

DC Family Policy Seminar

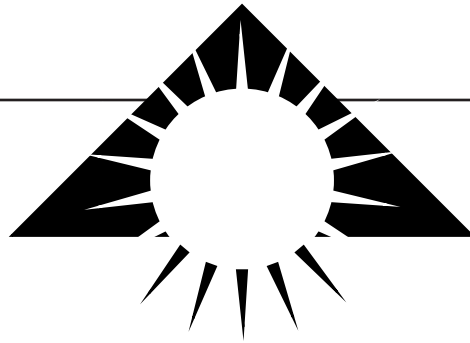
“Caring for Our Children: Meeting the Child Care Needs of Low-Income, Working Families in the District”



BACKGROUND BRIEFING REPORT

The DC Family Policy Seminar aims to provide accurate, relevant, non-partisan, timely information and policy options concerning issues affecting children and families to District policymakers.

The DC Family Policy Seminar is part of the National Network of State Family Policy Seminars, a project of the Family Impact Seminar, American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy Research and Education Foundation.



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**“Caring for Our Children:
Meeting the Child Care Needs
of Low-Income, Working Families
in the District”**

BACKGROUND BRIEFING REPORT

By

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September 26, 1995

This report provides a brief introduction to the issues addressed by the DC Family Policy Seminar on September 26, 1995. The author thanks the numerous individuals in the District of Columbia government and in local and national organizations for contributing their time and efforts to this seminar. Special thanks are given to Valerie Gwinner, Tobi Printz, Helena Wallin, and the staff of the National Center for Education in Maternal and Child Health for their invaluable assistance in hosting this seminar.

Caring for Our Children: Meeting the Child Care Needs of Low-Income, Working Families in the District

This seminar is the eighth in a series designed to bring a family focus to policymaking. The panel features the following speakers:

Sandra Clark: Research Associate, The Urban Institute.

Deborah Hall: Director of Big Mama's Children's Center and Chairperson of the Washington, DC, Association for the Education of Young Children.

Wade Horn: President of the National Fatherhood Initiative and former Commissioner, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Barbara Kamara: Executive Director of the Office of Early Childhood Development, D.C. Department of Human Services.

This seminar focuses on child care for low-income, working families in the District. This background report summarizes the essentials on several topics. It provides an introduction to the demographics of low-income, working families and addresses issues such as the current federal child care programs and current political environment, child development, availability, affordability, quality, family-friendly work policies, and the impending changes in the federal child care system.

“Caring for Our Children: Meeting the Needs of Low-Income, Working Families in the District”

I. Introduction

In March 1995, the District of Columbia cut child care subsidies for 1,600 children of low-income families. At the time, critics contended that some parents would have to quit their jobs because they could not afford child care. Others feared that children would be placed in poor-quality child care or left at home alone. In all, the District eliminated \$4.5 million that had gone to help families obtain child care. As part of the program, eligible parents had been receiving \$95 a week for each child (Brown, 1995). Within two weeks of the cut, the District appropriated money to save some of the child care slots until the end of the fiscal year. The future of child care subsidies for low-income working families is bleak, however, because of the District government's own budget problems and the impending cuts and reorganization of federal child care funding streams.

The case for providing accessible, affordable, quality child care to low-income families is compelling: It can enable parents to work, it can benefit children through educational enrichment, and it has the potential to reduce immediate and generational welfare dependency. Families on the borderline of poverty and welfare dependency arguably have the most difficult time coordinating work and child care schedules. According to Phillips (1995): “The working poor are also the

least likely of all income groups to receive assistance with their child care costs.” Low-income families who are “doing the right thing” by working struggle with their parental responsibility to care for their children with limited fiscal capability. Although community-based institutions, including private firms, can provide some welcome relief, government intervention is also essential (Gormley, 1995).

Child care has become the subject of national debate as legislators at all levels of government wrestle with child care legislation, most recently in the context of welfare reform. The federal government must decide how much money to allocate, toward what ends, and with what restrictions. State governments and the District of Columbia must decide how much of their own funds to invest and who shall receive priority in competing for scarce child care dollars. State governments and the District of Columbia must also decide how much emphasis to place on quality, as they assess their regulatory framework and their reimbursement policies. As Zinsser (1991) states: “With child care increasingly accepted as a necessary underpinning of our national economy, what was once viewed as largely the responsibility of families is now studied as a field in need of public policy.”

Who Are the Low-Income, Working Families?

Generally speaking, low-income, working families are families who make less than \$15,000 a year. This figure can vary depending upon family size and geographic location. For the purpose of this background briefing report, we are focusing on low-income families that are currently working, as opposed to families that are currently receiving assistance through Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Some of these families have recently been able to survive financially without AFDC assistance, while others are in danger of sliding into welfare dependency. Thus, AFDC is an

ever-present concern for low-income working families.

Providing adequate child care for low-income families is a serious challenge in the District. The median income of families with children in 1992 was \$24,300, compared to the national average of \$35,100. In other words, half of the families in the District have an annual income of less than \$24,300 (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1995). The average annual income of households headed by single mothers in the District is only \$20,900 (Outtz, 1995). In 1992, 21.7 percent of children in the District of Columbia were in extreme poverty (income below 50 percent of the federal poverty level), compared to 8.9 percent nationally; 47.1 percent of D.C. children lived in poor or near-poor families (income below 150 percent of the federal poverty level), compared to 31.5 percent nationally (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1995). In the District overall, 28,610 children under the age of 18—one in four children—are living below the federal poverty level (Outtz, 1995). The poverty rate for younger children and for nonwhite children is even higher. African American children make up 80 percent of the child population and represent 92 percent of D.C. children living in poverty (Outtz, 1995). In addition, child poverty varies extensively by ward. Wards 2, 7, and 8 have poverty rates among children of 31 percent, 32 percent, and 39 percent, respectively (Outtz, 1995). The prevalence of poor and low-income families in the District underscores the importance of quality child care for these families and the challenges of administering the federal child care programs and preparing for the likely changes in the federal system. Studies have shown that poor children benefit more from quality child care than children from other income brackets (Clarke-Stewart, 1982).

What Are the Stresses on Low-Income Working Families?

“American workers’ choices of employment—their choice of shift jobs, part-time work, or not working at all—are influenced by family duties: by

the need to care for both elderly relatives and children” (Ferber and O’Farrell, 1991). Many parents of poor children experience extreme work/family stress. “In single-parent, female-headed families, poverty rates are 46 percent for white children, 68 percent for black children, and 70 percent for Hispanic children” (1991). After food, housing, and taxes, child care is the next biggest expenditure for working parents at all income levels (Committee for Economic Development, 1993).

One study found that employees with children are under more stress and believe they are not coping as well as coworkers without children (Galinsky et al., 1993). It is likely that low-income parents feel more stress about their children’s care because they often work long, irregular hours that make traditional and consistent child care arrangements difficult.

