Fostering Equity: 
Creating Shared Understanding for Building Community Resilience

Module I
# Module I

## Part 1: “What’s Equity Got to Do with It?”

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## Part 2: Connecting Policy to Community Outcomes:

### Inequity by Design

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Part 1: “What’s Equity Got to Do with It?”

This module presents background on the nearly 400-year history of American policy to explain the social, economic and health inequities we see in communities today.* Many landmark Supreme Court rulings and policies implemented at the federal, state and local level discussed in this module are taught in a piecemeal fashion in elementary, secondary, undergraduate and even graduate classrooms. Rarely are they presented in a comprehensive manner so we may begin to understand and assess the compounding effect of policies over time as they have been used overtly and covertly to perpetuate structural racism, classism and inequity.

History should not be partisan—but too often it is written in a manner that reflects the image that is most flattering to those with power rather than an unbiased truth. Similarly, partisan ideals often inspire policy that reflects norms, values and practices of a ruling class that may or may not reflect the best interests of the populace. Both of the nation’s historically dominant political parties have had an equal contribution to policies and practice that result in inequity that is not random, but rather by design.

We have compiled this chronology and analysis of U.S. policy from a wide-range of sources, including Executive Orders, Supreme Court rulings, legislative documents, Congressional records and peer-reviewed academic sources, not to be exhaustive but rather to be illustrative. The policy timeline and analysis presented here demonstrates how we as a country have systematically fallen short of our own democratic values of liberty, equality and justice.

Adverse Community Environments by Design

Digging Through the Layers of Inequity

The Center for Community Resilience, Redstone Global Center for Prevention and Wellness, Milken Institute School for Public Health, George Washington University. Visit go.gwu.edu/ccr for original work.

Our examination of legislative and regulatory policies put in place over the course of this nation’s history reveals a pattern of structural racism that was created by law and fortified by practice over the course of more than 400 years. From the founding of this nation with the Articles of Confederation adopted in 1781, leaving regulation of slavery up to the newly-formed states, to the adoption of the Constitution in 1787, our public systems have not been designed to uphold the ideal of “freedom and justice for all.” Throughout our history, adoption of policies and strategies claiming to expand opportunity for upward mobility, equality and improvement of community environments, have in practice built upon a history of subjugation and segregation by race and class, reinforced by place.
Colonial Era

Prior to the arrival of Europeans to the continent, hundreds of self-organized nations of peoples lived in what would eventually become the United States. Before the nation’s formal founding, colonists built a web of laws and policies that systematically stripped sovereignty, forcibly removed native peoples from their land and passed acts that amounted to state-sponsored genocide to support an unfettered land grab.1 One of the first examples of the brutality of policies in this era are the numerous “Scalp Acts,” enacted by colonies including Pennsylvania, Virginia and Delaware. These acts offered rewards for the scalps of individuals from Iroquois, Muskogean, Micmac and other tribal nations.2 In Pennsylvania, commissioners authorized captains to offer their men a bounty of “forty Pieces of Eight for every Indian they shall kill and scalp.”3 The policies and treatment of the nation’s original people of color served as a template for the design and implementation of policies aimed specifically to produce inequitable results by race and class.

Constitution Era

In 1776-1789, when the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution were drafted and adopted, voting rights were guaranteed for white, male landowners only—establishing the race, gender and class of the new nation’s power establishment and affirmation of slavery (Article 1, Section 1, Clause 3). Unequal representation was further reinforced in the “Great Compromise” that allowed southern slaveholding states to count slaves as three-fifths human for the purposes of representation in the House of Representatives—giving slaveholding states greater representation in Congress despite the fact that the slaves did not have equal protection under the law.

The Marshall Trilogy (1823-1832) is a series of U.S. Supreme Court holdings that are the foundation of American Indian law. The series established federal supremacy (plenary power) in Indigenous affairs over states and individuals.4 It

“The condition of slavery with us is, in a word, Mr. President, nothing but the form of civil government instituted for a class of people not fit to govern themselves. It is exactly what in every State exists in some form or other. It is just that kind of control, which is extended in every northern State over its convicts, its lunatics, its minors, its apprentices. It is but a form of civil government for those who by nature are not fit to govern themselves. We recognize the fact of the inferiority stamped upon that race of man by the Creator, and from the cradle to the grave, our Government, as a civil institution, marks that inferiority.”

