

Laying Down Roots

An Analysis of Housing Tenure for the Black Community in California

A Culminating Project Presented to the Department of Public Policy and Administration at
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Executive Summary

The American dream is to own a home, but that dream will never come true for some. In California, the Black community faces an uphill battle transitioning from renting to homeownership. Facing obstacles like historical discrimination, income disparities, and the lack of affordable housing leads many Black Californians to rent instead.

In this paper, I explore the historical discrimination Black individuals have faced regarding housing. I explain how the Home Owners Loan Corporation, the Federal Housing Administration, and gentrification have hindered the Black community's access to housing. I examine different literature that focuses on income, age, education, race, and COVID-19 to see what correlations these factors had on renters, especially Black renters.

In Section III, I use the 2022 California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) data. Looking at variables from previous studies, I chose variables that might show an image of an individual's housing tenure, focusing on renters. To create my dependent variables, I combined the length of time someone has lived at a current address variable and whether they rented or owned a home in a single-unit or multiple-unit building.

In Section IV, I review the results of the two ordered logistic regression models comparing renters and homeowners. The results for the first ordered logistic regression models show that being Black and Latino is positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. I use the odds ratio to show that Black individuals are 79 percent more likely to be renters than White individuals. When looking at income, low-income individuals are 150 percent more likely to be renters and high-income individuals are 43 less likely. The result that I found most interesting was that the likelihood of renting decreases as people age. A twenty-year-old is 259 percent more

likely to rent than an eighty-year-old. The percentage goes up in the thirties, with 384 percent, then decreases with age. Forty-year-olds are 261 percent, fifty-year-olds are 130 percent, and sixty-year-olds are 54 percent likely to be renters compared to eighty-year-olds.

The results focusing only on Black individuals showed that Black individuals who are high-income are 64 percent less likely to be renters. Black individuals who had a 9 to 11 grade education are 149 percent likely to be renters, with high school education at 85 percent. Black Individuals who are single with no children are 104 percent more likely to be renters, and single individuals with children are 94 percent compared with married couples with children. Black females are 23 percent less likely to be renters. A twenty-year-old Black individual is 103 percent more likely to rent than an eighty-year-old. The percentage goes up in the thirties, with 237 percent, then decreases with age. Forty-year-olds are at 185 percent, and fifty-year-olds are at 109 percent.

In Section V, I compare the results from the ordered logistic model and literature. There were some connections between the literature and the results of this study. I explain some of my research's limitations and conclude with suggestions for future research.

This study found a relationship between age and renting. The ordered logistic models back up the claim that younger individuals tend to be renters. The results show that thirty-year-olds are most likely to be renters, but this percentage decreases as they age. This is the same for Black renters in California. Another connection was that education does play a factor in the lives of renters or homeowners. Education was positively significant in grades 1 through high school and vocational for all Californians. This suggests that individuals with higher education tend to own a home rather than rent.

Some limitations of this study were that the CHIS data I used did not have any variables to measure how much an individual spent on rent, a mortgage, debt, or actual wealth. Another limitation was the number of Black individuals participating in the CHIS study. Redoing this study with more Black participants could help provide a fuller picture of what variables impact their access to homeownership.

Real estate-owned (REO) properties can be found in historic Black and inner-suburban Black communities. Most REO properties in Black neighborhoods are used for renting (Kim & Cho, 2016). Future research can help determine if REOs significantly impact Black individuals and access to affordable housing.

Acknowledgments

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Section I: Introduction

California's housing crisis, exacerbated by historical injustices and discriminatory practices, places a disproportionate burden on the Black community to access affordable housing. With existing housing policies, disparities hinder access to affordable housing and block a path to homeownership. This paper will focus on what factors determine one's housing tenure, focusing on renters in previous literature and what has been examined regarding the link between Black renters and their housing status, specifically housing tenure. Using 2022 California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) data, I analyze what factors influence the length of time Californians have lived at their current address, focusing on renters. Understanding the historical context is essential to comprehend the depth of the issue.

Purpose

This study analyzes different factors influencing housing tenure, specifically focusing on Black renters (in California). By analyzing literature and CHIS data, this study seeks to create a better understanding of how the housing crisis affects Black renters. The study aims to offer insight that can inform policymakers to continue to promote housing equity and address housing disparities for Black communities in California.

In the following section, I will look at the history of housing discrimination, including Home Owners Loan Corporation (HOLC) policies and the Federal Housing Administration that contributed to housing disparities. Additionally, I provide two case studies experiencing gentrification that offer context and serve as background examples to support this study's broader analysis. Then, I explain how gentrification has impacted housing in communities, focusing on two case studies in the Oakland and Sacramento areas to understand how gentrification can

affect the ability of Black individuals to obtain stable housing in their neighborhoods. Examining these two specific case studies provides a thorough insight into California's housing crisis in Black communities.