Finding quality child care was the most frequently cited problem with child care (62 percent of parents), according to Galinsky (1993). Child care for children is often arranged informally. Children are often cared for by an unpaid family member. Some of the paid care is unlicensed (Ferber and O’Farrell, 1991). Many parents put together a series of different arrangements for different children for different days of the week (Galinsky, 1993). Close to 26 percent of employed parents with children under the age of 13 experienced a breakdown in their usual child care arrangements in the preceding three months (Galinsky, 1993). Galinsky (1988) found that “in assessing all of the potential predictors of psychological adjustment at home or on the job, we have found that the breakdown of child care arrangements ranks as one of the most significant.” Galinsky (1988) also found that child care breakdown can affect both marital relationships and satisfaction as a parent. This issue can also undermine carefully crafted workfare programs (Meyers, 1993).

What Is the Impact of Changing Family Structures?

More single-parent families and more women in the work force are creating a larger demand for child care. Although a majority of American children live in two-parent families, half of all children will live in a single-parent household during at least some part of their childhood. Between 1970 and 1989, the number of children living with only one parent increased from 12 percent to 25 percent.

Single parents face particular problems in securing appropriate child care arrangements. In effect, it is a vicious cycle: Single-parent families tend to have low incomes and a higher proportion of children living in poverty. They also have greater difficulty finding or paying for quality child care that would enable them to go to work or to work more productively (Ferber and O’Farrell, 1991).

According to a report by the U.S. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR), “there is a connection between single parenthood and the demand for child care (1994). Although single mothers are not more likely to work than other mothers, they do work longer hours, and they are more reliant on child care outside the home” (Ferber and O’Farrell, 1991).

Today, 54.5 percent of mothers of children under three years of age are in the labor force, compared to 34 percent in 1975. Mothers now typically only take off 12 weeks from work after giving birth (Galinsky, “Families at Work,” 1994). Two-thirds of women with preschool children and three-quarters of women with school-age children are employed outside the home (ACIR, 1994). Some of the factors driving this trend include “the decline of the traditional family; deteriorating economic conditions; and new attitudes toward work, children, and men’s and women’s roles in society” (ACIR, 1994).

In the District, 62 percent of women of all ages were in the work force in 1992 (Spalter-Roth et al., 1995), and fewer than 40 percent of all children under the age of 6 have a nonworking parent living at home (Outtz, 1995). In addition, 36 percent of children are living in households with no adult male present, compared to the national average of 15.8 percent (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1995). Moreover, 67.3 percent of children live in neighborhoods where more than half of all families with children have a female head of household, compared to 7.2 percent nationally (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1995).

II. Federal Child Care Programs That Help Low-Income, Working Families

Before 1988, no federal funding specifically targeted the provision of child care subsidies to promote economic self-sufficiency for low-income families (General Accounting Office, 1994). In recent years, as the number of working mothers with young children has increased, Congress has recognized the importance of child care to family self-sufficiency.

In 1988, Congress passed the Family Support Act (FSA), which included two child care programs. The first provides child care for recipients of AFDC, including those participating in the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills (JOBS) training program. It is an uncapped entitlement with a match required by states. The program lowers the actual cost of care for AFDC families who are working or attending state-approved education or training programs. In fiscal year 1993, the federal government spent \$470 million for AFDC child care (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1995). The second program is called Transitional Child Care (TCC), which has the same funding mechanisms, state matching rates, and payment rates as the AFDC program. However, this program is for working families whose AFDC eligibility has ceased because their income from employment has sufficiently increased. TCC provides transitional child

care for eligible families for up to 12 months. Under this program, families are required to contribute to the cost of care. In fiscal year 1993, the federal government spent \$113 million for TCC child care.

In 1990, the federal government recognized that low-income, working families are at risk for becoming dependent on welfare because of their inability to work and afford child care (Hofferth, 1992). At-Risk Child Care and the Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG) were authorized by the Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1990 to support low-income, working families. The At-Risk funding program provides financial assistance for child care for low-income, working families but allows states to define what is considered "at-risk" and what is considered "low-income." An individual state's share of total funds is equal to the ratio of the state's children under age 13 to the number of the nation's children under age 13. In fiscal year 1993, the federal government spent \$270 million on child care under the At-Risk program. The CCDBG was designed to provide direct support to low-income, working families that need child care in order to work or to participate in education and training, and to improve the availability and quality of child care for all families (General Accounting Office, 1994). States receive their share based on formulas in statutes and regulations. Payments to families must be sufficient to ensure equal access for eligible children, provided their families are not already receiving subsidized care. The Congress set eligibility for CCDBG at 75 percent of a state's median income, but states may set lower ceilings (Sternowski, 1995). In fiscal year 1993, the federal government spent \$891 million on CCDBG child care.

Despite the proliferation of child care programs (a number of smaller federal programs also contribute child care assistance in addition to the programs described above), most states and the District of Columbia have failed to serve all low-income families who are legally eligible for assis-

tance (Phillips, 1995). In addition, the programs are poorly integrated (ACIR, 1994). Even though all four programs were designed to reduce the cost of child care for low-income families, they have different objectives, target populations, and program requirements. Consequently, “integrating these new federal programs into existing state systems of child care in a way that both promotes and supports self-sufficiency has been a continuing challenge and area of concern for states” (General Accounting Office, 1994). A General Accounting Office study (1994) found the following:

Different federal program requirements and resource constraints has led to many gaps in delivery of services to low-income populations. GAO reported four gaps in particular:

1. Categories of clients who can be served;
2. Limits on the types of employment-related activities clients can undertake without compromising their benefits;
3. Limits on the amount of income clients can earn without losing their eligibility; and
4. Limits on the amount of time during which clients can receive child care subsidies.

This General Accounting Office study continues: “The categorical nature of programs does not recognize that disruptions in important services such as child care can cause economically marginal families to lose jobs and, if eligible, to be forced to rely on welfare.” In addition, if a state does not have funding through a block grant, At-Risk Child Care program, or other source to continue child care subsidies for the TCC program, the client must bear the entire cost of child care (1994).

Although the TCC program of the Family Support Act promises assistance to parents who leave AFDC, this essential help either fails to reach most eligible families or provides too little assistance to meet their needs. Most of those families eligible for Transitional Child Care assistance when leaving AFDC failed to receive the assistance (Children’s Defense Fund, 1992). In San Francisco,

for example, only 10 percent of those eligible actually receive funds under the TCC program or a comparable program (Clark and Long, 1995).

Different states have used their CCDBG money differently. Some states, recognizing that child care subsidies can prevent low-income families from becoming welfare dependent, have targeted a majority of the block grant funds for child care to low-income, working families. Other states, because of budget problems, have appropriated much of the CCDBG money to meet the child care needs of AFDC families who are currently entitled to child care subsidies (General Accounting Office, 1994). A survey conducted by the Children’s Defense Fund found that 15 states reported using CCDBG funds to pay for child care for some AFDC families in employment, education, or training programs (GAO, 1994). The District of Columbia uses some of its CCDBG money for AFDC families (rather than for child care for low-income, working families).

