government revenue. The program provides income support to three groups: (1) individuals and couples between the ages of 18 and 65 who are unable to work because of a short-term physical or mental incapacitation and who do not have financial resources sufficient to meet their basic needs; (2) individuals awaiting an eligibility decision from the SSI program; and (3) minor children who live with someone other than a relative and who are not supported by their parents. Financial resources of the first group are evaluated using income and asset criteria similar to those for AFDC.

The average monthly caseload for GPA has declined since 1986. The average monthly payment increased during this period because benefits are indexed to the Consumer Price Index. In 1990, expenditures for GPA totaled $12.6 million.[109]

Emergency Assistance (EA) provides a financial grant or other assistance to individuals or families to meet emergency situations that would result in deprivation of basic necessities. A person threatened with eviction for nonpayment of rent, for example, could have the rent paid by this program. Payments may cover rent, utilities, mortgage payments, food, emergency shelter, moving expenses, clothing, furniture, household items, security deposits, and employment necessities, such as tools and special clothing.

The District and Federal governments equally share EA payments to families with children who have not received EA within the prior 12 months. Grants for all other persons are paid from District government appropriations.

The number of vouchers approved, the average grant, and the total expenditures for EA increased from 1986 to 1988, fell during 1989, and remained low in 1990 (table IV-2). However, expenditures for family shelter services purchased on the open market during 1989 and 1990 have not been included in their numbers. The open market purchases add $5.2 million in 1989 and $2.4 million in 1990 and would also increase the average grant.[110]

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108 Ibid.

109 Ibid., p. 227.

110 Ibid., p. 228.

SSI provides income support to indigent residents who are aged, blind, or disabled. The District government provides supplements to persons receiving SSI payments who are living independently or in community residential facilities. Proof of citizenship or U.S. residency is required for eligibility to receive SSI. Also, SSI eligibility is withdrawn if a recipient is judged no longer totally disabled or has an increase in income or assets.

Roughly 16,000 recipients received SSI each year between 1986 and 1990. The average monthly payment to individuals rose from about $150 in 1986 and 1987 to $167 in 1990. Average monthly program expenditures gradually increased from $4 million in 1986 to $4.6 million in 1990 due to increases in Federal funds. The District's supplement remained constant at $400,000 each year from 1986 to 1990.[111]

C. Unemployment Insurance/Compensation.

The Department of Employment Services administers the District Unemployment Fund. It provides benefits to workers who are unemployed through no fault of their own and who are willing and able to work. These benefits are financed by quarterly payroll taxes from private businesses in the District of Columbia. Employees do not contribute to the trust fund. Some non-profit employers, as well as the District and Federal governments, reimburse the trust fund for benefits paid to their former employees rather than paying payroll taxes.

From 1986 to 1990, the average weekly payment for unemployment insurance increased from $162 to $207 (table IV-3). In 1990, weekly benefits ranged from $17 to $293, depending on the level of an individual's previous earnings. In addition to the weekly benefit, individuals may receive an allowance of $5 per dependent relative, up to a maximum of $20. Benefits are exhausted after a maximum duration of 26 weeks.

The number of individuals compensated with unemployment insurance declined each year from 1986 to 1989, and then increased dramatically in 1990, by more than 16 percent, resulting in more persons being compensated than in 1986. However, the 1990 increase in individuals served is only keeping pace with a similar 1990 increase in new claims.

Perhaps more importantly, the number of claimants who have exhausted their benefits increased in both 1989 and 1990 (table IV-3). Thus, the needs of the long-term unemployed may not be met.

Federal laws and regulations require proof of citizenship or U.S. residency status for applicants to be eligible for unemployment insurance. Thus, undocumented Latinos are ineligible.

D. Training and Job Services.

The Department of Employment Services provides year-round job training for District residents seeking jobs, but who require skills training, retraining, or other vocational support services to

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[111] Ibid., p. 229.

compete successfully in today's job market. Funds for the training are provided under the District's *Youth Employment Act of 1979*, D.C. Law 3-46, and the Federal *Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (JTPA)*, P.L. 97-3000.

Locally-funded programs provide training and retraining and subsidize wages earned by District of Columbia youths and adults while they are employed in jobs that will improve their skills. Among these programs are Special Temporary Employment Program (STEP), Single Mothers are Resources Too (SMART), Student Tutorial and Recreation Support Program (STARS), Job Opportunities and Basic Skills (JOBS), and Project Success. Apart from JTPA, Federally-funded programs include Senior Aides, the Federal Job Corps, and JOBS.

The Mayor's Summer Youth Employment Program provides District youths between the ages of 14 and 21 with entry-level employment opportunities. Youths are eligible to participate regardless of family income, but those assigned to federally-funded jobs must be economically disadvantaged. The jobs are in areas such as social services, performing arts, public works, culinary arts, and retailing. Depending upon age, the youths work 20 to 40 hours a week for a six-week period during the summer, earning $3.80 per hour. Total summer income ranges between $456 and $912. Only about 80 percent of the youth who are registered for this program actually report to work sites to begin their jobs.[112]

Enrollments in employment and training programs (table IV-4) ranged around 13,500, except in 1987 when 15,221 participants were enrolled (i.e., an increase of 16.7 percent). Clearly, District government has tried to compensate for changes in Federal funding, because the number of program participants funded by District government has increased more, and declined less, from year to year than the number of participants funded from both sources. For example, District-funded enrollments in JTPA increased 45.7 percent in 1987 (compared with the 16.7 percent increase above). District-funded enrollments decreased in 1988 by 7.0 percent -- less than the 9.7 percent decrease in enrollments supported by District and Federal funds combined.

The number of youths registering and being placed in summer jobs has declined between 1986 and 1990. There were over 25,000 registrants in 1986 but only 17,408 in 1990. The number of placements was about 21,500 in 1986, but dropped to about 13,500 in 1989 and 1990 (table IV-4).

E. Health Services.

Nationwide, Hispanics are more than twice as likely lack to health insurance coverage as the United States general population (26.2 percent vs. 12.8 percent, table IV-5). They are substantially more likely than blacks (19.7 percent) to lack health insurance coverage.

Only 15.5 percent of Latinos are covered by Medicaid, but almost a quarter of blacks have Medicaid. Although the gap in these figures may represent a difference in need, this seems

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112 Ibid., p. 182.

unlikely. Among persons below the poverty level, Hispanics are the least likely group to be covered by Medicaid. About 57 percent of blacks below the poverty level are covered by Medicaid, but less than 40 of Hispanics below the poverty level are (table IV-5).

In a 1986 survey of District of Columbia households, Hispanics had the highest rate of non-coverage with health insurance. Thirty-four percent of Hispanics were without coverage, the highest rate of any racial or ethnic group. Hispanics comprised 12 percent of the uninsured population -- a rate that is disproportionately high compared to either the Census estimate (5.4 percent) or the Office of Latino affairs estimate (10 percent) of their representation in the District population. At the same time, the greatest number of uncovered District residents are blacks. Although only 16 percent of blacks are uninsured, they represent 65 percent of the total uninsured population.[113]

Medicaid is a locally administered and federally assisted program. It pays for the health care of pregnant women, low-income families with children, permanently disabled individuals, and elderly persons who cannot pay all of their medical care costs. In the District of Columbia about 75 percent of Medicaid expenditures are for inpatient hospitalization and nursing care.[114] The program generally pays the medical care provider directly for services rendered to eligible patients, but can choose to purchase some of the care through other health insurance plans, including Medicare.

Since 1987, the District government has expanded Medicaid eligibility for certain segments of the population. For example, undocumented aliens are eligible for coverage of emergency inpatient hospitalization, including maternity. The number of persons qualified under the expanded eligibility criteria has grown each year, from 1,222 in 1988 to 4,824 in 1990.[115]

Although the number of recipients of Medicaid ranged between 96,635 and 98,374 during 1986 to 1989, it dropped to 93,481 recipients in 1990. The average annual payment per recipient rose from $3,285 in 1986 to over $3,700, then to $4,334 in 1990. Total expenditures for the program increased from $322 million in 1986 to $362 million in 1987, then to over $370 million in 1988 and 1989, and finally to $405 million in 1990 (table IV-6).

The Medical Charities program is a District government-funded health care program that pays hospital costs for indigent persons with no dependent children who do not meet the Medicaid eligibility criteria. The average monthly eligible beneficiaries decreased from 7,663 in 1986 to 6,943 in 1987 and 1988, to barely over 6,000 in 1989 and 1990. The inpatient hospital days this program paid for also dropped from 21,000 in 1986 to below 18,500 in 1987 and 1988, and to 16,229 in 1989. Between 1989 and 1990, however, the number of inpatient days increased to

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[113] Office of the Special Assistant for Human Resource Development, Office of the Mayor, *Residents Without Health Insurance: Who's at Risk?*, February 1989.

[114] *Indices*, 1991, p. 279.

[115] Ibid., p. 278.

