



Yale Law School

ANIKA SINGH LEMAR

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March 1, 2016

Hon. Gary Winfield, Co-Chair
Hon. Larry Butler, Co-Chair
Housing Committee, Connecticut General Assembly

RE: Proposed bill H.B. 5363

My name is Anika Singh Lemar. I am a clinical associate professor at the Yale Law School and, for over a decade, I have studied and written about land use planning laws across the country while also working as a practicing lawyer representing homeowners, municipalities, businesses, and not-for-profit institutions. I submit this written testimony today to urge you to reject any proposal that would weaken section 8-30g of the Connecticut General Statutes.

Since World War II, Connecticut's suburbs have seen greater growth in jobs and market rate housing than have our cities. But those suburban towns, using restrictive zoning codes, prohibit the development of low-cost housing. The Brookings Institute has found that our zoning codes are more restrictive here in Connecticut than anywhere else in the nation. The result is income-based segregation and, in areas of concentrated poverty, overburdened school systems that cannot possibly address the needs of all students when the majority of those students are low-income.

State law authorizes localities to regulate land use. Unfortunately, sometimes localities use that power to undermine state needs. Affordable housing is a prime example. The State of Connecticut needs housing that accommodates all of our workers. The State of Connecticut needs to educate all of the children in our state, not just a few.

But town needs are different. Towns need low-income *workers*, particularly given the growth of low-wage jobs in the suburbs. But they don't want low-income *residents*. And, when it comes to education, local officials in towns with the highest-performing school districts will happily admit to you that they have no interest in educating additional children, even if that would be best for our statewide economy.

Our suburbs' refusal to permit the creation of low-cost housing has kept supply low and prices high. 49% of Connecticut renters spend more than 30% of their income on housing and, despite slow population growth, vacancy rates in New Haven County are among the lowest in the nation.

8-30g is a response to this misalignment in incentives. It encourage towns to zone for something that we need across the state but something that towns rarely choose to build on their own:

**Affordable housing for our state's families
in locations that will not further concentrate poverty.**

The statute's intention is not to allow developers to dictate our towns' futures. The statute's intention is to enable our towns to take ownership of their own futures, but to require them to do so in a way that addresses a statewide dearth of affordable housing.

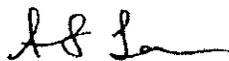
A few Connecticut towns, responding to 8-30g, have been proactive. But, though they have had 25 years, many others have not. It is not developers that are threatening these towns' futures. It is the towns that are threatening our state's future. In the 25 years since 8-30g went into effect and for decades prior to that, as they have built market rate units, strip malls, big box retail and often underused light industrial parks, they have largely failed to build affordable residential units. Here in New Haven County, as documented in recent report by DataHaven, while I am happy to say that we are consistently growing jobs in New Haven, the fastest job growth in this region is happening in the far outer ring suburbs, in towns like Cheshire, North Branford and Wallingford. Since the early 1990s, those towns have added over 16,000 jobs and over 10,000 housing units. But just 5% of those new units are affordable. The average number of affordable units in those towns is just barely over 2%. Our housing production is not keeping up with job growth. And rather than using local resources to plan to accommodate affordable housing, towns have focused their budgets and their resources on fighting affordable housing.

While states like New Jersey and California have limited home rule in their effort to address local resistance to affordable housing, 8-30g, despite what they naysayers might say, honors home rule. It leaves planning and zoning in local hands. It simply requires that local planning and zoning take affordability into account.

Just get to 10%. And, if you can't, get to 2% and enjoy a temporary moratorium from the statute, a moratorium that gives you breathing room to get to another 2%. That is it. When local governments resist that simple requirement, when they put up walls against housing for low-income families, only then does 8-30g give the market the tools necessary to step in and address our statewide need for affordable housing. Berlin, Ridgefield, and Wilton are currently enjoying moratoria from the statute. Darien will likely soon achieve its second moratorium from the statute. Farmington will likely soon achieve its first. The statute works.

I have attached to this testimony written testimony submitted by four of my former students at last year's February 5, 2015 public hearing before the Housing Committee. Their submissions address four topics, all relevant to 8-30g: (1) the intersection between housing policy and Connecticut's education achievement gap; (2) ensuring that affordable housing developments include units suitable for families; (3) section 8-30g's moratorium process; and (4) the positive economic impact of affordable housing development.

Sincerely,



Anika Singh Lemar

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
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TO: Senator Gary Winfield, Co-Chairman
Representative Larry Butler, Co-Chairman
Members of the Housing Committee

FROM: Elizabeth Chao, Community & Economic Development Clinic, Yale Law School

DATE: February 5, 2015

RE: Amending Sec. 8-30g Will Make Our Educational Achievement Gap Worse

RECOMMENDATION: Reject all proposed changes to sec. 8-30g

Reject bills No. 123; No. 171; No. 172; No. 403; No. 2138; No. 5055; No. 5056; No. 5057; No. 5254; No. 5306; 5576; No. 5577; No. 5578; No. 5579; No. 5580; No. 5581; No. 5582; No. 5802; No. 5803; No. 5804; No. 5805; No. 6126; No. 6127; No. 6128; No. 6129; No. 6130; No. 6131; No. 6135; and No. 6139.

Good evening. My name is Elizabeth Chao and I am a Yale law student in the Community and Economic Development Clinic. Connecticut has the worst achievement gap in the nation. I urge you to reject proposed amendments to 8-30g because they will make our already-bad achievement gap worse.

Connecticut's Achievement Gap: The Worst in the Country

Connecticut's educational achievement gap is worse than any other state in the country.¹ We have the worst achievement gap between high-income and low-income students, and the worst achievement gap between white students and black or Hispanic students. Low-income kids in Connecticut are, on average, three years behind non-low-income kids in math and reading.² Connecticut's black and Latino students are drastically behind white students: on the 4th grade math assessment, the average white student in Connecticut scores 34 points higher than the average black student and 29 points higher than the average Hispanic student.³ Connecticut has the worst achievement gap on 5 of the 12 indicators measured by the US Department of

¹ A Report from the Connecticut Commission on Educational Achievement 1.

http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/pressroom/ct_commission_on_ed_achievement_report.pdf.

² *Id.* at 7.

³ Alvin Chang. "The Achievement Gap Nationwide." NAEP data appearing in Jacqueline Rabe Thomas. "Nation's Report Card: CT continues to show largest achievement gap." Connecticut Mirror. 8 Nov. 2013.

<http://ctmirror.org/2013/11/08/nations-report-card-ct-continues-show-largest-achievement-gap/>. The black-white achievement gap on the 4th grade math assessment is 25.7 points nationwide, but 34 points in Connecticut. The Hispanic white achievement gap is 19.4 points nationwide, but 29 points in Connecticut.

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Education's National Assessment of Educational Progress, and it ranks close to the bottom in the rest.⁴

The achievement gap is not merely a result of Connecticut's income disparity. Our low-income students have lower test scores than low-income students in other states,⁵ and our black and Latino have lower test scores than black and Latino students in other states.⁶ For instance, on the fourth grade math assessment, the average white student in Connecticut scores 3 points higher than the nation's average white student, while the average black student in Connecticut scores 5 points lower than the nation's average black student.⁷ In other words, while Connecticut's white students do better than the rest of the country, Connecticut's black and Latino students do worse. Our achievement gap is shameful: too many of our students are not receiving the great education that we know our state can provide.

