United States of America

National Report for the

**Third United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development
(Habitat III)**

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Prepared by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development

with interagency cooperation on behalf of the

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

- AFFH   Affirmatively Furthering Fair Housing
- AHS   American Housing Survey
- AMI   Area Median Income
- ARRA   American Recovery and Reinvestment Act
- BAM   Becoming a Man
- BCJI   Byrne Criminal Justice Innovation program
- BEDI   Brownfields Economic Development Initiative
- CAFE   Corporate Average Fuel Economy
- CAP   Climate action plan
- CDBG   Community Development Block Grant
- CDFI   Community Development Financial Institution
- CERCLA   Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation and Liability Act
- CFPB   Consumer Finance Protection Bureau
- CIAIP   Community Innovations for Aging in Place Initiative
- COG   Council of Governments
- COPS   Office of Community Oriented Policing Services
- CWSRF   Clean Water State Revolving Fund
- DOJ   United States Department of Justice
- DOT   United States Department of Transportation
- DHS   United States Department of Homeland Security
- DWSRF   Drinking Water State Revolving Fund
- EDA   Economic Development Administration
- EPA   United States Environmental Protection Agency
- ETA   Employment and Training Administration
- FEMA   Federal Emergency Management Agency
- FHA   Federal Housing Administration
- FHWA   Federal Highway Administration
- FMPP   Farmers Market Promotion Program
- FSS   Family Self-Sufficiency Program
- GIS   Geographic Information Systems
- GSE   Government Sponsored Enterprise
- HAMP   Home Affordable Modification Program
- HCV   Housing Choice Voucher
- HERA   Housing and Economic Recovery Act of 2008
- HHS   United States Department of Health and Human Services
- HUD   United States Department of Housing and Urban Development
- IHBG   Indian Housing Block Grant
- ITF   Infrastructure Task Force
- KYF2   Know Your Farmer, Know Your Food
- LIHEAP   Low-Income Home Energy Assistance
- LIHTC   Low-Income Housing Tax Credit
- MAP-21   Moving Ahead for Progress in the 21st Century Act

- MBK   My Brother's Keeper
- MPO   Metropolitan planning organization
- NAHASDA   Native American Housing Assistance and Self-Determination Act
- NORC   Naturally occurring retirement community
- NRI   Neighborhood Revitalization Initiative
- NSP   Neighborhood Stabilization Program
- OAA   Older Adults Act
- OUA   Office of Urban Affairs
- PACE   *Refers to either:* Programs of All-Inclusive Care for the Elderly, or Property Assessed Clean Energy
- PHA   Public housing agency
- PTC   Production Tax Credit
- QHWRA   Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act of 1998
- RAD   Rental Assistance Demonstration
- RBD   Rebuild by Design
- RFS   Renewable Fuel Standard
- RGGI   Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative
- RUS   Rural Utilities Service
- SAFETEA-LU   Safe, Accountable, Flexible, Efficient Transportation Equity Act: A Legacy for Users
- SC2   Strong Cities, Strong Communities
- SRF   State Revolving Funds
- TIGER   Transportation Investment Generating Economic Recovery
- UGB   Urban growth boundary
- UN   United Nations
- USAID   United States Agency for International Development
- USDA   United States Department of Agriculture
- USICH   United States Interagency Council on Homelessness
- UYEP   Urban Youth Empowerment Program
- VAWA   Violence Against Women Act
- WIOA   Workforce Innovation and Opportunity

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PREFACE

This draft United States Habitat III National Report has been prepared in response to the request and guidance put forth by UN Habitat. This draft response is organized from the perspective of the U.S. federal government in order to respond expeditiously to UN Habitat's template and its specific uses as it looks across all member states' entries.

A final U.S. Habitat III National Report will be developed over the next year. We expect that it will more fully tell the U.S. story of sustainable and inclusive communities over the past 20 years since Habitat II and to put forward aspirations for the next 20. Contributions from civil society partners and practitioners at the state and local levels will round out the U.S. story for the final National Report.

The United States federal system of government creates a specific context for addressing urban development and sustainability. The U.S. policy, governance and budget picture related to these issues involves every level of government; however, most planning decisions as well as the implementation of federal programs are enacted at the local and state levels. Planning, programs and federal policy implementation can vary widely across cities and states. The variety of contexts and approaches provides a compelling reason to elevate voices of professionals and advocates at the local, state, and regional levels; to raise concerns and successes; to reflect back as well as to aspire for the future.

The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), in coordination with the U.S. Department of State and other Federal agencies, is leading the United States' preparatory efforts for Habitat III. This is being undertaken as a broad and inclusive process to reflect the multiple perspectives, voices and experiences that Habitat III implicates – actively engaging civil society members (non-profits, research institutes, professional and affinity groups, philanthropic organizations, advocacy groups), as well as federal government agencies across multiple policy areas. Organizations working on the ground, on specific issues and with different populations at the local and regional levels are well positioned to reflect on challenges and lessons learned; to uplift innovative approaches and share them nationally as well as internationally; to highlight existing conditions and raise awareness of emerging issues; and to push for innovative practices. These groups will provide an invaluable contribution to the full U.S. Habitat III National Report over the next year.

INTRODUCTION

The U.S. Census Bureau projects that by 2050, our nation's population will grow by 80 million people, 60 million of whom are likely to live in urban areas. This trend towards urbanization is not limited to the U.S. By 2050, the United Nations (UN) projects that almost three-quarters of the world's population will call urban areas home. Around the world, we are clearly living in a Century of Cities.

Why are people moving to urban areas at such a rapid pace? There are many reasons, but the short answer is: opportunity. Cities are the engine of regional economies—impacting suburban, rural, and tribal areas. Urban living, though not without challenges, is rich with economic, educational, and social possibilities that appeal to a range people. It is just this set of issues, and more, that will be explored throughout the Habitat III preparatory process and at the 2016 conference.

The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), in coordination with the State Department and other federal agencies, is leading U.S. efforts to support Habitat III. In early December 2014, HUD held the first convening of the U.S. Habitat III National Committee. The committee, chaired by HUD Secretary Julián Castro, includes a diverse group of over 40 member organizations representing other federal government agencies, regional and local officials, academia, philanthropy, and civil society.

HUD's goal is to facilitate a dynamic and inclusive Habitat III preparatory process that engages the National Committee and other partners in an open dialogue and partner-led activities designed to:

- Promote open and productive dialogue on key challenges facing U.S. cities and regions, and discuss opportunities to improve quality of life, sustainability, inclusivity, access to opportunity, and resilience efforts;
- Raise public awareness and engage local communities on housing, planning, and community development issues in the U.S. and how they connect to global conversations[1]; and
- Uplift best practices and innovations emerging from rural, tribal, suburban, and urban communities across the U.S.

An early result of these efforts is this draft National Report. While the final U.S. National Report will not be released until 2016, this draft report provides baseline information about our work since Habitat II in 1996, the progress the U.S. has made, and the challenges and opportunities that will move us forward in this Century of Cities.

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[1] Conversations including the UN Post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals and the 21st Session of the Conference of the Parties to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change.

CHAPTER 1: URBAN DEMOGRAPHIC ISSUES

1.1 Managing Rapid Urbanization

The United States is becoming increasingly urbanized with over 80 percent of the population living in urban areas. The urban population of the U.S. increased by 12.1 percent from 2000 to 2010, outpacing the nation's overall growth rate of 9.7 percent for the same period, according to the U.S. Census Bureau. The New York-Newark area is the nation's most populous metropolitan area, with 18,351,295 residents. Los Angeles-Long Beach-Anaheim is the second most populous (12,150,996), followed by the Chicago area (8,608,208). These areas have been the three most populous since the 1950 Census, though Los Angeles overtook Chicago for the number two position in 1960.[2]

Because much of the growth occurring in urban areas isn't taking place strictly within city limits, regional partnerships and bodies of governance are extremely important. These regional bodies (regional councils, regional commissions, metropolitan planning organizations, and councils of government) consist of local leaders from independent jurisdictions who come to together to address major regional issues through strategic use of planning, engagement, and data. The issues tackled vary across the country, but often include transportation, air quality, economic development, and natural resource management. A regional approach helps tackle all aspects of urbanization, including changes occurring in the urban periphery. For example, the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments (COG) is comprised of 300 elected officials from 22 local governments, the Maryland and Virginia state legislatures, and U.S. Congress. This COG has helped restore the Potomac River, build out the regional transit system, and strengthen emergency preparedness across the region.

Federal initiatives also support regional partnerships to address issues related to rapid urbanization. Many of these initiatives are focused on ensuring that people in different agencies and departments work together to pursue broader goals, and overcome siloes. The Partnership for Sustainable Communities, launched in 2009, is made up of HUD, DOT, and the EPA. The Partnership encourages regional approaches to sustainable development and works to align and coordinate federal housing, transportation, water, and other infrastructure planning and capital investments to make neighborhoods more prosperous, allow people to live closer to jobs, save households' time and money, and reduce pollution. The Partnership also identifies best practices, coordinates technical assistance, and maintains a catalog of sustainability indicators that can be used by areas experiencing rapid urbanization to measure their success toward sustainability objectives.

However, not all U.S. cities are growing. Many smaller metropolitan areas—277 areas with less than 500,000 residents—are experiencing rapidly declining growth rates. Eighty-three of these small metropolitan areas registered absolute population declines in 2012–2013, up from 69 the

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[2] Census Bureau. "Growth in Urban Population Outpaces Rest of Nation, Census Bureau Reports." Last updated March 26, 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015.
https://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/2010_census/cb12-50.html.

previous year, and 36 in 2005.[3] These cities are experiencing slow growth rates and population declines for a variety of reasons, including ongoing complications from the economic recession and larger shifts in regional economies.

To help cities facing economic and development challenges, President Obama signed an Executive Order launching the White House Council on Strong Cities, Strong Communities (SC2) in 2011. SC2 coordinates federal efforts to ensure communities have access to comprehensive technical assistance and provides policy recommendations on ways to strengthen local economies, streamline federal resources and regulations, and disseminate best practices. In order to assist communities hit hard by the recession and facing population loss and industrial decline, SC2 deploys federal interagency teams to offer technical advice and expertise. In 2014, SC2 established a new cohort of seven cities and deployed teams to: St. Louis, Missouri; Gary, Indiana; Flint, Michigan; Brownsville, Texas; Rockford, Illinois; Macon, Georgia; and Rocky Mount, North Carolina. These teams partner with the mayor and city leadership to support the community's vision for economic development. Their primary mandate is to align federal programs and help communities more effectively invest existing resources.

1.2 Managing Rural-Urban Linkages
As the United States becomes more urbanized, rural-urban linkages become even more important. If well managed, rural-urban linkages are the basis for regional development managing urban sprawl and supporting local strategic land use policy that is economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable.

One important exchange between rural and urban areas is agriculture and food. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) has several programs that encourage rural-urban linkages in these areas. Know Your Farmer, Know Your Food (KYF2) is a USDA-wide initiative to carry out President Obama's commitment to strengthening local and regional food systems. A surge in consumer demand for locally produced food is creating jobs and opportunity while managing production and distribution costs throughout rural America. Farmers who are just starting out are finding an entry point into agriculture through local markets. Experienced farmers are diversifying their sales to capture added value through local branding. Small businesses are developing new packing, processing, distribution, and retail opportunities. Consumers are learning more about where their food comes from and gaining access to fresh, local foods. The mission of KYF2 is to support the critical connection between farmers and consumers and to strengthen USDA's support for local and regional food systems.[4]

Another federal initiative builds off of the farm to school movement, which connects school children to their food and to rural farmers. The term "farm to school" encompasses efforts that bring locally or regionally produced foods into school cafeterias; hands-on learning activities such as school gardening, farm visits, and culinary classes; and the integration of food-related education into the regular classroom curriculum. The USDA supports such efforts through its

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[3] William H. Frey. "A Population Slowdown for Small Town America." *Brookings,* March 31, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.brookings.edu/research/opinions/2014/03/31-population-slowdown-small-town-america-frey.

[4] USDA. "Know Your Farmer, Know Your Food: Our Mission." Last modified August 19, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015, http://www.usda.gov/wps/portal/usda/usdahome?navid=KYF_MISSION.

Farm to School Program, which includes research, training, technical assistance, and grants. According to USDA's first Farm to School Census, in school year 2011–2012, schools participating in farm to school activities purchased and served over $385 million in local food, with more than half of participating schools planning to purchase even more local foods in future school years. Forty-four percent of public school districts across the country report having an existing farm to school program in place, with another 13 percent of school districts surveyed committed to launching a farm to school program in the near future.[5]

State, local, and national park systems and regional preservation organizations play a vital role in managing rural-urban linkages by creating places for both rural and urban residents to enjoy sustainable recreation. They also facilitate the movement of people between urban and rural spaces, encourage interaction among different communities, and support natural resource management. According to the Department of the Interior, the U.S. has 22,000 highly protected areas, with a total acreage of more than 347.7 million acres, or 15 percent of the country's total land area. An additional 408 million acres (18 percent of the nation's land area), are permanently protected from conversion but allow extractive uses such as mining and logging.[6] These spaces allow regions to collectively engage in resource management while also promoting urban and rural recreation and interaction.

Local rural-urban partnerships and coalitions exist in a variety of forms (e.g., regional economic development coalitions, regional transportation commissions, councils of governments, development districts, food policy councils, etc.) and around a multitude of issues to address topics of importance to wider regions. By including both rural and urban community leaders in these organizations, lasting sustainable change can be made in rural and urban areas alike.

1.3 Addressing Urban Youth Needs

While life for urban youth continues to improve throughout the United States, not all urban youth have the same experiences. Poverty, crime, and school dropout rates disproportionately affect African-American youth and other minorities. In 2013, the poverty rate was 36.9 percent for African-American children, compared to 30.4 percent for Hispanic children and 10.7 percent for non-Hispanic White children.[7]

In response to these unsettling numbers, in 2014, President Obama launched My Brother's Keeper (MBK) to address persistent opportunity gaps faced by boys and young men of color and to ensure that all young people reach their full potential. MBK involves participation from all sectors of society, and is based on numerous best practices, such as Chicago's Becoming a Man (BAM) program, which has demonstrated a 44 percent reduction in violent crime arrests for

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[5] USDA. "Farm to School." Last modified February 20, 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.fns.usda.gov/farmtoschool/farm-school.
[6] US Geological Survey. "What's Protected, What's Not: New Protected Areas Database for United States' Land Now Available." Released April 21, 2009. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.usgs.gov/newsroom/article.asp?ID=2201#.VMElRNIVj3Q.
[7] HHS. "Information on Poverty and Income Statistics: A Summary of 2014 Current Population Survey Data." *Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation Issue Brief,* September 16, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://aspe.hhs.gov/hsp/14/PovertyAndIncomeEst/ib_poverty2014.pdf.

program participants.[8] Through MBK, the Administration is joining with cities and towns, businesses, and foundations who are taking important steps to connect young people to mentoring, support networks, and the skills they need to find a good job or go to college and work their way into the middle class. Philanthropic leaders have pledged more than $200 million and numerous corporations are funding programs in line with the initiative. Communities (including cities and towns) are challenged to accept the MBK Community Challenge and individuals are encouraged to sign up to mentor youth.

Another promising initiative is the Urban Youth Empowerment Program (UYEP). The program, which is funded by the Department of Labor and run through Urban League affiliates across the country, prepares at-risk and adjudicated youth for entry into the workforce through a comprehensive set of services. The program has expanded to include other models as well, including UYEP NOW and California UYEP, which offer services including case management, on-the-job-training, mentoring, and internships to those currently or previously in the juvenile justice system.

The collective impact framework is also gaining in popularity in the United States for applications including, but not limited to, education and youth. This framework brings together, in a structured manner, all the entities affecting a single goal. For example, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and the Community Center for Education Results (CCER) developed the "Road Map Project" in South Seattle and South King County, Washington to build on the "cradle to career" approach that has been successful for the Harlem Children's Zone in New York City and Strive Cincinnati in Ohio. The Road Map Project has led to partnerships with seven school districts, six higher education institutions, local governments, community organizations, education leaders, teachers, and parents with the single goal of supporting children.[9]

Education is an area that deserves special focus. Overall high school dropout rates declined significantly between 1990 and 2012, and the gap between White and Black dropout rates narrowed from six percentage points to three percentage points between 2000 and 2012.[10] However, an estimated 1.3 million U.S. high school students continue to drop out annually, and a disproportionate number are youth of color.[11] In 2012, the dropout rate was 8 percent for Blacks, 4 percent for Whites, and 13 percent for Hispanics. [12]

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[8] University of Chicago Crime Lab. "BAM Sports Edition." *University of Chicago Crime Lab Research and Policy Brief,* July 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://news.uchicago.edu/sites/all/files/attachments/University%20of%20Chicago%20Crime%20Lab%20Research%20and%20Policy%20Brief.pdf.
[9] Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. "Road Map Project: What We Do." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.gatesfoundation.org/What-We-Do/US-Program/Washington-State/Road-Map-Project.
[10] National Center for Education Statistics. "Fast Facts." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=16.
[11] American Psychological Association. "Facing the School Dropout Dilemma," 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.apa.org/pi/families/resources/school-dropout-prevention.pdf.
[12] National Center for Education Statistics. "Fast Facts."