18,000. The program also paid for 21,854 emergency and outpatient visits in 1990 and expended $3.3 million for health care services.[116]

Long-term care nursing beds may be supported by Federal or District government or operated by non-profit organizations or proprietary private institutions. Although the number of long-term care nursing beds in operation increased by about 100 beds from 1986 to 1990, the number of beds supported by the District fell by 300 between 1989 and 1990 (table IV-6).

Although it is the most densely populated ward, in 1990 Ward 1 had only a single licensed long-term care facility with 164 beds. No other ward had so few beds available. Ward 6 had 6 facilities with 676 beds, and Ward 8 had 3 facilities with 638 beds.[117]

The Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia concluded that the "District is not taking full advantage of available [F]ederal funding." It noted that:

> [I]n fiscal years 1989 and 1990 the District did not take the initiative to help three non-profit community health centers apply for [F]ederal funds for infant mortality programs. The centers have neither the expertise nor the competence to apply for the funds on their own. The centers are located in the three neighborhoods with the highest infant mortality rates in the U.S.[118]

F. Food and Nutrition Services.

The Federally funded Food Stamp Program assists households with limited cash resources in purchasing food. The purchasing value of the allotted food stamps is determined by the size of a household--all persons at the same address who buy and prepare food together--and its total income. Proof of citizenship or U.S. residency status is required for eligibility.

The average monthly recipients of food stamps decreased from 69,209 in 1986 to 58,968 in 1988 and then began increasing to 66,158 in 1990. The average monthly household allotment dipped to $108 in 1987, then increased, reaching $129 in 1990. This monthly allotment was for an average household size of 2.37 persons.[119]

The total food stamp program expenditures also dipped from $37 to $33 million between 1986 and 1987, then increased to $43 in 1990.

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[116] Ibid.

[117] Ibid., p. 231. An alternative source is: D.C. Department of Housing and Community Development, *CHAS: Comprehensive Housing Affordability Strategy of the District of Columbia, 1992-1996* (Washington, D.C.), p. 46.

[118] Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia, *Financing the Nation's Capital*, November 1990, p. 3-1.

[119] *Indices*, 1991, p. 236.

In 1986, 45 percent of food stamp recipients also received public assistance; this increased to 54 percent in 1990.[120] Food Stamp Program participation increased slightly between 1986 and 1990, from 901 food stamp recipients per 10,000 in the population in 1986 to 991 in 1990 (table IV-8).

In Ward 1, food stamp participation fell between 1986 and 1990: 905 per thousand were receiving food stamps in 1986; 860 per thousand were receiving them in 1990. Ward 1 was the only one in which participation fell between 1986 and 1990, except for Ward 3, which had almost no program participation. Indeed, in 1990, Ward 1 had lower food stamp program participation than all other wards except Wards 3 and 4 (table IV-8).

The Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children provides nutrition education, food supplements, and health care services to improve the health and nutritional status of high-risk pregnant, breast-feeding, and postpartum women for six months, and infants and children up to the age of 5 years. Eligible women are given vouchers to purchase food rich in protein, iron, calcium, and vitamins A and C. The number of participants in this program increased from 1986 to 1990, except for a small decrease in 1989 (table IV-7). In 1990, 22,501 women, infants and children were recipients.

The Commodity Supplemental Food Program provides monthly food packages to low-income pregnant, breast-feeding and postpartum women, as well as to infants, children up to the age of 6, and low-income elderly persons. It is jointly administered by the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the District government. The program includes nutrition education, food distribution and food preparation demonstrations. A large increase in the recipients of this program occurred in 1987 because elderly persons began participating that year. The number of participants dropped in 1988 to 12,650, but has increased since then to almost 20,000 in 1990 (table IV-7).

G. Services Targeted to Immigrants or Minorities.

Some agencies of the District of Columbia provide services specifically targeted toward immigrants or minorities. They include the Office of Refugee Resettlement, the Mayor's Office of Latino Affairs, and the Department of Human Rights and Minority Business Development.

The Office of Refugee Resettlement is in the District of Columbia's Department of Human Services. It provides assistance to immigrants arriving in the District of Columbia with official refugee status. Using Federal grant money, this office contracts with local non-profit organizations to provide most services for refugees. These groups include the Associated Catholic Charities, the Andromeda Hispano Mental Health Center, Proyecto Libertad, and others. With the help of these groups, the District claims having maintained the lowest refugee welfare dependency rate in the country since 1982. "In fiscal year 1990, only 17.2 percent of all eligible refugees in the District were receiving financial assistance, as compared with 52.1 percent

[120] Ibid.

nationally in 1989."[121] This office aided 9 refugees from Central America in 1989 and 129 in 1990.[122]

The Mayor's Office on Latino Affairs, established in 1976, is an advocacy office to help other agencies become more responsive to the needs of Latino residents. It is the District's official Spanish-language translator and, in 1990, prepared 1,061 pages of translations of application forms, brochures and posters to increase access to District government and community-based services. In 1990, it raised over $19,000 in donations from private foundations and corporations to support the production of a half-hour public education Spanish-language television program. It co-sponsored a free back-to-school health fair in August 1990 to provide physical and dental exams and required immunizations for children to meet enrollment requirements for the new school year.[123]

The Department of Human Rights and Minority Business Development certifies minority-owned businesses for participation in government minority contracting programs. In 1990, 45 (7.8 percent) of the businesses certified as minority owned, were owned by Hispanics. Twenty six (7.6 percent) of those actually receiving contracts in 1990 were owned by Hispanics. The amount Hispanic businesses received through this program was 32.7 percent of the amount expended for the program, but the program did not make all eligible expenditures (table IV-9).

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121 Ibid., p. 235.

122 Ibid.

123 Ibid., p. 234.

V
HOUSING SERVICES

A. Housing Needs.

Affordable housing has become a major concern in many cities. Reflecting these concerns, Congress passed the National Affordable Housing Act of 1990. In response to this Act, the District of Columbia prepared the Comprehensive Housing Affordability Strategy (CHAS).[124] The strategy contains a community profile, a five year design, and a one year plan. The CHAS is required before the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) can provide the District funds through a Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) or other housing programs.

The District's CHAS began by assessing the housing needs of low income families. It indicates that 40 percent of renters had very low incomes (less than 50 percent of the median income for the Washington metropolitan statistical area). Sixty three percent of those with very low incomes were paying more than 30 percent of their income for housing.

Some of the lower income households had applied for assistance under public housing, Section 8 assistance, or the District's Tenant Assistance Program (TAP).[125] The Department of Public and Assisted Housing's waiting list contained 15,585 applicants as of June 30, 1991. Applicants had applied for more than one program. Thus, 11,394 were on the waiting list for public housing, 12,881 for Section 8, and 13,908 for TAP.[126]

Similarly, four months later, the consolidated waiting list had 15,131 applicants--10,988 for public housing, 12,921 for Section 8 housing, and 13,289 for TAP (table V-1). Of these applicants, 96 to 97 percent were blacks--14,593 on the consolidated list, 10,598 on the public housing list, 12,520 on the Section 8 list and 12,886 on the TAP list. About 1.5 percent were Latinos--222 on the consolidated list, 166 on the public housing list, 197 on the Section 8 list, and 190 on the TAP list.

In Ward 1, the consolidated waiting list had 1,875; the public housing list had 1,420; the Section 8 housing list had 1,581; and the Tap list had 1,658. Of these, 91 to 92 percent were blacks--1,704 on the consolidated list, 1,283 on the public housing list, 1,581 on the Section 8 list, and 1,658 on the TAP list. About 6 percent of the Ward 1 applicants were Latinos--113 on the consolidated list, 87 on the public housing list, 101 on the Section 8 list, and 99 on the TAP list

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[124] Department of Housing and Community Development, *CHAS: Comprehensive Housing Affordability Strategy of the District of Columbia, 1992-1996* (Washington, D.C.).

[125] The services provided by these programs are described below.

[126] *CHAS 1992-1996*, p. 5.

(table V-1). Over 50 percent of the District's Hispanic applicants on the waiting list were in Ward 1.[127]

It is unclear whether a disproportionately low number of Latinos on these waiting lists means that Hispanics are getting more of the services they need than other groups or are not gaining access to housing services to apply.

A racial breakdown of renters paying more than 30 percent of income for rent shows that 67.1 percent are households of blacks, but only 1.4 percent, or 676, are Latino households. The CHAS notes that the 1985 data, from which these figures are drawn, undercount the Latino population of the city and that the population of Latinos has grown significantly since the data were collected.[128]

The decrease in the supply of affordable housing is documented from 1977 to 1985. In 1977, 22.5 percent of all renters were paying more than 35 percent of their income for housing; in 1981, 28.3 percent were paying that proportion; in 1985, 30.9 percent were paying that much.[129]

From 1970 to 1990, the District's housing stock remained much the same. However, owner-occupied housing increased, renter occupied housing decreased by about 36,000, and the number of vacant units grew significantly.[130] Ward 1 had a small increase in the housing stock from 37,954 housing units in 1980 to 38,752 in 1990.[131]

Ninety-two percent of renter-occupied units in the District of Columbia were occupied in 1990.[132]

A commonly used measure of overcrowding is occupancy of housing units in excess of 1 person per room. Using this indicator, the District was becoming less overcrowded over time, probably because of the trend towards smaller household size. However, the CHAS reports preliminary 1990 Census data showing a significant turnaround in the previous trend, especially in the severe overcrowding (i.e., more than 1.5 occupants per room) in rental housing. The number of rental units that are severely overcrowded dropped from 3,300 in 1977 to 2,700 in 1981, and to 1,800 in 1985, then increased to 9,800 in 1990 -- more than five times the number five years earlier.