Inclusionary Housing Policies Cut the Achievement Gap

Creating affordable housing in high-performing school districts has been proven to close the achievement gap. Maryland's Montgomery County is composed of affluent suburbs with high-performing school districts, which is very similar to many parts of Connecticut. Montgomery County also has an inclusionary zoning policy that requires affordable housing to be built across the region. Applicants for those affordable housing units are selected randomly, allowing a rigorous examination of the effect on low-income children of living in a high-quality school district. In Montgomery County, low-income children in subsidized housing started out 17 percentage points below other children on standardized math tests. But when some of those students entered high-achieving schools, thanks to affordable housing opportunities in those districts, they quickly caught up to their classmates: the difference in their math test scores went from 17 to 8 points. Building affordable housing in high-performing school districts cut the achievement gap by more than half.⁸

Perhaps the most famous demonstration that affordable housing in high-performing suburban areas can improve educational outcomes comes from the Gautreaux case in Chicago. There, a quasi-experimental design—the gold standard of social science research—provided invaluable insights into the effect on low-income and minority families of moving to suburban areas with high-quality schools. The results are striking. Students who, thanks to housing policy, were able to attend high-quality integrated schools, were four times less likely to drop out of high school, six times more likely to attend a four-year college, and four times more likely to

⁴ Jacqueline Rabe Thomas. "Nation's Report Card: CT continues to show largest achievement gap." Connecticut Mirror. 8 Nov. 2013. <http://ctmirror.org/2013/11/08/nations-report-card-ct-continues-show-largest-achievement-gap/>.

⁵ National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Data Explorer. <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/>. See Table 1. Low-income is measured by eligibility for the National School Lunch Program.

⁶ National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Data Explorer. <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/>. See Table 2.

⁷ *Id.*

⁸ Schwartz, Heather. Housing Policy Is School Policy: Economically Integrative Housing Promotes Academic Success in Montgomery County, Maryland. A Century Foundation Report 17-18.

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have a well-paying job.⁹ These are dramatic findings, which underscore the power of affordable housing policy to have a truly dramatic effect on Connecticut's achievement gap. The evidence is clear: 8-30g, by enabling low-income families to send their children to high-performing schools, can substantially close the achievement gap.

Neighborhood Effects: Where Kids Live Matters

Where kids live matters. Studies show that kids do better when they grow up in well-resourced, stable neighborhoods. Living in a high-income neighborhood rather than a low-income neighborhood has been found to increase a child's lifetime earnings by almost a million dollars.¹⁰ The high school dropout rate for black children who grow up in the most disadvantaged neighborhoods is five times greater than for black children who grow up in the most advantaged neighborhoods.¹¹ A study by economists David Card and Jesse Rothstein found that integrated neighborhoods could reduce the racial gap in SAT scores by at least one-quarter, even holding all other factors the same.¹² Notably, Card and Rothstein found that residential segregation was more harmful to students than school segregation,¹³ suggesting that programs that help build affordable housing in high-achieving communities may be even more effective than magnet schools and similar efforts. For Connecticut to close our achievement gap—as we all agree we must do—we need to provide affordable housing that allows families to send their children to the highest-performing schools. Expanding children's opportunity to live in good neighborhoods and go to the highest-performing schools—as 8-30g does—has dramatic, lifetime benefits.

Housing Costs Lead to Residential and Educational Segregation

The problem is that the neighborhoods with the highest-performing schools have the highest housing costs.¹⁴ In Connecticut, the cost of living near a good school is significantly higher than the cost of living near a bad school. Indeed, the problem here is worse than anywhere else in the country. In Bridgeport, the housing cost gap is 3.5: it is 3.5 times more expensive to live near a high-scoring school than a low-scoring school.¹⁵ That is the largest housing gap in the nation, meaning that housing costs pose a larger obstacle to educational success here than anywhere else in the country.

In part because of these housing cost gaps, Connecticut is the 12th most segregated state in the country for Hispanic students, and the 16th most segregated state in the country for African American students.¹⁶ Berkeley economist Rucker Johnson found that desegregating

⁹ James E. Rosenbaum, "Changing the geography of opportunity by expanding residential choice: Lessons from the Gautreaux program," *Housing Policy Debate* 6 (1995): 242.

¹⁰ Jonathan T. Rothwell, *Geographic Effects on Intergenerational Income Mobility*. *Economic Geography* 83 (2014).

¹¹ Wodtke, G. et al. (2011). *Neighborhood Effects in Temporal Perspective: The Impact of Long-Term Exposure to Concentrated Disadvantage on High School Graduation*. *American Sociological Review*, 76(5): 713-736

¹² David Card and Jesse Rothstein, "Racial Segregation and the Black-White Test Score Gap," *Journal of Public Economics*, 91 (11-12) (2007): 2158-2184.

¹³ *Id.*

¹⁴ Jonathan Rothwell, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." *Brookings* (April 2012) 15.

¹⁵ *Id.*

¹⁶ 32% of Black students are in extremely segregated schools (those with a 90-100% minority student body), and 25.6% of Hispanic students are in extremely segregated schools (those with a 90-100% minority student body).

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schools leads to significantly better educational outcomes for children, which translated into lifelong benefits, including higher wages, lower incarceration rates, and better health through adulthood.¹⁷

Because our best schools are in neighborhoods with really high housing costs,¹⁸ many low-income kids and black and Latino kids cannot afford to attend them.¹⁹ 8-30g helps desegregate our schools and neighborhoods by providing opportunities for low-income kids to live in safe, well-resourced neighborhoods and attend Connecticut's highest-performing schools.

Case Study: Affordable Housing in Mt. Laurel, NJ

One of the best-studied affordable housing projects in the country is the Ethel Lawrence Homes development in Mount Laurel, New Jersey, a project that was the result of decades of high-profile litigation. Given the prominence of the project, Princeton sociologist Douglas Massey and his colleagues performed a systematic, long-term study of the development, and its effects on the surrounding town. Their findings show the tremendous benefits of the project, including for education. Many people fear that affordable housing will increase crime, increase taxes, and reduce property values, for example. But none of those fears materialized in Mount Laurel. Crime rates fell, property values rose, and property taxes declined. Instead, the Ethel Lawrence Homes helped families who lived there have higher rates of employment, higher wages, and higher rates of economic independence. The educational benefits were also significant. Children living in the Ethel Lawrence Homes were more likely to have a quiet place to study and spent an average of 6 hours more per week on homework.²⁰ Their grades are up, even though they are now in more rigorous classrooms.²¹ The community as a whole has benefitted from the construction of the Ethel Lawrence Homes, but perhaps no one has benefitted more than the children who live there.

Declining School Enrollment: An Opportunity for Housing Growth

Connecticut's population of young people is declining. Between now and 2025, the number of school-age kids in 153 of Connecticut's towns is expected to decrease.²² Over that

Connecticut Realize the Dream. <http://www.realizethedream.org/reports/states/connecticut.html>.

¹⁷ Rucker C. Johnson, "Long-Run Impacts of School Desegregation and School Quality on Adult Attainments," Working Paper 16664 (National Bureau of Economic Research, 2011).