Senator Jefferson Davis (D-MS) – (Senate speech April 1860)
Source: Congressional Globe, 36th Congress

Fostering Equity: Creating Shared Understanding for Building Community Resilience
limited the rights of Native Americans to sell their land to any entity other than the Federal government—voiding sales to states or other individuals, thereby limiting the ability to profit from their own land or resources, such as timber and minerals. The Marshall Trilogy also established the political status of indigenous people and tribal nations - granting tribal sovereignty as ‘domestic dependent nations’ that exist within the boundaries of the U.S. This classification means that tribal nations are wards of the U.S., even though tribal leaders may manage some internal affairs. It is important to note that the Marshall Trilogy held the removal of Native Americans from tribal lands unlawful. Despite this Supreme Court ruling, new laws allowed the removal of more than 125,000 Native Americans from tribal lands east of the Mississippi river between 1830 and 1850.

In 1830, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act and the Preemption Act, a pathway to settlement of the West and further displacement of tribal nations. The Removal Act provided for the “resettlement” of Native Americans to areas west of the Mississippi River in exchange for $500,000. Most tribal nations, such as the Cherokee, were forced to leave their homelands in the Southeast to areas in Oklahoma. The Preemption Act allowed white squatters to purchase land that was once tribal territory for a fraction of the price, encouraging westward expansion in the newly acquired territory and effectively destroying the place-based identities for many tribal nations, including sacred spaces such as burial and hunting grounds.

By 1838, at least 100,000 members of the Choctaw, Creek, Chickasaw, Seminole, Cherokee nations and their African slaves were forcibly removed by U.S. soldiers from areas in Georgia, Alabama, Kentucky and Tennessee in the “Trail of Tears.” An ethnographic account from the time describes the experience for tribal members:

“Men working in the fields were arrested and driven into the stockades. Women were dragged from their homes by soldiers whose language they could not understand. Children were often separated from their parents into the stockades with the sky for a blanket and the earth for a pillow.”

Those who survived the harsh conditions of forced migration faced disease and starvation in their new land.

To further encourage settlement of the West, President Abraham Lincoln signed into law the Homestead Act of 1862, promising federal land to landless white male citizens. Compounding the effects of the Indian Removal Act, the Homestead...
Act served to further remove tribal nations from ancestral homes and eventually reduced their ‘territory’ to reservations across the West.13

Reconstruction Era

During the Reconstruction Era (1865-1877), civil rights were extended to African Americans with the adoption of the 13th (abolishment of slavery except as punishment for a crime), 14th (equal protection of all citizens under the law), and 15th (right to vote for males, regardless of race or color) amendments.14,15,16 The nation’s first civil rights act, passed in 1866 over the veto of President Andrew Johnson,
bestowed citizenship upon all persons born in the United States regardless of race, color or previous servitude.

**Post-Reconstruction Era**

As quickly as civil rights were conferred, the post-Reconstruction era (1875-1920) began their slow erosion, with the creation of the legal justification for segregation of the races. Across the country, towns banned people of color from residing within city boundaries. These so-called “Sundown Towns” were largely established beyond the South, in states such as Illinois, Ohio, Maryland, Wisconsin and Michigan, and as far west as Oregon. Sundown Towns restricted the presence of non-whites after dusk except for people of color in servant roles. These practices withstood legal challenge and prevailed with the Supreme Court ruling of *Plessy v. Ferguson*. This 1896 ruling upheld the constitutionality of racial segregation, establishing the standard of ‘separate but equal’.

In the wake of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, Jim Crow laws created public spaces that fostered racial supremacy via segregation, separating people of color from whites in schools, housing and employment. Beginning with the Alabama state constitution, many southern states adopted ordinances that restricted use of public restrooms, restaurants, trains, buses, swimming pools and other public spaces by race.

At the same time, in the American West federal policy focused on assimilation as a strategy to “kill the Indian but save the man.” Indian assimilation programs began in earnest as federal interests sought to create a new social and political order post-Civil War. In Congress, a newly formed Peace Commission sought to move Native Americans away from tribal lands and into special education programs that would ‘prepare the Native to join white civilization.’ This aim was to be achieved by forcibly removing Native American children from their

“Nearly a century later, [the town] ‘Anna’ [Illinois] is still considered by its residents and by citizens of nearby towns to mean “Ain’t No Niggers Allowed”, the acronym the convenience stork clerk confirmed in 2001.”

