



Racial Equity: Baseline Conditions Report

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Racial Equity: Baseline Conditions Report Staff Contributors

MODELING & FORECASTING

Ying Zhou, Program Manager II

KiHong Kim, Transportation Modeler III

John Cho, Ph. D, Senior Regional Planner

Sung Ho Ryu, Senior Regional Planner

PLANNING STRATEGY

Courtney Aguirre, Program Manager II

Tom Vo, Senior Regional Planner

Anikka Van Eyl, Junior Planner

Amy Zhou, Junior Planner

EQUITY WORK GROUP MEMBERS

Philip Law, Manager of Mobility Planning & Management

Annie Nam, Manager of Goods Movement & Transportation Finance

Tom Bellino, Senior Regional Planner

Hannah Brunelle, Senior Regional Planner

Joseph Cryer, Associate Regional Planner

Sarah Dominguez, Senior Regional Planner

Priscilla Freduah-Agyemang, Senior Regional Planner

Hannah Keyes, Senior Regional Planner

Dorothy Le Suchkova, Senior Regional Planner

Jaimee Lederman, Senior Regional Planner

Alison Linder, Senior Regional Planner

Julia Lippe-Klein, Program Manager I

Nancy Lo, Associate Regional Planner

Rongsheng Luo, Program Manager II



ABOUT SCAG

SCAG is the nation's largest metropolitan planning organization (MPO), representing six counties, 191 cities and more than 19 million residents. SCAG undertakes a variety of planning and policy initiatives to encourage a more sustainable Southern California now and in the future.

MISSION STATEMENT

To foster innovative regional solutions that improve the lives of Southern Californians through inclusive collaboration, visionary planning, regional advocacy, information sharing, and promoting best practices.

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Introduction

In July 2020, SCAG's Regional Council made a commitment to advancing justice, equity, diversity, and inclusion throughout Southern California. For the region to become healthy, livable, sustainable, and economically resilient, SCAG needs to dramatically improve outcomes for low-income families and people of color. To that end, SCAG's core function, its planning work, must directly address the long-standing systemic and institutional barriers that have fostered inequities in health, wealth, and opportunities. SCAG staff are developing an Early Action Plan to help facilitate the consistent integration of equity into its planning work. The purpose of this report is to highlight past transportation and housing policies and practices that yielded the inequitable conditions that exist today and provide a preliminary baseline assessment of racial equity in Southern California to inform future planning. These inequitable conditions fall into categories aligned with the goals of SCAG's long-range plan, Connect SoCal: economy, healthy/complete communities, mobility, and environment.

Brief History & Background

People of color currently comprise about seventy percent (70%) of the region's population and are expected to make up an even larger share by 2045, when people of color will comprise nearly 80 percent of the population. A range of economic and social impacts such as health outcomes, education, employment, housing conditions, rates of incarceration, and life expectancy, vary vastly in this region based on race, income, and census tract. For example, there is a disproportionate burden of poverty on Black, Indigenous, and people of color compared to their white counterparts: the highest rates of poverty are experienced by Black (21.5%), Indigenous people/Alaska Native (19.4%), and Hispanic (Latino) (19%) communities, compared to about fourteen percent (13.5%) of the white population and about twelve percent (11.5%) of an aggregated Asian population.¹Note: when split into individual communities, certain Asian communities experience a disproportionate burden of poverty.² Institutional and systemic racism experienced by these communities continues to impact their access to more mobile, sustainable, and prosperous futures in Southern California. The history of both the United States of America and California shows how race has played a role in the disparities and inequities that people of color experience today.

HOW TRANSPORTATION & HOUSING POLICIES IN THE 20TH CENTURY EXACERBATED INEQUITY

While the 14th Amendment, ratified in 1868, provided equal protection under the law, and the 15th and 19th Amendment, ratified in 1870 and 1920 respectively, guaranteed citizens the right to vote, people of color, as well as low-income individuals, have not consistently seen the full benefits of these rights. In 1896, the United States Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of "separate but equal" laws in the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, ushering in the Jim Crow Era of racial segregation and disenfranchisement.

During this era, major expansions in transportation infrastructure were encouraged by a stimulus of federal funding in California. In 1911, the newly established California Highway Commission implemented

¹ Larger census groupings conceal income inequalities within categories, depending on a variety of factors such as ethnic origin, experience (e.g., education), immigration status, length of time individuals and their families have lived in the US, and gender. For example, though Asians overall rank as the highest earning racial and ethnic group in the US, it is not a status shared by all Asians: nearly one in four Asians in California are working but struggling with poverty.

² PRRI STAFF. "The Working Lives and Struggles of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders in California." PRRI, 2019. <https://www.prrri.org/research/the-working-lives-and-struggles-of-asian-americans-and-pacific-islanders-in-california/>

federal policy direction toward the creation of the Interstate Highway System, which included the 1921 and 1944 Federal Aid Highway Acts. The Commission determined project locations, and both state and local officials routed new freeways through existing communities of color, displacing thousands of households through eminent domain. Much of this freeway construction was in service of a suburban housing boom that was explicitly segregationist. Racist policies and decisions also influenced the siting of other types of transportation infrastructure, such as commuter railways, and the delivery of transit services.