Currently, there are incentives for states to serve entitled clients first. General Accounting Office study (1994) found that:

Although child care workers believe that the provision of child care is important to prevent low-income, working families from going on welfare, these families are served, as funding permits, after states provide subsidies to entitled individuals. Clients who are entitled by law to receive child care benefits are placed in one category, and other eligible individuals are prioritized and served as resources permit.

Even with the influx of new federal dollars into child care since 1990, states are not sufficiently meeting the child care needs of low-income parents (Blank, 1993).

III. Types of Arrangements and Patterns of Use

Child care arrangements of low-income families vary greatly according to household type and parental employment status (Phillips, 1995). According to the National Research Council's Board on Children and Families:

Approximately 48 percent of low-income children under age 5 are cared for mainly by their parents; an additional 10 percent are cared for exclusively by their parents. Only 22 percent of children with two employed parents and 8 percent of children with a single employed mother are cared for solely by their parents (15 percent of children whose mothers are in education and training programs are exclusively in parental care). Of those relying on non-parental care, the distribution of preschool-age children across types of care varies greatly by household type and employment status of the mother. Care by a relative is especially prevalent for low-income preschoolers with single mothers (26 percent), employed mothers (28 percent), and mothers in education and training programs (23 percent). Children under age 5 in families headed by employed single mothers are also heavily reliant on family day care (21 percent) and center-based care (27 percent) (Phillips, 1995).

The National Child Care Survey found that parents of different socioeconomic status had different rationales for choosing their current child care arrangement. Low-income families were much more likely to claim a preference for relative care (35 percent), while high-income families were most likely to claim quality of care as their reason for choosing their current type of care (Phillips, 1995). Overall, low-income families tend to stress issues of safety and trust as the most important

characteristics in a provider—all other concerns about quality may be considered a luxury (Phillips, 1995).

Although a very high percentage (approximately 95 percent) of families of all incomes state a high level of satisfaction with their current child care arrangements, a closer examination of the data shows some important distinctions. The National Child Care Survey revealed that low-income single mothers were significantly less likely to state high levels of satisfaction than two-parent, low-income households (67 percent vs. 84 percent) (Phillips, 1995). Overall, single employed mothers were the population most likely to desire an alternative to their current child care arrangements (Phillips, 1995).

In the District, approximately 19,842 children are enrolled in licensed child care centers or licensed child care homes (Spalter-Roth et al., 1995). In 1990, 55,919 children 13 years of age and younger had parents in the labor force. Spalter-Roth and colleagues found that “only about 35 percent of children with working parents are being served. The number of available regulated slots in child care facilities for the same year was 21,396, leaving a deficit of almost 35,000 slots according to [the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments]” (1995). Some of the possible obstacles that inhibit parents from utilizing vacancies in child care facilities include lack of information, spatial mismatch, and high costs (Spalter-Roth, 1995). In addition, there is evidence that many of the vacant slots were in child care facilities in the Northwest quadrant of the city, which may be inaccessible geographically for parents in Wards 7 and 8 (the wards with the highest number and proportion of children in the District). Wards 7 and 8, incidentally, are also the city's poorest wards.

IV. Accessibility

Issues of accessibility and availability place large constraints on low-income families' child care options. According to Kisker et al. (1991),

only 23 percent of all child care centers link fees to family income. The limited number of programs that offer sliding-fee scales restricts access to low-income families. Even the availability of relatives or friends is not as prevalent as one might suspect. A study by Siegel and Loman found that 67 percent of their AFDC sample had no family or friend in or near their home who could provide child care (Phillips, 1995). Other barriers such as lack of transportation and strict city codes prevent or inhibit the development of child care facilities. The effects of zoning restrictions on family child care homes are especially worrisome (Gormley, 1990).

Adequacy of the Number of Child Care Providers

In the District of Columbia, as in many communities, the supply of child care is inadequate. All across the 8 wards, there is a lack of infant care, school-age care, and care for children with special needs. Although the Office of Early Childhood Development is coordinating many efforts to bring the supply closer to meeting the demand, a serious gap remains, placing low-income families and their children in peril. Of the child care provided in the District, there are different concentrations of options in different wards. The largest number of providers can be found in Wards 2, 5, 6, and 7. Ward 2 has more child care facilities than any other ward, even though it has the lowest percentage of children (Spalter-Roth, 1995). Ward 8, which has one-fifth of the children in the District, has barely 12 percent of the providers (Spalter-Roth, 1995). These researchers note that “more child care centers are found in the wards with higher average family incomes. This locational pattern suggests that child care centers best meet the needs of families who can afford to pay. Some of these children’s needs may be met by subsidized facilities in these areas or by less expensive family day care homes.”

Structure of Low-Income Work

The structure of most low-income work does not fit the hours and organization of typical child care options. The National Child Care Survey indicates that one-third of working-poor mothers and one-fourth of working-class mothers work weekends (Phillips, 1995). Only 10 percent of centers and 6 percent of family child care homes provide care on weekends (Phillips, 1995). Almost half of low-income parents work rotating schedules amenable only to finding multiple providers to patch together needed child care. In addition, many low-income families are plagued by irregular work schedules, making formal child care arrangements virtually impossible. In the District, while most families leave for work between 6 a.m. and 9 a.m., a substantial number leave for work at other times. According to a study conducted by Hamilton Outtz Consultants for the District of Columbia Head Start Grantees, more than 60,000 workers leave work before 7 a.m. and over 20,000 leave between midnight and 6 a.m.. Another 32,000 workers leave for work after noon (Outtz, 1995). A report by Spalter-Roth et al. (1995) indicates that most centers in the District operate on workday schedules (from 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.) rather than all-day or evening schedules. Only 38.1 percent of all centers in the District operate all day from 6:00 a.m. until 8:00 p.m. Thus, there is a shortage of centers to meet the needs of parents working nontraditional hours.

Hofferth et al. (1982) looked at whether at-risk children have equal access to early childhood programs. The answer was a qualified “no,” although equal access was much less likely if a child came from a low-income household.

Irrespective of family income, child care has become a necessity for the majority of American families. Yet specific gaps in current programs and arrangements mean that many children and families lack access to services. Families with

infants and toddlers, those with children with disabilities, those with mildly or chronically ill children, those with school-age children, and those in which parents work nontraditional schedules often have particular difficulty arranging appropriate child care services (Hayes, 1990).

Role of Information Services for Low-Income Families.

