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Chapter 1 : Economic scarring: The long-term impacts of the recession | Economic Policy Institute

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However, there is still much that can be done to reduce the amount and slow the growth of energy consumption in residential and commercial buildings. This chapter describes how energy is used in buildings today and discusses the factors that have driven the growth of energy use. It then identifies opportunities for improving energy efficiency in the near term through as well as the medium term through “ The chapter presents conservation supply curves that show the amount of energy that could be saved as a function of the cost of the saved energy and describes how whole-building approaches can produce new buildings with very low energy consumption. It reviews the market barriers to improving energy efficiency in buildings and presents some factors that are helping to overcome the barriers. Finally, the chapter presents the findings of the Panel on Energy Efficiency Technologies with regard to the potential for greater efficiency in residential and commercial buildings. Page 42 Share Cite Suggested Citation: The National Academies Press. Page 43 Share Cite Suggested Citation: On the commercial side, there were approximately 75 billion square feet 7 billion square meters of floor space in 5 million commercial buildings as of EIA, b. The building stock is long-lived: Nonetheless, there have been significant changes in energy use and energy efficiency in buildings over the past 30 years. Energy use in buildings has increased over the past 30 years, but at a rate slower than the rate of increases in gross domestic product GDP. As shown in Figure 2. Primary energy use accounting for losses in electricity generation and transmission and distribution, and for fuels, such as natural gas, used on-site has increased faster than delivered energy use which does not account for such losses, but does include fuels used on-site because use of electricity has increased faster than use of other fuels. Data from EIA, b. Page 44 Share Cite Suggested Citation: This difference is due to the growing electrification of energy use in homes. In , direct fuel use in homes was four times that of electricity use in terms of end-use energy content, but by this ratio had fallen to about 1. Understanding the potential for improvements in building energy efficiency requires detailed energy-use data beyond those presented in Figures 2. Unfortunately, much of the available data on energy use in buildings is based on self-reporting or inferences rather than on direct measurement, and estimates of uncertainties around the data are seldom available. Expanded data gathering, particularly through direct measurement, would facilitate more rigorous evaluation of energy efficiency measures and would contribute to the accuracy and completeness of future studies. Growth in the use of a variety of electrical appliances is one factor contributing to the growth of energy use in buildings in recent decades. During this period the percentage of households having central air-conditioning more than doubled, and the penetration of microwave ovens increased by more than a factor of six and that of dishwashers by 57 percent. Personal computer use was essentially nonexistent in , yet by , 68 percent of all U. In addition, 56 percent of households had cable television service, nearly 22 percent had a satellite dish antenna, and more than 27 percent of households had at least one large-screen television as of DOE, Compared with the residential sector, the commercial sector experienced much faster growth in energy use over the period “ As in the residential sector, the growing electrification of energy use in the commercial sector led to a faster rise in primary energy use than in delivered-energy use DOE, a. This measure does not account for the losses incurred in generating and transmitting and distributing the electricity. Page 45 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Data for personal computers are unavailable before Department of Energy, Energy Information Administration. Households, Selected Years, “”, available at <http://> However, the rate of decline depends on how energy intensity is measured. Total delivered-energy use per household fell 31 percent over the period “”, while primary energy use per household fell 16 percent Table 2. Although household size in terms of square feet of floor area has been increasing, leading to a steeper decline in primary energy use per square foot of floor area DOE, a , the

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number of people living in a typical household declined from 2. Thus primary energy use per household member remained relatively constant over the period 1960-1990. Smaller households use less absolute energy than larger households do, but more energy is used per person in the former. Primary energy use accounting for losses in electricity generation and transmission and distribution and for fuels, such as natural gas, used on-site has increased faster than delivered energy use which does not account for such losses but does include fuels used on-site because use of electricity has increased faster than use of other fuels. A geographic shift in population e. Energy intensity tends to be lower in the latter regions, especially on a delivered-energy basis. Improvements in energy efficiency resulting from the adoption of efficiency standards for appliances and the offering of utility-sponsored and government-sponsored demand-side management DSM programs also helped reduce residential energy intensity Battles and Hojjati, Page 47 Share Cite Suggested Citation:

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Chapter 2 : Taking on Class and Racial Discrimination in Housing

*Residential Consumption, Economic Opportunity and Race (Studies in population) [Franklin D. Wilson] on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. The Origins of the Urban Crisis: Race and Inequality in Postwar.*

Essays or Class Discussion Choose several of the following questions for students to answer, either as an in-class discussion or as homework assignments. Their responses should draw from the film, the readings and their class discussions. In the film, legal scholar John A. White is getting the spoils of a racist system even if they are not personally racist. Why or why not? We all like to think we made it because of our own grit, merit and hard work. How have whites benefited from their race in ways that others have not? We like to think that anyone can "pull themselves up by their own bootstraps" in America. What difference does access to financial and other resources make? Why should white people be concerned about the wealth gap? How might we as a society address this problem? Supreme Court Justice Harry Blackmun wrote, "To overcome racism, one first must take race into account. Do you agree or disagree, and why? Some people believe that the government should pay reparations to the African American community as compensation for past economic injustices. Steps to Narrow the Wealth Gap This activity can serve as a culminating assessment activity. Divide the class into small groups that will research policies to narrow the wealth gap and then make recommendations to the President of the United States. Consider grouping students the same way you did for the Jigsaw Readings Activity 4 since those groups will already have some experience discussing the issues with each other. Give students up to a week to develop their proposals. Ask them to present their specific policy recommendations to the class in the form of a minute Presidential Briefing. Distribute and read the following directions to the students: What can I do about that? The President has invited you to the White House to make a minute presentation recommending specific policies to narrow the racial wealth gap. This is a unique opportunity to influence national policy. Research and brainstorm specific policy ideas that you believe can make a difference. The Briefing should describe the problem and provide background as to what led to the racial wealth gap, including a brief history and supporting statistics. Next, present two or three policy recommendations for addressing the problem. Discuss their strengths and weaknesses. This analysis should include the costs to the country if the reform is NOT undertaken. Each policy group will present their Briefing to the class. The presentation should include charts and graphs and other documentary evidence and take between minutes. What guidelines and laws must they observe to prevent these activities today? Review college financial aid applications for references to assets and income. Do an Internet search to find out how much weight colleges usually give to assets, including homes, versus income when calculating aid packages. Who benefits the most? Research the short and long-term impact of the Civil Rights Act of Find out more details on Levittown and its developer, Arthur Levitt. Research two or three programs aimed at eliminating concentrated poverty. What is their approach? Have they been successful? Assign each group of students a region of at least 20 census tracts to explore: Divide the tracts assigned to your group into four categories, either by color or another graphic device: This is a complicated, several-step procedure. First, download a Census tract map of your county from the U. Then, do an Internet search for "population and race data by census tract" for your county. This data will be presented by chart not map, and as populations not percentages. Calculate the white percentage for each tract and write the percentage on your map in the appropriate tract. Finally, color-code your map by the four categories. Take the real estate section of the local newspaper, a local home sales booklet or from the Internet. Locate three or more homes for sale from each of your four categories of percentage-white neighborhoods. Mark the location of each home for sale on the map with pins or colored dots. Compose a graph that allows you to represent and compare your data visually for each of the four neighborhood ethnicity categories. Each group should discuss their findings by answering the following questions, then present their findings to the whole class: What kind of patterns do you detect?

