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**Race - Race Initiative: Research
Questions [1]**

Race Initiative -
research questions

**Indicators of Social and Economic Well-Being
by Race and Hispanic Origin**

Prepared by the Council of Economic Advisers
for the President's Initiative on Race

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The Bureau of Justice Statistics

The Bureau of Labor Statistics

The Department of Housing and Urban Development

The National Center for Education Statistics

The National Center for Health Statistics

Indicators of Social and Economic Well-Being by Race and Hispanic Origin

Table of Contents

I. Population

- Population 1. Racial/Ethnic Composition of the Population
- Population 2. Minority Population by Region (1990)
- Population 3. Age Distribution (1996)
- Population 4. Urban, Suburban, and Rural Residence
- Population 5. Household Structure
- Population 6. Race or Ethnicity of Married Couples
- Population 7. Foreign-Born Population

II. Education

- Education 1. Participation in Literacy Activities with Parent or Family Member by Children
Ages 3 to 5
- Education 2. Children Ages 3 to 4 Enrolled in Center-Based Programs or Kindergarten
- Education 3. Computer Use by Children in Grades 1 through 6
- Education 4. Average Reading Proficiency
- Education 5. Average Mathematics Proficiency
- Education 6. Educational Attainment of Adults Ages 25 and Over
- Education 7. High School Completion Rates for 25- to 29-Year Olds
- Education 8. Persons Ages 25 to 29 with a Four-Year College Degree or Higher
- Education 9. Literacy Skills of Adults, 16 Years Old and Over (1992)

III. Labor Markets

- Labor 1. Labor Force Participation Rates, 25- to 54-Year Olds
- Labor 2. Unemployment Rates (Annual Averages)
- Labor 3. "Idleness" among 16- to 24-Year Olds
- Labor 4. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Female Workers
- Labor 5. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Male Workers
- Labor 6. Ratios of Black and Hispanic Female to White Female Median Weekly Earnings
- Labor 7. Ratios of Black and Hispanic Male to White Male Median Weekly Earnings
- Labor 8. Occupational Distribution of Employed Persons (1997)

IV. Economic Status

- Econstat 1. Median Family Income
- Econstat 2. Poverty Rates for Persons
- Econstat 3. Poverty Rates for Children
- Econstat 4. Poverty Rates by Selected Individual and Household Characteristics (1996)
- Econstat 5. Households Owning Selected Assets (1993)

V. Health

- Health 1. Infant Mortality Rates
- Health 2. Life Expectancy at Birth
- Health 3. Up-to-Date With Recommended Vaccinations at 19 to 35 months (1995-96)
- Health 4. Prevalence of Smoking among 18- to 24-Year Olds
- Health 5. Age-Adjusted Death Rates by Cause for Ages 15 to 34 (1994-95)
- Health 6. Age-Adjusted Death Rates by Cause for Ages 45 to 64 (1994-95)
- Health 7. Adults with No Health Insurance Coverage (1994-95)

VI. Crime and Justice

- Justice 1. Victims of Homicide
- Justice 2. Property Crime Victimization
- Justice 3. Admissions to State and Federal Prisons
- Justice 4. Adults under Correctional Supervision
- Justice 5. Arrests, Convictions, and Prison Admissions for Violent Crimes (1994)
- Justice 6. Minority Composition of Local Police and Sheriffs' Departments
- Justice 7. Reported Confidence in the Police (1994-97)

VII. Housing and Neighborhoods

- Housing 1. Homeownership Rates
- Housing 2. Households with High Housing Expenditures
- Housing 3. Housing Units with Physical Problems
- Housing 4. Crowding: Households with More Than One Person per Room
- Housing 5. Reported Problems in Neighborhood (1995)
- Housing 6. Average Racial and Ethnic Composition of Metropolitan Neighborhoods (1990)
- Housing 7. Whites' Attitudes towards Integration

Introduction

“I believe the greatest challenge we face...is also our greatest opportunity. Of all the questions of prejudice and discrimination that still exist in our society, the most perplexing one is the oldest, and is some ways today, the newest: the problem of race. Can we fulfill the promise of America by embracing all our citizens of all races...In short, can we become one America in the 21st Century?”

President Clinton
One America Initiative Announcement at the University of
California, San Diego Commencement, 1997

This fact book is intended both to document current differences in well-being by race and Hispanic origin in health, economic status, education, the labor market, housing, and in crime and victimization, and to describe how such differences have evolved over time. It has been produced for the President’s Initiative on Race (PIR) by the Council of Economic Advisers in consultation with the Federal statistical agencies to further one of the goals of the PIR: to educate Americans about the facts surrounding the issue of race in America.

The American record has been one of tremendous progress in many areas such as education, health and longevity, and economic growth, but deterioration in others, such as increased incarceration, divorce, and non-marital childbearing. Over the second half of this century, life expectancy at birth has increased from 68.2 to 75.8 years, and infant mortality rates have fallen from 29.2 deaths per thousand live births to 7.6 per thousand. Per capita income has nearly tripled in real terms since 1950. The proportion of Americans adults with a high school diploma has increased from 72.5 percent in 1967 to 87.3 percent in 1996. And the fraction living in severely inadequate housing has fallen from 8.5 percent in 1976 to 4.5 percent in 1995.

This progress has not always been equally shared by all racial and ethnic groups, however. Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians continue to suffer substantial disadvantages in opportunity and in material and physical well-being. While these disadvantages appear in

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many arenas, they are larger in some than others. For example, although the Hispanic poverty rate is far higher than that of non-Hispanic whites, differences in infant health between Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites are relatively modest. Blacks have nearly closed the gap with non-Hispanic whites in the attainment of a high school degree, but large gaps persist (or have widened) in the completion of a four-year college degree. This type of information provides a benchmark for progress and highlights possible priority areas for reducing disparities in well-being across racial and ethnic groups.

Several themes emerge from the data presented in this document.

- Race and ethnicity continues to be a salient predictor of well-being in American society. Non-Hispanic whites and Asians on average experience advantages in health, education, and economic status relative to blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians.
- Substantial progress has taken place in the relative well-being of black Americans since 1960, but progress slowed or stagnated between the mid-1970s and the early 1990s.
- Hispanics' relative status has deteriorated over the past 25 years, but high rates of immigration contributed to this development. Still, Hispanics are more disadvantaged on average than non-Hispanic whites and blacks.
- High average economic status among Asians masks great heterogeneity within this population. Asians have both higher median income and higher poverty rates than non-Hispanic whites.
- Although comparable data are more sparse, according to many of the available indicators, American Indians are among the most disadvantaged Americans.

Data Limitations

The identification and classification of persons by race and ethnicity are complex and controversial issues. The concepts of race and ethnicity lack precise and universally accepted definitions. Their economic and social significance depend on a variety of factors, including

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how individuals identify themselves racially or ethnically and how others identify and treat them. Most of the data presented in this fact book classify persons by race or Hispanic ethnicity on the basis of responses to questions about race and Hispanic origin in the decennial Censuses and household surveys. Whenever possible data for five groups are presented:

- Hispanics, who may be of any race
- Non-Hispanic whites
- Blacks, not of Hispanic origin
- Asians, not of Hispanic origin, including Pacific Islanders,
- American Indians, including Alaska Natives (Alaskan Eskimos and Aleuts), not of Hispanic origin

Published data are not always available for all of these groups. At times statistics are lacking because survey sample sizes are too small to yield reliable estimates for small populations such as American Indians or Asians. In addition, different statistical agencies use a different classification for published tabulations. For example, some agencies tabulate data for Hispanics but also include Hispanics in tabulations for the categories “white” and “black.” (In the following charts and text, when the white groups exclude Hispanics, they will be referred to as “white, non-Hispanic.” However, all other groups will be referred to simply as “black,” etc, regardless of whether the data include persons of Hispanic origin.)

On October 30, 1997 the Office of Management and Budget announced a decision to revise the standards for classifying Federal data on race and ethnicity. The new standards permit respondents to mark or select more than one race on survey questionnaires. Furthermore, the Asian and Pacific Islander category has been divided into two categories: “Asian” and “Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander.” The “black” category has been changed to “black or African American.” The ethnicity question will include two categories: “Hispanic or Latino” and “Not Hispanic or Latino.”

Population

The population of the United States is becoming increasingly diverse. In recent years, racial and ethnic minority populations--black, Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian--have each grown faster than the population as a whole (Population 1). While in 1970 racial and ethnic minorities together represented only 17 percent of the population, by 1997 this share had increased to 28 percent. Assuming current trends continue, the Census Bureau projects that racial and ethnic minorities will account for almost half of the U.S. population by 2050.

One of the driving forces behind the increasing racial and ethnic diversity of the population is immigration, which has played a major role in the rapid growth of the Asian and Hispanic populations since the 1960s. In 1996, 38 percent of the Hispanic population and 61 percent of the Asian population were foreign born, compared to only 8 percent of the white population, 6 percent of the black population, and 4 percent of the American Indian population (Population 7). The increased immigration of Asians and Hispanics over the past several decades is largely the result of the 1965 Immigration Act, which ended the system of national origin quotas that had previously restricted immigration from the developing world.

At the same time that immigration of Asians and Hispanics has increased, population growth has slowed dramatically for the nation as a whole, largely due to declining fertility rates among blacks and non-Hispanic whites. As a result, the non-Hispanic white share of the population has fallen considerably since 1970, and the black share of the population has increased only slightly.

Changes in racial and ethnic identification have also contributed to the increase in measured racial and ethnic diversity. These changes are most important for the American Indian population, which has increased more in recent years than can be accounted for by deaths, births, and immigration, indicating that people are more likely to identify themselves as American Indian in the Census and population surveys than they were in the past.

Intermarriage also leads to growing racial and ethnic diversity, since it is associated with interracial and interethnic births. (The Census Bureau projections discussed above do not take trends in interracial marriage and births into account, however.) Intermarriage rates have increased slightly since 1960, and in 1990 interracial married couples (including Hispanic-non-Hispanic couples) accounted for about 3 percent of all married couples (Population 6). In addition to increasing the minority share of the population, interracial and interethnic births contribute to changing notions of race and ethnicity. The growing complexity of racial categorization was addressed in 1997 by the Office of Management and Budget with its decision to revise its standards for classifying Federal data on race and ethnicity. The new standards recognize the growing diversity of the American population by permitting respondents to mark more than one race on survey questionnaires.

Despite the increasing racial and ethnic diversity of the population as a whole, an individual's experience of growing diversity may be affected by the geographic region in which he or she lives, since the racial and ethnic composition of the population varies considerably from region to region (Population 2). The West has the highest concentration of minorities (33 percent), followed by the South (28 percent), the Northeast (21 percent), and the Midwest (14 percent). Blacks are most highly concentrated in the South, while Asians, Hispanics, and American Indians are most highly concentrated in the West.

Several of the demographic characteristics of the population discussed in this chapter have important effects on social and economic well-being. In particular, differences in age distribution, household structure, and residence in urban versus rural areas can affect the economic and social status of racial and ethnic populations discussed later in this book.

Differences in age distribution between racial and ethnic groups (Population 3) affect differences in both economic and social well-being as well as rates of population growth. For example, poverty rates are highest among children, and rates of criminal activity are highest among persons in their teens and twenties. On average, the non-Hispanic white population is

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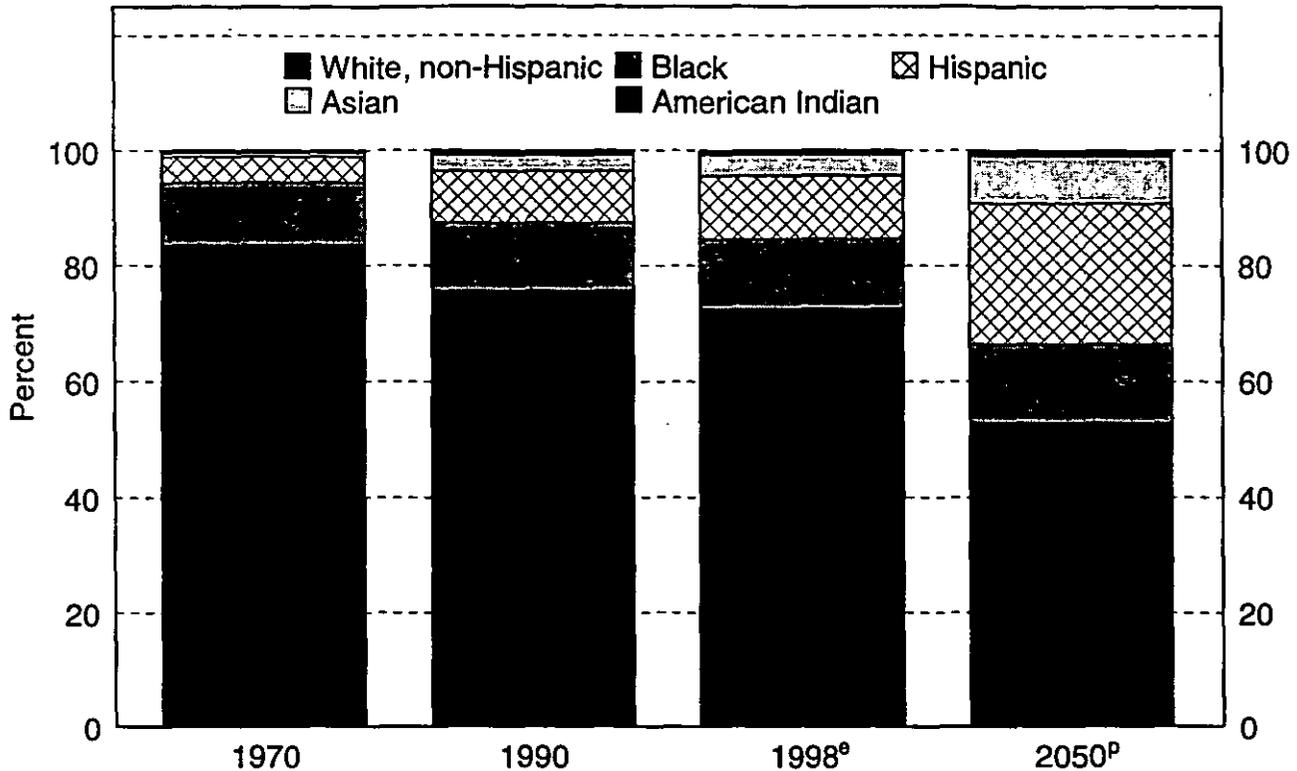
considerably older than the population as a whole: Nearly 15 percent of non-Hispanic whites are above the age of 65, compared to less than 9 percent of all other groups. In contrast, more than 30 percent of blacks, Asians, and American Indians, and nearly 40 percent of Hispanics are below the age of 20, compared to about 25 percent of non-Hispanic whites. Differences in age distribution between racial and ethnic groups reflect differences in death rates, fertility rates, rates of net immigration, and the age of immigrants.

Household structure is also linked to economic status. Growth of child poverty has often been associated with the rising share of single-parent families. Since 1970 the fraction of families headed by a single parent has increased for all groups (Population 5) and is highest among blacks (36 percent), American Indians (25 percent), and Hispanics (24 percent).

Residence in urban areas may also affect social and economic well-being. Urban areas tend to have higher crime rates than suburban and rural areas. Cities are also associated with geographically concentrated poverty, while suburban residence is associated with middle class status. Some researchers have suggested that unemployment in central cities is caused by slow growth of urban jobs and faster growth of jobs in the suburbs. Hispanics, blacks, and Asians tend to be concentrated in central cities--in 1990 more than half of blacks and Hispanics and nearly half of Asians lived in the central city, compared to less than a quarter of non-Hispanic whites and American Indians (Population 4). In contrast, over half of all non-Hispanic whites lived in the suburbs, as did 47 percent of Asians. American Indians were by far the most likely to live in rural areas, with nearly half of their population in these areas in 1990.

Population

Population 1. Racial/Ethnic Composition of the Population

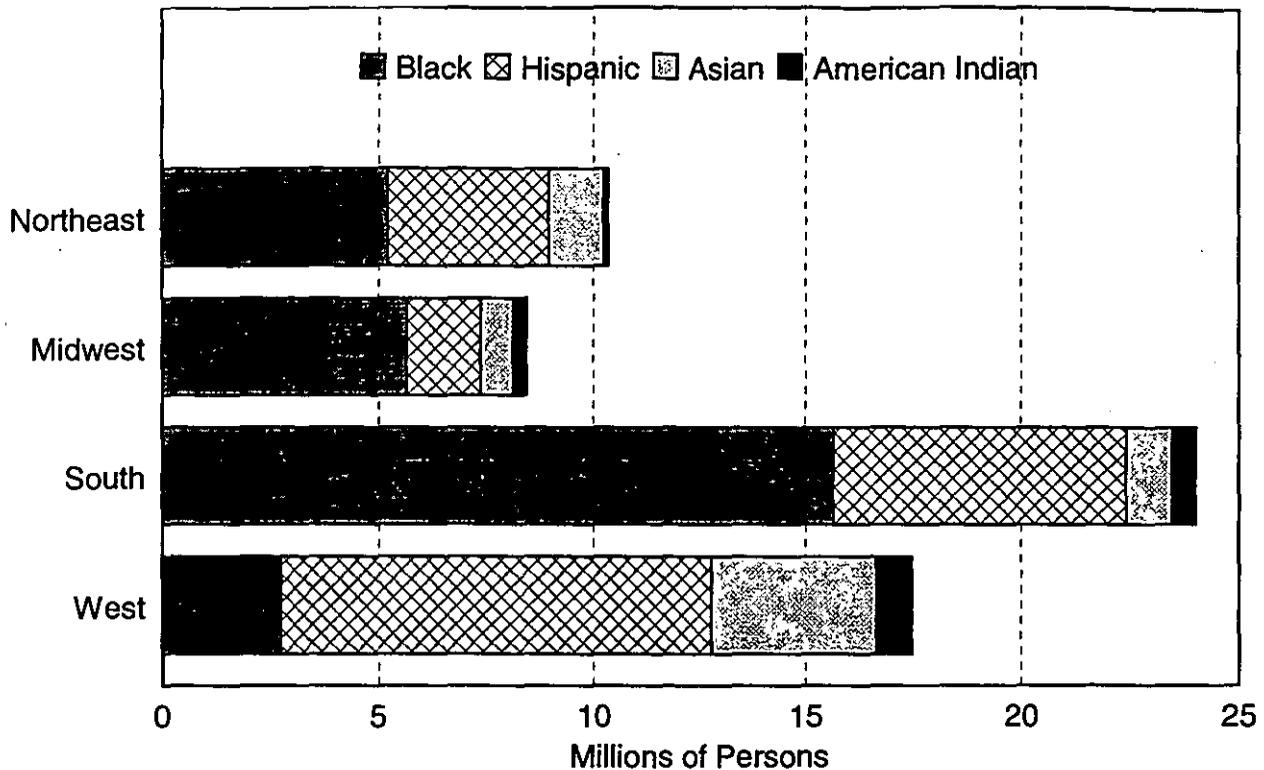


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- From 1970 to 1997, the share of the U.S. population that is Asian, Hispanic, and American Indian has increased. A substantial portion of the increase in the American Indian population has resulted from increased reporting of American Indian ancestry between 1970 and 1980.
- If recent demographic trends continue, Asians, blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians together will approach 50 percent of the population by the year 2050.
- Hispanics, who may be of any race, are projected to outnumber blacks around the year 2005.

Population

Population 2. Minority Population by Region (1990)

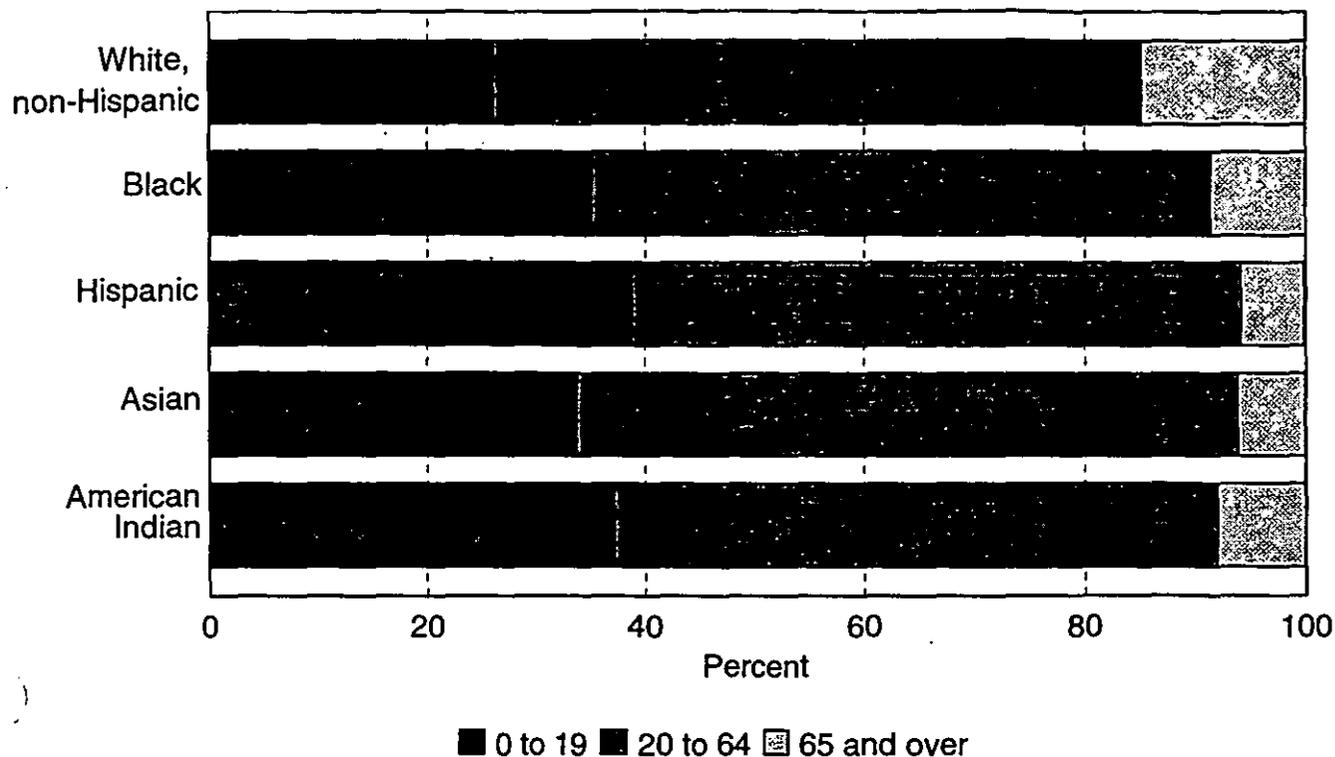


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- The regional distribution of populations affects individuals' experiences of growing racial and ethnic diversity.
- A high proportion of blacks and Hispanics live in the South, whereas American Indians and Asians are more likely to live in the West. Asians are also concentrated in the Northeast.
- In general, the minority share of the population has increased across all four regions since 1980. However, the black share of the Southern and Western populations has fallen slightly, as has the American Indian share of the Western population.

Population

Population 3. Age Distribution (1996)

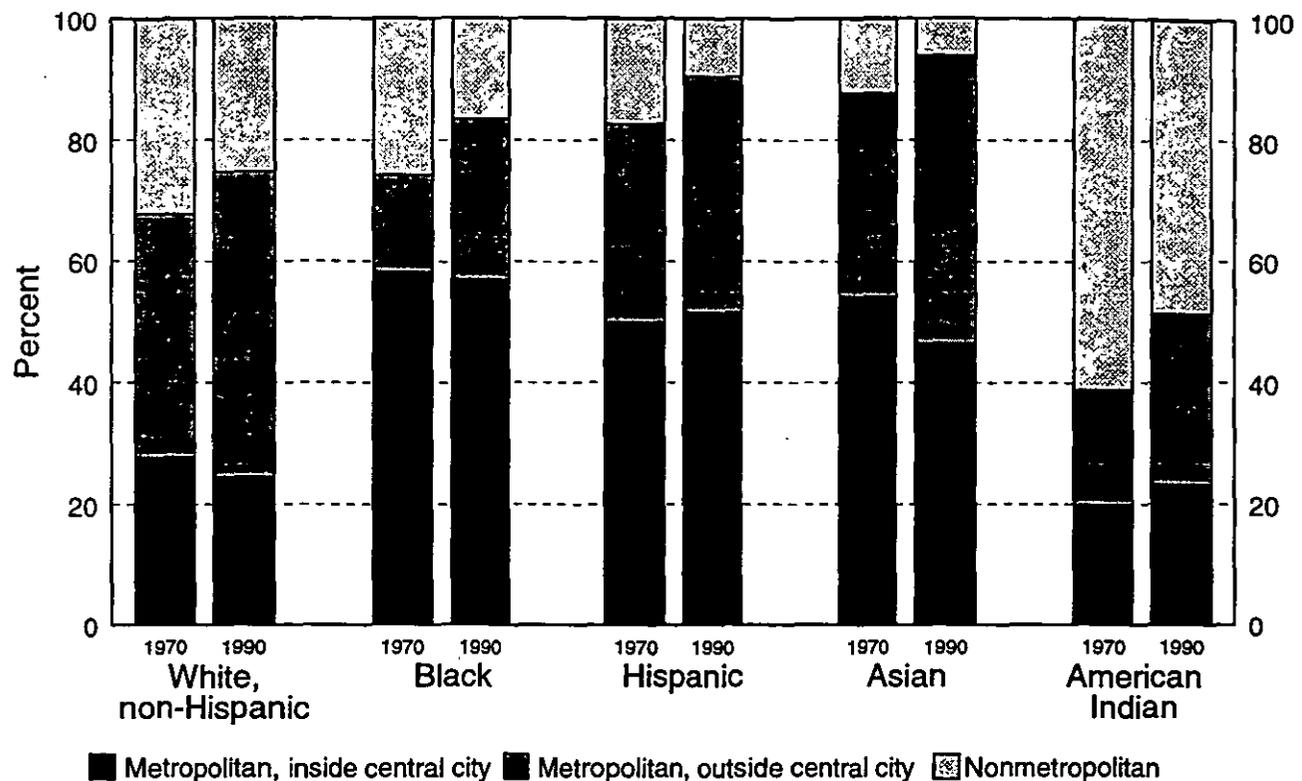


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Differences in age distributions reflect differences in death rates, fertility rates, rates of net immigration, and the age of immigrants. These age differences can in turn lead to differences in economic, health, or social status across racial and ethnic groups. For example, poverty rates are highest among children, and rates of criminal activity are high in the teens and twenties.
- Nearly 15 percent of non-Hispanic whites are above the age of 65, compared to less than 9 percent of all other groups.
- More than 30 percent of blacks, Asians, American Indians, and nearly 40 percent of Hispanics are below the age of 20, compared to about 25 percent of non-Hispanic whites. In part, the younger average age of Asians and Hispanics reflects the younger average age of new immigrants, who are largely Asian and Hispanic.

Population

Population 4. Urban, Suburban, and Rural Residence

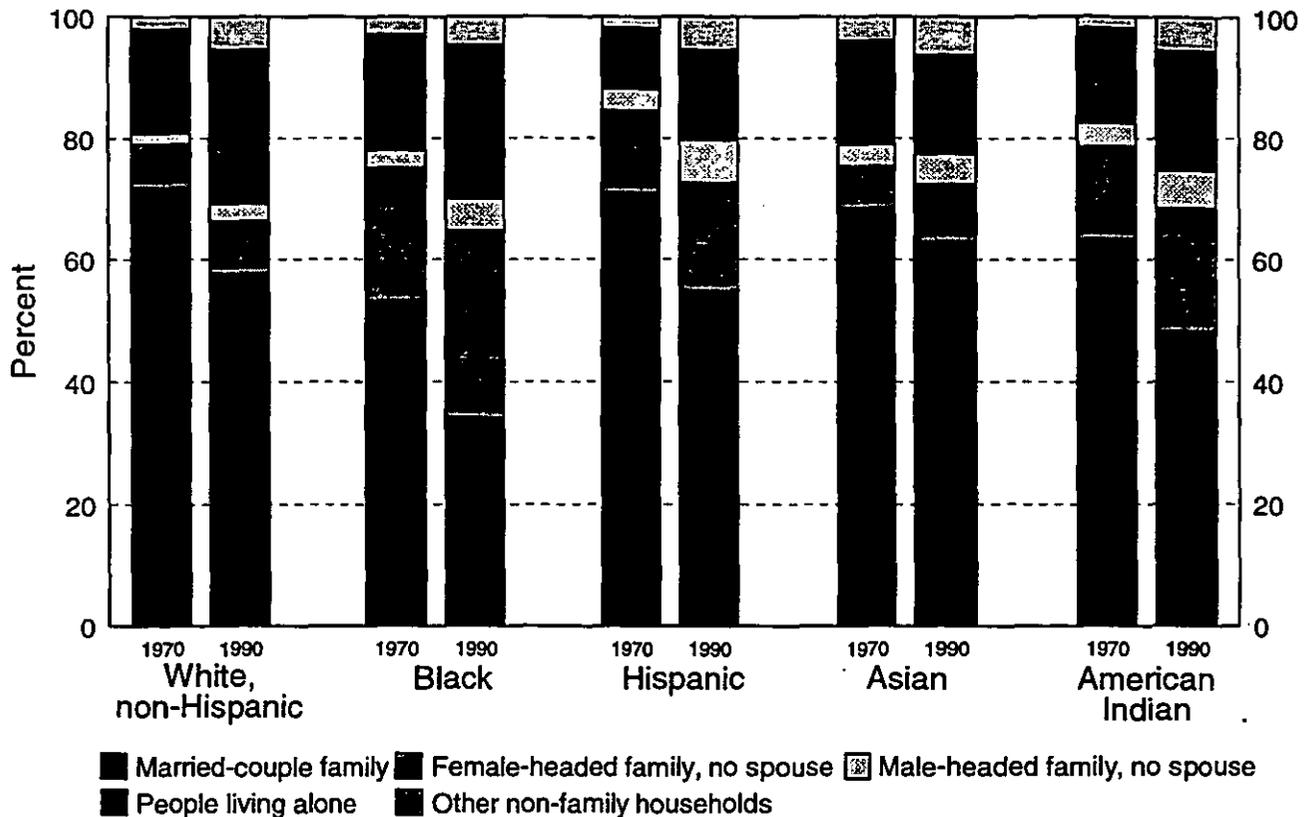


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Suburban residence is often associated with middle-class status. Rural, urban and suburban populations may have different public service needs and different political interests.
- Blacks, Asians, and Hispanics are more likely to live in central cities than are non-Hispanic whites or American Indians.
- A large percentage of non-Hispanic whites and Asians live in suburbs (metropolitan areas outside central cities). The fraction living in suburbs has increased since 1970 among all racial and ethnic groups.
- Nearly half of American Indians, one quarter of non-Hispanic whites, and nearly 20 percent of blacks live in rural areas. These rural population shares are shrinking for all groups, however.

Population

Population 5. Household Structure

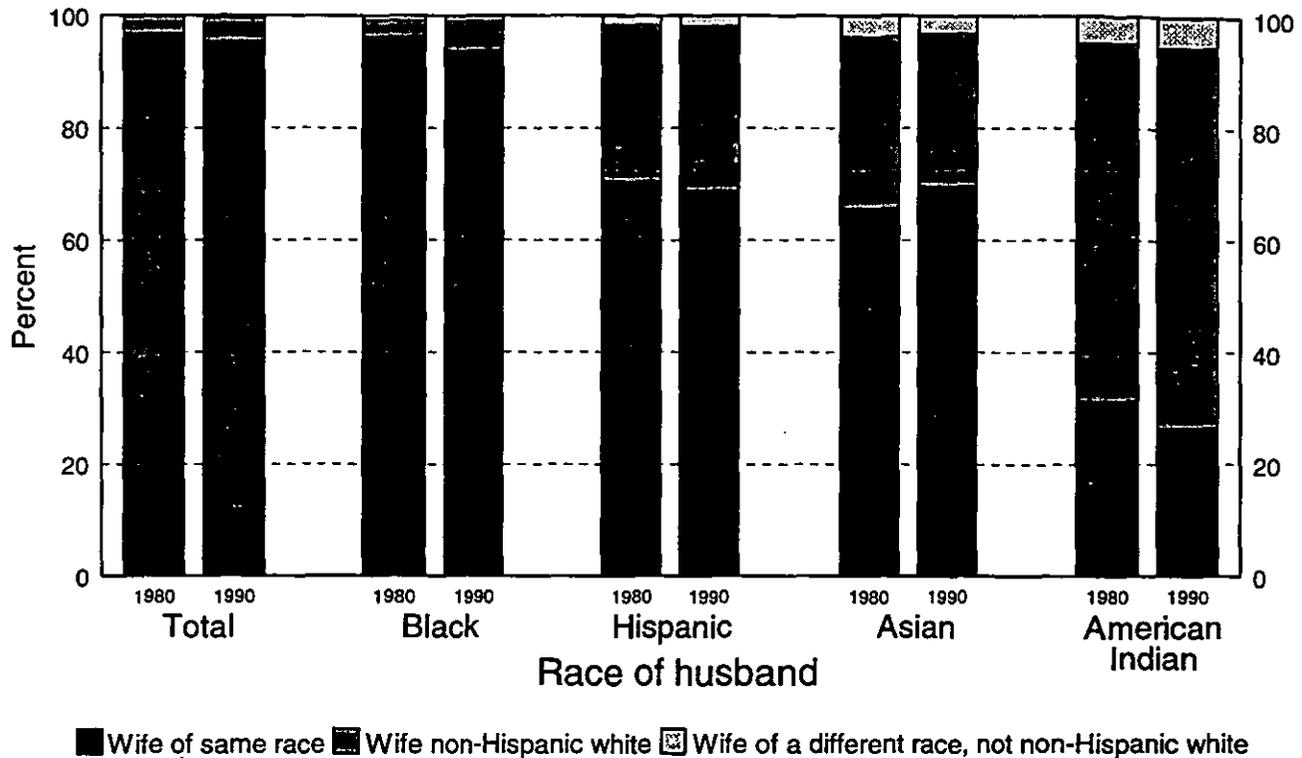


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Household structure is often linked to social and economic status. For example, growth of child poverty has been associated with the rising share of single-parent families, and the increased tendency of older persons to live independently has been linked to their growing wealth.
- Since 1970 the fraction of families headed by married couples has declined substantially; this decline has been greatest for blacks.
- The fraction of families headed by a man with no spouse present is also on the rise, although such families make up less than one quarter of single-parent families.
- The fraction of households composed of only one person has increased for all groups except Asians since 1970 and represented more than a quarter of non-Hispanic white and black households in 1990. The proportion of persons living alone has increased among both the younger age groups, as people marry later, and among the elderly.
- Other non-family households (unrelated individuals living together) have increased as a fraction of all households for all groups since 1970. Asians, American Indians, and Hispanics have the highest fraction of other non-family households.