“Information about child care services is essential if parents are to choose an appropriate arrangement. Unfortunately, parents often lack information about the availability, affordability, and quality of child care options.” (ACIR, 1994). A number of barriers inhibit the flow of information. First, resource and referral agencies do not exist in all communities; second, parents may not know that resource and referral agencies exist in their communities; and, third, many resource and referral agencies do not have accurate and useful information such as a complete listing of family child care homes (ACIR, 1994). A nine-state study of welfare recipients found that such recipients often received inadequate information and perfunctory advice (ACIR, 1994). The same problems afflict low-income working parents. In fact, it is difficult for parents of any income bracket to obtain valuable information on the relative merits of various child care facilities (Gormley, 1995).

V. Affordability

Parents in low-income families choose the child care arrangements they prefer, given their “current circumstances and limitations” (Phillips, 1995). It is likely that if low-income families were given the financial and informational means to choose child care arrangements, they would be able to choose care that best meets the needs of their child and their own work schedule. The cost of child care is one of the most prominent constraints that low-income families face.

The Cost of Child Care

On average, parents spend 10 percent of their income on child care (Ferber and O’Farrell, 1991). Poor parents devote a higher percentage of their income to child care than do the nonpoor (ACIR, 1994). Among low-income parents, an average of 22 to 25 percent of family income is spent on child care (Committee for Economic Development, 1993). In 1993, the average weekly cost of child care was \$54 for low-income families—an amount that can be as much as 24 percent of the weekly income of a very low-income family (Phillips, 1995). Care for infants is even more expensive—approximately \$65 per week, or 33 percent of income (Phillips, 1995). In the District, Spalter-Roth et al. found that the average weekly cost for center-based care was \$104 for infants, \$79 for preschoolers. Similarly, family child care averaged \$69 for infants, \$65 for preschoolers (Spalter-Roth, 1995). The study conducted by Spalter-Roth in the District found that child care centers cited parent fees as their most important source of revenue. Only 25 percent of centers that responded to their survey reported government funds as a major source of their revenue (Spalter-Roth 1995).

Although low-income parents spend a large percentage of their income on child care, they are not necessarily purchasing quality care. “This remarkable effort does not provide enough money to purchase decent quality—25 percent of the annual earnings of a single mother working full-time at the minimum wage is roughly \$2,200, while good quality child care can easily cost \$4,000 a year or more” (Adams and Sandfort, 1992).

One solution is to give more money to low-income families. By putting more “money in the pockets of working parents, obviously there’s more money available to pay child care providers and to pay for higher-quality child care” (Kamarck quoted in Stanfield, 1993). Even AFDC recipients who are entitled to child care cite cost as a frequent barrier to obtaining child care. Although

most AFDC recipients prefer center-based care, few can afford to pay the cost even with subsidies (Phillips, 1995). Hence, many low-income families rely on family members for free care—which is not an option for all families and is not necessarily quality care or even safe care (Phillips, 1995).

Structure and Consequences of Child Care Subsidies

According to the National Child Care Survey, the working poor are least likely of all income groups to receive assistance for their child care expenditures. “Whereas 37 percent of both non-working-poor families and middle-income families receive direct or tax assistance with their child care costs, only 30 percent of the working poor receive such assistance” (Phillips, 1995). More than \$2.5 billion federal dollars supported child care assistance to the nonpoor through the Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit in 1993. Because the tax credit is not refundable, it offers limited benefits to the working poor. In the same year, only \$1.7 billion was spent on the four largest federal child care programs earmarked to serve low-income families: Aid to Families with Dependent Children, Transitional Child Care, At-Risk Child Care, and the Child Care and Development Block Grant (Phillips, 1995).

Although the federal programs aim to provide services to families ranging from the AFDC population to families just above the federal poverty level, different funding streams have been used to target different subgroups within the low-income population. The amount of public resources appropriated for these programs does not come close to meeting the needs of the large number of families technically eligible for assistance (Phillips, 1995). In Chicago, for example, only 15 percent of those eligible receive government subsidies (Clark and Long, 1995). State agencies that coordinate the federal subsidy programs consistently find quality of care and access to care by low-income families to be problematic as AFDC populations have grown, together with the states’ economic

responsibility to AFDC families. The distribution of available subsidies for low-income families across the poor and working-poor segments of this population continues to be detrimental to low-income working families, as states are required to provide child care for AFDC recipients. The District of Columbia reported in 1993 that it was using funds (previously used for child care for other families) to cover federal AFDC child care funds (Ebb, 1994). If AFDC becomes part of the block grant program and the child care programs are consolidated (as currently proposed in Congress), then each state will be responsible for devising its own rules and regulations about which segments of the poor and working poor should receive child care subsidies—if at all.

According to a survey conducted by the Children’s Defense Fund, AFDC child care is already stretched to the limit, with strains apparent in services for both AFDC and non-AFDC low-income families. States are either renegeing on the child care guarantee contained in the Family Support Act or spending the resources of the non-AFDC working poor (Ebb, 1994). Ebb states that “funding limitations and policy choices also hurt AFDC children by tilting AFDC child care programs toward low-cost child care options that tend to be of poorer quality.” Ebb suggests that “successful welfare reform must be supported by additional investments in child care for both AFDC and low-income working families, the child care guarantee should be strengthened, and the quality of child care provided for our neediest children must be improved.”

VI. Quality

The prevalence of high-quality child care in the United States is very low. According to the cost, quality and outcomes study conducted by Helburn (1995), approximately one-eighth of all child care centers are good, approximately one-eighth are poor, and the rest are mediocre. Galinsky et al. (1994) found that only 9 percent of

family child care homes are good and 35 percent are inadequate. The quality of child care can affect numerous aspects of child development, such as school readiness. Phillips (1995) states that “low-income families face a range of child care options that vary from the unsafe and unstable to those that offer not only safe but also developmentally beneficial care and learning opportunities.” Nonetheless, child care that falls just above the inadequate level can be considered “not ‘good enough’ for low-income children who are experiencing the stresses and disadvantages associated with living in poverty” (Phillips, 1995). The District should determine whether its efforts are best served by trying to minimize poor-quality care through regulatory reform, financial incentives, or some other technique.

Although quality child care costs money, studies examining equity of access to quality care by low-income families found that low-income children are able to experience the best and worst of care depending on their access to extensive federal intervention programs and certain center-based programs (Phillips, 1995). According to Spalter-Roth (1995), low-income families, overall, get higher quality care in centers than in family child care homes—especially when child care centers are subsidized and monitored by the government.

But what is the impact of quality care on low-income families? Results from the cost, quality, and child outcomes study suggest that poor-quality care may have a stronger negative impact on low-income children than on other children (Helburn, 1995). The study also found that quality, structure, and appropriate adult supervision may matter more for low-income children than for their higher-income peers. The implications of these findings may help determine whether resources should be allocated to ensure low-income families access to the current supply of child care providers or to upgrade the quality of child care that low-income families presently use (Phillips, 1995).