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Drawing from the film and the readings, what might be some possible explanations for those differences? Research the Downward Spiral It is a commonly understood that homes in non-white neighborhoods are generally worth less than homes in white neighborhoods. And what are the implications for those living in non-white neighborhoods? In the final episode of the RACE series, we learn that when affluent white homeowners left Roosevelt, Long Island, so did businesses and services. The tax base declined and the property tax burden on those remaining rose. The county began moving welfare families into Roosevelt. Can you detect similar patterns in non-white neighborhoods that went into decline in your region? First explore "The Downward Spiral" section of the series companion Web site by clicking [here](#). Choose a local neighborhood that has fallen on hard times over the past 50 years as it turned from white to non-white. Have students conduct a neighborhood "oral history" by interviewing knowledgeable residents, merchants and community leaders. Students might try finding them through community centers, barbershops and salons, and the aides to local city council members or county aldermen. Students should try to get under the surface of things: When did these changes begin to occur? Are supermarkets and other shopping conveniently located? How do prices and selection compare to surrounding areas? What kind of businesses predominate in the neighborhood? What jobs are available? How do public transportation options compare to surrounding neighborhoods? What about other public services? Is there a disproportionate amount of public housing sited in the neighborhood? What about toxic dumps and power plants that might affect health and property values? How do residents feel about neighborhood safety, police protection from criminals and drug dealers? How do they feel about the responsiveness of public officials to their problems? What happened to the local schools? What are the biggest challenges facing the community? How are community members working to solve these challenges? Or search the series companion Web site using the key words "origins of race," "net worth," "housing," "accumulated wealth," and "institutional racism. Inside Scoop, September at [www. National Council on Economic Education](http://www.NationalCouncilonEconomicEducation.com), [www. National Council on Economic Education](http://www.NationalCouncilonEconomicEducation.com). On the social creation of scarcity. Muhammad, Dedrick et al. Enduring Disparities in Black and White. An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations. National Council on Economic Education: National Standards at [http: Most choices involve doing a little more or a little less of something: Allocation of Goods and Services](http://www.NationalCouncilonEconomicEducation.com) Different methods can be used to allocate goods and services. People acting individually or collectively through government, must choose which methods to use to allocate different kinds of goods and services Standard 7: Markets - Price and Quantity Determination Markets exist when buyers and sellers interact. This interaction determines market prices and thereby allocates scarce goods and services. Role of Price in Market System Prices send signals and provides incentives to buyers and sellers. When supply or demand changes, market prices adjust, affecting incentives. Role of Economic Institutions Institutions evolve in market economies to help individuals and groups accomplish their goals. Banks, labor unions, corporations, legal systems, and not-for-profit organizations are examples of important institutions. A different kind of institution, clearly defined and enforced property rights, is essential to a market economy. Growth Investment in factories, machinery, new technology, and in the health, education, and training of people can raise future standards of living.

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Chapter 3 : Race, Place, and Opportunity

effects of race on housing markets and labor market opportunities, but this was not always the case. Through what can be seen as a consistent and integrated research plan.

Youth health[edit] Adolescent health has been proven to be influenced by both structural and proximal determinants, but structural determinants play the more significant role. Structural determinants such as national wealth, income inequality, and access to education have been found to affect adolescent health. Access to education was determined to be the most influential structural determinant affecting adolescent health. Proximal determinants include household and community factors, such as household environment, familial relationships, peer relationships, access to adequate food, and opportunities for recreation and activity. Family affluence also influences participation in regular physical activity. While nutrition and physical activity promote physical well-being, both promote psychological health as well. Family affluence also affects access to healthcare services; however, in countries with universal healthcare systems, youth belonging to less-affluent households still display poorer health than adolescents from wealthier families. Low maternal socioeconomic status has been correlated with low infant birth weight and preterm delivery, [23] physical complications such as ectopic pregnancy, poorer infant physical condition, compromised immune system and increased susceptibility to illness, and prenatal infant death. Poverty can overpower race, but within poverty, race highly contributes to health outcomes. Recognition of race as a determining factor for poor health without recognizing poverty has misled individuals to believe race is the only factor. According to Mirowsky and Ross, education determines other factors of livelihood like occupation and income that determines income, which determines health outcomes. All countries included in Fig. Informal work can threaten health through its precarious job instability, lack of regulation to protect working conditions and occupational health and safety. This can be attributed to governmental, environmental, geographical, and cultural factors. Using life expectancy as a measure of health indicates a difference between countries in likeliness of living to a certain age. Where people are born dramatically impacts their life chances. High-income countries like Japan or Sweden have a life expectancy of 80 years, Brazil , India Urban areas present health risks through poor living conditions, limited food resources, traffic accidents, and pollution. Obesity is a paramount problem, especially among the poor and socially disadvantaged, in cities worldwide, according to the WHO Hawkes et al. Violence and crime are major urban health challenges. Individuals in ghettos and urban areas are the most affected by traffic injuries and vehicle-created air pollution, which causes , annual deaths due to air pollution, and 1. Living in a ghetto increases the likelihood of developing a mental illness, especially in children. People in this environment are less likely to receive effective mental health services. Children exposed to ongoing poverty, present in a ghetto, present a high level of depression, anxiety, social withdrawal, peer conflict and aggression. In the United States, HIV is more prevalent in cities along the east coast, with prevalence among African-American women in cities 5 to 15 times higher than for women in all areas of that state. Since health of a population increases in geographical locations that have a higher prevalence of primary care physicians, [1] rural areas face worse health. According to certain studies, measures of health and well-being indicate that rural populations have worse health outcomes. Since low living standards greatly influence health inequity, generous social protection systems result in greater population health, with lower mortality rates, especially in disadvantaged populations. Health care costs can pose absolutely serious threats to impoverished populations, especially in countries without proper social provisions. Poor and unequal living conditions result from deeper structural conditions, including "poor social policies and programs, unfair economic arrangements, and bad politics," [1] that determine the way societies are organized. The structure of the global system causes inequality and systematic suffering of higher death rates, which is caused by inequity in distribution of opportunities and resources, which is termed structural violence. With the power of improved distal interventions, the only way to close this outcome gap between countries who do and do not have access to