*Sundown Towns* (Loewen, 2018)
homes and into boarding schools run by missionaries, where they were indoctrinated into the Christian faith and assimilated into the dominant white culture. These schools largely prepared boys for manual labor or farming and girls for domestic work.

New Deal Era

Segregation in Public Housing by Design - Austin, Texas

The first African-American public housing complex in the nation, the Rosewood Courts were opened in 1939 as part of President Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal, after lobbying efforts by then-Congressman Lyndon Johnson. Along with Rosewood, the Austin, TX housing authority designated Santa Rita Courts for Latinos and Chalmers Courts for whites, as Austin was still segregated at the time. Inspired by European design elements, the barrack-style Rosewood Courts were built on the site of Emancipation Park, grounds for the local Juneteenth parade.


The federal government further institutionalized racial segregation and inequity in access to economic mobility through a series of initiatives aimed at reviving the nation’s economy following the Great Depression. New Deal housing initiatives allowed for the segregation of Jewish people, African Americans and other people of color. The Homeowner’s Loan Corporation (1933) and the Federal Housing Administration (1934) created a bailout plan for homeowners in default of mortgages and provided federally insured mortgages for ‘whites only’ communities. Housing initiatives from the new Public Works Administration (1933) implemented neighborhood composition rules, honoring existing patterns of racial segregation across the American landscape. Suburbs used zoning and eminent domain to keep out African American residents or seize property, and restrictive covenants were used to ensure that sellers could not transfer property to people of color. As far back as the 1920s, police officers were encouraged to
follow and stop African American motorists.\textsuperscript{30} The Fair Labor Standards Act (1938) set labor and pay protections for the American worker but excluded industries where African Americans and women were the predominant labor force, such as agriculture and domestics.\textsuperscript{31}

Discriminatory housing policies have also left communities of color vulnerable to other predatory policies and practices. Race-based policies throughout the 1900s contributed to communities of color with low investment and less ability to influence zoning decisions. These communities were historically much more likely to be situated near “disamenities,” including municipal landfills, hazardous waste sites, industrial plants and freeways.\textsuperscript{32} This practice was widespread. A landmark government investigation in 1983 found that three out of the four state-approved, major hazardous waste sites in the southeastern states were built near low-income, African American communities.\textsuperscript{33} Nationally, the disproportionate exposure to air pollution, polluted water and toxic soil directly impacted the health of generations of African American and Latino children, contributing to higher rates of lead poisoning, asthma and learning disabilities.\textsuperscript{34}

**Post-World War II Era**

Post-World War II economic expansion generated the explosion of the middle class. Planned communities were developed to accommodate the growing families of returning veterans—communities that relied on the Fair Housing Administration for mortgage insurance and the Veteran’s Administration for guaranteed mortgages, in a housing boom driven by the Serviceman’s Adjustment Act of 1944 and the GI Bill.\textsuperscript{35,36} The Housing Act of 1949 expanded the federal role in mortgage insurance and construction of public housing and upheld patterns of racial segregation.\textsuperscript{37} In 1952, the Truman Administration adopted ‘racial equity formulas’, requiring local housing authorities practice segregation and build separate projects for African Americans proportional to need.\textsuperscript{38} At the same time, the recently formed Public Housing Authority enforced class restrictions, barring so-called ‘undesirables,’ such as single mothers, drug users and those with criminal records, from accessing government-funded affordable housing.\textsuperscript{39} During this period, the United Auto Workers union successfully bargained with the Ford Motor Company on behalf of African American workers, requiring the automaker to make available line positions for African American

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**What is Redlining?**

Redlining is a process by which banks and other institutions refuse to offer mortgages or offer higher lending rates to customers in certain neighborhoods based on their racial and ethnic composition.
laborers, creating a pathway to the middle class.\textsuperscript{40} Unfortunately, due to restrictive covenants and the practice of redlining, many of these same African American autoworkers struggled to attain homeownership.\textsuperscript{41,42,43}

While segregation and discrimination persisted in most U.S. public systems, in 1954 the U.S. Supreme Court ruling in \textit{Brown vs. The Board of Education} provided new hope for equity. In a unanimous ruling, the Court found that segregated schools previously allowed under \textit{Plessy vs. Ferguson} were illegal, reasoning that separate schools were fundamentally unequal, subjecting children to a substandard education based on race.\textsuperscript{44}