Numerous studies confirm that the best predictors of quality include staff training, staff education, low child-staff ratios, and low staff turnover (ACIR, 1994; Helburn, 1995). Some of these quality dimensions are expensive; others are less so. Providing low child-staff ratios, for example, require more funds than providing a well-educated, well-trained staff (Gormley, 1995). With these factors in mind, the District might focus its attention on those quality components that are financially attainable.

When parents were asked what they look for in child care, a majority cited price and convenience; teacher training and group size were not significantly associated with parental child care decisions (Hofferth and Chaplin, 1994). This finding suggests that parents may not be knowledgeable about the determinants of a quality child care program and may unknowingly place their children in poor-quality care. As Spalter-Roth (1995) explains: “Inadequate consumer knowledge creates market imperfections and reduces the incentives for some providers to offer quality care.” Without knowledge of what constitutes good quality child care, parents will neither recognize nor demand such quality for their own children.

VII. Family-Friendly Work Policies

Much of the discussion thus far has focused on the federal government’s role in providing financial assistance for child care for low-income families. Employers also can play a role in creating a family-friendly work environment and in offering substantial child care assistance for low-income, working families. Studies show that if parents are satisfied with child care arrangements, productivity in the work place improves (ACIR, 1994). Hence, employers have an incentive to provide child care assistance to their employees.

A small number of companies offer on-site child care centers. Only 13 percent of FORTUNE 1000 companies have child care centers near their

workplace (Galinsky, 1990). “One percent of companies with fewer than 50 employees offer this service, 2 percent of companies with 50–250 employees, and 4 percent of companies with 251–1,000 employees sponsor child care centers at or near work” (Galinsky, 1991). Fifty-five percent of FORTUNE 1000 companies offer resource and referral services, but 64 percent do not offer such services to all locales (Galinsky, 1991).

Some companies have Dependent Care Assistance Plans (DCAPs), which allow employees to deposit up to \$5,000 of pretax annual salaries into flexible spending accounts from which they can be reimbursed for child care and health care expenses. Fifty percent of FORTUNE 1000 companies have DCAPs (Galinsky, 1991).

Some corporations provide vouchers to help pay child care costs of employees. As Galinsky (1991) explains, “Usually these are limited to low-income employees (under \$30,000 family income, for example) and to a limited amount of a subsidy. The Corporate Reference Guide Study found that vouchers are rare in FORTUNE 1000 companies: Only 1 percent of employers provide them.” Galinsky also notes that discount programs are more popular; sometimes employees, for example, get a 20 percent discount at certain centers.

Overall, Galinsky found that the higher the number of professional employees, the more likely the company is to offer child care assistance—a statistic that suggests that only low-income workers in companies with a high number of professionals may have the opportunity to obtain child care assistance from an employer. Overall, the prevalence of child care assistance is increasing, but “not all employees have access to services and benefits their own companies offer and many employees work for companies that offer no formal child care assistance” (Galinsky, 1991).

Since lower income employees tend to work for the smaller, less professional firms, they often have the least access to

child care support. In other words, the employees who probably need it the most are least likely to receive it. This poses a societal dilemma that should be resolved. Any number of governmental actions are possible. For example, the federal government could institute start-up grants for companies employing low-income workers to help such companies provide child care programs. Financial aid, in the form of child care scholarships (as in high education) would also be very useful (Galinsky, 1991).

The District of Columbia government is the largest employer of Washington, DC, residents. During fiscal year 1993, five child development centers, with a capacity for 255 children, operated at District government work sites. Spaces are made available to low-income families through a sliding-fee scale (*Indices*, 1993). Some local companies have made exceptional efforts to provide child care assistance. The Marriott Corporation and Fannie Mae, for example, have been celebrated as more family-friendly than most (Moskowitz and Townsend, 1993). In general, however, most private firms in the District have paid scant attention to the child care needs of their employees, including the working poor.

VIII. Conclusion

Society has a huge stake in helping low-income parents enter and remain in the work force so that their families become self-sufficient. Studies have shown that child care can make the work force more productive, can reduce welfare dependency, and can support families (Committee for Economic Development, 1993). A study by the General Accounting Office used economic modeling to estimate the effect of reducing (through subsidies) the cost of child care on the mother's work effort. The model showed that providing a full subsidy increased the work effort of poor mothers from 29 to 44 percent and near-poor

mothers from 43 to 57 percent. The effects on nonpoor mothers was significantly smaller (Phillips, 1995). Fronstin and Wissoker (1994) found the same trend among samples of low-income families: The higher the price of child care, the lower the employment rate (Phillips, 1995). This suggests that child care is very important to help families achieve independence from welfare assistance and to keep many more from slipping into poverty.

Nonetheless, low-income families' child care options are constrained due to the structure of their low-wage jobs and accessibility and affordability problems. Without government, employer, or other financial assistance, many of these families must rely on free care by relatives or friends or resort to very inexpensive care of dubious quality and to multiple arrangements—all of which may not benefit the child, and may actually harm the child's development. Unfortunately, current federal and state investments in child care already fall short of child care needs. Ebb (1995) states: "Even before enactment of any new welfare reforms, three-fourths of the states have waiting lists for working-poor families in need of child care assistance." The inadequacy of government support and other constraints may force low-income families to pursue child care options they do not prefer, out of economic necessity.

A key question for public policymakers is whether significant inequalities in access and affordability of child care options should exist in this country. Should low-income families be given the same opportunities as higher-income families to access child care arrangements that they feel are best for their children while enabling them to work and to be productive members of society? What is the proper role of the federal government in providing low-income families with the financial means to have more options? Does the current federal child care system limit or enhance the options of low-income families? Would current legislative proposals improve or worsen child care options for low-income families? How will the

District and the states be affected if the federal government grants them greater discretion in child care expenditures? All of these important questions need answers.

When this report was written, the welfare debate was tabled until after the Congressional summer recess. The Work Opportunity Act, S.1120 (sponsored by Senator Robert Dole) includes reauthorization of the CCDBG at slightly higher levels than current spending, as requested by the Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee. However, the Dole bill would curtail federal funding for the IV-A child care programs by consolidating the various IV-A programs and by freezing funding at fiscal year 1994 levels through fiscal year 2000. Ironically, this would coincide with significantly expanded work requirements for the AFDC population. To meet these work requirements, the Department of Health and Human Services estimates that additional child care expenditures of \$4.1 billion per year will be required by fiscal year 2000 (Children's Defense Fund, 1995). Yet the Dole bill envisions reduced federal child care expenditures.

The Dole bill would also jeopardize child care spending by placing welfare-related child care funds into the same pool with other welfare-related appropriations. Thus, the states and the District of Columbia would be free to divert federal child care dollars to employment and training programs for the poor, if they so desired. In addition, the Dole bill would eliminate the requirement for state matching funds. In all probability, this would result in lower levels of state spending. As Clark and Long (1995) point out: "When federal funding for social services (including child care) was reduced in the early 1980s, states did not, in general, provide added funds for child care services. Instead, state funds were used to maintain crisis-oriented social services." Based on these precedents, the elimination of matching funds requirements could result in reduced child care expenditures by state governments and the District.