Population

Population 6. Race or Ethnicity of Married Couples

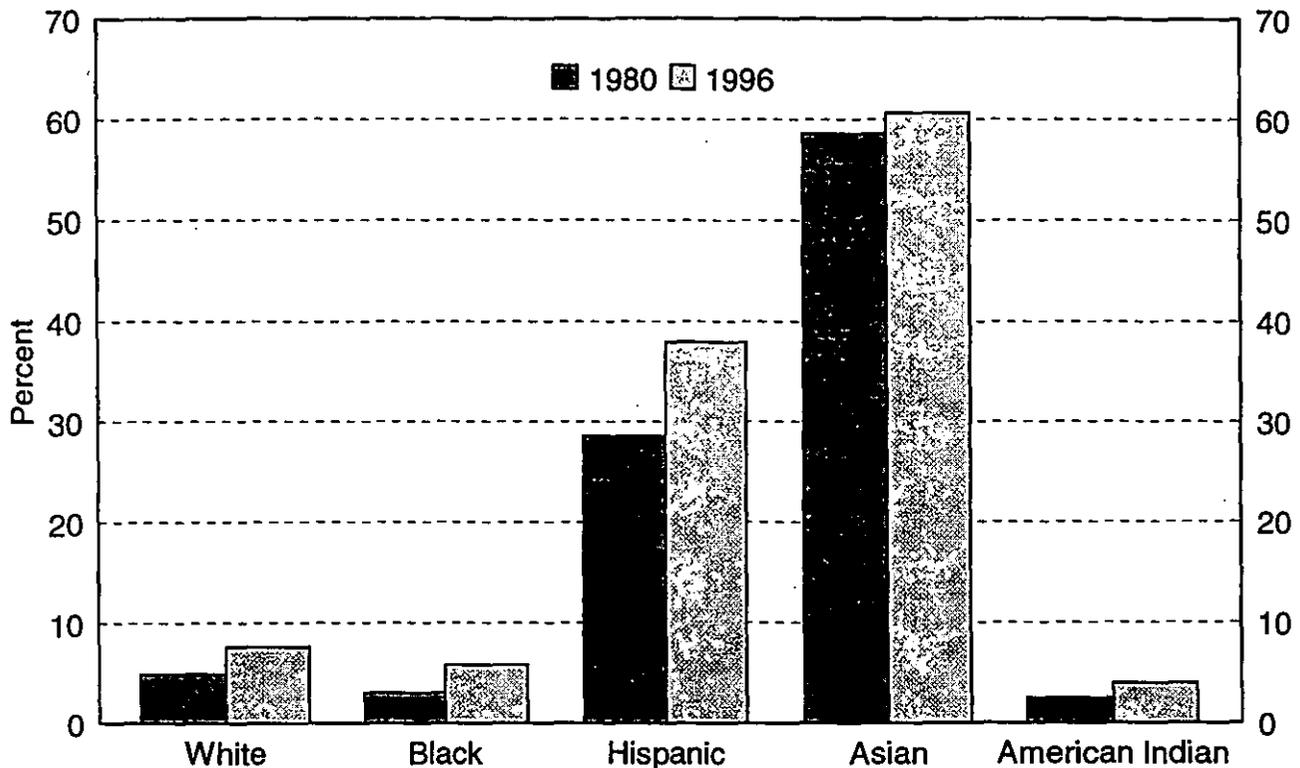


Source: Bureau of the Census. (From *State of the Union: America in the 1990s*, ed. Reynolds Farley.)

- Intermarriage is an indicator of social integration. It may also be associated with increased interracial births.
- Between 1960 and 1990, interracial married couples have increased from less than 1 percent of all married couples to about 2 percent. When marriages with Hispanics are included (as they are in this chart), interracial/ethnic couples composed about 3 percent of all married couples in 1990.
- Black married persons are far less likely than Asians, American Indians, or Hispanics to be married to a person of a different racial or ethnic group.
- Among married persons, American Indians have the highest rate of intermarriage, with over two-thirds of American Indian husbands married to a wife of a different race.

Population

Population 7. Foreign-Born Population



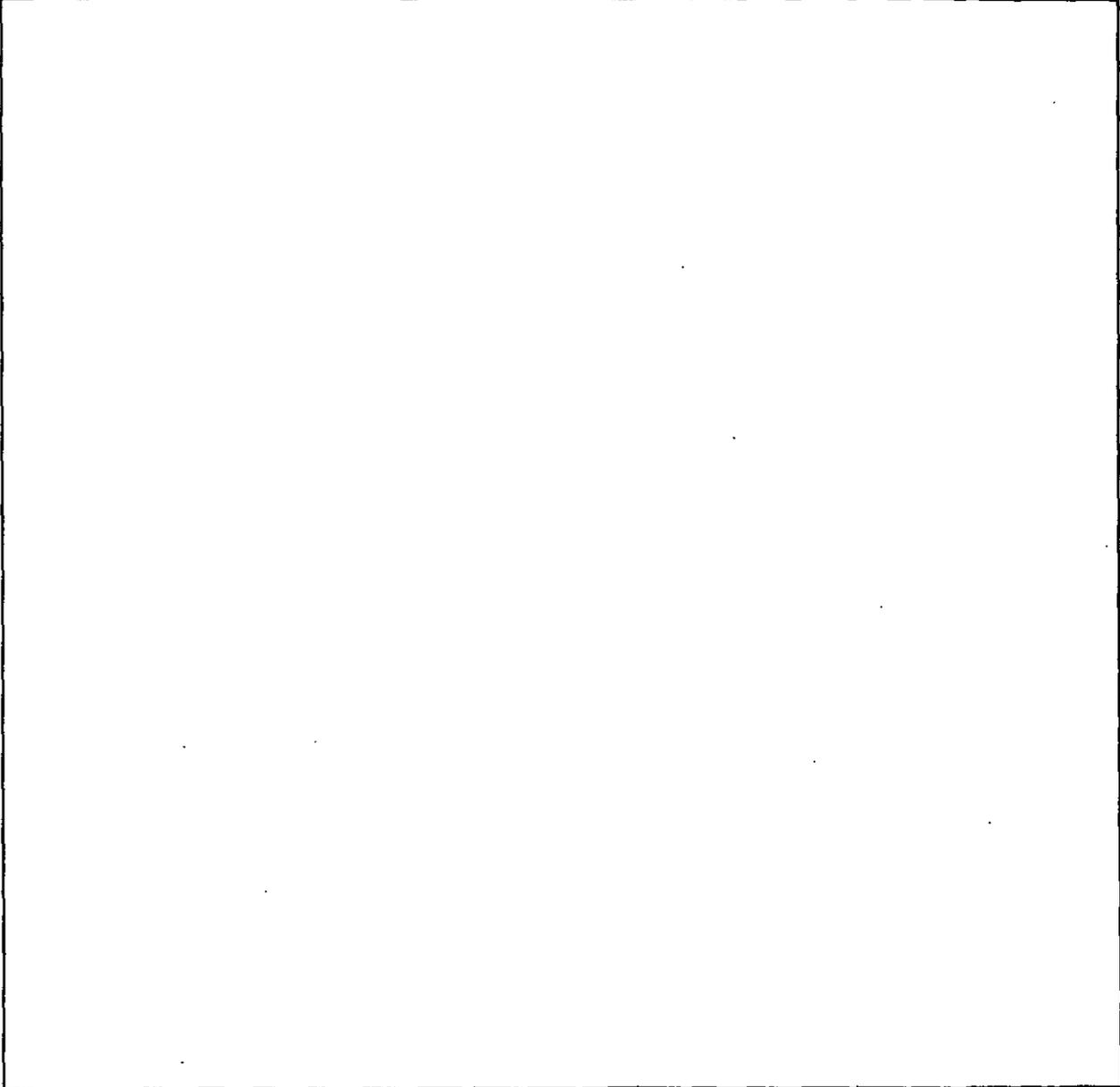
Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Among all groups, the fraction of the population that is foreign-born has increased since 1980.
- As of 1996, over 60 percent of the Asian population and 38 percent of the Hispanic populations were foreign-born, as was 38 percent of the Hispanic population. In contrast, only 8 percent of whites, 6 percent of blacks, and 4 percent of American Indians were foreign-born.
- On average, immigrants are younger and less-educated than the population as a whole; therefore, the large fraction of Asians and Hispanics who are foreign-born influences the socioeconomic status of these groups.

Population

For further information on the topics covered in this chapter, please see the following sources:

Reviewing agencies: Please suggest government publications and websites you think anyone interested in further information on these topics should see.

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Education

Educational attainment is one of the most important indicators of lifetime economic opportunities. Higher education is associated with lower unemployment and higher wages, higher family income and wealth, and better health status for adults and their children. A substantial portion of gaps in well-being among racial and ethnic groups can be accounted for by differences in educational opportunities and attainment. Studies find that an important component of the improvement in the economic status of blacks in the 1960s and early 1970s resulted from improvements in school quality, especially in the South.¹

Research is mounting about the importance of a stimulating environment for early childhood development, starting in infancy. This education begins at home. It is not until age 3 that children typically enter pre-schools or Head Start programs designed to promote school readiness. The most important teachers for children under the age of five are family members. For example, reading to young children helps them learn to speak, and later, to read and write. It is also correlated with school performance in reading comprehension, and overall success in school.²

Blacks, Hispanics (and American Indians) continue to experience educational disadvantages. As young children, black and Hispanic children are less likely to be read to by family members or to be told a story compared to their non-Hispanic white counterparts (Education 1). Some differences in reading to children across racial and ethnic groups are related to parental education, because reading to children increases sharply with a parent's educational attainment.^{3 4}

Black and Hispanic children are more likely than non-Hispanic white children to be poor (Econstat 3), and their parents have lower education levels. As a result, they begin life with disadvantages related to family financial and educational resources. Social policies attempt to improve educational opportunities by providing enriched early childhood educational

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opportunities through programs such as Head Start, the largest federal program for early childhood education of economically disadvantaged children. Partly as a result of such policies, black children aged 3 and 4 are more likely than non-Hispanic white children to be enrolled in pre-school programs (Education 2). Research has found that Head Start and other pre-school programs promote children's cognitive development and achievement. Some research has found that the effects of Head Start are largest for Hispanics, perhaps because it provides an advantage in English language acquisition for children for whom English is not their parent's first language. The research literature is unsettled on the question of whether the beneficial effects of pre-school interventions persist or fade as children age. One recent study reported that gains found for black children in the Head Start program fade if the children enter poor quality elementary schools, but persist if their elementary schools are of good quality.⁵

Computer use by children has grown markedly in the past 15 years (Education 3). Use at home or at school has increased for blacks, Hispanics and whites, but the increase in home use has been much greater for whites. As a result, time spent on computers is likely to have increased more for whites than blacks or Hispanics because there may be more competition for use of school computers than for those at home. Computing skills are valued in the labor market, and demand for workers with computer skills has increased markedly over the past 20 years⁶.

Math and reading proficiency scores measure student achievement and ability in these areas. Higher scores are predictive of higher future educational attainment. Furthermore, higher scores are associated with future success in the labor market, above and beyond the increased likelihood of additional years of school or educational degrees⁷. The ability to think, communicate, and learn is rewarded in the economy. Black and Hispanic children score lower on these tests than white children at each age. Mathematics proficiency scores have been increasing among all groups, but reading proficiency generally has not (Education 4 and Education 5).

Educational attainment is predictive of improved socioeconomic status, higher wage rates, and better health. Parents' education is associated with better health, development, and

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educational attainment of children. Educational attainment has been steadily increasing (Education 6). The fraction of the population aged 25 and older with a high school degree (or equivalent) exceeds 50 percent for all groups, and exceeds 75 percent for blacks, whites, and Asians. Attainment has increased markedly among blacks since the 1940s. But even since 1980, the fraction of blacks with less than a high school degree dropped from nearly half to less than one quarter. In 1996, blacks were more likely to have completed high school, and more likely to have completed some education beyond high school, than whites were in 1980. However, blacks today are still less likely than whites were in 1980 to have a college, professional, or doctoral degree. The increase in attainment has been faster among blacks, whites and Asians than among Hispanics and American Indians (check). Asians have by far the highest level of educational attainment of any of these groups. Generally, Asian's educational attainment increased over the past 15 years as more attended and completed college.

Hispanic high school attainment has improved only slowly over the past 16 years. Nearly 50 percent of Hispanic adults over the age of 25 have not completed high school. The numbers are not much better for younger Hispanics. However, among those who have completed high school, the fraction completing at least some college has increased to about 25 percent. The slow increase of educational attainment among Hispanics is at least partly due to the immigration of persons with low educational attainment. For example, attainment of native-born Hispanics increased substantially between 1980 and 1990, similar to the increase among blacks, whereas attainment of Hispanic immigrants remained stagnant at low levels.⁸

Since education takes place more intensively at younger ages, a better sense of changes in educational differences is provided by examining attainment at younger adult ages. The percentage of 25 to 29 year olds with a high school degree is nearly as high among blacks as among non-Hispanic whites (Education 7). Hispanic 25 to 29 year olds continue to have lower rates of high school completion, however. And, although blacks are attending college at increasing rates, the gap in college completion between blacks and whites did not narrow appreciably over the 1980s (Education 8).

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1. Heckman, Smith and Welch (both in JEL).

2. Wells, CG 1985. Preschool literacy-related activities and success in school. In Olson, D, Torrance, N. And Hildyard, A. Eds. *Literacy, Language and Learning: The Nature and Consequences of Literacy*. Pp. 229-55. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Cited in Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics 1997.

3. (FIFCFS 1997, page 43)

4. White children are also about 50 percent more likely than black or Hispanic children to be read to daily (64% of white children, 44 percent of black children, and 39 percent of Hispanic children aged 3 to 5 were read to every day by a family member; FIFCFS, 1997, page 43)

5. Currie and Thomas, AER; Currie and Thomas, NBER WP No. , 1998.

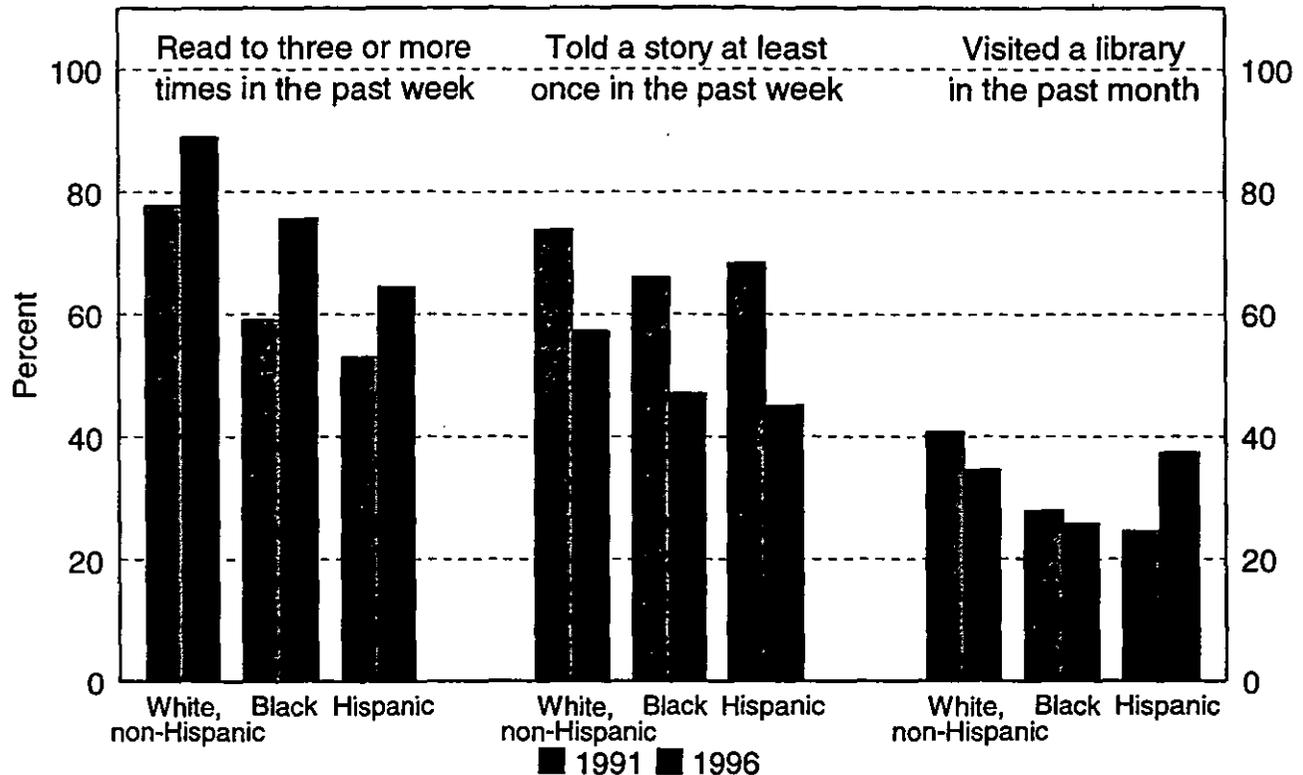
6. Krueger...Have computers changed the wage structure?

7. Neal and Johnson? JPE.

8. See figures in Mare, in R. Farley State of the Union.

Education

Education 1. Participation in Literacy Activities with a Parent or Family Member by Children Ages 3 to 5

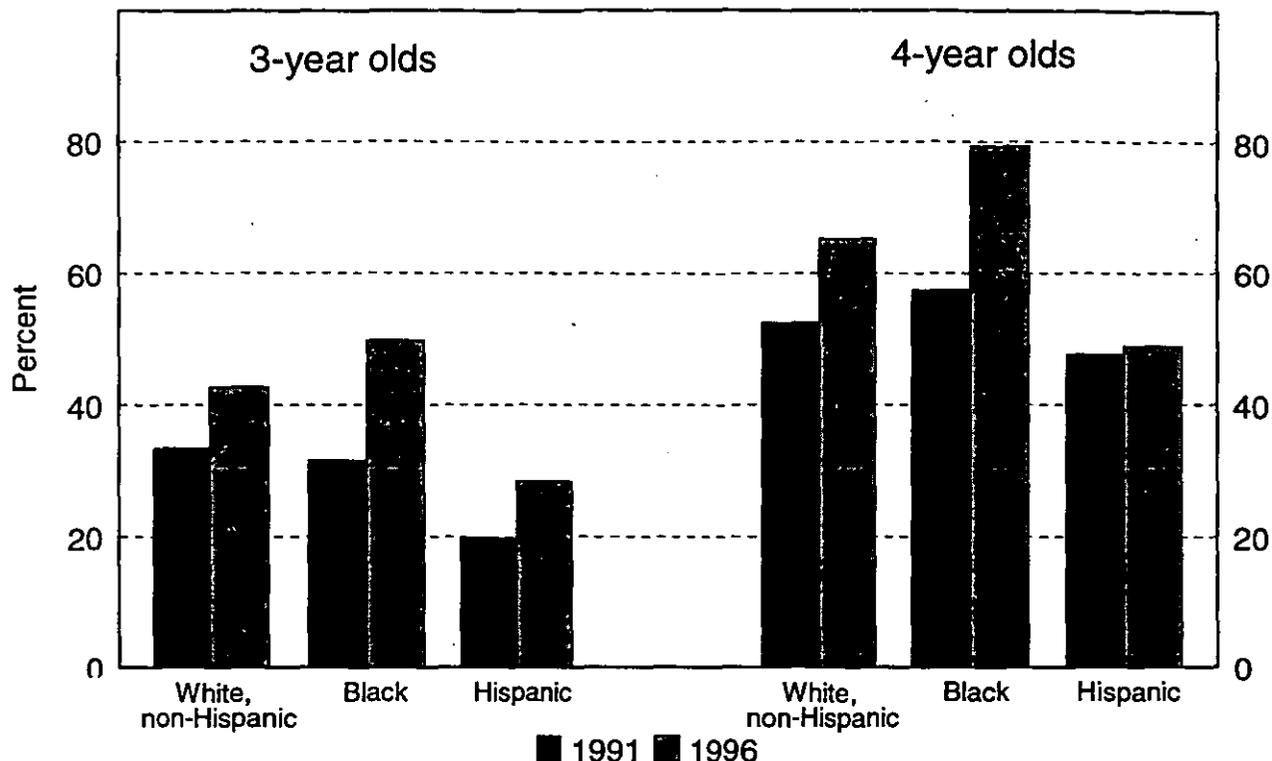


Source: National Center for Education Statistics.

- Parental and family interactions with children are critical to child development. Reading to children or telling them stories helps children learn to read and improves their verbal communication skills.
- Non-Hispanic white children were more likely to have been read to than their black or Hispanic counterparts, and they were also more likely to have been told a story. However, Hispanic children were more likely to have visited a library in the past month. Some of these differences reflect lower levels of parental education in the black and Hispanic populations.

Education

Education 2. Children Ages 3 to 4 Enrolled in Center-Based Programs and Kindergarten



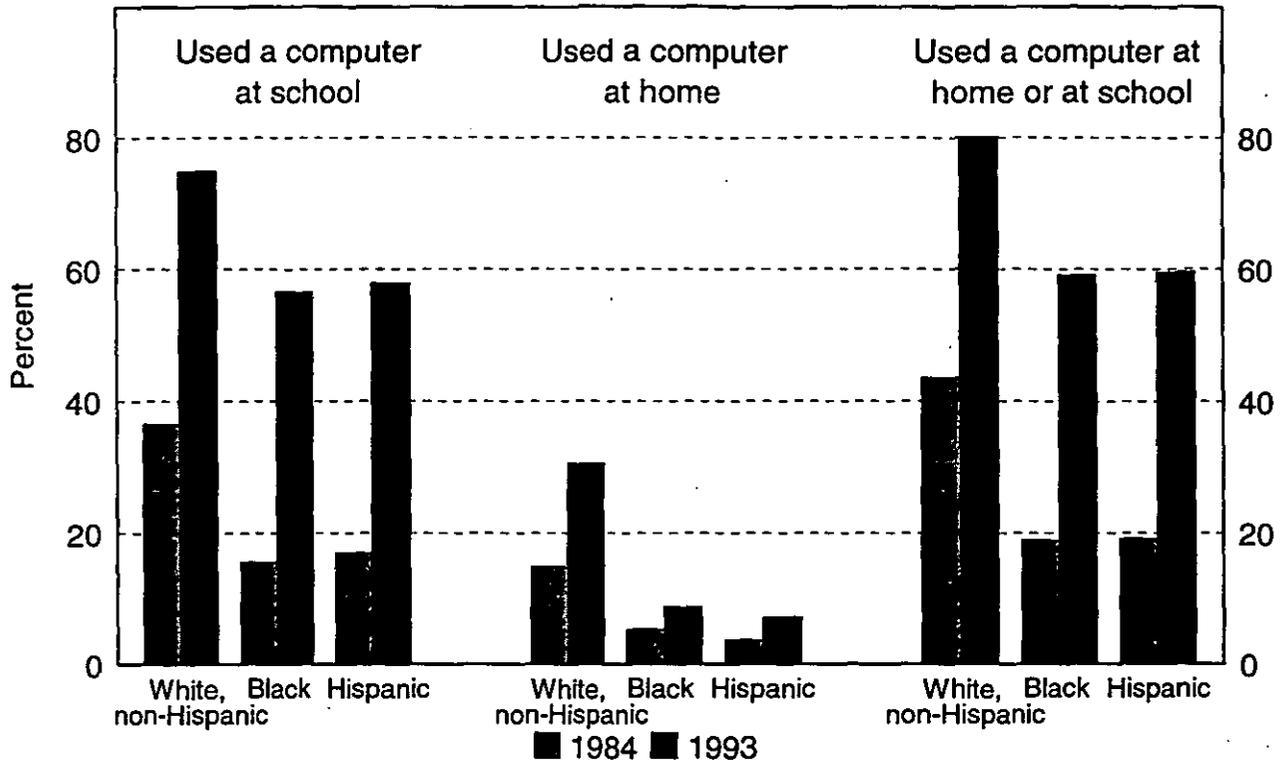
Note: Center-based programs consist of nursery schools, pre-kindergarten, and Head Start.

Source: National Center for Education Statistics.

- Enrollment in pre-school programs is generally correlated with greater progress in the early years of elementary school.
- Black children ages 3 and 4 were as likely or more likely than non-Hispanic white children to be enrolled in center-based learning programs. Hispanic children were less likely than blacks or non-Hispanic whites to be enrolled.
- Enrollment in these pre-school programs generally increased between 1991 and 1996 among all groups.

Education

Education 3. Computer Use by Children in Grades 1 through 6

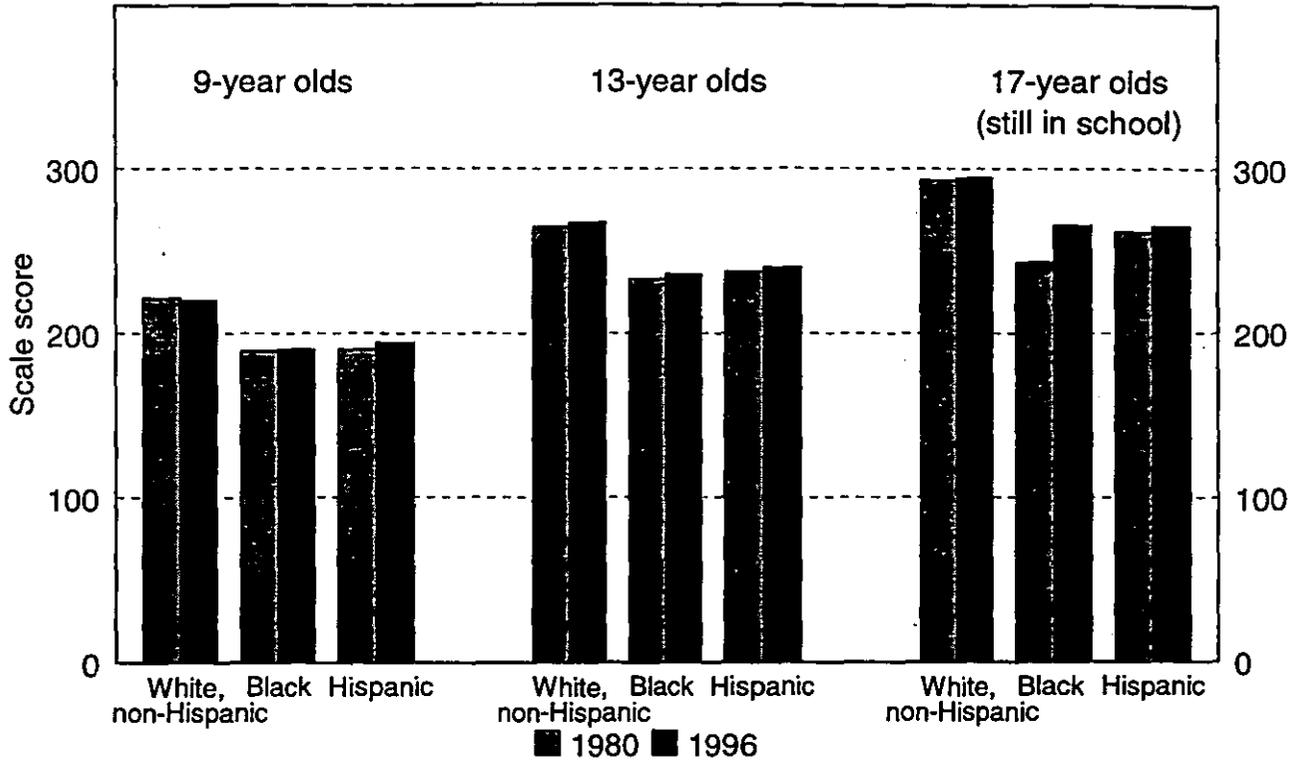


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Familiarity with computers is increasingly important to success in education and the labor market.
- Computer use increased markedly from 1984 to 1993 for all groups. In both years, whites were more likely than blacks or Hispanics to have used a computer.
- Relatively few children use a computer at home, particularly among black and Hispanic families. This may be related to lower income levels among these groups.

Education

Education 4. Average Reading Proficiency

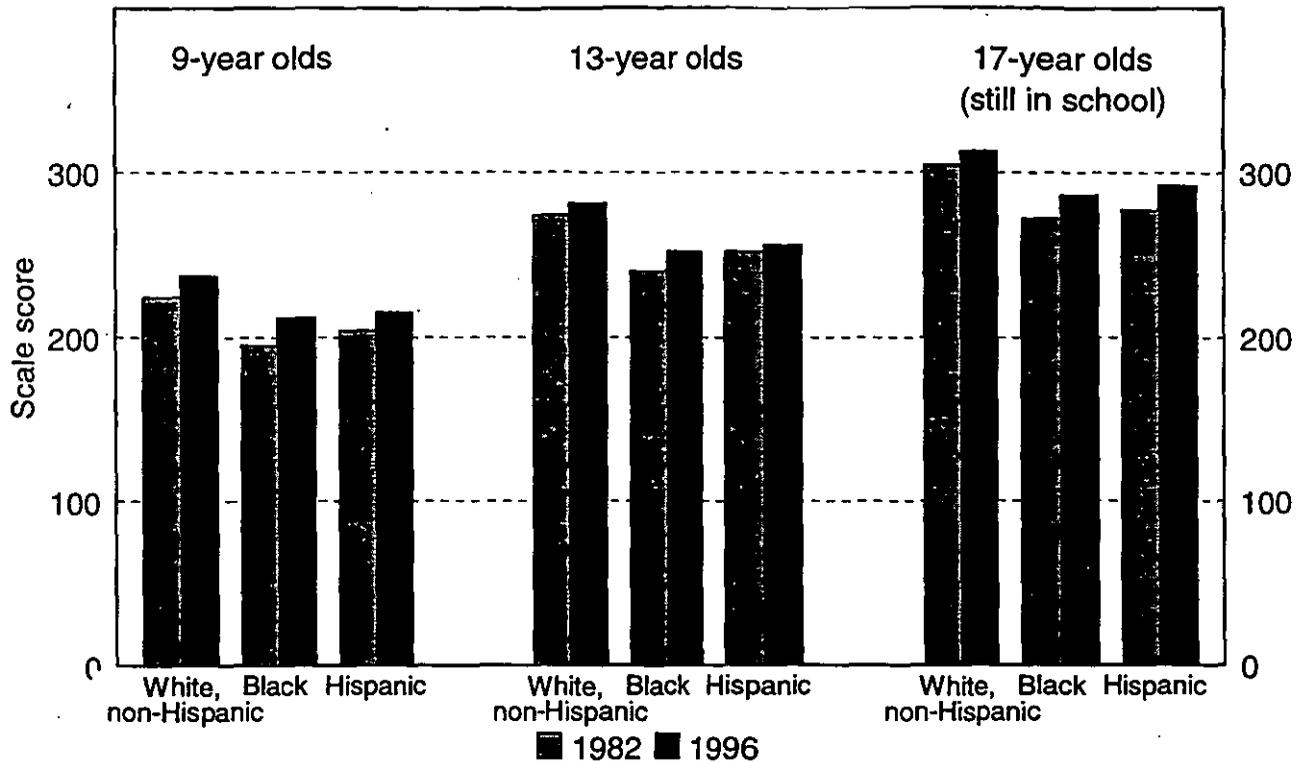


Source: National Center for Education Statistics.

- The ability to read is linked to success in school and the labor market. This test is scaled to have a mean of 250 (and a standard deviation of 50) across all age groups in 1984.
- On average, non-Hispanic white children score higher than black or Hispanic children in reading proficiency at each age.
- Black 17-year-olds made substantial progress in reading proficiency between 1980 and 1996.

Education

Education 5. Average Mathematics Proficiency

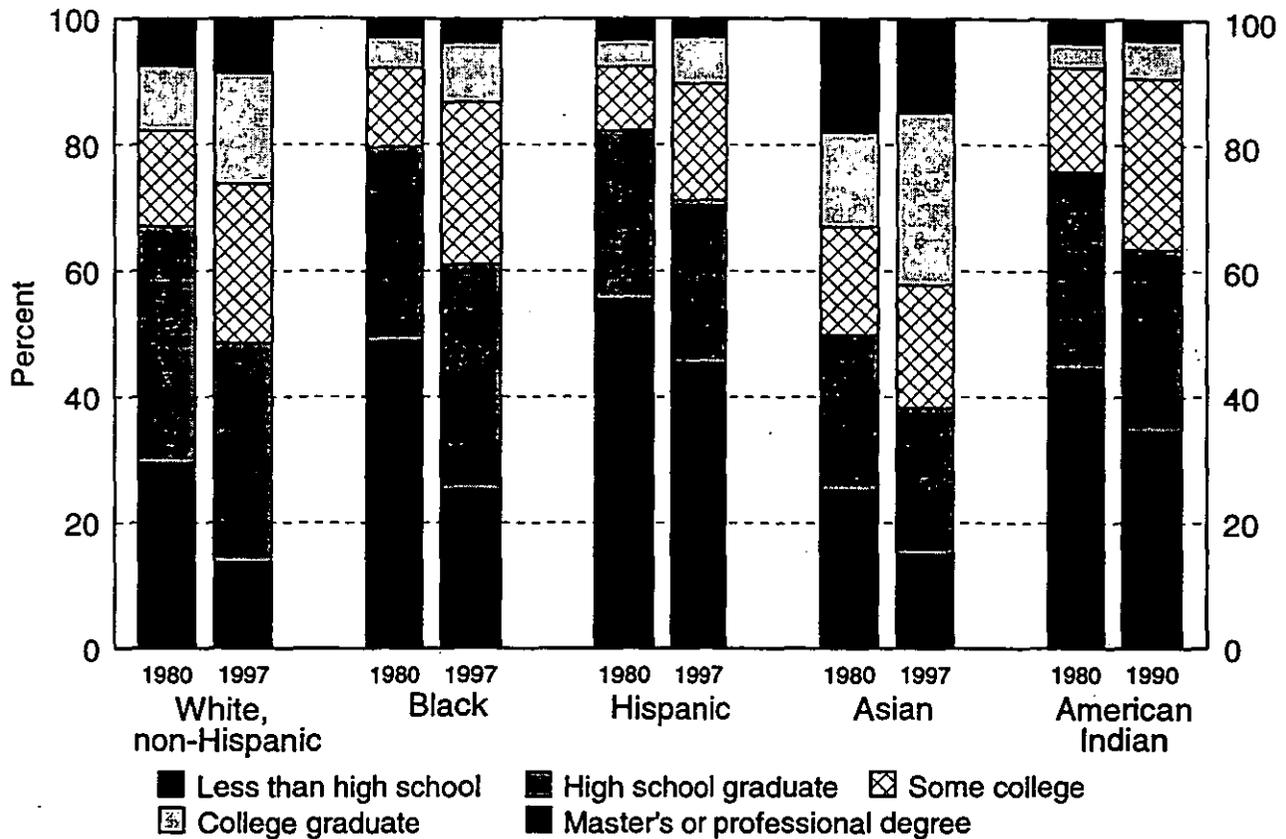


Source: National Center for Education Statistics.

- Mathematics proficiency is valued in college admissions and in many occupations. This test is scaled to have a mean of 250 (and a standard deviation of 50) across all age groups in 1986.
- Non-Hispanic whites tend to score higher on tests of mathematics proficiency than blacks or Hispanics.
- Mathematics proficiency scores have generally increased since 1982 at all ages among blacks, non-Hispanic whites, and Hispanics.

Education

Education 6. Educational Attainment of Adults Ages 25 and Over



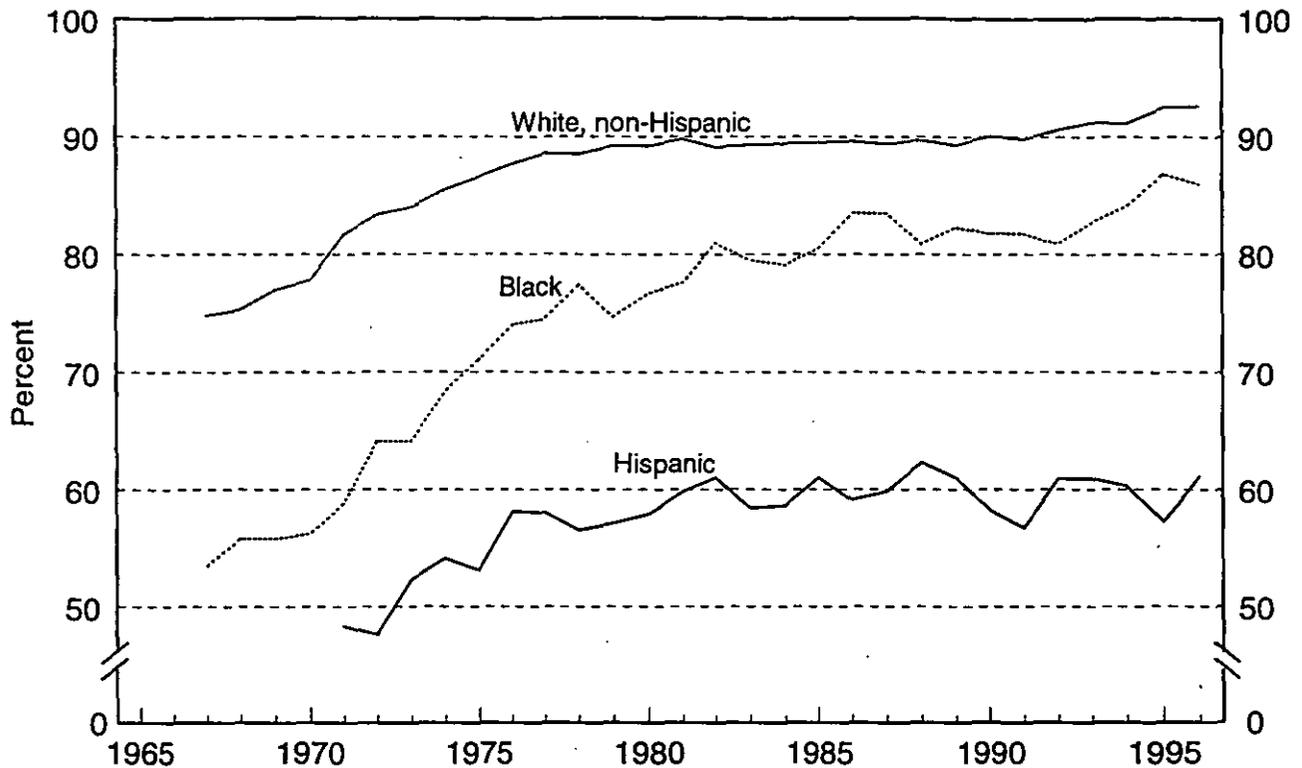
Notes: For 1980, data for whites include white Hispanics, and data for blacks include black Hispanics. Prior to 1992, high school graduates are defined as persons having completed 4 years of high school or more, college graduates are defined as persons having completed 4 years of college, and persons with master's and professional degrees are defined as persons having complete more than 4 years of college.

Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Educational attainment is a powerful predictor of economic status and health.
- Asians and non-Hispanic whites are more likely to have completed education beyond high school than are blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians. Nearly 9 percent of non-Hispanic whites and 15 percent of Asians hold advanced degrees. Nearly half of Hispanics ages 25 and older have not completed high school.
- Attainment of blacks has increased markedly since 1980. Increases for Hispanics have been smaller, in part due to increased immigration of Hispanics with low education levels. Attainment has also increased among Asians and American Indians.

Education

Education 7. High School Completion Rates for 25- to 29-Year Olds



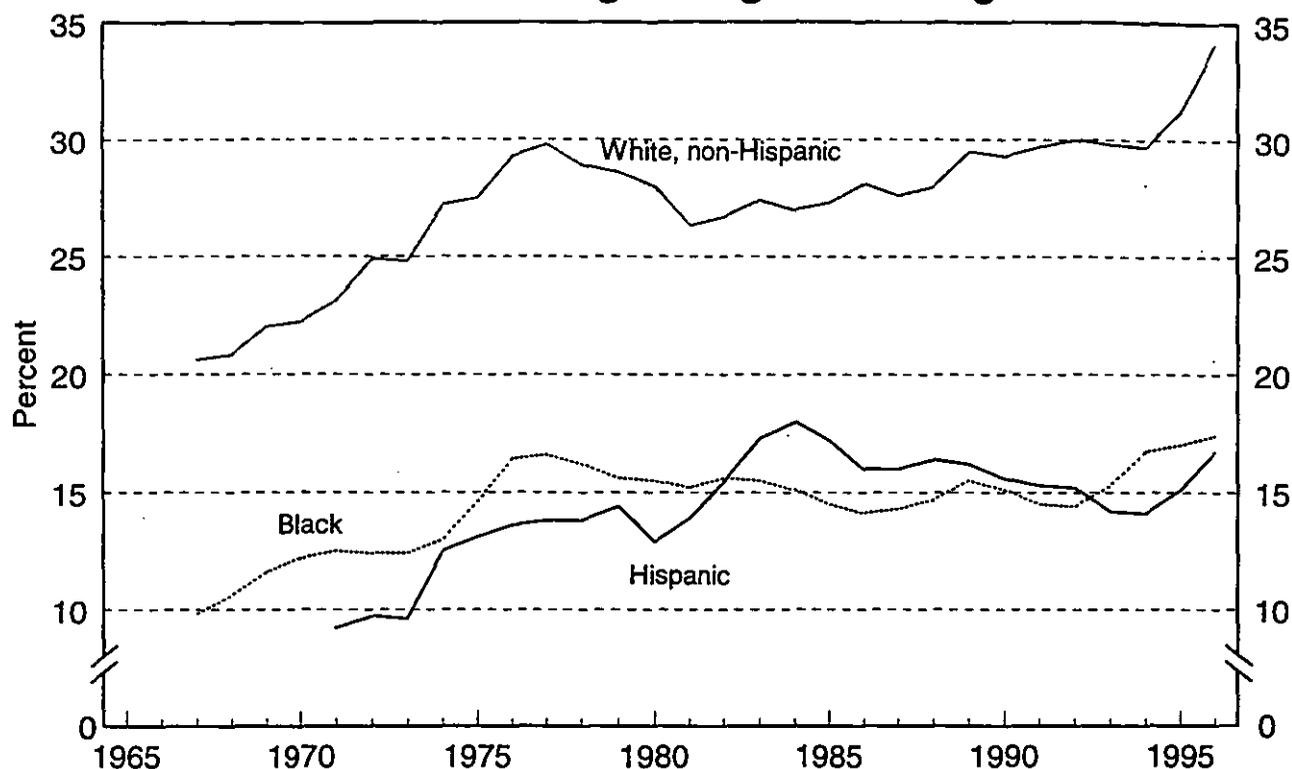
Note: Prior to 1971, data for whites include Hispanic whites, and data for blacks include Hispanic blacks.

Sources: Bureau of the Census and National Center for Education Statistics.

- High school completion rates for 25- to 29-year olds provide a sense of changes in educational attainment over time, since education takes place more intensively at younger ages.
- At these ages, high school completion rates have increased for all groups over the past 30 years, although rates for Hispanics have remained virtually stagnant since the early 1980s.
- The percentage of blacks aged 25 to 29 who have completed high school (86 percent) is nearly as high as that of non-Hispanic whites (93 percent). Hispanic 25- to 29-year olds continue to have considerably lower rates of high school completion (61 percent), however. The lower rates among Hispanics partially reflects the lower average levels of education among recent Hispanic immigrants.

Education

Education 8. Persons Ages 25 to 29 with a Four-Year College Degree or Higher



Notes: Prior to 1971, data for whites include Hispanic whites, and data for blacks include Hispanic blacks. Data for blacks and Hispanics are 3-year centered averages. Prior to 1992, series show fraction of persons completing four or more years of college.

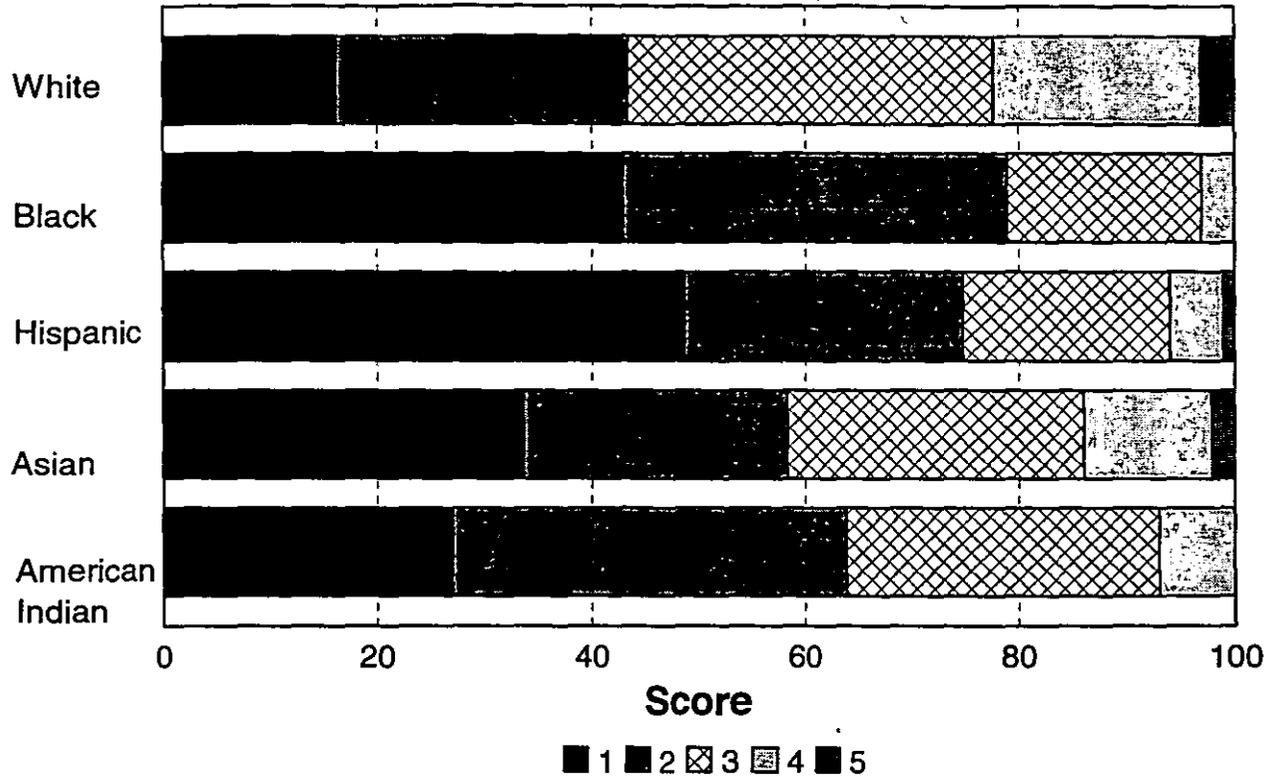
Sources: Bureau of the Census and National Center for Education Statistics.

- Completion of a four-year college degree has become an increasingly important predictor of economic status and success in the labor market.
- Non-Hispanic whites are more than twice as likely as blacks and Hispanics to have completed a four-year college degree. Nearly 35 percent of non-Hispanic whites had completed a four-year college degree in 1996, compared to only about 17 percent of both blacks and Hispanics.
- Rates of college completion increased for all groups in the 1960s and early 1970s. Between the mid-1970s and early 1980s, college completion rates declined for all groups, falling among non-Hispanic whites in the 1980s and blacks and Hispanics in the early 1990s. Since the mid-1990s, college completion rates have accelerated for all groups, increasing most dramatically for non-Hispanic whites.

Education

*We are still working on this chart —
Suggestions would be appreciated.*

Education 9. Literacy Skills of Adults, 16 Years Old and Over (1992)



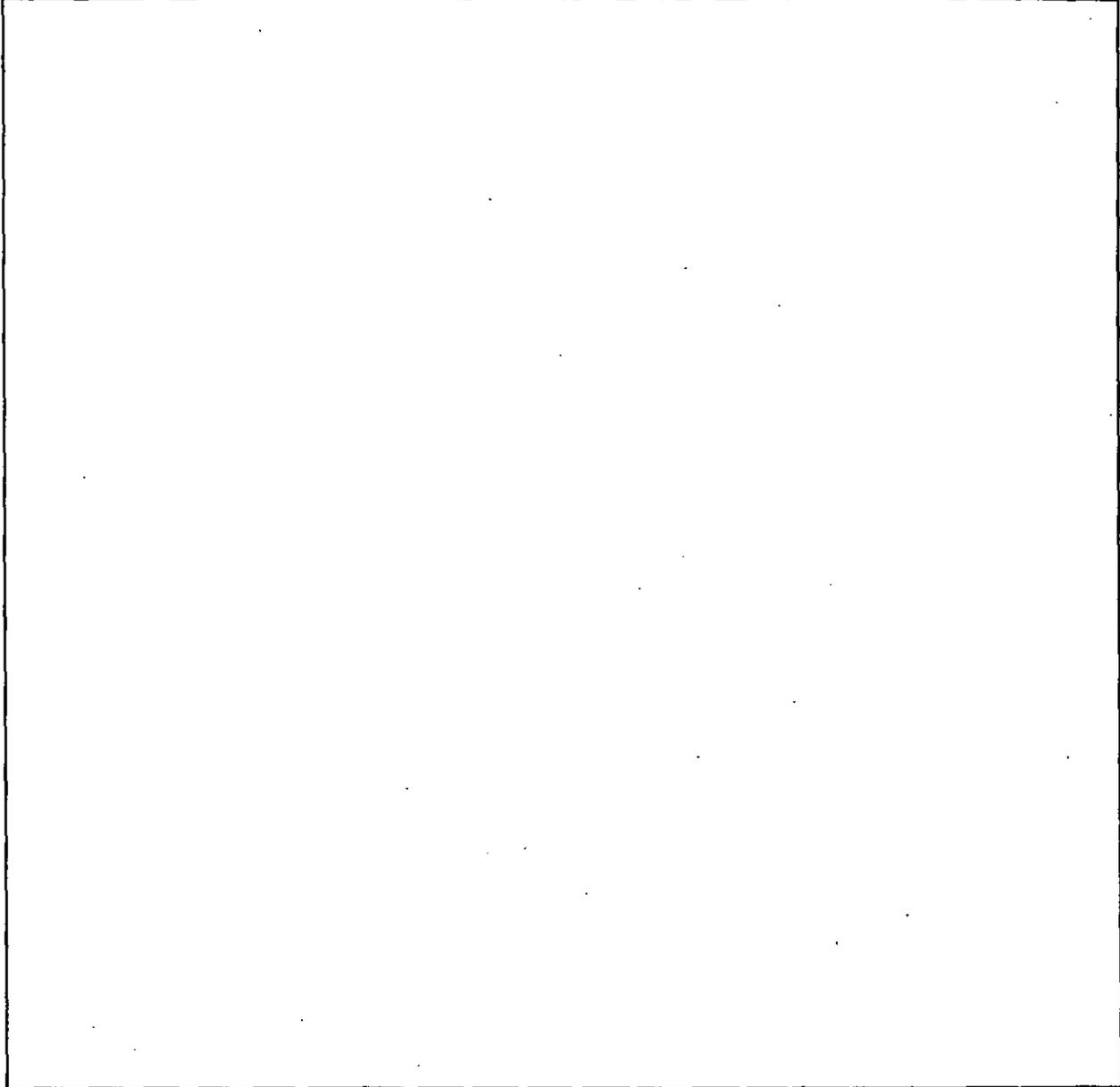
Source: National Center for Education Statistics.

- A level 1 score requires the reader to locate pieces of information based on a literal match.
- A level 2 score requires the reader to match a single piece of information among several distractors.
- A level 3 score requires the reader to integrate multiple pieces of information from one or more documents.
- A level 4 score requires the performance of multiple-feature matches, cycling through documents, and integrating information.
- A level 5 score requires the reader to search through complex displays that contain multiple distractors, to make high-level text-based inferences.

Education

For further information on the topics covered in this chapter, please see the following sources:

Reviewing agencies: Please suggest government publications and websites you think anyone interested in further information on these topics should see.

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Labor Markets

Earnings from the labor market are the primary source of income for the vast majority of families. Labor market earnings are determined by the number of family members who participate in the labor force, the unemployment rate among labor force participants, the number of hours worked per year while employed, and hourly wage rates.

In general, labor force participation rates are higher for men than women (Labor 1). Participation rates have generally increased for women over the past 30 years and have declined gradually for men. Historically, black women had higher participation rates than white women, but this difference reversed in the early 1990s. However, since 1993 black women's participation rates have been increasing faster than white women's rates and appear to have again pulled ahead of white women in the first half 1998 (data for 1998 are not shown in the chart). Hispanic women's participation rates are lower than those of black or white women. Hispanic men's participation rates are higher than those of black men, and approach those of white men.

Unemployment rates--the percentage of the labor force that is not employed--of blacks have been roughly twice those of whites for many years (Labor 2). Black unemployment rates were over 10 percent on an annual basis for more than 20 years. (However, the black unemployment rate fell below 10 percent in July 1997 and dipped below 9 percent in March 1998.) Unemployment rates for Hispanics are generally between those of blacks and whites. Black and Hispanic unemployment rates also rise more in recessions and fall more in recoveries than do white rates.

Investment in labor-market skills is most intensive at young ages. One reason is that investing early in life allows workers to reap the "returns" to such investments over a greater number of years. Therefore, our society encourages young people to invest in labor market skills-- either through schooling, training, or experience on the job. When young people are neither in school nor employed, there is concern both about their current status and activities, and

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that “idleness” may reduce their future earnings prospects. For young women, however, the interpretation of figures on “idleness” is less clear, as many of those who are neither employed nor in school are taking care of children.

About 20 percent of black young men are neither in school nor working, a rate that is twice that of young white men (Labor 3). Young Hispanic men’s rate of “idleness” falls between those of their black and white counterparts. Rates of “idleness” have not fallen substantially over the past 10 years among men, but have fallen among young women, especially among young black women, the result of both increased enrollment and employment of young women.

Wages of white men continue to far exceed those of all other groups of workers (Labor 5 and Labor 7). Studies document that black men’s wages rose relative to white men’s between the early 1960s and the mid-1970s, especially in the South. But this trend reversed some time in the mid- to late 1970s, and their relative pay declined for at least 10 years. The record of the last 10 years is mixed, with some data series showing continued deterioration or little improvement in relative pay for black men, while other series show some improvement.¹ Pay of Hispanic men has fallen relative to both white and black men’s pay, at least in part as a result of falling relative educational attainment among Hispanics, combined with increased demand for highly educated workers.

After reaching near parity in the mid 1970s, black women’s wages have fallen relative to those of white women. (White women have gained considerably relative to white men in this period.) Young, college-educated black women actually reached pay parity with their white counterparts in the early 1970s but have seen their relative wages fall about 10 percentage points since then (Labor 4 and Labor 6).

The median wages of Hispanic men and women is below those of their black and white counterparts. Hispanics’ relative wages have also fallen since 1979. The median wage of college-educated Hispanic women is about 90 percent of that of white women and is slightly

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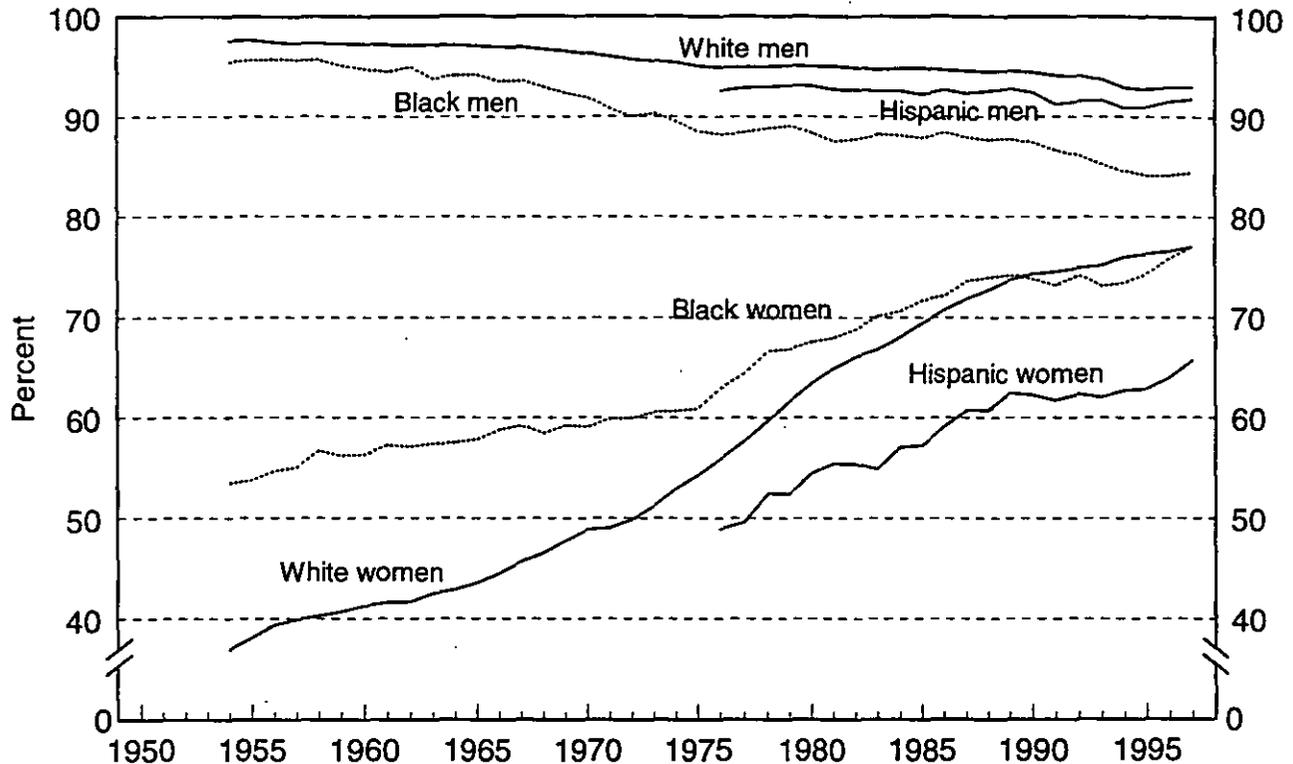
higher than that of black women. The median wage of college-educated Hispanic men is about 80 percent of equivalent white males and is about 10 percentage points higher than equivalent black males. In contrast, differences in educational attainment account for a much smaller portion of black-white differences in wages.

Some of the differences in wages across racial and ethnic groups are linked to occupational differences (Labor 8). Occupation is also an indicator of longer-term socioeconomic status. Asian and white employees are far more likely than black, Hispanic, and American Indian employees to work in professional and managerial occupations and are less likely to work in "blue collar" occupations. Among blue collar occupations, black, Hispanic, and American Indian employees are more likely to be found in the lower-paying, "lower-skilled" occupations (operators, etc.), as compared to the precision production and craft occupations. Black, Hispanic, and American Indian women are more likely to be employed in service occupations.

1.Ref: P-60 series, March 1997. The black-white ratio of median wage of full-time year-round male workers reached a new high in 1996 at about 0.80.

Labor Markets

Labor 1. Labor Force Participation Rates, 25- to 54-Year Olds



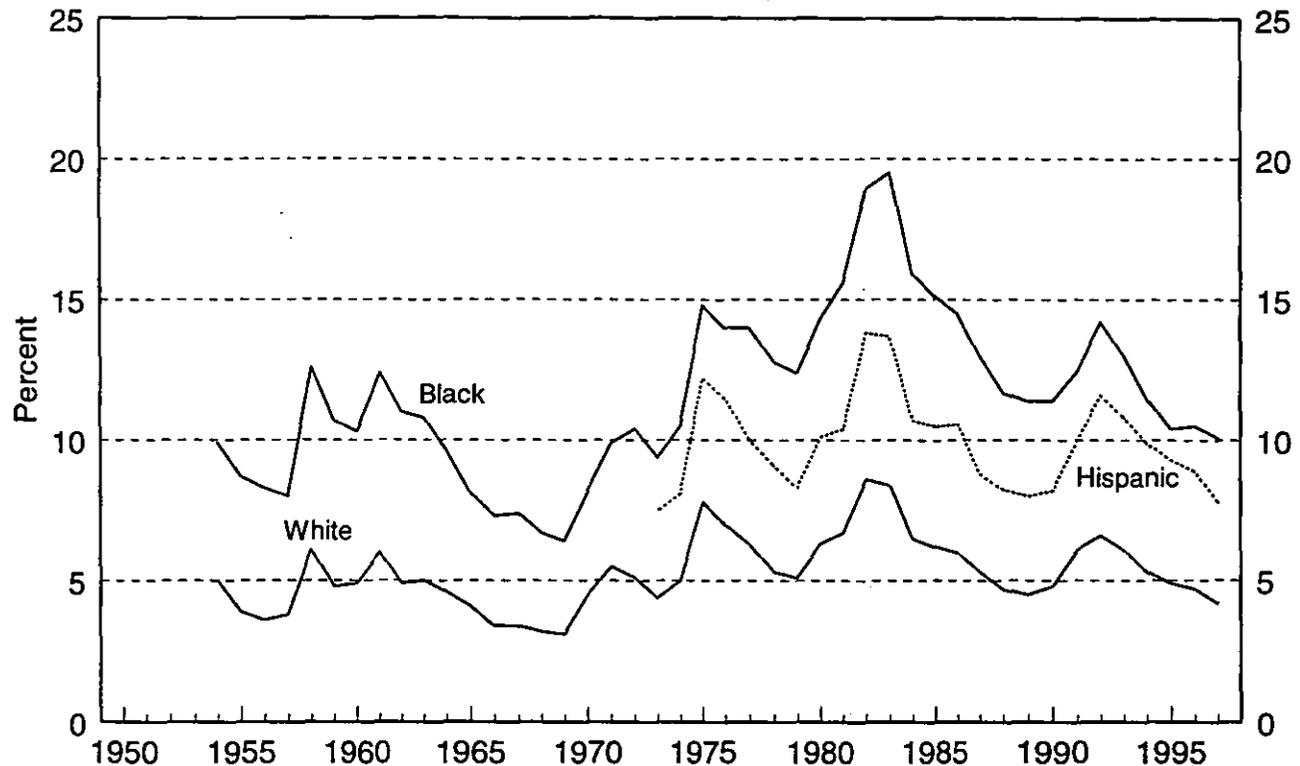
Note: Prior to 1972, data for blacks includes all non-whites.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- The labor force participation rate is the percentage of a population that is either employed or seeking work. Participation in the labor force has long been the norm for men ages 25 to 54. Participation among women has been variously viewed as an indicator of women's economic power and independence or a response to family financial stress resulting from slow male wage growth or unemployment. More recently, welfare reform legislation has encouraged more single mothers with young children to enter the labor force.
- Over the second half of the 20th century, labor force participation rates have risen sharply for all groups of women and have fallen for men.
- Participation rates of black women historically exceeded those of white women, but participation rates for white women surpassed those of black women in the late 1980s. In the mid-1990s, the rate for white women has leveled off, whereas the rate for black women has continued to increase. Participation rates of Hispanic women are lower than those of black and white women.
- Participation rates for white men exceed those of black and Hispanic men. Participation rates have fallen more rapidly among black men than among white and Hispanic men.

Labor Markets

Labor 2. Unemployment Rates (Annual Averages)



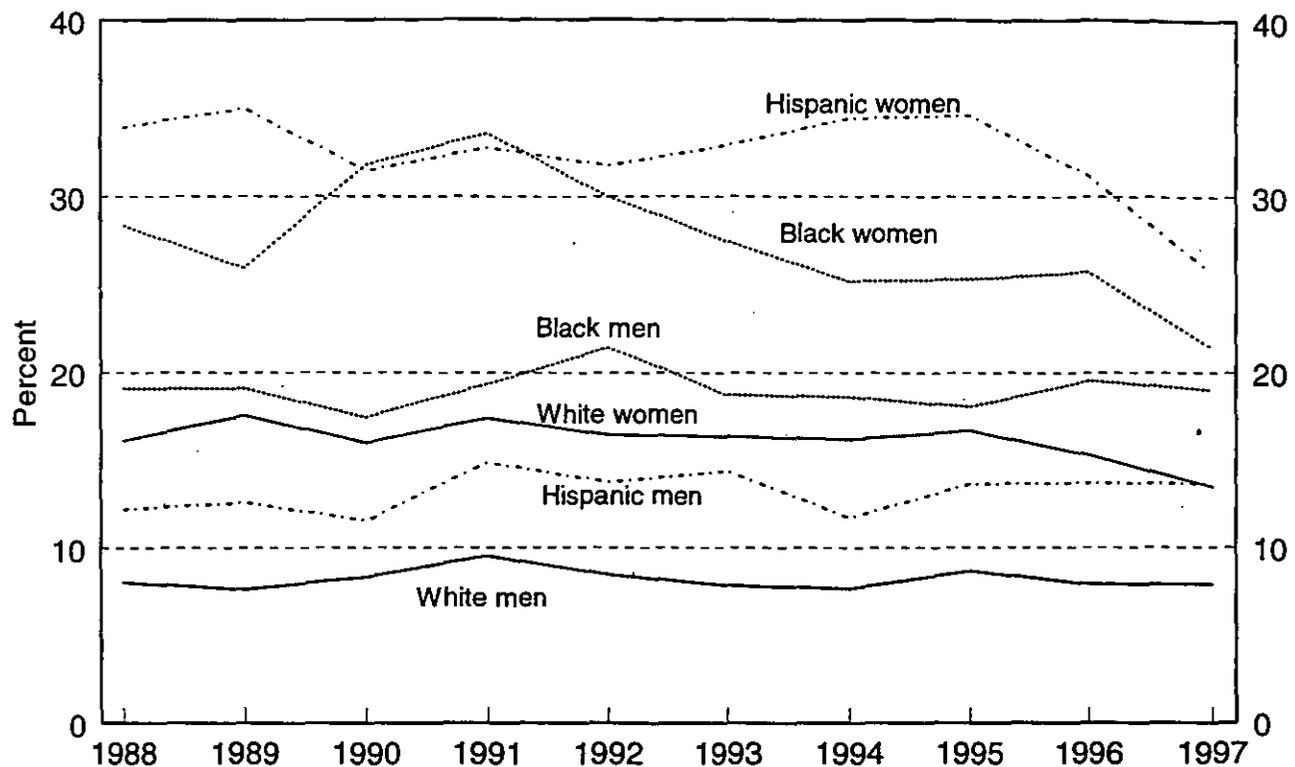
Note: Prior to 1972, data for blacks includes all non-whites.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- The unemployment rate is a widely reported indicator of labor market distress. It is the percentage of the labor force without a job but actively seeking work. (Persons who are not employed but not seeking a job are not included in the labor force, and are therefore classified as neither employed nor unemployed.)
- Unemployment rates for Hispanics and blacks are higher than those for whites, and also tend to rise more in economic recessions and fall more in expansions.
- The unemployment rate for blacks has been twice that of whites for more than 20 years. It was above 10 percent from 1974 to 1997.

Labor Markets

Labor 3. "Idleness" among 16- to 24-Year Olds

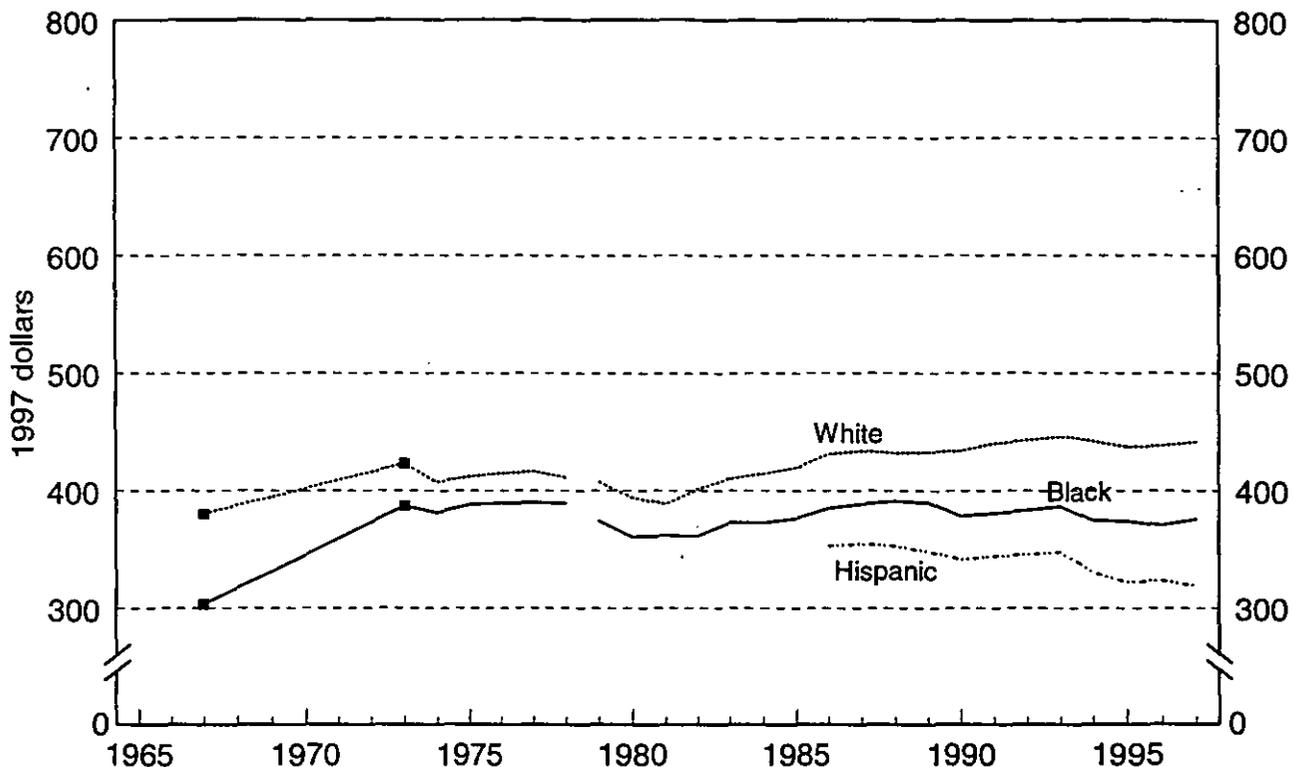


Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Individuals are classified as "idle" if they are neither employed nor enrolled in school. Concerns about idleness are linked to youth crime and future employment prospects. For women, being neither employed nor enrolled in school is often related to child rearing.
- Idleness rates of black and Hispanic youths exceed those of white youths. For young men of all groups, idleness has been relatively flat since 1988.
- For women, idleness rates have fallen substantially in the 1990s, especially since 1995.

Labor Markets

Labor 4. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Female Workers



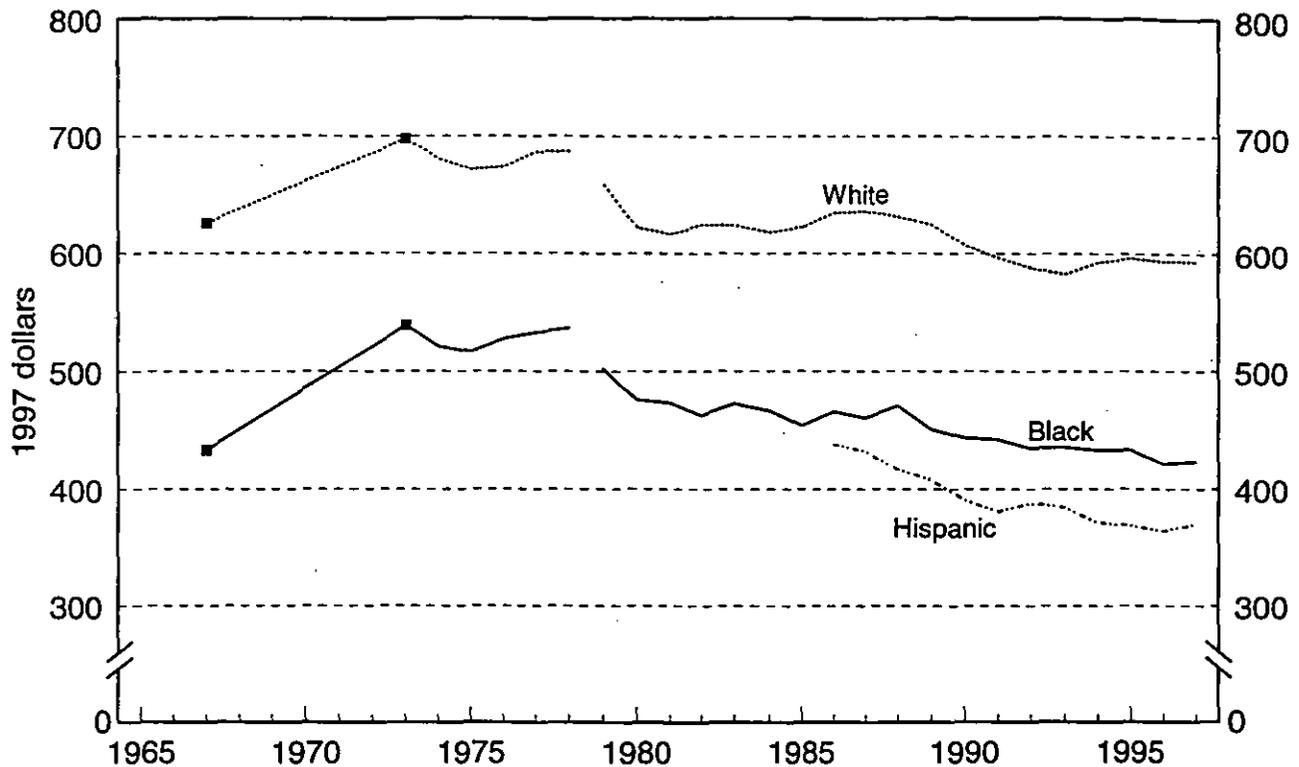
Note: Prior to 1979, the series for blacks includes other nonwhites. Beginning in 1979, data are for workers ages 25 and over.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Women's earnings are a rising share of household income. Earnings of women are particularly important for understanding differences between the economic status of black families and those of other racial and ethnic groups, because black married-couple families have typically relied more heavily on women's earnings than other families, and because the fraction of single female-headed families is highest among black families.
- After adjusting for inflation, weekly earnings of black and white women were higher in 1997 than in 1967. The black-white gap in pay narrowed in the 1960s and early 1970s but has widened since the early 1980s.
- Hispanic women's full-time earnings have fallen in real terms over the past decade.
- Although, on average, male earnings are higher than female earnings, white female median weekly earnings surpassed Hispanic male earnings in 1987 and black male earnings in 1991. Black female earnings have been roughly equal to Hispanic male earnings since 1991.