History

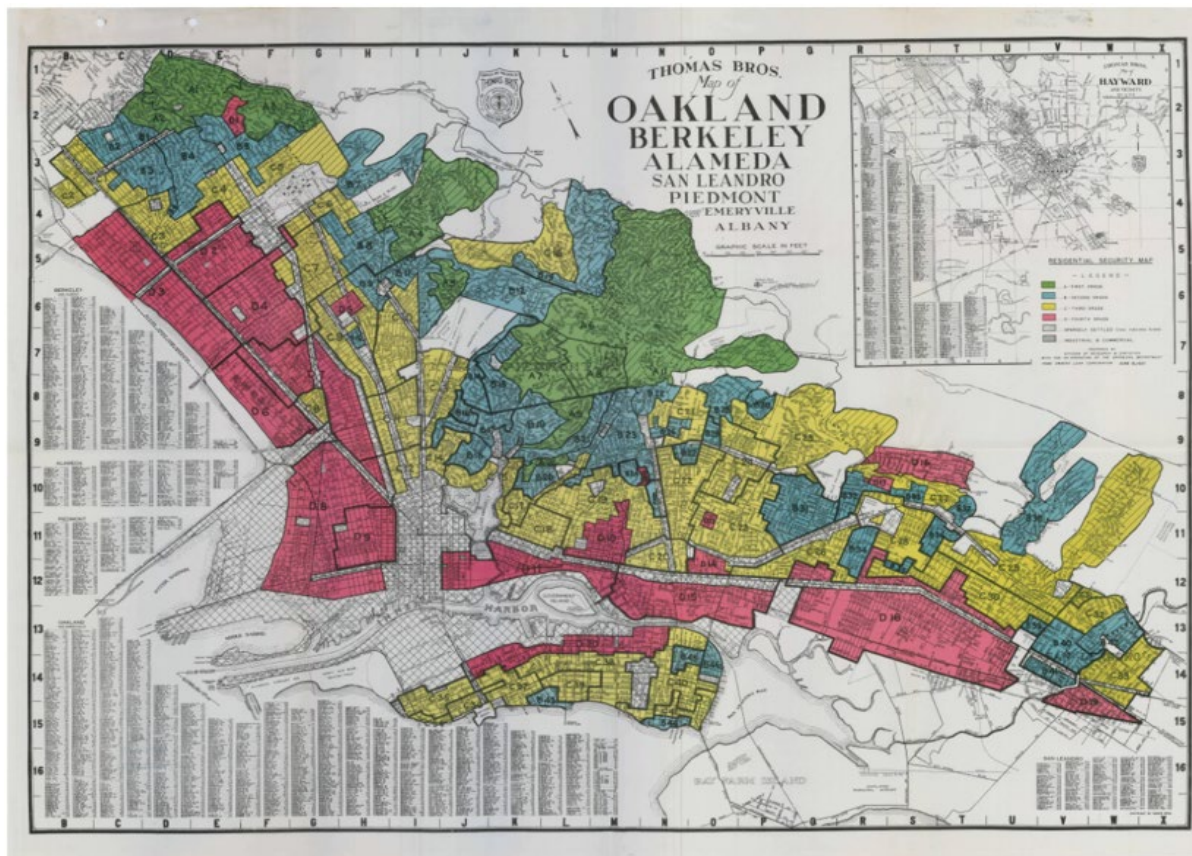
From 1910 to 1970, millions of African Americans began the "Great Migration" from the Jim Crow South to large cities across the United States (Evans, 2024). Racial tension and competition began between White workers and African Americans for housing and jobs. Racial violence rose in cities around the U.S., leading to racially restrictive covenants that segregated Black housing. To keep segregation going, developers and residents included clauses to all local deeds as new communities were built (Evans, 2024). The deeds include racist language like, "no part of said property nor any portion thereof shall be for said term of fifty years occupied by any person, not of Caucasian race," and "That neither said lots nor portions thereof or interest therein shall ever be leased, sold, devised, conveyed to or inherited or be otherwise acquired by or become property of any person other than of the Caucasian Race" (Thompson et al., 2021).

Home Owners Loan Corporation

1934, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed the National Housing Act, which helped create "redlining." The newly signed act was meant to help lower-income people by providing extended payback periods and lower mortgages, incentivizing more people to buy homes. To avoid defaults on homes, the Home Owners Loan Corporation (HOLC) was introduced (Langley, 2023). HOLC refinanced over a million homes in the coming years, issuing long-term, low-interest loans nationwide. HOLC introduced residential safety maps to show which city areas were deemed safe investments. The maps were color-coded into four sections: "A" areas were green and considered to be the best, "B" areas were blue and not as desirable, "C" areas were

yellow and considered in decline, and “D” areas were red, which were labeled as areas to avoid. Racial and economic demographics highly influenced this form of classification. HOLC’s classification played a role in private banks adopting the system and denying home loans to residents in the red areas (Green, 2016). Areas classified as risky were outlined with a red line around them, and most of those areas had one thing in common: Black people lived there. Figure 1 shows an example of a residential security map of the Oakland and Berkeley area (Green, 2016).

Figure 1: 1937 “Residential Security Map” created by the HOLC



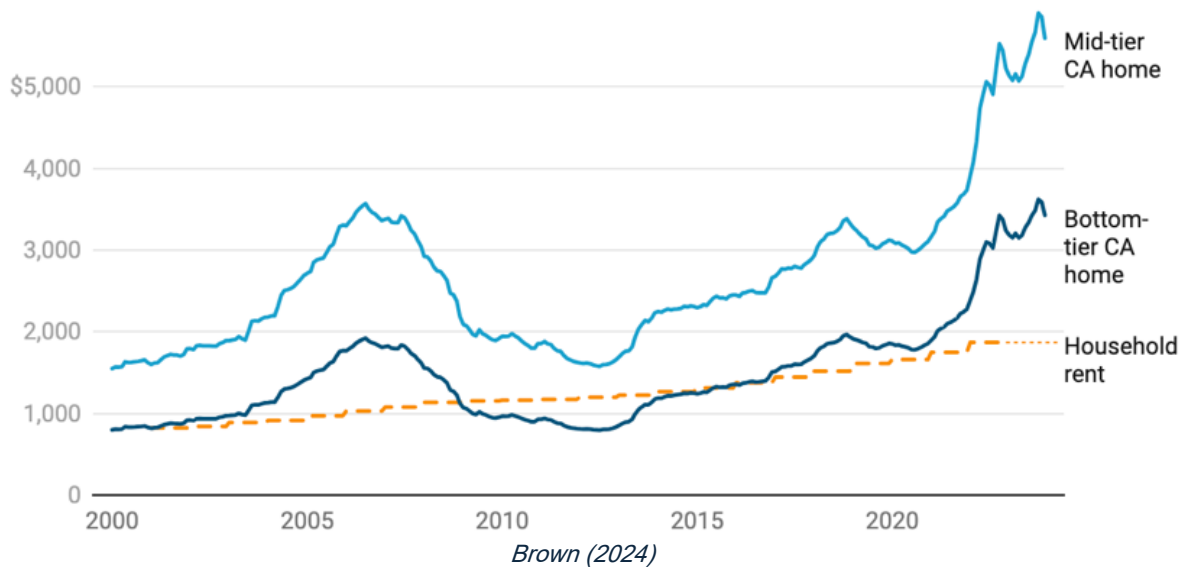
Green, (2016)

Federal Housing Administration

The Federal Housing Administration (FHA) continued the discriminatory practices against Black individuals initiated by HOLC in housing. The FHA provided mortgage insurance for housing. The FHA made it very difficult for Black individuals to build wealth by owning a home. The FHA's action helped reduce the property values of non-White neighborhoods. It forced people of color (POC) who were trying to buy a home into racial land contracts that made it easier to take away wealth from communities of color.