Regardless of what Congress does or does not do, the District of Columbia will have its own dilemmas to confront. What balance should be struck between the child care needs of the working poor and those of the nonworking poor and the truly destitute? Who among the eligible should receive priority? What balance should be struck between quality and affordability? Is it better to fund a larger number of slots for child care of average (or even below average) quality or a smaller number of slots for child care of high

quality? How much of its own funds should the District spend on child care for the working poor? What additional steps should the District take to promote availability, affordability, and quality? And what are the responsibilities of private firms and community-based institutions located within the District? Without good answers to these questions, the working poor face an uncertain future as they attempt to meet both family and work obligations.

DC Family Policy Seminar

Sampling of Early Education Providers and Referral Agencies for Low-Income Families

The following section presents a brief description of child care programs available within the District of Columbia for children and families. This list is based on information obtained through informal surveys with local organizations and advocates. It does not represent a comprehensive analysis of local resources. Descriptions are included for purposes of reference rather than recommendations.

Barney Neighborhood House

3118 16th Street, NW
3rd Floor, Washington, DC 20010
(202) 939-9000
Executive Director: Rob McLean

The Barney Neighborhood House provides after-school tutoring and activities for school-age children.

“Before and After School Program”

DC Public Schools
1230 Taylor Street, NW
Room 202
Washington, DC 20011
(202) 576-7132
Program Coordinator: Carver King

The Before and After School Program provides structured activities on public school grounds throughout the District for children ages 5–12 before and after school as well as during summer months.

Big Mama’s Children’s Center

4680 Martin Luther King Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20003
(202) 563-5303
Director: Deborah Hall

Big Mama’s Children’s Center provides services for children ages eight weeks through 14 years. The licensed capacity is 104 children. The curriculum is developmentally appropriate with an emphasis on Afro-centric history. The center is open Monday through Friday from 6:30 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.

Calvary Bilingual Multicultural Learning Center

1459 Columbia Road, NW
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 332-8697
Executive Director: Beatriz Otero

The Learning Center’s program is for children 2–5 years of age. Care providers speak Spanish and English.

Catholic Charities

1125 Neal Street, NE
Washington, DC 20002
(202) 396-8100
Director: Ruddy Hutchinson

St. Joseph’s Day Care Center

Taft Junior High School
18th and Perry Street, NE
Washington, DC 20018
(202) 526-0100
Director: Phyllis Toner

Catholic Charities runs two child care facilities in the District—one on Neal Street, the other at the Taft Junior High School. The center on Neal Street has been in existence since 1971. It serves children from 6 weeks through 4 years old from 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. The center at the Taft Junior High School serves children ages 2–5 years from 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. Both centers serve low-income families in the District.

The Center for Youth Services

921 Pennsylvania Avenue, SE
Washington, DC 20003
(202) 543-5707
Director: Samuel Tramel
Contact: Dayna Nokes

The Center for Youth Services is a private, non-profit corporation established to offer multiple services to disadvantaged inner city adolescents. It offers a multifaceted program that includes developmental child care, parent education, developmental screening, and child care referrals.

DC Department of Recreation and Parks

“Day Care” (202) 576-7226
“Before and After School Care” (202) 576-7132
3149 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20010
(202) 673-7660
Acting Director: Betty Jo Gaines

The D.C. Department of Recreation and Parks has three principal programs that focus on young children: (1) The Day Care Program, primarily for preschool children; (2) the Cooperative Care Program, which includes parents in the operation of care programs; and (3) the Before and After School Care (BASC) Program, which provides care, supervision, and activities for younger children of working parents before and after the school day. The neighborhood recreation centers in the system have for several years included informal before- and after-school activities, as working parents

depended more and more on the recreation centers for supervision of their children during working hours. The department also operates a number of Head Start programs in the District.

D.C. Jewish Community Center

1836 Jefferson Place, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 775-1765
Executive Director: Arna Meyer Mickelson
Youth and Family Division Director: Elona Shaffert

The D.C. Jewish Community Center offers two preschools; a “No School Today” program for children when school is closed; a winter camp held during winter break; an after-school program for children in kindergarten through sixth grade; and “The Lunch Bunch,” a group designed for working mothers who find it stressful to juggle time, make child-care decisions, meet the demands of a job, and try to maintain a relationship.

Edward C. Mazique Parent-Child Center

1719 13th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 462-3375
Chief Operating Officer: Charlene Walker

The center is a private, nonprofit, community-based organization involved in early intervention, early education, and family support. The center offers 13 programs at five sites in the District. Overall, the center serves 500 families in both center-based and home-based care.

Family and Child Services of Washington, DC

929 L Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 289-1510
Program Director: Deanna Phelps

Family and Child Services follows a family-based child care model. It works with the Department of Human Services to provide child care to low-income families. This organization also works with a network of 45 home providers to place approximately 150 infants and preschoolers in full-time child care.

Gallaudet University Child Development Center

800 Florida Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20002
(202) 651-5130

Director: Gail Solit

The center provides center-based child care services for children who are deaf and those who can hear. Half of the staff are deaf and half can hear. The center provides care from 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. for children ages 2–5 years.

Gap Community Child Care Center

3636 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20010
(202) 462-3636

Director: Ms. Monica Guyot

The center is a multicultural, educational, developmental program for children ages 6 weeks to 5 years. In addition to providing a full preschool curriculum including math, social studies, art, music, social skills, language, and reading, the center provides breakfast, lunch, and a snack for all participants.

Head Start Program in Washington, DC

United Planning Organization
810 Potomac Avenue, SE
Washington, DC 20003
(202) 546-7300

Director: William Hughey

Established in 1965, the Head Start Program provides comprehensive child development services for low-income preschool children (3–5 years). All local Head Start programs offer four

major components: Education, social services, parent involvement, and health services (including medical, dental, nutrition, and mental health services). Local programs are administered through grants from the Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. The authorizing legislation specifies that at least 10 percent of Head Start's national enrollment must consist of children with disabilities. There are 39 Head Start facilities in the District, serving 1,665 children.

Howard University Hospital Child Care Center

1911 5th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 797-8134

Interim Director: Michelle Parker

The center provides child care service primarily to Howard University and the hospital employees' children, with secondary service to the Ledroit Park area residents. It provides child care and developmental services for children six weeks to 4 years of age, and also provides child care for school-age children on holidays and weekends.

Intergenerational Child Care Program

National Child Day Care Association
1501 Benning Road, NE
Lower Level
Washington, DC 20002-4599
(202) 397-3800

Program Director: Mattie Jackson

This program was developed in 1966 to involve older adults in 21 child care centers around Washington, DC. The older adults serve as teacher aides and assist in housekeeping and clerical activities.