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127 District of Columbia, Department of Public and Assisted Housing, "Summary of Waiting Lists as of 10/31/91 by Race/Ward," Nov. 8, 1991.

128 *CHAS 1992-1996*, p. 7.

129 Ibid, Table IV, p. 7. This table uses renters paying more than 35%, not 30% as in other parts of the plan.

130 The report cautions, however, that the count of vacant units may be too high. Ibid, pp. 23-25.

131 District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 8 (August 1991), p. 188.

132 Ibid.

The CHAS suggests some possible explanations: "(a) the large increase in Latino population, and the tendency of Latino families to double up in apartments in order to afford housing and/or (b) the general decline in the number of cheaper apartments with the result of more low income families in the general population doubling up in apartments."[133]

B. Housing Services.

The Department of Housing and Community Development (DHCD) and the department of Public and Assisted Housing (DPAH) administer a number of programs designed to increase the supply of affordable housing. The programs are funded through District government appropriations, the federal Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) Program, and Federal housing subsidy programs.

Some of these programs provide mortgage financing or insurance for construction or rehabilitation of housing and reduced interest loans for developers. Other programs assist individuals in becoming homeowners. They include the Home Purchase Assistance Program, the new Homestead Program, the First Right Purchase Assistance Program, and various rehabilitation programs. From 1986 through 1990, the District government assisted 3,893 households in purchasing homes (table V-2, summing across the row).

Rental assistance programs include the District-funded Tenant Assistance Program (TAP), the Federally-funded Section 8 Rental Assistance Program, and the Low-Rent Public Housing Program. In January 1991, the District of Columbia had 30,601 units of subsidized housing--11 percent of the its housing units (table V-3). Ward 1 had 3,132 subsidized housing units--only 8 percent of the housing units in that ward.

TAP provides rent subsidy payments to low- and moderate-income households in the private market. Households receiving this service pay a maximum of 30 percent (25 percent for the elderly) of their household income for rent. The District government pays the difference between the tenant's payment and the rent limit for the household size. In January 1991, the District had 2,832 housing units subsidized by TAP; 283 of the units were in Ward 1 (table V-3). The majority of TAP units were in Wards 5, 6, and 9. These wards had 538, 425, and 974 units, respectively.

The Federal Section 8 Rental Assistance Program is similar to TAP. It issues certificates and vouchers to eligible households for housing in the private market. Funds are provided through the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). Participants must meet HUD's income requirements and pay up to 30 percent of their household income for rent. They must also show proof of citizenship or U.S. residency status. All housing units eligible for the Section 8 program must comply with HUD's Housing Quality Standards. In January 1991, the District had 4,949 units subsidized by Section 8; 473 of them were in Ward 1 (table V-3). Wards 5 and 8 had 897 and 1,751 Section 8 subsidized units, respectively.

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[133] *CHAS 1992-1996*, p. 26.

Public housing is funded by both the Federal and District governments. Participants must be in low-income households meeting HUD's income requirements. The District government operated 11,796 units of public housing in January 1991; 1,149 were in Ward 1. Wards 2, 7 and 8 had 3,190, 2,995, and 2,189 public housing units, respectively.

C. Energy Assistance

The District of Columbia's Energy Office administered 30 programs in fiscal year 1990, with a budget of $9.3 million. Eighty-one percent of the budget was used for direct energy assistance to District residents.[134]

Two of the programs administered by this office are the Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Program (LIHEAP), and the Complementary Energy Assistance Program.

LIHEAP is a Federal block grant program which helps pay energy bills for heating, cooling, and crisis intervention to prevent service cut-off. The number of households assisted by LIHEAP in the District of Columbia has generally decreased since 1986, although crisis intervention increased in 1989 (because of an extremely cold December and rising oil prices) and 1990 (table V-2). In 1990, 12,867 District households received assistance with heating; 2,194 Ward 1 households had help with heating; 7,462 District and 1,481 Ward 1 households received help with cooling. Although more than 50 percent of the households receiving assistance were residents in Wards 5, 7, and 8, no ward had substantially more households receiving assistance than Ward 1 (e.g., in Ward 5, 2,371 and 1,510 households received heating and cooling assistance).[135]

The Complementary Energy Assistance Program (CEAP) provides monthly energy grants to low- and moderate-income families. In fiscal year 1990, this program provided grants to an average monthly caseload of 2,074 families whose Aid to Families with Dependent Children benefits had been terminated or denied. In the last five years, the average monthly caseload of CEAP has fluctuated between a high of 3,500 in 1988 and a low of 2,074 in 1990 (table V-2). The average monthly caseload, however, reflects new program regulations that expanded the number of people eligible for assistance in 1988 and a recertification program in 1989 that eliminated many long-term program recipients from the program.

The average monthly payment increased from $78 in 1986 to $86 in 1987, but has decreased since then to $65 in 1990 (table V-2).

In 1990, the District of Columbia served 4,195 households with CEAP; 377 were in Ward 1 (table V-3). Wards 5, 7, and 8 had 625, 973, and 864 households receiving this assistance.[136]

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[134] *Indices*, 1991, p. 219.

[135] Ibid.

[136] Ibid.

VI
POLICE PROTECTION AND THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

The role of the police and the individual police officer cannot be underestimated, particularly in minority neighborhoods. The police have the difficult, sometimes thankless, task of upholding the law -- a task which has caused many officers to die in the line of duty. For many civilians, particularly foreign-born adults, police are the most significant contact with the government. The actions of individual police officers often significantly affect an individual's understanding of the responsiveness of government to individual and group needs and of the Nation's dedication to equality under law.

Poor police community relations may be one of the major factors that led to the Mount Pleasant disturbances. The District of Columbia's Latino Civil Rights Task Force expressed the concerns of many in Washington D.C.'s Hispanic community as follows:

- "There is a real or perceived pattern of widespread, endemic racism and physical and verbal abuse by the Metropolitan Police Department against the Latino community;"[137]

- "The Metropolitan Police Department is not sensitive or responsive to Latino needs;"[138]

- "Latino police officers are not clearly visible in the community;"[139] and

- "There is no official group of individuals designated to be available as liaisons between the Police and the Latino community on a continuous basis to encourage dialogue."[140]

This staff report cannot properly address these concerns. That endeavor is properly the function of the Commission hearings. However, in anticipation of the testimony of the hearings, the following information is presented.

Organization. The Metropolitan Police Department (MPD) is only one of 24 police forces, including the U.S. Secret Service and the U.S. Capitol police, operating in the District of Columbia. Jointly, these police forces employ more than 7,000 public law enforcement officers. In 1990, the MPD employed an average of 4,489 full-time police officers, 560 civilians, and 259

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137 D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force, *The Latino Blueprint for Action,* Final Recommendations to the District of Columbia Government, October 1991, p. 17.

138 Ibid., p. 20.

139 Ibid., p. 22.

140 Ibid., p. 25.

cadets.[141] The MPD is headed by a Chief of Police appointed by the Mayor and is organized into seven police districts, each headed by a deputy chief. Ward 1 is split between Districts 3 and 4.[142]

Reported Criminal Offenses. Altogether, 14,961 crimes against persons and 50,686 crimes against property were reported in the District of Columbia in fiscal year 1990. The number of crimes against persons rose by 59 percent between 1986 and 1990 and by 16 percent from the previous year. The number of crimes against property showed less of an increase, 18 percent since 1986, and 3 percent since the previous year (table VI-2).

District 7, which corresponds to Ward 8, had the most crimes against persons, followed by District 5, which corresponds to Ward 5. Crimes against property were highest in District 1, which corresponds to Wards 2 and 6, and District 2, which corresponds to Ward 3 (table VI-2).

The district experiencing the greatest increase in crimes against persons since 1986 is District 7, which corresponds to Ward 8, with District 5 (corresponding to Ward 5), District 6 (corresponding to Ward 7 and part of Ward 8) and District 4 (corresponding to Ward 4 and part of Ward 1) not far behind. Many districts experienced a decline in crimes against property between 1986 and 1990 (table VI-2).

Districts 3 and 4, which correspond to Ward 1 do not stand out as experiencing more crime than other districts in the city, nor have they experienced especially great increases in crime since 1986. They did, however, experience a significant surge in crimes against persons in the one 1989-90 fiscal year (table VI-2).

Of course, statistical data are for reported crimes only. Many criminal offenses may go unreported, and police officers in the District of Columbia believe that Hispanics are less likely to report crimes then are other population groups.[143] Three reasons why Hispanics might underreport crimes have been cited:

- Hispanics may have difficulties communicating with the police, primarily because they lack English proficiency and few police can speak Spanish.