Over the years, Black families saw their net worth increase, but the Great Recession and the housing crisis erased those gains and eliminated the progress of a generation. The wealth gap has continued to grow over the years. In 2016, the median wealth of a White family nationally was \$171,000. In contrast, the median wealth of Black families was \$17,600 during the same time. For every dollar a Black family has, a White household has \$9.72 (Hutchful, 2018). California tends to lead the nation in housing costs. Rent costs have increased recently, but not as fast as the monthly payments needed to buy a home. Mortgage payments on a 2-bedroom home cost \$2,000 more than renting an apartment or home. To qualify for a mid-tier home in California in December 2023, a household needed to earn \$224,000, more than double the \$85,300 in 2022. Nearly \$137,00 is required in annual income to qualify for a home mortgage, around 60 percent more than the median income in 2022. Figure 2 shows how much monthly payments for mid-tier and bottom-tier homes have increased, with mid-tier payments rising by over \$5,500—an 80 percent increase since January 2020 (Brown, 2024).

Figure 2: Monthly Payment for a Typical California Housing



Gentrification

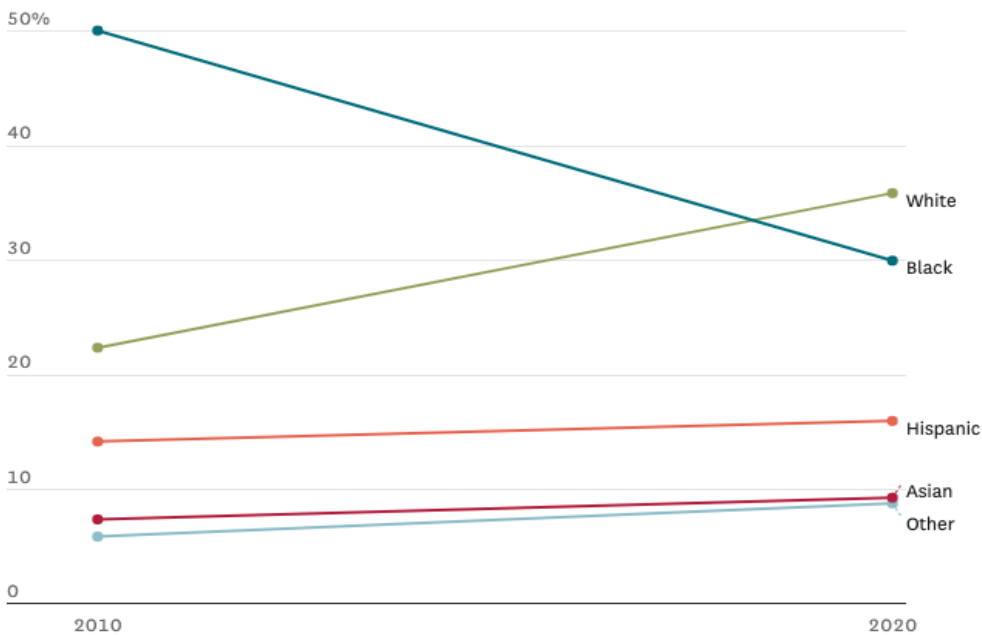
Gentrification occurs when “a poor area (as of a city) experiences an influx of middle-class or wealthy people who renovate and rebuild homes and businesses, often resulting in increased property values and the displacement of earlier, usually poorer residents” (Webster, n.d.). Examining these two specific case studies in the Oakland and Sacramento areas provides context and serves as background that support this study's broader analysis.

Oakland, Longfellow

The Longfellow neighborhood in Oakland has a rich history of being a Black neighborhood. During the 1960s, Longfellow became the headquarters for the Black Panther Party. Over time, rent and home prices began to increase, and so did the presence of White people in the neighborhood. Figure 3 shows that Black residents went from 51 percent in 2010 to

about 30 percent in 2020. At the same time, White residents went from 22 percent to 36 percent. As housing costs increased in San Francisco and other parts of the Bay Area, homeowners turned to neighborhoods of color like in Oakland, which had lower housing prices. Longfellow can have lower rental prices because it has more multi-unit buildings. More home buyers have been attracted to the area, which has increased the value of homes. In 2002, a typical house in Longfellow would cost around \$300,000; in 2022, that price rose to over \$1.1 million. This is higher than the median of Oakland at \$1 million (Ravani & Kopf, 2022). The City of Oakland seemed to help the Longfellow neighborhood transform by introducing "safety zones" designed to break up gang activity by imposing restrictions on gang members within a specific area. During the transition of Longfellow, the neighborhood has lost 400 low-income Black households (Ramirez, 2019).

Figure 3: Longfellow’s population from 2010 to 2020



Ravani, S., Kopf, D. (2022).