Labor Markets

Labor 5. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Male Workers



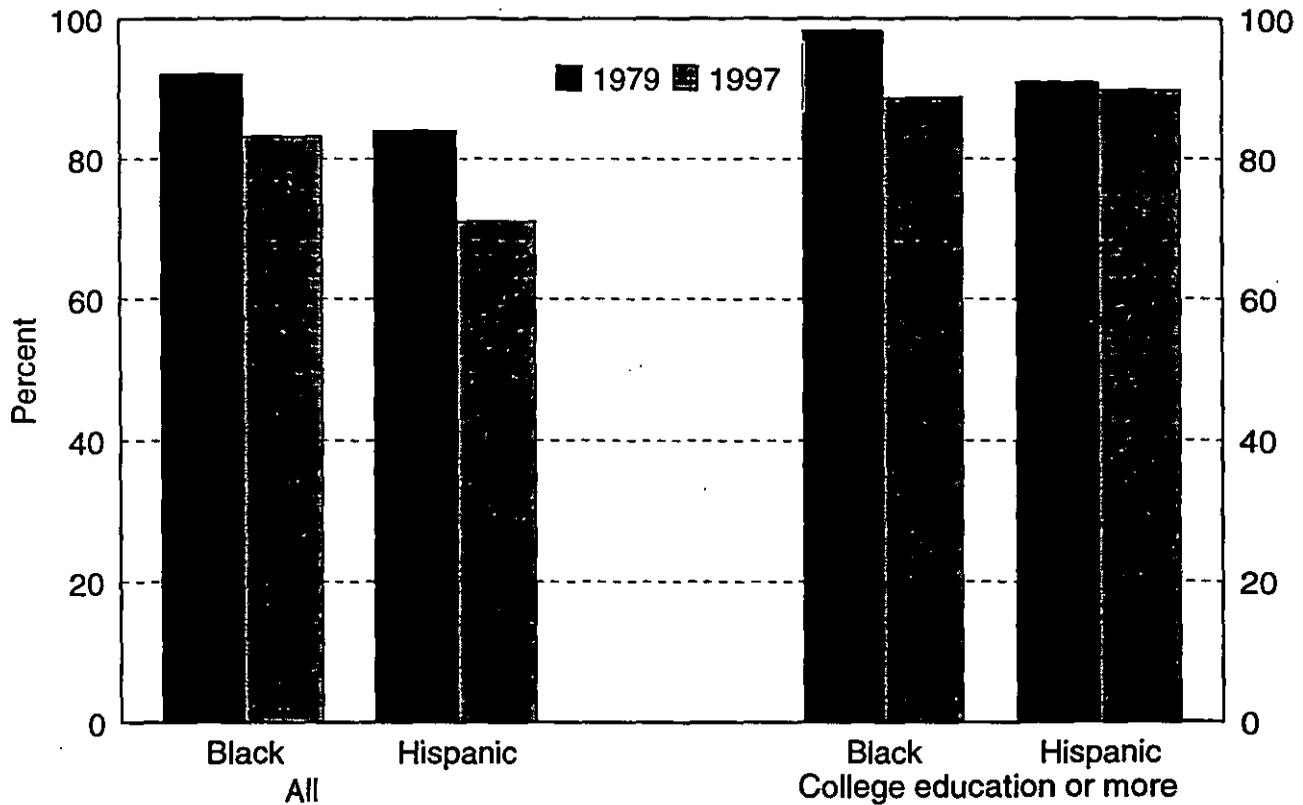
Note: Prior to 1979, the series for blacks includes other nonwhites. Beginning in 1979, data are for workers ages 25 and over.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Male labor market earnings are the largest source of household income.
- Median wages of black and Hispanic men are substantially below those of white men.
- Median wages of men have generally declined since the mid- to late 1970s. The gap in pay between whites on the one hand and blacks and Hispanics on the other generally widened over that period.

Labor Markets

Labor 6. Ratios of Black and Hispanic Female to White Female Median Weekly Earnings



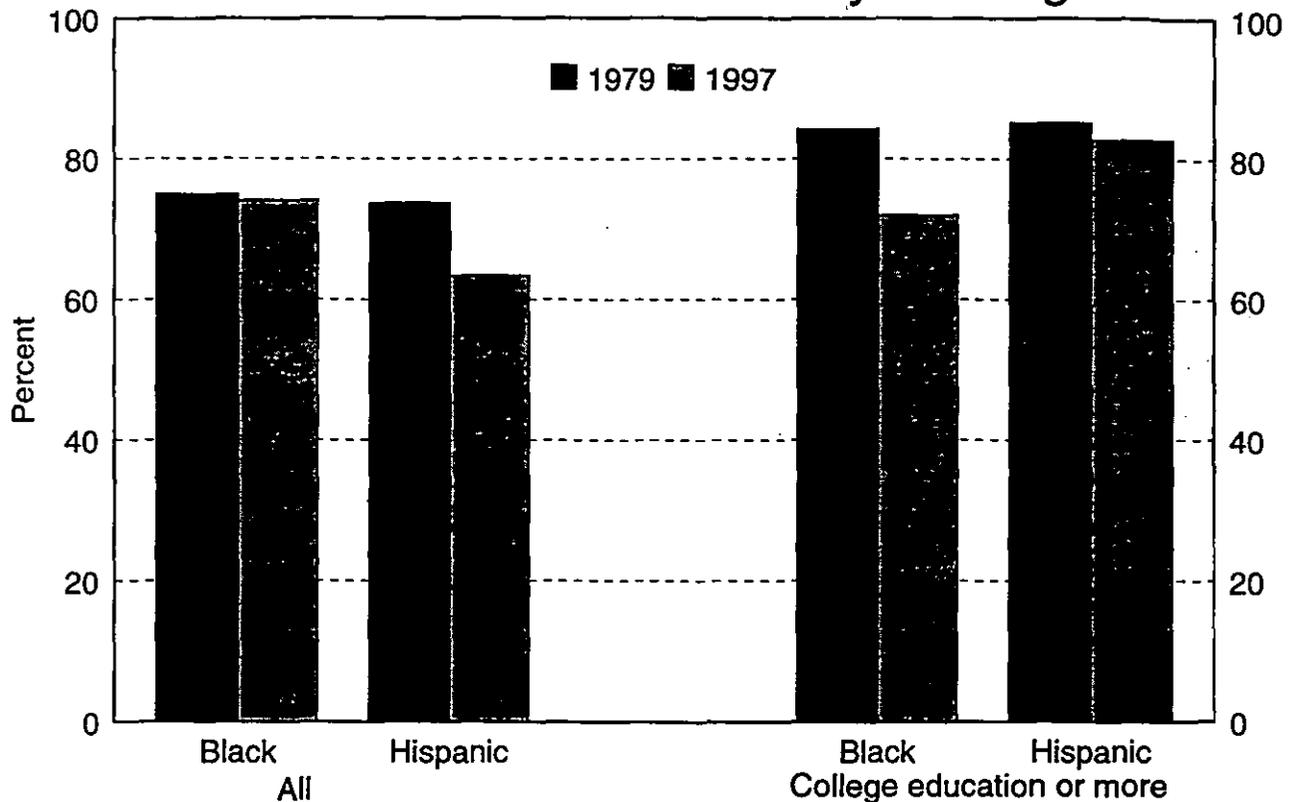
Note: Usual weekly earnings of full-time workers on their main job.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Between 1979 and 1997, the pay of black women relative to that of white women fell by nearly 10 percentage points. In 1979 the median wage of black women with a college degree was 98 percent that of college-educated white women, but by 1997 their earnings had fallen to only 89 percent of the earnings of white women.
- Hispanic women's wages have also fallen relative to white women's wages. However, the decline in Hispanic women's relative pay is much smaller for women with similar education levels. Differences in educational attainment have grown increasingly important in Hispanic-white differences in pay.

Labor Markets

Labor 7. Ratios of Black and Hispanic Male to White Male Median Weekly Earnings

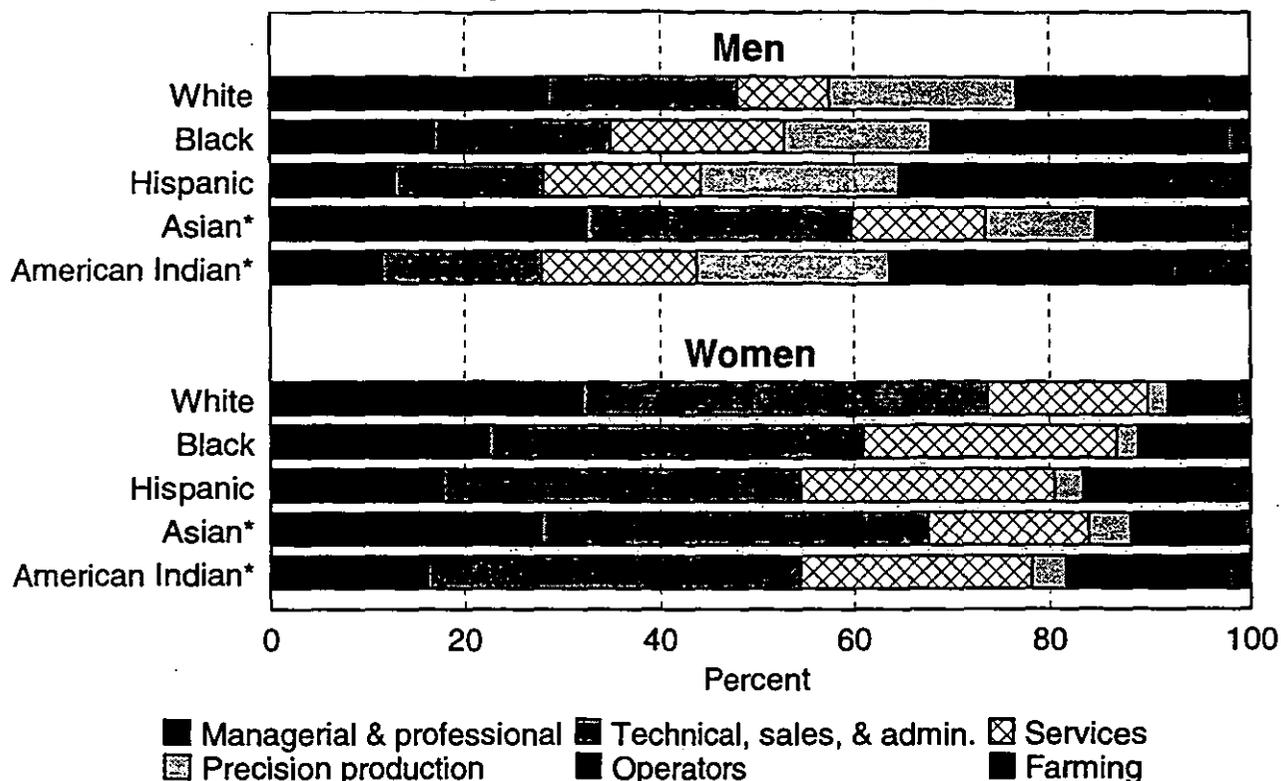


Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Differences in wages can reflect differences in the education of workers and differences in wages paid to workers with similar levels of education. The latter differences may provide information about pay discrimination, although they can also result from differences in other characteristics such as labor market experience.
- Differences in pay across racial and ethnic groups are larger for men than for women. The median black male worker earns 74 percent, and the median Hispanic male worker earns 63 percent as much as the median white man.
- The median wage of black men has fallen slightly relative to that of white men since 1979. The relative pay of college-educated black men has fallen more than 10 percentage points.
- The Hispanic-to-white ratio of median male wages has fallen since 1979. College-educated Hispanic men have lost little ground relative to white men and now earn substantially more than college-educated black men.

Labor Markets

Labor 8. Occupational Distribution of Employed Persons (1997)



*Data for Asians and American Indians are from 1990.

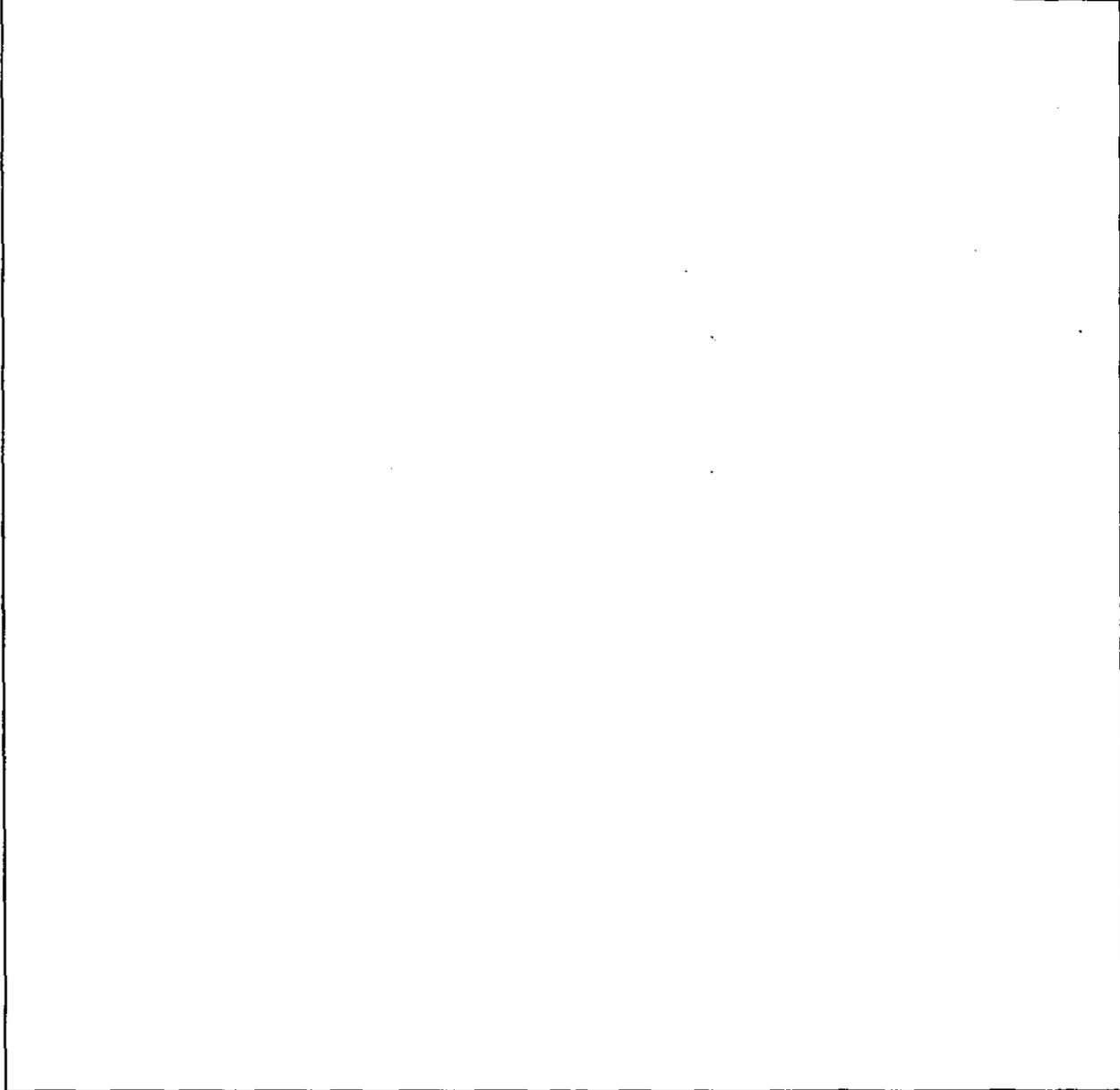
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics and Bureau of the Census.

- Occupation is an indicator of more permanent social and economic status than are employment or wages.
- Except among Hispanic men, the fraction of employed persons in managerial and professional occupations grew considerably between the early 1980s and 1997. Growth in managerial and professional employment has been greatest among white women.
- The percentage of employed men working in the low-paying blue collar occupations "operators" has declined. Among blue collar employees, black and Hispanic men are more likely than white men to be employed in the relatively low-skill, low-pay occupations.

Labor Markets

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Economic Status

No single indicator can be expected to capture fully all facets of economic status for entire populations, but median annual income is most often used to represent economic status. Income of families or households rather than individuals is presented in these charts, because individuals can increase their economic well-being by pooling resources with family members. Although the household or family may not contain all individuals who share income, it is likely to better represent the economic resources available to family members than does their individual incomes or asset holdings.

The incomes of American families have increased markedly over the past 50 years. Between the mid-1970s and the 1990s, however, median family incomes of blacks and Hispanics were stagnant, whereas that for non-Hispanic whites generally increased (Econstat 1). Since the early 1990s, black family income has risen, but Hispanic income has generally fallen. As a result, the ratio of black to non-Hispanic white median family income is about the same today as it was 30 years ago, whereas the ratio of Hispanic to non-Hispanic white income has fallen markedly since the early 1970s. The decline in the relative position of Hispanics is due, at least in part, to immigration of Hispanics with relatively low education and income. The lack of relative progress among black families is often attributed to the greater rise in single parent families among blacks (see Population 5). But these changes in family structure since 1967 can account for only about a fifth of the gap in median family income between blacks and whites in 1996.¹ Median family income of Asians is slightly higher than that of non-Hispanic whites. The higher median income of Asians is consistent with their high levels of educational attainment.

Differences in median incomes provide only a partial description of differences in the income distributions of racial and ethnic groups. A second indicator of the economic status of a population is their poverty rate: the proportion who lack the economic resources needed to purchase a minimally acceptable standard of living (Econstat 2). Poverty among children is of particular concern. Child poverty not only indicates current economic disadvantages among

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families with children, but it is associated with inequality of opportunity, risks to health and development in childhood, and lifetime socioeconomic disadvantage (Econstat 3).

There is no purely scientific method for determining the minimally acceptable living standard: this will vary from society to society and over time as living standards vary. The poverty rates presented here are based on the U.S. Census or "official" definition. Although there is growing consensus among economists that the official measure has limitations and could be improved by revision, alternative measures produce similar disparities in poverty rates among racial and ethnic groups.²

Despite their higher median income, the rate of poverty among Asians in the U.S. is nearly 50 percent higher than the poverty rate of non-Hispanic whites, indicating that the Asian population is economically heterogeneous. Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians have much higher rates of poverty and child poverty than non-Hispanic whites and Asians. Hispanic poverty rates have generally risen since the 1970s and surpassed the rate for blacks in the early 1990s. Although still very high, rates of poverty among blacks have declined since the early 1990s and reached an all-time low in 1996 (Econstat 2). In 1990, the poverty rate for American Indians was higher than that of any of the other groups.³

Add something on Econstat 4, rates by various characteristics.

Asset holdings contribute to economic well-being independently of income. Greater wealth allows a household to maintain its standard of living when income falls because of job loss or family changes such as divorce or widowhood. Disparities in asset holdings across racial and ethnic groups exceed those in income (Econstat 5). For example, in 1993, the net worth (assets minus liabilities) of households headed by whites was more than 10 times that of households headed by blacks or Hispanics. Even among households with similar monthly incomes, net asset holdings are far higher among whites than blacks or Hispanics⁴.

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1. ERP 1998 chapter 4

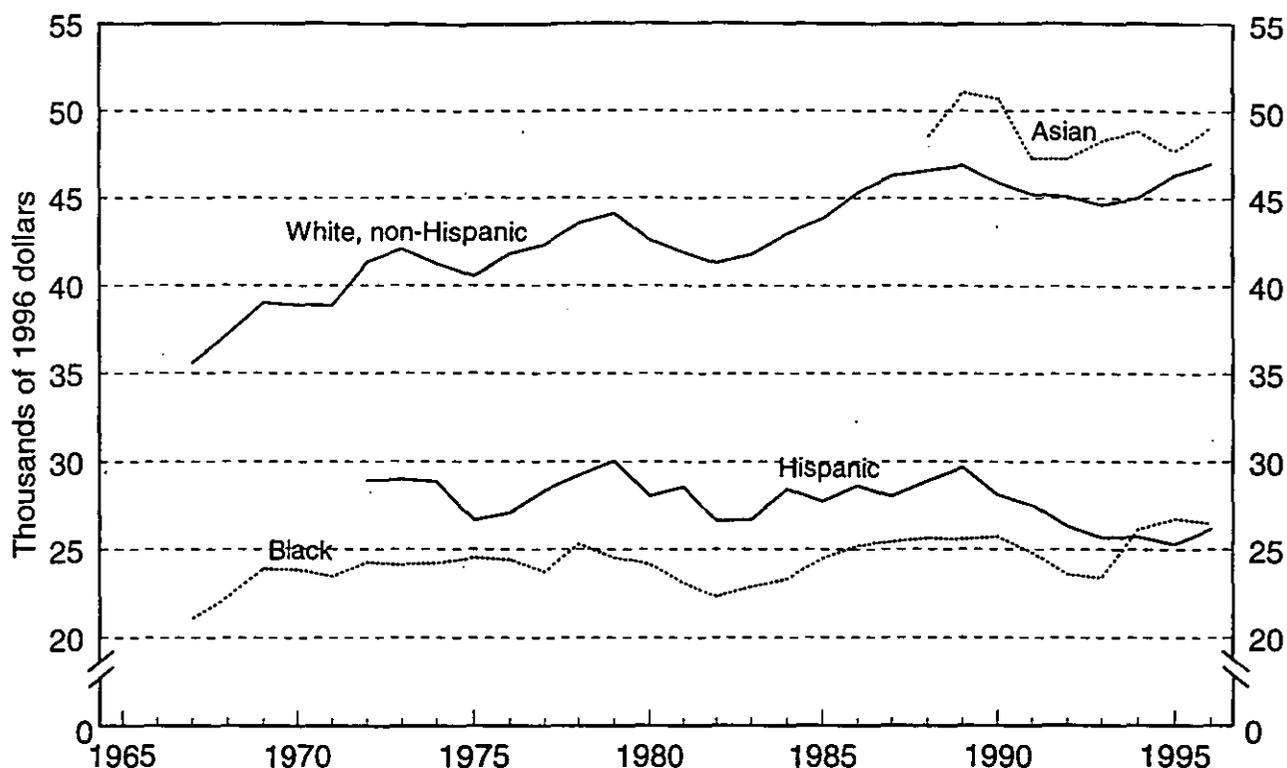
2. Ref: NAS report "Measuring Poverty."

3. SAUS, 1997

4. SIPP, 1993.

Economic Status

Econstat 1. Median Family Income



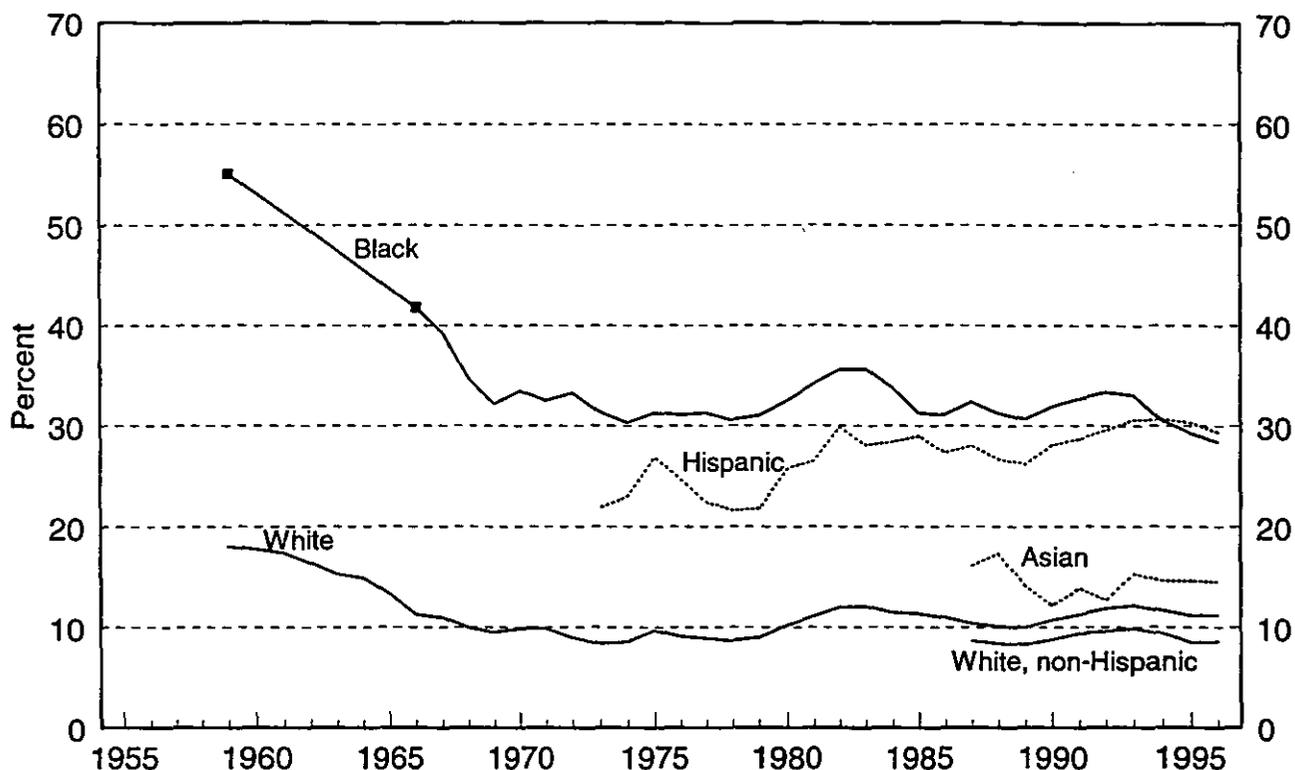
Note: Prior to 1972, data for whites include Hispanic whites, and data for blacks include Hispanic blacks.

Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Median annual income is the most commonly used indicator of current economic status. (Half of families have incomes below and half have incomes above the median.)
- Asian and non-Hispanic white families have much higher incomes than black or Hispanic families. The median income of black families, relative to non-Hispanic white families, was about the same in 1997 as in 1967, while Hispanic median family income has fallen relative to that of non-Hispanic whites.
- A portion of the family income gap between non-Hispanic whites and blacks is associated with the higher prevalence of single-parent families among blacks. Differences in family structure account for only a small part of the difference in median income between Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites.
- According to the 1990 Census, the median family income of American Indians was lower than that of non-Hispanic whites, blacks, Hispanics or Asians.

Economic Status

Econstat 2. Poverty Rates for Persons

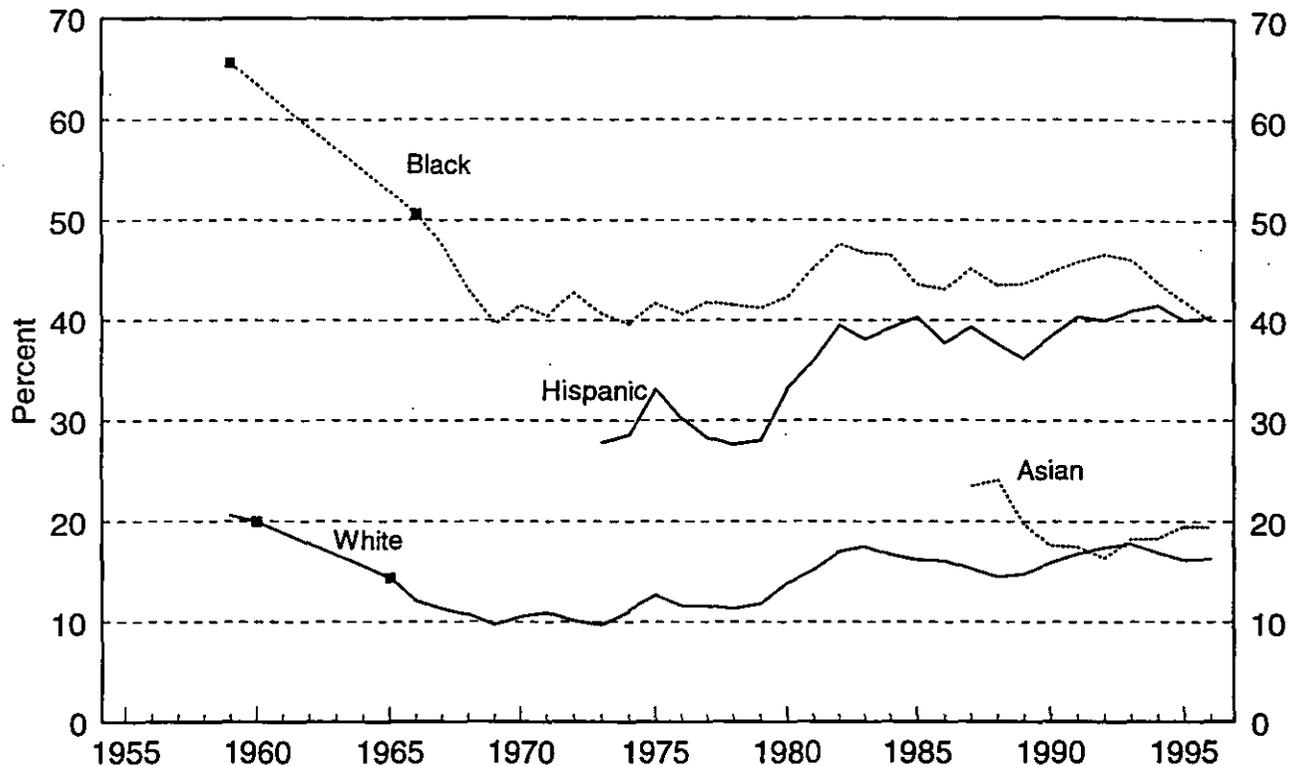


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- The poverty rate -- a widely used indicator of economic disadvantage -- measures the proportion of a population whose cash income is below the official poverty line, for example, \$16,036 for a family of four in 1996.
- Poverty rates for all racial and ethnic groups fell over the 1960s and early 1970s but improved little over the next 20 years. Poverty rates have fallen since 1993, however, particularly among blacks.
- The poverty rate for non-Hispanic whites remains well below that of Asians, blacks, and Hispanics. According to the 1990 Census, the poverty rate for American Indians was the highest among the five racial and ethnic groups.
- The poverty rate for Hispanics increased from the 1970s until the early 1990s. It has been above the rate for blacks since 1994. The increase in Hispanic poverty is partly the result of immigration of Hispanics with lower levels of education.
- Although their median family income exceeds that of non-Hispanic whites, Asians are more likely than non-Hispanic whites to be poor. This combination of relatively high poverty and high median income reflects the great economic diversity of the U.S. Asian population.

Economic Status

Econstat 3. Poverty Rates for Children



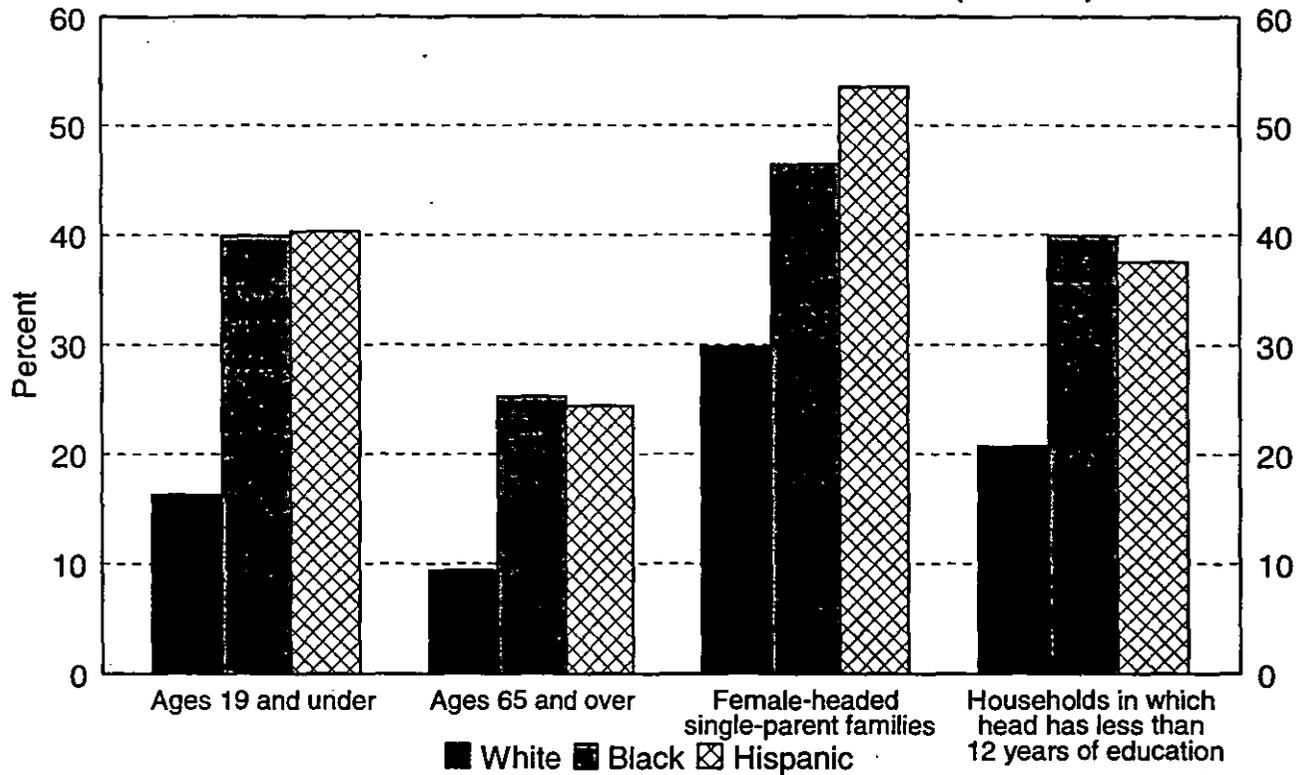
Notes: Prior to 1974 for whites and blacks, and prior to 1976 for Hispanics, poverty rates are for related children in families. 1959 datum for blacks is from the Census.

Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Child poverty measures current economic hardship among families with children. But poverty in childhood is also associated with poor child health, delayed cognitive development, and poverty in adulthood. As such, it is also an indicator of inequality of opportunity and a predictor of long-term economic disadvantage.
- Child poverty rates for all groups declined sharply in the 1960s. Since then, child poverty rates have fluctuated with the economy and edged up for most groups.
- Poverty rates for Hispanic children have increased more rapidly than among other groups and currently exceed poverty rates among black children. According to the 1990 Census, American Indian children had poverty rates that were second only to blacks.