- Hispanics may be distrustful of the police. Many Hispanics in the District of Columbia have had bad experiences with police in their home countries. Furthermore, those who are undocumented may fear being deported if they approach the police.

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[141] District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 8 (August 1991), p. 329.

[142] Ibid., p. 329.

[143] Hogan and Hartson and American Civil Liberties Union, *Language Barrier Problems in the Hispanic Community's Contacts with the Metropolitan Police Department and the District of Columbia's Court System*, Report prepared for the D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force, 1991, p. 8.

- Many Hispanics are unaware that they can report crimes by calling 911.[144]

Representation of Minorities on the MPD. Almost 70 percent of MPD police officers are minorities, a percentage that is roughly comparable to their representation in the District of Columbia's population (table VI-1). Only 2.5 percent of MPD officers are Hispanic, a figure that is roughly comparable to that for other Washington area police forces, but well below the Hispanic representation in the District of Columbia's population (table VI-1). Of the 92 Hispanic police officers employed by the MPD, 11 are detective second class, 12 are sergeants, and five are lieutenants. There are no Hispanic police officers above the rank of lieutenant.[145]

An article that appeared in the *Washington Times* in 1990 highlights the view held by many minority police officers in the MPD that the MPD favors whites in assignments and promotions. One example of biased treatment given in the article was the case of an Hispanic police officer who was mistakenly terminated and then required by the MPD to have his speech evaluated by the Washington Speech Society to determine whether or not his command of English was good enough for him to remain on the force. The officer had served in the military police for 6 years prior to entering the MPD.[146]

Access to Language Assistance in Police Communications. As noted above, very few (about 2.6 percent) MPD police officers speak Spanish fluently. Focusing on the Mount Pleasant area, 28, or 5 percent, of the 528 officers assigned to that area in July 1991 were Hispanic. In addition, 60 police officers in the 3rd and 4th police districts, which encompass Ward 1, were learning basic Spanish at the University of the District of Columbia.[147] MPD policy requires officers to address people in English first even when the officer is able to speak Spanish, however.[148]

Outreach to the Latino Community. In 1986, the MPD established a Hispanic Liaison Unit within the Department to "combat the police department's 'lack of understanding' of the city's Hispanic population."[149] The unit consisted of two officers who "have tried to act as trouble-shooters for the department, filing complaints about police behavior and responding to security problems among Hispanic residents and business owners, [and assisting] residents with everyday challenges, such as helping newly arrived Latin Americans to understand local driving regulations.[150] Since the Mount Pleasant incident, the MPD has re-opened a community police

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144 Ibid., pp. 8-13.

145 Ibid., p. 9.

146 Carleton R. Bryant, "Department Favors Whites, Minority Police Officers Say," *Washington Times*, Feb. 13, 1990.

147 *Language Barrier Problems*, pp. 10-11.

148 Gary Fields, "Better Hispanic-Police Links Called Urgent," *Washington Post*, May 7, 1991.

149 Debbi Wilgoren, "D.C. May Close Hispanic Unit," *Washington Post*, Aug. 5, 1991, quoting Inspector Daniel Q. Flores, then head of the Unit.

150 Ibid.

center in the Mount Pleasant area, where residents can come and make complaints and has increased its efforts to publicize its Hispanic Liaison Unit. The MPD has also increased the number of Spanish-speaking officers in the 3rd and 4th districts.[151]

The Civilian Complaint Review Board. Citizens may file complaints of police misconduct with the Civilian Complaint Review Board (CCRB), an independent board established in 1982 to investigate such complaints. The CCRB has seven members: three, including the Chair, appointed by the mayor; two appointed by the City Council; one by the Chief of Police; and one by the police union, the Fraternal Order of Police.[152] Two of the Board members are Hispanic, four are black, and one is white.[153] CCRB staff investigate complaints. Then, the Board decides "by a preponderance of the evidence whether to sustain or dismiss the complaint against the accused officer."[154] Finally, the Board recommends disciplinary action to the Chief of Police when warranted, with the Mayor ultimately responsible for deciding the disciplinary action in instances where the CCRB and the Chief of Police disagree.[155]

The CCRB has authority to review complaints alleging (1) police harassment, (2) excessive use of force, or (3) the "[u]se of language likely to demean the inherent dignity of any person to whom it was directed and to trigger disregard" for enforcement officers. In 1990, the CCRB received 415 complaints alleging excessive force (38 percent), demeaning use of language (25 percent), harassment (30 percent), and issues not within CCRB jurisdiction (7 percent). The wards with the greatest number of complaints were Wards 1 and 5, with Ward 3 having the fewest complaints.[156]

A recent study of Hispanic community/police relations noted that Hispanics were able to obtain necessary language assistance at all stages of the process of bringing a complaint to the CCRB, but stressed the long period of time it takes the CCRB to complete its investigations and resolve complaints.[157]

The Courts and the Penal System. A recent study has found that the lack of language assistance severely hampers Hispanics in the District of Columbia civil and criminal court systems as well. In the civil court system, only 11, or under one percent, of the 1,200 employees speak Spanish.

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151 *Language Barrier Problems*, p. 19.

152 *Indices*, 1991, p. 335.

153 *Language Barrier Problems*, p. 19.

154 D.C. Code § 4-905 (1988).

155 *Indices*, 1991, p. 335.

156 Ibid.

157 *Language Barrier Problems*, pp. 20-23.

Spanish-language brochures explaining the system are available, but none of the court employees charged with explaining the system to the public speaks Spanish.[158]

The study found that the criminal court system also has a severe lack of language assistance in some areas. For instance, after an arrest, a judge must decide whether or not to release the detainee on his/her own recognizance or to require a bond. Although Spanish-speaking attorneys are available on weekdays, they are not on Saturdays. As a result, it can be difficult for an Hispanic detainee to make known the information necessary to persuade the judge to release him/her on his/her own recognizance.[159] In one case a woman who had been arrested for assaulting a police officer was unable to tell her English-speaking attorney that she had a steady job, working papers, and was living in the United States legally. When the prosecuting attorney claimed that she was in the country illegally, her attorney was unable to tell the judge otherwise. As a result, the judge set her bond at $1,500, a sum she could not afford to pay, and she spent 13 days in jail before her case was dismissed.[160] Court-appointed interpreters and Spanish-speaking attorneys are available for trials, but some trials may be delayed until interpreters can be found.[161]

The study also gave other examples of ways in which Hispanic defendants may have unequal access to the courts. For instance, judges and bail bondsmen may mistakenly believe that illegal aliens have weak ties to the country. As a result, judges often set high bonds for Hispanics, and bondsmen are often unwilling to bail them out.[162]

Finally, the study found that the number of bilingual staff in District of Columbia correctional facilities is proportional to the number of Hispanic inmates, but is deficient in some areas. For instance, only 1 of 23 medical care workers speaks Spanish.[163]

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158 Ibid., pp. 27-28.

159 Ibid., pp. 29-37.

160 Daniel Klaidman, "Courts Stumble in Serving Latinos," *Legal Times*, vol. 14, no. 14 (Aug. 26, 1991).

161 *Language Barrier Problems*, p. 35.

162 Ibid., pp. 32-33.

163 Ibid., p. 39.

VII
THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

One of the frustrations expressed by the District of Columbia's Latino Civil Rights Task Force is what they perceive as inadequate educational services being offered to the city's language minority students. The Task Force voiced three main concerns:

- "The Civil rights of students have been consistently violated by physical abuse and the lack of services in schools that have been documented by the Latino community;"[164]

- "Due to a lack of policies regarding the education of language minority students and insufficient bilingual personnel, many Latino and other language minority students enrolled in D.C. Public Schools are not receiving adequate services;"[165] and

- "The University of the District of Columbia continues to participate in discriminatory practices and has failed to adequately serve the District's Latino population."[166]

A. *District of Columbia Public Schools: Organization, Enrollment, and Budget.*

Organization. The District of Columbia has a single public school district governed by an elected Board of Education and headed by a Superintendent of Schools. The Board of Education is comprised of 11 members who serve four-year terms. Each of the city's eight wards elects one Board member, and the three remaining Board members are chosen in at-large elections. The Board has the power to "determine all questions of general policy relating to the schools, . . . appoint the executive officers . . . define their duties, and direct expenditures."[167] It does not have independent taxing authority, however. The overall school budget is set by the Mayor and the City Council, subject to final approval by Congress. The Superintendent of Schools is appointed by the Board for a three-year term and has responsibility for the day-to-day management of the school district. The Superintendent's appointments of principals and high-level school officials are subject to Board approval.[168]

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[164] D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force, *The Latino Blueprint for Action,* Final Recommendations to the District of Columbia Government, October 1991, p. 51.

[165] Ibid.

[166] Ibid., p. 53.

[167] District of Columbia Committee on Public Education, *Our Children, Our Future: Revitalizing the District of Columbia Public Schools* (Washington, D.C., June 1989), p. 107.

[168] Ibid., pp. 107-8.