Figure 1: Dropout Rates of 16- through 24-year-olds, by Race/Ethnicity, 1990-2012
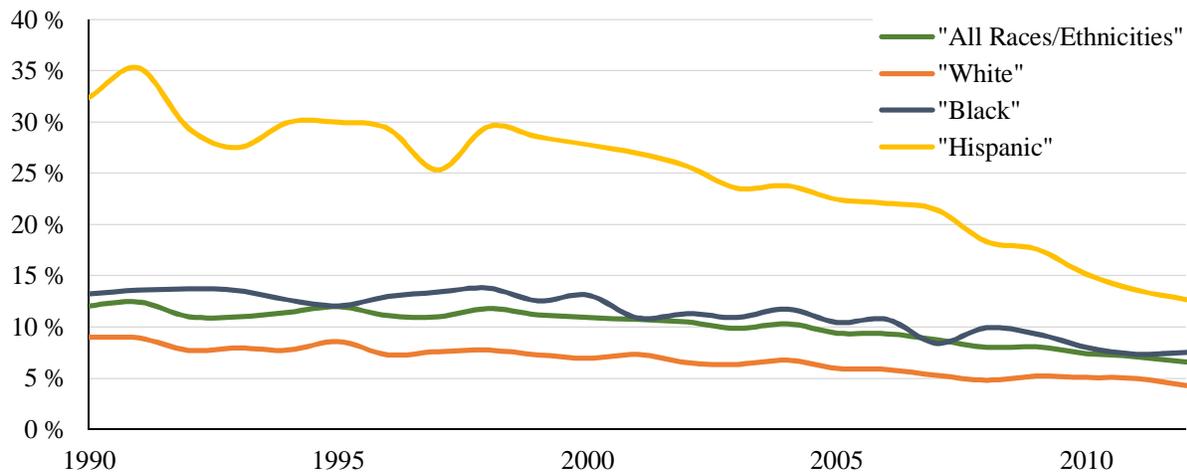
Dropout rates have decreased and the White–Black gap has narrowed due to the important work being done by the federal government, local governments, and civil society. For example, the U.S. Department of Education funds a High School Graduation Initiative Program/School Dropout Prevention Program and supports a Dropout Prevention section on its What Works Clearinghouse through the Institute of Education Sciences.

Reducing the number of children, youth, and families who are homeless is also a priority. According to HUD's *2014 Annual Homeless Assessment Report*, nearly one-quarter of all homeless people were children under 18.[13] The number of families with children experiencing homelessness has declined 15 percent (or 11,833 households) since 2010. The number of unsheltered families fell 53 percent during that same period. The number of unaccompanied homeless youth and children under the age of 25 was relatively unchanged overall, at 45,205, but there was a 3 percent decrease in those who were unsheltered.[14]

A 2012 amendment to the U.S. government's strategic plan to prevent and end homelessness, *Opening Doors*, specifically recommends strategies to improve educational outcomes for children and youth, and steps that need to be taken to advance the goal of ending youth homelessness by 2020. This amendment includes a new framework for approaching the problem of youth homelessness in a more coordinated and effective way across different disciplines that work with this population. An overarching commitment to impacting core outcomes for youth experiencing homelessness—including stable housing, permanent connections, education or employment, and social/emotional well-being—guides every aspect of this work. Acting on the recommendations in the framework, the U.S. Interagency Council on Homelessness, HUD, and the Departments of Health and Human Services and Education, launched Youth Count!, an

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[13] Meghan Henry, Dr. Alvaro Cortes, Azim Shivji, and Katherine Buck. *The 2014 Annual Homeless Assessment Report (AHAR) to Congress: Part I – Point-in-Time Estimates of Homelessness,* October 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www.hudexchange.info/resources/documents/2014-AHAR-Part1.pdf.
[14] Ibid.

interagency initiative to develop promising strategies for counting unaccompanied homeless youth, up to age 24, through innovative implementations of HUD's 2013 Point-in-Time count.[15]

1.4 Responding to the Needs of the Aging

Recent and future demographic changes in the U.S. make responding to the needs of the aging population an increasingly important issue. A combination of increasing life expectancy, a declining birth rate, and the aging of the baby boom generation has dramatically increased the number and proportion of the U.S. population over 65. Between 2002 and 2012, the number of Americans 65 and older increased by 21 percent (7.6 million people).[16] By 2040, projections indicate that the population aged 65 and older will double and account for 20 percent of the population.[17]

Figure 2: Changing Demographics, by Age Cohort, 1990 to 2040

	1990	2,000	2010	2015	2020 *(projection)*	2040 *(projection)*
Under 18	63,949,000	72,295,000	74,181,000	78,106,000	81,686,000	93,986,000
18 to 24	26,961,000	27,141,000	30,672,000	30,885,000	30,817,000	37,038,000
25 to 44	80,618,000	85,042,000	82,135,000	85,800,000	89,725,000	101,392,000
45 to 64	46,178,000	61,954,000	81,490,000	83,911,000	84,357,000	92,000,000
65 and over	31,084,000	34,992,000	40,268,000	46,837,000	54,804,000	81,238,000
Total U.S. population	**248,790,000**	**281,424,000**	**308,746,000**	**325,539,000**	**341,389,000**	**405,654,000**

With the large increase in this population, the need for age-friendly housing will grow, as the overwhelming majority of older adults prefer to age in place. Aging in place allows older adults to stay in their homes and communities, avoiding institutionalization for as long as possible. The federal government has several programs that aim to increase the supply of housing available to low-income seniors and provide services that allow them to stay in their homes for longer.

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Community Innovations for Aging in Place Initiative (CIAIP) was authorized by Congress in the Older Americans Act reauthorization of 2006 to assist community efforts to enable older adults to sustain their independence and age in place in their homes and communities. Over 200 applications were received in 2009 through the CIAIP initiative. Fourteen organizations representing diverse communities across the country received awards.

HUD's Section 202 Housing for the Elderly program provides funding to create and support multifamily housing for very-low-income elderly persons. Nearly 400,000 homes for low-income elderly households have been produced to date. While Section 202 is not currently funding new construction, its impact is amplified through the leverage of other housing resources

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[15] USICH. "Youth Count!" Accessed March 29, 2015 http://usich.gov/population/youth/youth_count.
[16] Administration on Aging. "Highlights." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.aoa.acl.gov/Aging_Statistics/Profile/2013/2.aspx.
[17] Administration on Aging. "Future Growth." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.aoa.acl.gov/Aging_Statistics/Profile/2013/4.aspx

such as Housing Choice Vouchers (HCVs), Community Development Block Grants (CDBG), HOME Investment Partnerships Program, and Low-Income Housing Tax Credits (LIHTC).

HUD also continues to support 1,500 previously approved Service Coordinators and Congregate Housing Service grants. A service coordinator is a social service staff person who is responsible for assuring that residents, especially those who are frail or at risk, are linked to the specific supportive services they need to continue living independently and aging in place. The purpose of the Service Coordinators program is to enable elderly or disabled residents to live as independently as possible in their own homes.

The recently authorized Section 202 Demonstration Program is helping HUD design a program that will better meet the needs of its aging residents through an evaluation of existing HUD multifamily assisted elderly projects. The Demonstration looks to develop a scalable model of supportive housing that helps very-low-income elderly tenants age in place, while producing usable evidence about the impact of housing with services on health outcomes.

States can use Medicaid to cover home and community based services for Medicaid beneficiaries living in the community. Other federal initiatives include Programs of All-Inclusive Care for the Elderly (PACE), a Medicare program and Medicaid state option that provides community-based care and services to people age 55 or older who otherwise would need a nursing home level of care. In 2014, there were 106 PACE programs in 31 states.[18]

In addition to federal and state programs, nonprofits and community leaders are also finding innovative ways to respond to the growing challenge of senior housing. Naturally occurring retirement communities (NORCs) arise when a concentration of older adults makes it possible to deliver elder-specific services using economies of scale and community-based interventions, following a NORC Supportive Services Program model. Similarly, the Villages model promotes access to services and quality of life improvements for seniors in a community. Villages are member- and fee-based grassroots organizations that consolidate and arrange access to services through strategic partnerships with community providers. In addition to health services, villages often include transportation, home maintenance, and social services, among others. Currently, more than 120 villages are operating across the U.S. and in Canada, Australia, and the Netherlands, with over 100 additional villages in development.[19]

1.5 Integrating Gender in Urban Development

The United States has several policies in place to support gender equality. The 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, and national origin. It also prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, and national origin in programs and activities that receive federal financial assistance. The 1972 Education Amendments further

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[18] National PACE Association. "What is PACE?" Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.npaonline.org/website/article.asp?id=12&title=Who,_What_and_Where_Is_PACE?
[19] Village to Village Network. "About VtV Network." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.vtvnetwork.org/content.aspx?page_id=22&club_id=691012&module_id=65139.

prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex in educational programs and activities that receive federal financial assistance.[20]

Though these regulations support gender equality, more recent regulations encourage a gender-specific approach to urban development. It is especially important to consider gender when examining urban development issues because female-headed households are disproportionately prevalent among households assisted by HUD. Three-quarters of households living in public housing or receiving project-based rental assistance are female-headed. Eighty three percent of Housing Choice Voucher (HCV) households are headed by women.[21]

In light of these staggering statistics, recent legislation extends special protections to women in HUD-assisted households. For example, the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), first passed in 1994 and reauthorized in 2000, 2005, and 2013 (VAWA 2013), provides protections for victims of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking. In 2005, the amendments provided protections to residents of public housing and residents of the HCV tenant-based and project-based programs. VAWA 2013 expends these protections to other HUD programs. These important protections state that being a victim of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking is not a basis for denial of assistance, and incidents or threats cannot be interpreted as serious or repeated violations of a lease or as "good cause" to terminate assistance, among other protections.

In 2010, HUD issued guidance stating that discrimination against transgender renters or homebuyers based on gender identity or gender stereotypes constitutes sex discrimination and is prohibited under the federal Fair Housing Act.[22] In 2012, HUD issued a final rule, *Equal Access to Housing in HUD Programs–Regardless of Sexual Orientation or Gender Identity*, to implement policy to ensure that its core programs are open to all eligible individuals and families regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity, or marital status.[23] These important protections ensure that all people, regardless of gender, will benefit from the country's ongoing urban development.

The U.S. is also taking measures to ensure that all people can participate in the country's economic development. While the aforementioned protections exist and the Equal Pay Act of 1963 has helped narrow the earnings gap between men and women, women still make less money than men for completing the same work. Today, women earn 81 cents on the dollar compared to men. [24] To help close this gender gap, President Obama created the Equal Pay Task

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[20] Department of Labor. "Equal Employment Opportunity: Ethnic/National Origin, Color, Race, Religion & Sex Discrimination." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.dol.gov/dol/topic/discrimination/ethnicdisc.htm.
[21] National Low Income Housing Coalition. "Who Lives in Federally Assisted Housing?" *Housing Spotlight* Vol. 2, Issue 2, November 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://nlihc.org/sites/default/files/HousingSpotlight2-2.pdf.
[22] National Center for Transgender Equality. "Issues: Housing & Homelessness." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://transequality.org/Issues/homelessness.html.
[23] HUD. "Equal Access to Housing in HUD Programs Regardless of Sexual Orientation or Gender Identity." *Federal Register* 77 (3 February 2012), 5661–5676. Accessed March 29, 2015. https://federalregister.gov/a/2012-2343.
[24] White House. *Equal Pay Task Force Accomplishments,* April 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/equal_pay_task_force.pdf.

Force in 2010. This task force has worked to improve enforcement of equal pay laws and promoted efficiency and efficacy by enhancing federal interagency collaboration.[25]

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[25] White House. "Your Right to Equal Pay: Understand the Basics." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/issues/equal-pay.

CHAPTER 2: LAND AND URBAN PLANNING

2.8/2.9 Ensuring Sustainable Planning, Design, and Land Management
Where and how we design the communities in which we live has a huge impact on energy consumption and living patterns. For example, the pattern in which homes are built and their proximity to transit directly affects energy consumption and emissions. The 2009 National Housing Transportation Survey found that households near transit lines produced about a fourth of the emissions of households without close access to transit.[26] Today, the prevailing dispersed, low-density pattern of growth means that buildings and transportation together account for more than 70 percent of energy use and are responsible for 62 percent of greenhouse gas emissions.[27] More energy-efficient development patterns could reduce our impact on climate change, save household energy costs, and help the U.S. become less reliant on nonrenewable energy.

Most Americans (81 percent) live in metropolitan areas, but since the 1950s, large-scale urban decentralization has contributed to rapid development away from the urban core, in suburban communities. In 1950, 60 percent of the metropolitan population lived in cities; by the end of the century, only 37 percent of metropolitan residents lived in central cities. Decentralization and the growth of American suburbs are the result of many factors, including federal housing finance policies, transportation and education spending, and broader economic changes. As people, and jobs, have moved away from urban centers, investment has followed, resulting in city centers with deteriorating public services, reduced tax base, and high concentrations of poverty. This trend has been exacerbated by the housing crisis that started in 2006, during which a flood of foreclosures resulted in concentrations of abandoned, vacant buildings in several severely distressed cities. For example, in 2007, nearly 25 percent of all housing units in Detroit, Michigan, and Gary, Indiana, were vacant, contributing further to falling property values and neighborhood blight.[28]

In response to the housing crisis, the 2008 Housing and Economic Recovery Act initiated a Neighborhood Stabilization Program, implemented by HUD, which provided $3.92 billion for the acquisition, rehab, and demolition of foreclosed and abandoned properties. Funds could also be used to redevelop sites on which such properties had been demolished and to bank land for the future.[29]

In the United States, state and local governments play the primary in controlling and shaping the built environment through regulatory codes and ordinances. The federal government has little direct control over most land use planning decisions, although federal programs can provide funding to support certain approaches to land use planning. In response to concerns about the

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[26] Jonathan Rose Companies. *Location Efficiency and Housing Type–Boiling it Dow to BTUs,* March 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/pdf/location_efficiency_BTU.pdf.
[27] EPA. "Location Efficiency and Housing Type–Boiling it Down to BTUs." Last updated March 20, 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/location_efficiency_BTU.htm.
[28] Alan Mallach. *Facing the Urban Challenge: The Federal Government and America's Older Distressed Cities.* Washington DC: Metropolitan Policy Program at Brookings, What Works Collaborative, May 2010. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/Research/Files/Papers/2010/5/18%20shrinking%20cities%20mallach/0518_shrinking_cities_mallach.PDF.
[29] Ibid.

social, environmental, and economic consequences of unsustainable building practices, many states and localities have implemented "sustainable development" programs to preserve natural resources, support existing communities and neighborhoods by buttressing development in areas where the infrastructure is already in place (or is planned), and save taxpayers the cost of building the infrastructure required to support sprawl.

Several states, such as Oregon, Washington, and Tennessee, have experimented with containing sprawl and promoting sustainable urban development by requiring their cities to develop urban growth boundaries (UGBs). Several cities, including Portland, Oregon; Lexington, Kentucky; Seattle, Washington; and San Jose, California, also have adopted UGBs to control growth.

Arlington County, Virginia, has for the past 30 years pursued a development strategy that concentrates most of its new development within a half mile of major public transit. Within the transit areas, the government encourages mixed-use and pedestrian- and transit-oriented development. In 2002, the county received EPA's first ever National Award for Overall Excellence in Smart Growth.[30] In 2010, Arlington County partnered with Washington, D.C., to open Capital Bikeshare, a bicycle sharing system that promotes alternatives to car travel. Similarly, the state of New Jersey launched the Transit Village Initiative[31] in 1999, which offers multi-agency assistance and grants to fund initiatives by municipalities to redevelop or revitalize areas around transit stations using standards of transit-oriented development.

The federal government supports local efforts to improve sustainable planning and development through several programs, such as the Partnership for Sustainable Communities, a collaboration between HUD, DOT, and EPA that was launched in 2009. The three agencies coordinate investments and policies to support communities that adhere to six guiding principles: provide more transportation choices; promote equitable, affordable housing; increase economic competitiveness; support existing communities; leverage federal investment; and value communities and neighborhoods.[32] Through the Partnership's efforts, more than 1,000 communities throughout the country and in Puerto Rico have received over $4 billion in grants and technical assistance.[33]

Local Foods, Local Places is a program supported by EPA, DOT, USDA, the Centers for Disease Control, and other agencies that aims to create more livable places by promoting local foods. Together, the agencies have invested $800,000 in the program, and awards were granted at the end of 2014 to 26 communities across the country. Special consideration was given to communities in the early stages of developing or restoring local food enterprises and creating economically vibrant communities.[34] EPA also has partnered with USDA and the Appalachian

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[30] EPA. "2002 National Award for Smart Growth Achievement." Last updated March 20, 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/awards_2002.htm.
[31] State of New Jersey Department of Transportation. "Transit Village Initiative." Last updated April 1, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.state.nj.us/transportation/community/village/.
[32] Partnership for Sustainable Communities. "Five Years of Learning from Communities and Coordinating Federal Investments," 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www2.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-08/documents/partnership-accomplishments-report-2014-reduced-size.pdf.
[33] Ibid.
[34] EPA. "Local Foods, Local Places." Last updated March 25, 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/sp-local-foods-local-places.html.

Regional Commission, a regional economic development agency, to provide small, rural communities in the Appalachian region of the United States with resources to restore their traditional downtowns into healthy, walkable, and economically vibrant communities.