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effective treatment, lies on proximal interventions to reduce the factors contributing to health problems that arise from structural violence.

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Chapter 4 : RACE - The Power of an Illusion . Go Deeper | PBS

If the U.S. took a more proactive role in supporting the Kigali Amendment and more efficient cooling, it would reduce the risk of America ceding this economic opportunity to international competitors.

PinIt Instapaper Pocket Email Print We live our lives trying to gain as much opportunity as our circumstances will allow. Space and place have always been important to pathways and roadblocks to opportunity, but they became even more important for the distribution of opportunity after World War II, when national policies began to shape the racial dimensions of housing and economic development. Today, we live with the legacies of a deliberately segregated past. Where you live usually determines the school your children attend, your degree of neighborhood safety, your access to public transportation or highways, the availability and quality of finance and credit, your employment opportunities, and your social network. These spatial arrangements of opportunity are contoured by our past, and if not changed, they will have serious implications for our future. The geography of opportunity has significant influence on the choices available to us as well as on the shape of the culture we inhabit. Unfortunately, in our society these arrangements continue to carry a footprint of race whether currently intended or not. These differences play out not only in our neighborhoods but also at the city and state levels. At all levels, places with the weakest support for schools, unemployment insurance, and health benefits tend to be geographically and racially concentrated. There is a strong correlation among location, weak economic opportunity, and race. Blacks are generally segregated from opportunity through use of space. Although the majority of the poor are white, most of those living in concentrated poverty are black. Conversely, to live in a neighborhood or a state with a solid tax base and good amenities produces a favorable opportunity structure; the life chances of you and your family will be enhanced -- even if you are low-income. But if you are black or Latino -- even if working- or middle-class -- you are much more likely to live in a neighborhood or state with a weak opportunity structure than you would be if you were white. A myriad of public policies and private practices create these spatial opportunity structures and sort people into them. Where blacks live in large numbers, whether in a particular state or region, or a rural or urban area within a region, those places tend to be underfunded and with weak institutions. Even if someone from one of these stressed areas can get to a job site, there is growing evidence that he or she will face discrimination not just based on race but also based on places or zip codes where blacks are most likely to live. A family living in this environment must overcome cumulative factors that expose its members to mutually reinforcing constraints. The interaction of different conditions in the environment cannot be explained by just focusing on individuals. Looking at systems, we can understand that causation is multiple, mutual, cumulative, and reciprocal, and the relationships among different factors are just as important as the factors themselves. For example, poor schools limit employment options, and limited employment options for parents mean that their children are more likely to wind up in poor schools. So outcomes are not "caused" by a particular input schools but are produced by the reciprocal interactions of various inputs schools, neighborhoods, jobs, crime. Five decades of social-science research has documented the relationships between racially and economically isolated neighborhoods and employment, health, crime and violence, educational outcomes, and a range of other factors. A systems approach brings into view ways in which outcomes produced within the system spill across societal settings, accumulating across institutional domains and over time. Racially and economically isolated housing markets and public schools contribute to segregated labor markets, reinforcing the existing economic and racial segregation that is now embedded into many metropolitan regions. Housing location, for example, is one of the primary mechanisms for accessing opportunity in our society. Spatial segregation is opportunity segregation. Americans should not have been surprised or confused as to why so many of the families stranded in New Orleans just happened to be black. Racial segregation was historically legislated, through direct and indirect means, into the very fabric of our communities. And its legacy continues to undermine our individual and communal choices and our capacities to elevate ourselves and our neighborhoods. From the s on, the