Enrollment. The District of Columbia Public School system (DCPS) operates 174 schools (including 117 elementary schools, 29 junior high or middle schools, and 16 senior high schools)[169] serving a total of 80,694 students,[170] down from roughly 94,975 students ten years ago.[171] Of these, 49,132 students are in pre-kindergarten through elementary school; 15,789 in junior high school; and 13,963 in high school.[172]

The DCPS student population is 96 percent minority, with black children making up 90 percent of the total student body. The percentage of the student body that is of Hispanic origin has been rising over recent years, from 3.7 percent in 1986 to 5.2 percent in 1990 (table VII-1).

Budget and Teacher Compensation. DCPS expenditures in 1990 were $568.1 million, up from $426.3 million in 1986. Of these expenditures, $497.1 million came from District funds, 52.8 million came from Federal funds, and 18.2 million came from Capital Improvement funds.[173] A total of $623.7 million has been budgeted for this school year.[174]

On a per student basis, DCPS spends $6,236, an increase from $4,410 in 1986. According to a recent study commissioned by the District of Columbia Committee on Public Education, DCPS spends $682 less per student for instruction than the average of other school districts in the region[175] and $536 less than the average of a sample of comparable city school districts across the county.[176] However, the District spends more on non-instructional support[177] than either the other school districts in the region or the comparable city school districts.[178] DCPS has 865 more non-school-based staff than the average for other area school districts and 1,251 more than for other comparable urban districts.[179] Based on these numbers, an advisory committee to

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169 District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, August 1991, p. 286.

170 Ibid., p. 281.

171 District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. 3 (July 1986), p. 179.

172 *Indices*, 1991, p. 281.

173 Franklin L. Smith, Superintendent of Schools, District of Columbia, *A Five Year Statistical Glance at D.C. Public Schools: School Years 1986-87 Through 1990-91*, November 1991, p. 1.

174 *Indices*, 1991, p. 284.

175 These districts were Alexandria, Fairfax County, Montgomery County, and Prince Georges County.

176 The comparable city sample was comprised of Baltimore, Cincinnati, Norfolk, Pittsburgh, Rochester, and San Diego. *Our Children, Our Future*, pp. 116-21.

177 Expenditures in this category include Board of Education support, central administration, budget and finance, materials management, operation and maintenance of the physical plant, personnel, and data processing. Ibid.

178 Ibid.

179 Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia, *Financing the Nation's Capital*, November 1990, p. 3-11. These figures were calculated after adjusting for differences in the student population across school districts.

DCPS recommended trimming the DCPS central administration and moving towards a system of school-based management.[180] A similar recommendation was made by the Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia, which recommended cutting the central administration by 800 positions.[181]

Teachers are paid less in the District of Columbia than in surrounding districts in the Washington metropolitan area. Beginning salaries of District of Columbia teachers are 7 percent less and top salaries are 8 percent less than those in surrounding areas.[182] Furthermore, DCPS does not have an incentive pay system. There are some indications that the poor compensation offered by DCPS might cause the District of Columbia to have problems recruiting top-quality teachers. For instance, a recent report found that DCPS has roughly 2-4 applicants for every teacher job opening, in comparison to 13 applicants per opening in nearby Montgomery County and 7 applicants per opening in Prince Georges County.[183]

B. Student Achievement.

Except in the early grades, District of Columbia students generally perform below the national norm on tests that measure educational achievement and aptitude. The District administers the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills to grades 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, and 11. On the Reading test, DCPS students in grade 3 performed at the national norm, but in grades 8 and above, they performed below the 40th percentile. DCPS students performed better on the Mathematics test, scoring above the national norm in early grades, but students in the 10th and 11th grades performed just above the 40th percentile on this test as well. Among students taking the Scholastic Aptitude Test, DCPS students scored an average of 337 verbal and 370 mathematics, in comparison to national average scores of 424 and 476, respectively.

High school grades suggest a similar picture. In examining high school grades given in the District in 1987, the D.C. Committee on Public Education found that the overall grade point average was 1.73, with only one school having an average over 2.0. Furthermore, only one-third of 10th and 11th graders had a grade point average of C (2.0) or better.[184]

The D.C. Committee on Public Education has raised serious concerns about the dropout rates of DCPS youngsters. They report that 40 percent of students enrolled in ninth grade fail to graduate

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180 *Our Children, Our Future,* pp. 14-15.

181 *Financing the Nation's Capital,* p. 3-10.

182 *Our Children, Our Future,* p. 86.

183 Ibid., p. 85.

184 Ibid., pp. 36-7.

three years later.[185] Although this figure is not out of line with comparable school districts, they believe that, given high youth unemployment rates in the District of Columbia, "the dropout problem is one of the paramount problems facing the school system."[186]

C. School Segregation.

Because over 95 percent of the students in DCPS are minority, District schools are highly racially segregated. Out of 185 schools reporting to the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights in 1988, 165 had more than 90 percent minority enrollment. Only eight schools had less than 50 percent minority enrollment.[187]

A recent study by the National School Boards Association has indicated that nationwide, Hispanic students are increasingly attending segregated schools.[188] In the District of Columbia, Hispanic students, like other students, generally attend schools that are predominantly minority. Not only are Hispanic students likely to attend predominantly minority schools, but they are also likely to attend schools with relatively high concentrations of Hispanics. Statistics collected by OCR in 1988 indicate that, although less than 5 percent of DCPS students were Hispanic, the District had one school that was 79 percent Hispanic,[189] four other schools that were over 50 percent Hispanic, and nine schools with Hispanic enrollment between 20 and 50 percent of the student body. On average, Hispanic students were in schools with 31.7 percent Hispanic enrollment.[190]

D. Programs for Language Minority Students

According to official estimates, 6,789 language minority students are enrolled in District schools, up from 5,299 just five years ago.[191] Almost two-thirds of these students are Spanish-speaking.[192] Students from El Salvador make up 30 percent of all language minority students enrolled in DCPS.[193] Many of these students are limited English proficient: Roughly one-quarter of these students knew no English at all, and one-half of the students had a command of

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185 Ibid., p. 32.

186 Ibid., p. 36.

187 U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, *1988 Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey: State and National Summaries*, (Washington, D.C.: Opportunity Systems, Inc., March 1991), p. C9.

188 Gary Orfield and Franklin Monfort, *Status of School Desegregation: The Next Generation* (National School Boards Association: Washington, D.C., 1992).

189 It should be noted that this school was the Multicultural Career Intern Program at Bell Senior High School, a program specifically designed for students from various cultures.

190 U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, *1988 Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey: School Summary Report, Volume 1*, pp. 223-26.

191 Because the DCPS did not, until recently, have a systematic language minority needs assessment procedure, the actual number of language minority students may be somewhat higher.

192 *Indices*, 1991, p. 289.

193 Superintendent's Task Force on Bilingual Education, *A Comprehensive Plan for Educating Language Minority Students in the District of Columbia Public Schools*, Oct. 1989, vol. 2, p. 135.

English that was "fair" or below. Only one-quarter were deemed fluent English speakers.[194] To serve these students, there are approximately 150 bilingual/English as a Second Language (ESL) staff, or roughly one bilingual/ESL staff member for 45 language minority students.[195] According to the Superintendent's Task Force on Bilingual Education, a more typical ratio would be one bilingual/ESL staff member for every 10 to 20 students.[196]

An October 1989 analysis of the educational services provided to language minority students in the DCPS arrived at the following main conclusions.

- DCPS did not have a clear district-wide bilingual education policy.
- DCPS did not have a systematic language minority needs assessment procedure.
- DCPS did not have a well-grounded procedure for exiting language minority students from bilingual/ESL programs.
- Although most DCPS school principals and assistant superintendents agreed that the best mode of instruction for language minority students was for them to learn content in their native language while they learn English, only 3 of 43 schools with sizeable language minority populations had this mode of instruction.
- DCPS did not provide sufficient material or financial resources for educating language minority students.
- DCPS did not have a policy for dealing with racial conflict involving language minority students.[197]

Based on this analysis, the DCPS has since developed a comprehensive plan for educating language minority students which promises to correct many of the problems pinpointed above.[198]

Since 1989 the District has operated Bell Multicultural High School (Bell), "an alternative high school whose central purpose and mission is to provide our ethnically diverse student population with opportunities and services which respond to their unique characteristics. The ... educational program addresses the students' needs to prepare themselves for a career after high school, to develop their skills in English and a foreign language, to succeed in their academic studies, to

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194 Ibid., table 12, p. 154.

195 *Indices*, 1991, p. 289.

196 *A Comprehensive Plan for Educating Language Minority Students*, p. 155.