¹⁸ Jonathan Rothwell, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." Brookings (April 2012) 15. In Connecticut, the cost of living near a good school is significantly higher than the cost of living near a bad school. In Bridgeport, the housing cost gap is 3.5: it is 3.5 times more expensive to live near a high-scoring school than a low-scoring school.

¹⁹ Nationwide, black and Hispanic students disproportionately attend low-scoring schools. The average black student is enrolled in a school with scores in the 37th percentile, the average Latino student in a school with scores in the 41st percentile, the average Asian student in a school with scores in the 63rd percentile, and the average white student in a school with scores in the 60th percentile. Jonathan Rothwell, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." Brookings (April 2012) 8.

²⁰ Douglas S. Massey. Moving to Opportunity in Mount Laurel, New Jersey.

²¹ *Id.*

²² 2015-2025 Population Projections for Connecticut. University of Connecticut: Connecticut State Data Center.. <http://web2.uconn.edu/ctsdc/projections.html>.

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time period, the total number of school-age kids in Connecticut is projected to drop by almost 10%.²³ This decrease in the school-age population means schools will have room to welcome new students without increasing local school costs. This is a demographic opportunity that we must seize. Given these demographic trends, building affordable homes in towns with high-performing schools is a particularly cost-effective way to provide kids with a good education and close the achievement gap.

Conclusion

8-30g promotes affordable housing in good school districts, which is a win-win for everyone. 8-30g helps low-income kids learn – and eventually earn! – more, and it's helping our state close the achievement gap. Please support our students and our state, and reject amendments that weaken 8-30g. Thank you, and I am happy to answer any questions.

²³ *Id.* According to the Connecticut State Data Center, between 2015 and 2025, the population of 5-19 year olds in Connecticut is projected to drop 9.9%, from 700,758 in 2015 to 631,251 in 2025. *See also* Table 1.

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Table 1: Average Grade 4 Mathematics Assessment Scale Score by National School Lunch Program Eligibility (2013)

	Low-Income (NSLP Eligible)	Not Low-Income (Not NSLP Eligible)
National	230	254
Connecticut	225	255
Connecticut Effect	-5	+1

<i>Grade 8</i>	Low-Income (NSLP Eligible)	Not Low-Income (Not NSLP Eligible)
National	270	297
Connecticut	263	297
Connecticut Effect	-7	0

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2013 Mathematics Assessment. NAEP Data Explorer, <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/dataset.aspx>.

Table 2: Average Grade 4 Mathematics Assessment Scale Score by Race* (2013)

	White	Black	Hispanic
National	250	224	231
Connecticut	253	219	224
Connecticut Effect	+3	-5	-7

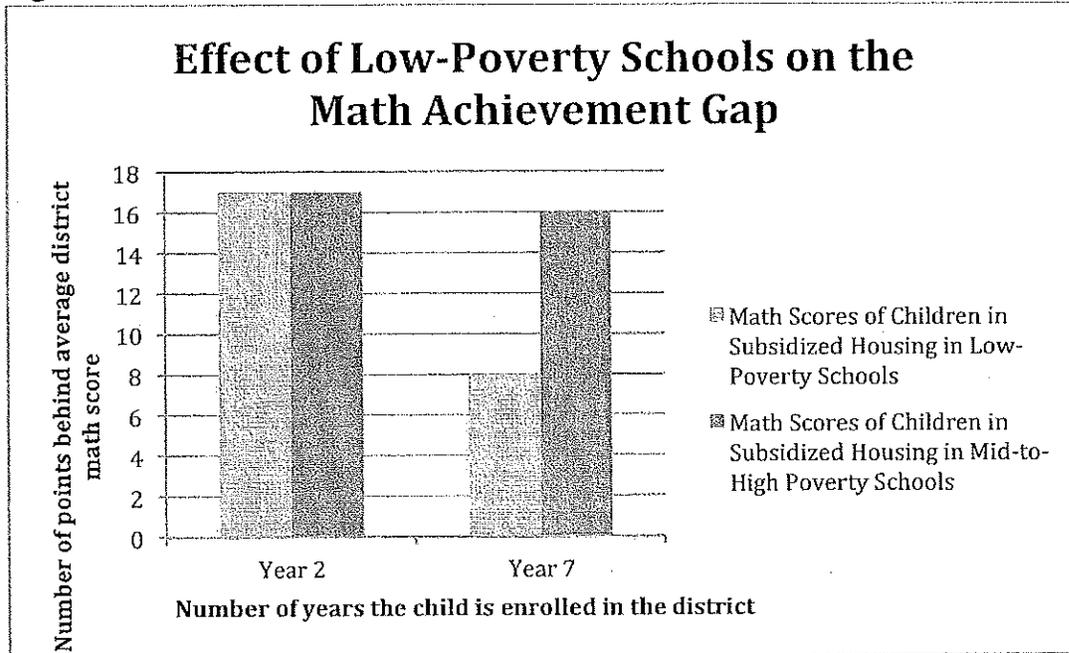
	White	Black	Hispanic
National	294	263	272
Connecticut	297	260	258
Connecticut Effect	+3	-3	-14

*School-reported race

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2013 Mathematics Assessment. NAEP Data Explorer, <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/dataset.aspx>.

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Figure 1: Effect of Low-Poverty Schools on the Math Achievement Gap



Source: Schwartz, Heather. Housing Policy Is School Policy: Economically Integrative Housing Promotes Academic Success in Montgomery County, Maryland. A Century Foundation Report 17-18.

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Table 3: Connecticut School-Age Population Projections, 2015-2025

	2015	2020	2025
Males 5-09	104,202	98,573	99,246
Males 10-14	117,265	107,707	102,081
Males 15-19	136,379	130,725	121,176
Females 5-09	99,273	93,820	94,463
Females 10-14	112,483	102,951	97,499
Females 15-19	131,156	126,301	116,776
CT's school-age population	700,758	660,077	631,241
Projected decrease in CT's school-age population from 2015	N/A	-40,681	-69,517
% Decrease in CT's school-age population from 2015	N/A	-5.81%	-9.92%

Source: 2015-2025 Population Projections for Connecticut, Connecticut State Data Center, University of Connecticut. http://ctsdc.uconn.edu/2015_2025_projections/

HOUSING POLICY IS SCHOOL POLICY:
ECONOMICALLY INTEGRATIVE HOUSING
PROMOTES ACADEMIC SUCCESS IN
MONTGOMERY COUNTY, MARYLAND

HEATHER SCHWARTZ

A CENTURY FOUNDATION REPORT

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**INTRODUCTION: MONTGOMERY COUNTY AS AN
EXEMPLARY CASE OF ECONOMIC INTEGRATION**

“School enrollment patterns are closely tied to residential patterns. In short, housing policy is school policy.”

—David Rusk¹

Montgomery County, Maryland, operates one of the most acclaimed large public school systems in the United States. Although an increasing share of the population of this suburban school district just outside Washington, D.C., is low income, and the majority of its students belongs to racial minority groups, the county graduates nine in ten of its students. Two-thirds of its high school students take at least one Advanced Placement course, and the average SAT score in the district greatly exceeds the national average. A recent book has lauded its educational reforms intended to close racial and economic achievement gaps.² A large education publisher, Pearson, has acquired rights to sell the district’s elementary school curriculum.³ Reflecting these accomplishments, the district is a finalist for the 2010 Broad Prize, a prestigious award to honor excellence among urban school districts.