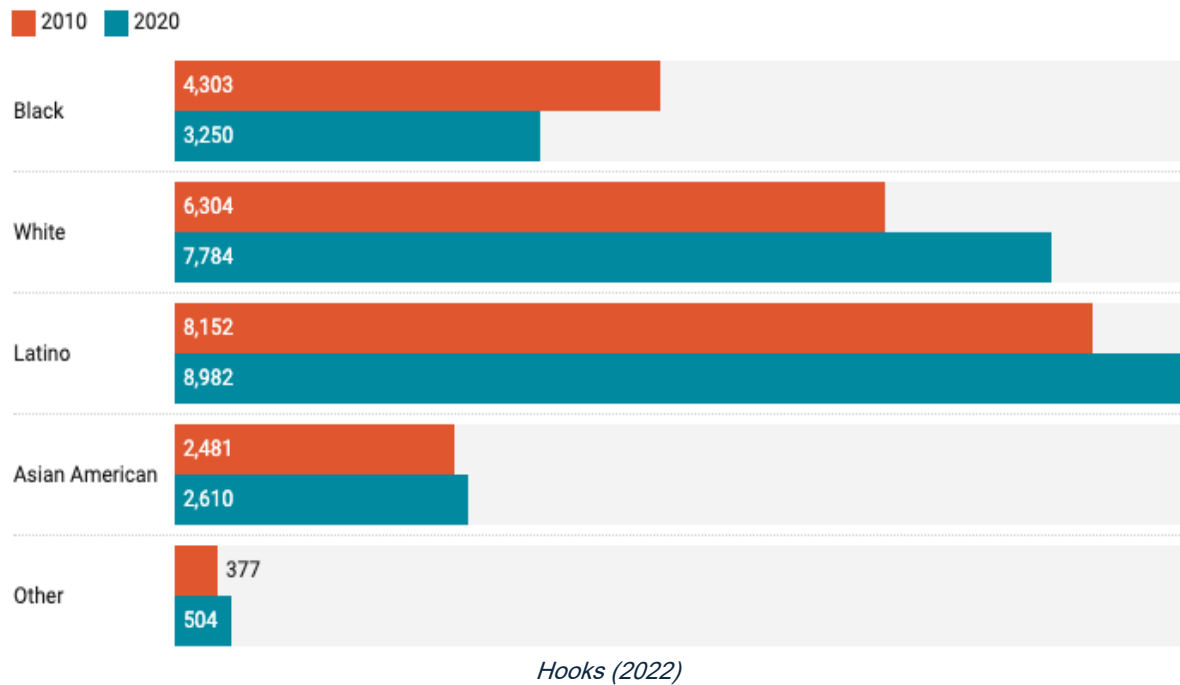
Sacramento, Oak Park

Oak Park in Sacramento was created in the 1880s by real estate developer Edwin Alsip. It became an attractive location for working-class residents because it had no municipal taxes, which made residents go without city services like water or sewage but made lots more affordable (Peters, 2022). Decades later, the Great Depression devastated Oak Park's economy, driving away businesses like Joyland, the city's historic amusement park. The city's inability to recover financially alongside cheaper housing options in the suburbs caused a 'white flight' (Castaneda, 2008). After World War II, many Black residents flocked to the Oak Park neighborhood since other neighborhoods had racial restrictions. More businesses left the neighborhood after the construction of US Highway 50 and Highway 99 in the 50s and 60s (Peters, 2022).

Oak Park consists primarily of renters and has a fair share of low-income housing (Levy et al., 2007). Recently, Oak Park saw a 24 percent decrease in Black residents from the area. Figure 4 illustrates the reduction in the Black population from 4,303 to 3,250, while all other races saw an increase in population from 2010 to 2020. The recession then helped push Black residents out of Oak Park. For example, Ryan Lundquist, an appraiser and housing analyst in Sacramento, explains that in 2010, 66 percent of home sales were distressed when a homeowner had to sell due to financial hardships (Hooks, 2022). In 2006, 43 percent of Black residents owned homes. By 2015, that number had dropped to 27 percent. The median price for a single-family home in Oak Park went from \$69,000 during the peak of the foreclosure crisis to souring to \$375,000 in 2021. Home sales in Sacramento County sell at around \$400,000, with a median price of around \$500,000 (Peters, 2022). The University of Davis is now constructing a \$1.1 billion medical center named Aggie Square. This new project will attract new people into the

community, increasing rent and home prices, further intensifying an already constrained housing market for Black residents(Hooks, 2022).

Figure 4: Oak Park’s population from 2010 to 2020



In the next section, I review the literature regarding factors in housing tenure, focusing on renters. In Section III, I explain my regression model and choice of dependent variable and explanatory variables. In Section IV, I describe the results of these variables and their relationship to each other. Finally, I will discuss my results, compare them to other literature, and provide recommendations.

Section II: Literature Review

This literature review examines factors influencing people to rent instead of homeownership. I analyze income, age, education, race, and the COVID-19 pandemic to see how they impact individuals' housing tenure, focusing on renting. This review will gather data and information from academic journals and reputable internet sites to find relevant information on the topic. This literature review will also attempt to explain how these factors impact housing tenure in the Black community.

Income Factor

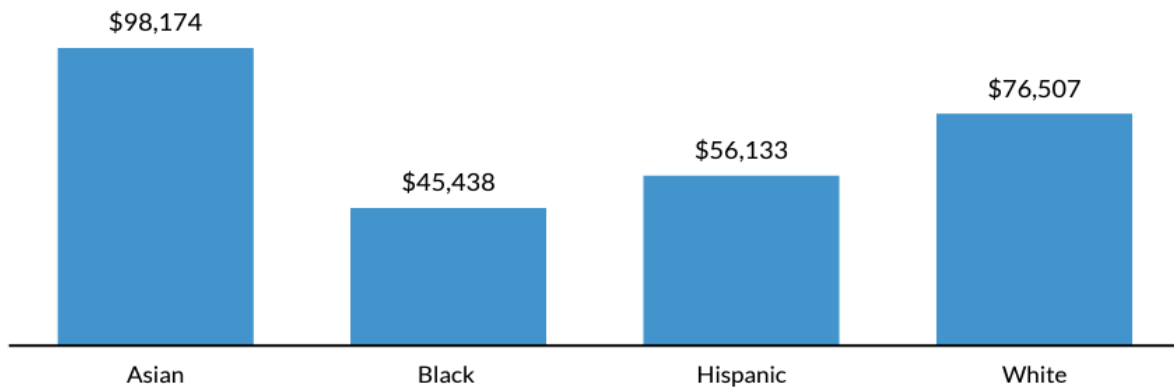
It is suggested that income, wealth, and age correlate with housing tenure. Income tends to increase as people get older, which can lead to saving for a down payment on a home. Several empirical studies have shown that age and income positively correlate with housing tenure (Gignac et al., 2023). Di and Liu (2007) used a simulation methodology to build a regression model to predict whether an individual would rent or buy a home based on income, wealth, credit history, and demographic variables positively correlated with tenure choice.

California continues to lose more low and middle-income residents than have arrived. Low and Middle-income residents can no longer afford to continue to live in California (Phillips et al., 2022). Hongwei Dong's cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses (2018) examine how income inequality in low-income tenant households impacts rental affordability at the county level in America's largest 100 metropolitan areas. The study used the Comprehensive Housing Affordability Strategy (CHAS) Database to measure rental affordability. The findings explain that "the average severe rent burden rate among the 507 studied counties was 24 percent in 2000, about 24 percent of low-income tenant households paid more than 50 percent of their income for rent. 2008–2012, that number increased by about 11 percent to 35 percent. In 2008–2012, the most severely rent-burdened county was Orange County, Florida, where 53 percent of low-

income tenant households paid more than 50 percent of their income for rent” (Dong, 2018, p.2114).

Young and her colleagues (2022) explain that Black and Hispanic workers earn less, resulting in low incomes. This study used Urban Institute data to clarify that median earnings for non-Hispanic White workers were \$50,150, compared to the median earnings for Black workers (\$39,700) and Hispanic workers (\$37,900). Highly low-income renters, or those with less than 30 percent of the area's median income, have less access to affordable housing because the National Low Income Housing Coalition estimates that the United States has a shortage of 7 million rental homes. Figure 5 shows the different median household incomes by race in 2019. As demand increases and supply is low, rental prices will continue to rise. High rents can lead to greater instability, and households need help to meet their needs.