197 Ibid., pp. 167-170.

198 Ibid., Executive Summary, pp. 1-19.

understand and respect diverse cultures, to cope with economic pressures, and to develop a sense of social responsibility."[199] Bell has an enrollment of 550 students from more than 30 countries, 50 percent of whom are Hispanic, and an ethnically diverse staff.[200]

Public Higher Education in the District of Columbia.
The District of Columbia has one public university, the University of the District of Columbia (UDC), which was created in 1977 by merging three previously independent institutions, District of Columbia Teachers College, Federal City College, and Washington Technical Institute. UDC is governed by a 15-member Board of Trustees, 11 of whom are appointed by the Mayor with City Council approval. The other four members are chosen by alumni and students. UDC has five academic colleges and offers 149 programs. The highest degree offered by UDC is the master's degree.[201]

In 1990, UDC had a total enrollment of 11,990, of whom the large majority (7,837) were part-time students. Although Hispanics made up more than 5 percent of the city's population,[202] they make up only 3 percent of student enrollment at UDC. Only one of the 458 faculty members is Hispanic, and there are no Hispanics on UDC's Board of Trustees.[203] UDC resident tuition, $600 per year in 1989-90, is among the lowest fees for public four-year colleges across the country.[204]

In addition to UDC, the District operates the District of Columbia School of Law, a separate institution created in 1986 with a mandate of providing legal education to groups traditionally excluded from legal professions and providing legal services to low-income District residents.[205] In November 1990, the Commission on Budget and Financial Priorities of the District of Columbia recommended closing the D.C. School of Law, noting:

> [T]he District is facing a severe financial crisis and priorities must be established. The Commission strongly supports education but believes that limited public funds should first be invested in early, primary, secondary, and baccalaureate programs. Given the large number of educational needs in the District for children ages 3 to 18, the Commission believes that funding for the should be discontinued. Only when excess

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199 Bell Multicultural High School, "A Next Century School," (mimeo).

200 Ibid.

201 *Indices*, 1991, p. 291.

202 This figure relies on 1990 Census data. As noted above, others have estimated the Hispanic share of the District of Columbia population to be as high as 10 percent.

203 *The Latino Blueprint for Action*, pp. 53-4.

204 *Financing the Nation's Capital*, pp. 3-19.

205 *Indices 1991*, p. 293.

or surplus funds exist will the funding of professional, post-graduate education be reasonable.[206]

[206] *Financing the Nation's Capital*, p. 3-19.

CONCLUSION

Against this backdrop, the Commission will hold a three-day hearing beginning January 29, 1992 to gain a better understanding of the issues.

Table II-1
Composition of the United States Population, 1970-1990

United States	White	Black	Hispanic	Other
1970	87.6%	11.1%	4.5%	1.3%
1980	83.1%	11.7%	6.4%	2.1%
1990	80.3%	12.1%	9.0%	3.7%

Source: For 1970: Frederick W. Hollmann, *United States Population Estimates, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1988*, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 1045, table G.

For 1980 and 1990: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Racial Statistics Division.

Note: "White" and "Black" include Hispanics. "Hispanics" includes persons of Hispanic origin of all races. Thus, rows sum to more than 100 percent.

Table II-2
Family Income and Earnings of the United States Population in 1989

United States 1989			Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
FAMILY INCOME	1989 Median Money Income of Families		$34,213	$20,209	$22,948
	Mean Money Income of Household by Size of Household	1 person	$20,306	$14,789	$16,535
		2 persons	$37,581	$23,675	$26,174
		3 persons	$42,723	$26,564	$29,352
		4 persons	$47,436	$31,262	$31,364
		5 persons	$46,036	$31,309	$32,194
		6 persons	$44,644	$26,050	$30,938
		7 persons or more	$41,624	$28,314	$35,022
	1989 Family Income less than $25,000		37.5%	60.6%	56.1%
	Persons Below Poverty Level--$12,675 for family of four		13.0%	31.3%	26.7%
EARNINGS	Median hourly earnings of workers paid hourly rates		$7.08	$6.43	$6.07
	Percent of all workers paid hourly rates below minimum wage--$3.35		2.2%	1.5%	1.5%
	Median Weekly Earnings		$399	$319	$298
	1989 Median Money Income of Year-Round Full-Time Workers with Income	Males	$28,605	$20,706	$18,570
		Females	$19,643	$17,908	$16,006

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 43, 45, 678, 683, 724, 733, and 736.

Table II-3
Employment of the United States Population in 1989

United States 1989		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
Unemployed		3.5%	7.3%	5.4%
Unemployment Rate (% of Civilian Labor Force 16 years old and over)		5.3%	11.4%	8.0%
	16-19 years old	15.0%	32.4%	19.4%
	20-24 years old	8.6%	18.0%	10.7%
Civilians Not in Labor Force (16 years old and over)		33.5%	35.8%	32.4%
	Males	23.6%	29.0%	18.0%
	Females	42.6%	41.3%	46.5%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 43,45, 632, and 659.

Table II-4
Black and Hispanic Workers as a Percentage of Total Employment by Selected Industries in 1989

United States 1989	Blacks	Hispanics
Total -- Employed Civilians (1989)	10.2%	7.3%
Agriculture	4.7%	13.8%*
Mining	4.1%	5.4%
Construction	6.7%	8.0%*
Manufacturing	10.1%	8.6%*
Transportation	14.1*	6.4
Wholesale and retail trade	8.3%	7.8%*
• Wholesale trade	6.0%	7.0%
• Retail trade	8.8%	8.0%*
Services	11.6%*	6.5%
• Business services	11.6%*	7.3%
- Services to dwellings and buildings	17.0%*	19.1%*
- Automobile services	9.3%	11.4%*
• Personal services	14.9%*	11.8%*
- Private households	23.1%*	14.7%*
- Hotels and lodging places	13.3%*	12.8%*
• Entertainment and recreation	8.8%	6.2%
• Professional Services	11.5%*	5.0%
• Public Administration	14.8%*	5.1%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), p. 657.
Note: * denotes those industries in which blacks or Hispanics are overrepresented relative to their representation in the U.S. employed labor force.

Table II-5
Black and Hispanic Workers as a Percentage of Total Employment by Selected Occupations in 1989

United States 1989	Blacks	Hispanics
Total -- Employed Civilians (1989)	10.2%	7.3%
Managerial and Professional Specialty	6.1%	3.7%
• Executive, administrative, and managerial	5.7%	4.0%
• Professional specialty	6.6%	3.4%
Technical, sales, and administrative support	9.3%	5.7%
Service Occupations	17.6%*	10.8%*
• Private household	25.1%*	15.8%*
- child care workers	8.7%	10.0%*
- cleaners and servants	36.5%*	19.5%*
• Food preparation and service	12.5%*	12.0%*
- cooks, except short order	18.2%*	14.2%*
- waiters' and waitresses' assistants	14.0%*	23.0%*
• Cleaning and building service	22.9%*	15.8%*
Precision production, craft and repair	7.9%	8.5%*
• Mechanics and Repairers	7.7%	7.4%*
- automobile mechanics	8.2%	11.6%*
• Construction trades	7.2%	8.8%*
- Construction trades, nonsupervisory	7.6%	9.2%*
Operators, Fabricators, and Laborers	15.1%*	11.4%*
• Machine Operators, Assemblers, and Inspectors	14.6%*	13.6%*
- Textile sewing machine operators	16.3%*	21.7%*
- Pressing machine operators	30.3%*	21.7%*
Farming, Forestry, and Fishing	6.1%	13.9%*
• Farm workers	8.2%	26.1%*

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, Washington, D.C., 1991), p. 652.
Note: * denotes those industries in which blacks or Hispanics are overrepresented relative to their representation in the U.S. employed labor force.

Table II-6
Educational Attainment of the United States Population in 1989

United States 1989		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
ADULTS: Persons 25 years old and over	With less than a high school education	23.1%	35.4%	49.1%
	With 8 or less years of education	11.6%	17.3%	34.4%
	Median school years completed	12.7	12.4	12.0
YOUTH: High School Dropouts	16 to 17 years	5.9%	5.6%	12.5%
	18 to 21 years	15.0%	17.4%	34.9%
	22 to 24 years	13.7%	14.9%	41.1%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 43, 45, 224, 226, 257, and 258.

Table II-7
Scores on the National Assessment of Educational Progress Tests, 1980 and 1988

United States		White	Black	Hispanic
1988	Reading	295	274	271
	Mathematics	308	279	283
	Science	298	259	253
1980	Reading	293	243	261
	Mathematics	306	268	276
	Science	298	262	240

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), table 253.

Table III-1
Population of the District of Columbia by Race and Hispanic Origin

District of Columbia		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
1990 Population	Number	606,900	399,604	32,710
	Percent	100%	66%	5.4%
Change in Population, 1980 to 1990	Number	-31,433	-49,302	+15,031
	Percent	-4.9%	-11.0%	+85.0%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 32 and 79.