Montgomery County also ranks among the top twenty wealthiest counties in the nation, and has done so since its inception in the 1950s. Less than 5 percent of its residents live in poverty, compared to a national rate of 15 percent. Despite the increasing share of low-income students within its school system, a little less than one-third of its approximately 142,000 students qualified for free and reduced-price meals (FARM) in 2010—a ratio that is somewhat lower than the national average (42.9

percent) and far lower than that in most of the largest urban districts such as Los Angeles, Chicago, and New York City, where about three out of every four students qualify.⁴

Montgomery County's reputation as both an affluent area with good schools and a district that serves low-income students relatively well is firmly established. Much less known is the fact that it operates the nation's oldest and by far the largest inclusionary zoning program—a policy that requires real estate developers to set aside a portion of the homes they build to be rented or sold at below-market prices. The zoning stipulation has caused the production of more than 12,000 moderately priced homes in the county since 1976. Similar inclusionary zoning policies have since spread to over one hundred high-cost housing markets in California; Massachusetts; New Jersey; New York City; Santa Fe, New Mexico; Denver and Boulder, Colorado; the greater Washington, D.C., metro area; and Burlington, Vermont, among other places.⁵

A singular feature of Montgomery County's zoning policy is that it allows the public housing authority, the Housing Opportunities Commission, to purchase one-third of the inclusionary zoning homes within each subdivision to operate as federally subsidized public housing, thereby allowing households who typically earn incomes below the poverty line to live in affluent neighborhoods and send their children to schools where the vast majority of students come from families that do not live in poverty. To date, the housing authority has purchased about 700 apartments that are located in market-rate apartment complexes that it operates as public housing. All told, it operates 992 public housing family apartments (some clustered in small public housing developments) that are located in hundreds of neighborhoods throughout the county and are zoned into almost every one of the school district's 131 elementary schools. Families who occupy the public housing apartments in Montgomery County have an average income of \$22,460 as of 2007, making them among the poorest households in the county. The apartments are leased

at a fraction of the normal market rates: whereas the average monthly rent for a two-bedroom apartment in Montgomery County in 2006 was \$1,267, public housing tenants' average rent contribution was \$371 (equal to one-third of their income, per federal regulation) in the same year.

The Housing Opportunities Commission randomly assigns applicants to the public housing apartments. Since almost all of the county's elementary schools have neighborhood-based attendance zones, children in public housing thus are assigned randomly to their elementary schools via the public housing placement process. This feature prevents families' self-selection into neighborhoods and elementary schools of their choice, which in turn allows for a fair comparison of children in public housing in low-poverty settings to other children in public housing in higher-poverty settings within the county.

Building on the strength of the random assignment of children to schools, I examine the longitudinal school performance from 2001 to 2007 of approximately 850 students in public housing who attended elementary schools and lived in neighborhoods that fell along a spectrum of very-low-poverty to moderate-poverty rates. In brief, I find that over a period of five to seven years, children in public housing who attended the school district's most-advantaged schools (as measured by either subsidized lunch status or the district's own criteria) far outperformed in math and reading those children in public housing who attended the district's least-advantaged elementary schools.

In this report, I describe the study, the findings, and their ramifications. First, I review why economic integration in neighborhoods and schools might matter in the first place. Then I provide greater context about the Montgomery County school district and the housing policies in question, and briefly describe the methods by which I compare the schooling outcomes of children in public housing. Following that, I set out the results of the study by describing the influence of school poverty (as measured by two different metrics)

and neighborhood poverty on children's math and reading outcomes. Then I clarify what can and cannot be learned from this study. Finally, after reviewing my findings, I consider how Montgomery County's experience might pertain to that of similar suburbs, as well as to the challenges facing policymakers concerned with the issues of affordable housing and education.

To anticipate the lengthier discussion below, the following list sets out the main educational and housing-related effects of Montgomery County's economically integrative housing policies.

SCHOOL-RELATED FINDINGS

- *School-based economic integration effects accrued over time.* After five to seven years, students in public housing who were randomly assigned to low-poverty elementary schools significantly outperformed their peers in public housing who attended moderate-poverty schools in both math and reading. Further, by the end of elementary school, the initial, large achievement gap between children in public housing who attended the district's most advantaged schools and their non-poor students in the district was cut by half for math and one-third for reading.
- *The academic returns from economic integration diminished as school poverty levels rose.* Children who lived in public housing and attended schools where no more than 20 percent of students qualified for a free or reduced price meal did best, whereas those children in public housing who attended schools where as many as 35 percent of students qualified for a free or reduced price meal performed no better academically over time than public housing children who attended schools where 35 to 85 percent of students qualified for a free or reduced price meal. (Note that fewer than 5 percent of schools had more than 60 percent of students from low-income families, and none had more than 85 percent in any year, making it impossible to compare the effects of

low-poverty schools with truly high-poverty schools, where 75 percent to 100 percent of the families are low-income).

- *Using subsidized meals as the metric for measuring school need might be insufficient.* The two different measures of school disadvantage used in this study—subsidized school meal status and Montgomery County’s own criteria—each indicate that children from very poor families benefited over the course of five to seven years from attending low-poverty schools. A comparison of the district’s own measure of school disadvantage to the most commonly employed measure (subsidized meals) yielded differently sized estimates of the benefits to low-income elementary school children of attending advantaged schools. The differences suggest the shortcoming of the free and reduced-price meal metric as a single indicator of school need.

HOUSING-RELATED FINDINGS

- *In Montgomery County, inclusionary zoning integrated children from highly disadvantaged families into low-poverty neighborhoods and low-poverty schools over the long term.* The county’s inclusionary zoning program generally, and its scattered site public housing program in particular, have been a highly successful means of exposing low-income persons to low-poverty settings. As of the years in which this study took place, families with school-age children living in public housing had stayed in place for an average of eight years, which resulted in long term exposure of their children to low-poverty settings.
- *Residential stability improved students’ academic outcomes.* Even though the families living in public housing in Montgomery County earned very low incomes, they stayed in place for longer periods of time than is typical of public families nationally with similar incomes.

Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools

Jonathan Rothwell

“Limiting the development of inexpensive housing in affluent neighborhoods and jurisdictions fuels economic and racial segregation and contributes to significant differences in school performance across the metropolitan landscape.”

Findings

An analysis of national and metropolitan data on public school populations and state standardized test scores for 84,077 schools in 2010 and 2011 reveals that:

- **Nationwide, the average low-income student attends a school that scores at the 42nd percentile on state exams, while the average middle/high-income student attends a school that scores at the 61st percentile on state exams.** This school test-score gap is even wider between black and Latino students and white students. There is increasingly strong evidence—from this report and other studies—that low-income students benefit from attending higher-scoring schools.
- **Northeastern metro areas with relatively high levels of economic segregation exhibit the highest school test-score gaps between low-income students and other students.** Controlling for regional factors such as size, income inequality, and racial/ethnic diversity associated with school test-score gaps, Southern metro areas such as Washington and Raleigh, and Western metros like Portland and Seattle, stand out for having smaller-than-expected test-score gaps between schools attended by low-income and middle/high-income students.
- **Across the 100 largest metropolitan areas, housing costs an average of 2.4 times as much, or nearly \$11,000 more per year, near a high-scoring public school than near a low-scoring public school.** This *housing cost gap* reflects that home values are \$205,000 higher on average in the neighborhoods of high-scoring versus low-scoring schools. Near high-scoring schools, typical homes have 1.5 additional rooms and the share of housing units that are rented is roughly 30 percentage points lower than in neighborhoods near low-scoring schools.
- **Large metro areas with the least restrictive zoning have housing cost gaps that are 40 to 63 percentage points lower than metro areas with the most exclusionary zoning.** Eliminating exclusionary zoning in a metro area would, by reducing its housing cost gap, lower its school test-score gap by an estimated 4 to 7 percentiles—a significant share of the observed gap between schools serving the average low-income versus middle/higher-income student.