Figure 5: Median Household Income by Race (2019)



Young, C., Neal, M., & Ratcliffe, J. (2022)

Age Factor

Gignac (2023) explains that age correlates with housing tenure. Producing down payments for a home can put constraints on individuals' ability to achieve homeownership. In *Renting vs. Buying a Home: A Matter of Wealth Accumulation or Geographic Stability*, Mnasri's (2015) study explains that down payments have minor quantitative implications for homeownership rates among young households. According to the 2009 Wealth and Asset Ownership survey (United Census Bureau), young renters have an average of \$135,000 in rental property equity, suggesting they may hold significant investments in assets other than homeownership. Mnasri (2015) explains that young individuals have high geographic mobility. Young individuals often move to attend college or university, pursue a Master's or Ph.D., or participate in internships or training programs in other locations. Young renters may move to seek better job opportunities and job transfers or advance their careers. Life changes, like starting a family or marriage, are contributing factors. However, when young individuals become homeowners, they are less likely to relocate (Mnasri, 2015). In 2019, it showed that most younger individuals preferred renting; 65.9 percent of individuals under 35 lived in rentals. As age increased, the desire to rent decreased. Of individuals ages 35 to 44, 42 percent rented, and the percentage decreased to 31.5 percent for ages 45 to 54 (DeSilver, 2021).

Shoag and colleagues (2023) explain that Californians must remain renters longer before transitioning to homeownership. Between 1980 and 2020, the percentage of individuals between the ages of 25 and 35 who owned their homes went from 39.4 percent to 15.5 percent. In California, more than half the residents are homeowners at 49, 17 years more than it was in 1980. This makes Californians the oldest to own their homes outright, with Nevada at 44 years old (Shoag et al., 2023).

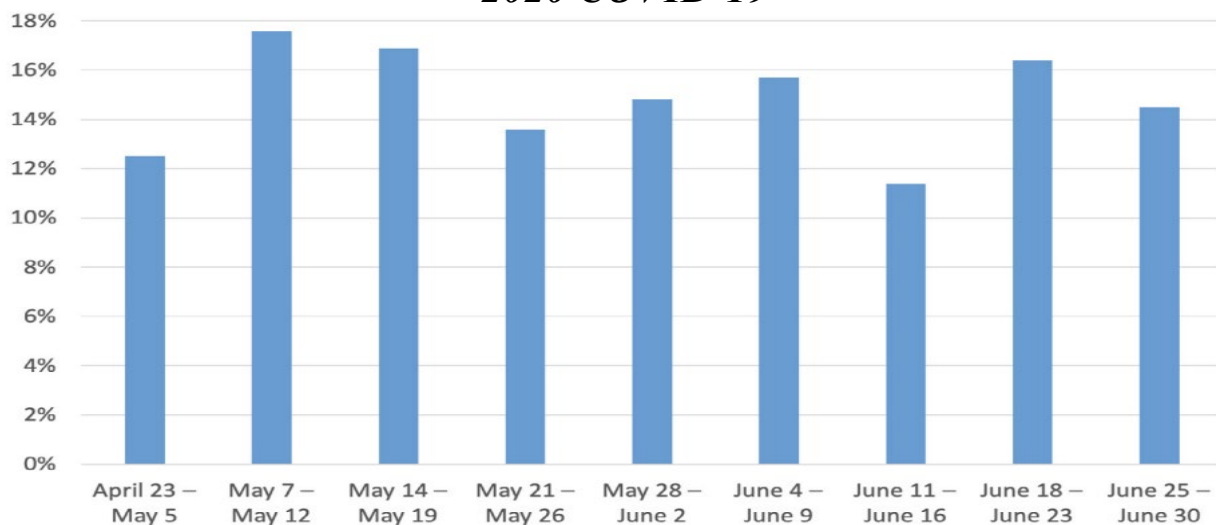
Education & Race Factors

Achieving higher levels of education is positively associated with earning a higher income. Individuals with lower levels of education are more likely to seek financial services like payday loans over credit unions and banks. Creating a relationship with traditional banking systems makes obtaining mortgage loans easier. Individuals who have higher education tend to earn more money that can be used to buy a home (Kuebler & Rugh, 2013). In *Homeownership and the American Dream*, Goodman and Mayer (2018) explain that educational levels have increased from 1985 to 2015. Households with a college education went from 21.5 percent to 39.8 percent, which should indicate an increase in homeownership. Individuals who did not graduate high school saw a decrease in homeownership from 1985 to 2015. Starting in 1985, homeownership was similar across all education levels, with a 7.1 percent difference between individuals with a college education and individuals with no high school diploma. The difference changed in 2015, going up to 23 percent between the lowest and highest educated households, showing a connection between owning a home and education attainment. More Asian and Hispanic individuals began to own more homes than Black individuals. From 1985 to 2015, White homeownership increased by 2.5 percent, Hispanic homeownership increased by 5.8 percent, Asian homeownership increased by 11.6 percent, and Black homeownership declined by 1.7 percent. Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians all had lower homeownership rates than White individuals, even after controlling for factors including income, education, age, and household type. In 2015, 62.9 percent of White individuals with less than a high school education were homeowners compared to 62.9 percent of Black individuals with college education. This may suggest that race plays a role in determining who gets access to homeownership opportunities and shows the complex relationship between education, race, and homeownership (Goodman & Mayer, 2018).

COVID-19 Pandemic Factor

The COVID-19 pandemic exasperated the existing housing issues, directly impacting renters and their housing tenure. Low-income renters suffered unprecedented circumstances, as many lost their rentals due to loss of income. In *Systemic Racial Inequality and the COVID-19 Renter Crisis*, Ong (2020) analyzed 2020 survey data from the U.S. Census Bureau. Ong (2020) explains that the pandemic made it difficult for renters to keep up with monthly payments. The 2020 U.S. Census Bureau indicated that over 1.9 million adults in California could not pay their rent on time in early July of that year. Ong (2020) says that over 750,000 households could not pay the rent in May and/or June. UCLA's Center for Neighborhood Knowledge (CNK) found that low-income and minority renters were more likely to be the most hurt by the pandemic. Many minorities lost their jobs during the pandemic, making it difficult or impossible to pay rent. Figure 6 shows the percentage of renters who did not pay their rent in 2020. Renters did have temporary protections during the pandemic, but those protections have ended.