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federal government facilitated disinvestment in areas where blacks lived, channeled money into whiter suburbs, and promoted special segregation. Public investment and disinvestment created a template for private action. The federal government accelerated the suburban migration -- for whites only -- by subsidizing home mortgages for whites through the National Housing Act of 1934. The agency instructed personnel not to insure mortgages on homes unless they were in "racially homogenous" white neighborhoods. Under these guidelines, the FHA actually refused to lend money to or underwrite loans for whites if they moved to areas where people of color lived. Private lenders adopted policies conforming to FHA guidelines, and this system became part of the "free market. Shortly thereafter, the Federal Aid Highway Act of 1956 sanctioned the creation of a state-funded highway system subsidizing "white flight" from the city, demarcating neighborhoods along racial lines, destroying African American neighborhoods, and transporting jobs out of urban areas. A systems approach helps us to see how these arrangements set in place in the 1950s and 1960s are showing up today. After the war, government housing and lending patterns created areas where credit and other resources were denied, sometimes referred to as redlining. This practice of redlining set up the conditions for the concentration of sub-prime and predatory lending in racially isolated space. Targeting sub-prime loans to undercapitalized communities of color today is referred to as reverse redlining, which would not have been possible today without the redlining decades ago. So-called reverse redlining could only occur if there were deliberate redlining in the past. Earlier racial practices inscribed in space and place prefigured the current racial dimension of foreclosures and the credit meltdown today. These consequences of this current crisis will likely have powerful implications for spatial and racial arrangements of opportunity in the future. A systems approach helps us to understand how processes are translated through time. Although the FHA removed explicitly racist language from its manuals in the 1960s, real-estate agents and firms, private appraisal associations, and banks continued to use such language. Even after these overtly racist practices in lending were declared unconstitutional, their legacy prompted private companies to engage in redlining, which continued to produce patterns of racial segregation and influence ostensibly private decisions. This denial of homeownership to people of color and reinforcement of neighborhood segregation has had severe intergenerational effects on wealth accumulation. These and other policies not only facilitated the movement of whites, they also segregated the movement of opportunity. Much of the spatial segregation that we experience today along with concentrated racial poverty occurred after the start of the civil-rights movement. Even while the courts and other government-policy organs were dismantling Jim Crow, government was creating new racial barriers through the use of space. This had the effect of not only sorting people racially but also steering private investments away from racially identifiable places. For example, today we use public money under the low-income housing tax credit to place housing for low-income families of color in neighborhoods far from job sites and near failing schools. The racial redlining from the 1930s and 1940s still reverberates as predatory lending targeted to blacks by sub-prime lenders and has had disastrous results now sending shockwaves through the entire global financial system. Place also matters in the economic restructuring in the United States from an industrial base to a post-industrial, service economy. The losses in manufacturing have often meant a shift in the location of decently paying entry-level jobs from racially mixed urban cores to mostly white suburban peripheries. And region also matters. It turns out that deindustrialization led to significant increases in urban concentrated poverty in Northern metropolitan areas but had less of an effect in the South. The reason may be that industrial jobs outside of the North paid less well to begin with because of differential rates of unionization. These arrangements were racially inscribed with spatial implications for the structure of opportunity and inequality. The South was a region of one-party Democratic dominance from post-Reconstruction until the 1960s. Southern senators enjoyed seniority in Congress and controlled the flow of legislation. Since they were also a critical part of the New Deal coalition, their acquiescence to the New Deal programs was necessary for passage. For example, the National Labor Relations Act, a revolutionary labor law that protected the right of unions to organize, excluded farmworkers and maids, occupational categories open to African Americans in a racially restricted labor market. Even today, the South has more anti-union

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legislation and lower union representation, a reality that has implications for black workers. So-called "right to work" laws making it much harder to organize unions exist in 22 states, half of which are former slave states. Right-to-work states have an average union percentage of 6. These are also the states with the weakest welfare and unemployment benefits. Even supposedly universal policies bear the mark of New Deal racial accommodation. The Social Security Act initially excluded domestic and agricultural workers from the purportedly universal social insurance plan, again to accommodate Southern resistance. Most critically, the unemployment insurance provisions, such as Aid to Families With Dependent Children AFDC provisions were designed to ensure local control by sharing costs with the states, which in turn had discretion in setting benefit levels. Of the 20 lowest-paying states, 13 are former slave states, and all but seven have black labor-force populations of more than 10 percent. As with AFDC, the distribution of benefits is state-controlled. For racially marginalized populations, particularly those who live in concentrated-poverty neighborhoods, there are multiple reinforcing constraints. Although whites may have equally high poverty rates, they are more likely to experience sporadic or temporary poverty by comparison to racially marginalized populations, and they are not as spatially isolated as low-income blacks and Latinos are. For any given issue -- whether it is employment rates, housing, incarceration, or health care -- the challenge is to appreciate how these issues interact and accumulate over time, with place as the linchpin holding these arrangements together. Universal policies that are nominally race-neutral and that focus on specific issues such as school reform will rarely be effective because of the cumulative cascade of issues that encompass these neighborhoods. What is required is a strategy of "targeted universalism. To improve opportunities and living conditions for all residents in a region, we need policies to proactively connect people to jobs, stable housing, and good schools. Targeted universalism recognizes that life is lived in a web of opportunity. Only if we address all of the mutually reinforcing constraints on opportunity can we expect real progress in any one factor. My research suggests targeted efforts -- ones that target both racial and spatial arrangements -- to break this cycle of the racial dimension of the geography of opportunity. Cardinal Francis George more succinctly refers to these practices as spatial racism. Stephen Menendian, Christy Rogers, and Caitlin Watt contributed research assistance for this article.

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Chapter 5 : Social inequality - Wikipedia

Racial residential segregation is a fundamental cause of racial disparities in health. The physical separation of the races by enforced residence in certain areas is an institutional mechanism of racism that was designed to protect whites from social interaction with blacks.

Overview[edit] Social inequality is found in almost every society. In tribal societies, for example, a tribal head or chieftain may hold some privileges, use some tools, or wear marks of office to which others do not have access, but the daily life of the chieftain is very much like the daily life of any other tribal member. Anthropologists identify such highly egalitarian cultures as " kinship -oriented", which appear to value social harmony more than wealth or status. These cultures are contrasted with materially oriented cultures in which status and wealth are prized and competition and conflict are common. Kinship-oriented cultures may actively work to prevent social hierarchies from developing because they believe that could lead to conflict and instability. As social complexity increases, inequality tends to increase along with a widening gap between the poorest and the most wealthy members of society. People with special skills were not viewed as superior compared to the rest. The leaders do not have the power they only have influence. The norms and the beliefs the egalitarian society holds are for sharing equally and equal participation. Simply there are no classes. Ranked society mostly is agricultural communities who hierarchically grouped from the chief who is viewed to have a status in the society. In this society, people are clustered regarding status and prestige and not by access to power and resources. The chief is the most influential person followed by his family and relative, and those further related to him are less ranked. Stratified society is societies which horizontally ranked into the upper class, middle class, and lower class. The classification is regarding wealth, power, and prestige. The upper class are mostly the leaders and are the most influential in the society. The social status is also hereditary from one generation to the next. Political inequality is the difference brought about by the ability to access federal resources which therefore have no civic equality. In treatment and responsibility difference some people are more benefited and can quickly receive more privileged than others. In working stations, some are given more responsibilities and hence better compensations and more benefits than the rest even when equally qualified. Membership inequality this is the number of members in a family, nation or of faith. Life inequality is brought about by the disparity of opportunities if presented they improves a person life quality. Finally, the income and wealth inequality is the disparity due to what an individual can earn on a daily basis contributing to their total revenue either monthly or yearly. In health care, some individuals receive better and more professional care compared to others. They are also expected to pay more for these services. Social class differential comes evident during the public gathering where upper-class people given the best places to seat, the hospitality they receive and the first priorities they receive. Ascribed characteristics are those present at birth or assigned by others and over which an individual has little or no control. Examples include sex, skin colour, eye shape, place of birth, sexuality, gender identity, parentage and social status of parents. Achieved characteristics are those which we earn or choose; examples include level of education, marital status, leadership status and other measures of merit. Theoretical approaches to explaining social inequality concentrate on questions about how such social differentiations arise, what types of resources are being allocated for example, reserves versus resources , [11] what are the roles of human cooperation and conflict in allocating resources, and how do these differing types and forms of inequality affect the overall functioning of a society? The variables considered most important in explaining inequality and the manner in which those variables combine to produce the inequities and their social consequences in a given society can change across time and place. In effect, globalization reduces the distances of time and space, producing a global interaction of cultures and societies and social roles that can increase global inequities. One end of this ideological continuum can be called " Individualist ", the other " Collectivist ". Inequality provides for differing goods and services to be offered on the open market , spurs ambition, and provides incentive for