Kenilworth-Parkside Learning Center

1553 Anacostia Avenue, NE
Washington, DC 20019
(202) 397-1827

Center Director: Michael Gross

The center provides child care to children ages 2–4 from 7:00 a.m. until 6:00 p.m.

Northwest Settlement

448 Ridge Hill Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001

Infant Center
224 R Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 332-3680

Center Director: Maddy Edward

The settlement is open from 7:30 a.m. until 6:00 p.m. for children ages 2–5. Northwest Settlement also has an Infant Center for infants six weeks to 2 years of age. The settlement accepts vouchers from low-income parents.

“PhoneFriend”

Office of Early Childhood Development
717 14th Street, NW

Suite 730
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 727-1839

Executive Director: Barbara Ferguson Kamara

PhoneFriend is a free afternoon helpline for latchkey children, provided by the D.C. Hotline in cooperation with the D.C. Public School’s Department of Guidance and Counseling. Trained volunteers answer the phone from 3:00 to 9:00 p.m. each weekday and from 1:00 to 5:00 p.m. Saturdays. The PhoneFriend staff also make presentations to schools and community groups on school-age child care topics. The PhoneFriend number is (202) 223-2244.

Project ROAR (Reach Out and Read)

Washington, DC, Public Library
901 G Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 727-1151

Contact: Maria Salvadore or Pamela Stovall

The purpose of ROAR is to promote reading among family child care providers and parents and children they serve. A librarian visits providers’ homes and offers storytime that includes activities such as reading and acting out stories and finger-plays. The librarian leaves books for children to read and follow-up activities for providers and parents to do with children.

Rosemount Center

2000 Rosemount Avenue, NW
Washington, D.C. 20010
(202) 265-9885

Executive Director: Jane Yocum

The Rosemount Center offers a bilingual, multicultural program with center-based and/or home-based care. The center offers center-based care for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers, and offers home-based care for preschool children. The center offers parents a combined option of home-based and center-based care. It also runs a Head Start program and participates in the Department of Health and Human Service’s subsidy program. The center also provides in-house special education and therapies for infants and children with disabilities. Finally, Rosemount Center runs a training program for child care workers at the Rosemount Center and other child care providers in the community.

The Village Day Care Center

2900 14th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 234-5114

Director: Stephanie Tindal

The Village Day Care Center provides comprehensive child care service to families. They accept subsidies from low-income families. The curriculum is developmentally appropriate and taught in a multicultural setting with a bilingual staff. The center provides services for all children, (including children with special needs) 2-1/2 to 5 years of age, from 7:30 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.

Washington Child Development Council

2121 Decatur Place, NW

Washington, DC 20008

(202) 387-0002

Executive Director: Bobbi Blok

The council is the resource and referral agency for families in the District. In addition to helping families find appropriate, affordable, child care, the council also trains child care center staff and licensed home providers.

YWCA Child Development Center

624 9th Street, NW

Washington, DC 20001

(202) 626-0731

The YWCA Child Development Center provides child care programs designed to meet the needs of working parents and provides a developmental program within the framework of a full day of child care. It also has a fully licensed preschool program and provides a developmental program in half-day sessions during the school year from September through May.

National Child Care Research and Professional Organizations

Child Welfare League of America

Child Day Care Services
440 First Street, NW
Suite 310
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 638-2952
Contact: Bruce Hershfield, Program Director

The Child Welfare League of America is a national membership organization of 800 members, of whom 200 provide child care services. The Child Day Care Services program examines program practice and policy issues related to child care. In particular, the organization lobbies for federal funding, has developed a National Child Day Care Task Force, builds family child care systems, offers leadership programs, and tries to improve relations between child care and foster care services.

Children's Defense Fund

25 E Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 628-8787
Contact: Helen Blank

The Children's Defense Fund analyzes federal and state policy issues, and works with members of Congress and state legislators to develop child care policy. It conducts research in child care issues, trains child care advocates, and provides a leadership program for individuals in the early childhood field.

Children's Foundation

725 15th Street, NW
Suite 505
Washington, DC 20005-2109
(202) 347-3300
Executive Director: Kay Hollestelle

The Children's Foundation promotes quality, affordable child care and works to improve the lives of children and the people who care for them. The foundation sponsors the Family Day Care Project, which provides resource development for children and parents, as well as specialized training for caregivers and parents. It also sponsors the National Child Support Project, which helps custodial parents collect support, and provides information on a variety of enforcement problems.

Council for Early Childhood Professional Recognition

1341 G Street, NW
Suite 400
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 265-9090

The Council for Early Childhood Professional Recognition works to improve the status of early childhood educators nationwide. The council oversees the Child Development Associate (CDA) National Credentialing Program, a collaborative effort between the early childhood profession and

the Administration on Children and Families. The program promotes a variety of training experiences for early childhood staff and establishes national standards for the evaluation and credentialing of child care staff. The council's new CDA Professional Preparation Program, a nationwide network of one-year training courses, will provide uniform and accessible training for people interested in becoming CDAs.

Families and Work Institute

330 Seventh Avenue
New York, New York 10001
(212) 465-2044
Contact: Ellen Galinsky

Families and Work Institute is a nonprofit research and planning organization that conducts research on business, government, and community efforts to help employees balance their job and family responsibilities.

Gallaudet University Child Development Center

Project Access
800 Florida Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20002
(202) 651-5130
Director: Gail Solit

The Gallaudet University Child Development Center received a grant from the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services of the U.S. Department of Education to help integrate child care services for hearing and deaf children in other child care programs throughout the country.

National Academy of Early Childhood Programs

1509 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036-1426
(202) 232-8777
Executive Director: Sue Bredekamp

The National Academy of Early Childhood Programs is a component of the National

Association for the Education of Young Children. The academy administers a national, voluntary, professionally sponsored accreditation system for all types of preschools, kindergartens, child care centers, and school-age child care programs.

National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies

1319 F Street, NW
Suite 810
Washington, DC 20004
(202) 393-5501
Executive Director: Yasmina S. Vinci

The National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies (NACCRRA) promotes the development, maintenance, and expansion of quality child care resource and referral services. The association offers parents detailed information about local child care and early education programs and providers, current openings, and sources of financial aid. It also sponsors regional and national conferences, provides technical assistance, maintains a clearinghouse for child care information, and publishes the quarterly newsletter *CCR&R Issues*.

National Association for the Education of Young Children

1509 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036-1426
(202) 232-8777
Executive Director: Marilyn Smith

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) is the nation's largest membership organization of early childhood professionals and others dedicated to improving the quality of services for young children and their families.