2.10 Enhancing Urban and Peri-Urban Food Production

Enhancing food production in urban areas and areas on the urban periphery (peri-urban) is an increasingly important issue in the United States. USDA's Economic Research Service estimates that 23.5 million people live in food deserts, which are urban neighborhoods and rural towns without access to fresh, healthy, and affordable food. More than half of those people (13.5 million) are low-income. Living in a food desert can contribute to a poor diet and lead to higher levels of diseases such as obesity, diabetes, and heart disease.[35] To help combat this issue, USDA, the Department of Treasury, and HHS give funding priority to projects and interventions that establish healthy retail outlets in defined food deserts. Additionally, national and local programs that encourage urban food production have increased.

Farmers' markets allow rural, peri-urban, and urban farmers the opportunity to sell their products directly to consumers, while offering consumers access to fresh, healthy food. They have been rising in popularity. In August 2014, there were 8,268 farmers markets listed in USDA's National Farmers Market Directory. This is a 5.14 percent increase from 2012, and a 371 percent increase from 1994.[36] USDA launched a National Local Food Directories portal to better connect farmers and buyers and to enhance awareness of available local food sources.[37] USDA also runs a Farmers Market Promotion Program (FMPP) that provides grants to support the full range of direct marketing strategies. Since its inception in 2006, FMPP has awarded more than $32 million in grants.[38] Another program of note is the Urban and Community Forestry program operated by the U.S. Forest Service, which has unique and broad authorities to support urban tree planting, including urban orchard and urban agroforestry projects.[39]

Through local programs and as a component of the USDA-sponsored Farm to School Program, there are an estimated 2,401 schools growing edible gardens.[40] These edible gardens are used for educational purposes and to encourage healthy lifestyles. In some cases, extra produce is given to children to take home. Urban community gardens are also becoming more popular. Many cities, towns, nonprofits, and community organizations community garden programs, which vary greatly by size and model. For example, some consist of individually worked plots, while others are communally worked with the output shared by all; some focus on growing edible food, and others focus on floral growth.

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[35] USDA. "Food Deserts." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://apps.ams.usda.gov/fooddeserts/fooddeserts.aspx.
[36] USDA. "Farmers Markets and Local Food Marketing." Last modified August 14, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSv1.0/ams.fetchTemplateData.do?template=TemplateS&navID=WholesaleandFarmersMarkets&leftNav=WholesaleandFarmersMarkets&page=WFMFarmersMarketGrowth&description=Farmers%20Market%20Growth&acct=frmrdirmkt.
[37] USDA. "Local Food Directors." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.usdalocalfooddirectories.com.
[38] USDA. "Farmers Market Services." Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSv1.0/getfile?dDocName=STELPRDC5080175&acct=frmrdirmkt.
[39] USDA Deputy Secretary Kathleen A. Merrigan. Memo on "Urban Agriculture and Gardening." Dated October 14, 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.usda.gov/documents/usda-urban-ag-memo-final.pdf.
[40] USDA. "National Overview: Bringing the farm to school." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.fns.usda.gov/farmtoschool/census#/.

Similar to community gardens, urban farms have become popular in some cities, especially in areas with high vacancy rates and available land. For example, Detroit, Michigan, with high rates of vacant land, has transformed into a robust urban agriculture community. Residents can buy side lots very affordably from the city's land bank to use for urban farming. With the support of a large nonprofit called Keep Growing Detroit, 20,000 residents are cultivating a garden or farm and 70 growers have begun growing and selling their products within the city.[41] Other cities are involved in similar initiatives. In Seattle, the Beacon Food Forest Permaculture Project is designing and growing a seven-acre food forest on public land that will be open to the community for gardening, planting, and picking freely. This site is located in a working-class neighborhood, two miles from downtown.[42]

Cities are also changing policies in order to allow and encourage urban food production. In 2014, California Governor Jerry Brown signed into law a framework for local jurisdictions to offer tax breaks for urban property owners who lease their vacant land for agricultural uses for at least five years.[43] While still needing approval from local jurisdictions, this legislation is an example of the innovation currently being seen across the country to increase urban food production.

2.11 Addressing Urban Mobility Challenges

The United States population disproportionately lives in urban areas, with 81 percent of residents living in metropolitan areas as of 2014, compared to 54 percent of worldwide residents.[44] Although many Americans live in cities with some form of public transit system, traffic congestion is a major problem, which is unsurprising given the country's relative auto-dependency. The U.S. has the largest fleet of motor vehicles in the world.[45] Going forward, urban mobility will be influenced by demographic changes occurring in American cities, including a rise in the number of one-person households and an aging population. According to the Census Bureau, between 1970 and 2012, the proportion of one-person households increased by 10 percent, from 17 percent to 27 percent.[46] In cities like Washington, D.C., and Atlanta, Georgia, singles accounted for 44 percent of all households in 2010.[47] Additionally, the growth in the number of city residents ages 65 and older has implications for urban mobility, as older residents have unique transportation needs and preferences. In New York City, projections

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[41] Keep Detroit Growing. "About Us." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://detroitagriculture.net/about/.

[42] Beacon Food Forest. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://beaconfoodforest.org/.

[43] Anisha Hingorani. "Growing Food Policy in LA: Looking back at urban agriculture policy advancements in 2013." *LA Community Garden Council Food Policy Report*. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://lagardencouncil.org/news/food-policy-report/.

[44] UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. "Urban and Rural Populations." *World Urbanization Prospects,* 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://esa.un.org/unpd/wup/CD-ROM/Default.aspx.

[45] John Sousanis. "World Vehicle Population Tops 1 Billion Units." *Wards Auto,* August 15, 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://wardsauto.com/ar/world_vehicle_population_110815.

[46] Jonathan Vespa, Jamie M. Lewis, and Rose M. Kreider. *America's Families and Living Arrangements: 2012.* Washington DC: US Census Bureau, August 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.census.gov/prod/2013pubs/p20-570.pdf.

[47] Mitchell L. Moss and Hugh O'Neill. *Urban Mobility in the 21st Century: A Report for the NYU BMW i Project on Cities and Sustainability.* NY, NY: NYU Rudin Center for Transportation Policy, November 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://wagner.nyu.edu/files/rudincenter/NYU-BMWi-Project_Urban_Mobility_Report_November_2012.pdf.

suggest that between 2010 and 2030, the population above 65 will grow by more than 36 percent, accounting for 77 percent of the city's total population growth in that period.

The country has taken steps to invest in transportation systems that meet the diverse (and evolving) needs of urban residents, but the nation still has a long way to go. While public transportation use has grown significantly, and is at its highest level of use in 50 years, public transportation accounts for just 2 percent of all daily trips and 5 percent of commute trips, and ridership remains heavily concentrated in a few large cities and surrounding areas.[48] About 75 percent of all public transportation trips are made in 10 large urban areas: New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, Washington, San Francisco, Boston, Philadelphia, Seattle, Miami, and Atlanta.[49] Overall, the U.S. spends significantly less on transportation than many other nations. For example, in 2008, China devoted $12.50 of every $1,000 of GDP to rail and transit; in contrast, the U.S. spent just $1.50.[50]

As part of the nation's response to the economic crisis, the Obama Administration's 2009 American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) provided states and metropolitan planning organizations (MPOs) with $26.6 billion in transportation funds that could be spent on almost any surface transportation needs.[51] According to Smart Growth America, however, just 1.7 percent of these funds (or $463 million) were spent on public transportation projects; the majority was spent on roadway preservation projects (59 percent) and roadway new capacity projects (34 percent).[52] Accordingly, the U.S. still accounts for only 5 percent of the world's transit rail cars (Europe has 35 percent and Japan 11 percent), and buses, not trains, carry the largest percentage of public transit riders.[53]

Federal agencies are working to find environmental and economic solutions to urban mobility challenges. For example, HUD's "Moving to Opportunity for Fair Housing" is a research demonstration that combines tenant-based rental assistance with housing counseling to help very low-income families move from high-poverty urban areas to low-poverty urban areas. Under this initiative, HUD published the report, *Creating Connected Communities,*[54] with the goal of informing local leaders and stakeholders about how they can provide residents access to transit-accessible housing. This is part of HUD's work to reduce households' transportation costs, connect workers to jobs, and facilitate upward mobility.

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[48] William J. Mallett. *Federal Public Transportation Program: In Brief.* Washington DC: Congressional Research Service, December 2, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R42706.pdf.
[49] Ibid.
[50] Initiative for Global Environment Leadership. *Special Report–Next Stop, Innovation: What's Ahead for Urban Mobility?* Philadelphia, PA: IGEL, March 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.enterpriseholdings.com/siteAssets/Wharton_IGEL_Urban_Mobility.pdf.
[51] Smart Growth America. *Recent Lessons from the Stimulus: Transportation Funding and Job Creation.* Washington DC: Smart Growth America, February 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.smartgrowthamerica.org/documents/lessons-from-the-stimulus.pdf.
[52] Ibid.
[53] Initiative for Global Environment Leadership. 2013.
[54] Center for Transit-Oriented Development. *Creating Connected Communities.* Washington, DC: HUD PD&R, April 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/publications/pdf/Creating_Cnnted_Comm.pdf.

Providing access to alternative modes of transportation is particularly important for households without a car, a category that includes 9 percent of all U.S. households and 18 percent of households earning less than $35,000.[55] In addition to improving mobility for households with limited access to vehicles, creating connected communities with multiple transportation options can benefit all residents by promoting health and safety, contributing to a more resilient local economy, and improving the efficiency of public spending.

2.12 Improving Technical Capacity to Plan and Manage Cities

Cities are complex systems that exist within increasingly interconnected state, regional, national, and international contexts. Given increased urbanization and regional-global connections, it's imperative that cities are able to plan, adapt, and respond quickly to the needs of their growing populations. Failure to do this effectively can result in consequences that range from traffic delays and housing shortages to security breaches and system breakdowns, such as those experienced in the responses to two recent environmental disasters – Hurricane Katrina in 2005 and Hurricane Sandy in 2012.

Several federal agencies have initiated programs to improve quality of life and make city operations more efficient through information sharing. Capacity Building for Sustainable Communities, a joint program of HUD and EPA, is a consortium of intermediary organizations that supports best practices in community development and planning, and facilitates the exchange of successful strategies and lessons learned. Another HUD-sponsored consortium, the Strong Cities, Strong Communities National Resource Network, provides communities with targeted technical assistance to support locally identified priorities for economic growth and job creation.[56] HUD has also worked to provide communities with more data and planning tools, such as Geographic Information Systems (GIS) applications, to inform and enhance local decision-making.

Oher agencies also play a prominent role in the resource-development component of capacity building. Since 1997, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) has sponsored the CityLinks program to foster peer learning through partnerships that link local officials in the U.S. with city officials in the developing world. CityLinks programs focus on sharing best practices related to a range of urban challenges from effective delivery of municipal services to building resilience to the impacts of climate change. For example, one CityLinks project partners Chiang Rai, Thailand, with Cambridge, Massachusetts–which have similar topography, climate, and infrastructure–to devise strategies for adapting to climate change.

Learning from mistakes in disaster prevention and recovery efforts in New Orleans, during Hurricane Katrina, and in East Coast cities, during Hurricane Sandy, several agencies have launched initiatives aimed at improving technical capacity to respond to potential crises. For example, to better protect Sandy-area residents from future climate events, HUD and President Obama's Hurricane Sandy Rebuilding Task Force launched Rebuild by Design (RBD) to develop fundable solutions that address structural and environmental vulnerabilities throughout the East Coast. Recognizing the scale of the challenge, RBD looked beyond traditional solutions,

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[55] Ibid.
[56] National Resource Network. "Learn About Us." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.nationalresourcenetwork.org/en/home.

supporting new approaches in architectural design, regional planning and environmental engineering.[57] From the lessons and innovations of RBD, HUD is also implementing in 2015 a $1 billion National Disaster Resilience Competition to help eligible jurisdictions (all Presidentially declared disaster areas since 2011) plan for a more resilient future.

Additionally, many private sector groups have been actively working on initiatives to improve municipal technical capacity. Code for America, for example, was developed to address the widening gap between public- and private-sector use of technology and design.[58] The organization connects technology professionals with city governments. In 2013, Bloomberg Philanthropies held its annual Mayors Challenge in the United States, awarding five cities with flexible funds to innovatively resolve challenges faced by each city.

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[57] HUD. "Hurricane Sandy Rebuilding Task Force." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/HUD?src=/sandyrebuilding.
[58] Code for America. "Who We Are." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.codeforamerica.org/about/.

CHAPTER 3: ENVIRONMENT AND URBANIZATION

3.15 Addressing Climate Change

The United States' ability to address climate change has become progressively more important over the last 20 years. On the whole, federal, state and local officials recognize that the impacts of climate change are real and far-reaching. The 2014 U.S. National Climate Assessment report determined several indicators of climate change are currently occurring in the U.S. For example, average temperatures have increased by 1.3 to 1.9 degrees Fahrenheit since recording started in 1895, with the majority of increases occurring since 1970. Additionally, in 2012, national greenhouse gas emissions totaled 6,526 million metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalents, and since 1990, 32 percent of such emissions have been attributed to electricity generation.[59] These indicators are increasingly related to human activities, such as the burning of fossil fuels, which has renewed attention on reducing greenhouse gas emissions.

Currently, the Obama Administration is addressing climate change through the President's Climate Action Plan (CAP), which will significantly reduce carbon pollution from power plants, double renewable energy production, and reduce greenhouse gas emissions overall.[60] Several federal regulations and actions have supported the President's plan. The Department of Energy and HUD have completed efficiency upgrades in nearly two million homes. More than 190 organizations, representing over 3 billion square feet, have committed to increase their energy savings as part of the Better Buildings Challenge. This nationwide initiative aims to improve energy efficiency in industrial plants and commercial, institutional, and multifamily buildings, by providing technical assistance, connecting partners and allies (including financial organizations and utilities), and publically recognizing participant organizations that make specific commitments.[61]

The Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) regulation increases the fuel economy standard of manufactured cars and light trucks to reduce the nation's dependency on fossil fuels, thereby decreasing greenhouse gas emissions. The most notable increase to CAFE standards occurred in 2012, when President Obama entered into an agreement with the largest automobile manufacturers to increase fuel economy standards to 54.5 miles per gallon for passenger cars and light trucks by model year 2025.[62] These standards are projected to reduce oil consumption by 12 billion barrels and to halve greenhouse gas emissions from cars and light trucks by 2025, reducing emissions by 6 billion metric tons over the life of the program. Efforts are also being made to reduce carbon emissions from power plants, which are the largest contributors to U.S.

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[59] Jerry M. Melillo, Terese Richmond, and Gary W. Yohe, Eds. *Highlights of Climate Change Impacts in the United States: The Third National Climate Assessment.* Washington DC: US Global Change Research Program, October 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://nca2014.globalchange.gov/downloads.

[60] Executive Office of the President. *The President's Climate Action Plan,* June 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/image/president27sclimateactionplan.pdf.

[61] Department of Energy. "Better Buildings Challenge Background." Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www4.eere.energy.gov/challenge/about.

[62] National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. "Obama Administration Finalizes Historic 54.5 mpg Fuel Efficiency Standards." Last modified August 28, 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.nhtsa.gov/About+NHTSA/Press+Releases/2012/Obama+Administration+Finalizes+Historic+54.5+mpg+Fuel+Efficiency+Standards.

greenhouse gas emissions. EPA has proposed two new rules that would cut carbon emissions for existing and new power plants by requiring states to meet certain emissions levels.

Significant state and local efforts are also being made. Nine East Coast states have implemented the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI), a market-based cap-and-trade program. RGGI has engineered a $700 million investment in the region, and is projected to offset the need for approximately 8.5 million megawatt hours of electricity generation.[63] In San Francisco, California, and Akron, New York, green purchasing programs to purchase more energy efficient products and services are a new part of local procurement policy. San Francisco has helped to save over 500,000 gallons of water per year, and Akron has entered into a public-private partnership with the local utility companies to introduce incentives for consumers to purchase Energy Star home appliances.[64] Such programs have inspired local governments across the nation to adopt energy efficient solutions to become more resilient to climate change impacts.

3.16 Disaster Risk Reduction

Disaster risk policy has become an issue of national security, particularly since the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks and the 2001 anthrax scare. The U.S. has also experienced several natural disasters, including Hurricanes Charley (2004), Ivan (2004), Katrina (2005), Ike (2008), Irene (2011), and Sandy (2012); wildfires in western and southern states; tornadoes across the Midwest and South; and human-caused disasters such as the BP Deepwater Horizon oil spill (2010). There have been over 1,300 major disaster declarations in the past decade, with close to 15 percent designated as emergency declarations.[65] In response to such natural disasters, extreme weather, and acts of terror over the past 20 years, the federal government has assumed a larger role in helping state and local governments deal with disaster risk (e.g. National Disaster Recovery Framework.)

The Homeland Security Act of 2002 established the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) to consolidate and centralize federal agencies with similar security and disaster risk reduction functions, including the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) and the Secret Service. DHS has developed several programs to better prepare the nation for acts of terrorism and natural disasters including:

- **Ready.gov**: A national public service advertising campaign designed to educate Americans to prepare for and respond to emergencies including natural and manmade disasters.[66]
- **National Incident Management System:** NIMS provides a standardized approach for all federal agencies to facilitate emergency preparedness, response, and mitigation activities.[67]

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[63] Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative. "RGGI Benefits." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.rggi.org/rggi_benefits.
[64] EPA. *Energy-Efficient Product Procurement.* Washington DC: EPA, 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://epa.gov/statelocalclimate/documents/pdf/energyefficientpurchasing.pdf.
[65] FEMA. "Disaster Declarations." Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www.fema.gov/disasters.
[66] See www.ready.gov.
[67] FEMA. "National Incident Management System." Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www.fema.gov/national-incident-management-system.