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industriousness and innovation. At the other end of the continuum, collectivists place little to no trust in "free market" economic systems, noting widespread lack of access among specific groups or classes of individuals to the costs of entry to the market. Widespread inequalities often lead to conflict and dissatisfaction with the current social order. Such ideologies include Fabianism and socialism. Inequality, in these ideologies, must be reduced, eliminated, or kept under tight control through collective regulation. While, in general, eastern societies tend toward collectivism, elements of individualism and free market organization can be found in certain regions and historical eras. Classic Chinese society in the Han and Tang dynasties, for example, while highly organized into tight hierarchies of horizontal inequality with a distinct power elite also had many elements of free trade among its various regions and subcultures. There is a change in literacy, income distribution, education and health status. The movement can be vertical or horizontal. Vertical is the upward or downward movement along social strata which occurs due to change of jobs or marriage. Horizontal movement along levels that are equally ranked. Intra-generational mobility is a social status change in a generation single lifetime. For example, a person moves from a junior staff in an organization to the senior management. The absolute management movement is where a person gains better social status than their parents, and this can be due to improved security, economic development, and better education system. Relative mobility is where some individual are expected to have higher social ranks than their parents. Under this line of thinking, adequately designed social and political institutions are seen as ensuring the smooth functioning of economic markets such that there is political stability, which improves the long-term outlook, enhances labour and capital productivity and so stimulates economic growth. With higher economic growth, net gains are positive across all levels and political reforms are easier to sustain. This may explain why, over time, in more egalitarian societies fiscal performance is better, stimulating greater accumulation of capital and higher growth. Social class is delineated by a number of variables, some of which change across time and place. For Karl Marx, there exist two major social classes with significant inequality between the two. The two are delineated by their relationship to the means of production in a given society. Those two classes are defined as the owners of the means of production and those who sell their labour to the owners of the means of production. In capitalistic societies, the two classifications represent the opposing social interests of its members, capital gain for the capitalists and good wages for the labourers, creating social conflict. Max Weber uses social classes to examine wealth and status. For him, social class is strongly associated with prestige and privileges. It may explain social reproduction, the tendency of social classes to remain stable across generations maintaining most of their inequalities as well. Such inequalities include differences in income, wealth, access to education, pension levels, social status, socioeconomic safety-net. Each of these classes can be further subdivided into smaller classes. Occupation is the primary determinant of a person class since it affects their lifestyle, opportunities, culture, and kind of people one associates with. Class based families include the lower class who are the poor in the society. They have limited opportunities. Working class are those people in blue-collar jobs and usually, affects the economic level of a nation. The upper middle class are professionals who are strong because of economic resources and supportive institutions. Social stratification is the hierarchical arrangement of society about social class, wealth, political influence. Some roles for examples doctors, engineers, lawyers are highly ranked, and thus they give orders while the rest receive the orders. Castes system usually ascribed to children during birth whereby one receives the same stratification as of that of their parents. The caste system has been linked to religion and thus permanent. The stratification may be superior or inferior and thus influences the occupation and the social roles assigned to a person. Estate system is a state or society where people in this state were required to work on their land to receive some services like military protection. Communities ranked according to the nobility of their lords. The class system is about income inequality and socio-political status. People can move the classes when they increase their level of income or if they have authority. People are expected to maximize their innate abilities and possessions. In a given society, the distribution of individual or household accumulation of wealth tells us more about variation in well-being than does income, alone. When researchers use quantitative variables such as income or wealth

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to measure inequality, on an examination of the data, patterns are found that indicate these other social variables contribute to income or wealth as intervening variables. Significant inequalities in income and wealth are found when specific socially defined categories of people are compared. It is to say that these other socially defined characteristics can, and often do, intervene in the valuation of merit. Gender inequality[edit] Gender as a social inequality is whereby women and men are treated differently due to masculinity and femininity by dividing labor, assigning roles, and responsibilities and allocating social rewards. Sex- and gender-based prejudice and discrimination , called sexism , are major contributing factors to social inequality. Most societies, even agricultural ones , have some sexual division of labour and gender-based division of labour tends to increase during industrialization. Women are underrepresented in political activities and decision making processes in most states in both the Global North and Global South. These discussions seek to identify and remedy widespread, institutionalized barriers to access for women in their societies. By making use of gender analysis , researchers try to understand the social expectations, responsibilities, resources and priorities of women and men within a specific context, examining the social, economic and environmental factors which influence their roles and decision-making capacity. By enforcing artificial separations between the social and economic roles of men and women, the lives of women and girls are negatively impacted and this can have the effect of limiting social and economic development. Transgender and gender-variant persons may express their gender through their appearance, the statements they make, or official documents they present. This effect can be seen in the corporate and bureaucratic environments of many countries, lowering the chances of women to excel. Once able to work, women should be titled to the same job security and safe working environments as men. While first-wave Liberal Feminist initiatives raised awareness about the lack of fundamental rights and freedoms that women have access to, second-wave feminism see also Radical Feminism highlighted the structural forces that underlie gender-based violence. Masculinities are generally constructed so as to subordinate femininities and other expressions of gender that are not heterosexual, assertive and dominant. These structures of masculinity ultimately contribute to the vast amounts of gendered violence, marginalization and suppression that women, queer, transgender, gender variant and gender non-conforming persons face. Others point out that patriarchal states tend to scale and claw back their social policies relative to the disadvantage of women. Racism is whereby some races are more privileged and are allowed to venture into the labor market and are better compensated than others. Ethnicity is the privilege one enjoys for belonging to a particular ethnic group. Even though race has no biological connection, it has become a socially constructed category capable of restricting or enabling social status. Racial inequality can also result in diminished opportunities for members of marginalized groups, which in turn can lead to cycles of poverty and political marginalization. Racial and ethnic categories become a minority category in a society.