Figure 6: % of Renter Households Who Did Not Pay Rent During 2020 COVID-19



Ong, P. (2020, p.7)

Black Renters

It is established that low-income household renters have high rates of residential mobility. Desmond (2015) explains that low-income renters move so much because they do not have a choice. According to Desilver (2021), 58 percent of Black adults were renters in 2019. The renters who must move end up in neighborhoods with a poverty rate of 5.4 percentage points higher and a crime rate nearly 1.8 percentage points higher than those of renters who moved by choice.

Inequalities in housing tenure continue today for Black individuals. Having less access to homeownership, Black people are more likely to rent than White people. Friedman, Nakatsuka, and Lu (2021) found that controlling for demographic and socioeconomic factors, Blacks are significantly more likely than Whites to report not being caught up on their rent. The findings are from eviction results in New York State. The results explained that Black individuals are significantly more likely than Whites to report that they would be very likely to be evicted (Friedman et al., 2021). For example, a study analyzing 29,960 eviction records in Milwaukee County from January 1, 2003, to December 31, 2007, conducted 251 on-site surveys at Milwaukee's eviction court in January and February 2011. Seventy-four percent of the eviction court survey population was Black and poor. Most used at least 50 percent of their income to rent, and one-third used 80 percent. In Milwaukee, women in high-poverty Black communities are more likely to work than Black men but get paid less than men who work in the area. In high-poverty Black neighborhoods, one out of 17 women and one out of 33 male renters are evicted. Women make up 9.6 percent of Black communities, but they account for 30 percent of evictions (Desmond, 2014).

Compared to White renters, Black renters experience an increase in neighborhood poverty and crime rates between moves. Black Milwaukee residents live in more disadvantaged

neighborhoods compared to Whites and Hispanics. Desmond explains that “among recent movers, the average Black renter in Milwaukee lives in a neighborhood where 17 percent of families live below the poverty line, compared with 9 percent for the average White renter and 13 percent for the average Hispanic renter”. Evidence suggests that the advantaged Black movers moved voluntarily to neighborhoods that have higher amounts of poverty than to the neighborhoods where the least-advantaged White renters (forcefully displaced) relocated (Desmond & Shollenberger, 2015).

Black people submit more offers and applications for homes, report more difficulties, and are much more likely to feel they were taken advantage of during their search for rental housing. Whites mostly search in White communities, while Blacks search in more diverse communities (Krysan, 2008). In 2015, Black households with a college education were less likely to be homeowners compared to White households that did not have a high school diploma (Goodman & Mayer, 2018). During the COVID-19 pandemic, Black renters were more likely to miss rent payments than White renters. In 2021, 64 percent of Black renters were behind in rent compared to 66 percent of White renters (Merchant & Troland, 2023).

Section III: Data & Methods

This paper's data collection is from the California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) Data Set 2022. Approximately 89 percent of adult interviews were completed online, and 11 percent over the phone. The data was collected between March 2021 and November 2022. Invitational letters for the survey were out in two ways: a window envelope with \$2.00 visible and traditional envelopes with \$2.00 inside. The total sample size of the data set is 21,463 households in 2021, including 21,463 adults, 985 adolescents, and 3,395 children. 2021-2022 CHIS had approximately 80 percent of the content from CHIS 2020. CHIS was conducted in six languages:

English, Spanish, Chinese, Vietnamese, Korean, and Tagalog. The CHIS survey showed that out of 21,463 participants, 32.06 percent were renters, 63.54 percent were homeowners, and 4.39 percent had other arrangements, did not know how to answer, or did not participate in the survey.

As shown in Table 1, all variables can be seen. The dependent variable used combines two variables: renters and length of time at the current address. Renters are measured by combining the variables of renting in single-unit buildings and renting in multiple-unit buildings. The length of time is measured 0-12 months, 13-60 months, 61-120 months, 121-180 months, 181-240 months, 241-300 months, 301-360 months, 361-420 months, 421-480 months, 481-540 months, 541-600 months, and over 600 months. For race variables, I used Black, Latino, Asian, and American Indian/Alaskan Native, and I did not include the White variable so I could compare it to the other variables. I expect Black and Latino individuals to have high significance levels. CHIS does not provide a variable for wealth; income is used as a proxy. The income variables are split into low income of \$10,000 to 49,999, middle income=\$50,000 to 159,999, and high income=\$160,000 to over \$180,000. I expect lower income to be positively associated with renters at a high correlation rate. I included education to see how much influence it has on renters. Education is split into no formal education or grades 1 to 8, grade 9 to 11, grade 12 /high school diploma or G.E.D, some college, vocational school, Associates of Arts or Science, Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science or some college, Master of Arts or Master of Science, and PH.D. or equivalent. I expect education to show that having a lower education will be associated with an individual who rents. In some studies, the type of family, gender, and age have been shown to impact people's choice to rent; I included them also. Family type measurements are single/ no kids, single with kids, married/no kids, and married with kids; gender measurements are male and female, and age measurements are the twenties, thirties,

forties, fifties, sixties, seventies, and eighties. I will be surprised if being married is more impactful than being single for an individual who rents and if Black and Hispanic individuals are not positively associated with being renters.

The unit of analysis is the months a person has rented in their current address. The logistic regression method used is ordered since the dependent variable is categorical and meaningfully ordered. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the variables. I converted all variables into dummies, with each variable becoming binary.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics Table