As the nation grapples with the growing gap between rich and poor and an economy increasingly reliant on formal education, public policies should address housing market regulations that prohibit all but the very affluent from enrolling their children in high-scoring public schools in order to promote individual social mobility and broader economic security.

Housing Costs, Zoning and Access to High-Scoring Schools

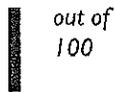
Bridgeport-Stamford-Norwalk, CT metro area

Why school access matters

This report finds that anti-density zoning laws – local regulations that discourage inexpensive housing – lead to inflated housing costs near high-scoring schools, relative to housing costs near low-scoring schools. This housing costs gap drives economic segregation across schools and a higher test score gap between the schools attended by low-income and middle/high income students. Research shows that low-income students are more likely to succeed in higher-scoring schools, so reducing the financial and regulatory barriers to residential and school integration should be a priority.

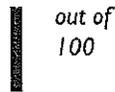
Bridgeport's school access rankings

ZONING RESTRICTIONS



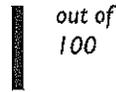
The metro area has the 1st most restrictive zoning, based on the prevalence of land-use law firms in the state. Restrictive zoning discourages inexpensive housing, driving economic segregation.

ECONOMIC SEGREGATION



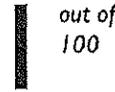
61% of low-income students would have to change ZIP codes to achieve an equal distribution across schools, ranking the metro area the 1st most economically segregated.

HOUSING COST GAP



Housing costs near high-scoring elementary schools are 3.5 times higher than housing costs near low-scoring schools, ranking the metro area the 1st highest on this measure.

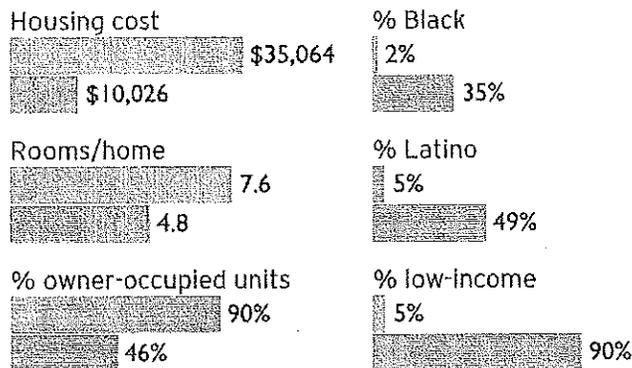
TEST SCORE GAP



The average middle/high-income student attends a school that ranks 37 percentage points higher on state exams than the school an average low-income student attends, ranking the metro area the 1st highest on this measure.

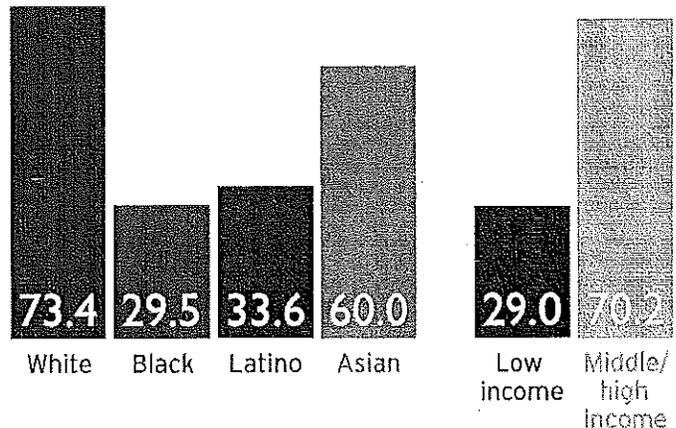
Bridgeport school comparisons

These charts compare the average top quintile school (blue) and the average bottom-quintile school (red) in Bridgeport across six categories. Quintiles are based on scores of standardized tests taken between 2010 and 2011.



Bridgeport test scores by group

School percentile rankings in Bridgeport for the average student, broken down by race and income. School test scores are adjusted by state average and ranked nationally.



Data notes

Notes: Housing data for schools are based on Census data from hypothetical attendance zones near schools. Housing costs are based on a weighted average of rental and ownership costs.

Source: From Brookings publication, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." Data are derived from Brookings analysis of data from GreatSchools, the National Center for Education Statistics, various state education agencies, the 2005-2009 American Community Survey, and lawyers.com. See report for details.

Housing Costs, Zoning and Access to High-Scoring Schools

New Haven-Milford, CT metro area

Why school access matters

This report finds that anti-density zoning laws – local regulations that discourage inexpensive housing – lead to inflated housing costs near high-scoring schools, relative to housing costs near low-scoring schools. This housing costs gap drives economic segregation across schools and a higher test score gap between the schools attended by low-income and middle/high income students. Research shows that low-income students are more likely to succeed in higher-scoring schools, so reducing the financial and regulatory barriers to residential and school integration should be a priority.

New Haven's school access rankings

ZONING RESTRICTIONS

1 out of 100

The metro area has the 1st most restrictive zoning, based on the prevalence of land-use law firms in the state. Restrictive zoning discourages inexpensive housing, driving economic segregation.

ECONOMIC SEGREGATION

7 out of 100

53% of low-income students would have to change ZIP codes to achieve an equal distribution across schools, ranking the metro area the 7th most economically segregated.

HOUSING COST GAP

15 out of 100

Housing costs near high-scoring elementary schools are 2.6 times higher than housing costs near low-scoring schools, ranking the metro area the 15th highest on this measure.

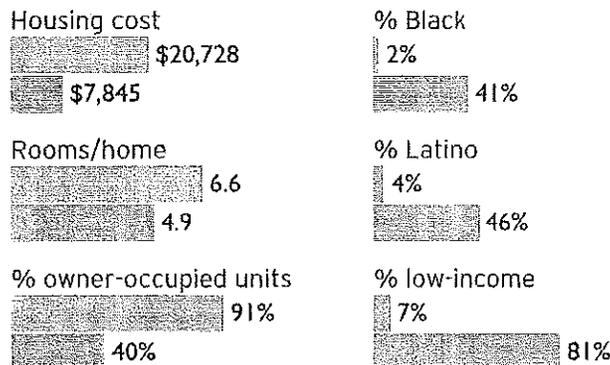
TEST SCORE GAP

4 out of 100

The average middle/high-income student attends a school that ranks 33 percentage points higher on state exams than the school an average low-income student attends, ranking the metro area the 4th highest on this measure.