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Chapter 6 : Social determinants of health in poverty - Wikipedia

RACE - The Power of an Illusion, Episode 3: "The House We Live In," is the first film on race to focus not on individual attitudes and behaviors but on the role that our institutions and public.

But Senator Cory A. Booker, who is often talked about as a presidential contender, says bad zoning laws are making housing more segregated and less affordable, and he has just introduced legislation to do something about it. Booker was born in Washington, D. These laws promote economic segregation by government fiat. People of color are hit especially hard. Moreover, exclusionary zoning feeds the affordable housing crisis. Restrictive zoning laws drive up prices by artificially restricting the supply of housing. When developers are limited in the number of new units they can build on a particular parcel of land, the basic laws of supply and demand suggest existing housing will become more expensive. The bill would promote more inclusive zoning policies in order to make housing more affordable and less segregated. Plans could include authorizing more high density and multifamily zoning and relaxing lot size restrictions. The goal is for affordable housing units to comprise not less than 20 percent of new housing stock. The legislation is being introduced as the twin challenges of housing affordability and economic housing segregation are reaching a critical stage in America. Housing also has enormous implications for criminal justice, Booker said. He and his friends in affluent Harrington Park could act out and be fine. Potential presidential candidates on the progressive side have begun diving in on the first half of the equation—the affordability question. But critics point out that proposals to put more money in the hands of consumers, while helpful, do nothing to address the exclusionary government zoning policies that are a root cause of the affordability crisis and rising economic segregation. One provision in the bill—perhaps its most controversial—encourages jurisdictions to ban the practice of landlords asking potential renters about their criminal history. Supreme Court crossed that line many years ago when it struck down racial zoning. And Booker says the federal government has a two-part responsibility. In the past, Booker has rushed to the defense of private equity managers and supported private school vouchers. When an ambitious political figure like Booker is willing to challenge exclusionary zoning—a disgraceful practice that most politicians have nevertheless been unwilling to tackle—we are surely living in interesting times.

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Chapter 7 : The Economics of Electrifying Buildings - Rocky Mountain Institute

opportunities for tertiary education, to access to a decent job as an adult. This book treats some goods and services as basic opportunities, to focus attention on those opportunities most critical to future life outcomes.

However, as a substantial body of economic literature shows, the consequences of high unemployment, falling incomes, and reduced economic activity can have lasting consequences. For example, job loss and falling incomes can force families to delay or forgo a college education for their children. Frozen credit markets and depressed consumer spending can stop the creation of otherwise vibrant small businesses. This report examines some of the evidence demonstrating the long-run consequences of recessions. Recession-induced job and income losses can have lasting consequences on individuals and families. The increase in poverty that will occur as a result of the recession, for example, will have lasting consequences for kids, and will impose long-lasting costs on the economy. The reduction in investment will lead to reduced production capacity for years to come. Furthermore, since technology is often embedded in new capital equipment, the investment slowdown can also be expected to reduce the adoption of new innovations. Entrepreneurial activity and business formation: New and small businesses are often at the forefront of technological advancement. With the credit crunch and the reduction in consumer demand, small businesses are seeing a double squeeze. For example, in 2009, 43 businesses filed for bankruptcy, up from 28 businesses in 2008 and more than double the 19 filings in 2007. Only 21 active firms had an initial public offering in 2009, down from an average of 25 in the four years prior. There is also substantial evidence that economic outcomes are passed across generations. As such, economic hardships for parents will mean more economic hurdles for their children. While it is often said that deficits can cause transfers of wealth from future generations of taxpayers to the present, this cost must also be compared with the economic consequences of recessions that are also passed to future generations. This analysis also suggests that efforts to stimulate the economy can be very effective over both the short- and long-run. Using a simple illustrative accounting framework, it is shown that an economic stimulus can lead to a short-run boost in output that outweighs the additional interest costs of the associated debt increase. This is especially true over a short horizon. A recession, therefore, should not be thought of as a one-time event that stresses individuals and families for a couple of years. Rather, economic downturns will impact the future prospects of all family members, including children, and will have consequences for years to come. The Obama administration has projected that the package would create or save 3 million jobs. The impact of the package will likely reach well beyond short-term job creation. The increased spending will stimulate the broader economy, leading to greater economic output, greater national income, and a consequent boost in federal revenue which would offset some of the initial cost. This boost to overall economic activity will also have long-term benefits to the economy by averting many of the costs that come along with recessions. And because the package also includes public investments in areas such as transportation infrastructure, energy efficiency, and education, it will yield economic dividends in years to come. Too often the costs and benefits of fiscal stimulus are compared on unequal footing. The initial price tag of the recovery package, for example, is frequently portrayed as a one-time cost in revenue that would yield a one-time boost to the economy. However, the reality is that both the costs and benefits have ripple effects that should be considered over the long term. For example, economically stressed families find it more difficult to start new businesses, send their kids to college, or train for a new career. New entrants into the labor market are more likely to be un- or under-employed, which can have a lasting impact on their career paths and future income. An immediate boost to the economy in the near term can thus have lasting effects. Since the recovery package is funded through deficit spending as it should be in order to maximize its impact, the true cost is spread out over a long period of time as well. Further, it is often said that deficits can cause transfers of wealth from future generations of taxpayers to the present. While true, this cost must also be compared with the economic consequences of recessions that are also passed to future generations. This Briefing Paper examines the potential long-run