- **National Terrorism Advisory System:** NTAS is an alert system that provides information on specific and credible threats to the U.S., with critical information on the nature of the threat, its severity, and potentially affected populations.[68]

The Post-Katrina Emergency Management Reform Act was passed in 2006 to facilitate changes in FEMA's operations and increase executive powers to respond more quickly and effectively to natural disasters. In 2011, the Obama Administration released Presidential Policy Directive 8,[69] which created the national preparedness goal for emergency management, and improved DHS' ability to coordinate with federal, state, and local entities.

Moreover, to aid communities following a disaster, in 2014, Congress took the step of appropriating $15.2 billion from HUD's Community Development Block Grant program for assisting places that experienced a Presidentially declared major disaster in 2011, 2012, and 2013. Currently, HUD, FEMA, and the Small Business Administration are helping communities develop long-term recovery strategies.

At the state and local levels, communities are developing innovative programs to reduce disaster risk. For example, the Gulf of Mexico Alliance is a partnership of the five Gulf States (Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas), federal agencies, academic organizations, businesses, and nonprofits whose goal is to significantly increase regional collaboration to enhance the environmental and economic health of the Gulf of Mexico region.[70] Together, the Alliance is working to restore the Gulf Coast ecosystem, making it more resilient and prepared for future weather events by leveraging best practices from a multitude of sectors. Individually, states and municipal governments–such as Golden, Colorado; Austin, Texas; Taylor, Florida; and Carson City, Nevada–are increasingly integrating risks of wildfires in their planning and management efforts. On the federal level, HUD sponsors the $1 billion National Disaster Resilience Competition, in which communities that have experienced natural disasters compete for funds to help them rebuild and increase their resilience to future disasters.[71]

3.17. Reducing traffic congestion
There is a strong link between economic growth and traffic congestion. As the U.S. economic outlook has improved since the Great Recession, traffic congestion has increased.[72] In 2011, in 498 urban areas, the average driver experienced 38 hours of delay due to traffic, which translates nationally into an additional 5.5 billion hours of drive times, 2.9 billion gallons of fuel use, 56 billion pounds of carbon dioxide emitted, and $121 billion lost (value of extra time and extra fuel).[73]

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[68] DHS. "National Terrorism Advisory System." Last modified September 5, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.dhs.gov/national-terrorism-advisory-system.
[69] DHS. "Presidential Policy Directive/PPD-8: National Preparedness." Last published January 15, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.dhs.gov/presidential-policy-directive-8-national-preparedness.
[70] See http://www.gulfofmexicoalliance.org/.
[71] HUD. "National Disaster Resilience Competition." Last updated July 15, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/documents/huddoc?id=FactSheet_071514.pdf.
[72] INRIX. "Key Findings." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.inrix.com/scorecard/key-findings-us/.
[73] David Schrank, Bill Eisele, and Tim Lomax. *2012 Urban Mobility Report*. College Station TX: Texas A&M Transportation Institute, December 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://mobility.tamu.edu/ums/report/.

Recent attention has focused on the economics of traffic congestion. Many cities are embracing what are known as the "4Ts": tolling, transit, technology, and telecommuting/travel demand management. For example, congestion pricing is a strategy that increases the toll as congestion increases, thus encouraging drivers to carpool or use other forms of public transportation.

DOT's Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) hosted a number of congestion pricing pilot programs in various cities under the Value Pricing Pilot Program.[74] The experience in these pilot cities indicates that congestion pricing can reduce traffic congestion. Cities are also using better planning and public outreach to address concerns that congestion pricing is not equitable for neighboring communities and businesses. Additionally, many metropolitan areas are incorporating these types of strategies into regional plans to reduce congestion. The FHWA also offers a Congestion Reduction Toolbox,[75] which offers solutions for maximizing congestion relief from existing systems and using technology and innovative strategies to increase capacity and expand travel options.

In addition to making traffic more efficient, many U.S. cities are also exploring traffic calming strategies to slow down or reduce traffic. Strategies such as lane removals, raised pedestrian crossings, curb extensions, and converting two-way streets into one-way streets can all have the effect of improving pedestrian safety and general livability of neighborhood streets. These strategies typically work best when they employ the "3 E's": engineering, education and enforcement. Engineering refers to the physical features; education refers to gathering community acceptance and support; and enforcement entails signage and policing.

Though automobile-centric policies have dominated land use patterns for much of the 20th century, an increasing number of American cities are actively supporting land use and transportation options that reduce automobile dependence. Even housing prices are affected by people's desire to live in walkable communities; expensive urban areas like New York, San Francisco and Boston score highest among large U.S. cities for both walkability and transit.[76] This basic livability principle is promoted at the federal level in several ways, including the Partnership for Sustainable Communities, formed between HUD, DOT, and EPA in 2009. The Partnership coordinates federal housing, transportation, water, and other infrastructure investments to make neighborhoods more prosperous, allow people to live closer to jobs, save households' time and money, and reduce pollution.

3.18. Air Pollution

One of the recommendations from Habitat II was to adopt measures to prevent and control air pollution in order to improve the health and well-being of all people. The principle mechanism for regulating air emissions in the U.S. is the Clean Air Act of 1970. A major mechanism for enforcement of Clean Air standards is the restriction, or freezing, of federal highway funds to state and local governments. In 2009, EPA declared that combined emissions from motor vehicles contributes to greenhouse gas pollution that threatens public health and welfare. This

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[74] DOT. "Value Pricing Pilot Program." Last modified February 12, 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://ops.fhwa.dot.gov/congestionpricing/value_pricing/index.htm.
[75] DOT. "Congestion Reduction Toolbox." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/congestion/toolbox/index.htm.
[76] See www.walkscore.com.

finding was a prerequisite for implementing greenhouse gas emissions standards for vehicles under the Clean Air Act.

In response, EPA and the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration collaborated to finalize emission standards for light-duty vehicles (model years 2012–2016) in 2010, and heavy-duty vehicles (model years 2014–2018) in 2011.[77] The standards applied to the model years 2017–2025 are projected to save approximately 4 billion barrels of oil and reduce greenhouse gas emissions by the equivalent of approximately 2 billion metric tons, with net benefits up to $451 billion.[78]

EPA also develops and implements regulations to ensure that transportation fuel sold in the U.S. contains a minimum volume of renewable fuel. A 2005 amendment to the Clean Air Act introduced Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS) regulations, which lay the foundation significantly reducing greenhouse gas emissions, reducing imported petroleum, and encouraging the development and expansion of the renewable fuels sector through the use of renewable fuels.

In 2014, the EPA proposed Carbon Pollution Emission Guidelines for Existing Stationary Sources–Electric Utility Generating Units (also known as the Clean Power Plan) to cut carbon pollution from power plants, which are the largest source of carbon pollution in the U.S., accounting for roughly one-third of all domestic greenhouse gas emissions.[79] As proposed, the Clean Power Plan would require the overall power sector to cut carbon dioxide emissions 30 percent below 2005 levels by 2030. To do this, EPA is proposing state-specific emissions goals, which are not requirements on specific power plants, but require states to develop implementation plans to meet reduction standards by 2030. EPA estimates that by 2030, the Clean Power Plan will lead to climate and health benefits worth $55 billion to $93 billion in 2030, avoiding 2,700 to 6,600 premature deaths and 140,000 to 150,000 asthma attacks in children.[80]

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[77] EPA. "Endangerment and Cause or Contribute Findings for Greenhouse Gases under Section 202(a) of the Clean Air Act." Last updated November 22, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/endangerment/.

[78] EPA. "2017 and Later Model Year Light-Duty Vehicle Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Corporate Average Fuel Economy Standards." *Federal Register* 77 (15 October 2012), 62623–63200. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2012-10-15/pdf/2012-21972.pdf.

[79] EPA. "Carbon Pollution Emission Guidelines for Existing Stationary Sources: Electric Utility Generating Units." *Federal Register* 79 (18 June 2014), 34829–34958. Accessed March 29, 2015. https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2014/06/18/2014-13726/carbon-pollution-emission-guidelines-for-existing-stationary-sources-electric-utility-generating.

[80] EPA. "Regulatory Initiatives." Last updated August 8, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/EPAactivities/regulatory-initiatives.html.

CHAPTER 4: URBAN GOVERNANCE AND LEGISLATION

4.21 Improving Urban Legislation

As the United States has a federalist system of governance, the federal government maintains power over issues of national and interstate concern, and states and municipalities have jurisdiction over issues of local concern. While cities and states produce legislation that directly affects their local policies, both Congress and localities can enact policies and regulations to improve urban legislation.

Recent federal legislation has addressed the housing market crash. In 2008, Congress passed the Housing and Economic Recovery Act (HERA), which restructured regulation of the government-sponsored enterprises that play a large role in the American mortgage market. HERA also provided for major federal foreclosure prevention programs. In 2009, the American Reinvestment and Recovery Act (ARRA) allocated over $800 billion for stimulus spending, including significant funding for housing and urban development programs.

Other notable federal legislation since Habitat II includes:

- The Multifamily Assisted Housing Reform and Affordability Act of 1997 authorized the Mark-to-Market program, which sought to preserve low-income rental housing affordability while reducing the long-term costs of federal rental assistance.
- The Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act of 1998 introduced major changes to public housing, such as deregulating public housing authorities, creating incentives for residents to become self-sufficient, and creating the HOPE VI mixed-income development program.
- The American Homeownership and Economic Opportunity Act of 2000 made a number of changes to federal housing programs, including new housing opportunities for elderly and disabled families.
- The Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing Act of 2009 restructured federal homelessness policy, including a new definition of "homelessness" and "chronic homelessness," and increased resources for homelessness prevention.
- The Older Americans Act (OAA) reauthorization of 2006, Community Innovations for Aging in Place Initiative (CIAIP), to assist communities in their efforts to enable older adults to sustain their independence and age in place in their homes and communities.
- Clean Air Act amendments in 2005 to include the Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS) regulations.
- The Native American Housing Assistance and Self-Determination Act of 1996 (NAHASDA) reorganized Native American housing grant programs into a single program, the Indian Housing Block Grant (IHBG).
- The Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act (QHWRA) of 1998, also known as public housing reform, protects access to assistance for the poorest families and raised public housing standards.
- The Community Renewal Tax Relief Act of 2000 offered tax incentives for businesses to locate and hire residents in urban and rural areas to encourage economic growth, and created the New Markets Tax Credit Program which offered tax incentives in exchange for investments in qualified businesses located in low-income communities.

- The Safe, Accountable, Flexible, Efficient Transportation Equity Act: A Legacy for Users (SAFETEA-LU) of 2005 included traditional transportation improvements, as well as the New Starts program to support new public transportation services and public transportation alternatives for persons with disabilities.
- The Moving Ahead for Progress in the 21st Century Act of 2012 (MAP-21) also funded the traditional transportation improvements, as well as reforming tolling on federal highways. The Small Business Liability Relief and Brownfields Revitalization Act of 2002 amended the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA or Superfund) by providing funds to assess and clean up brownfields.
- The Energy Policy Act of 2005 authorized subsidies for wind and other alternative forms of energy production, created the Energy Efficient Commercial Buildings tax deduction, among other reforms.

Since Habitat II, states and localities have also established innovative urban legislation to implement strategies such as land banks, community land trusts, and inclusionary zoning. Land banks, first established in the U.S. in the 1970s, are government or nonprofit entities authorized to enforce municipal codes, demolish vacant structures, and refurbish and sell properties to responsible owners, depending on the enabling legislation. Land banks enable communities to flexibly return properties to active use while reducing blight, stabilizing communities, and rehabilitating properties. State and local legislation since 2000 has given land banks more power and autonomy, including independent funding. Many land banks now have the ability to work at a regional level, as opposed to within a single municipality.[81]

Community land trusts, local nonprofit organizations that hold property for the benefit of communities and residents, have increased in popularity over the past 20 years. They provide residents with housing options that are often kept affordable through resale price restrictions, such as a trust's right of first refusal. Under these provisions, owners receive a fair return on investment while the trust ensures the property remains permanently affordable. A number of cities have actively fostered land trust development through legislation, particularly by ensuring dedicated funding streams.

Inclusionary zoning ordinances require or encourage developers of market-rate housing to also develop affordable housing. Since Habitat II, inclusionary zoning has become an increasingly popular tool for American municipalities. The legal mechanisms by which municipalities implement inclusionary zoning, and the length of time the property must remain affordable, vary significantly. The number of units created also varies from a few hundred to thousands. A program in Montgomery County, Maryland, has produced over 13,000 units of affordable housing to date.[82] However, inclusionary zoning can also be controversial and has come under fire for producing few new units and only reaching a small portion of the population it is intended to help.

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[81] HUD. "Countrywide Land Banks Tackle Vacancy and Blight." *Evidence Matters,* Winter 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/periodicals/em/winter14/highlight3.html.
[82] Heather Schwartz, Liisa Ecola, Kristin Leuschner, and Aaron Kofner. *Is Inclusionary Zoning Inclusionary? A Guide for Practitioners.* Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.rand.org/pubs/technical_reports/TR1231.html.

Cities have also taken steps to increase density, which has been linked to increased productivity, and has large effects on transportation, as it leads to increased walkability and bikeability and reduces transportation costs. State policies to permit construction of higher density and multifamily housing near transit and community centers allow cities to increase their density and productivity. For example, the Massachusetts State Legislature adopted a smart growth zoning statute that provides incentives for concentrated development and mandates that districts meet certain density, affordability, and location requirements.[83]

4.22. Decentralization and Strengthening of Local Authorities

Local authorities in the U.S. have significant autonomy in applying federal funds to affordable housing and community development. The federal Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) provides communities with resources to address a range of community development needs, from affordable housing to job creation. The HOME Investment Partnerships Program provides states and local governments with flexible funding for affordable housing and direct rental assistance. The Low-Income Housing Tax Credit (LIHTC), the primary program for affordable housing production in the U.S., allows states to identify areas of focus for their credits' use.

Since Habitat II, federal policy has aimed to further empower local authorities. In the Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act of 1998, Congress deregulated public housing authorities' operations. Local decision makers now have greater flexibility regarding waitlists, mixed-income financing, and use of capital funds.

Congress has emphasized self-determination regarding housing and urban development in Native American communities. The Native American Housing Assistance and Self-Determination Act of 1996 (NAHASDA) reorganized several Native American housing grants into one Indian Housing Block Grant (IHBG). This grant now flows directly to tribal agencies and no longer through HUD-approved Indian Housing Authorities. The grant can be applied to an array of "housing related activities," providing tribal communities with autonomy to address local needs.

The federal government's place-based initiatives aim to strengthen local communities and leadership, in part by facilitating local planning and collaboration and federal barrier removal. The Partnership for Sustainable Communities, which seeks to invest taxpayer money more efficiently and effectively, provided for 143 planning grants (at regional, city, corridor, and neighborhood scales) from 2010–2011. These grants have quickly demonstrated results. For example, after Hurricane Sandy struck the Northeast in 2012, the plans and infrastructure developed through two Regional Planning Grants were leveraged to hasten the recovery from the storm.

The federal government has also launched new partnerships with communities to leverage local and federal resources. These programs help communities do more with less, streamline

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[83] Smart Growth America. "Policy Guide: Encourage cities and counties to permit more multifamily and higher density housing." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.smartgrowthamerica.org/guides/smart-growth-at-the-state-and-local-level/housing-policy/encourage-cities-and-counties-to-permit-more-multifamily-and-higher-density-housing/.

burdensome regulations, and coordinate programs. Launched in 2011, the Strong Cities, Strong Communities Initiative sends federal interagency teams to work alongside mayors and their staff. These teams help communities invest efficiently and promote enduring economic growth. In turn, the federal government provides communities with targeted resources, including on-the-ground staff who partner with local leaders. Similarly, through the Promise Zones initiative, high-poverty communities propose plans for evidence-based investment.

In addition to federal agencies, community organizations and local institutions play important, often leading roles in local development. In 1994, the Community Development Financial Institution (CDFI) fund was established by the Riegle Community Development and Regulatory Improvement Act. Housed in Treasury, the CDFI fund was created to promote economic revitalization and community development through investment in and assistance to CDFIs, which are private nongovernmental financial institutions dedicated to community development. There are several kinds of CDFIs, but they share a broad mission of delivering responsible, affordable lending to help low-income, low-wealth, and other disadvantaged people and communities join the economic mainstream. Since its creation, the CDFI fund has certified over 950 CDFIs and awarded over $2 billion to community development organizations and financial institutions through its various programs.

4.23. Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development

Government, community-based organizations, and philanthropy in the U.S. recognize the importance of public engagement in urban development. Federal programs generally require local input into decision-making. The 1998 Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act requires public housing agencies (PHAs) to provide annual and five-year plans reflecting their operations and populations served, including the unmet housing needs of eligible local families. PHAs must develop these plans in consultation with Resident Advisory Boards and hold a public hearing on the draft plan. At least one recipient of housing services must serve on the PHA's governing board. Similarly, Community Development Block Grant grantees must develop and follow a detailed plan that provides for and encourages citizen participation.

Since the 1968 Fair Housing Act outlawed housing discrimination, the U.S. has made significant progress in combatting blatant housing discrimination. But less blatant discrimination persists: a recent HUD study found that minority home seekers are told about and shown fewer homes and apartments than Whites.[84]

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[84] Margery Turner, R. Santos, D. Levy, D. Wissoker, C. Aranda, and Rob Pitingolo. *Housing Discrimination Against Racial and Ethnic Minorities 2012*. Washington DC: HUD PD&R, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/Publications/pdf/HUD-514_HDS2012.pdf.