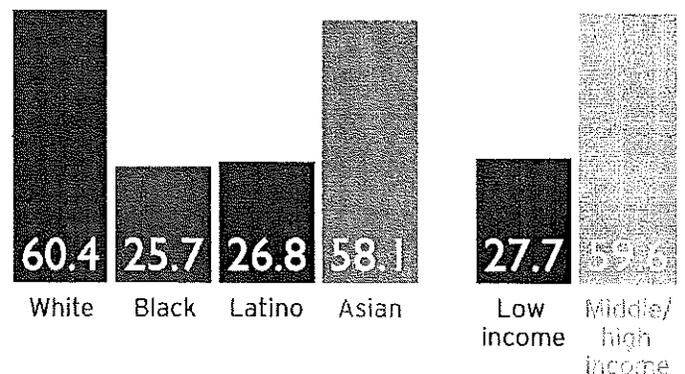
New Haven school comparisons

These charts compare the average top quintile school (blue) and the average bottom-quintile school (red) in New Haven across six categories. Quintiles are based on scores of standardized tests taken between 2010 and 2011.



New Haven test scores by group

School percentile rankings in New Haven for the average student, broken down by race and income. School test scores are adjusted by state average and ranked nationally.



Data notes

Notes: Housing data for schools are based on Census data from hypothetical attendance zones near schools. Housing costs are based on a weighted average of rental and ownership costs.

Source: From Brookings publication, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." Data are derived from Brookings analysis of data from GreatSchools, the National Center for Education Statistics, various state education agencies, the 2005-2009 American Community Survey, and lawyers.com. See report for details.

Housing Costs, Zoning and Access to High-Scoring Schools

Hartford-West Hartford-East Hartford, CT metro area

Why school access matters

This report finds that anti-density zoning laws – local regulations that discourage inexpensive housing – lead to inflated housing costs near high-scoring schools, relative to housing costs near low-scoring schools. This housing costs gap drives economic segregation across schools and a higher test score gap between the schools attended by low-income and middle/high income students. Research shows that low-income students are more likely to succeed in higher-scoring schools, so reducing the financial and regulatory barriers to residential and school integration should be a priority.

Hartford's school access rankings

ZONING RESTRICTIONS

1 out of 100

The metro area has the 1st most restrictive zoning, based on the prevalence of land-use law firms in the state. Restrictive zoning discourages inexpensive housing, driving economic segregation.

ECONOMIC SEGREGATION

4 out of 100

54% of low-income students would have to change ZIP codes to achieve an equal distribution across schools, ranking the metro area the 4th most economically segregated.

HOUSING COST GAP

10 out of 100

Housing costs near high-scoring elementary schools are 2.8 times higher than housing costs near low-scoring schools, ranking the metro area the 10th highest on this measure.

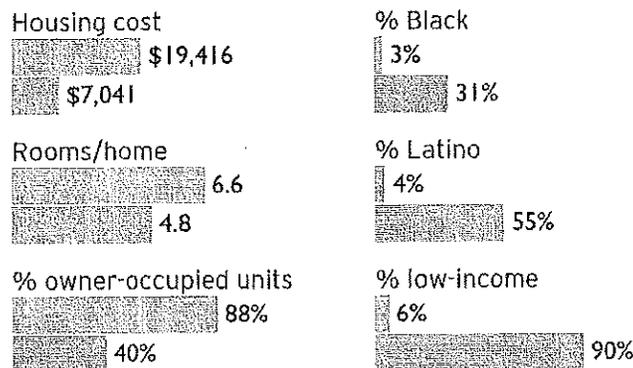
TEST SCORE GAP

2 out of 100

The average middle/high-income student attends a school that ranks 35 percentage points higher on state exams than the school an average low-income student attends, ranking the metro area the 2nd highest on this measure.

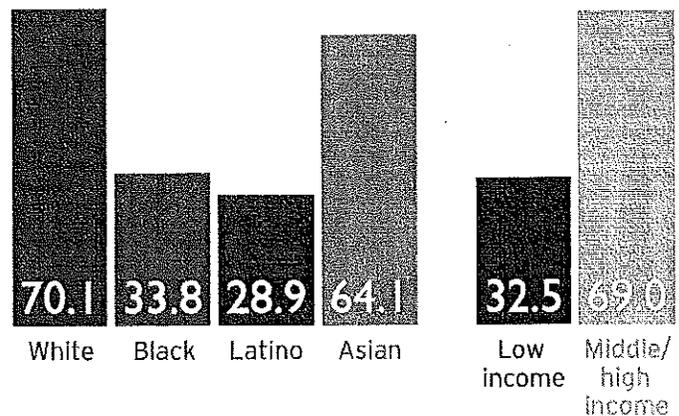
Hartford school comparisons

These charts compare the average top quintile school (blue) and the average bottom-quintile school (red) in Hartford across six categories. Quintiles are based on scores of standardized tests taken between 2010 and 2011.



Hartford test scores by group

School percentile rankings in Hartford for the average student, broken down by race and income. School test scores are adjusted by state average and ranked nationally.



Data notes

Notes: Housing data for schools are based on Census data from hypothetical attendance zones near schools. Housing costs are based on a weighted average of rental and ownership costs.

Source: From Brookings publication, "Housing Costs, Zoning, and Access to High-Scoring Schools." Data are derived from Brookings analysis of data from GreatSchools, the National Center for Education Statistics, various state education agencies, the 2005-2009 American Community Survey, and lawyers.com. See report for details.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
YALE LAW SCHOOL

TO: Senator Gary Winfield, Co-Chairman
Representative Larry Butler, Co-Chairman
Members of the Housing Committee

FROM: Lynsey Gaudioso, Community & Economic Development Clinic, Yale Law School

DATE: February 5, 2015

RE: Sec. 8-30g Moratorium Provisions

RECOMMENDATION: Reject all proposed changes to sec. 8-30g

Reject bills No. 123; No. 171; No. 172; No. 403; No. 2138; No. 5055; No. 5056; No. 5057; No. 5254; No. 5306; 5576; No. 5577; No. 5578; No. 5579; No. 5580; No. 5581; No. 5582; No. 5802; No. 5803; No. 5804; No. 5805; No. 6126; No. 6127; No. 6128; No. 6129; No. 6130; No. 6131; No. 6135; and No. 6139.

Good evening. My name is Lynsey Gaudioso and I am a member of the Community and Economic Development Clinic at Yale Law School. I am here today to urge you to reject the proposed amendments to Section 8-30g, which would weaken the current statute, and to discuss ways we can learn from our neighbors in Massachusetts. Massachusetts' Chapter 40B statute is similar to Section 8-30g, offering a builder's remedy for affordable housing development. In fact, 8-30g was modeled on the Massachusetts statute. However, there is one key difference I want to highlight: the inclusion of a bedroom mix policy.

One of the most important ways affordable housing can improve people's lives is by allowing low- and middle-income families to move to better school districts. But often, affordable housing developers in Connecticut focus on one- and two-bedroom units or elderly units. These forms of affordable housing are valuable, but can leave out the very families with children who might benefit most from the state's great schools. In order to address a similar issue, just this past year, Massachusetts adopted a bedroom mix policy.¹ Under the bedroom mix policy, in order for affordable housing units to count towards Massachusetts' exemption threshold, at least 10% of the units in the affordable housing development must include three or more bedrooms.² Massachusetts adopted the bedroom mix policy in order to address an "imbalance of age-restricted housing versus housing for families with children."³ In their 2013 report recommending this change, the Massachusetts Department of Housing and Community Development specifically

¹ *Interagency Agreement*, EXEC. OFFICE OF HOUS. & ECON. DEV., <http://www.mass.gov/hed/docs/dhcd/hd/fair/familyhousinginteragencyagreement.pdf> (last visited Jan. 30, 2015).