Table III-2
Characteristics of the District of Columbia's Wards

District of Columbia		City-wide	Ward 1	Ward 2	Ward 3	Ward 4	Ward 5	Ward 6	Ward 7	Ward 8
1990 Population	Total Number	606,900	79,729	81,638	83,204	78,425	75,054	70,669	69,312	68,869
	Percent Black	66%	57%	43%	6%	85%	90%	73%	97%	91%
	Percent Hispanic	5%	18%	7%	7%	5%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Percent Change in Population, 1980 to 1990	Total Population	-4.9%	+1.3%	+0.3%	+7.0%	-4.3%	-9.1%	-6.6%	-15.8%	-11.6%
	Hispanic Population	+85.0%	+131.0%	+65.1%	+52.1%	+181.0%	+48.4%	+20.1%	-11.4%	+8.7%
Population Density (Residents Per Total Acreage)		22	66	21	15	25	16	31	20	18
Unemployment Rate		6.6%	7.3%	5.7%	2.9%	5.7%	7.2%	6.9%	8.8%	10.8%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 29, 32, 38, 44, 49, 54, 59, 64, 69, 78-79, and 181.

Table III-3
Population of District of Columbia's First Ward by Race and Hispanic Origin

Ward 1		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
1990 Population	Number	79,729	45,151	14,002
	Percent	100%	57%	18%
Change in Population, 1980 to 1990	Number	+1,047	-10,088	+7,941
	Percent	+1.3%	-18.2%	+131.0%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 32 and 78-79.

Table III-4
Employment and Unemployment in the District of Columbia over Time, 1984-1990

District of Columbia		1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Employment (includes residents and nonresidents)	Amount (1000s)	613.8	629.0	640.0	655.6	673.6	680.6	687.9
	Percent Change from Previous Year	+2.9%	+2.5%	+1.7%	+2.4%	+2.7%	+1.0%	+1.1%
District's Civilian Labor Force	Labor Force (1000s)	321	324	323	330	332	315	298
	Employed (1000s)	292	296	298	310	315	299	278
	Unemployed (1000s)	29	27	25	21	16	16	20
	Unemployment Rate	9.0%	8.4%	7.7%	6.3%	5.0%	5.0%	6.6%
	Youth Unemployment Rate (age 16-19)	36.5%	31.6%	27.7%	22.0%	20.0%	19.3%	17.7%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 170-172.

Table III-5
Employment by Selected Industries in the District of Columbia over Time, 1984-1990

District of Columbia		1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Total Employment	Thousands	613.8	629.0	640.0	655.6	673.6	680.6	687.9
	Change	+2.9%	+2.5%	+1.7%	+2.4%	+2.7%	+1.0%	+1.1%
District Government	Thousands	45.3	46.7	48.8	51.4	53.2	52.1	52.6
	Change	-0.2%	+3.1%	+4.5%	+5.3%	+3.5%	-2.1%	+1.0%
Services	Thousands	203.7	212.7	219.4	230.8	243.8	252.3	260.3
	Change	+6.2%	+4.4%	+3.1%	+5.2%	+5.6%	+3.5%	+3.2%
Wholesale and Retail Trade	Thousands	62.5	62.7	62.7	62.9	63.8	63.0	61.8
	Change	+6.3%	+0.3%	0.0%	+0.3%	+1.4%	-1.3%	-1.9%
Construction and Manu-facturing	Thousands	26.0	28.4	29.7	30.7	30.4	30.2	30.2
	Change	+7.0%	+9.2%	+4.6%	+3.4%	-1.0%	-0.7%	0.0%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), p. 171.

Table III-6
Economic Characteristics of the District of Columbia Population over Time, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Annual Average Wage and Salary Earnings of Employed Persons		$27,137	$28,477	$30,253	$32,106	--
Per Capita Personal Income	Amount	$19,071	$20,303	$21,667	$23,436	$24,181
	Growth Over Previous Year	6.1%	6.4%	6.7%	8.2%	3.2%
Consumer Price Index (CPI) (Annual Average) (1982-84=100)		112.2	116.2	121.0	128.0	135.6

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 83-84 and 173.

Table III-7
Immigrants to the United States in 1988 and 1989

United States 1988 and 1989			Total Including Hispanics, Asians, & All Others	Mexico	Carribean	Central and South America Including El Salvador	El Salvador (Alone)
Immigrants Admitted 1989		Number	1,090,924	405,172	88,932	159,960	57,878
		Percent	100.0%	37.1%	8.1%	14.7%	5.3%
Area of Intended Residence 1989	By State-- Maryland or Virginia	Number	29,948	438	1,793	6,908	3,127
		Percent	100.0%	1.5%	6.0%	23.1%	10.4%
	By Metropolitan Area-- Washington, DC-MD-VA	Number	26,695	330	--	--	4,408
		Percent	100.0%	1.2%	--	--	16.5%
Admitted as Permanent Residents Under Refugee Acts 1989		Number	84,288	--	--	--	198
Immigrants Admitted 1988		Number	643,025	95,039	112,357	71,722	12,045
		Percent	100.0%	14.8%	17.5%	11.2%	1.9%
Area of Intended Residence 1988	By State-- Maryland or Virginia	Number	23,410	148	1,760	3,749	1,112
		Percent	100.0%	0.6%	7.5%	16.0%	4.8%
Admitted as Permanent Residents Under Refugee Acts 1988		Number	110,721	--	--	--	170

Sources: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 8-10; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 10th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1990), tables 9 and 10.

Table III-8
Characteristics of Selected Foreign-Born Groups in the United States in 1980

Foreign-Born Population in the United States 1980		Total	Salvadorans
Foreign-born Persons (1000s)	Number	14,079.9	94.4
	Percent	100.0%	0.7%
Not a citizen		49.5%	85.7%
Immigrated in the past 5 years (1975-1980)		23.7%	51.3%
Education	High School Graduates	53.1%	41.4%
	College graduates	15.8%	6.5%
Occupation of Employed Persons	Professional specialty	12.0%	2.6%
	Service occupations	16.1%	31.7%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), table 47.

Table III-9
Characteristics of the United States Population in 1989

United States and District of Columbia 1989		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics	Central and South Americans	District of Columbia	Ward 1
Resident Population (1000s)		248,239	30,660	20,505	2,544	607	80
Age	Median (years)	32.7	27.7	26.1	--	--	--
	Under 15 years old	22.0%	27.8%	30.0%	22.2%	--	--
	Under 18 years old	--	--	--	--	19%	17%
Education (Persons 25 years old and over	With less than a high school education	23%	35%	49%	34%	33% (1980)	36% (1980)
	With 8 or less years of education	12%	17%	34%	23%	16% (1980)	20% (1980)
Unemployment Rate (% of Civilian Labor Force 16 years old and over)		5.3%	11.4%	8.0%	--	6.6%	7.3%
Median Household Income (1986)		$24,897	$15,080	$18,352	--	$22,400	$18,900
Average persons per household		2.62	2.82	3.38	--	2.14 (1986)	2.32 (1986)

Sources: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 19, 21-22, 43, 45, 60, 89, 95, 226, and 722; District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 32 and 181.

Table III-10
Housing of the United States Population in 1989

United States 1989		Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
In Renter-Occupied Housing Units (including no cash rent)		36.0%	58.1%	58.4%
Average persons per household in Renter Occupied Housing Units		2.37	2.62	3.19
1987 Median monthly housing costs	Renters	$399	$346	$398
	Owners	$375	$324	$416
1987 Monthly housing costs as percent of income--Median	Renters	29%	32%	32%
	Owners	18%	21%	20%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 43, 45, 60, and 1287.

Table III-11
Characteristics of the United States Population in 1989

United States and District of Columbia 1989			Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
Fertility	Women 18-44 years old who have had a child in the last year (1988)		6.97%	8.70%	9.40%
	1988 Births to Teenage Mothers (% of Total Births)		12.5%	22.7%	16.4%
	1988 Births to Unmarried Mothers (% of Total Births)		25.7%	63.5%	34.0%
Children	Children under 18 years old living with only one parent		24.3%	54.5%	30.5%
	Weekly Child Care Expenses for Children Under 15 of Employed Mothers	Amount	$48.50	$34.60	$42.00
		Percent of Income	6.6%	6.6%	7.1%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 70, 89, 95, and 622.

Table IV-1
Selected Social Services over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
District Government Expenditures on Human Support Services $1000s)	$613,330	$660,631	$731,516	$789,625	$830,775
Clients in Human Services Programs	166,719	152,937	152,318	176,208	179,603
Participants Receiving ALL Three Services: AFDC, Medicaid, and Food Stamps	38,903	42,431	46,136	44,291	51,987

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 117 and 223-224.

Table IV-2
Income Assistance Programs over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
AFDC	Recipients -- Households (Monthly Average)	21,325	19,732	18,445	18,010	18,527
	Recipients -- Children (Monthly Average)	41,907	40,370	38,475	37,902	34,403
	Average Monthly Payment	$302	$332	$348	$360	$382
	District Expenditures (millions)	$39.5	$40.2	$39.3	$39.3	$43.2
	Total Expenditures	$77.2	$78.6	$77.0	$78.3	$84.8
EA	Vouchers Approved	11,888	12,830	13,318	12,191	10,313
	Average Grant	$655	$679	$964	$590	$671
	Expenditures (1000s)	$6,900	$8,849	$12,899	$7,200	$8,119
SSI	Recipients	15,583	15,935	16,522	16,407	16,067
	Average Monthly Payment to Recipients	$151	$149	$156	$160	$167
	Average Monthly District & Federal Expenditures (millions)	$4.0	$4.2	$4.4	$4.5	$4.6

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 226 and 228-229.