**Civil Rights Era**

The Brown decision led to court-ordered desegregation of public schools in the United States and set off a wave of civil unrest, beginning with violent protests led by white southerners opposed to desegregation. This vitriolic response inspired African-American civil rights leaders and sympathetic white activists to join together to raise awareness of pervasive discriminatory practices and policies across the country. Less than one hundred years following the Civil War, the nation was once again in conflict with itself, as states’ rights and equity for people of color pitted citizens against each other.\textsuperscript{45}

In the years that followed, a series of federal policies were enacted to address inequities suffered by African Americans. President John F. Kennedy signed Executive Order 11063 in 1962, titled “Equal Opportunity in Housing,” prohibiting the use of federal funds to support racial discrimination in housing.\textsuperscript{46} This brought an official end to federal housing support to home builders who refused to sell to African Americans. Following the assassinations of President Kennedy and civil rights leader Dr. Rev. Martin Luther King, Jr., the country witnessed the widest expansion of civil rights since Reconstruction. New protections included the Civil Rights Act of 1964,\textsuperscript{47} the Voting Rights Act of 1965,\textsuperscript{48} and the Higher Education Act of 1965.\textsuperscript{49} Additionally, several key U.S. Supreme Court rulings provided protections for defendants in the criminal justice system, including juveniles (\textit{In re Gault, 1967} & \textit{Kent v. United States, 1966}).\textsuperscript{50} However, as protections for civil rights were expanding, a key court ruling also provided the justification for what was to become a controversial practice in racial profiling. “Stop and frisk” was found to be constitutionally protected police practice under the \textit{Terry v. Ohio} ruling in 1968.\textsuperscript{51}

In the same year that President Lyndon Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act, he also signed into law the Law Enforcement Assistance Act, establishing a federal
role in local police operations, court systems and state prisons, marking the beginning of the nation’s War on Crime. This legislation, and the subsequent Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, gave the Department of Justice a larger degree of influence over social policy with regard to crime. President Johnson’s previously declared War on Poverty, which supported a number of social welfare programs, was dismantled as federal funding to cities shifted to ‘law and order.’

**War on Drugs Era**

During the Reagan Administration the federal government directed resources and polices to a War on Drugs, bolstered by the Comprehensive Crime Control Act of 1984, which abolished parole in the federal system and created the United States Sentencing Commission (USSC), increased federal penalties for the cultivation, possession or transfer of marijuana, and reinstated the federal death penalty. The USSC was charged with creating federal sentencing guidelines and making federal criminal penalties more uniform. While the USSC’s sentencing guidelines were established to “provide certainty and fairness in sentencing while avoiding unwarranted disparity among offenders,” oversight was limited to federal sentences. From 1970 to 1983 a number of states adopted mandatory minimum sentencing guidelines and “three strikes” provisions.

Harsh policies and guidelines from this era resulted in significant racial disparities in arrest, conviction and incarceration rates. Analysis indicates African Americans were four times more likely to be arrested for marijuana charges than their white peers. Due to increased drug arrests and increased convictions under harsher state sentencing provisions and federal penalties, by 1991 incarceration rates for African Americans increased nearly 54 percent.

The War on Crime and the subsequent War on Drugs coincided with a drop in industrial employment for African American men, as manufacturing jobs moved from the urban core to the suburbs. Lack of access to gainful employment provided an incentive for many to join the drug trade.

**War on Color Era**

In recent years, the War on Drugs and War on Crime have shifted to what we call a War on Color, targeting immigrants from countries across the Middle East, Africa and Latin America. The roots of these policies can be traced to California’s 1994 ballot initiative, Proposition 187, titled, “Illegal Aliens Ineligible for Public Benefits”. Prop 187 was approved by 59-percent of the state’s voters, making immigrants residing in the state without legal documentation ineligible for public benefits and
services, including health care (except in the case of an emergency) and public education. The measure, known as “Save our State” (SOS), was estimated to save the state nearly $200 million annually in public spending for social and education services. At the time, Prop 187 was viewed as one of the nation’s harshest anti-immigrant measures and was eventually struck down by the U.S. Supreme Court as unconstitutional. Yet Prop 187 inspired several other states to adopt anti-immigrant ballot initiatives, as local demographics began to shift due to America’s increasing immigrant and populations of color.