² *Id.* This policy does not apply to age-restricted housing.

³ *Analysis of Impediments to Fair Housing Choice*, DEP'T OF HOUS. & CMTY. DEV. 295 (2013), <http://www.mass.gov/hed/docs/dhcd/hd/fair/2013analysis.pdf>.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
YALE LAW SCHOOL

recognized the need for more affordable family units in order to connect low-income families and households of color with “educational, employment and public health opportunities.”⁴

Connecticut should consider adopting a similar policy for a number of reasons. First, there is a huge education achievement gap in Connecticut. A lack of affordable family housing widens this gap instead of narrowing it, and contributes to the cycle of poverty. A bedroom mix policy similar to Massachusetts’ would help narrow the state’s achievement gap and increase the chances for children in Connecticut to receive a good education. Second, Connecticut is losing residents in their prime working years. Promoting more affordable three-bedroom units would attract more young people and workers to this state. Moreover, Connecticut is also seeing a rise in family homelessness. In 2013, 2,440 children used Connecticut’s homeless shelters and transitional housing programs.⁵ A 2014 report found that “family homelessness remains a challenge, mostly because affordable units are unavailable.”⁶ A bedroom mix policy would help combat this issue.

In sum, Connecticut should consider adopting a bedroom mix policy in order to increase the number of affordable family units developed. This in turn would help connect families with better educational opportunities, attract young workers to Connecticut, and decrease the incidence of family homelessness. For these same reasons, Connecticut should reject proposals to increase the number of moratorium points awarded for elderly units. These proposals would only increase the incentive to develop elderly units, when the most needed forms of housing are family units—as our neighbors to the north have recognized. Thank you for your time and consideration. I am happy to answer any questions.

⁴ *Id.* at 4.

⁵ *HousingInCT2014: The Latest Measures of Affordability*, P’SHIP FOR STRONG COMMUNITIES 2 (2014), http://pschousing.org/files/PSC_HousingInCT2014_Final.pdf.

⁶ *Id.*

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TO: Senator Gary Winfield, Co-Chairman
Representative Larry Butler, Co-Chairman
Members of the Housing Committee

FROM: Noah Kazis, Community & Economic Development Clinic, Yale Law School

DATE: February 5, 2015

RE: Sec. 8-30g Moratorium Provisions

RECOMMENDATION: Reject all proposed changes to sec. 8-30g

Reject bills No. 123; No. 171; No. 172; No. 403; No. 2138; No. 5055; No. 5056; No. 5057; No. 5254; No. 5306; 5576; No. 5577; No. 5578; No. 5579; No. 5580; No. 5581; No. 5582; No. 5802; No. 5803; No. 5804; No. 5805; No. 6126; No. 6127; No. 6128; No. 6129; No. 6130; No. 6131; No. 6135; and No. 6139.

First, I would like to thank the chairmen, ranking members and members of the Housing Committee for this opportunity to testify before you. My name is Noah Kazis and I am a member of the Community and Economic Development Clinic at the Yale Law School.

Today I would like to discuss the moratorium provisions of 8-30g¹. Although the moratorium is not necessarily as well-understood as other elements of the statute, it is essential to the proper functioning of the overall statutory scheme. I urge you to reject any proposed changes to the moratorium, or to 8-30g generally.

In a nutshell, the moratorium is meant to *encourage* municipalities to build affordable housing. It rewards progress. The larger statute looks at how much affordable housing exists in a town, and exempts those where 10 percent of the housing stock is affordable. The moratorium plays a different role. Rather than look at how much housing is affordable, in total, it looks at how much affordable housing the town has built recently. Specifically, if a town receives points equivalent to two percent of the town's housing stock, it is granted a four-year moratorium from 8-30g. For some towns, the ten percent threshold is out of reach in the short term; this committee has heard towns complain about that fact. The moratorium recognizes this and rewards towns for making headway. For this reason, only units built since

¹ These provisions can be found at Conn. Gen. Stat. § 8-30g(l) and in the accompanying regulations at § 8-30g-6.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
YALE LAW SCHOOL

1990 are counted towards a moratorium,² and only those units *should* be counted; it's not about how much affordable housing a town has, but how much progress a town has made.

The moratorium also rewards towns for building the types of affordable housing that are scarcest and hardest to build. Towns receive bonus points for rental units, or for homes that are affordable to those with very low incomes.³ And because Connecticut also desperately needs more affordable housing for families, but elderly units are sometimes easier to get built, towns get more points for building family units than for building elderly units.⁴ The point structure, which is summarized in a table attached to this testimony, encourages towns not just to build affordable housing, but rewards them for building the types of affordable housing that we need the most, recognizing that some of those projects are more difficult politically. Towns are rewarded in proportion to how difficult a project is. For these reasons, this differential point system must be retained.

Achieving a moratorium is feasible under current law. Trumbull, Ridgefield, Berlin, and Darien have all secured moratoriums,⁵ and Berlin and Darien are working to secure their second moratoriums. These towns' experience shows that aiming at a moratorium shifts towns from reacting to 8-30g proposals to proactively creating mixed-income housing. They've taken control of how and where to build affordable housing, and succeeded at getting to a moratorium. Moreover, there is a real opportunity for this valuable tool to be used more widely. My preliminary research, using Department of Housing data, suggests that many towns may be as close as a single development away from securing a moratorium.

I describe the moratorium provision to you for two reasons. First, I urge you to protect the current moratorium process, which encourages the production of new affordable housing and recognizes those towns that build it. But second, the existence of the moratorium blunts some of the criticisms of 8-30g you have heard. It provides an incremental path toward 8-30g compliance: one that recognizes the differences between certain types of affordable housing, and one where towns have room to chart their own course toward affordable housing construction. The moratorium is an integral part of 8-30g. It should be protected in its own right, but it also greatly strengthens the case that the larger statute as a whole is both reasonable and effective.

² Conn. Gen. Stat. § 8-30g(l)(7).

³ Conn. Gen. Stat. § 8-30g(l)(6).

⁴ Conn. Gen. Stat. § 8-30g(l)(6)(E).

⁵ See Robert Miller, *Ridgefield to Seek Housing Moratorium*, THE NEWS-TIMES, May 31, 2014 (listing Berlin, Trumbull and Darien as current moratorium recipients); Jake Kara, *Moratorium: State Gives Town Four-Year Break From Affordable Housing Law*, RIDGEFIELD PRESS (Oct. 4, 2014).