Economic Status

Econstat 4. Poverty Rates by Selected Individual and Household Characteristics (1996)

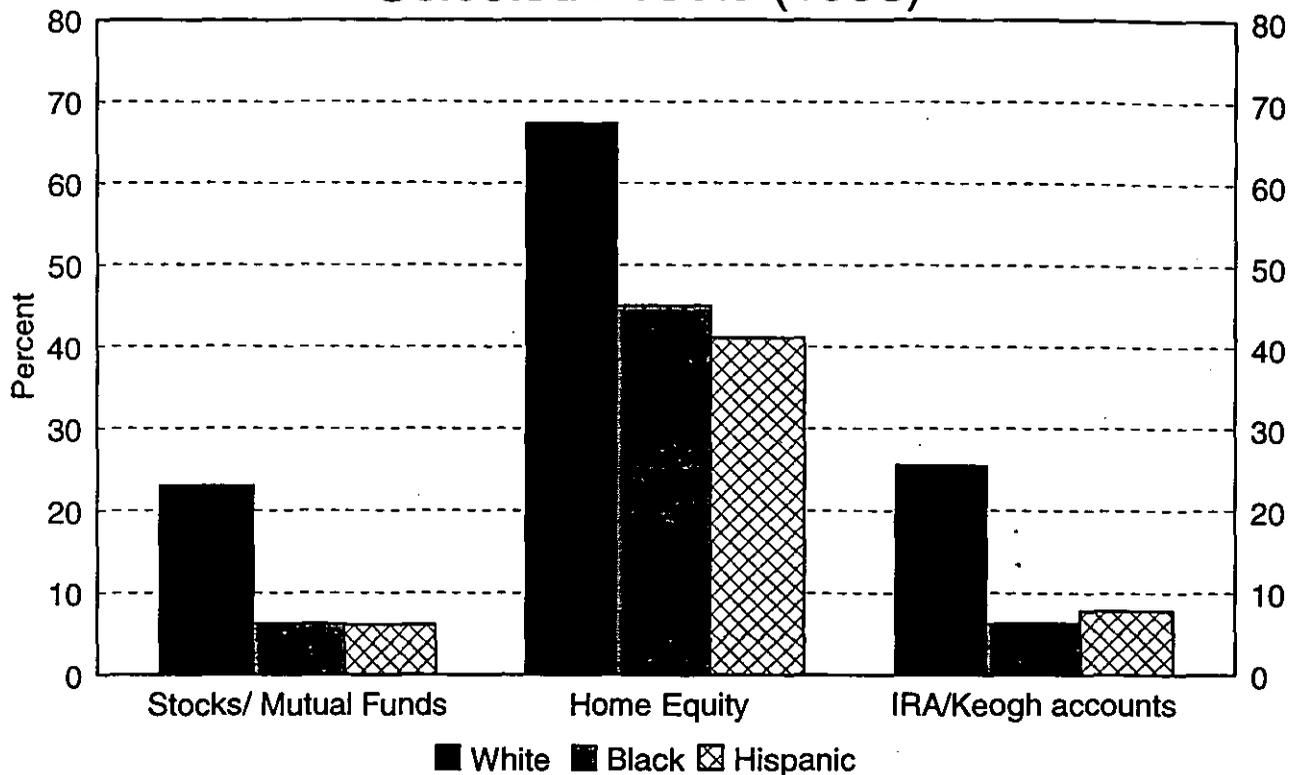


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- The higher poverty rates of blacks, Hispanics and American Indians are in part linked to educational attainment and single-parent families. But even for individuals with similar characteristics, poverty rates for blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians are higher than poverty rates for whites.
- Poverty rates for black and Hispanic single mothers, children, and elderly are markedly higher than those of their white counterparts.

Economic Status

Econstat 5. Households Owning Selected Assets (1993)



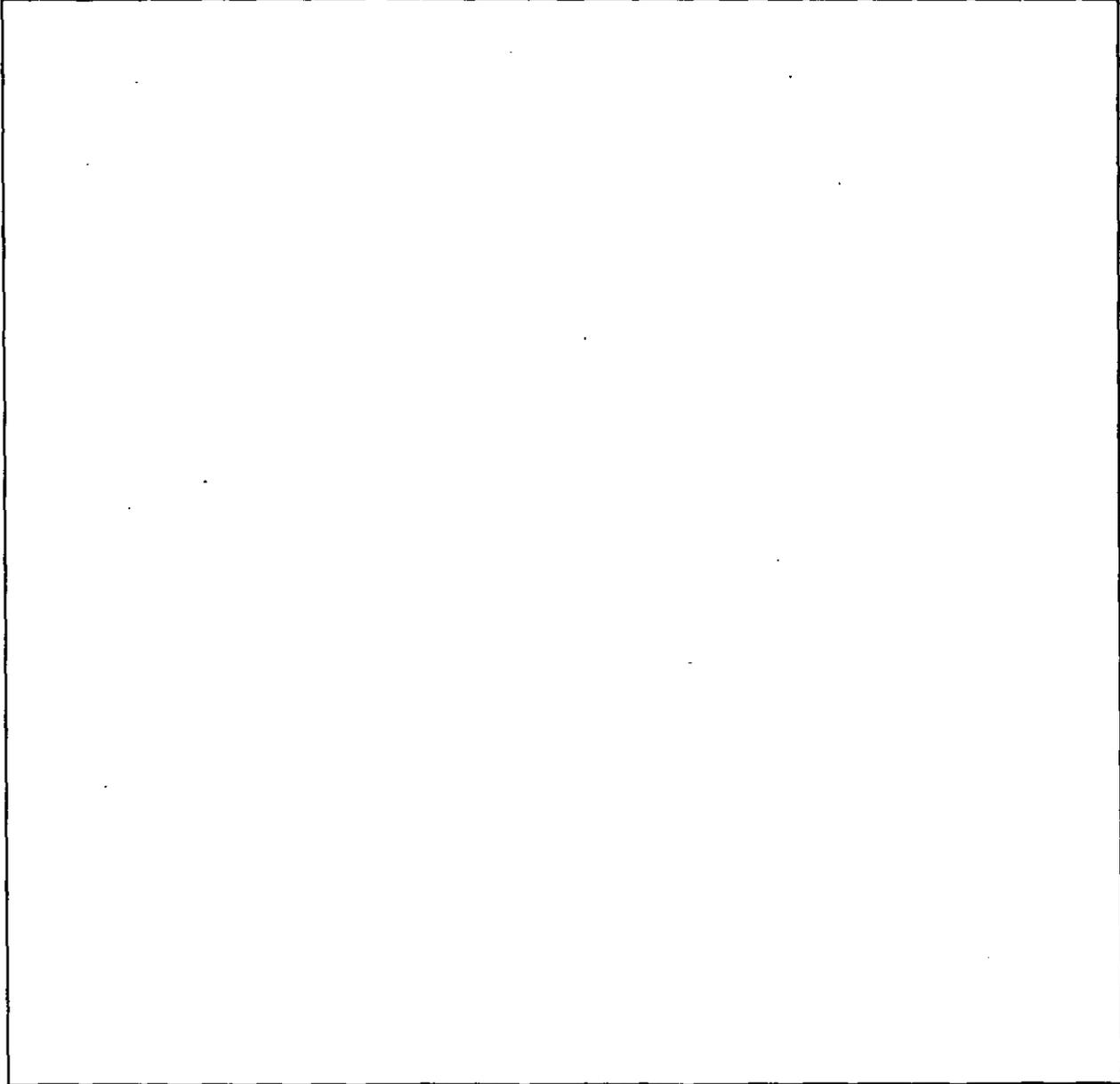
Source: Bureau of the Census.

- Wealth (assets minus liabilities) is an indicator of more permanent economic status than is income in a single year. Wealth provides a cushion against temporary economic hardship.
- Households headed by whites were more likely than those headed by blacks or Hispanics to own stocks or mutual funds, have equity in their home, or own a private pension plan such as an IRA, Keogh, or 401K.
- Differences in stock ownership in 1993 are notable, because the value of stock has increased markedly since that time; for example, the Standard and Poor's 500 Index has more than doubled in value since 1993.
- Among those who own assets of each type, the median value of assets held by whites is higher than that of assets owned by blacks and Hispanics. In 1993, the median net worth of households headed by a white person was 10 times that of households headed by a black or Hispanic person.

Economic Status

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Health

Advances in public health practice and medical technology have contributed to dramatic improvements in the average longevity of the U.S. population. The average American in 1900 could not expect to live to the age of 50. By 1995 the average American could expect to live past the age of 75. While all racial and ethnic groups have experienced gains in life expectancy, differences in longevity and in many other measures of health status have been apparent for as long as these measures have been collected separately by race. This is true for measures of health status at the beginning, middle, and end of the life span. For some groups and some measures these differences are persistently large. For others, the differences are small.

In general, blacks fare worse than any other group, and American Indians and Hispanics are often disadvantaged in health status relative to whites. On average, Asians fare as well as and sometimes better than whites on most measures of health. While many of the observed differences are large, average differences between racial and ethnic groups may understate important differences within the society. For instance, there is evidence that blacks who live in very poor urban areas suffer extreme health disadvantages not only relative to whites but also relative to blacks who live in poor rural areas or middle class urban neighborhoods.¹

Infant mortality is often used to compare the health and well being of populations across countries as well as within countries. While the United States has a lower rate of infant mortality than a typical developing country, it has long had one of the worst infant mortality rates of any industrialized country in the world. Within the U.S., blacks and American Indians have higher infant mortality rates than other groups, and while mortality rates have been falling for all groups, differences among groups have persisted over time (Health 1).

¹ Geronimus, AT, J Bound, TA Waidmann, MM Hillemeier & PB Burns. 1996. "Excess mortality among blacks and whites in the United States." *New England Journal of Medicine*, 335, 1552-1558.

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Declines in infant mortality and infectious diseases among the young contributed much to the increase in overall life expectancy in the early part of the 20th century. In the latter part of the century, the large declines in chronic disease death rates among the middle aged and older groups have led to an acceleration of life expectancy. However, differences in life expectancy between whites and blacks have persisted throughout the period, and among men, they have actually grown slightly since the 1980s (Health 2).

Once a significant cause of death and illness, childhood infectious diseases have largely been conquered through widespread use of vaccination. Mandatory vaccination requirements for enrollment in most schools in the U.S. virtually assure vaccination by age 5. However, a large majority of children in the U.S. receive vaccinations much earlier according to the recommended schedule that begins at birth and is largely complete by 18 months. Whether or not a child aged 19 to 35 months is up to date with this schedule is a key indicator of access to basic medical care. While there are differences among racial and ethnic groups in the U.S., these are largely a reflection of differences in economic status among groups (Health 3).

Smoking contributes to nearly 400,000 cancer and heart disease deaths annually, and the reduction of smoking rates has been an important goal of public health efforts for many years. Because of the addictive property of nicotine, and since most current smokers began smoking at young ages, efforts at smoking reduction have focused on the reducing smoking among youth. From the 1960s through the 1980s, there were large reductions in smoking among 18- to 24-year olds, especially for men (Health 4). Rates of smoking fell more for blacks than for whites. Since 1990, however, there is concern that this decline has stopped, and smoking among black, white and Hispanic 18- to 24-year olds has increased.

The other major areas of concern for adolescent and young adult health are injuries and AIDS. Adolescents and young adults, particularly males, face higher rates of death due to motor vehicle accidents, suicides, and homicides than any other age group. There are also racial and ethnic differences within this age group. American Indians face much higher death rates due to

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suicides and accidents than any other group, while blacks face much higher rates of homicide than any other group (Health 5). Hispanics and American Indians also face higher-than-average homicide rates. HIV and AIDS kill black and Hispanic young adults at significantly higher rates than whites.

At middle age, chronic diseases are much more important indicators of health. Heart disease and cancer are the two most important causes of premature death for those ages 45 to 64, and much of this mortality is directly attributable to smoking. Relative to other groups, blacks face large health disadvantages in the prevalence of these chronic diseases (Health 6). Asians face lower death rates due to heart disease at these ages than other groups. To a large extent, these differences are responsible for the relatively low probability that blacks survive to old age. While only two out of three blacks can expect to live to age 65, nearly 90 percent of Asians can expect to live that long.

While not presented in this volume, there is also evidence that health differences persist into old age. Black and Hispanic elderly are more likely to have disabilities and chronic diseases than white elderly, but to some extent these differences are explained by differences in socioeconomic status.^{2,3}

Research into the reasons for health differences between racial and ethnic groups has focused largely on differences in socioeconomic status.⁴ On average, white Americans have better access to the social and economic resources necessary for healthy living environments, better access to preventative medical services, and healthier lifestyle choices. Other research

² Schoenbaum, ML & TA Waidmann. 1997. "Race, socioeconomic status, and health: Accounting for race differences in health." *Journals of Gerontology*, 52B, 61-73.

³ Smith, JP and R Kington. 1997. "Demographic and economic correlates of health in old age." *Demography*, 34, 159-170.

⁴ Williams, DR. 1990. "Socioeconomic differentials in health: A review and redirection." *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 53, 81-99.

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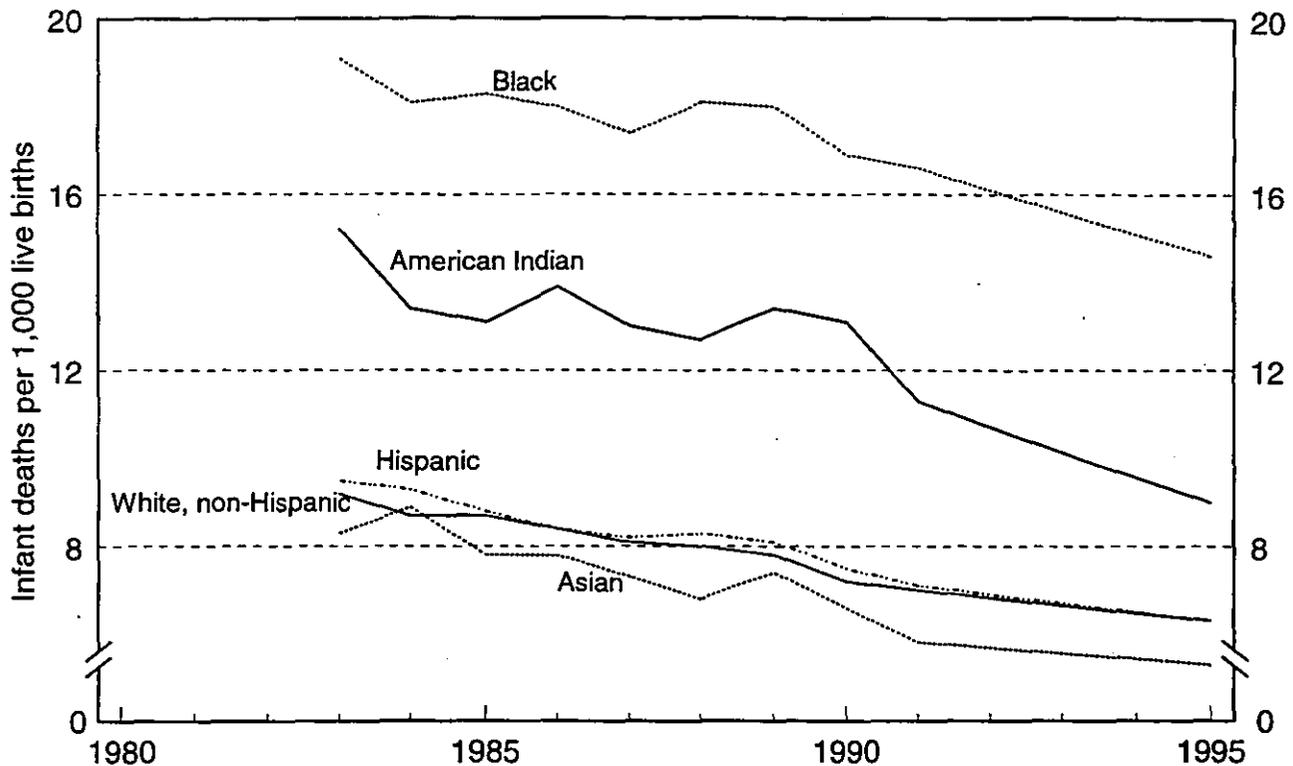
suggests that discrimination and racism create added stress leading to poor health among members of racial minority groups, particularly blacks.⁵

To the extent that access to medical care can prevent the onset of disease or ameliorate its effects, the portion of the population without health insurance (either public or private) will be correlated with health. Among men especially, Hispanics and blacks are less likely to have health insurance than non-Hispanic whites (Health 7). Insurance coverage is highly correlated with income, however, and the difference between white and black men (though not the difference between Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites) is almost entirely explained by differences in income.

There are also economic consequences of disparities in health status. For example, poor health can lead to high expenditures on medical care at the expense of other goods (e.g., housing, education). Perhaps more importantly, poor health can also reduce earning potential. Thus, the disparities observed in health between race and ethnic groups in the U.S. are tied to differences in many other economic and social realms.

⁵ James, SA, SA Hartnett & WD Kalsbeek. 1983. "John Henryism and blood pressure differences among black men." *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 6, 259-278.

Health 1. Infant Mortality Rates

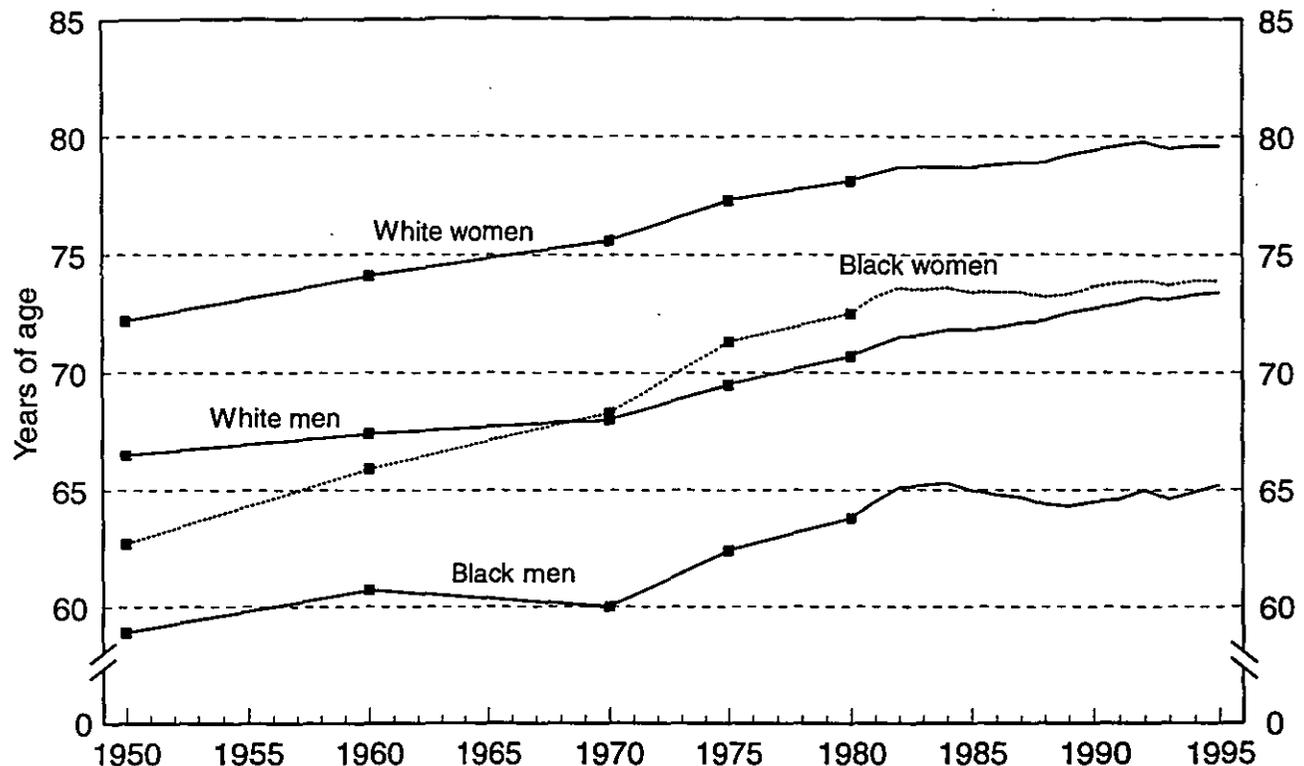


Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- The infant mortality rate is often used as a primary indicator of the overall health status of a population. It is defined as the number of deaths that occur before a child's first birthday per 1,000 live births.
- There are wide disparities in infant mortality among racial and ethnic groups. The rate for blacks (14.6) is more than twice the rate for non-Hispanic whites (6.3), Hispanics (6.3), and Asians (5.3). American Indians also have relatively high rates (9.0).
- While infant mortality rates have fallen over time for all racial and ethnic groups, differences between groups have persisted. In 1968, black infants died at a rate of more than 35 per thousand while non-Hispanic white infants died at a rate of just under 20 per thousand.
- For most groups, the infant mortality rate is much higher for babies born to teenage mothers. The notable exception to this regularity is black mothers, for whom the infant mortality rate is no higher for teenage mothers than for the average mother. This means that higher teenage birth rates do not account for higher overall black infant mortality rates.

Health

Health 2. Life Expectancy at Birth

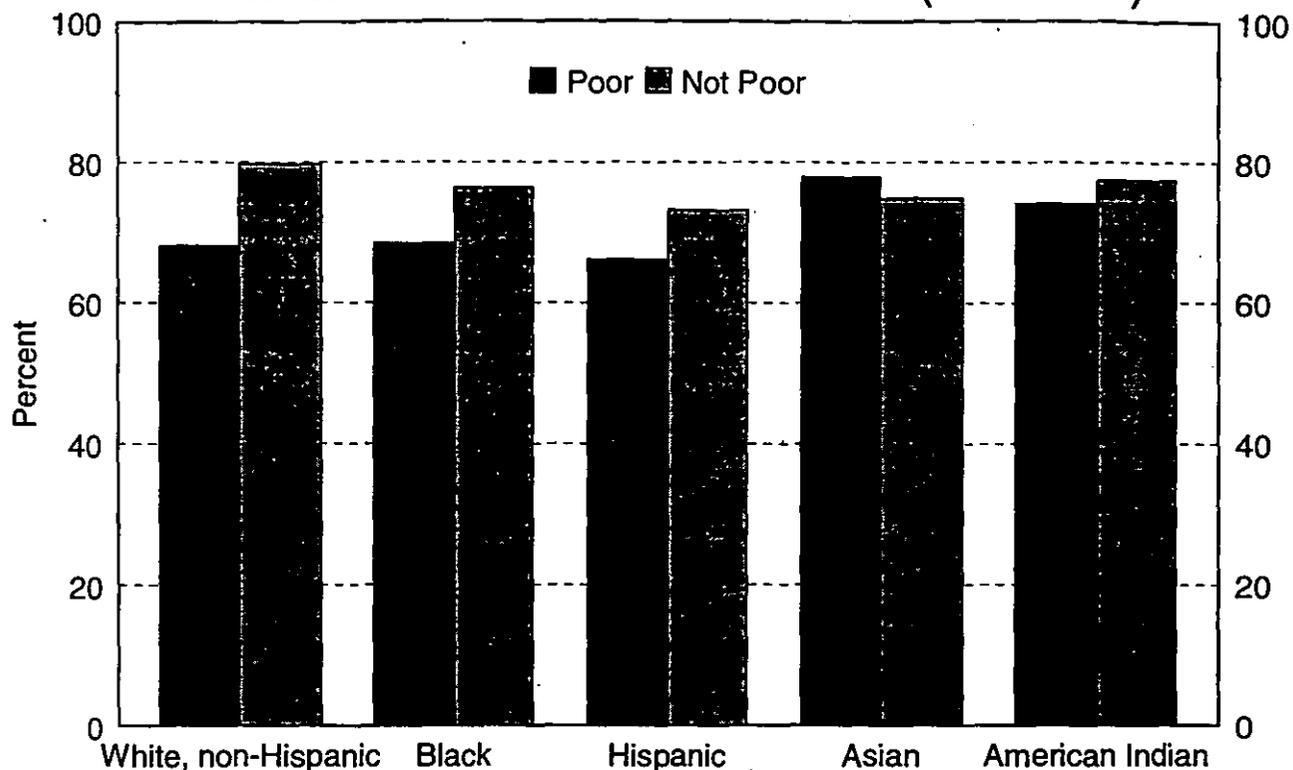


Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- A key summary measure of mortality risk is life expectancy at birth. This represents the length of time that an average baby born today would live if current death rates at each age remained constant
- For both men and women, whites can expect to live longer than blacks.
- Women of both race groups can expect to live longer than their male counterparts.
- While life expectancy has increased substantially for all groups, the differences between whites and blacks have not narrowed and have actually increased since 1980, particularly among men. (Life expectancy has continued to increase for white men, while black men's life span has remained relatively flat since 1981.)

Health

Health 3. Up-to-Date with Recommended Vaccinations at 19 to 35 Months (1995-96)

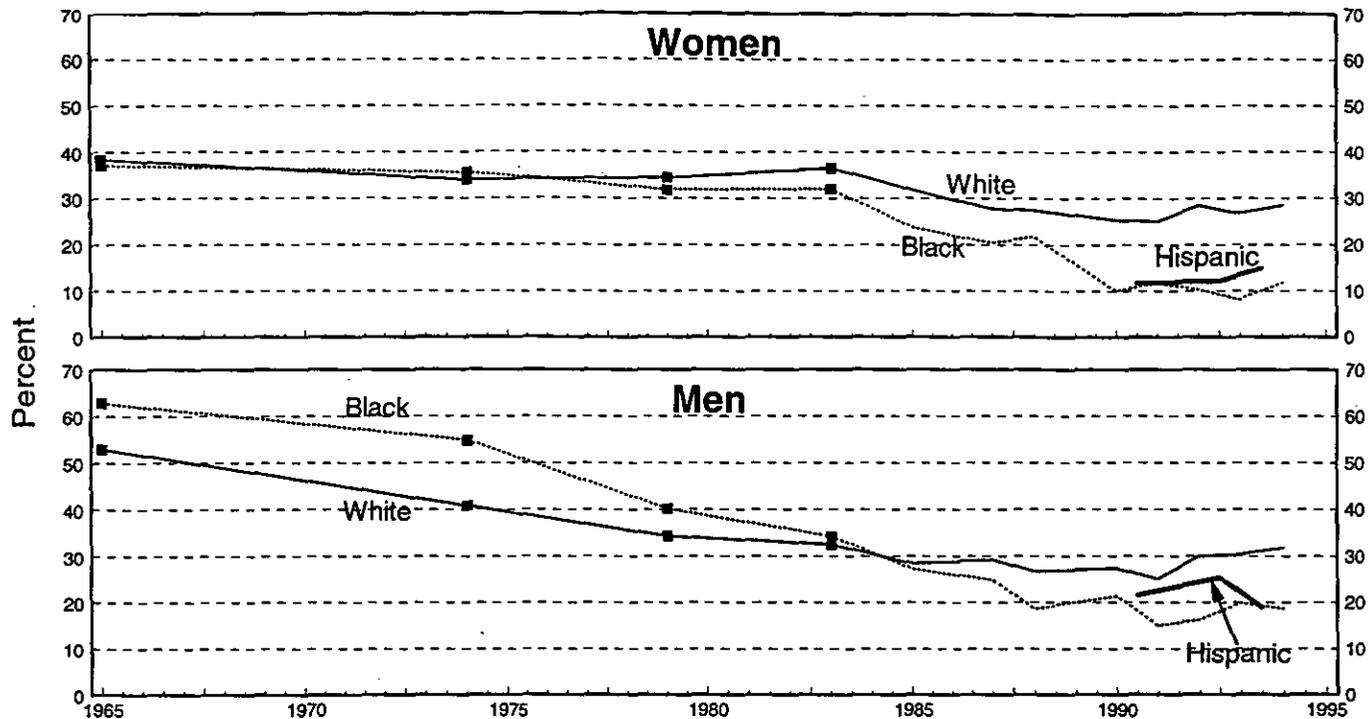


Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- Immunization is a fundamental component of regular medical care for children. In addition to measuring the extent to which children are protected from childhood diseases, this measure also indicates whether children have at least some access to medical care. This chart shows the percent of children ages 19-35 months who are up-to-date with the recommended schedule of vaccinations in 1995 and 1996.
- For white, black, and Hispanic children, those who live in poverty are less likely than non-poor children to be up-to-date with recommended vaccinations.
- Comparing children in similar economic circumstances, there are relatively small differences between racial and ethnic groups. White, black, and Hispanic children in poverty have roughly equal chances of being currently vaccinated. American Indian and Asian children in poverty have somewhat higher chances of being up-to-date with vaccinations. Among children above the poverty line, Hispanic children are somewhat less likely to be vaccinated than non-poor children in other groups.

Health

Health 4. Prevalence of Smoking among 18- to 24-Year Olds



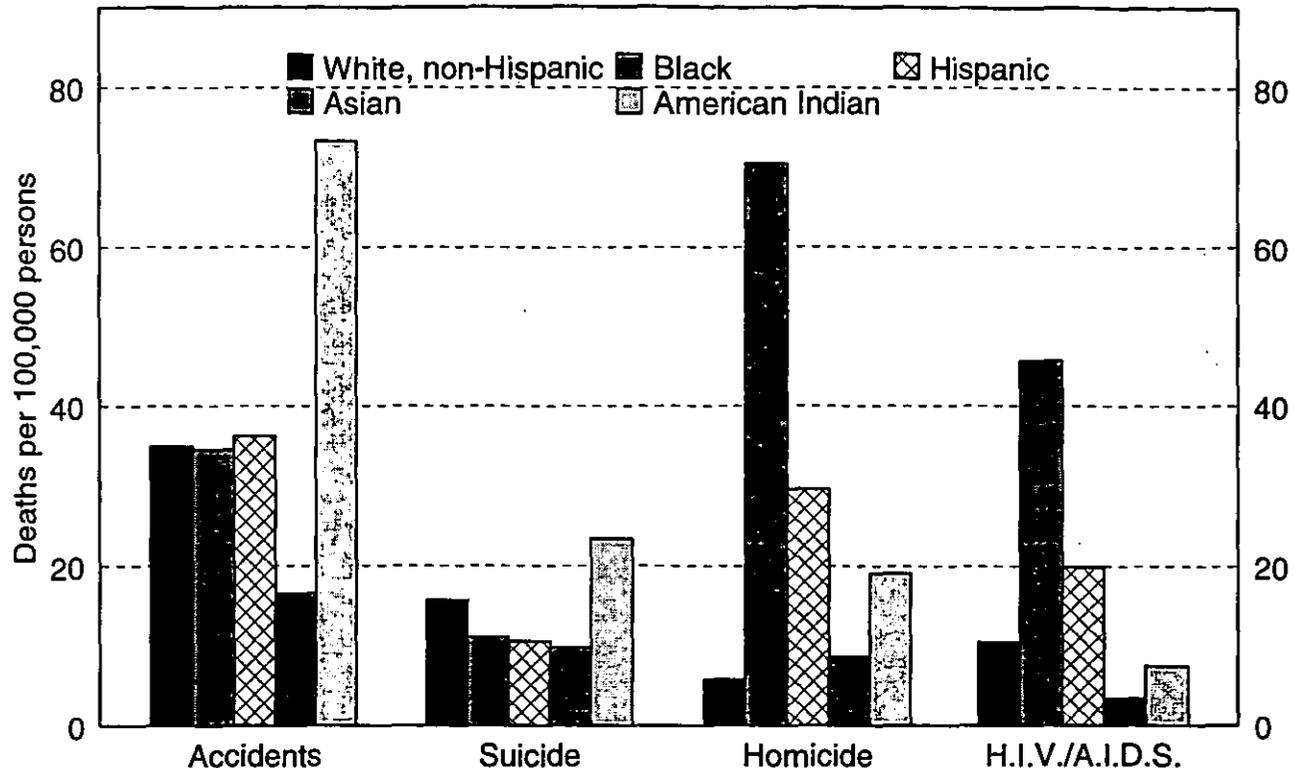
Note: Data for Hispanics are from 1990-91, 1992-93, and 1993-94.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- Cigarette smoking is one of the most important public health concerns in the U.S., contributing to nearly 400,000 deaths each year. Most smokers begin smoking early in life, and much effort to reduce smoking has been focused on young people.
- Approximately 30 percent of 18- to 24-year-old whites smoke, compared to approximately 20 percent of blacks and Hispanics. For men, smoking rates for this age group have fallen substantially since 1965, when more than 60 percent of black males and more than 50 percent of white males smoked. For women, reductions since 1965 have been less dramatic.
- Since the mid-1980s, smoking prevalence among black young adults has fallen faster than among whites. In recent years (since 1991), there have actually been increases in the fraction of white men and women who smoke.
- Data for Hispanics is only available beginning in 1990-91. Hispanics show smoking prevalence that is lower than whites and slightly higher than blacks.

Health

Health 5. Death Rates by Cause for Ages 15 to 34 (1994-95)



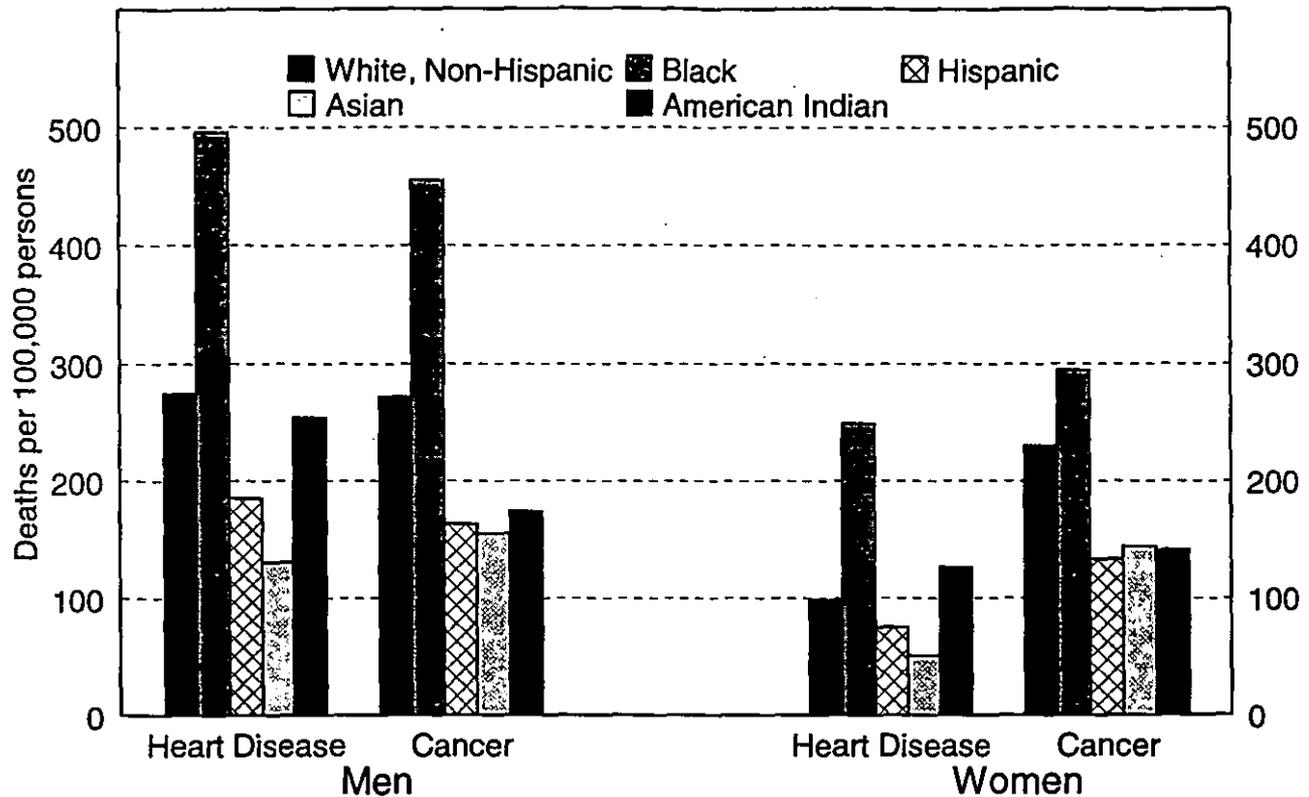
Note: HIV data on American Indians are from 1993-95.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- While deaths to adolescents and young adults are rare relative to deaths among older adults and the elderly, several causes of death are particularly important for this age group. The most common cause of death in this group is not disease but injuries, either accidental or intentional, accounting for more than half of all deaths in this age group. The one fatal disease which affects this age group significantly is HIV/AIDS.
- American Indians are much more likely than members of other groups to die accidentally (the most common causes are motor vehicle accidents and firearm accidents) or to commit suicide. Blacks are much more likely to be a victim of homicide (with Hispanics and American Indians ranked a distant second and third). Blacks are also more likely to die from AIDS-related diseases than other groups. Asians have the lowest rates of death due to injuries and AIDS in this age group.
- Deaths due to injuries (accidental and intentional) are more prevalent among men than women in all age groups, but this difference is particularly apparent for persons between the ages of 15 and 34. In this group, more than 80 percent of injury deaths are to men.