Category	Variables	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Dependent Variable	<i>Length of Time Rent at Current Address</i> (0-12 Months, 13-60 months, 61-120 months, 121-180 months, 181-240 months, 241-300 months, 301-360 months, 361-420 months, 421-480 months, 481-540 months, 541-600 months, >600 months) (Rent single unit, Rent Multiple unit)	21,463	0.86	1.59	0	12
Control Variables	<i>Race</i>					
	Black	21,463	0.05	0.22	0	1
	Latino	21,463	0.15	0.36	0	1
	Asian	21,463	0.15	0.36	0	1
	American Indian/Alaskan Native	21,463	0.01	0.11	0	1
	Other Single/Multiple Race	21,463	0.13	0.34	0	1
	<i>Income Level</i>					
	Low Income (<\$10K-\$49,999)	21,463	0.32	0.47	0	1
	Middle Income (\$50,000-\$159,999)	21,463	0.43	0.50	0	1
	High Income (\$160,000-\$180,000+)	21,463	0.21	0.40	0	1
	<i>Education Level</i>					
	Elementary to Middle	21,463	0.03	0.16	0	1
	Grade 9 to 11	21,463	0.03	0.16	0	1
	HS senior or diploma	21,463	0.13	0.33	0	1
	Some college	21,463	0.15	0.35	0	1
	Vocational school	21,463	0.06	0.24	0	1
	AA or AS	21,463	0.07	0.26	0	1
	BA or BS	21,463	0.31	0.46	0	1
	MA or MS	21,463	0.17	0.37	0	1
	Ph.D. or equivalent	21,463	0.07	0.26	0	1
<i>Family Type</i>						
Single, No Kids	21,463	0.45	0.50	0	1	
Single, Kids	21,463	0.07	0.26	0	1	
Married, No Kids	21,463	0.33	0.47	0	1	
Married, Kids		0.16	0.36	0	1	
<i>Gender</i>						
Male	21,463	0.43	0.50	0	1	
Female	21,463	0.57	0.50	0	1	
<i>Age</i>						
Twenties	21,463	0.09	0.28	0	1	
Thirties	21,463	0.13	0.34	0	1	
Forties	21,463	0.15	0.36	0	1	
Fifties	21,463	0.20	0.40	0	1	
Sixties	21,463	0.22	0.42	0	1	
Seventies	21,463	0.15	0.36	0	1	
Eighties	21,463	0.06	0.23	0	1	

Section IV: Results

In this section, I discuss the results of the ordered logistic regression model of renting and compare them to owners of different races in California. I also explain the results of the ordered logistic regression model focusing on Black Californians who rent compared to those who are homeowners.

California Renters

Table 2 shows whether there is a statistical significance for all the different variables. Model 1 shows that being Black and Latino is positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 level. The low-income variable is positively associated, with a statistical significance of 0.001. The high-income variable is negatively associated, statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. Having an elementary education and having a 9 to 11-grade education is positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. High school and vocational education are positively associated, statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level. Having a Ph.D. or equivalent variable was omitted. Being single with no children and single with kids is positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level. The variable of being married with kids was omitted. Being female is negatively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level. The age variables twenties, thirties, forties, fifties, and sixties are positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level. The eighties variable was omitted.

Using Table 2 ordered logistical model, I use the odds ratio to show that Black individuals are 79 percent more likely to be renters than White individuals, and Hispanic individuals are 18 percent more likely to be renters than White individuals. When accounting for income, low-income individuals are 150 percent more likely to be renters than high-income individuals, who are 43 percent less likely to be renters. When it came to education, individuals who had an elementary to middle school education had the highest likelihood to be renters at 120 percent, with grades 9 to 11 at 70 percent, a high school or diploma at 21 percent, and vocational education at 23 percent, compared to those with a Ph.D. education. The type of family plays a role in the lives of renters. Individuals who are single with no children are 111 percent more likely to be renters, and single individuals with children are at 93 percent compared with married couples with children. Females are 11 percent less likely to be renters. The ordered logistical model shows that the likelihood of renting decreases as people age. A twenty-year-old is 259 percent more likely to rent than an eighty-year-old. The percentage goes up in the thirties with 384 percent but then decreases with age. Forty-year-olds are at 261 percent, fifty-year-olds are at 130 percent, and sixty-year-olds are at 54 percent likely to be renters compared to eighty-year-olds.

California Homeowners

Model 2 shows that being Black is negatively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Black individuals are 31 percent less likely to be homeowners than White individuals. The low-income variable is negatively associated, with a statistical significance of 0.001. When looking at income, low-income individuals are 65 percent less likely to be homeowners. Having an elementary education and having a 9 to 11-grade education is negatively associated with the

length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. Having some college education and an associate degree is positively associated, with a statistical significance of 0.001. Having a bachelor's or master's education level is positively associated with a statistical significance of 0.01. Individuals with an elementary to middle school education are 41 percent less likely to be homeowners, with grades 9 to 11 at 30 percent. Individuals with some college education are 23 percent more likely to be homeowners, associate's at 28 percent, bachelor's at 17 percent, and master's at 17 percent. Being single with no children and single with kids is negatively associated with the length of time owning a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. Individuals who are single with no children and singles with children are 50 percent less likely to be homeowners. Being female is positively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level. Females are 18 percent more likely to be homeowners compared to males. The age variables twenties, thirties, forties, fifties, and sixties are negatively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level. All age groups are less likely to be homeowners, with twenty-year-olds at 96 percent, thirty-year-olds at 96 percent, forty-year-olds at 92 percent, fifty-year-olds at 85 percent, sixty-year-olds at 70 percent, and seventies at 44 percent compared to eighty-year-olds.

Table 2 Ordered Logistical Model

DV: Length of Time Rented at Current Address 0-12 Months, 13-60 months, 61-120 months, 121-180 months, 181-240 months, 241-300 months, 301-360 months, 361-420 months, 421-480 months, 481-540 months, 541-600 months, >600 months (Rent single unit, Rent multiple unit)				DV: Length of Time Owned at Current Address	
Variable	Coefficient	(SE)	Odds Ratio	Coefficient	Odds Ratio
Race					
Black	0.58***	0.06	1.79	-0.36***	0.69
Latino	0.17***	0.05	1.18		
Asian	0.04	0.05	1.04		
Amer. Indian/Alaskan Native	-0.09	0.14	0.91		
Multiple Race	0.07	0.05	1.08		
Income Level					
Low Income	0.92***	0.08	2.50	-1.06***	0.35
Middle Income	0.10	0.08	1.10		
High Income	-0.56***	0.09	0.57		
Education Level					
Grade 1-8	0.79***	0.11	2.20	-0.53***	0.59
Grade 9 to 11	0.53***	0.11	1.70	-0.36***	0.70
HS or diploma	0.19*	0.08	1.21		
Some college	0.03	0.08	1.03	0.20***	1.23
Vocational	0.21*	0.09	1.23		
AA or AS	-0.01	0.09	0.99	0.25***	1.28
BA or BS	0.02	0.07	1.02	0.16**	1.17
MA or MS	-0.08	0.07	0.93	0.16**	1.17
Family Type					
Single, No Kids	0.74***	0.05	2.11	-0.70***	0.50
Single, Kids	0.66***	0.06	1.93	-0.70***	0.50
Married, No Kids	-0.08	0.06	0.92		
Gender					
Female	-0.11***	0.03	0.89	0.16***	1.18
Age					
Twenties	1.28***	0.09	3.59	-3.15***	0.04
Thirties	1.58***	0.08	4.84	-3.21***	0.04
Forties	1.28***	0.09	3.61	-2.58***	0.08
Fifties	0.83***	0.08	2.30	-1.91***	0.15
Sixties	0.43***	0.08	1.54	-1.21***	0.30
Seventies	0.09	0.09	1.09	-0.57***	0.56
N	21,463	21,463	21,463	21,463	21,463