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
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Municipalities Exempt from 8-30g (30)	Municipalities with an 8-30g Moratorium (4)
Ansonia Bloomfield Bridgeport Bristol Brooklyn Danbury Derby East Hartford East Windsor Enfield Groton Hartford Killingly Manchester Meriden Middletown New Britain New Haven New London Norwalk Norwich Plainfield Putnam Stamford Torrington Vernon Waterbury West Haven Winchester Windham	Berlin Darien Ridgefield Trumbull

Source: Connecticut Department of Housing, *available at*
http://www.ct.gov/doh/lib/doh/final_appeals_summary_2013.pdf.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC
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**Table: Housing Unit-Equivalent Points for
Moratorium Eligibility**

*Please note: These point values apply only when
calculating moratorium eligibility and not to the
calculation of the 10 percent threshold.*

Type of Unit	Point Value Per Unit
Market-rate units in a set-aside development	0.25
Elderly units, owned or rented, restricted to households at or below 80% of median income	0.50
Family units, owned, that are 80% of median income restricted to households with 60% of median income annual income no more than: 40% of median income	1.00 1.50 2.00
Family units, rented, that are 80% of median income restricted to households with 60% of median income annual income no more than: 40% of median income	1.50 2.00 2.50

Source: Conn. Regs. § 8-30g-6 (2005).

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC

YALE LAW SCHOOL

TO: Senator Gary Winfield, Co-Chairman
Representative Larry Butler, Co-Chairman
Members of the Housing Committee

FROM: Alex Taubes, Community & Economic Development Clinic, Yale Law School

DATE: February 5, 2015

RE: Sec. 8-30g Moratorium Provisions

RECOMMENDATION: Reject all proposed changes to sec. 8-30g

Reject bills No. 123; No. 171; No. 172; No. 403; No. 2138; No. 5055; No. 5056; No. 5057; No. 5254; No. 5306; 5576; No. 5577; No. 5578; No. 5579; No. 5580; No. 5581; No. 5582; No. 5802; No. 5803; No. 5804; No. 5805; No. 6126; No. 6127; No. 6128; No. 6129; No. 6130; No. 6131; No. 6135; and No. 6139.

Members of the Connecticut Housing Committee:

My name is Alex Taubes. I am a lifelong resident of Connecticut, I grew up in Fairfield and Madison, and I am a third-year student at Yale Law School. Since my first summer during law school, when I first worked in New Haven at the Ludwig Center for Community Economic Development, I have researched issues related to housing and economic opportunity in Connecticut.

I oppose all changes to Connecticut's Affordable Housing Appeals Act, § 8-30g, because Connecticut needs affordable housing, and 8-30g helps address this vital need. Connecticut's lack of affordable housing hurts our economy. Everybody knows young people are leaving. The number of people age 25-44 living in our state declined by 12.3% from 2000 to 2010.¹ Many who have already left grew up here and received a world-class education in Connecticut. They wanted to stay, but it's too expensive to live here and start a family.

The majority of students in Connecticut are graduating with significant debt.² The average Connecticut college graduate has more than \$30,000 in student debt when she leaves school.³ If we want college

¹ Compare U.S. CENSUS BUREAU, Profile of General Population and Housing Characteristics: Connecticut 2010, AMERICAN FACT FINDER, available at http://factfinder.census.gov/bkmk/table/1.0/en/DEC/10_DP/DPDP1/0400000US09 (24-44 year olds make up 904,815 residents, or 25.3% of Connecticut's 2010 population), with U.S. CENSUS BUREAU, Profile of General Demographic Characteristics: Connecticut 2000, AMERICAN FACT FINDER, available at http://factfinder.census.gov/bkmk/table/1.0/en/DEC/00_SF1/DP1/0400000US09 (24-44 year olds made up 1,032,689 residents, or 30.4% of Connecticut's 2000 population).

² Allyson Fredericksen, A Mountain of Debt, ALLIANCE FOR A JUST SOCIETY & CONN. CITIZEN ACTION GROUP (September 2014), available at http://allianceforajustsociety.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/CT_A.Mountain.of_Debt_FINAL-1.pdf, at 1.

³ Matthew Reed & Debbie Cochrane, Student Debt and the Class of 2013, INSTITUTE FOR COLLEGE ACCESS & SUCCESS: PROJECT ON STUDENT DEBT (November 2014), available at <http://projectonstudentdebt.org/files/pub/classof2013.pdf>, at 3.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC

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graduates to stay here and start families here, we need more affordable apartments, townhouses, and starter homes they can move into while they pay off their loans.

Section 8-30g allows developers to build homes for the next generation. Many market-rate apartments, townhouses, condos, and homes built because of § 8-30g are smaller, more moderately priced, and closer to transit than previous options, allowing families to save money on rent, heat, and potentially the costs of a first or a second car. By encouraging new market-rate homes to be built, Section 8-30g invites young professionals to start their families and careers in Connecticut instead of other states.

Affordable housing created because of Section 8-30g and set aside for low-income families addresses an even more vital economic need: job growth. Entry-level jobs are increasingly located in Connecticut's suburbs, like Branford or Fairfield, but most people seeking those jobs live in the cities—where housing is more affordable—without reliable access to those opportunities.⁴ Economists call this a “spatial mismatch,” and evidence suggests Connecticut has one of the worst mismatches in the country.⁵ In addition to contributing to racial and economic barriers and disparities, Connecticut's spatial mismatch is a drag on the economy.

Each day, Connecticut suburbs import thousands of workers. Police officers, firefighters, and teachers cannot afford to live in the towns they serve. Lower-wage workers like janitors, retail workers, and home care providers for seniors face even greater challenges in finding a home near their suburban jobs. DataHaven found that there are 61,000 entry-level jobs in the suburban towns near New Haven, but only 47,000 lower-income workers can afford to live in those towns.⁶ Connecting low-income workers to job openings is a significant challenge for employers in our region looking to expand.

This session you will be asked to tackle a state budget deficit. Unfortunately, forecasts suggest that budget deficits are only getting worse. In the long-term, the only way to close this gap without raising taxes or cutting spending is to grow Connecticut's economy. Section 8-30g does that, addressing a vital need: the lack of affordable housing in suburban communities is killing our state economically. Weakening or repealing 8-30g, in any of our towns, will cause more economic stagnation just when our economy is turning around.

Building more affordable housing in suburban communities not only creates construction jobs, it helps workers live where the jobs are, making it easier for people to find employment and businesses to grow. New housing can also create an incentive for more businesses to locate in our communities—bringing in revenue that can relieve property tax burdens. No one can blame Connecticut residents for fearing change. But in this modern economy, Connecticut must adapt to compete and survive. Section 8-30g is an essential tool for providing the kind of affordable housing—for low-income workers and young

⁴ Mark Abraham, How Transportation Problems Keep People Out of the Workforce in Greater New Haven, GREATER NEW HAVEN JOB ACCESS AND TRANSPORTATION WORKING GROUP & DATA HAVEN (December 2014), available at http://www.neighborhoodindicators.org/sites/default/files/publications/datahaven_transprpt_web_pgs.pdf, at 4.

⁵ Michael A. Stoll, Job Sprawl and the Spatial Mismatch between Blacks and Jobs, BROOKINGS INSTITUTION (February 2005), available at http://www.brookings.edu/~media/research/files/reports/2005/2/metropolitanpolicy%20stoll/20050214_jobsprawl.pdf, at 5, 10.

⁶ Abraham, note 4, at 4.

COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CLINIC

YALE LAW SCHOOL

professionals alike—that Connecticut’s economy needs. If we want a vital, prosperous, growing Connecticut, we need Section 8-30g.