More recently, the change in the public charge grounds for inadmissibility drastically limits eligibility for immigration into the United States. Public charge has been a part of U.S. immigration law since the late 1800’s—a means of measuring whether the person seeking immigration status will be considered ‘primarily dependent’ on federal, state or local cash assistance for income or will require long-term care at government expense. In 2019, new requirements put forth by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security will classify a person seeking legal admission into the U.S. as a public charge if they use one or more of an expanded list of public benefits for a total of 12 months during a 36-month period—making it much more difficult for people with low and moderate incomes to obtain lawful permanent resident status.

Today’s War on Color seeks to employ rhetoric and tactics from the War on Crime, the War on Drugs and the battle over white supremacy by demonizing communities of color as ‘dangerous others’ and fortifying policies and practices that further divide communities along racial and economic lines. Recent data released from the Federal Bureau of Investigation indicates that violent acts of hate rose to a 16-year high in 2018, including intimidation, assault and homicide (7,120 in total).

“Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me,
I lift my lamp beside the golden door!”

– Emma Lazarus
“Every system is perfectly designed for the result that it gets.”

-W. Edwards Deming
Part 2
Connecting Policy to Community Outcomes: Inequity by Design

How can policies set in place more than 400 years ago inform outcomes we see in community today? In order to fully undo the effects of centuries of systemic racism, we have to understand the synergistic effect of policy across multiple sectors over time. Using data to illustrate the outcomes of public policy helps us better understand the vicious cycles that have been deliberately put in place and are not easily broken.

There are hundreds of different examples to illustrate how policies across three main sectors of our communities—housing, public education and criminal justice/law enforcement—contribute to the accumulation of inequity by race and place. A historical understanding combined with data from your community can be starting points for thoughtful discussions about trauma, equity and resilience. The following sections provide one way to connect history to current data, with the hope that, by using similar methods, you will be better positioned to inform policy and practice change for a more equitable nation.

Connecting Housing Policy and Practice to Community Outcomes

Historically, those who live in areas of concentrated poverty are there not by choice, but rather by design. Evidence points to the cumulative effect of discriminatory practices in housing on communities. The accumulation of discriminatory housing policy and practice is associated with variability in affordability and quality of housing stock—both of which influence characteristics of the community.
Why This Matters

Home ownership is a primary component of generational wealth in families.\textsuperscript{,66,67} African American and Hispanic families have a fraction of the wealth of white families, leaving them more economically insecure. For this reason, in conversations about economic equity, one could use home ownership as a proxy for accumulated wealth of residents in a community as a means to understand how a community can access capital and build wealth as a support for health and wellbeing.\textsuperscript{68}

Connecting Public Education Policy and Practice to Community Outcomes

The accumulation of high levels of neighborhood segregation by race and poverty generally produce highly segregated neighborhood schools.\textsuperscript{69} Neighborhoods of concentrated poverty, while funded equally across a state, do not have equitable access to disposable income that local property taxes may contribute to enhance the quality of education, experience of teachers, diversity of curriculum, technology and enrichment programs or offset shortfalls in district funding.\textsuperscript{70} Therefore, funding formulas for public schools, while applied equally across schools, may not have an equitable impact.

Why This Matters

Under-funded and under-resourced schools consistently under-deliver for the students most in need of the buffer that a quality education can provide.\textsuperscript{71,72,73} This two-tier system of public education limits higher education opportunities for children who attend poorer schools.\textsuperscript{74}

Connecting Criminal Justice Policy and Practice to Community Outcomes

Decades of discriminatory housing policy and practice interact with public-school systems, resulting in disproportionate rates of contact with police, incarceration and justice-involvement that are place-based. A culture of rigid discipline and policing that emphasizes fear, control and zero-tolerance, rather than fairness and community safety, undermines trust in schools and in neighborhoods.\textsuperscript{75}

Racial disparities in incarceration rates have important implications for communities of color, and in particular for children and families. Parental incarceration is one of the most common adverse childhood experiences for children of color in the United States; more than 2.7 million children in the U.S. have an incarcerated
parent and nearly ten million children have experienced parental incarceration at some point in their childhood.\textsuperscript{76,77} That parent is more likely to be a father. For African American families that toll can be especially steep—nearly one in twelve African American men in their thirties are in prison or jail on any given date in America.\textsuperscript{78}