Health

Health 6. Death Rates by Cause for Ages 45 to 64 (1995)

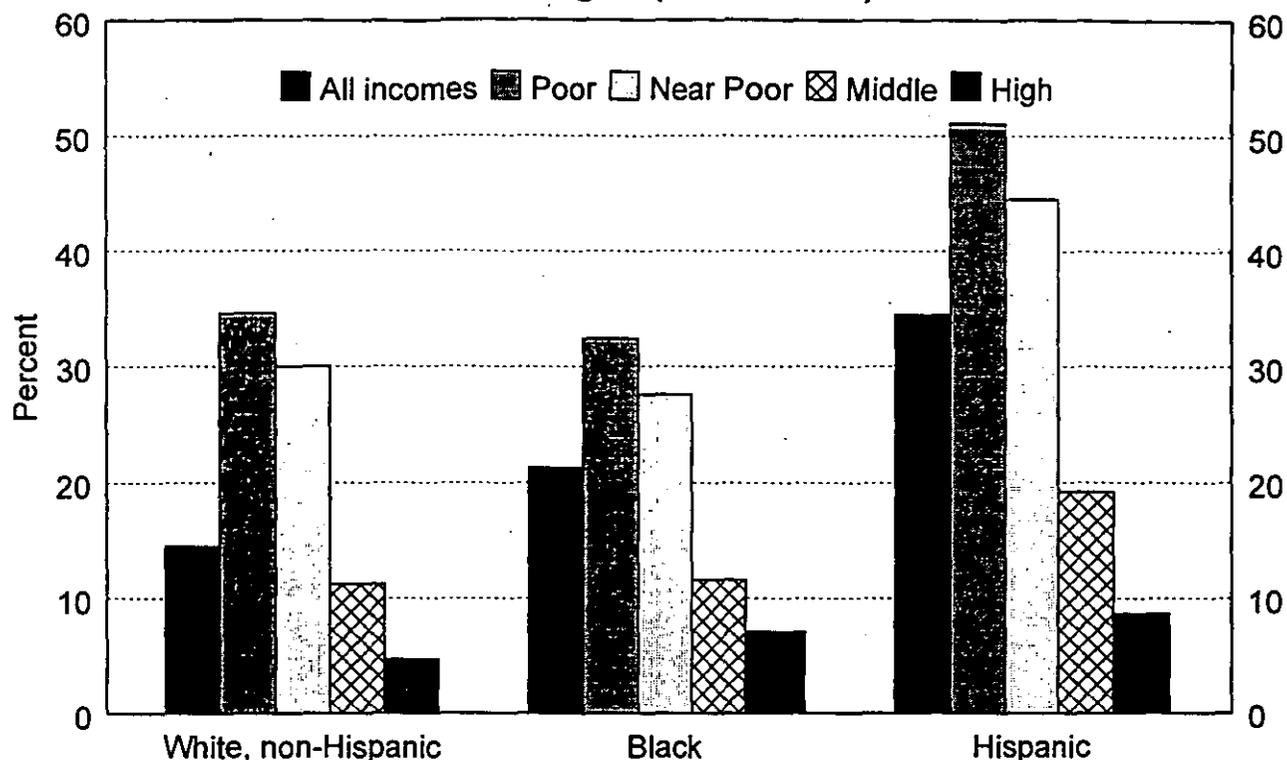


Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- In this age group, chronic diseases like heart disease and cancer account for the largest fraction of deaths. Smoking is implicated in many of these deaths.
- Black men and women have highest death rates from heart disease and cancer. Hispanics have lower death rates than non-Hispanic whites for these diseases. Asians have among the lowest death rates, particularly for heart disease.
- Overall, men are more likely to die in this age range than women, largely because of differences in deaths caused by these diseases.

Health

Health 7. Adults with No Health Insurance Coverage (1994-95)



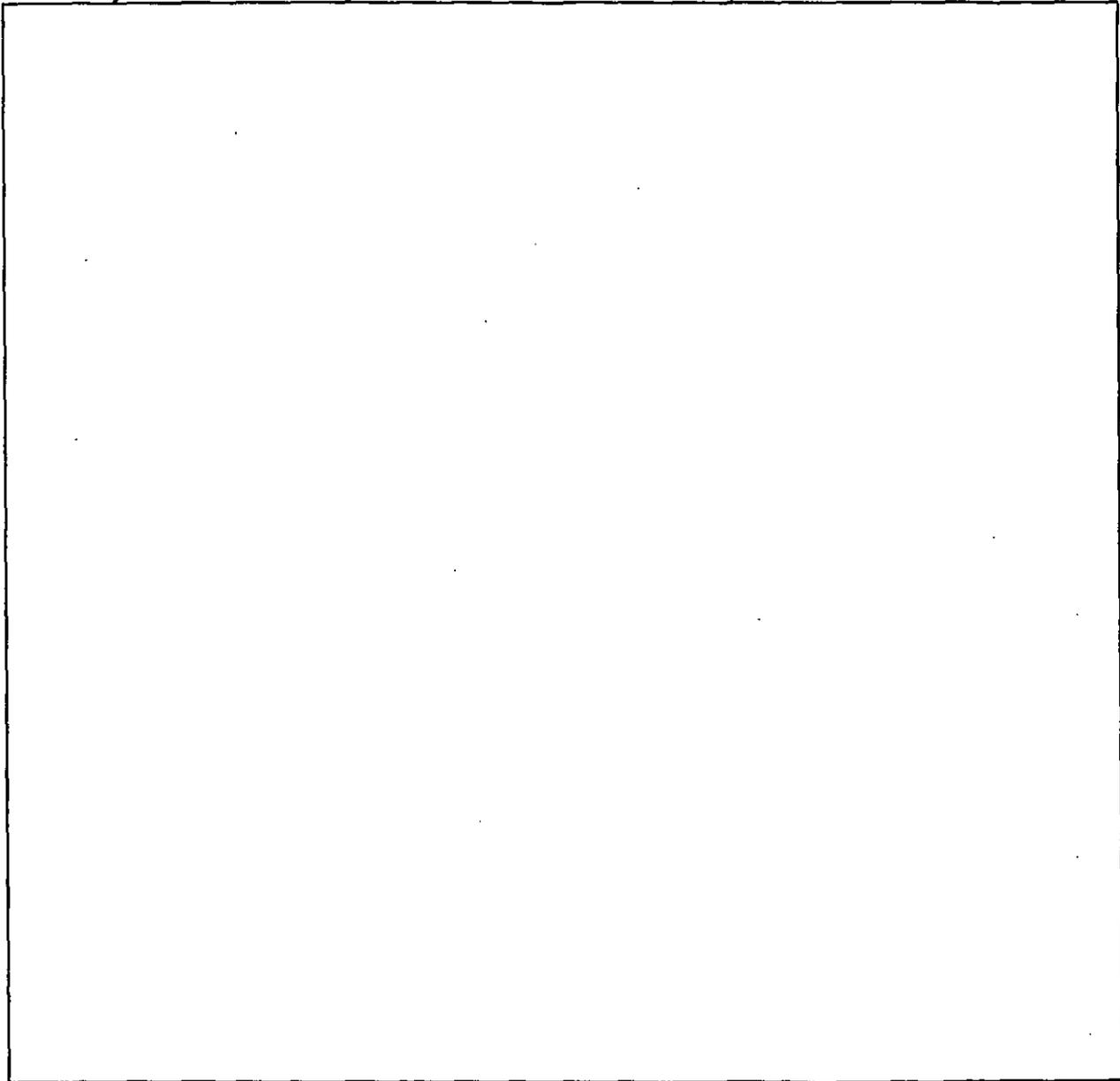
Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- Coverage by health insurance, either private or public (like Medicaid) is a key indicator of access to medical care.
- Hispanics have the highest rates of uninsurance, while non-Hispanic whites have the lowest.
- For every group, health insurance coverage is higher for those with higher incomes.
- The overall difference in insurance rates between non-Hispanic whites and blacks stems from the relative concentration of blacks in lower income categories, as non-Hispanic whites and blacks with similar incomes have similar rates of insurance coverage. Hispanics, on the other hand, have higher rates of uninsurance at every level of income.
- In large part because they are more likely to be eligible for Medicaid, women tend to have lower rates of uninsurance than men.

Health

For further information on the topics covered in this chapter, please see the following sources:

Reviewing agencies: Please suggest government publications and websites you think anyone interested in further information on these topics should see.

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Crime and Justice

A safe environment is important for stable childhood development, good health, and successful involvement in education and the job market. No single summary measure can capture the difficulties that crime creates in the lives of individuals and communities. This section discusses three important aspects of crime and justice: victimization, criminal activity, and the criminal justice system. Victimization is down in recent years after rising in the 1980s. On the other hand, more individuals have some involvement in the criminal justice system, and the prison population has grown substantially over the past 20 years. The differences by race and Hispanic origin in experiences with crime and involvement in the justice system are stark.

The measured level of criminal activity and criminal justice supervision is the result of actions by many individuals and institutions, including offenders, victims, the police, the courts, and the prison system. Because of these many actors, it is difficult to interpret differences in observed rates of criminal activity and victimization, both over time and across different groups. For example, if individuals perceive that their risk of being victimized has increased, they may take precautions -- such as staying inside more or taking a taxi instead of walking -- to reduce that risk. If those precautions are successful, the crime rate may not rise, but "crime" is still playing a larger role in their lives, and they are certainly worse off. Similarly, better policing in a particular community might increase measured crime rates at the same time that safety is improved.

Crimes fall into three major categories: crimes against persons (including violent crimes), property crimes, and "victimless" crimes such as certain drug offenses. In 1996, Americans were victims of an estimated 27.6 million property crimes and 9.1 million violent crimes. Both property and violent crime victimization have fallen in the 1990s. Victims of crime bear psychological, economic, and health costs, and offenders may be arrested and punished for their crime. But the effects of crime reach beyond the victim and offender to their families and communities. Offenders can support neither themselves nor their families while in prison or jail

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-- more than half of male prisoners have children under 18, and a criminal record can continue to impair individuals' labor market opportunities for years.¹ Crime costs the economy hundreds of billions of dollars each year, including property losses and damage, as well as public and private spending to control crime. But these numbers do not capture the heightened sense of insecurity that crime imposes on individuals and neighborhoods.

Minorities, particularly blacks, are much more likely than non-Hispanic whites to be victims of crime. Differences in victimization are particularly striking for violent crimes. For example, blacks' homicide victimization rate is more than twice that of Hispanics and 6 times that of non-Hispanic whites and Asians. American Indians' homicide victimization rate falls between that of Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites and Asians (Justice 1). The differences in victimization by race and Hispanic origin are much smaller for property crimes than for violent crimes, although differences have grown somewhat since the 1970s. Hispanics have the highest rates of property crime victimization, followed by blacks and whites (data for other groups are unavailable) (Justice 2).

Unfortunately, national data on criminal activity are available only for blacks, whites, and "others," so this section discusses only black-white differences. Although there are methodological difficulties in measuring criminal activity, blacks appear to have criminal activity rates significantly above those of whites. Nearly equal numbers of blacks and whites are admitted to prison (Justice 3), and black adults are much more likely than white adults to be under the supervision of the criminal justice system (Justice 4).

A variety of factors contribute to differences in victimization, criminal activity, and involvement in the criminal justice system, including neighborhood quality, economic status, and education. Those who have poorer earnings prospects in the legal job market may be more likely to engage in criminal activity. Since the 1970s, earnings for low-skilled men have deteriorated

¹cited in Freeman, **get original from Sandy**

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markedly, making illegal activity more attractive compared to legal job prospects. This trend may explain some of the rise in prison admissions and criminal justice system involvement. In addition, since blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians are over represented at the bottom of the earnings distribution, those groups have been disproportionately affected by this development. Crime policy and enforcement decisions also influence differences in victimization, criminal activity, and punishments. Some policies can have different effects on different groups; for example, the War on Drugs (**launched in 198x**) resulted in larger increases in incarceration and criminal supervision rates among blacks than among whites. Drug use further contributes to non-drug crimes -- 50 to 80 percent of persons arrested for non-drug offenses tested positive for drugs in 1992.²

Racial discrimination in the criminal justice system may also contribute to the large differences between blacks and whites in correctional supervision. Arrests per person, convictions per arrest, and imprisonments per conviction are all higher among blacks than among whites (Justice 5). Research suggests that most of the differences in the likelihood of conviction and imprisonment can be explained by other differences, such as severity of crime or prior record of the offender.³ Little is know about the extent of discrimination at the arrest stage, however. In addition, some studies of particular localities or specific crimes have found evidence of racial discrimination in the administration of justice.⁴ Finally, individual instances of discrimination are well-documented. A study of Washington state in the late 1980s found that nonwhites were sentenced to prison at higher rates in counties with large minority populations. In follow-up interviews, justice officials indicated that race was a factor.⁵

²Census (cited in Freeman, get original)

³Get DOJ study.

⁴For example, Sampson and Lauritsen and Alvarez and Bachman (get original)

⁵Sampson and Lauritsen. (get original)

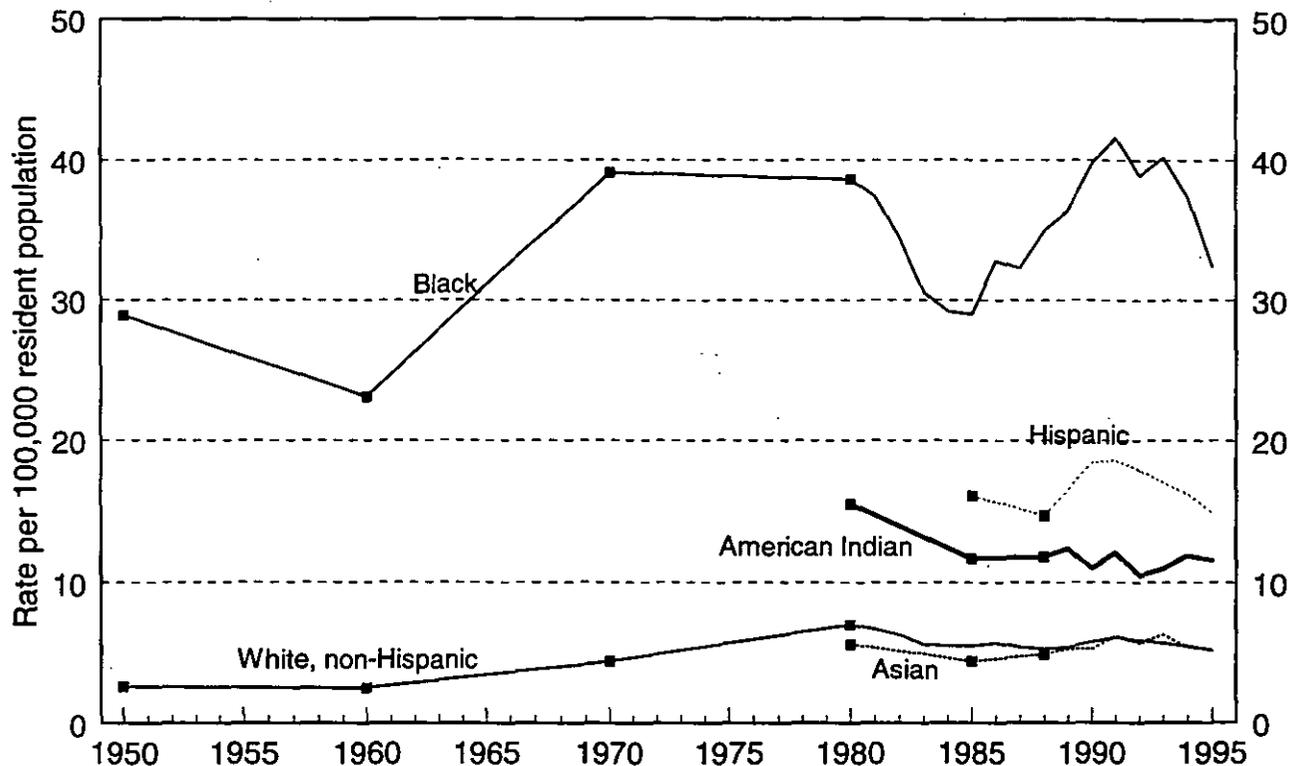
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Perceptions of discrimination in the criminal justice system may undermine its effectiveness. Differences in perceptions about the fairness of the police, the courts, prisons, and jails among racial and ethnic groups have been widely noted. National survey data indicate that blacks and Hispanics have less confidence in the police (Justice 7), and research based on particular groups or cities also indicates that a majority of both whites and minorities believe that discrimination on the basis of race or ethnicity is a problem in police departments and throughout the criminal justice system.⁶ Lack of racial and ethnic diversity among those working in criminal justice may also undermine the perceived legitimacy of the system. Minority representation on local police departments has increased in recent years and is much higher in large cities, which tend to serve more diverse populations (Justice 6).

⁶See David Carter, "Hispanic Perception of Police Performance: An Empirical Assessment," *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 13:487-500 (1985) and Gallup monthly poll, October 1995.

Crime and Justice

Justice 1. Victims of Homicide



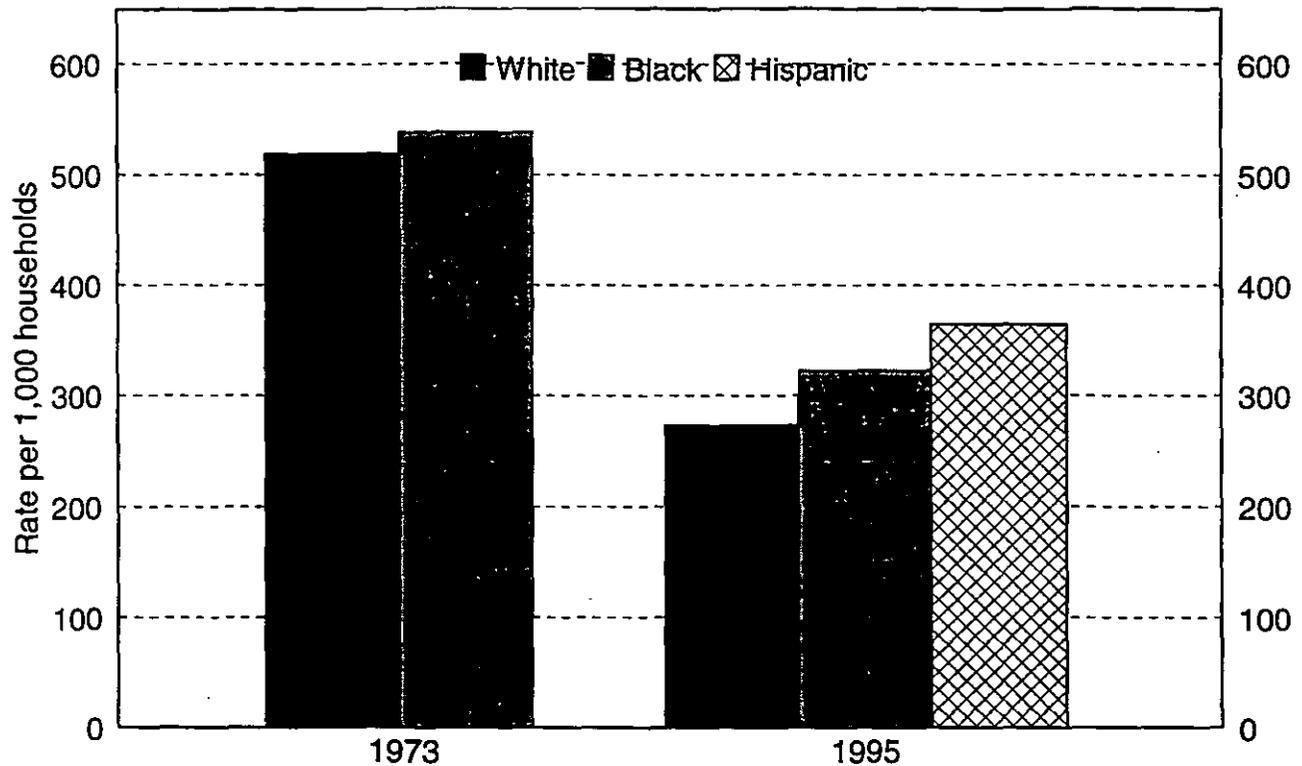
Notes: Data include deaths from "legal intervention" (use of police force). Prior to 1985, series for whites includes white Hispanics. Prior to 1970, series include non-residents.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics.

- Homicide is among the most serious of crimes. Homicide victimization rates also tend to track rates in victimization for other serious violent crimes.
- Homicide victimization rates for blacks have been at least five times those of whites for the last half century, sometimes reaching more than ten times the white rate. In 1995, non-Hispanic whites had the lowest homicide victimization rate (5.1 per 100,000 resident population), followed by Asians (5.3), American Indians (11.6), Hispanics (14.9), and blacks (32.5).
- Males are almost four times more likely than females to be victims of homicide.
- Fifteen- to 24-year-old males have the highest homicide victimization rate, and the differences across racial and ethnic groups are even larger for this group: Blacks have by far the highest rate (132.0 per 100,000 population), followed by Hispanics (63.5), American Indians (32.3), Asians (19.4), and non-Hispanic whites (7.3).

Crime and Justice

Justice 2. Property Crime Victimization

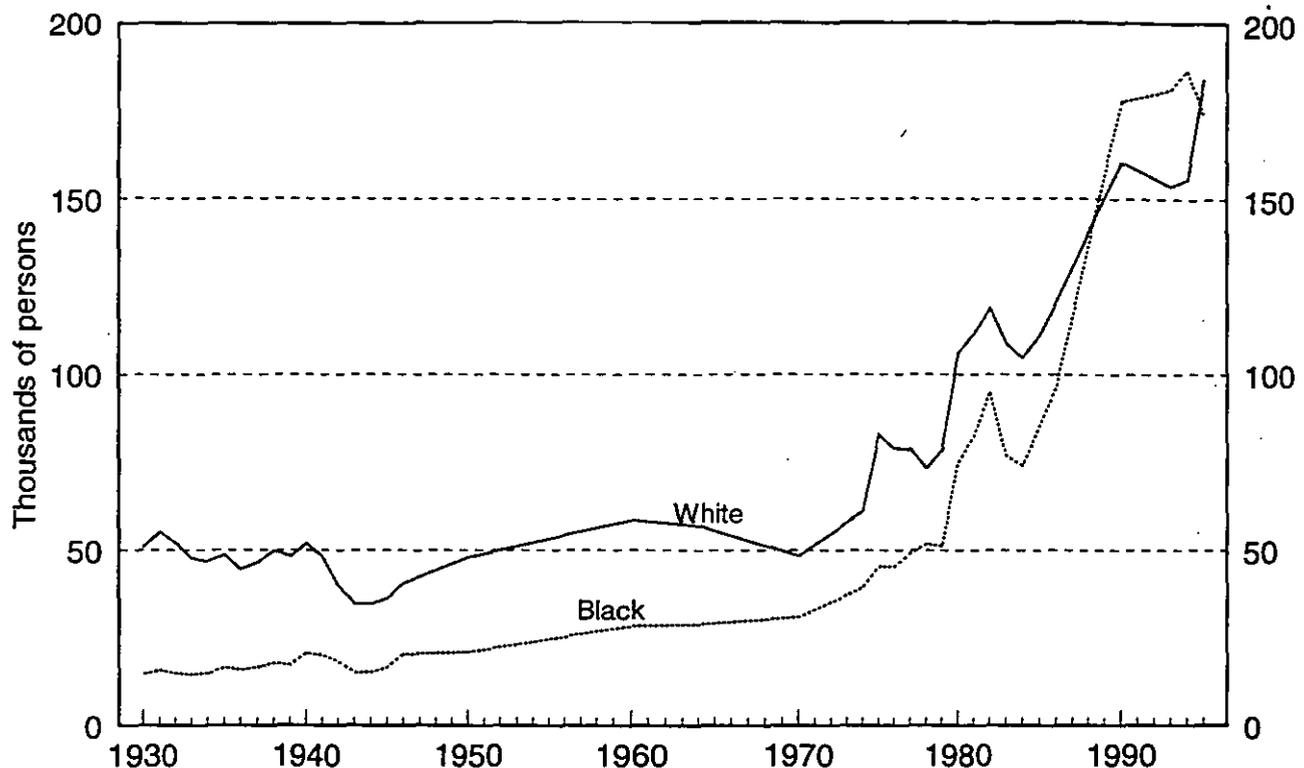


Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- Property crimes are burglary, motor vehicle theft, and personal theft. Both attempted and completed crimes are reported.
- Differences in property crime victimization rates across racial and ethnic groups are much less pronounced than for violent crimes like homicide.
- Property crime victimization was less frequent in 1995 than 1973 among both black and white households, although differences between these groups grew somewhat. (Data for Hispanics are not available for 1973.)

Crime and Justice

Justice 3. Admissions to State and Federal Prisons



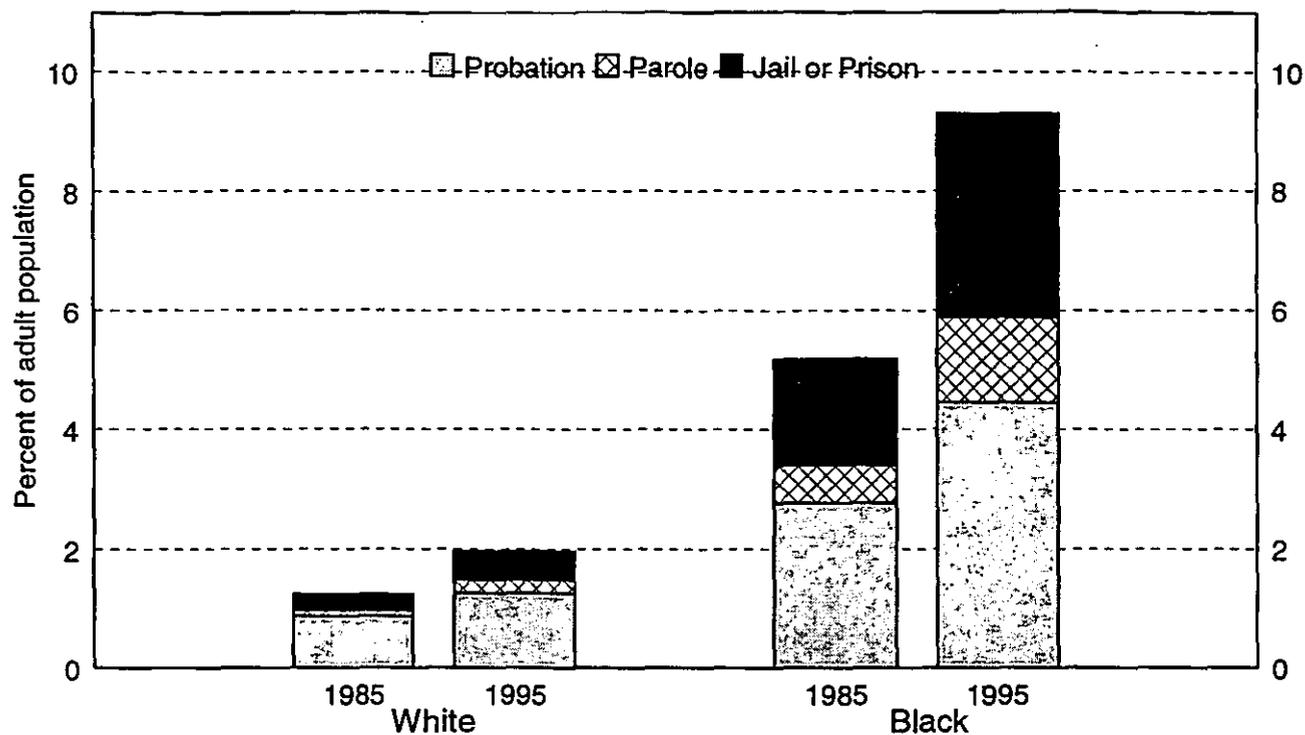
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Note: All states do not report State admissions every year. (BJS: Can we get more details?)

- Prison admissions were flat or rising slowly between 1930 and the 1970s and have risen substantially since then. Between 1983 and 1994, white admissions more than doubled, and black admissions nearly quadrupled. Admissions of blacks leveled off in the 1990s, actually falling slightly between 1992 and 1995.
- Rapidly rising admissions for drug offenses explain much of the recent increase in total admissions. Between 1985 and 1995, the fraction of admissions to State and Federal prisons that were for drug offenses grew from 16 to 32 percent. The fraction of new admissions for drug offenses was similar for blacks and whites in 1985, but the increase in drug-crime admissions has been much larger for blacks.
- In 1995 women comprised less than 10 percent of State and Federal prison admissions, but prison admissions have been growing faster among women than men.

Crime and Justice

Justice 4. Adults Under Correctional Supervision

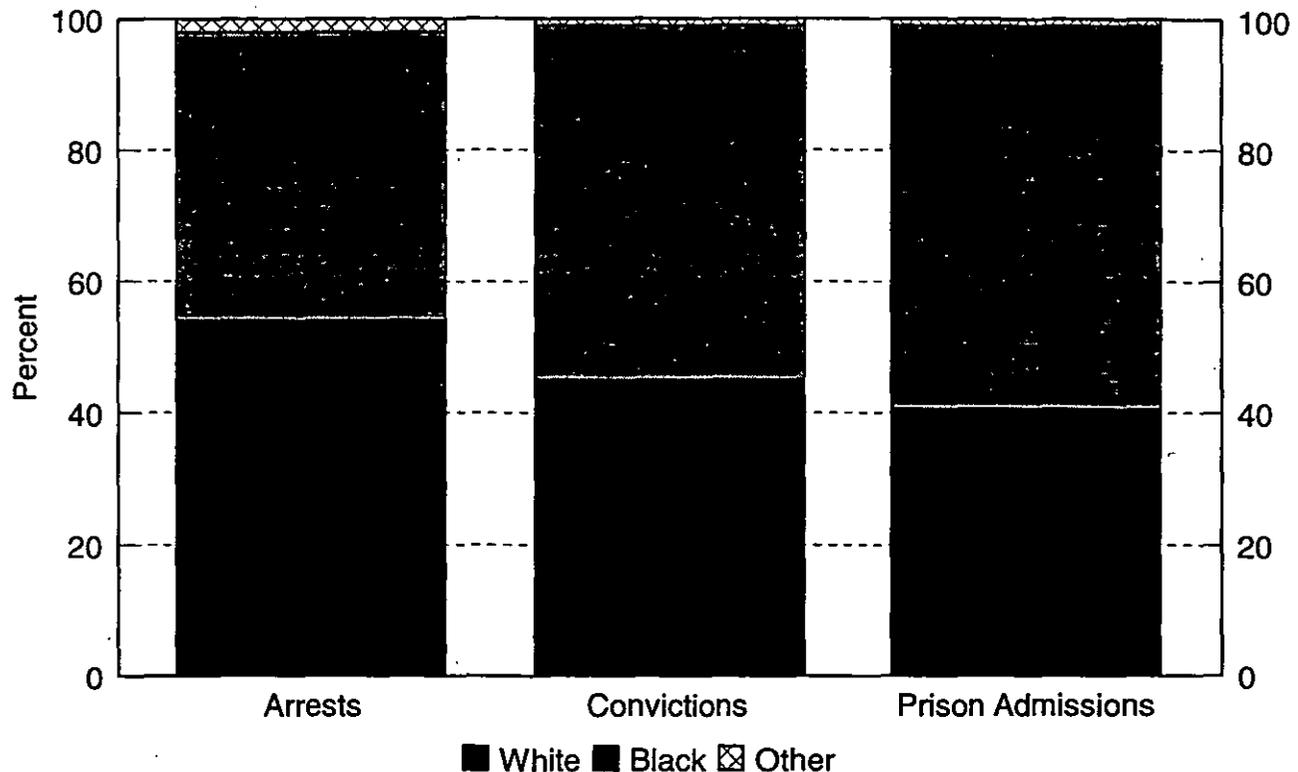


Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- The fraction of the adult population under correctional supervision provides an indication of the extent to which the criminal justice system is involved in the lives of individuals and communities. Black adults were more than 5 times more likely than whites to be under supervision of the criminal justice system in 1995.
- The fraction of the population that is involved in the criminal justice system -- on probation or parole or in jail or prison -- has grown substantially. Between 1985 and 1995, the fraction of white and black adults in each category of supervision nearly doubled.
- Twenty- to 29-year-old men were the most likely to be under correctional supervision. In 1991, about 7 percent of white men and 26 percent of black men in their twenties were under correctional supervision.

Crime and Justice

Justice 5. Arrests, Convictions, and Prison Admissions for Violent Crimes (1994)

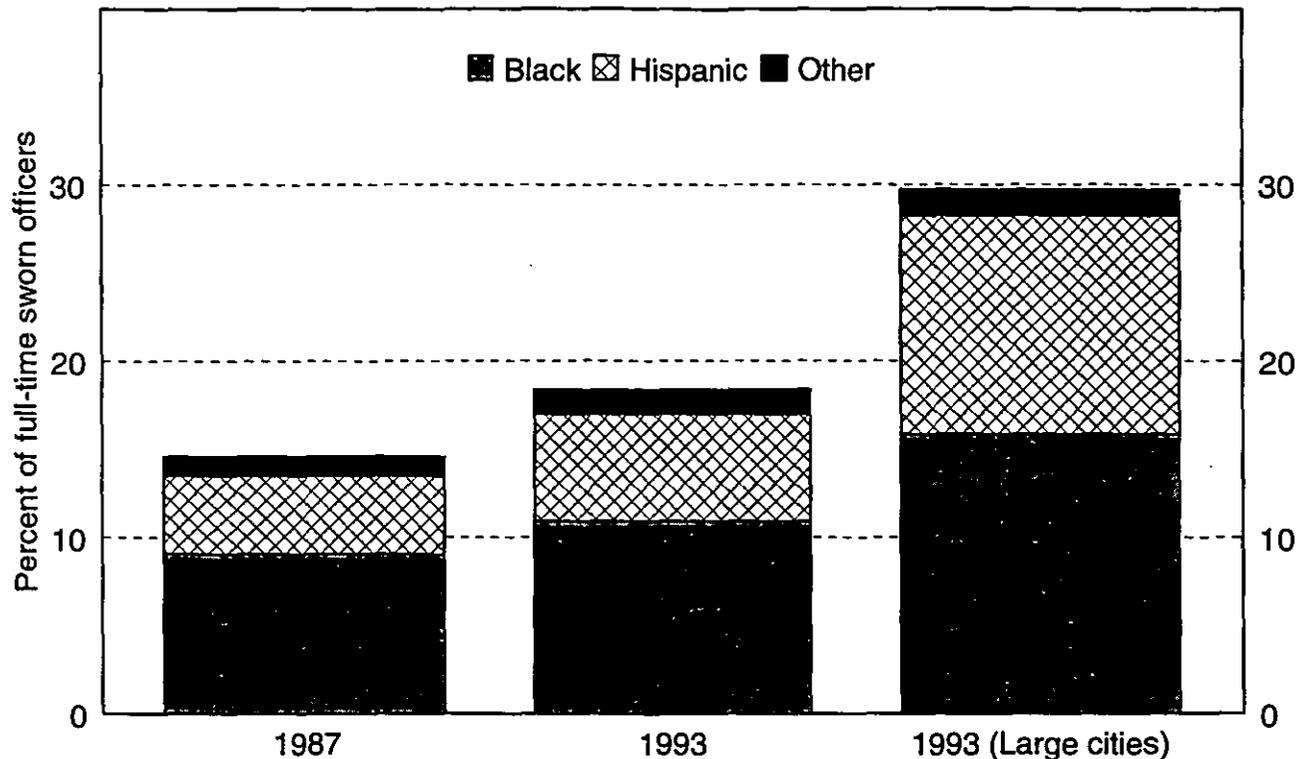


Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- This chart shows the racial composition of arrests, convictions, and prison admissions for violent crimes in 1994, including murder, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.
- Blacks are disproportionately represented at each stage. Blacks represented 44 percent of arrests, 54 percent of convictions, and 59 percent of prison admissions for violent crimes in 1994, indicating that, compared to whites, arrested blacks are more likely to be convicted and convicted blacks are more likely to be imprisoned.
- Discriminatory behavior on the part of police and elsewhere in the criminal justice system may contribute to blacks' high representation in arrests, convictions, and prison admissions. While incidences of discrimination in arrests have been clearly documented, little is known about how much of the difference in arrest rates is due to discrimination. Research suggests that other factors, including severity of crime and prior record, may explain much of the black-white difference in the likelihood of conviction and imprisonment.