National Association for Family Child Care

1331A Pennsylvania Avenue, NW

Suite 348

Washington, DC 20004

(800) 359-3817

President: Linda Geigle

The National Association for Family Child Care (NAFCC), formerly the National Association for Family Day Care, is an organization of family and group child care providers and advocates. The association began as a project of the Children's Foundation, and its *National Director of Family Day Care Associations and Support Groups* continues to be published through the foundation. Other publications include the bimonthly newsletter *The New National Perspective*, and the pamphlet *How to Start a Family Day Care Business*.

National Black Child Development Institute

1023 15th Street, NW

Suite 600

Washington, DC 20005

(202) 387-1281

Executive Director: Evelyn K. Moore

The National Black Child Development Institute (NBCDI), a national nonprofit organization dedicated to improving the quality of life for black children, focuses on three major policy areas: child care, child welfare, and education.

National Child Care Information Center

301 Maple Avenue West, Suite 602

Vienna, VA 22180

(800) 616-2242

Executive Director: Anne Goldstein

The National Child Care Information Center is an activity of the Child Care Technical Assistance Project funded by the Administration for Children and Families (ACF). The center disseminates child care information in response to requests from

states, territories and tribes, policymakers, parents, programs, organizations, providers, and the public. Other activities include outreach to ACF grantees and the broader child care community; publication of the *Child Care Bulletin*; analysis of child care data submitted to ACF; and distribution of research, listings, and abstracts of child care publications and resources.

National Conference of State Legislatures

Washington Office:

444 North Capitol Street, NW

Suite 500

Washington, DC 20001

(202) 624-5400

The National Conference of State Legislatures, which serves the legislators and staffs of the nation's states, commonwealths, and territories, has three objectives: Improve the quality and effectiveness of state legislatures; foster interstate communication and cooperation; and ensure a strong, cohesive voice in the federal system.

National Governors' Association

444 North Capitol Street

Suite 250

Washington, DC 20001-1572

(202) 624-5300

The National Governors' Association, an organization of the governors of the 50 states and the American commonwealths and territories, is concerned with shaping policies both at the state and national level.

National Resource Center for Health and Safety in Child Care

2000 15th Street North

Suite 701

Arlington, VA 22201-2617

(703) 524-7802

Contact: Pamela B. Mangu

The National Resource Center for Health and Safety in Child Care at the National Center for Education in Maternal and Child Health provides information services, technical assistance, and resource materials in the area of child care. The center disseminates information such as the *National Health and Safety Performance Standards: Guidelines for Out-of-Home Care*.

The Urban Institute

2100 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037
(202) 833-7200
Contact: Sandy Clark

The Urban Institute is a nonprofit policy research and educational organization established in Washington, DC, in 1968. Its staff investigates the social and economic problems confronting the nation, and the public and private means to alleviate them. The Urban Institute continues to conduct extensive research on child care. Recent publications include: *Child Care Prices: A Profile of Six Communities* (1995), *The Effect of Transitional Child Care and Medical Benefits on Post-Welfare Success: Evidence From Two States* (1995), *Child Care Quality versus Availability: Do We Have to Trade One for the*

Other? (1994), *Caring for Young Children While Parents Work: Public Policies and Private Strategies* (1994), *The Effects of the Availability of Low-Cost Child Care on the Labor Supply of Low-Income Women* (1994), *Caring for Children in Low-Income Families: A Substudy of the National Child Care Survey, 1990* (1993), and *The National Child Care Survey, 1990* (1991). Copies can be ordered by phone at (202) 857-8687.

Zero to Three

2000 14th Street North
Suite 380
Arlington, VA 22201-2500
(703) 528-4300
Contact: Beverly Jackson

Zero to Three (formerly the National Center for Clinical Infant Programs) is a nonprofit organization that works to improve the chances for healthy physical, cognitive, and social development of infants, toddlers, and their families and to create a context for improved understanding of early intervention and prevention programs. The organization offers training programs and materials, produces publications, provides technical assistance to administrators at state, community, and program levels, and sponsors seminars and conferences.

District Child Care Associations

Mayor's Advisory Committee on Early Childhood Development

c/o Office of Early Childhood Development
717 14th Street, NW
Suite 730
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 727-1839
Chairperson: Beverly Jackson

The Mayor's Advisory Committee on Early Childhood Development is made up of representatives from private organizations in the field of early childhood development, center operators, parents of children in both center-based and home-based child care centers, public and appropriate government agencies. The committee advises the Mayor on early childhood development programs in the District of Columbia and serves as an advisory council in the implementation of the early childhood development requirements of the federal government. The committee serves as an advocate for improving the quality of early childhood development programs and recommends methods of upgrading services.

Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments

Child Care Advisory Committee
777 North Capitol Street, NE, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20002-4226
(202) 962-3256

The Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments is the regional association of the Washington area's major local governments and their governing officials. The council has a Child

Care Advisory Committee comprising representatives from the public, private, business, and educational communities as well as individuals and organizations with an interest in child care issues. The mission of the committee is to promote available, affordable, quality child care throughout the Washington metropolitan region. The Council of Governments publishes (free of charge) the *Directory of Accredited Child Care Programs in the Washington Metropolitan Region*.

Office of Early Childhood Development

D.C. Department of Human Services
717 14th Street, NW
Suite 730
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 727-1839
Executive Director: Barbara Ferguson Kamara

The Office of Early Childhood Development facilitates citywide coordination of public and private efforts to expand and improve child development services to better meet the changing needs of the community. This is done on behalf of children and families, and in partnership with all who are concerned with the future of children in the nation's capital. Some of the functions of the office include advocacy; collaboration and coordination; consumer education and public information; data development and analysis; early care and education service; financial assistance; policy, legislation, and regulation review and development; public/private partnership development; and training and technical assistance. For information on training and events, call the 24-hour Child Care Calendar Line at (202) 310-2020.

Washington, DC Association for the Education of Young Children

4680 Martin Luther King Avenue, SW

Washington, DC 20003

(202) 563-5303

Chairperson: Deborah Hall

The Washington, DC Association for the Education of Young Children is the local affiliate of the National Association for the Education of

Young Children. The local association is a professional organization incorporated for the purpose of bringing together people interested in the education, rights, and well-being of young children; sponsoring activities and projects that will further the understanding of the needs of young children; determining the essentials of adequate group care of young children; interpreting these standards as need arises; being informed of and cooperating with other groups concerned with the welfare and education of young children; and investigating new trends in early childhood education.

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For additional information about the DC Family Policy Seminar, or to request copies of the following briefing reports or highlights, please contact Tobi Printz or Helena Wallin at (703) 524-7802:

- *Families That Play Together: Recreation and Leisure in the District* (July 1995).
- *HIV/AIDS: Helping Families Cope* (April 1995)
- *Substance Abuse Prevention and Treatment Programs: A Family Approach* (February 1995)
- *Family-Friendly Welfare Reform: Using Welfare Policies to Strengthen the Family* (November 1994)
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