Figure 3: Minority Homeseekers Told About and Shown Fewer Housing Units[85]

Renting COMPARED TO WHITES

BLACKS
TOLD ABOUT — 11.4%
SHOWN — 4.2%
… FEWER UNITS

HISPANICS
TOLD ABOUT — 12.5%
SHOWN — 7.5%
… FEWER UNITS

ASIANS
TOLD ABOUT — 9.8%
SHOWN — 6.6%
… FEWER UNITS

Buying COMPARED TO WHITES

BLACKS
TOLD ABOUT — 17%
SHOWN — 17.7%
… FEWER HOMES

Differences favor neither whites nor Hispanics

ASIANS
TOLD ABOUT — 15.5%
SHOWN — 18.8%
… FEWER HOMES
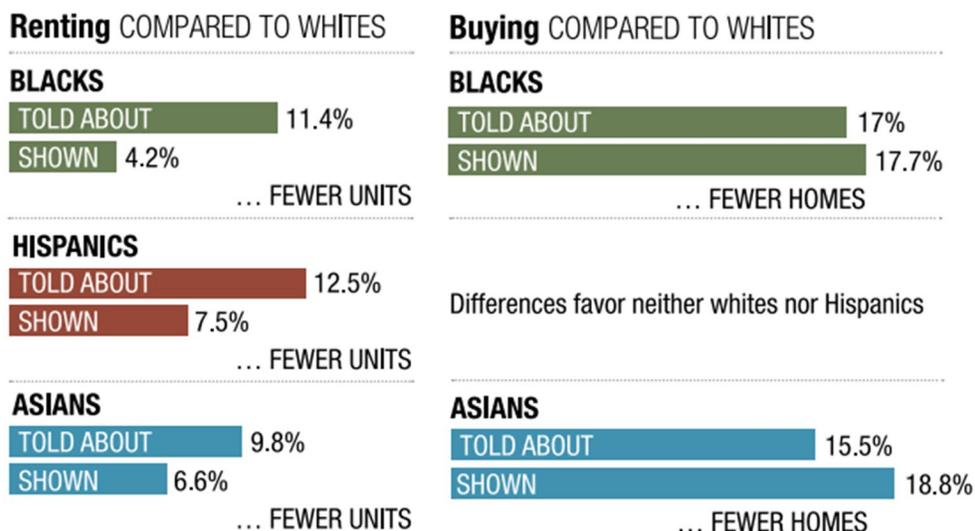
In response, HUD has taken steps to further reduce housing discrimination and foster more inclusive, diverse communities. The proposed Affirmatively Furthering Fair Housing (AFFH) rule, for example, requires local governments, states, and PHAs that receive HUD funding to systematically and proactively further the goals of the Fair Housing Act. HUD provides the recipients with guidance and data from which the recipients complete an assessment of fair housing, linked to other local housing plans.[86] This rule responds to a Government Accountability Office report that found the existing fair housing framework required more oversight.[87]

Advances in technology have facilitated increased citizen participation and improved transparency in urban development. Most government agencies, states, and cities have social media platforms that allow for engagement with constituents and information sharing. Online engagement allows government agencies and civil society to reach audiences that are unwilling or unable to participate in traditional ways. Digital participation is on the rise; a recent Pew study found that 39 percent of adults participate in political or civic activities on social networking sites.[88]

The federal government is increasing digital engagement through Challenge.gov. The website, administered by several government agencies and the White House, is a technical platform and list of challenge and prize competitions, all of which are run by more than 69 federal agencies.

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[85] Turner, Santos, Levy, Wissoker, Aranda, and Pitingolo. 2013.
[86] HUD. "Affirmatively Furthering Fair Housing Proposed Rule." Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/affht_pt.html.
[87] Government Accountability Office. *Housing and Community Grants: HUD Needs to Enhance Its Requirements and Oversight of Jurisdictions' Fair Housing Plans.* Washington DC: GAO, September 2010. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.gao.gov/new.items/d10905.pdf.
[88] Aaron Smith. "Civic Engagement in the Digital Age." *Pew Research* Center, April 25, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.pewinternet.org/2013/04/25/civic-engagement-in-the-digital-age/.

These include technical, scientific, and creative competitions in which the government seeks innovative solutions from the public, soliciting ideas and attracting talent to solve specific problems.

4.24. Enhancing Urban Safety and Security

The past 20 years have seen tremendous improvements in urban safety and security in the US. From 1990 to 2008, violent crime rates in cities decreased by nearly 30 percent, while property crime rates dropped by 46 percent.[89] In 2010, the U.S. homicide rate fell to 4.2 homicides per 100,000 residents, the lowest in 40 years.[90]

Figure 4: Violent and Property Crime Rates in 100 Largest U.S. Metropolitan Areas, 1990–2008

	Year 2008	Change from Year 1990	1990-2000-2008
Violent Crime Incidents	**1,402**	**-21%**	
Murder	6	-46%	
Rape	26	-38%	
Robbery	182	-48%	
Aggravated Assault	281	-41%	
Simple Assault	908	2%	
Property Crime Incidents	**3,210**	**-42%**	
Burglary	706	-46%	
Larceny	2,131	-37%	
Motor Vehicle Theft	373	-57%	

incidents per 100,000 residents
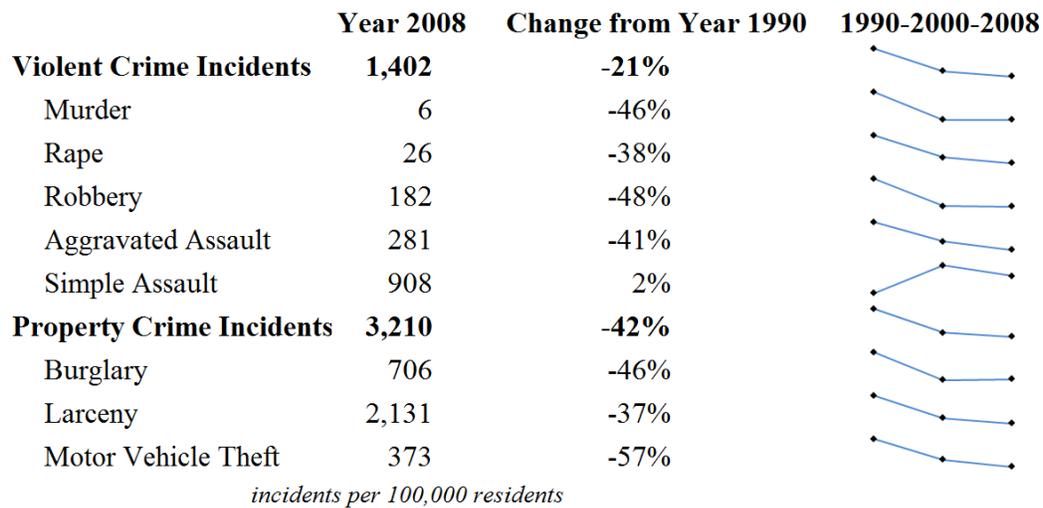
The federal government has taken steps to make the criminal justice process fairer and more efficient. In 2013, the Department of Justice (DOJ) performed a comprehensive review of criminal justice practices. This review led to the Smart on Crime Initiative, which has established five evidence-based principles for criminal justice reform:

1) Prioritize prosecutions to focus on the most serious cases.
2) Reform sentencing to eliminate unfair disparities and reduce overburdened prisons.
3) Pursue alternatives to incarceration for low-level, non-violent crime.
4) Improve reentry to curb repeat offenses and victimization.
5) "Surge" resources to prevent violence and protect the most vulnerable populations.[91]

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[89] Elizabeth Kneebone and Steven Raphael. *City and Suburban Crime Trends in Metropolitan America*. Washington DC: Brookings, May 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/papers/2011/5/26%20metropolitan%20crime%20kneebone%20raphael/0526_metropolitan_crime_kneebone_raphael.pdf.

[90] Alexia Cooper and Eric L. Smith. *Homicide Trends in the United States, 1980-2008*. Washington DC: DOJ, 2011. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/htus8008.pdf.

[91] DOJ. *Smart on Crime: Reforming the Criminal Justice System for the 21st Century*. Washington DC: DOJ, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.justice.gov/sites/default/files/ag/legacy/2013/08/12/smart-on-crime.pdf.

DOJ has taken actions to implement these principles, including through the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS). Since 1994, COPS has empowered police and community stakeholders to partner in solving America's crime challenges. The benefits of these principles are already apparent. A year after key sentencing reforms were enacted, the federal prison population decreased for the first time in three decades.[92]

In 2012, the federal government launched the Byrne Criminal Justice Innovation (BCJI) program, which aims to reduce crime and improve neighborhoods safety. Research suggests that violent and serious crime clustered in "hot spots" accounts for a disproportionate amount of crime and disorder in many communities. BCJI provides resources to enable community leaders, including residents, to address these hot spots by employing data-driven, cross-sector strategies. Since 2012, BCJI has funded 46 sites.

The BCJI program is one of the centerpiece programs of the Neighborhood Revitalization Initiative (NRI). Launched by the White House in 2010, NRI takes a place-based approach to help neighborhoods in distress transform themselves into neighborhoods of opportunity. NRI looks to integrate place-based initiatives, provide small flexible grants, build neighborhood capacity through technical assistance, and share best practice. NRI and other place-based initiatives emphasize a holistic approach to safety and security and other issues that cities face.

More recently, President Obama launched the My Brother's Keeper (MBK) initiative in partnership with philanthropy and the private sector. The initiative aims to address persistent opportunity gaps faced by boys and young men of color. The MBK Task Force has identified recommendations for reform; for example, it has recommended encouraging law enforcement and neighborhoods to work hand-in-hand, and reduce violence in high-risk communities by integrating public health approaches.

4.25. Improving Social Inclusion and Equity

The Great Recession disproportionately affected the most vulnerable populations' housing. For example, minority racial and ethnic groups experienced the greatest declines in homeownership. In 2010, only 44.2 percent of Black households owned their homes, compared to 46.3 percent in 2006.[93] Families with children also have faced increased cost burdens. In 2011, 40.7 percent of families with children spent over 30 percent of their income on housing, versus 28.5 percent in 2001.[94]

The recession continued a troubling trend for vulnerable households. After declining in the 1990s, concentrated poverty actually increased in the 2000s. In 2010, 28 percent of lower-

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[92] DOJ. "One Year After Launching Key Sentencing Reforms, Attorney General Holder Announces First Drop In Federal Prison Population in More Than Three Decades." Last updated September 23, 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/one-year-after-launching-key-setencing-reforms-attorney-general-holder-annouces-first-drop-0.

[93] Ingrid Gould Ellen and Samuel Dastrup. *Housing and the Great Recession*. The Russell Sage Foundation and the Stanford Center on Poverty and Inequality, October 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://furmancenter.org/files/publications/HousingandtheGreatRecession.pdf.

[94] Federal Interagency Forum on Children and Family Statistics. *America's Children: Key National Indicators of Well-Being, 2013*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.childstats.gov/pdf/ac2013/ac_13.pdf.

income households lived in majority lower-income census tracts, up from 23 percent in 1980.[95] Moreover, the percent of households experiencing worst-case needs grew over the past decade, from 4.8 percent of all households in 2001 to 7.4 percent of all households in 2011.[96] One bright spot: In 2013, the number of renter households with worst-case needs decreased. Data suggests that the nation's ongoing economic recovery is beginning to have beneficial effects for low-income renters.[97]

Figure 5: Very Low-Income Renters and Worst Case Needs, by Household Type, 2009 and 2011
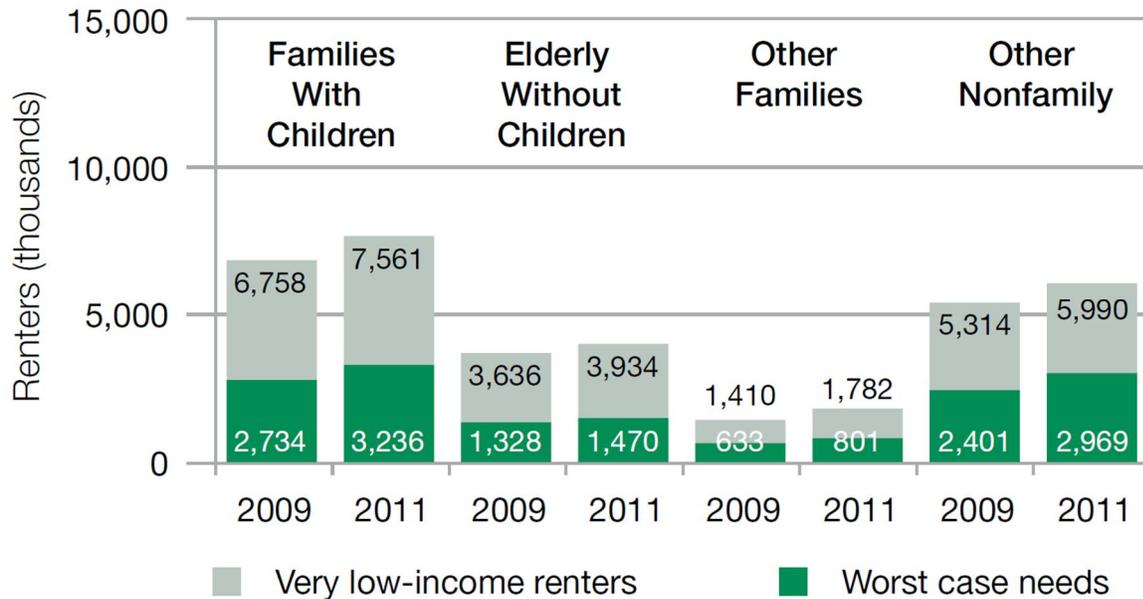
The federal government has partnered with distressed communities to reduce poverty, address health disparities, and improve opportunity. The Promise Neighborhoods program, launched in 2010 as part of NRI, funds integrated cradle-to-career solutions in communities nationwide. Through Promise Zones, another federal place-based initiative, the federal government partners with and invests in high-poverty communities. Promise Zones help communities create jobs, leverage private investment, reduce violent crime, and expand educational opportunities. These initiatives build on extensive evidence demonstrating the impact of housing and neighborhoods on vulnerable populations such as children.[98]

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[95] Richard Fry and Paul Taylor. "The Rise of Residential Segregation by Income." Washington DC: Pew Research Center, 2012. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2012/08/01/the-rise-of-residential-segregation-by-income/.
[96] Households with worst case needs are those that rent; have very low incomes; do not receive federal housing assistance; and either pay a severe rent burden or have seriously inadequate housing.
See: HUD. *Worst Case Housing Needs 2011: Report to Congress*. Washington, DC: HUD PD&R, 2013. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/Publications/pdf/HUD-506_WorstCase2011_reportv3.pdf.
[97] HUD. *Worst Case Housing Needs: 2015 Report to Congress – Executive Summary*. Washington DC: HUD PD&R, January 2015. Accessed March 29, 2015.
http://www.huduser.org/portal/Publications/pdf/WorstCase2015_summary.pdf.
[98] HUD. "Housing's and Neighborhoods' Role in Shaping Children's Future." *Evidence Matters*, Fall 2014. Accessed March 29, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/periodicals/em/fall14/highlight1.html.

The environmental justice movement also seeks to promote social inclusion and equity. Environmental justice is the fair treatment and meaningful involvement of all people regardless of race, color, national origin, or income with respect to the development, implementation, and enforcement of environmental laws, regulations, and policies. The movement maintains that everyone should enjoy the same degree of protection from environmental hazards and equal access to the decision-making process to have a healthy environment. On February 11, 1994, President Clinton issued an executive order to focus federal attention on the environmental and human health effects of federal actions on minority and low-income populations with the goal of achieving environmental protection for all communities. The order established an Interagency Working Group on environmental justice chaired by the EPA Administrator. In the 20 years since the Executive Order was issued, federal agencies have made strides in improving environmental justice throughout the country, though work remains to be done. The EPA issued *Plan EJ 2014*, a roadmap that will help integrate environmental justice into its programs, policies, and activities.[99]

In addition to federal involvement in environmental justice, community voices play a vital role in the movement. For example, the Hip Hop Caucus, a civil and human rights organization, became involved in environmental justice after Hurricane Katrina disproportionately affected low-income families and communities of color. The Hip Hop Caucus now participates in numerous environmental campaigns and creates materials and resources that illustrate how environmental issues impact the daily lives of people of color.[100]

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[99] EPA. *Plan EJ 2014 Progress Report*. Washington DC: EPA, February 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/environmentaljustice/plan-ej/index.html.
[100] The Hip Hop Caucus. "Environmental Justice and Climate Change." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.hiphopcaucus.org/environmental-justice-and-climate-change/index.php.

CHAPTER 5: URBAN ECONOMY

5.28: Improving Municipal and Local Finance
Under the United States' system of government, authority is divided among three main layers of government: federal, state and local. There are 50 states, several territories, one federal district, and approximately 90,000 localities, including counties, cities, and special jurisdictions created for specific purposes (such as school districts). State and local governments are generally responsible for providing access to education, health/public welfare, transportation, and public safety, though states and localities differ substantially in the delivery and financing of services. Such services are principally financed through five major sources: federal government grants, sales taxes, property taxes, user fees, and income taxes. States and localities also can issue bonds to finance certain public investments where repayments to bondholders are made either from general revenues or dedicated revenue streams.