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implications of the recession on families, businesses, and the economy. Short-term economic conditions can and do have long-lasting effects, including on: This report then uses a simple accounting framework to better judge the impacts on the economy. Such an analysis clearly shows that a temporary increase in federal spending—especially during an economic downturn—leads to an increase in national income in the near term, while spreading out the costs over many years. An evaluation of the recovery package should thus include the short-term boost to gross domestic product GDP and jobs; the long-term benefits of avoiding the scarring of a more severe recession; and the long-term interest costs of adding to the national debt rather than the short-term fiscal impact. However, economists have long recognized that short-run economic conditions can have lasting impacts. The following sections detail some of what is known about how recessions can lead to long-term damage. Economic damage Recessions result in higher unemployment, lower wages and incomes, and lost opportunities more generally. Education, private capital investments, and economic opportunity are all likely to suffer in the current downturn, and the effects will be long-lived. While economies often see rapid growth during recovery periods as unused capacity is returned to work, the drag due to the long-term damage will still prevent the recovery from reaching its full potential. Recessions can impact educational achievement in a number of ways. First, a substantial body of literature addresses the importance of early childhood education see, e. For example, Dahl and Lochner find a direct effect of family income on math and reading test scores. Furthermore, there is evidence that early childhood nutrition impacts cognitive development. Studies in developing countries have shown that improved nutrition can lead to greater grade attainment, reading comprehension, cognitive abilities, and ultimately wages later in life see, e. The Dahl and Lochner results also suggest that the income impact is larger for families with younger children. In a recession—when many families face financial hardships and poverty is rising—childhood nutrition can suffer. In , 13 million U. These numbers will almost certainly increase through as unemployment rises and incomes fall. Second, educational achievement is determined by a number of factors outside of the school environment. For example, health services—from pre-natal care to dental and optometric care—can eliminate barriers to educational achievement. After-school and summer educational activities also affect in-school achievement and learning. Forced housing dislocations—and in the extreme, homelessness—impact educational outcomes as well. All of these influences on educational success are clearly shaped by economic downturns. The number of people without health insurance in was With poverty over 14 million kids in and foreclosures 4. Finally, families struggling to get by are often forced to delay or abandon plans for continuing education. A survey conducted in Colorado found that a quarter of parents with children in two-year colleges had planned on sending their kids to four-year institutions before the recession CollegeInvest This delay or reduction in college attendance is costly. Not only does college attendance yield higher earnings, lower unemployment, and other benefits to the individual, but it also conveys myriad social benefits as well, including better health outcomes, lower incarceration rates, greater volunteerism rates, etc. It is also important to note that the increased educational struggles for many kids and young adults will have lasting effects. Not only does increased educational success lead to higher wages and incomes for individuals and their families down the road Card, but it also leads to a greater likelihood of educational achievement for their offspring Hertz et al. Figure A shows how higher-income parents are more likely to have children who complete college, and Figure B shows the high degree of correlation between parents and children in educational attainment both in the United States and abroad. As such, the economic downturn will have an impact lasting not just for years, but for generations. Opportunity There can be no doubt that recessions and high levels of unemployment lead to reduced economic opportunity for individuals and families. Job loss, reductions in incomes, and increases in poverty all result in losses to individuals and the broader economy. To take just one example of lost opportunity, recent research has found that college graduates entering into the workforce during a recession will earn less than those entering in non-recessionary environments. Surprisingly, the findings also suggest that the income loss is not temporary: Non-college graduates are likely to fare worse. While unemployment in the most recent recession has increased for all groups, those with less

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education and those with lower incomes face much higher rates than others. Job loss In the current recession, the unemployment rate has increased from 4. There are currently about 15 million people who are unemployed—twice the number as at the start of the recession—with roughly 1 in 6 workers un- or underemployed. About 5 million workers have been unemployed for more than six months, and these long-term unemployed are the highest percentage of the total since The income loss can persist for years, even after a new job is taken often at a lower salary. Although the literature on the impact of job loss is too extensive to detail here, it is worth noting the evidence presented by Farber Using results from the Displaced Workers Survey through , Farber finds that a job separation is costly: It is also important to note that how one fares in a recession depends on a variety of factors. For example, older workers tend to be over-represented among the long-term unemployed when compared with other age groups. Poverty and wealth Simply put, poverty is not good for the economy. When children grow up in poverty, they are more likely, later in life, to have low earnings, commit crimes, and have poor health. There is significant evidence that poverty has lasting consequences for kids, including educational achievement, cognitive development, and emotional and behavioral outcomes. Wealth also shapes economic opportunities, providing a lifeline when times are tough such as a recession and can finance additional education, retraining, or the startup costs of a new business. Unfortunately, a large share of the country has little in the way of wealth: This problem is even more severe for certain populations: Economic mobility As noted above, inter-generational mobility—or the lack thereof—can lead to persistent impacts of recessions. Poorer families can lead to less opportunity and worse economic outcomes for their children through a variety of mechanisms—be it through nutrition, educational attainment, or access to wealth. A recession, therefore, should not be thought as a one-time event that stresses individuals and families for a couple of years. More directly related to job loss, Oreopoulos et al. Economists have long recognized the central role of investment and technology as key contributors to economic growth. This is a result of at least four factors. Finally, we must also consider the interaction between human and physical capital. Technology is often embedded in new physical equipment: Over the period, annualized quarterly non-residential investment has averaged 4. As the figure shows, investment contracts significantly during recessions.

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Chapter 8 : RACE - The Power of an Illusion . For Teachers | PBS

The moral case against racial inequality in the U.S. is pretty simple. When we don't give equal opportunity to minority kids, we deny them a full future. When better jobs are kept out of reach of.