**Why This Matters**

Areas of concentrated poverty are more likely to be heavily policed, both in community and within school walls, increasing opportunities for youth and residents to come into contact with law enforcement officers.\textsuperscript{79,80,81} The stigma associated with a criminal conviction is associated with a number of negative outcomes, including difficulty in maintaining family ties, procurement of funding for education, ability to secure safe, stable and affordable housing, loss of voting rights and poor mental and physical health.\textsuperscript{82,83,84}

Contextual factors play an important role in understanding community outcomes and the interplay between criminal justice, public education and housing policy. Navigating these crucial conversations is necessary to creating a shared understanding of the experience of inequity in your community.

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**Figure 1. Connecting housing policy and practice to community outcomes.**
Figure 2. Connecting policies and practices in public education to community outcomes.

Variability in School Financing
- Revenue Stream (Fed, State)
- Local District Financing
- Capital Investments

Policy & Practice
- Discipline Standards & Enforcement
- Enrichment & Extracurricular Programs
- Health & Behavioral Services/Supports

Community Characteristics
- Educational Attainment
- Parental & Community Engagement

Figure 3. Connecting Policies and Practice in Criminal Justice to Community Outcomes

Enforcement
- Alternatives to Adjudication
- Support for Returning Citizens
- Substance Abuse & Diversion Programs
- Community Policing

Policy & Practice
- Sentencing Mandates
- Zero Tolerance
- Arrests & Incarceration

Community Characteristics
- Justice-Involved Youth & Adults
- Returning Citizens
- Police & Community Relations
- Crime Rates
- Safety

*Fostering Equity: Creating Shared Understanding for Building Community Resilience*
Connecting Housing Policy and Practice to Community Outcomes

**Historic Patterns of Place-Based Inequity Persist Today**

- **Policies and programs subsidized and set in place spatial patterns of segregated housing and communities.**

- **Racial and ethnic exclusion is evident in the patterns of geographic density of poverty and income inequality.**

- **Home ownership is the primary source of intergenerational wealth.**

### U.S. Home Ownership Rates

- **White:** 71%
- **Hispanic:** 45.6%
- **African American:** 41%

Source: American Community Survey

### U.S. Median Net Wealth

- **White:** $171,000
- **Hispanic:** $20,700
- **African American:** $17,600

Source: Federal Reserve

### The Burden of Inequity: Areas of concentrated poverty also carry the greatest burden of chronic disease, infant mortality rates & shortened life expectancy.

### U.S. Poverty Rates

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<th>By race</th>
<th>By geography</th>
<th>Annual Income</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>Less than $25,000: 19.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>$25,000 - 49,999: 13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>$50,000 - 79,999: 11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>$75,000 or more: 7.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>AI/AN</td>
<td>24%</td>
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Source: Pew Research Center

### U.S. Health Disparities by Income

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<tr>
<th>Annual Income</th>
<th>Diabetes</th>
<th>Heart Disease</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than $25,000</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
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<tr>
<td>$25,000 - 49,999</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>$50,000 - 79,999</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>$75,000 or more</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
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Source: America’s Health Rankings
The accumulation of discriminatory housing policy and practice is associated with variability in affordability and quality of housing stock—both of which influence characteristics of the community.

Racial and income segregation result in place-based disparities.

The Burden of Inequity
Lack of prenatal care is associated with a 40% increase in the risk of neonatal death.
Discriminatory housing policy and practice interact with public school systems to produce a vicious cycle of inequitable economic and educational outcomes by neighborhood.

Place-based Inequity

73 percent of children in the U.S. continue to attend a neighborhood school.

Funding formulas for public schools - while applied equally across districts - may not have an equitable impact.

The Burden of Inequity

U.S. High School Graduation Rates

- White: 89%
- African American: 78%
- Hispanic: 80%
- Asian/Pacific Islander: 91%
- Native American: 72%

Source: U.S. Department of Education

Higher Education Attainment Rates

(Bachelors Degree)

- White: 43%
- African American: 21%
- Hispanic: 16%
- Asian/Pacific Islander: 63%
- Native American: 15%

Source: Hechinger Report

- More than 50 percent of children attending the nation’s public schools live below the federal poverty level.
- Children of color are more likely to attend high-poverty urban schools than their white or Asian-Pacific Islander peers.
- Public schools in rural communities serve more than 40 percent of our nation’s public school students but receive only 20 percent of federal education funding.