The largest categories of state-local expenditures are, in order, education, public welfare, and transportation. Spending on elementary and secondary education has traditionally been the single costliest activity of state-local governments.[101] States rely primarily on income and sales taxes for elementary-secondary education funding, which is generally distributed by formula. Property taxes are the major local source for education funding. As of 2015, states have been providing less funding for elementary and secondary education than prior to the Great Recession, further burdening localities that have faced post-recession declines in property taxes.[102]

Public welfare services form the next largest category of state-local spending. Spending in this area rose 26 percent between 2007 and 2012 (versus a 6 percent increase for education in the same period), largely driven by the escalating costs of health care, which has been the subject of numerous national-level reforms, including the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act. A large portion of state spending for Medicaid, insurance for low-income individuals, is funded by grants from the federal government.

Transportation, the next largest single category of state-local spending, accounts for a much smaller share of total spending than education and public welfare. Expenditures on new roads and highways have not increased over time, though maintenance costs have. The principal sources of revenue for transportation funds are gas taxes and user fees (such as tolls).
One of the most flexible sources of financing for states and localities is the federal block grant, which provides a set amount funds to support national objectives. Recipients have great discretion over how they can spend allocated funds. For example, HUD's Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program funds local community development activities, including affordable housing, anti-poverty programs, and economic development, among a range of other activities. There were 21 funded block grants, totaling about $51 billion in 2014.[103]

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[101] Census Bureau. "2012 Census of Governments – Survey of School System Finances." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www2.census.gov/govs/school/current_spending.pdf.
[102] Michael Leachman and Chris Mai. "Most States Still Funding Schools Less than Before the Recession." Washington, DC: Center for Budget and Policy Priorities, October 14, 2014. Accessed January 12, 2015. http://www.cbpp.org/files/10-16-14sfp.pdf.
[103] Robert J. Dilger and Eugene Boyd. *Block Grants: Perspectives and Controversies.* Washington DC: Congressional Research Service, July 15, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R40486.pdf.

In response to the Great Recession, in 2009, the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) provided temporary relief for programs most impacted by the recession, investing in infrastructure, education, health, and renewable energy. The increase in government spending benefited states and localities and was intended to prevent further economic deterioration as a result of the crisis. The approximate impact of ARRA between 2009 and 2019 is estimated at $831 billion, although close to half of that impact occurred in 2010.[104]

5.29 Improving and Strengthening Access to Housing Finance
While the federal government has played an important role in supporting access to housing finance since the 1930s, its role has become even more important since the 2006 financial crisis. As of 2013, the government backs about 80 percent of the $1.9 trillion single-family origination market, through the government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs known as Freddie Mac and Fannie Mae), the Federal Housing Administration (FHA), the Veterans Administration (VA) and smaller programs.[105] The government backs about the same proportion of outstanding single-family mortgage debt, which presently stands at nearly $10 trillion. The federal government's role in the mortgage market has been historically large, but it is looking for ways to reduce its role and increase the role of private capital. Congress has explored several housing finance reform options, but no legislation is imminent.

The FHA, an agency of HUD, administers the principal product for underserved communities and low-income/low-savings borrowers, such as first-time homebuyers. In 80 years of operation, FHA has insured 13 percent of all mortgage originations, but over 50 percent of all first-time homebuyer originations.[106] Further, since 2008 and 2009, more than 50 percent of mortgage-seeking African-American and Hispanic households have purchased homes through the FHA.[107] FHA plays an important countercyclical role during economic downturns, continuing to facilitate lending as other mortgage providers restrict their lending. By some estimates, in the absence of FHA loans during the recent recession, home sales would have declined another 25 percent, contributing to an additional $4 trillion loss of household wealth that would have exacerbated the already severe impacts of the economic slowdown.[108] FHA loans are placed into securities that are backed by Ginnie Mae, another HUD agency that serves as the primary financing mechanism for all government-insured and -guaranteed loans. Ginnie Mae securitizes and sells government-backed loans in the global capital markets, thereby improving liquidity and providing funds for new lending. Loans from the VA, which are available for veterans, also are packaged into Ginnie Mae securities. Outstanding Ginnie Mae securities total more than $1.5 trillion in 2015.

The government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs) were established by Congress to purchase loans from lenders that meet certain conditions, generating more funds for further lending. Together,

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[104] CBO. *Estimated Impact of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act on Employment and Economic Output from October 2011 through December 2011.* Washington DC: CBO, February 2012. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.cbo.gov/sites/default/files/cbofiles/attachments/02-22-ARRA.pdf.

[105] CBO. *Transitioning to Alternative Structures for Housing Finance.* Washington DC: CBO, December 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.cbo.gov/sites/default/files/cbofiles/attachments/49765-Housing_Finance.pdf.

[106] Edward Golding, Edward Szymanoski, and Pamela Lee. *FHA at 80: Preparing for the Future.* Washington DC: HUD, August 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal//Publications/pdf/HUD-FHAAT80.pdf.

[107] Ibid.

[108] Ibid.

the two GSEs, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, provide the largest source of U.S. housing finance, and they are responsible for roughly half (or $5 trillion) of all outstanding mortgage debt. In September 2008, the GSEs were placed in conservatorship due to concerns about their deteriorating financial conditions during the financial crisis; since the end of the recession, however, the financial condition of the GSEs has improved. Going forward, legislators are reconsidering the GSEs' role in the housing finance system.

Outside of FHA, VA, and the GSEs, a portion of the mortgage market is financed by banks and other private-sector entities without direct government guarantees. Private-sector loans tend to exceed limits required for FHA insurance or GSE guarantees; in addition, certain products such as second-lien home equity mortgage are typically provided by banks. Between 2004 and 2007, there was an active private-label securities market that provided mortgage financing through the capital markets. These riskier products defaulted at high rates, on the scale of nearly 50 percent. Since the Great Recession there has been almost no private-label activity in the mortgage market. In order to ensure that risky products do not re-emerge over time, the Consumer Finance Protection Bureau (CFPB) imposed an ability to repay standard on the mortgage market. There will not be a significant expansion of private capital financing in the mortgage market until there is housing finance reform.

The aforementioned programs are long-standing federal programs to support housing finance access. In the immediate aftermath of the housing crash, the government took steps to stabilize the mortgage market, largely by creating mortgage modification initiatives that provided government relief or incentives for private sector relief. The Home Affordable Modification Program (HAMP) helped over 1.4 million borrowers through permanent loan modifications, and created a modification template that has facilitated an additional 4.2 million private lender modifications modeled after the HAMP template. In combination, these and other modification programs have assisted more than 8 million homeowners.

5.30 Supporting Local Economic Development

The U.S. has a relatively decentralized approach to economic development. Agencies dedicated to economic development activities, such as job creation and economic growth, primarily exist at the state and local level. While specific economic development strategies are numerous and varied, they broadly rely on two strategies: targeted assistance to businesses, and adjustments to government tax, spending, and regulatory policies. For example, states or cities may choose to forego taxes to attract businesses. Such strategies often rely on partnerships with local Chambers of Commerce, private businesses, foundations, and community-based organizations, and are supplemented by federal programs to support local development.

At the federal level, the Economic Development Administration (EDA) plays a key role in fostering economic development through grants and technical assistance programs designed to improve quality of life. In 2013, the agency awarded $360 million to 670 projects across the country.[109] EDA also leads several cross-agency initiatives that invest in "industry clusters" as catalysts for regional/local economic development. These include Make it in America and the

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[109] EDA. *Economic Development Administration Fiscal Year 2013 Annual Report*. Washington DC: Department of Commerce, June 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.eda.gov/annual-reports/files/fy2013/EDA-FY2013-Annual-Report-full.pdf.

Investing in Manufacturing Communities Partnership, launched in 2013 to help communities attract global manufacturing investment,[110] and the 2014 Regional Innovation Strategies Program, which supports regional development of high-growth industries.[111] SelectUSA is a federal-state-local partnership launched in 2011 to promote foreign-direct investment in the U.S.[112]

In recent years, President Obama has launched several place-based initiatives to reduce economic inequality and promote local development. Strong Cities, Strong Communities, launched in 2011, leverages federal funds and expertise to help localities improve fiscal effectiveness and efficiency. Also, in 2014, the President announced the designation of five[113] Promise Zones, targeted zones that will rely on tax incentives and grants to spur economic development and reduce poverty through job creation, affordable housing, and education support. By 2016, the President will designate 20 additional Promise Zones.

The President has also prioritized efforts to transform neighborhoods of concentrated poverty through programs such as the Neighborhood Revitalization Initiative (NRI). Launched in 2008, the NRI engages key federal agencies to work together to leverage resources in distressed communities. Key NRI programs include: Choice Neighborhoods, which supports local strategies to address struggling neighborhoods with distressed or public housing; Promise Neighborhoods, which is based on the model of the Harlem Children's Zone and is designed to create a continuum of education and community supports centered around schools in the country's most distressed communities; and the Byrne Criminal Justice Innovation grant, a community-based strategy to control and prevent crime.

HUD also provides support for local economic development. Since 1974, HUD's Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program has invested $144 billion in diverse community development activities. For example, between 2007 and 2013, CDBG helped more than 232,000 businesses expand economic opportunities for low- and moderate-income Americans.[114]

A provision of CDBG, Section 108, allows grantees to borrow private funding amounts up to five times their annual CDBG allocation, with CDBG funds used as a security for the loan. This allows communities to access private capital at below market rates to fund larger projects than would be possible given their smaller CDBG allocations. In the past, in conjunction with Section 108 loans, communities could also qualify for Brownfields Economic Development Initiative (BEDI) funds from the EPA, to redevelop environmentally contaminated industrial and commercial sites.

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[110] Ibid.

[111] EDA. "Frequently Asked Questions for the Regional Innovation Strategies Program." Last updated on October 22, 2014. Accessed on March 30, 2015. http://www.eda.gov/oie/files/2014-risp-faq.pdf.

[112] Jeff Zients and Secretary Penny Pritzker. "SelectUSA: Investing in the United States, Creating Jobs, and Spurring Economic Growth." *The White House Blog*, April 10, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/blog/2014/04/10/selectusa-investing-united-states-creating-jobs-and-spurring-economic-growth.

[113] In parts of San Antonio, Texas; Philadelphia, Philadelphia; Los Angeles, California; Southeastern Kentucky; and the Choctaw Nation of Oklahoma.

[114] HUD. "The CDBG Program–Frequently Asked Questions." Accessed March 30, 2015. https://www.hudexchange.info/onecpd/assets/File/The-Community-Development-Block-Grant-FAQ.pdf.

5.31 Creating Decent Jobs and Livelihoods

In response to severe job losses during the Great Recession, and to staunch further economic deterioration, the federal government passed the 2009 American Recovery and Reinvestment Act to save and create jobs. By some estimates, the $787 billion economic stimulus package – a combination of government spending, tax incentives, and expanded welfare programs – saved or created 1.6 million jobs annually between enactment and 2012.[115] In the six years since the end of the recession, unemployment rates declined from a 10-year high of 10% in 2009 to 5.6% by the end of 2014.[116]

The low unemployment rate, however, may paint a rosier picture than the reality. To start, unemployment rates have long been stratified by race, income, and education levels (which are themselves connected), with Black unemployment rates consistently outpacing White unemployment rates. For example, the December 2014 unemployment rate for Black workers was 10.4 percent, nearly double the 4.8 percent rate for White workers.[117,118] Labor force participation reached a 30-year low in December 2014, dipping to 62.7 percent as discouraged workers left the labor force.[119] Additionally, though 2014 was the best year for job creation since 1999 – with 200,000 new jobs created per month – most new jobs have been concentrated in the low-wage service sector. Mid-wage jobs made up about 60 percent of job losses during the recession, but have comprised just 27 percent of jobs gained during the recovery; in contrast, low-wage jobs have dominated the recovery, accounting for 58 percent of job gains since 2010.[120] Consequently, more Americans are earning less than they did in the past.[121]

As part of his job creation legislative agenda, in 2014, President Obama signed the Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA), which reauthorized the primary federal funding source providing investments and support to workers seeking employment, education, training, and related services. It authorizes over 45 federal programs through nine federal agencies. Among other objectives, WIOA is intended to promote coordination of economic development, education, and workforce training on a regional basis.

The Employment and Training Administration (ETA), an agency of the Department of Labor (DOL), distributes most WIOA funds to state workforce agencies. States distribute these funds to

[115] Executive Office of the President – Council of Economic Advisers. *The Economic Impact of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act Five Years Later: Final Report to Congress.* Washington DC: White House, February 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/cea_arra_report.pdf.

[116] BLS. "Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey: (SEAS) Unemployment Rate." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://data.bls.gov/timeseries/LNS14000000.

[117] BLS. "Labor Force Characteristics by Race and Ethnicity, 2013." *BLS Reports* 1050, August 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.bls.gov/opub/reports/cps/race_ethnicity_2013.pdf.

[118] BLS. "The Employment Situation–February 2015." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/empsit.pdf.

[119] BLS. "Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey: (SEAS) Labor Force Participation Rate." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://data.bls.gov/timeseries/LNS11300000

[120] National Employment Law Project. "The Low-Wage Recovery and Growing Inequality." August 2012 Data Brief. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.nelp.org/page/-/Job_Creation/LowWageRecovery2012.pdf?nocdn=1.

[121] Jim Tankersley. "The devalued American Worker." *The Washington Post,* December 14, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.washingtonpost.com/sf/business/2014/12/14/the-devalued-american-worker/.

local Workforce Investment Boards to run approximately 2,500 American Job Centers nationwide that offer employment services and job training according to local needs. Collectively, these centers served 18.6 million people in 2012.[122]

A growing volume of jobs require higher education and specialized skills, and by some estimates, by 2020, 65 percent of jobs will require a postsecondary education.[123] To address this need, the federal government provides support for adults who have dropped out of school or require further education. This is important for addressing racial disparities in dropout rates and, thus, employability. The Department of Education's Adult Education and Literacy program provides grants to states to fund local programs for adults and out-of-school youths. The agency estimates that these programs assist nearly 2 million people per year, though waitlists are long and there are an estimated 36 million adults who qualify for the program's services.

Even with additional training and job-search assistance, wage stagnation remains an issue for the majority of Americans. For example, adjusted for inflation, median income for the average American has fallen from a peak of approximately $57,000 in 1999 to $52,000 in 2013, a decline of about 9 percent.[124] In 2014, the President supported efforts to increase the federal minimum wage from $7.25 to $10.10 per hour. Though the federal minimum wage remains unchanged, as of 2015, 29 states have a state minimum wage higher than the federal minimum.

5.32 Integration of the Urban Economy into National Development Policy
The nation's cities and surrounding metropolitan regions are home to more than 80 percent of the American population and account for nearly 90 percent of national GDP. In recognition of the importance of urban areas to the American people and economy, the federal government has placed significant emphasis on promoting coordinated urban development that is equitable (providing equal access to opportunity) and sustainable (accounting for scarce and quickly depleting resources).

Broadly, federal initiatives to facilitate urban development have focused on distributing federal funds to drive grassroots, locally driven solutions to neighborhood problems; promoting intensive collaboration to integrate solutions across agencies and programs to maximize impact; and developing policies that target resources in specific communities. The federal government also has focused efforts on tracking outcomes of existing programs and evaluating them for replication or revision.

The largest and most flexible national resource for supporting metropolitan economies is the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program, which is administered by HUD. CDBG was designed to give local jurisdictions power to distribute federal funds directly to nonprofit and public agencies that address local community needs, particularly ones that support low- and moderate-income individuals. In 2014, $3.1 billion in CDBG funds were allocated to

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[122] White House. *Ready to Work: Job-Driven Training and American Opportunity*. Washington DC: White House, July 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/skills_report_072014_2.pdf.
[123] Anthony P. Carnevale and Nicole Smith. *A Decade Behind: Breaking Out of the Low-Skill Trap in the Southern Economy*. Washington DC: Georgetown Public Policy Institute, July 2012. Accessed March 30, 2015. https://cew.georgetown.edu/south.
[124] Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. "FRED Graph." Accessed March 30, 2015. https://research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/graph/?graph_id=146845&category_id=.

1,220 grantees on a formula basis. HUD itself has led national efforts to promote inclusive development in American localities for the past 50 years, and is developing a Century of Cities initiative to partner with cities and help them support population growth.[125]

In 2009, the Obama Administration launched the Neighborhood Revitalization Initiative (NRI), an interagency collaborative to provide federal support for neighborhood development. To date, agencies in the NRI have focused efforts on several place-based programs. For example, the Sustainable Communities Initiative, a partnership between HUD, DOT, and EPA, aims to improve cross-jurisdictional planning efforts that integrate housing and transportation decisions in ways that support affordability, job access, public health, and reduced pollution. Since 2009, the three agencies have allocated $4 billion to more than 1,000 communities to improve quality of life.

Another NRI program, Choice Neighborhoods, links resources and funds across HUD, DOT, EPA, and the Department of Education. The program aims to support neighborhood revitalization efforts that integrate the construction and rehabilitation of affordable and energy-efficient housing along with improvements in early childhood and primary/secondary educational opportunities, job training, and case management for families in crisis. As of 2015, 12 Choice Neighborhoods implementation grantees across the country have been awarded $351 million to support coordinated local development.