Table IV-3
Unemployment Insurance Over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Individuals Compensated	Number	32,642	30,948	28,697	28,380	32,983
	Change	+2.5%	-5.1%	-7.3%	-1.1%	+16.2%
New Claims	Number	51,137	49,629	47,174	46,200	53,787
	Change	+5.0%	-2.9%	-4.9%	-2.1%	+16.4%
Exhausted Benefits	Number	13,700	12,000	10,741	11,190	11,662
	Change	-2.1%	-12.4%	-10.5%	+4.2%	+4.2%
Average Weekly Payment		$162	$175	$184	$196	$207

Sources: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), p. 178; District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VII, (Washington, D.C., August 1990), p. 184.

Table IV-4
Enrollment in Employment and Training Programs (including District- and Federally-Funded) Over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Jobs and Training for Adults	Total Enrolled	13,047	15,221	13,738	13,996	13,771
	Change	+19.5%	+16.7%	-9.7%	+1.9%	-1.6%
	District-Funded	6,403	9,331	8,682	8,745	9,560
	Change	+31.9%	+45.7%	-7.0%	+7.3%	+9.3%
Summer Youth Employ-ment Program (ages 14 to 21)	Total Registrants	25,627	24,319	19,609	18,734	17,408
	Change	+4.6%	-5.1%	-19.4%	-4.4%	-7.6%
	Total Placements	21,472	20,014	15,499	13,462	13,679
	Change	-3.0%	-6.8%	-22.6%	-13.1%	+1.6%
	District-Funded Placements	11,921	11,110	9,435	7,345	7,310
	Change	+6.6%	-6.8%	-15.1%	-22.2%	-0.5%

Sources: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 182 and 184; District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VII, (Washington, D.C., August 1990), pp. 188 and 190.

Table IV-5
Health Insurance Coverage of the United States Population in 1989

United States 1989	Total--All Races	Blacks	Hispanics
Not Covered by Health Insurance in 1988	12.8%	19.7%	26.2%
Persons covered by Medicaid	8.6%	23.4%	15.5%
Persons below poverty level covered by Medicaid	42.3%	56.9%	39.3%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 11th edition, (Washington, D.C., 1991), tables 150 and 154.

Table IV-6
Medical Services over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Medicaid	Recipients	98,020	96,635	96,705	98,374	93,481
	Average Annual Payment per Recipient	$3,285	$3,744	$3,727	$3,762	$4,334
	Total Expenditures (millions)	$322.0	$361.8	$371.9	$370.4	$405.2
Medical Charities	Average Monthly Eligible Beneficiaries	7,663	6,943	6,943	6,031	6,051
	Inpatient Hospital Days	21,000	18,044	18,307	16,229	18,000
Long-Term Care Beds	Number of District-Government Supported Beds	1,245	1,227	1,227	1,227	927
	Total Number of Beds	3,636	3,671	3,671	3,671	3,729

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 271 and 278-279.

Table IV-7
Food and Nutrition Services over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Food Stamp Program	Average Monthly Recipients	69,209	63,190	58,968	59,844	66,158
	Average Monthly Allotment	$111	$108	$110	$114	$129
	Total Expenditures (millions)	$37.0	$33.1	$34.8	$36.2	$43.2
Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children -- Recipients		17,398	20,434	21,899	21,343	22,501
Commodity Supplemental Food Program -- Recipients		12,168	17,065	12,650	17,747	19,975

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 236-237.

Table IV-8
Food Stamp Particpation (per ten thousand population) by District of Columbia's Wards, 1986 and 1990

District of Columbia	City-wide	Ward 1	Ward 2	Ward 3	Ward 4	Ward 5	Ward 6	Ward 7	Ward 8
1986	900.7	904.9	821.5	29.3	464.7	998.2	1103.2	1147.8	1772.0
1990	990.8	859.8	898.6	21.6	559.8	1201.8	1114.6	1422.8	2121.4

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), p. 236.

Table IV-9
Minority Contracts in the District of Columbia Population by Race and Hispanic Origin

District of Columbia 1990		Total--All Minorities	Hispanics
Businesses Certified as Minority Owned		574	45
Certified Businesses Receiving Contracts		340	26
Expenditures on DC Contracts with Certified Businesses	Amount (millions)	$236.8M	$77.5M
	% of Eligible Expenditures	41%	34%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 152 and 234.

Table V-1
Waiting List for Housing Assistance in the District of Columbia and Its First Ward, October 31, 1991

		Ward 1			District of Columbia		
		Total	**Black**	**Hispanic**	**Total**	**Black**	**Hispanic**
Consolidated List	Number	1,875	1,704	113	15,131	14,593	222
	Percent	100.0%	90.9%	6.0%	100.0%	96.4%	1.5%
Public Housing List	Number	1,420	1,283	87	10,988	10,598	166
	Percent	100.0%	90.4%	6.1%	100.0%	96.5%	1.5%
Section 8 List	Number	1,581	1,445	101	12,921	12,520	197
	Percent	100.0%	91.4%	6.4%	100.0%	96.9%	1.5%
Tenant Assistance Program (TAP)	Number	1,658	1,518	99	13,289	12,886	190
	Percent	100.0%	91.6%	6.0%	100.0%	97.0%	1.4%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 33, 211, and 219-220.

Table V-2
Housing Assistance over Time in the District of Columbia, 1986-1990

District of Columbia		1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Low-Income Housing Assistance Commitments to Homeowners		515	736	1,024	854	1,411
Households Assisted by Energy Assistance--LIHEAP	Heating	16,544	15,045	14,522	12,570	12,867
	Cooling	10,509	8,313	8,891	7,701	7,462
	Crisis Intervention--Households in danger of service cut-off	2,006	1,654	1,226	2,021	2,204
Complementary Energy Assistance Program	Average Monthly Caseload	3,014	2,887	3,500	2,325	2,074
	Average Monthly Payment	$78	$86	$75	$69	$65

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 203 and 220.

Table V-3
Housing Assistance in the District of Columbia and Its First Ward, 1990

		Ward 1	District of Columbia
Housing Units		38,752	278,489
Subsidized Housing Units (1991)	Total Number	3,132	30,601
	Percent of All Housing Units	8%	11%
	Number of Public Housing Units	1,149	11,796
	Number of Section 8 Units	473	4,949
	Number of TAP Units	283	2,832
Households Assisted by Energy Assistance Programs	LIHEAP Heating	2,194	12,867
	LIHEAP Cooling	1,481	7,462
	Complementary Energy Assistance	377	4,192

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), pp. 33, 211, and 219-220.

Table VI-1
Racial and Ethnic Makeup of Washington Area Police Departments

	White	Black	Hispanic	Other
District of Columbia	30.1%	66.4%	2.5%	0.9%
Alexandria	86.5%	9.0%	4.5%	n/a
Arlington	85.3%	11.9%	2.2%	0.6%
Fairfax	88.1%	9.7%	1.5%	0.6%
Prince Georges County	64.9%	33.1%	1.4%	0.6%
Montgomery County	87.2%	10.7%	1.1%	0.9%

Source: Gary Fields, "Better Hispanic-Police Links Called Urgent, *Washington Times*, May 7, 1991.

Table VI-2
Crimes by Police District

District of Columbia		District 1	District 2	District 3	District 4	District 5	District 6	District 7	Total
Crimes Against Persons	Number of Crimes Reported in 1990	2,509	1,063	1,767	2,019	2,842	1,693	3,068	14,961
	Percent Change 1986-1990	+48%	+17%	-1%	+76%	+95%	+84%	+103%	+59%
	Percent Change 1989-1990	+13%	+11%	+18%	+25%	+19%	+1%	+20%	+16%
Crimes Against Property	Number of Crimes Reported in 1990	11,062	10,898	7,518	6,174	7,460	2,887	4,687	50,686
	Percent Change 1986-1990	+30%	+16%	+10%	+17%	+39%	-5%	+3%	+18%
	Percent Change 1989-1990	+10%	+11%	-3%	-2%	+3%	-13%	-4%	+3%

Source: District of Columbia, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), p. 338.

Table VII-1
Enrollment in the District of Columbia Public Schools

District of Columbia	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Total	86,893	87,821	85,306	81,301	80,694
White	3.7%	3.6%	3.5%	3.7%	3.9%
Black	91.7%	91.4%	91.1%	90.7%	89.8%
Hispanic	3.7%	4.0%	4.3%	4.6%	5.2%
Asian Pacific	0.9%	1.1%	1.1%	1.0%	1.1%

Source: For total enrollment: District of Columbia Government, Office of Policy and Program Evaluation, *Indices: A Statistical Index to District of Columbia Services*, vol. VIII, (Washington, D.C., August 1991), p. 281.

For racial and ethnic breakdown: Franklin L. Smith, Superintendent of Schools, District of Columbia, *A Five Year Statistical Glance at D.C. Public Schools: School Years 1986-87 Through 1990-91*, November 1991, p. 5.