Crime and Justice

Justice 6. Minority Composition of Local Police and Sheriffs' Departments



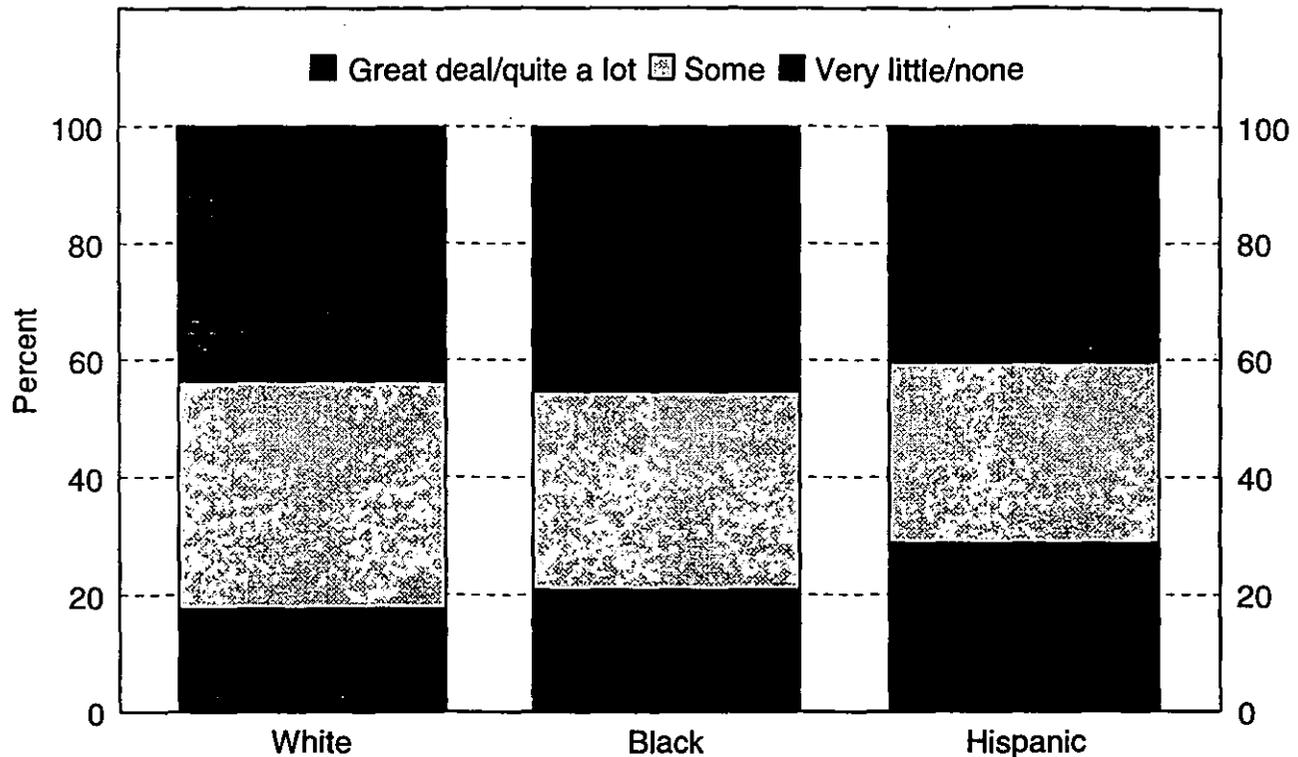
Note: Large cities are police departments serving a population of one million or more.

Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- The police are typically the first contact with the criminal justice system for both victims and offenders. Many have argued that higher minority representation among police officers can improve relations between police departments and those they serve, reduce discrimination, and improve police departments' ability to fight crime.
- Total minority representation among full-time sworn officers in local police and sheriffs' departments grew from 15 percent in 1987 to 18 percent in 1993. Representation of blacks grew from 9 to 11 percent, and Hispanic representation grew from 4 to 6 percent.
- Minority representation is higher in police and sheriffs' departments serving larger cities. For example, minorities comprise 30 percent of full-time sworn officers in cities with one million or more, compared to less than 10 percent for departments serving fewer than 50,000 people.

Crime and Justice

Justice 7. Reported Confidence in the Police (1994-97)



Note: Totals exclude persons who did not respond.

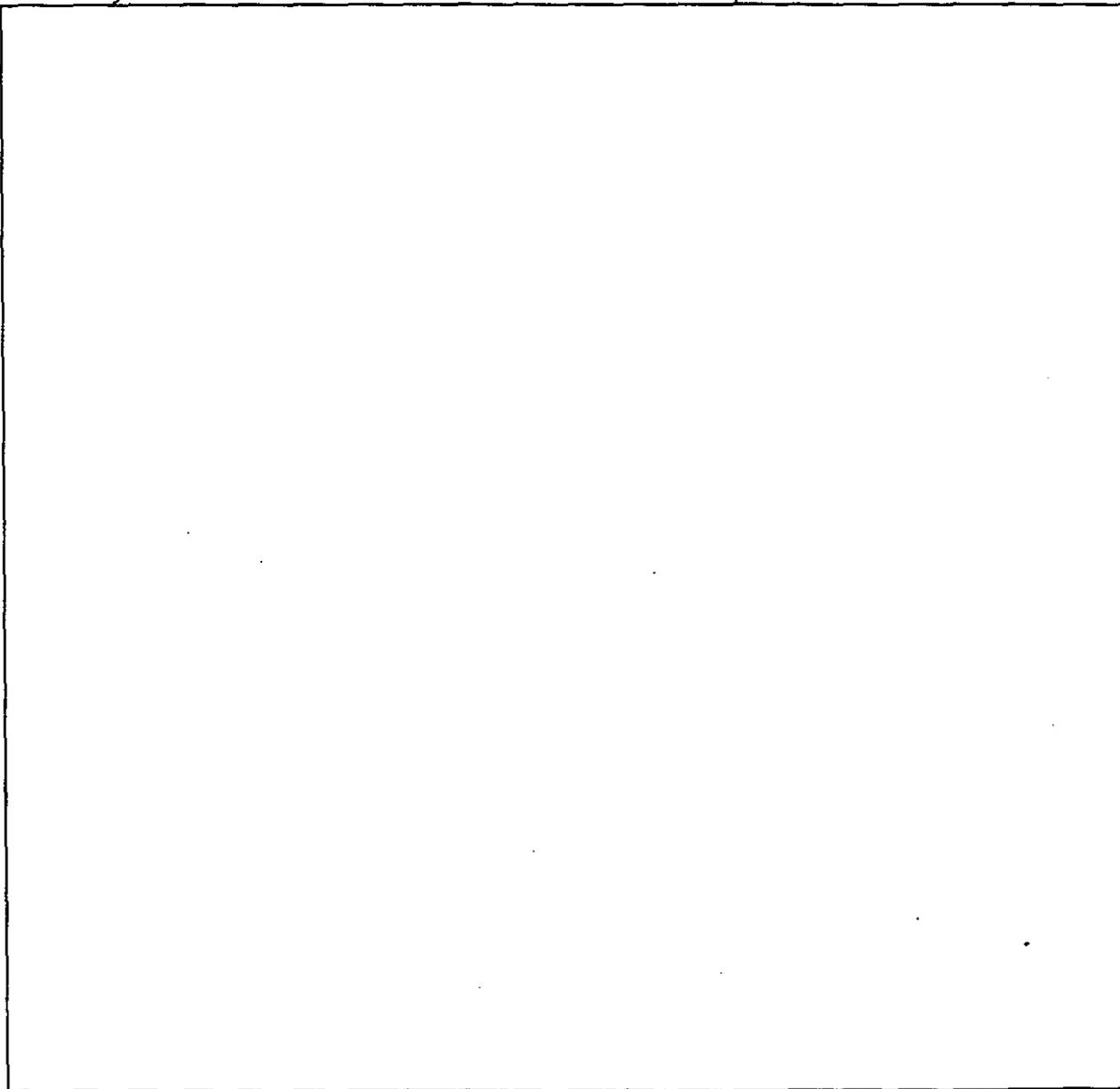
Source: Gallup, C.N.N., U.S.A. Today Poll.

- Lack of confidence and perceptions of unfair practices may limit the effectiveness of the police.
- This chart presents the opinions of a national sample of whites, blacks, and Hispanics. Respondents were asked how much confidence they have in a variety of institutions, including the police.
- Whites have more confidence in the police, followed by Hispanics and blacks. Nearly twice as many whites as blacks say that they have a "great deal" or "quite a lot" of confidence in the police.

Crime and Justice

For further information on the topics covered in this chapter, please see the following sources:

Reviewing agencies: Please suggest government publications and websites you think anyone interested in further information on these topics should see.

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Housing and Neighborhoods

The housing in which people live and the neighborhoods where they reside are important factors affecting child development and opportunities for adults. Poor housing may contribute to a number of adverse health and educational outcomes, particularly in children. For example, severe crowding, indoor air pollution, or deteriorating lead paint may cause or exacerbate diseases such as asthma or lead poisoning, sometimes with long-term effects.¹

There are currently 96 million occupied housing units in the United States, of which about two-thirds are owner-occupied. Homeownership has increased in recent years to the highest level in over a decade. The national homeownership rate was 66 percent in 1997, but less than half of black and Hispanic householders owned their homes (Housing 1). Of the one-third of units that are renter-occupied, about x percent receive some form of federal, state, or local subsidy.

High housing costs, moderate or severe physical housing problems, and crowding are three commonly used measures of adverse housing conditions.² Between the mid-1970s and 1990s, the average physical condition of housing has improved markedly, although the fraction of households experiencing severe physical problems has not fallen (Housing 3). The fraction of households that are crowded also fell substantially, from 4.6 in 1976 to 2.6 percent in 1995 (Housing 4). The fraction with moderately high housing costs has risen over this period, however (Housing 2). With the exception of crowding among Hispanic households, these trends have been consistent across groups for which data are available.

Non-Hispanic white households have the best housing conditions according to all three of

¹cites

²For a description, see American Housing Survey for the United States in 1995, U.S. Department of Commerce and U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.

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these measures, but the relative position of the other groups varies depending on the measure. Black, Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian households are about equally likely to have very high housing costs, and non-Hispanic white households are least likely to have high housing costs. Black households are most likely to be living in units with moderate or serious physical problems, followed by Hispanics, American Indians, Asians, and non-Hispanic whites. Hispanic households are the most likely to be crowded, followed by Asians and American Indians, blacks, and non-Hispanic whites.

An individual's neighborhood influences the availability and quality of important amenities such as a safe environment, primary education, and other public services, as well as economic opportunities. Growing up in neighborhoods with concentrated poverty, high crime, and poor public schools is associated with poorer educational outcomes and may reduce chances of success for years to come.³ Neighborhood quality and the quality of associated services vary considerably by race and Hispanic origin. Black and Hispanic households tend to report more problems in their neighborhoods, including crime, litter and housing deterioration, and poor public services (Housing 5). Crime is a commonly cited neighborhood problem, and concern about crime in neighborhoods rose between 1985 and 1995, particularly among non-Hispanic white, black, and Hispanic households.

Neighborhoods have long been segregated by race and Hispanic origin, although segregation has fallen somewhat since 1970, particularly between blacks and all others.⁴ Because neighborhoods have historically been segregated, public services and other amenities associated with neighborhoods have also been unequally distributed. (Some have argued that white politicians explicitly encouraged segregated neighborhoods in the first half of the century, in part so that they could deny quality public services to blacks without hurting their own

³Cites.

⁴Farley; Cutler, Glaeser, and Vigdor

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constituencies.⁵) In addition, the racial and ethnic composition of neighborhoods can play an important role in determining how much interaction individuals have with members of other racial and ethnic groups. Members of each racial and ethnic group live disproportionately with members of the same group (Housing 6).

The 1968 Fair Housing Act prohibited discrimination on the basis of race or ethnic origin in housing and mortgage lending. Evidence suggests that the Fair Housing Act may have helped reduce discrimination in housing markets and contributed to declining segregation.⁶ Attitudes about racial integration have also changed dramatically: The fraction of whites saying they would move if a black family moved in next door fell from 44 percent in 1958 to 1 percent in 1997 (Housing 7). Still, segregation is high. And continued discrimination in housing and mortgage lending has been clearly documented through “audit” studies, in which similar white and minority candidates are sent to rent apartments or apply for home mortgage loans. One national study found that the incidence of unfavorable treatment in the housing market was 23 to 30 percentage points higher for a black or Hispanic applicant compared to his or her “matched” white counterpart.⁷

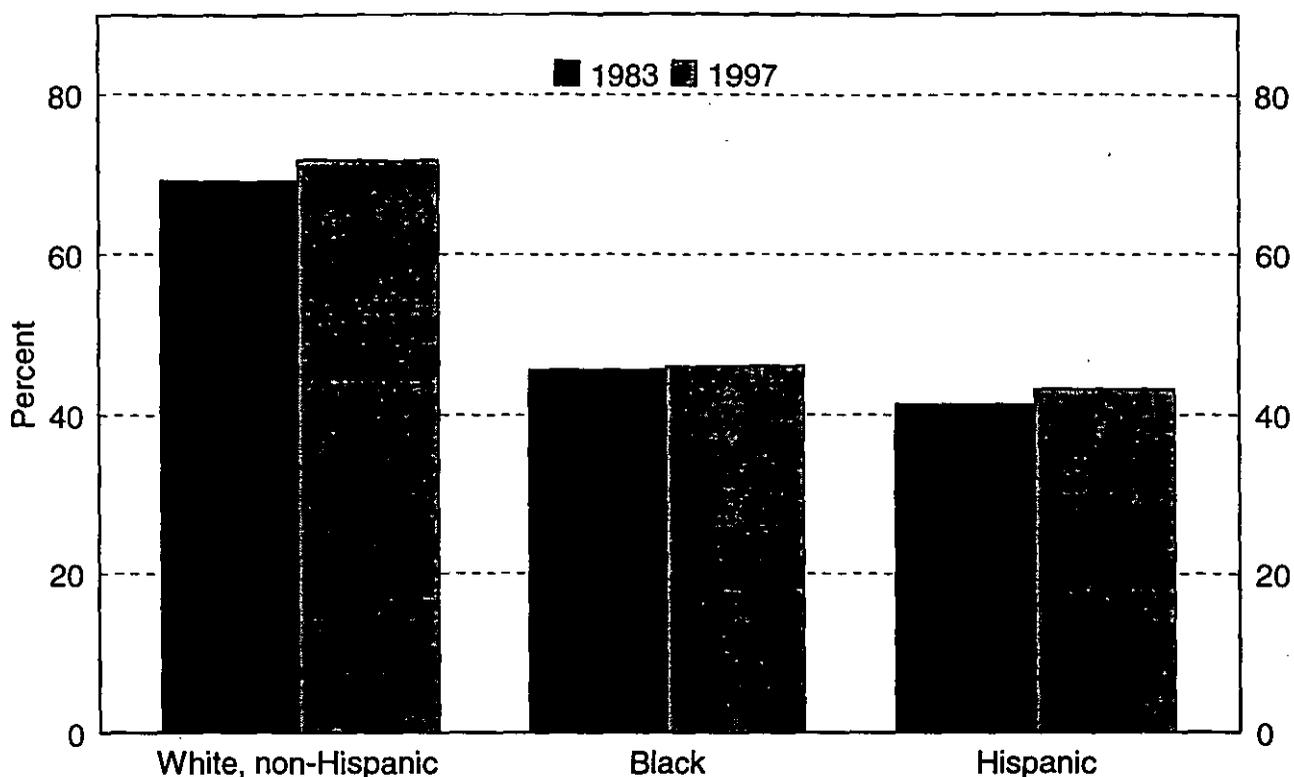
⁵Farley?

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Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 1. Homeownership Rates

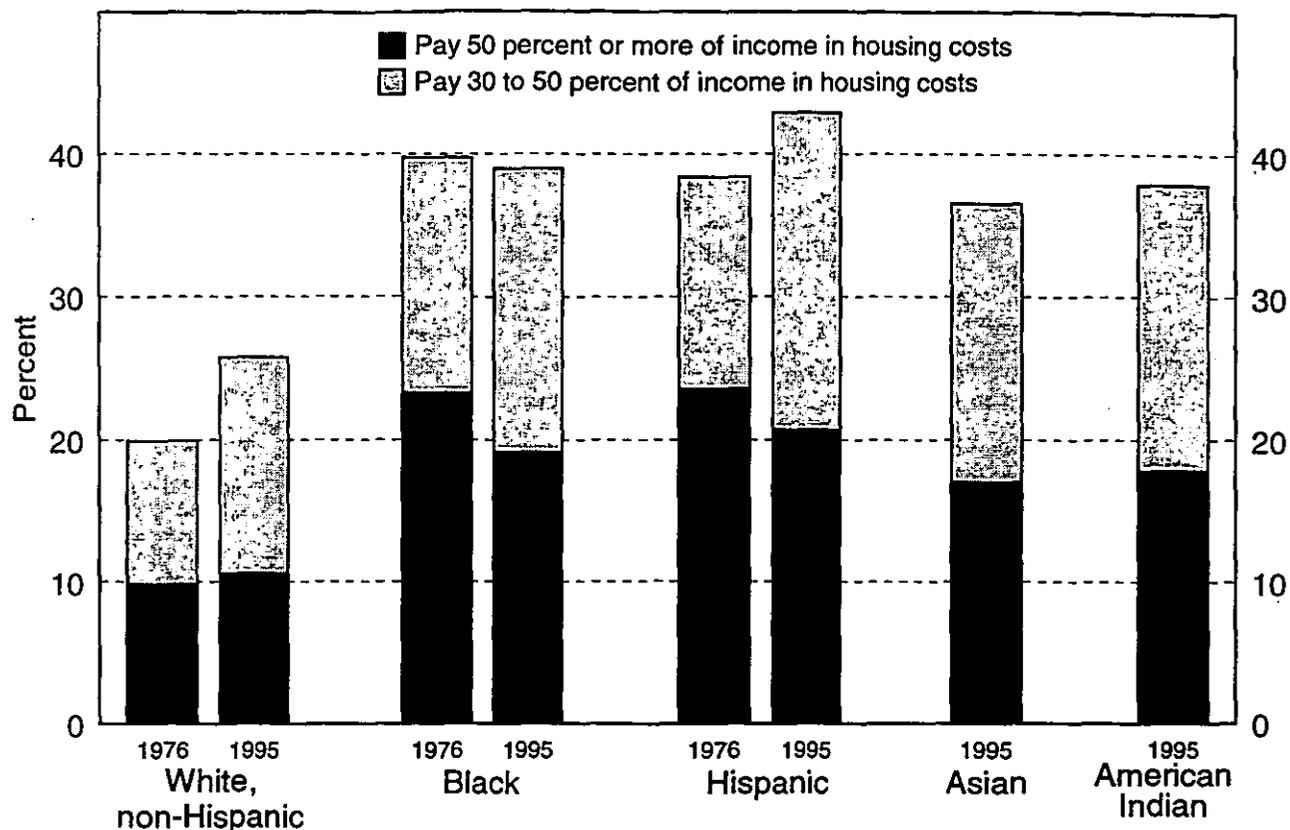


Source: Bureau of the Census.

- **HUD or Census: Definition of homeownership rate?**
- Homeownership is an indicator of financial well-being and may also contribute to the stability of families and neighborhoods.
- The homeownership rate of non-Hispanic whites is about 25 percentage points above that of blacks and Hispanics. Less than half of black and Hispanic householders own their own home.
- Homeownership rates are slightly higher in 1997 compared with 1983 for all groups.

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 2. Households with High Housing Expenditures

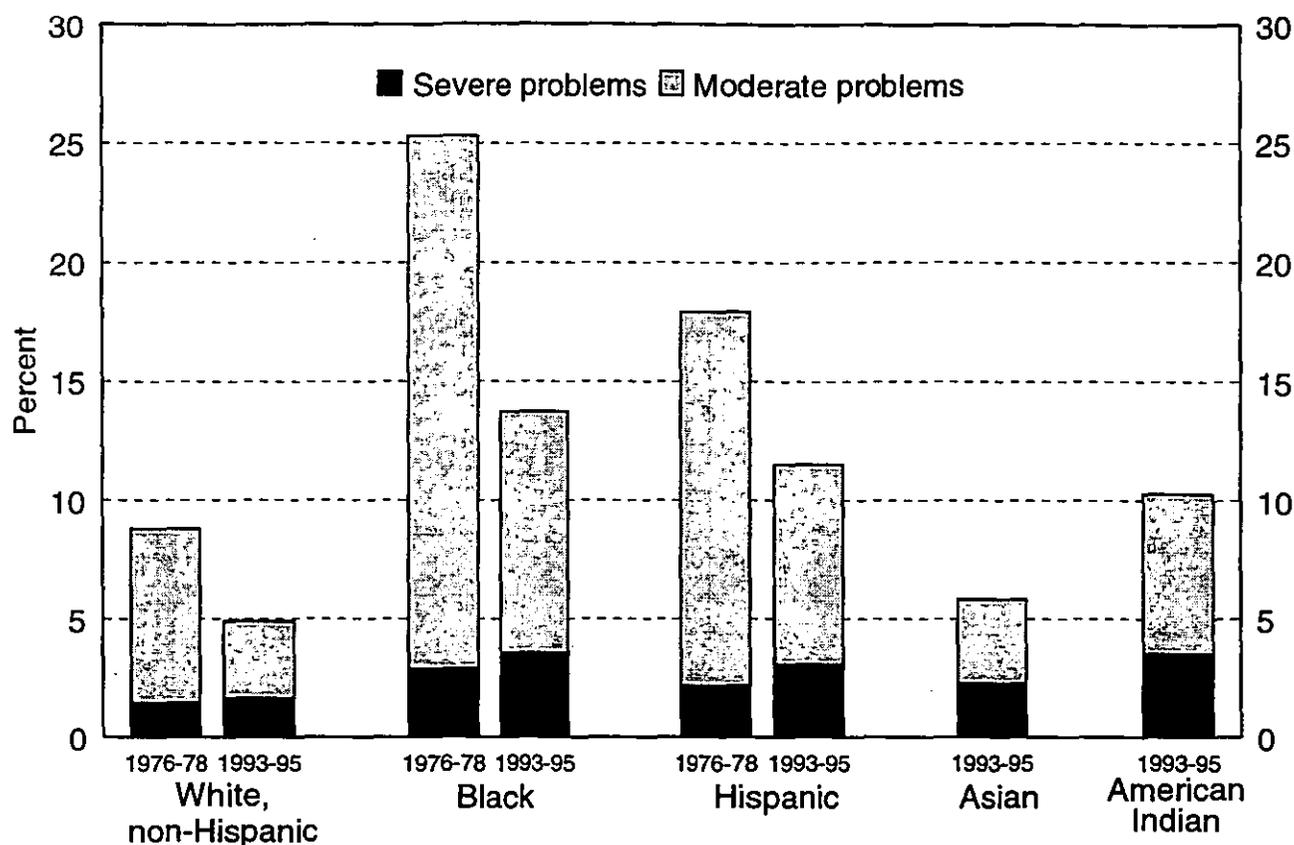


Source: Department of Housing and Urban Development and Bureau of the Census.

- High housing expenditures limit households' ability to afford other necessities. Housing expenditures less than 30 percent of income are considered "affordable," while the Department of Housing and Urban Development considers a household to have "worst case" housing needs if housing costs are more than 50 percent of household income.
- Compared to non-Hispanic whites, nearly twice as many black, Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian households spend at least 50 percent of their income on housing costs. Differences across groups in the fraction paying 30 to 50 percent of income for housing are much less pronounced.
- Between 1976 and 1995, the fraction of black and Hispanic households facing extremely high housing costs fell slightly, while the fraction facing moderately high housing costs rose. (Data for Asians and American Indians are not available for 1976.)

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 3. Housing Units with Physical Problems

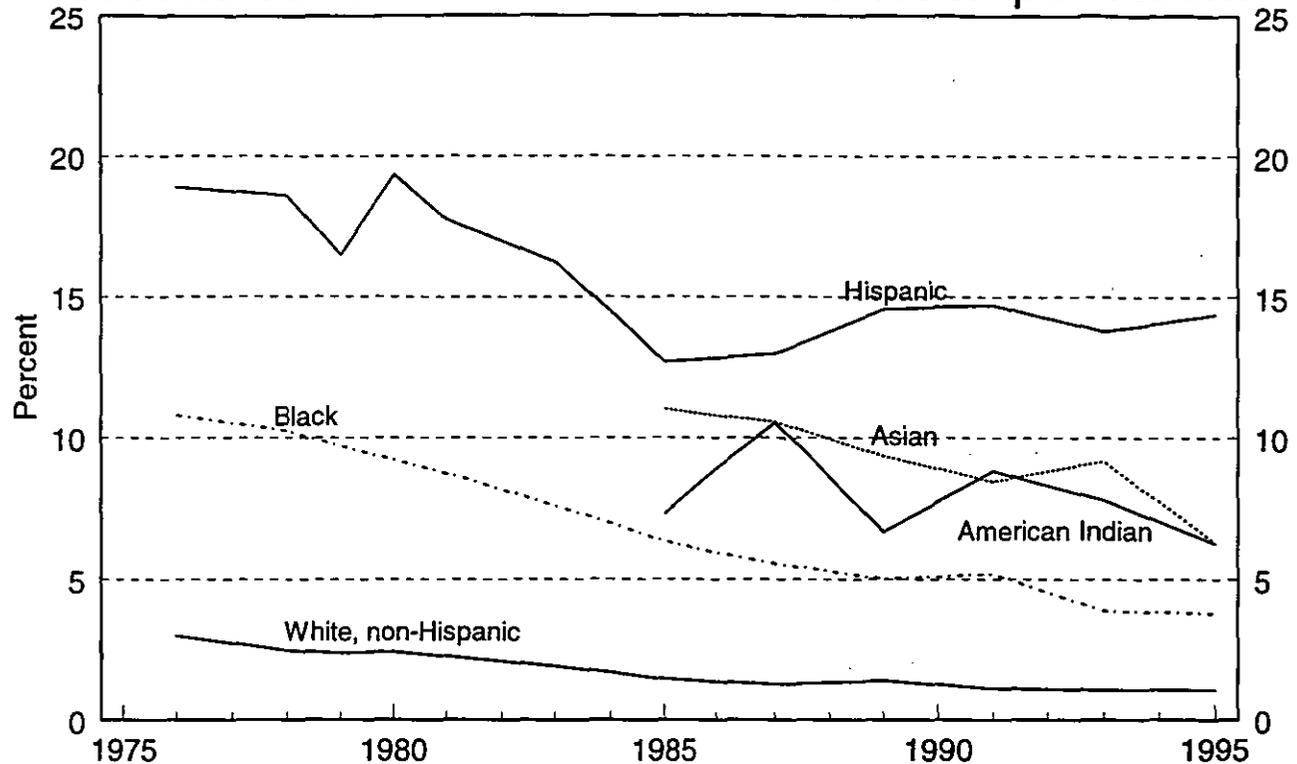


Source: Department of Housing and Urban Development and Bureau of the Census.

- Poor physical housing quality can contribute to poor health, particularly in children. Severe physical problems include lack of indoor plumbing, inadequate heating, electrical problems, and other serious upkeep problems. Moderate physical problems include problems with heating or plumbing or the lack of a kitchen sink, refrigerator, or stove burners.
- In 1995 blacks, Hispanics, and Asians were more likely than non-Hispanic whites or American Indians to live in housing units with serious or moderate physical problems. The relatively low levels of reported housing problems for American Indians, compared to blacks and Hispanics, may relate to extensive Department of Housing and Urban Development involvement in areas with large American Indian populations.
- Between 1976 and 1995, the fraction of non-Hispanic white, black, and Hispanic households living in units with moderate physical problems fell substantially. The fraction of households living in units with serious problems has risen, but is less than 5 percent for all groups.

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 4. Crowding Households With More Than One Person per Room

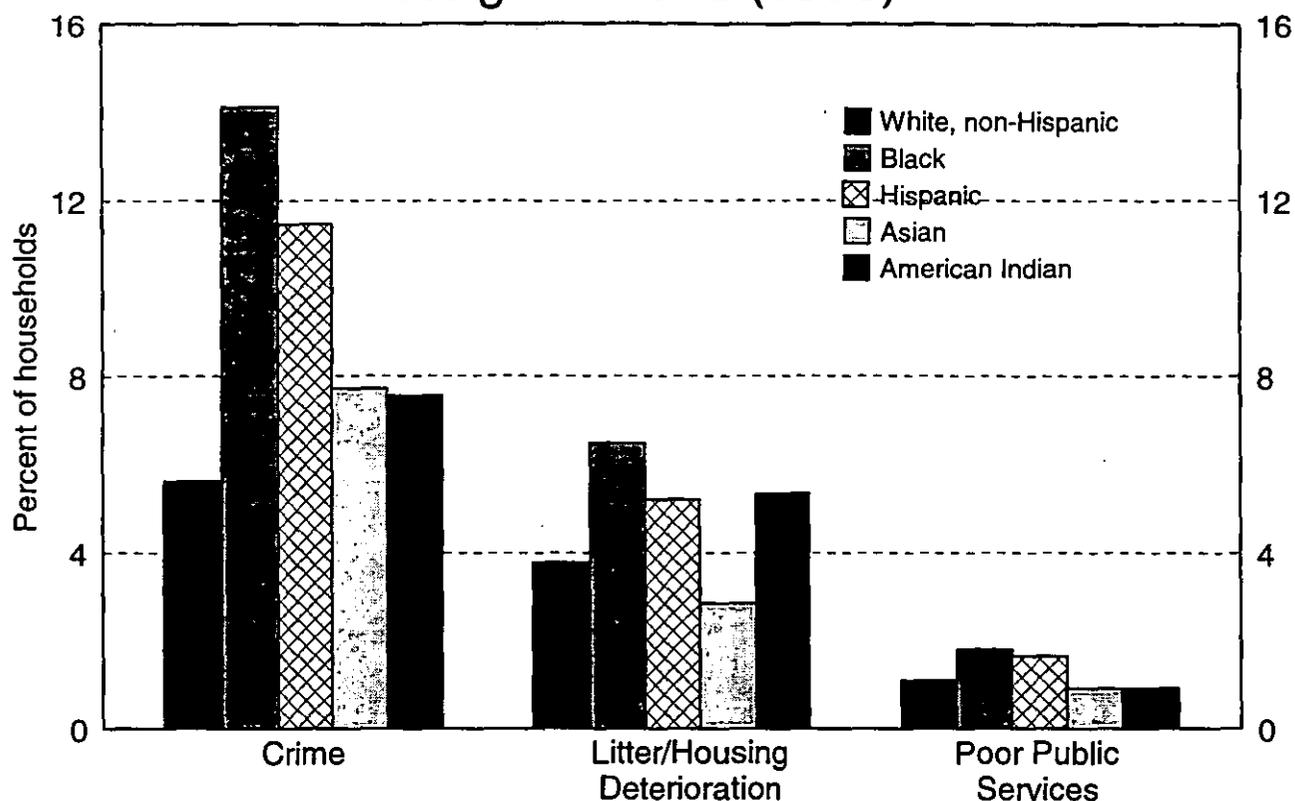


Source: Department of Housing and Urban Development and Bureau of the Census.

- Crowding is another widely used measure of housing conditions. A household is considered crowded if it contains more than one person per room. (Rooms used for living space are counted, including bedrooms, living rooms, and kitchens, but bathrooms or rooms created with temporary partitions are not included.)
- Only about 1 percent of non-Hispanic white households are crowded, with greater crowding among blacks (4 percent) and Asians and American Indians (7 percent each). Hispanics are more than twice as likely as any other group to be crowded (14 percent).
- In 1995, crowding was lower for all groups than in the 1970s. Among Hispanics, however, crowding rose slightly between 1985 and 1995 after falling considerably between 1975 and 1985.

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 5. Reported Problems in Neighborhood (1995)

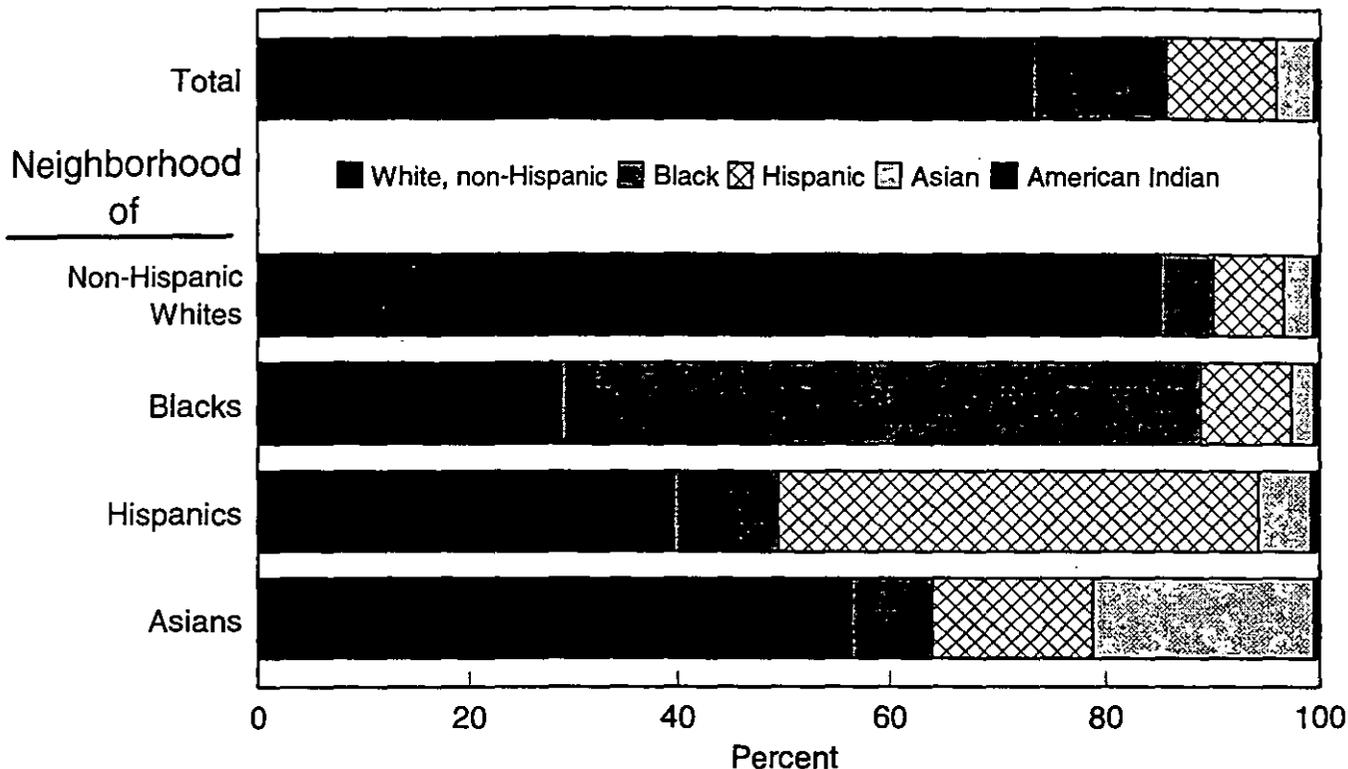


Source: Department of Housing and Urban Development and Bureau of the Census.