Similarly, the Promise Neighborhood initiative aligns HUD, the Department of Justice, Health and Human Services, EPA, and ED to fund integrated planning and implementation of neighborhood-based early childhood education and afterschool programs along with health, workforce development, and community engagement programs. Promise Neighborhoods is inspired by the experience of the Harlem Children's Zone, a nonprofit organization for low-income families in Harlem that has promoted a community-based approach to supporting education. As of 2015, two cohorts of 12 implementation grantees have received commitments of federal funds for up to $30 million over five years to support the development of their Promise Neighborhoods.

Additionally, in 2009, President Obama created the White House Office of Urban Affairs (OUA) to articulate national goals for cities and metropolitan areas and ensure that cities and metropolitan areas factor into all major policy decisions. OAU's early work with agencies to frame initiatives at all scales resulted in four flagship place-based initiatives previously discussed: the Neighborhood Revitalization Initiative (NRI); Strong Cities, Strong Communities (SC2); the Partnership for Sustainable Communities (PSC); and Regional Innovation Clusters. To date, OUA has focused less on shaping urban policy and more on supporting cross-agency partnerships and locally led interventions.

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[125] Lynn M. Ross. "A 'Century of Cities'–here and abroad." *The HUDdle,* February 27, 2015. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://blog.hud.gov/index.php/2015/02/27/century-cities-here/.

CHAPTER 6: HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES

6.35/6.36 Improving Access to Adequate Housing and Serving Vulnerable Populations
The vast majority of the United States' housing stock can be described as physically adequate.[126] In 2005, 2007, and 2009, less than two percent of occupied housing units qualified as "severely inadequate."[127] However, many Americans still live in homes with potential health and safety hazards. An estimated 3.6 million homes with children younger than six have one or more lead-based paint hazards, and low-income households are disproportionately affected.[128] Exposure to lead paint can seriously impact children's health and development.

In 1999, HUD launched the Healthy Homes Initiative to protect children and their families from housing-related health and safety hazards. Managed by HUD's Office of Lead Hazard Control and Healthy Homes, the Healthy Homes Initiative provides grants to research and demonstrate low-cost, effective home hazard assessment and intervention methods, as well as public education and outreach efforts.

The foremost challenge regarding housing adequacy is ensuring that families can access affordable, quality housing in safe neighborhoods. HUD's 10-year Moving to Opportunity study has demonstrated that moving from high-poverty areas to lower-poverty neighborhoods can help families significantly improve their safety and health.[129]

From 2004 to 2012, the proportion of American households in rental housing rose from 31 percent to 35 percent.[130] Lower-income people are more likely to rent, and rental units are often concentrated in low-income neighborhoods.[131] Unfortunately, the number of cost-burdened renters has also dramatically increased. From 2000 to 2012, the proportion of cost-burdened renters rose by 12 percent to about half of all renters.[132] While the median renters' real income has stagnated, rents have increased.[133]

The Low-Income Housing Tax Credit (LIHTC) is the primary federal program for affordable rental housing production. LIHTC provides states with federal housing tax credits, which the states allocate to developers in exchange for producing and maintaining affordable rental housing. The developers, who would typically not have tax liabilities equivalent to the amount of

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[126] That is, the housing meets the standard of "a decent home and suitable living environment," as established by the Housing Act of 1949.

[127] Frederick J. Eggers and Fouad Moumen. *American Housing Survey: Housing Adequacy and Quality as Measured by the AHS*. Washington, DC: HUD PD&R, 2013. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal//publications/pdf/AHS_hsg_adequacy.pdf.

[128] David Cox, Gary Dewalt, Robert O'Haver, and Brendon Salatino. *American Health Homes Survey: Lead and Arsenic Findings*. Washington DC: HUD, April 2011. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/documents/huddoc?id=AHHS_REPORT.pdf.

[129] HUD's Moving to Opportunity data and reports can be accessed at http://www.huduser.org/portal/datasets/mto.html.

[130] Joint Center for Housing Studies. *America's Rental Housing: Evolving Markets and Needs*. Cambridge, MA: JCHS, 2013. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.jchs.harvard.edu/sites/jchs.harvard.edu/files/jchs_americas_rental_housing_2013_1_0.pdf.

[131] Ibid.

[132] Ibid.

[133] Ibid.

the credits, are able to sell the credits to entities with larger liabilities, thereby transforming the credit into capital for the development. Under LIHTC, projects must meet one of two low-income occupancy requirements: either 20 percent of the units must be reserved for households with incomes at or below 50 percent of Area Median Income (AMI), or 40 percent of units must go to households with incomes at or below 60 percent of AMI. From 1995 to 2012, LIHTC produced over 105,000 affordable units on average per year.[134]

While production of traditional public housing largely ceased in the 1980s, approximately 1.2 million households still live in public housing today. The federal government's Public Housing Capital Fund supports upkeep for the existing stock. However, capital needs for public housing are significant: a 2011 study estimated the total backlog at $26 billion.[135] The costs of deferred maintenance are also significant. Each year, over 10,000 units are lost from the public housing inventory. As a result, HUD has launched the Rental Assistance Demonstration (RAD) to enable at-risk public housing developments to convert to long-term housing assistance contracts. The program aims to give owners access to new public and private financing, enabling rehabilitation and replacement of decrepit units.

The HOPE VI program also addressed the issue of the deteriorating public housing stock. From 1993 to 2010, the program aimed to redevelop and revitalize distressed public housing in communities across the nation. Today, Choice Neighborhoods, the successor program to HOPE VI, seeks to develop affordable, quality housing while also focusing on neighborhood revitalization.

Housing Choice Vouchers (HCVs) account for the largest proportion of households with housing subsidies. Voucher recipients find their own housing in private or public units, and HUD pays the landlord directly. HUD also funds a significant number of project-based vouchers assigned to specific developments. Housing vouchers are heavily oversubscribed, and waitlists for prospective recipients can be years long. In 2013, HUD funded about 2.2 million HCVs and about 1.2 million project-based vouchers. Evidence demonstrates that vouchers significantly reduce homelessness, lift families out of poverty, and help families move to safer, lower-poverty neighborhoods.[136]

The U.S. has sought to link housing assistance with other services. The Moving to Work program, for example, provides public housing authorities with flexibility to offer work and education incentives. The Family Self-Sufficiency (FSS) program enables families receiving housing assistance to receive education, employment, and social services support. Evidence indicates that participants who complete FSS programs enjoy substantial gains in income.[137]

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[134] HUD. "Low-Income Housing Tax Credits." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/datasets/lihtc.html.

[135] Abt Associates. *Capital Needs in the Public Housing Program*. Washington DC: HUD, November 24, 2010. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/documents/huddoc?id=PH_Capital_Needs.pdf.

[136] Will Fischer. "Research Shows Housing Vouchers Reduce Hardship and Provide Platform for Long-Term Gains Among Children." Washington DC: Center for Budget Policies and Priorities, March 10 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.cbpp.org/cms/?fa=view&id=4098.

[137] Lalith de Silva, Imesh Wijewardena, Michelle Wood, and Bulbul Kaul. *Evaluation of the Family Self-Sufficiency Program: Prospective Study*. Washington DC: HUD PD&R, February 2011. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.huduser.org/portal/publications/FamilySelfSufficiency.pdf.

In the midst of the Great Recession, Congress allocated $7 billion to the Neighborhood Stabilization Program (NSP), which provides grants to states, communities, and other groups to purchase and rehabilitate, resell, or redevelop foreclosed or abandoned homes for low-, moderate-, and middle-income persons.

The U.S. has made major strides in serving vulnerable populations including the homeless. As noted previously, in 2010, the federal government launched *Opening Doors: The Federal Strategic Plan to Prevent and End Homelessness*, a comprehensive roadmap for joint action by the 19 agency members of the United States Interagency Council on Homelessness (USICH), along with local and state partners in the public and private sectors. Since 2010, homelessness has decreased by 10 percent nationwide and has declined across all populations.[138]

In 2009, President Obama set a goal to end veteran homelessness by the end of 2015. From 2010 to January 2014, homelessness among veterans declined by 33 percent.[139] Several new initiatives have played a role. Since 2008, the HUD-Veterans Affairs Supportive Housing program has combined HUD's rental assistance vouchers with the Department of Veterans' Affairs' case management and clinical services. Additionally, the Veterans Homelessness Prevention Demonstration was launched in 2009 as the first attempt to investigate homelessness prevention and rapid rehousing services for veterans and their families. Initial evidence indicates that the Demonstration has substantially improved outcomes for housing insecure veterans.[140]

People with disabilities are disproportionately likely to have worst-case housing needs, and often struggle to afford accessible housing.[141] Federal law requires that all new multifamily units in buildings with four or more units meet the Fair Housing Act's accessibility requirements. A number of federal programs provide funds for housing targeted at people with disabilities, such as HUD's Section 811 program. In 2009, Congress reformed Section 811 through the Melville Act, which provides stronger incentives to leverage other housing capital and develop more 811 units requires states to ensure that residents have the supportive services necessary for individuals to live in the community.

People living with HIV/AIDS also face significant housing challenges: approximately half of all people diagnosed with HIV/AIDS will be homeless or experience housing instability over the

[138] Laura Green Zeilinger. "2014 PIT Count Data Shows Progress across All Populations: Four Years after Launching Opening Doors, Data Points to Clear Success." *USICH Media Center*. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://usich.gov/media_center/featured_articles/2014-pit-count-data-shows-progress-across-all-populations-four-years-after.

[139] HUD. "HUD, VA, and USICH Announce 33% Drop in Veteran Homelessness since 2010." Last updated on August 26, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/HUD?src=/press/press_releases_media_advisories/2014/HUDNo_14-103.

[140] Mary Cunningham, Martha Burt, Jennifer Biess, and Dina Emam. *Veterans Homelessness Prevention Demonstration Evaluation Interim Report*. Washington, DC: HUD PD&R, September 2013. http://www.huduser.org/portal/publications/pdf/HUD519_VHPD_InterimReport.pdf.

[141] National Council on Disability. *The State of Housing in America in the 21st Century: A Disability Perspective*. Washington DC: NCD, January 19, 2010. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.ncd.gov/publications/2010/Jan192010.

course of their illness.[142] Enacted in 1992, the Housing Opportunities for Persons with AIDS program funds permanent supportive housing, rental assistance, and short-term assistance for low-income persons living with HIV/AIDs.

6.37 Ensuring Sustainable Access to Safe Drinking Water

Several U.S. regulations ensure sustainable access to safe drinking water. The Clean Water Act of 1972 establishes the basic structure for regulating discharges of pollutants into U.S. waters and quality standards for surface waters.[143] The Safe Drinking Water Act, originally passed by Congress in 1974 and amended in 1986 and 1996, is the main federal law protecting the quality of drinking water. It authorizes the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to set national health-based standards for drinking water to protect against both naturally occurring and manmade contaminants. EPA, states, and water systems then work together to make sure that these standards are met.

EPA's Office of Water provides guidance, specific scientific methods and data collection requirements, and performs oversight to ensure drinking water is safe. The office restores and maintains oceans, watersheds, and their aquatic ecosystems to protect human health, support economic and recreational activities, and provide healthy habitat for fish, plants, and wildlife. EPA's Office of Ground Water and Drinking Water develops and help implements national drinking water standards; oversees and assists funding of state drinking water programs and source water protection programs; helps small drinking water systems; protects underground sources of drinking water through the Underground Injection Control Program; and provides information about drinking water quality to the public. EPA also operates the Safe Drinking Water Hotline, which provides the general public, regulators, medical and water professionals, academia, and media, with information about drinking water and ground water programs authorized under the Safe Drinking Water Act.

Much of the water infrastructure in the U.S. is aging and will need to be upgraded or replaced in the near future to continue providing safe water to a growing population. The Clean Water State Revolving Fund (CWSRF) and Drinking Water State Revolving Fund (DWSRF) are EPA and state partnerships designed to finance the infrastructure needed to comply with the Clean Water Act. Through the SRFs, states maintain revolving loan funds to provide low-cost financing for a wide range of water quality infrastructure projects. Funds to establish or capitalize the SRF programs are provided through EPA grants to the states, along with state matching funds (equal to 20 percent of federal grants).[144] In recent years, the CWSRF programs have provided, on average, more than $5 billion annually to fund water quality protection projects for wastewater treatment, nonpoint source pollution control, and watershed and estuary management. Over the

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[142] HUD. *Implementing the National HIV/AIDS Strategy–A Report to the White House Office of National AIDS Policy*. Washington DC: HUD, February 2011. Accessed March 30, 2015. https://www.aids.gov/federal-resources/national-hiv-aids-strategy/nhas-operational-plan-hud.pdf.

[143] EPA. "Summary of the Clean Water Act." Last updated on March 13, 2015. Accessed on March 30, 2015. http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-clean-water-act.

[144] Partnership for Sustainable Communities. *Leveraging Partnership Programs*. Washington DC: PSC, July 2013. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.sustainablecommunities.gov/sites/sustainablecommunities.gov/files/docs/HUD-partnership-07-19-2013.pdf.

last 25 years, the CWSRFs alone have provided over $100 billion to fund more than 33,320 low-interest loans.[145]

6.38 Ensuring Access to Basic Sanitation and Drainage

As of 2013, roughly 99.5 percent[146] of all occupied housing units were equipped with complete plumbing facilities: running water, tub or shower, and flush toilets. This represents significant progress since the 1950s, when 25 percent of all occupied housing units, and 50 percent of all occupied rural housing units, had incomplete plumbing access. The numbers of households without complete plumbing facilities has been narrowing: In 2000, more than 1.7 million people in 671,000 households lacked access to basic plumbing – 13 years later, this number has dropped by 300,000 people in 100,000 households.

Although the number of Americans without access to complete plumbing is small, it is important to keep in mind that not all American households with adequate plumbing are served by the same types of sewage collection and disposal systems. As of 2013, 80 percent of Americans were connected to central public sewer systems. Almost all other homes with plumbing rely on decentralized septic tanks or cesspools, which can present public health risks.

Overwhelmingly, households that rely on decentralized sewage systems or lack access to basic plumbing are concentrated in sparsely populated, rural areas, many of which are afflicted with high levels of poverty (over a third of households without basic plumbing earn incomes below the federal poverty level). Many of these communities have populations of 10,000 or less and face challenges financing the costs of replacing or upgrading aging drinking water and wastewater infrastructure. EPA and US Department of Agriculture (USDA) oversee the two largest federal wastewater funding programs for these communities. EPA administers the Clean Water State Revolving Fund (CWSRF), which provides funding to states for constructing, replacing, or upgrading publicly owned municipal wastewater treatment plants. It is available to communities of all sizes, but since the program's inception, over $23 billion in funds have been directed to disadvantaged, underserved communities with populations less than 10,000. USDA's Rural Utilities Service (RUS) administers the Water and Waste Disposal Program, which provides funding for drinking water and wastewater projects in low-income rural communities with populations of 10,000 or less.

Other federal agencies have programs that also contribute funds for wastewater infrastructure. In HUD's CDBG program, wastewater needs compete with other public activities for funding and account for about 10 percent of all block grant funds nationally.[147] The U.S. Economic Development Administration's Public Works and Economic Development Program provides

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[145] EPA. "Clean Water State Revolving Fund." Last update don December 1, 2014. Accessed on March 30, 2015. http://water.epa.gov/grants_funding/cwsrf/cwsrf_index.cfm.

[146] Data from 2009 to 2013 American Community Survey (ACS), an ongoing survey that provides data every year, giving communities the current information they need to plan investments and services. Five-year estimates from the ACS are "period" estimates that represent data collected over a period of time. The primary advantage of using multiyear estimates is the increased statistical reliability of the data for less populated areas and small population subgroups.

[147] GAO. *Rural Water Infrastructure: Additional Coordination Can Help Avoid Potentially Duplicative Application Requirements.* Washington DC: GAO, October 2012. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.gao.gov/assets/650/649553.pdf.

grants to small and disadvantaged communities to construct public facilities, including wastewater infrastructure, to alleviate unemployment and underemployment in economically distressed areas. Additionally, some states have their own programs to provide assistance for wastewater infrastructure.

Some major funding programs to bridge disparities in plumbing and sanitation facilities are targeted specifically at tribal communities, which often are in remote, isolated locations. By some estimates, roughly 12 percent of Native American communities lack access to safe water or sanitation facilities.[148] In response, the U.S. convened a multi-agency Infrastructure Task Force (ITF), which has, since 2009, provided over $900 million to support wastewater and solid waste infrastructure planning and construction in tribal lands .[149] Between 2009 and 2012, ITF efforts helped 28,015 tribal homes receive access to basic sanitation and 43,006 tribal homes receive access to safe drinking water.[150] In 2013, the task force signed a new commitment to continue working together to reduce by 50 percent the number of tribal homes without access to safe water and basic sanitation by 2015. EPA also provides grants to rural Alaska communities for the construction of drinking water and wastewater treatment services, through the Alaska Native Village and Rural Communities Sanitation Grant Program. In 2014, eight projects received $10 million in grants.

6.39 Improving Access to Clean Domestic Energy
President Obama's All-of-the-Above energy strategy has been focused on achieving energy independence. In 2013, the U.S. made progress towards this goal by producing more oil domestically than it imported from foreign sources for the first time in two decades. That year, total energy production was enough to meet 84 percent of domestic demand. Natural gas was the largest domestically produced energy resource (for the third year in a row).