View a print-friendly version of *The Downward Spiral*. In the United States, buying a home is the key to achieving the American Dream. Forty-two percent of the net worth of all households consists of equity in their homes - that means for most Americans, their homes are their single largest asset. Homeownership provides families with the means to invest in education, business opportunities, retirement and resources for the next generation. When the federal government stepped in to make it possible for most Americans to finance the purchase of their own home, they essentially paved the way for millions of average white Americans to begin their own wealth-building. But the policies they endorsed made it very difficult for minorities to attain the same resources and opportunities, resulting in deeply segregated communities and an enormous wealth gap between whites and nonwhites that persists to this day. In 2000, the median white family had over 8 times the net worth of the median Black family. The gap is even greater for Latinos - the median white household has over 12 times the wealth of the median Latino family. Race, wealth and life opportunities are intertwined in the United States. Today, white and nonwhite communities are still "separate and unequal" and the gap continues to grow, long after the Civil Rights era. Wealth, and the opportunities it affords, is passed down through successive generations. Along with it, Americans have also inherited a legacy of inequality that continues to shape the future. Segregation and the wealth gap between whites and nonwhites did not arise on their own. And because they are so deeply entrenched in the institutions that structure our society, they will not fade away by simply outlawing discriminatory policies. The only areas that have become more integrated since are cities with small minority populations. On the whole, segregation is highest in the major metropolitan areas of the Midwest and Northeast and lower in the West and South. The urban populace is becoming increasingly Latino and Asian, with a slight increase in Black residents. According to the Lewis Mumford Center at the University of Albany, segregation has increased in almost every large suburban area from 1970 to 2000. Across the nation, four out of five whites live outside of the cities and 86 percent of whites live in neighborhoods where minorities make up less than 1 percent of the population. In contrast, 70 percent of Blacks and Latinos live in the cities or inner-ring suburbs. The proportion is similar when you compare homeowners by race - in 2000, 74 percent of whites were homeowners, while only 45 percent of Latinos, 46 percent of Blacks and 51 percent of Asians owned their homes. Whites are still the most segregated of all racial groups, have the largest suburban presence and are most likely to own their homes. African Americans continue to be highly segregated and as Latinos and Asians gain a larger share of the population, they are becoming increasingly segregated from whites as well. When whites relocated to the suburbs, their strong tax base and businesses followed. As white communities continue the trend of isolating themselves and their resources, the pattern of flight and divestment repeats, and the wealth gap grows larger. Communities cannot be expected to accomplish integrated, stable neighborhoods on their own. In a study by the Harvard Civil Rights Project, analysts found evidence of an overwhelming trend toward school district resegregation. Court-ordered busing once made Southern schools the most integrated in the country. However, when many of these programs expired in the 1990s, the proportion of Black students in majority-white schools decreased by 13 percent. Until the problem of residential seclusion is addressed, schools will continue to resegregate by default. What about the Chinatowns, Little Ethiopias and other ethnic enclaves? People sometimes assume that certain ethnic or racial groups segregate themselves "voluntarily," but there are many factors involved. These groups often face discrimination when they try to enter established, primarily white communities. Limited job and economic opportunities, language barriers, and shared culture can also influence many groups to cluster. Ethnic enclaves, however, are very different from impoverished urban ghettos. Apart from "first-settlement" immigrant neighborhoods, rarely do ethnic groups ever become as highly concentrated as many Black

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communities. Ethnic groups can tap into various types of resources unavailable to areas of concentrated poverty: Furthermore, ethnic enclaves are more transitory in nature - as stepping stones to entering more privileged, resource-rich communities. Still, many groups such as Latinos and Asians will face more barriers based on racial discrimination as they look to move out. Confronted with racially discriminatory policies, minorities could not take advantage of the programs that made it possible for millions of people to buy homes in the suburbs. People of color remained in the cities while they witnessed their white counterparts leave in droves. Today, mostly minority inner cities are characterized by the unique phenomenon of concentrated poverty. Inner-city residents face intense spatial isolation and inadequate public resources, education and economic opportunities. As more and more people leave, costs for basic services rise and the poor become even poorer. The average inner city consists of abandoned buildings, total business disinvestment, and resource-depleted schools leaving it vulnerable to violent crime, prostitution, and drugs. By the time anti-discriminatory laws were passed, suburban whites were enjoying soaring property values and minorities now faced the economic barriers that replaced those initially created by race. Moreover, after decades of segregation, a culture of poverty has become associated with people of color - particularly African Americans. Inner-city residents are not only surrounded by crime, drugs, homelessness and poverty, they are blamed for it. In , The Federal Reserve Bank of Boston released a study showing that Black and Latino mortgage applicants are 60 percent more likely to be turned down for loans than whites, even when they share similar employment and financial backgrounds. Latino applicants were denied percent as often as whites - up from percent in . According to a Department of Housing and Urban Development study, high-cost loans are offered five times more often in Black neighborhoods than in white neighborhoods. Furthermore, homeowners in upper-income Black neighborhoods were twice as likely to receive these sort of loans than homeowners in low-income white neighborhoods. In , 9 percent of home loans in white neighborhoods were high cost compared to 51 percent of loans in Black neighborhoods. In , we celebrate the 35th anniversary of the Fair Housing Act. Nonetheless, housing discrimination persists in subtler forms. Minorities still experience discrimination on an individual level as well as through a variety of systematic practices. Realtors who practice racial steering will direct nonwhites to segregated areas or direct whites away from integrated areas. Minority mortgage applicants who are regularly denied loans more often than their white socioeconomic equals will by necessity turn to predatory lenders who charge them higher-cost loans than their credit histories warrant. As long as minorities are still barred from desirable communities and lose out on opportunities to accumulate wealth through rising property values, socioeconomic inequalities between racial groups will continue to be reinforced. Even if individual incidences of discrimination are no longer, the current housing market makes it almost impossible for a family with little or no assets to enter it. As home prices in resource-rich communities continue to rise, low to middle-income families must choose between renting or buying in at-risk, often segregated suburban communities. Ironically, defenders of the racial bias in the home lending system will point to the low net worth of minority applicants, even those with high incomes. As George Lipsitz points out, "net worth is almost totally determined by past opportunities for asset accumulation, and therefore is the one figure most likely to reflect the history of discrimination. For more about this topic, search under "housing," "segregation," "wealth," or "white advantage. What obstacles or opportunities have they faced in buying their own home? How did they finance it? Did they get assistance from their families loans, gifts, etc. What sort of neighborhoods did they grow up in? Ask students to take a virtual walk through their community. Is it racially diverse? Is it integrated or divided by race? Where are the businesses? Where is the highway? What public services are where? Do certain patterns emerge? How segregated is your community? Students can research residential patterns in their own metropolitan areas and investigate their causes by using the Resources and Background Readings sections of this Web site. Ask students to look into different residential communities in their area. Are there examples of different ways certain communities have fought to maintain stable, integrated neighborhoods? Compare success stories with those of nearby neighborhoods that experienced rapid decline. If there are no applicable examples in your area, well-documented studies include: East Cleveland, Ohio;

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Maywood v. What can be done to ensure stability and a wealth of resources in a community? Have students research the following terms: Have students investigate the cases that have led to nationwide allegations of environmental racism. Is there a community near you that is in danger? Have students investigate the reasons why and discuss different ways communities can get involved.