Note: * p<0.05. ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Black Renters

Using Table 3 ordered logistical model, I focus on California's Black population that responded to the CHIS survey. High income is negatively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.05 significant level. Black individuals who are high-income are 64 percent less likely to be renters. Regarding education, a 9 to 11-grade and high school education are positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address at a statistically significant level of 0.05. Black individuals who had a 9 to 11 grade education are 149 percent likely to be renters, with high school education at 85 percent. Being single with no children and single with kids is positively associated with the length of time renting at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significant level for singles with no children and 0.05 significance level for singles with children. Black Individuals who are single with no children are 104 percent more likely to be renters, and single individuals with children are 94 percent compared with married couples with children. Being female is negatively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.05 significant level. Black females are 23 percent less likely to be renters. The age variables twenties, thirties, forties, and fifties are positively associated with the length of time someone has rented at the current address. These are statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level for twenties and fifties, 0.01 for forties, and 0.001 for thirties. The sixties and eighties variables were omitted. A twenty-year-old Black individual is 103 percent more likely to rent than an eighty-year-old. The percentage goes up in the thirties, with 237 percent, then decreases with age. Forty-year-olds are at 185 percent, and fifty-year-olds are at 109 percent.

Black Homeowners

Model 4 shows that low income is negatively associated with the length of time a Black individual has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. Low-income Black individuals are 72 percent less likely to be homeowners. A 9 to 11-grade education is negatively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address at a statistically significant level of 0.01. Black individuals with a 9—to 11-grade education are 86 percent less likely to be homeowners. Being single with no children and single with kids is negatively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.01 significance level for singles with no children and 0.05 significance level for singles with children. Black Individuals who are single with no children are 50 percent less likely to be homeowners, and single individuals with children are 52 percent less likely to be homeowners compared with married couples with children. Being female is positively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address, which is statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. Black females are 64 percent more likely to be homeowners. The age variables twenties, thirties, forties, fifties, sixties, and seventies are negatively associated with the length of time someone has owned a home at the current address. They are statistically significant at the 0.001 significance level. A twenty-year-old Black individual is 97 percent less likely to be a homeowner than an eighty-year-old. The remaining age groups are all less likely to be homeowners, with thirty-year-olds at 98 percent, forty-year-olds at 97 percent, fifty-year-olds at 93 percent, sixties-year-olds at 88 percent, and seventy-year-olds at 77 percent.

Table 3 Ordered Logistical Model

Black Californians

	Model 3		Model 4	
DV:	<i>Length of Time Rent at Current Address</i>		<i>Length of Time Own at Current Address</i>	
Variable	Coefficient	Odds Ratio	Coefficient	Odds Ratio
Income Level				
Low Income			-1.27***	0.28
Middle Income				
High Income	-1.01*	0.36		
Education Level				
Elementary to Middle				
Grade_9_to_11	0.91*	2.49	-1.99**	0.14
HS senior or diploma	0.62*	1.85		
Some college				
Vocational school				
AA or AS				
BA or BS				
MA or MS				
Family Type				
Single, No Kids	0.71**	2.04	-0.70**	0.50
Single, Kids	0.67*	1.94	-0.74*	0.48
Married, No Kids				
Gender				
Female	-0.26*	0.77	0.49***	1.64
Age				
Twenties	0.71*	2.03	-3.44***	0.03
Thirties	1.21***	3.37	-3.75***	0.02
Forties	1.05**	2.85	-3.48***	0.03
Fifties	0.73*	2.09	-2.70***	0.07
Sixties			-2.09***	0.12
Seventies			-1.46***	0.23
N	1,126	1,126	1,126	1,126

Note: * p<0.05. ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Section V: Discussion

In this section, I compare the findings from the literature with those of the ordered logistical models to see if any similarities or differences emerge. I discuss some limitations and conclude my research with suggestions for future research.

The literature explains the relationship between age and renting. Mnasri (2015) explains that younger individuals tend to be renters because they have higher geographic mobility, as they tend to move more often to pursue higher education or career opportunities. The CHIS data backs up this claim by showing that younger individuals tend to be renters. However, that percentage begins to decrease after someone is thirty. For Black Californians, those in their thirties were the most likely to be renters. The literature explains that younger Californians will stay renters longer before becoming homeowners. The results show that thirty-year-olds are most likely to be renters, but this percentage decreases as they age. This is the same for Black renters in California. Another connection was that education does play a factor in the lives of renters or homeowners. Individuals who have higher education tend to earn more money that can be used to buy a home (Kuebler & Rugh, 2013). Education was positively significant in grades 1 through high school and vocational for all Californians. This suggests that higher-education individuals tend to own a home rather than rent.

Limitations

The CHIS data I used did not have any variables to measure how much an individual spent on rent, a mortgage, debt, or actual wealth. Without these variables, I cannot thoroughly analyze an individual's financial situation. Not having this data may have introduced bias into the research, potentially leading to misinterpretation. Another limitation was the number of Black individuals participating in the CHIS study. Out of 21,463, only 1,126 were Black.

Redoing this study with more Black participants could help provide a fuller picture of what variables impact their access to homeownership.

A Factor to Consider for Future Research

There continues to be a lack of affordable housing, with limited signs that the situation will improve soon. The article, *Unending foreclosure crisis: Uneven housing tenure trajectories of post-REO properties*, studies the neighborhood effects of real estate owned (REO) properties, “properties owned by the lender after an unsuccessful foreclosure auction, which found that historic Black and inner-suburban Black communities had higher REO properties. After the Great Recession, many properties in Black neighborhoods were seized by banks and tax authorities since these neighborhoods were targeted for subprime mortgages. Some of these properties were converted into REOs since banks had difficulties selling these properties through conventional means. Most REO properties in Black neighborhoods are used for renting” (Kim & Cho, 2016). Future research can help determine if REOs significantly impact Black individuals and access to affordable housing.

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