Source: U.S. Department of Education

- Lower Income Schools
- Lower Educational Attainments
- Higher JJ Involvement

- Higher Income Schools
- Higher Educational Attainments
- Lower JJ Involvement
# Connecting Education Policy to Inequitable Community Outcomes

## Let’s Get Local: Cincinnati, Ohio

### How is local funding associated with education outcomes?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community Characteristics</th>
<th>Cincinnati Public Schools</th>
<th>Princeton School District</th>
<th>Mariemont School District</th>
<th>Indian Hill School District</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median Community Income</td>
<td>$37,547</td>
<td>$56,679</td>
<td>$91,994</td>
<td>$123,207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Families w/ income below Poverty level</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographics</td>
<td>White 50%</td>
<td>White 39.6%</td>
<td>White 91%</td>
<td>White 72.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African American 41%</td>
<td>African American 30.8%</td>
<td>African American 1%</td>
<td>African American 9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hispanic 3%</td>
<td>Hispanic 19.3%</td>
<td>Hispanic 2.7%</td>
<td>Hispanic 2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asian 2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Native American 1.2%</td>
<td>Asian 10.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Policy</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Teacher Salary</td>
<td>$60,998</td>
<td>$70,750</td>
<td>$73,204</td>
<td>$79,884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Spending per pupil</td>
<td>$10,491</td>
<td>$10,603</td>
<td>$12,786</td>
<td>$15,686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Burden of Inequity</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 year Graduation Rate</td>
<td>77.9%</td>
<td>89.1%</td>
<td>95.7%</td>
<td>98.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of Disciplinary Action (per 100 students)</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Ohio Department of Education, U.S. Department of Education, Cleveland Plain Dealer
Connecting Criminal Justice Policy to Community Characteristics & Inequity

**U.S. Population by Race**

Source: U.S. Census Bureau

**U.S. Prison Population by Race**

Source: U.S. Department of Justice

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**Parental Incarceration is an Adverse Childhood Experience**

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**The Burden of Inequity**

- Of incarcerated fathers 40% are African American, 30% white and 20% Latino.
- 20% of African American children who come in contact with child welfare agencies have a recently incarcerated parent.
- Children of incarcerated parents are at higher risk for poor academic outcomes, depression, household economic hardship and housing instability.

*Sources: National Institute of Justice, NRCFCPP*
“The people most likely to experience high rates of violence and heavy police presence in their communities have limited resources, social capital, and political voice.”

Source: The Urban Institute

In Washington, DC, more than 9,000 children (8%) had experience with an incarcerated parent in one year. Kids with incarcerated parents are significantly less likely to live in neighborhoods that are able to be supportive of families.

Source: Annie E. Casey Foundation, DC Department of Corrections, DC Office of Health Equity

### Population by Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010 Census Block Data</th>
<th>Over 18.9</th>
<th>11.8 - 18.9</th>
<th>6.7 - 11.8</th>
<th>Under 6.7</th>
<th>No data or Data Suppressed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 dot = 1 person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Race / NA/Al/Multi-racial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: racialdotmap. demographics.coopercenter.org/

### Poverty Rate Below FPL (%)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOC Intakes by Ward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward 4 - 8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 3 - 0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 1 - 5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 5 - 14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 7 - 24.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 6 - 13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 8 - 29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 2 - 2.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: American Community Survey (ACS) 2014-2018

Source: D.C. Department of Corrections

### Unemployment Rate (%)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heart Disease (%)†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Over 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 - 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 - 5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No data or Data Suppressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: D.C. Department of Corrections

### Diabetes (%)†

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life Expectancy (years)§</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Over 12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.8 - 12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.7 - 9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No data or Data Suppressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: D.C. Department of Corrections

### Heart Disease (%)†

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life Expectancy (years)§</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Over 81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.5 - 81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.8 - 78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No data or Data Suppressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources:
* American Community Survey (ACS) 2014-2018
† U.S. Small-area Life Expectancy Estimates Project (USALEEP) by the CDC
‡ 500 Cities Project by the CDC.
Endnotes


6 Ibid.


8 Ibid.


12 Ibid.


21 Ibid.


23 Ibid.

24 Ibid.

25 Ibid.

27 Ibid.


30 Ibid.