- Households' reports of problems in their neighborhood most likely reflect a combination of objective conditions, expectations, and overall satisfaction.
- Crime is a commonly cited neighborhood problem, and the fraction of households reporting concern about crime rose between 1985 and 1995 for all groups. About 14 percent of black households reported that crime was a problem in their neighborhood, compared to 11 percent of Hispanics, 8 percent of Asians and American Indians, and 6 percent of non-Hispanic whites.
- Black, Hispanic, and American Indian households are more likely to report problems with litter and housing deterioration, compared to Asians and non-Hispanic whites.
- Reported dissatisfaction with public services is less than 3 percent for all groups.

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 6. Average Racial and Ethnic Composition of Metropolitan Neighborhoods (1990)

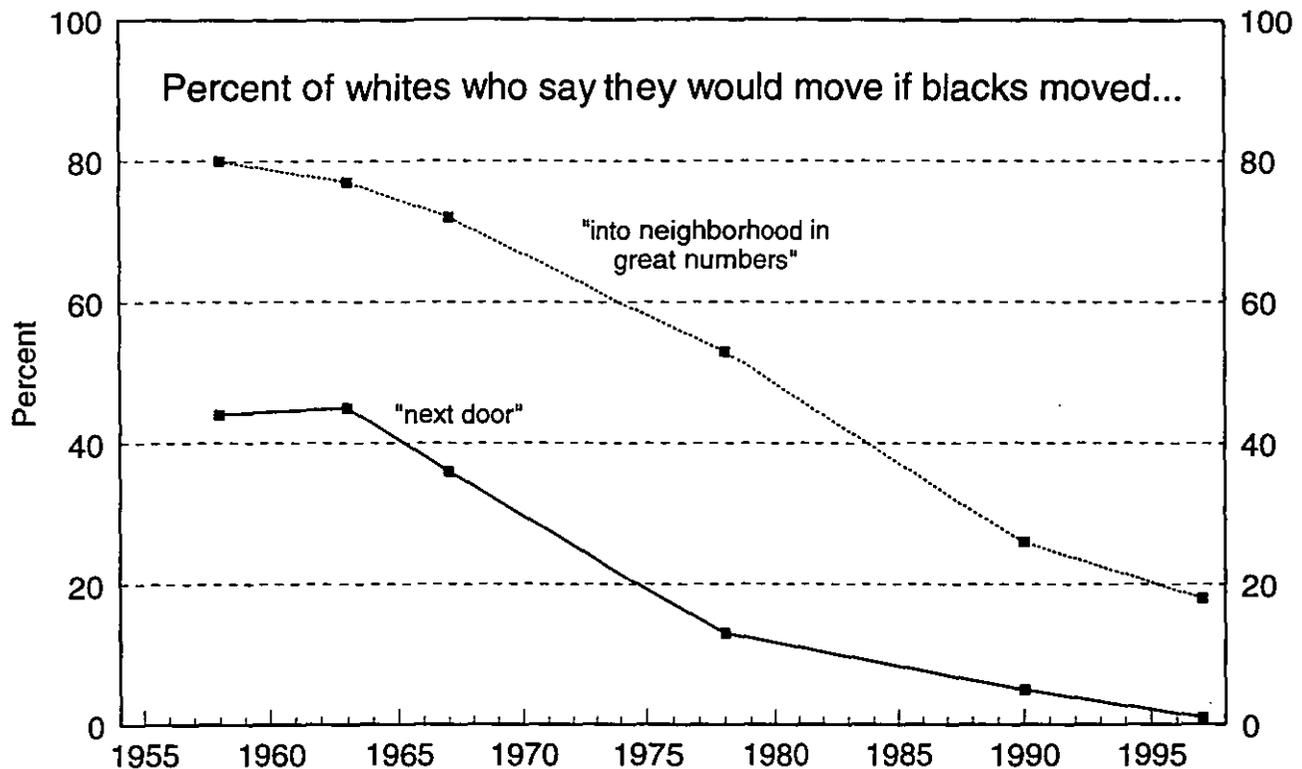


Source: Bureau of the Census (from The New American Reality by Reynolds Farley).

- The racial and ethnic composition of neighborhoods plays an important role in determining how much interaction individuals have with members of other racial or ethnic groups. This chart shows the average racial and ethnic composition of metropolitan neighborhoods for each group.
- Members of each racial and ethnic group live disproportionately with members of the same group.
- Residential segregation of blacks from other groups declined slightly between 1970 and 1990. Between 1980 and 1990, residential segregation of Asians and Hispanics from other groups changed little but is still lower than for blacks.

Housing and Neighborhoods

Housing 7. Whites' Attitudes towards Integration



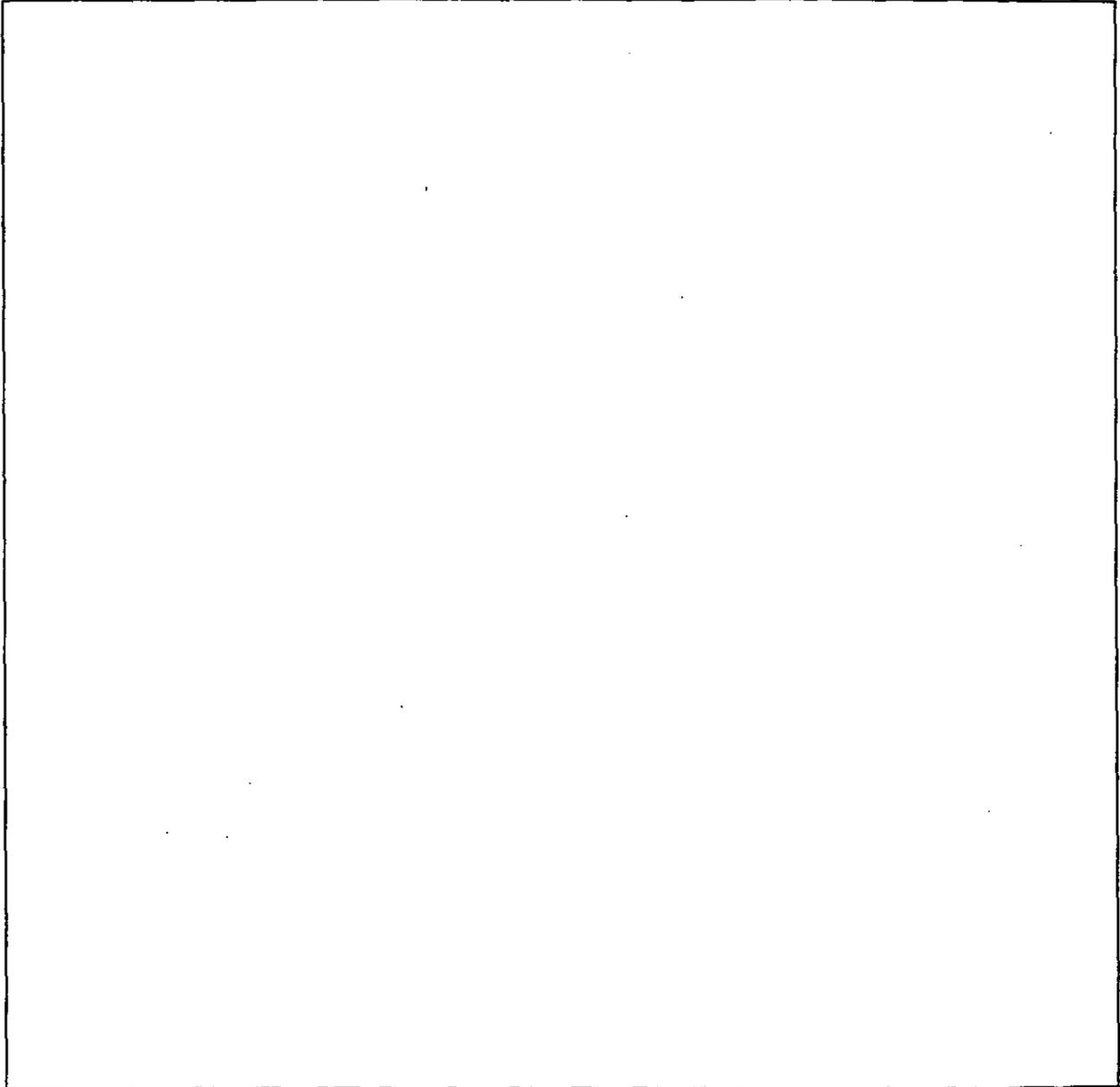
Source: Gallup.

- A variety of questions have been used to examine America's changing views on race and racial tolerance. Beginning in 1958, a national sample of whites has been asked whether they would move if "blacks moved in next door" or if "blacks moved into their neighborhood in large numbers." (get exact quote)
- The fraction of whites saying they would move if blacks moved in next door fell dramatically from 44 percent in 1958 to 1 percent in 1997. The fraction saying they would move if blacks moved into their neighborhood in large numbers fell from 80 percent to 18 percent over the same period.
- These questions have been consistently asked only of whites, so similar indicators of other groups' views of integration are not available.

Housing and Neighborhoods

For further information on the topics covered in this chapter, please see the following sources:

Reviewing agencies: Please suggest government publications and websites you think anyone interested in further information on these topics should see.

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for reviewing agencies to provide suggestions for government publications and websites related to the chapter's topics.

Race initiative -
research questions

EK -

I don't like this any more
than the Child-Family Indicators,
but it's probably not that big
a deal. However, I think
it should go to



Some neutral body,
like the Census, or
rather than Census,
giving the race
initiative some
permanent voice.

[Handwritten signature]

October 7, 1997

TO: Paul Begala
Marie Echaveste
Elena Kagan
Ann Lewis

FROM: Sylvia Mathews

Let's discuss as soon as possible. Please call me about this.

Bruce -

Talk to me about
this when you've
had a chance to
review. Thanks.

[Handwritten signature]



ONE AMERICA IN THE 21ST CENTURY

The President's Initiative on Race

*The New Executive Office Building
Washington, DC 20503
202/395-1010*

Memorandum for Sylvia Mathews and White House Staff

From: Judith A. Winston *JAW*
Subject: Proposed activities on data dissemination
Date: October 6, 1997

Dr. John Hope Franklin asked me to follow up on the successful September 30th Advisory Board meeting with a series of projects in the data analysis and dissemination area.

As we discussed at the Board meeting, many Americans are not tuned into the facts surrounding issues of race. The demographic discussion on Tuesday morning was a step in the right direction to focus us on the facts as they relate to the changing face of America. Dr. Franklin is interested in providing this type of information, as well as significant socio-economic indicators, to as broad an audience as possible as part of the Initiative's year long agenda for study, dialogue and action. Initiative staff has been working on a number of fronts to provide both more immediate products as well as a longer term report. I have attached the following proposals for your consideration and comment:

Attachment No. 1 is a proposal to create a pocket sized "key facts book" in time for the first Presidential town hall meeting on December 2nd. The staff has identified a number of indicators and we will ask the respective federal agencies to validate them and to help us collate the information.

Attachment No. 2 is a proposal to promulgate an Executive order to create an interagency forum on race statistics and indicators and to mandate the production of an annual resource book from this group. This proposal is modeled after E.O.13045 (Attachment No. 4) which created the Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics and its first annual report in April 1997.

Attachment No. 3 is a draft Executive Order.

Please provide your comments to us as soon as possible so that we can continue the momentum created at the September 30th meeting. Thank you.

Draft

Proposal for Pocket- Size Key Facts Book

As part of the President's Initiative on Race, we propose the publication of a pocket-size key facts book. This publication will provide data on various policy areas in an effort to educate our citizenry on the changing face of America. Moreover, the publication promotes the President's goal to identify areas in which race has a substantial impact and encourages educated dialogue on race and race relations in America. For example, data on education by race and income may show the added value of early childhood preparatory efforts as well as the increase in earnings potential of a college degree among minority members. Likewise, education data may point to various labor market inefficiencies such as the gap among the earnings potential of minority groups as compared to white members in society.

Goals:

- To identify trends and point out key disparities in various areas
- To provide basic demographic data on U.S. population by race
- To encourage well informed dialogues
- To provide people with an immediate product from which they can learn and share with others
- To encourage local/ state data collection and dissemination efforts

Deadline: December 2, 1997

Process:

- Work with various Federal Statistical Agencies to validate the attached list of indicators and to determine data sources
- Work with detailees from various Federal Statistical Agencies to collect, analyze and format data for this publication
- Work with Department of Justice, Office of Civil Rights to coordinate graphics and layout efforts
- Work with Government Printing Office for printing and publication
- Disseminate the publication at the town hall meeting scheduled for December 2, 1997
- Upload key facts book onto the Initiative's Website

The following is a list of indicators for the facts book. Most of the data in the facts book will be national. This publication will emphasize and encourage state and local agencies to produce similar information specific to their communities in an effort to create a more localized picture of America.

Areas

Indicators

Early Childhood

Education

% attending pre-school and kindergarten by race
 Performance on achievement tests by race
 Difficulty speaking English
 Families reading to their young
 Early academic achievement test

Education

High-school graduation by race
 High-school dropout rate by race
 College enrollment by race
 College graduation by race and degree
 Master's enrollment by race
 Master's graduation rate by race and degree
 Doctoral enrollment by race
 Doctoral graduation rate by race and degree
 If possible, have background information on the status of Affirmative Action in light of 209 and Hopwood
 Per pupil expenditure by district and racial composition of district

Economic Opportunity/
 Security

Small business creation
 Credit and loans to minority business community
 Contracts - SBA - minority contracting
 First time home owners
 Minority purchasing power and growing markets
 Child poverty and family income
 Secure parental employment

Demographic/
 Immigration

(Building on Dr. Farley's presentation on 9/30/97 AB meeting)
 Population of the United States by race and age
 Population projections into 2050
 10 most highly concentrate minority states and metro areas
 Fertility rates by race
 Trend information - Native born vs. Foreign born
 Number of immigrants in the United States by region and national origin

Labor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Labor force participation by race Job training by race Unemployment rate by race and age Income by level of education and race Occupation by race
Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Type of arrest by race and age Incarceration offense by race and age Homicide rate by race, sex and age Drug consumption by race and age Drug arrest rate by race and age Drug incarceration rate by race and age Death Penalty by victims race and perpetrators race
Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physician contact within minority communities Insured under 65 by race and gender Insured over 65 by race and gender Access to prenatal care by race Infant mortality rate by race Low Birthweight Limitation of physical movement due to chronic disease - asthma
Housing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Look at audit studies for access to quality housing Credit for first time buyers Interest rates on loan by race and age

Draft

Proposed Executive Order

Creation of a Federal Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators as part of the research effort by the President's Initiative on Race and to produce a Resource Book as one of the Initiative's products.

Policy Statement:

As America enters the 21st century with a racially diverse population, there is a clear need to gather more information about who we are and how we are doing. As part of the President's Initiative on Race, we recommend that this staff consider an annual report (Resource Book) that profiles America as a diverse nation. This will be an interagency effort along with the coordinated and expert assistance of outside researchers in various academic fields. Organizations such as National Academy of Science/ National Research Council will provide expert assistance with the selection of significant indicators that cross racial and ethnic boundaries. The report will be the first of a series of annual profiles that will be published in future years by the National Institute for Justice. Overall, this interagency effort will bring together several department officials in an effort to better coordinate data, reduce duplication and overlap.

Goals:

- To provide an overview of how various racial groups fare in important social and economic sectors
- To provide an *annual* report on the most important indicators such as education, health, economic progress, and justice by race
- To provide consistent, easy to understand information to help the public and policy makers evaluate critical policy choices
- To foster greater coordination on the reporting of race-relevant data among Federal agencies
- To institutionalize one of the important outcomes -- more and better information about race -- of the President's one-year initiative.

Process:

- Work with the National Academy of Science/National Research Council to establish a panel of experts -- through a workshop process -- to discuss the value of available data and suggest key indicators for inclusion in a report based on the criteria listed below
- Work with Federal Statistical agency officials to further evaluate the robustness and validity of the recommended indicators

- Identify data sources, aside from those that the Federal agencies already collect, which would lend new insight into issues
- Provide support from Federal agencies to fully explore the data available as recommended by the groups above in order to assemble the bulk of the report
- House the annual report at the National Institute for Justice after the initial publication under the auspices of the Initiative
- Identify data gaps for improved development of certain important indicators
- Report (Resource Book) writing, publication and dissemination

Selection of Key Indicators:

- Education
Language proficiency/ Science and Technology/ Telecommunications/
National Testing
- Economic Security
Wages/ Poverty rates/ Income/ Occupation/ Job training/ Employment/ *family makeup*
Small business
Asset holdings/ Investment plan
Access to credit/ retirement wealth
- Health
Infant, child and adult mortality/ Insurance/ Prenatal care/
Teen births/ Specific diseases/ Availability of health services
- Justice/ Crime/ Victimization
Death row/ Probation/ Characteristics of offenders/ Recidivism/ Jury *violent*
participation by race/ Hate crimes/ Police brutality/ *Victims by race / Crime rate, etc.*
- Housing
Residential stability/ Asset holdings/ Quality of housing
- Environment
Plant location/ Community Enterprise/ Brownfields
- Social - Civic Behavior
Alcohol, Tobacco and Drug use/ Voting patterns/ Computer Use
- Demographics/ Immigration

Selection Criteria:

- Easy to understand
- Objectively based on reliable data
- Balanced
- Measured regularly
- Representative of all racial/ethnic categories

Completion date: March 1, 1997 or earlier

DRAFT

Executive Order

President's Initiative on Race: Race Statistics and Indicators Resource Book

By the authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and the laws of the United States of America, it is hereby ordered as follows:

Section 1. Policy

101.1 As America enters the 21st century with an increasingly diverse population, there is a need to clearly and effectively provide information on our evolving racial makeup. A growing number of research and data collection efforts have advanced our scientific and popular knowledge about the disparities and opportunities of various racial groups living in the United States. Much of this information is available through the Federal government, working in conjunction with other government and non-government entities. Therefore, to the extent permitted by law and consistent with the mission and charter of the President's Initiative on Race:

(a) the Executive Director (or a designee) of the President's Initiative on Race shall convene an Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators ("Forum") which will include representatives from the appropriate Federal statistics and research agencies.

(b) The Forum shall produce a compendium ("Resource Book") of the most important indicators of the well-being of the nation's diverse population with a primary focus on the predominant racial and ethnic groups as defined by the United States government.

(c) Forum participants shall work with entities, such as the National Academy of Science/ National Research Council, to establish a panel of experts. This panel of experts, along with Forum participants, will discuss the value of available data and recommend key indicators for inclusion in the Resource Book based on criteria that will be developed by Forum participants.

Section 2. Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators Resource Book for the President's Initiative on Race.

2-201. The Forum shall encourage an interagency effort to monitor, gather and evaluate data based on race and ethnicity. This interagency effort will include representatives from diverse academic and professional backgrounds in order to ensure a comprehensive collection of data that will be representative of the United States population.

2-202. The Forum, through a rigorous deliberation process, shall determine the indicators to be included in the Resource Book and identify the sources of data to be used for each indicator. The Forum shall provide an ongoing review of Federal collection and dissemination of data on race and ethnicity, and shall make recommendations to improve the coverage and coordination of data collection and to reduce duplication and overlap.

2-203. The first Resource Book shall be published by the Forum under the direction of the President's Initiative on Race. The Forum shall present the final report to the President of the United States, through the President's Initiative on Race, and its Executive Director, by March 1, 1997. The Report shall be submitted annually thereafter, through the National Institute of Justice, using the most recent available data.

Section 3. General Provisions

3-301. This order is intended only for internal management of the executive branch. It follows the vision of the President's Initiative on Race to educate our society on the diversification of our nation. This order, however, is not intended, and should not be construed to create, any right, benefit or trust responsibility, substantive or procedural, enforceable at law by a party against the United States, its agencies, its officers, or its employees. This order shall not be construed to create any right to judicial review involving the compliance or noncompliance with this order by the United States, its agencies, its offices, or any other person.

*Cab. Tues - ED
will provide
statistics/demos*

Fairfax County

The following is a plan of action for following up on President Clinton's charge to the Advisory Board and the Initiative staff that we use Fairfax County (or a similarly diverse community) and its schools as a laboratory for studying the future of a more diverse America.

Goals:

-
- Study Fairfax County's demographic trends and how those trends affect the racial composition of Fairfax County's schools and businesses
- Identify the practical issues raised by Fairfax County's increasing diversity; examine how those issues differ in the school, work, and community settings
- Identify promising practices being implemented to manage and accrue benefits from Fairfax County's increasing diversity; understand how those practices can be replicated elsewhere

Process:

- Contact Census Bureau, the Department of Education, and the Fairfax County school system to obtain demographic information on Fairfax County and its schools
- Identify school personnel and researchers who can describe and provide data on the impact of Fairfax County's increasing diversity on its schools
- Identify specific problems as well as promising practices being implemented to manage that diversity effectively; contract with area researchers to study the effects of Fairfax County's increasing diversity
- Consult with various communities including county council and school board members, school administrators, teachers, parents, students, business leaders, and employees to gain an understanding of the practical effects of Fairfax County's increasing diversity
- Ask Advisory Board members, specifically Linda Chavez-Thompson, and Initiative staff to meet with representatives of these groups and to conduct a town meeting to help Fairfax County understand and come to terms with its increasing diversity

Products:

- Case study of Fairfax County including a detailed report of its shifting demographics and increasing racial diversity, issues raised by such increasing diversity, lessons learned in coping with that diversity, and listing of promising practices for dealing with that diversity effectively
- Diversity study kit, based on our efforts, to assist other communities in examining their demographic changes, understanding the likely effects of those changes, and developing ways to deal with those changes effectively

ECONOMY

Nonwhites Wake to 'American Dream'
Survey Finds Hot Pace in Housing, Business, Education

By JOSEPH N. BOYCE

Staff Reporter of THE WALL STREET JOURNAL.
The three major minority groups are purchasing homes, starting businesses and attaining college degrees at such a rapid pace they could reach parity with whites over the next 10 years, according to initial findings of a study to be released today.

The survey also found that whites still have substantially greater household income than African-Americans and Hispanics, although less than the third minority group, Asian-Americans, and that the annual rate at which minorities are increasing their incomes is virtually equal to that of whites.

Conducted jointly by three firms specializing in minority marketing and demographic research, the study examines minorities' progress in the areas they say are components of the commonly held notion of the "American Dream."

Members of minority groups, including immigrants, will make major strides in these categories over the next decade, provided the economy remains healthy, say researchers, who based their projections on U.S. Census and Federal Reserve data and reports from the Conference Board, a private economic analysis group.

Harvard Center's Report

The study shows a "significant pattern" of minority progress that argues against "an outdated mindset" that their influence in the economy is marginal, says Alfred L. Schreiber, vice president of Graham Gregory Bozell, one of the companies conducting the analysis. "This is the reality that will explode the myth that there is less-than-significant participation," he says. Also contributing to the survey are MSR Consulting, of New York, and DemoGraph Corp., of Miami.

Some economists were somewhat skeptical of the yearlong study, which researchers say will be completed in January.

But its findings coincide with several recent surveys that indicate minorities are doing better. Harvard University's Joint Center for Housing Studies recently released a report that shows minorities accounting for nearly 30% of the nation's new homeowners, while they make up only 15% of all homeowners.

The Census Bureau last month issued a report noting that the home-ownership rate for native-born citizens in 1996 was about the same as that for foreign-born citizens and that foreign-born Hispanic citizens were more likely to own a home than those born in the U.S.

A study issued in September by Target

Please Turn to Page A14, Column 1

Continued From Page A2

Market News Inc., a Chicago-based market-research firm, found that, contrary to the popular notion that black households are being left behind in the technological era, middle-class black households are purchasing computers and on-line services at a faster clip than whites. The study didn't mention Asians or Hispanics.

Researchers of the latest study, which they call the Multi-Cultural American Dream Index, point out that the population of the three minority groups surveyed increased by a little more than 3% from 1986 to 1996, while the white population grew by only 1.67%. However, minority-owned businesses grew by nearly 10% between 1987 and 1996 and college degrees by more than 7% during the same period. Mortgage originations advanced by more than 13% between 1993 and 1996.

When it comes to income, Asian-Americans already have passed whites. According to the Census Bureau's latest numbers, issued last week, Asian-Americans had median household income in 1996 of \$43,276, compared with \$24,906 for Hispanics (of any race), \$23,482 for African-Americans and \$37,161 for whites. The Census Bureau said these levels weren't significantly different than the 1995 levels, except for Hispanics, for whom the median rose 5.8%.

By 2000, researchers estimate, minorities will purchase 22% of all mortgages while representing 22% of all households, making their share equal to their portion of the population. Similarly, by 2004, they predict, minority students will be getting 29% of all college degrees, a share corresponding to their presence in the overall population. And, by 2007, minorities should own 23% of small businesses, while representing 23% of all households, say researchers.

'Phenomenal' Speed

"In terms of absolute numbers, ethnic Americans have not reached overall parity yet, but the speed at which growth rates have advanced, almost doubling over the last 10 years, is phenomenal," says Laura Teller, the chief executive of DemoGraph Corp.

Some of those learning of the report's findings were cautious. Dr. Cecilia Conrad, an associate professor of economics at Pomona College in Claremont, Calif., while noting there "is certainly supporting evidence for each of the categories having an increase" in minority participation, speculates that the projections might be too upbeat. Some of the business start-ups, she suggests, may be by minorities who have hit corporate "glass ceilings" and decided to go out on their own.

"If opportunities open up in corporations and other companies, which we expect them to do - then many are not going to be going into small businesses," she says.

Unanswered Questions

And, because of measures such as California's Proposition 209, which has banned college admissions preferences based on race, "the immediate outlook is not too good for blacks and Hispanics."

Ms. Conrad says of projections for attaining college degrees.

Ms. Teller acknowledges that the survey leaves some questions unanswered. A recession or anti-immigrant sentiment could retard minority progress, she says. "When it comes to jobs, minorities are often the last people in, so maybe they'll be the first out," she says.

However, she adds that the numbers in the report "don't lie. This is not something we made up or was on a wish list. We see

with our own eyes the importance of this group to the economy."

Dr. Joe W. Chamberlin, New York City physician and African-American whose life mirrors some of the study's findings, worries, however, that it could be used as an argument against continuing affirmative-action policies. "People could say, 'See, we've done more than what's required,' to end inequality, says the 37-year-old doctor. "In an ideal country, there wouldn't be any racism. But there is."

Copied
Spelling
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Winston
COS

cc: EK, Tom, Jose -
We should do
something w/ this study.
Maybe bring authors
to present at Town Hall.
-BR

File: Pres Has Seen

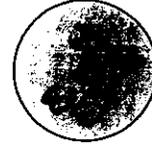
THE WALL STREET JOURNAL TUESDAY, OCTOBER 7, 1997

Gene / Reed / Winston

Fgh
BR

October 7, 1997

TO: Paul Begala
Marie Echaveste
Elena Kagan
Ann Lewis



FROM: Sylvia Mathews

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*The New Executive Office Building
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<u>Areas</u>	<u>Indicators</u>
<p>Early Childhood Education</p>	<p>% attending pre-school and kindergarten by race Performance on achievement tests by race Difficulty speaking English Families reading to their young Early academic achievement test</p>
<p>Education</p>	<p>High-school graduation by race High-school dropout rate by race College enrollment by race College graduation by race and degree Master's enrollment by race Master's graduation rate by race and degree Doctoral enrollment by race Doctoral graduation rate by race and degree If possible, have background information on the status of Affirmative Action in light of 209 and Hopwood Per pupil expenditure by district and racial composition of district</p>
<p>Economic Opportunity/ Security</p>	<p>Small business creation Credit and loans to minority business community Contracts - SBA - minority contracting First time home owners Minority purchasing power and growing markets Child poverty and family income Secure parental employment</p>
<p>Demographic/ Immigration</p>	<p>(Building on Dr. Farley's presentation on 9/30/97 AB meeting) Population of the United States by race and age Population projections into 2050 10 most highly concentrate minority states and metro areas Fertility rates by race Trend information - Native born vs. Foreign born Number of immigrants in the United States by region and national origin</p>

Labor

Labor force participation by race
Job training by race
Unemployment rate by race and age
Income by level of education and race
Occupation by race

Justice

Type of arrest by race and age
Incarceration offense by race and age
Homicide rate by race, sex and age
Drug consumption by race and age
Drug arrest rate by race and age
Drug incarceration rate by race and age
Death Penalty by victims race and perpetrators race

Health

Physician contact within minority communities
Insured under 65 by race and gender
Insured over 65 by race and gender
Access to prenatal care by race
Infant mortality rate by race
Low Birthweight
Limitation of physical movement due to chronic disease - asthma

Housing

Look at audit studies for access to quality housing
Credit for first time buyers
Interest rates on loan by race and age

Draft

Proposed Executive Order

Creation of a Federal Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators as part of the research effort by the President's Initiative on Race and to produce a Resource Book as one of the Initiative's products.

Policy Statement:

As America enters the 21st century with a racially diverse population, there is a clear need to gather more information about who we are and how we are doing. As part of the President's Initiative on Race, we recommend that this staff consider an annual report (Resource Book) that profiles America as a diverse nation. This will be an interagency effort along with the coordinated and expert assistance of outside researchers in various academic fields. Organizations such as National Academy of Science/ National Research Council will provide expert assistance with the selection of significant indicators that cross racial and ethnic boundaries. The report will be the first of a series of annual profiles that will be published in future years by the National Institute for Justice. Overall, this interagency effort will bring together several department officials in an effort to better coordinate data, reduce duplication and overlap.

Goals:

- To provide an overview of how various racial groups fare in important social and economic sectors
- To provide an *annual* report on the most important indicators such as education, health, economic progress, and justice by race
- To provide consistent, easy to understand information to help the public and policy makers evaluate critical policy choices
- To foster greater coordination on the reporting of race-relevant data among Federal agencies
- To institutionalize one of the important outcomes -- more and better information about race -- of the President's one-year initiative.

Process:

- Work with the National Academy of Science/National Research Council to establish a panel of experts -- through a workshop process -- to discuss the value of available data and suggest key indicators for inclusion in a report based on the criteria listed below
- Work with Federal Statistical agency officials to further evaluate the robustness and validity of the recommended indicators

- Identify data sources, aside from those that the Federal agencies already collect, which would lend new insight into issues
- Provide support from Federal agencies to fully explore the data available as recommended by the groups above in order to assemble the bulk of the report
- House the annual report at the National Institute for Justice after the initial publication under the auspices of the Initiative
- Identify data gaps for improved development of certain important indicators
- Report (Resource Book) writing, publication and dissemination

Selection of Key Indicators:

- Education
 - Language proficiency/ Science and Technology/ Telecommunications/ National Testing
- Economic Security
 - Wages/ Poverty rates/ Income/ Occupation/ Job training/ Employment/ Small business
 - Asset holdings/ Investment plan
 - Access to credit/ retirement wealth
- Health
 - Infant, child and adult mortality/ Insurance/ Prenatal care/ Teen births/ Specific diseases/ Availability of health services
- Justice/ Crime/ Victimization
 - Death row/ Probation/ Characteristics of offenders/ Recidivism/ Jury participation by race/ Hate crimes/ Police brutality
- Housing
 - Residential stability/ Asset holdings/ Quality of housing
- Environment
 - Plant location/ Community Enterprise/ Brownfields
- Social - Civic Behavior
 - Alcohol, Tobacco and Drug use/ Voting patterns/ Computer Use
- Demographics/ Immigration

Selection Criteria:

- Easy to understand
- Objectively based on reliable data
- Balanced
- Measured regularly
- Representative of all racial/ethnic categories

Completion date: March 1, 1997 or earlier

DRAFT

Executive Order

President's Initiative on Race: Race Statistics and Indicators Resource Book

By the authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and the laws of the United States of America, it is hereby ordered as follows:

Section 1. Policy

101.1 As America enters the 21st century with an increasingly diverse population, there is a need to clearly and effectively provide information on our evolving racial makeup. A growing number of research and data collection efforts have advanced our scientific and popular knowledge about the disparities and opportunities of various racial groups living in the United States. Much of this information is available through the Federal government, working in conjunction with other government and non-government entities. Therefore, to the extent permitted by law and consistent with the mission and charter of the President's Initiative on Race:

(a) the Executive Director (or a designee) of the President's Initiative on Race shall convene an Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators ("Forum") which will include representatives from the appropriate Federal statistics and research agencies.

(b) The Forum shall produce a compendium ("Resource Book") of the most important indicators of the well-being of the nation's diverse population with a primary focus on the predominant racial and ethnic groups as defined by the United States government.

(c) Forum participants shall work with entities, such as the National Academy of Science/ National Research Council, to establish a panel of experts. This panel of experts, along with Forum participants, will discuss the value of available data and recommend key indicators for inclusion in the Resource Book based on criteria that will be developed by Forum participants.

Section 2. Interagency Forum on Race Statistics and Indicators Resource Book for the President's Initiative on Race.

2-201. The Forum shall encourage an interagency effort to monitor, gather and evaluate data based on race and ethnicity. This interagency effort will include representatives from diverse academic and professional backgrounds in order to ensure a comprehensive collection of data that will be representative of the United States population.

2-202. The Forum, through a rigorous deliberation process, shall determine the indicators to be included in the Resource Book and identify the sources of data to be used for each indicator. The Forum shall provide an ongoing review of Federal collection and dissemination of data on race and ethnicity, and shall make recommendations to improve the coverage and coordination of data collection and to reduce duplication and overlap.

2-203. The first Resource Book shall be published by the Forum under the direction of the President's Initiative on Race. The Forum shall present the final report to the President of the United States, through the President's Initiative on Race, and its Executive Director, by March 1, 1997. The Report shall be submitted annually thereafter, through the National Institute of Justice, using the most recent available data.

Section 3. General Provisions

3-301. This order is intended only for internal management of the executive branch. It follows the vision of the President's Initiative on Race to educate our society on the diversification of our nation. This order, however, is not intended, and should not be construed to create, any right, benefit or trust responsibility, substantive or procedural, enforceable at law by a party against the United States, its agencies, its officers, or its employees. This order shall not be construed to create any right to judicial review involving the compliance or noncompliance with this order by the United States, its agencies, its offices, or any other person.

*Ciab. Tues - ED
will provide
statistics/demos*

Fairfax County

The following is a plan of action for following up on President Clinton's charge to the Advisory Board and the Initiative staff that we use Fairfax County (or a similarly diverse community) and its schools as a laboratory for studying the future of a more diverse America.

Goals:

- Study Fairfax County's demographic trends and how those trends affect the racial composition of Fairfax County's schools and businesses
- Identify the practical issues raised by Fairfax County's increasing diversity; examine how those issues differ in the school, work, and community settings
- Identify promising practices being implemented to manage and accrue benefits from Fairfax County's increasing diversity; understand how those practices can be replicated elsewhere

Process:

- Contact Census Bureau, the Department of Education, and the Fairfax County school system to obtain demographic information on Fairfax County and its schools
- Identify school personnel and researchers who can describe and provide data on the impact of Fairfax County's increasing diversity on its schools
- Identify specific problems as well as promising practices being implemented to manage that diversity effectively; contract with area researchers to study the effects of Fairfax County's increasing diversity
- Consult with various communities including county council and school board members, school administrators, teachers, parents, students, business leaders, and employees to gain an understanding of the practical effects of Fairfax County's increasing diversity
- Ask Advisory Board members, specifically Linda Chavez-Thompson, and Initiative staff to meet with representatives of these groups and to conduct a town meeting to help Fairfax County understand and come to terms with its increasing diversity

Products:

- Case study of Fairfax County including a detailed report of its shifting demographics and increasing racial diversity, issues raised by such increasing diversity, lessons learned in coping with that diversity, and listing of promising practices for dealing with that diversity effectively
- Diversity study kit, based on our efforts, to assist other communities in examining their demographic changes, understanding the likely effects of those changes, and developing ways to deal with those changes effectively