Natural gas production has played a major role in U.S. energy independence, and the U.S. is now the world's largest natural gas producer. However, natural gas production, which includes the use of hydraulic fracturing ("fracking") of shale rocks to release natural gas, has not been without controversy. Several studies have linked the oil and gas extraction process to air and water contamination and other public health and safety hazards.[151] In 2014, New York became

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[148] EPA. "Tribal Infrastructure Task Force Accomplishments and Current Activities." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/tribalportal/trprograms/accomplishments-and-current-activities.pdf.
[149]http://www.usda.gov/wps/portal/usda/usdamediafb?contentid=2013/04/0066.xml&printable=true&contentidonly=true
[150] USDA. "USDA and Federal Partners Renew Commitment to Improve Access to Safe Drinking Water and Basic Sanitation in Indian Country." Last updated April 9, 2013. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.epa.gov/tribalportal/trprograms/accomplishments-and-current-activities.pdf.
[151] M. Finkel and A. Law. "The Rush to Drill for Natural Gas: A Public Health Cautionary Tale." *American Journal of Public Health*, May 2011, 101(5), 784-785. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.fraw.org.uk/files/extreme/finkel_law_2011.pdf.
D.C. Holzman. "Methane Found in Well Water Near Fracking Sites." *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 2011, 119(7), a289. Accessed March 30, 2015. doi:10.1289/ehp.119-a289.
R. Howarth, A. Ingraffea, and T. Engelder "Natural gas: Should fracking stop?" *Nature* 477(2011), 271–275. Accessed March 30, 2015. doi:10.1038/477271a.
C. Mooney. "The Truth about Fracking." *Scientific American* 305(2011), 80–85. Accessed March 30, 2015. doi:10.1038/scientificamerican1111-80.

the second state in the nation to ban fracking[152]; localities in Texas, California, Ohio, and other states have taken similar steps.[153] Many argue that while the U.S. has made progress on becoming more energy independent, it has not made progress on making its energy system less carbon-intensive.

U.S. support for alternative energy production and installation has been comparatively more passive than in European countries that provide significant direct subsidies. At the state level, renewable electricity standards require or encourage electricity producers in specific jurisdictions to supply a certain minimum share of their own electricity from designated renewable resources. There are no such standards at the federal level, though there are specific federal policies in place to incentivize alternative energy use. The 30 percent solar investment tax credit for commercial and residential properties, for example, has been an important policy mechanism to drive solar installations. By some measures, the solar tax credit has allowed solar industries in the U.S. to grow by 3,000 percent since 2006, when the credit was implemented.[154] Another incentive, the Production Tax Credit (PTC) provides financial support for renewable energy technologies. It has been a major driver of wind power development, but has never been enacted on a long-term basis. In his FY2016 budget, President Obama has proposed to make the PTC permanent.

While most households have access to clean electricity, many low-income Americans face challenges paying for electricity. In 2013, 14.5 percent[155] of Americans lived below the poverty line, spending a significant portion of income on household energy consumption. In some cases, families must make decisions about whether to heat their homes or purchase food.[156] The Low-Income Home Energy Assistance Program (LIHEAP), administered by the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), is the major resource to help low-income households meet their home energy needs. LIHEAP, a block grant program, provides funds for energy bills, assists with energy crises, and helps families with weatherization and energy-related minor home repairs. To be eligible, an individual's income must not be more than 150 percent of the federal poverty level.[157] As of 2015, HHS awarded $300 million in LIHEAP funds to states, tribes, and territories.[158]

S. G. Osborn, A. Vengosh, N. Warner, and R. Jackson. "Methane contamination of drinking water accompanying gas-well drilling and hydraulic fracturing." *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, April 2011, 108(20), 8172–8176. Accessed March 30, 2015. doi:10.1073/pnas.1100682108.

[152] New York State Department of Health. "New York State Department of Health Completes Review of High-volume Hydraulic Fracturing." Last updated December 17, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.health.ny.gov/press/releases/2014/2014-12-17_fracking_report.htm.

[153] Food & Water Watch. "Local Actions Against Fracking." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.foodandwaterwatch.org/water/fracking/anti-fracking-map/local-action-documents/.

[154] Mark Del Franco. "Is the Answer to the ITC Sunset Blowing in the Wind?" *Solar Industry Mag*, January 21, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://solarindustrymag.com/e107_plugins/content/content.php?content.13714.

[155] Census Bureau. "Poverty–2013 Highlights." Last updated September 26, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. https://www.census.gov/hhes/www/poverty/about/overview/.

[156] Diana Hernandez and Stephen Bird. "Energy Burden and the Need for Integrated Low-Income Housing and Energy Policy." *Poverty & Public Policy*, November 2010, 2(4), 5–25. Accessed March 30, 2015. doi: 10.2202/1944-2858.1095.

[157] HHS. "LIHEAP Fact Sheet." Last updated September 17, 2014. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/ocs/resource/fact-sheet-0.

[158] HHS. "Low Income Home Energy Assistance Program (LIHEAP) Home." Accessed March 30, 2015. http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/ocs/programs/liheap

HUD offers a variety of programs to support energy-saving improvements in single- and multifamily homes. For example, many borrowers use 203(k) rehabilitation loans insured by the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) to fund home energy enhancements. HUD is also working with the Department of Energy to integrate Home Energy Scores into FHA programs: these scores are equivalent to miles-per-gallon ratings for cars. FHA borrowers who want to buy Energy Efficient Homes (or homes with high Home Energy Scores) will qualify for borrowing enhancements. FHA's Power Saver Pilot, launched in 2011 and set to expire in May 2015, offers borrowers low-cost loans for such energy-saving improvements as energy-efficient doors and windows, water heaters, and solar panels.

Many municipalities across the country have begun using Property Assessed Clean Energy (PACE) loans as a means to finance energy-efficiency or renewable-energy installations for buildings. In areas with PACE legislation, municipal governments offer a specific bond to investors and then loan the money to consumers and businesses to put towards an energy retrofit. The loans are repaid over an assigned term via an annual assessment on the property tax bill.

6.40. Improving Access to Sustainable Means of Transport

At Habitat II, there was agreement that transportation policy should pay extra attention to the needs of all population groups, especially those whose mobility is constrained because of disability, age, poverty, or other factors. For low-income populations in particular, public transportation is often the connection between the home and the workplace.

In the United States, poverty is moving from city centers to suburban areas. In recent years, poverty has grown in suburban areas at a rate five times greater than within cities. However, jobs are moving to suburban areas as well. In the largest metropolitan areas, almost half of the jobs are scattered around over 10 miles outside the downtown; and, only 20 percent of the jobs are within three miles of downtown. This adds a unique challenge to providing access to public transportation to the people that may need it the most. The traditional radial pattern of transportation systems that served as the link between commuter towns and downtown do not adequately serve travel within the suburban areas. Additionally, the typical suburban land use pattern of separated residential and commercial areas often creates low-density developments that are even more challenging to service with public transportation.[159]

In some suburban areas, transport service providers have adapted, by providing a range of properly scaled services, such as flexible routes, smaller van services, and ridesharing.[160] They have also "reached out to work with transportation management associations, local governments, and private employers in efforts to expand mobility choices."[161] Nevertheless, servicing low-density areas with public transportation remains a challenge.

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[159] Adie Tomer, Elizabeth Kneebone, Robert Puentes, and Alan Berube. "Missed Opportunity: Transit and Jobs in Metropolitan America. *Brookings*, May 2011. Accessed March 30, 2015. www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/reports/2011/5/12%20jobs%20and%20transit/0512_jobs_transit.pdf.
[160] Transportation Research Board. *Guidelines for Enhancing Suburban Mobility Using Public Transportation.* Washington DC: National Academy Press, 1999. Accessed March 30, 2015. http://onlinepubs.trb.org/onlinepubs/tcrp/tcrp_rpt_55-a.pdf.
[161] Ibid.

Many policymakers are addressing this issue with a variety of strategies. Transportation investments, urban reinvestment, housing mobility programs have all been undertaken to increase physical access to jobs. Additionally, communities are rethinking urban development patterns, and favoring place-based affordable housing, transit-oriented development, and livability principles.[162]

The federal government has taken steps to encourage local communities to increase transportation access for all. The Federal Transit Administration's Job Access and Reverse Commute Program evaluates projects on metrics that include access to employment. [163] DOT's Transportation Investment Generating Economic Recovery (TIGER) discretionary grant program incorporates factors for safety, economic competitiveness, state of good repair, livability and environmental sustainability. Other initiatives, including the Partnership for Sustainable Communities, have established principles to improve transportation options and increase access.

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[162] Tomer, Kneebone, Puentes, and Berube. 2011.
[163] Ibid.

CHAPTER 7: INDICATORS

7.1 Percent of population living in census-defined "poverty areas"	• **1990:** 21% • **2000:** 18.1% • **2010:** 25.7% The U.S. Census Bureau defines "poverty areas" as any census tract with a poverty rate of 20% or more. Poverty areas have high concentrations of poor persons, but that doesn't mean that everyone living in them is poor.
7.2 Percentage of people with access to adequate housing[164]	• **1997:** 93% in adequate housing; 7% in inadequate housing • **2005:** 94.3% in adequate housing; 5.7% in inadequate housing • **2007:** 94.8% in adequate housing; 5.2% in inadequate housing • **2011:** 94.5% in adequate housing; 5.5% in inadequate housing
7.3 Percentage of people in urban areas with access to safe drinking water[165]	• **1997:** safe to drink water in 99% of all occupied housing units in center cities; not safe in 1% of all

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[164] American Housing Survey (AHS) – adequate housing is housing without moderate or severe housing problems. AHS is conducted in odd years only; latest available is 2011. See: Census Bureau. *American Housing Survey for the United States: 2011*. Washington DC: Government Printing Office, 2013. Accessed March 30, 2015. https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/programs-surveys/ahs/data/2011/h150-11.pdf.

Units have **moderate physical problems** if they have any of the following four problems, but none being severe:
Plumbing. On at least 3 occasions during the last 3 months, all the flush toilets were broken down at the same time for 6 hours or more.
Heating. Lacking a kitchen sink, refrigerator, or cooking equipment (stove, burners, or microwave oven) inside the structure for the exclusive use of the unit.
Upkeep. Having any 3 or 4 of the 6 problems listed under the severe physical problems section under Upkeep.

A unit has **severe physical problems** if it has any of the following 4 problems.
Plumbing. Lacking hot or cold piped water or a flush toilet, or lacking both bathtub and shower, all inside the structure (and for the exclusive use of the unit, unless there are two or more full bathrooms.)
Heating. Having been uncomfortably cold last winter for 24 hours or more because the heating equipment broke down, and it broke down at least 3 times last winter for at least 6 hours each time.
Electricity. Having no electricity, or all of the following 3 electric problems: exposed wiring, a room with no working wall outlet, and three blown fuses or tripped circuit breakers in the last 90 days.
Upkeep. Having any 5 of the following 6 maintenance problems: (1) water leaks from the outside, such as from the roof, basement, windows, or doors; (2) leaks from inside structure, such as pipes or plumbing fixtures; (3) holes in the floors; (4) holes or open cracks in the walls or ceilings; (5) more than 8 by 11 inches of peeling paint or broken plaster; or (6) signs of rats in the last 90 days.
[165] AHS – data on "safety of primary source of water" with "central city" subgroup. Water is considered safe (consumable or potable) if the main water source was used or could be used for drinking. The respondent was not asked what source was used by the household for drinking, but whether or not the main water source was safe for

	occupied housing units in center cities
	• **2005:** safe to drink water in 99% of all occupied housing units in center cities; not safe in 1% of all occupied housing units in center cities
	• **2007:** safe to drink water in 99% of all occupied housing units in center cities; not safe in 1% of all occupied housing units in center cities
	• **2011:** safe to drink water in 99% of all occupied housing units in center cities; not safe in 1% of all occupied housing units in center cities
7.4 Percentage of people in urban areas with access to adequate sanitation	• **1997:** 98% occupied units in center cities have all plumbing facilities; 2% lacking some or all plumbing facilities • **2005:** 98% occupied units in center cities have all plumbing facilities; 2% lacking some or all plumbing facilities • **2007:** 98% occupied units in center cities have all plumbing facilities; 2% lacking some or all plumbing facilities • **2011:** 98% occupied units in center cities have all plumbing facilities; 2% lacking some or all plumbing facilities
7.5 Percentage of people in urban areas with access to regular waste collection	• **1996:** 100% • **2006:** 100% • **2013:** 100% *Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency*
7.6 Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to clean domestic energy	• *No data available.*
7.7 Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to public transit	• **1997:** 84% • **2005:** 81% • **2007:** 82% *Source: American Housing Survey*
7.8.1 Percentage of policies and legislation on urban issues on whose formulation local and regional governments participated from 1996 to present	*No data on percentage of policies/legislation with local/regional participation.*
7.8.2 Percentage share of both income and expenditure allocated to local and regional governments from the national budget	• **1995:** $224.991 billion; equivalent to 31.5% of state and local government expenditures from own sources; 14.8% of federal outlays; 3.1% of GDP. • **1997:** $234.16 billion; equivalent to 30.2% of state

cooking and drinking. This item excludes units where the primary source of household water was commercial bottled water.

	and local government expenditures from own sources; 14.6% of federal outlays; 2.9% of GDP. • **2006:** $434.099 billion; equivalent to 29.7% of state and local government expenditures from own sources; 16.3% of federal outlays; 3.3% of GDP. • **2011:** $625.211 billion; equivalent to 16.4% of federal outlays and 4.1% of GDP. *Source: Census Statistical Abstract of the United States, 2012 – Table 431. Federal Grants-in-Aid to State and Local Governments: 1990 to 2011.*
7.8.3 Percentage share of local authorities' expenditure financed from local revenue	• **1996:** 84% • **2006:** 83% • **2011:** 81% • **2012:** 81% *Source: U.S. Census State and Local Government Finance Data*
7.9 Percentage of city, regional, and national authorities that have implemented urban policies supportive of local economic development and creation of decent jobs and livelihoods	• **1996:** 100% • **2006:** 100% • **2013:** 100%
7.10 Percentage of city and regional authorities that have adopted or implemented urban safety and security policies or strategies	• **2003:** 47% of all local departments had a mission statement that included a community policing component, 88% of local departments serving 1 million or more people had a mission statement that included a community policing component; 14% of all local departments have a formal, written community policing plan • **2007:** 53% of all local departments have an agency mission statement that included a community policing component, 100% of local departments serving 1 million or more people had a mission statement that included a community policing component; 16% of all local departments have a formal, written community policing plan, 69% of departments serving 1 million or more people have a formal written community policing plan
7.11 Percentage of city and regional authorities that have implemented plans and designs for sustainable and resilient cities that are inclusive and respond to urban population growth	• **2014:** 36% of cities have already developed comprehensive energy plans; 79% plan to develop plans by 2016 *Source: US Conference of Mayors*

adequately	
7.12 Share of national GDP produced in urban areas	• **2001** – BEA: Metropolitan areas produced 90.6% of the nation's GDP. • **2009:** Metropolitan areas produced 90% of the nation's GDP. • **2013:** Metropolitan areas produced 90.3% of the nation's GDP in 2013.
7.13 Other Urban-Related Data Relevant to National Report	
7.13.1 Alternative and nuclear energy as percent of total energy use	• **2006:** 10.9% • **2012:** 12.1% *Source: International Energy Agency (IEA Statistics © OECD/IEA, http://www.iea.org/stats/index.asp)*
7.13.2 Percentage of central cities' residents who own/rent	• **1997:** 51% renters; 49% owners • **2005:** 46% renters; 54% owners • **2007:** 47% renters; 53% owners • **2011:** 49% renter; 51% owner *Source: American Housing Survey (AHS)*
7.13.3 Means of sewage disposal in central cities[166]	• **1997:** 98% in central cities with access to public sewer; 2% with access to septic tank, cesspool, or chemical toilet • **2005:** 98% in central cities with access to public sewer; 2% with access to septic tank, cesspool, or chemical toilet • **2007:** 98% in central cities with access to public sewer; 2% with access to septic tank, cesspool, or chemical toilet • **2011:** 98% in central cities with access to public sewer; 2% with access to septic tank, cesspool, or chemical toilet
7.13.4 Percent of residents in central cities living in poverty	• **1996:** 19.6% • **2000:** 19.9% • **2013:** 19.2%

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[166] AHS – options are (1) public sewer; (2) septic tank, cesspool, or chemical toilet; (3) other; percent of total occupied housing units in central cities with access to (1), (2), or (3) over total occupied housing units.

CONCLUSION

As demonstrated throughout this report, the United States places a high priority on the development of more sustainable and inclusive communities because they contribute directly to strengthening the economy, creating good jobs and providing a foundation for lasting prosperity, using energy more efficiently to further energy independence, and protecting the natural environment and human health.

As efforts across the U.S. demonstrate, coordination of place-based policies and removing silos around other services and supports can enhance transportation choices, improve air and water quality, reduce inefficiency and waste, maintain reliable water and energy supply, advance public health and awareness, enhance disaster preparedness and response, increase climate resilience, use public resources more efficiently, help mobilize private investment, and strengthen local decision-making.

As part of the U.S. government's cooperative efforts on sustainable development, the United States has developed domestic cross-agency partnerships to integrate environment and infrastructure funding and to expand global cooperation. Through these efforts, the United States affirms that the components necessary to ensure the urban future include public-private partnerships, cross-agency and international collaboration, and improved networks across sectors that can help cities mobilize financial and other support for sustainable urban development. The United States is committed to expanding these partnerships bilaterally and multilaterally, to demonstrate the benefits of a sustainable economic pathway for rapidly urbanizing communities.