In 1934, the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) was established to facilitate numerous tasks, including home financing, improving housing standards, making housing and mortgages more affordable, and increasing employment in the home construction industry in the wake of the Great Depression. However, while its core function was to insure home mortgage loans by banks and private lenders, encouraging them to make more loans to prospective home buyers, the FHA refused to insure mortgages in Black neighborhoods, often forcing them to move into urban housing projects, and leaving them unable to build existing wealth that comes in the purchase of a home. This FHA home-valuation system was known as “redlining” because maps created by Home Owners Loan Corp. and the FHA used red to color code neighborhoods where Black Americans lived to indicate these areas were too risky to insure mortgages.³ The FHA also tacitly endorsed the use of restrictive covenants, which were private agreements attached to property deeds to prevent the purchase of homes by Black, Mexican, and Asian Americans and Indigenous people.

Though the FHA announced that it would not insure mortgages with restrictive covenants in 1950, redlining lasted until the mid-1960s. In addition to redlining, people of color still faced many challenges, such as negligent landlords and chronic disinvestment, which intersected with an influx of Black Americans seeking homes as a part of the “Second Great Migration,” when major populations of Black Americans migrated West during World War II.⁴ People of color had few choices on where to live, and neighborhoods where they were allowed became overcrowded and often took on unhealthy living conditions. In Los Angeles County, this included neighborhoods such as South Central and the San Fernando Valley.⁵ Many of these neighborhoods were located next to polluting industrial infrastructure, sped up by burgeoning industrial factories in the defense, garment, and automobile industries. Many of the highway infrastructure projects not only cleared existing neighborhoods, but also contributed to heavy air pollution that has led to ongoing asthma and health conditions in remaining residents.⁶

Even in neighborhoods where people of color found housing, they were threatened by violence and urban renewal policies. The Federal Housing Acts of 1949 and 1954 led to the demolition of neighborhoods inhabited by people of color. The Acts enabled the clearing of blighted areas and destroyed affordable housing units in urban areas. A core example of the impacts of the 1954 Federal Housing Act is the clearance of Chavez Ravine, a self-sufficient Mexican American community that for generations ran their own schools and churches and grew their own food. The City of Los Angeles approved the construction of thousands of housing units in Chavez Ravine (which was deemed blighted), and residents were forced out

³ Terry Gross. “A ‘Forgotten History’ Of How the U.S. Government Segregated America.” NPR, 2017 <https://www.npr.org/2017/05/03/526655831/a-forgotten-history-of-how-the-u-s-government-segregated-america#:~:text=He%20notes%20that%20the%20Federal,were%20mass%2Dproducing%20entire%20subdivisions>

⁴ Kelly Simpson. “The Great Migration: Creating a Black New Identity in Los Angeles.” KCET, 2021. <https://www.kcet.org/history-society/the-great-migration-creating-a-new-black-identity-in-los-angeles>

⁵ Kelly Simpson. “A Southern California Dream Deferred: Racial Covenants in Los Angeles.” KCET, 2012 <https://www.kcet.org/history-society/a-southern-california-dream-deferred-racial-covenants-in-los-angeles>

⁶ N.a. “Between the 110 and the 405: Environmental Injustice in South Los Angeles.” SCOPE, 2017. <https://scopela.org/between-the-110-and-the-405-environmental-injustice-in-south-los-angeles/>

through various means. While residents were told that they would have first choice for homes in the proposed new development, public housing was never built, and the remains of Chavez Ravine instead became the site of Dodgers Stadium.⁷

ADDRESSING PAST POLICIES & PRACTICES

Attempts have been made through various federal and state laws and regulations to identify and rectify the impacts of racially discriminatory policies, including the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VI, Consideration of Environmental Justice, which discloses the benefits and burdens of proposed projects on minority populations and bars discrimination that is intentional and has unjustified disparate impact (policies that are, at face value, neutral, but discriminate against protected groups). More recent examples include Executive Order 12898 (1994), which requires that every federal agency make environmental justice a part of its mission by identifying and addressing effects of all programs, policies and activities on under-represented groups and low-income populations; and Senate Bill 115 (1999) which calls for “the fair treatment of people of all races, cultures and income with respect to development, adoption and implementation of environmental laws, regulations and policies” to be included in the development of General Plans. In addition, recently adopted legislation is helping SCAG work towards improving the availability of housing for all residents. In 2018, the State of California adopted legislation requiring local governments to “affirmatively further fair housing.”⁸ Under state law, to affirmatively further fair housing means “taking meaningful actions, in addition to combatting discrimination, that overcome patterns of segregation and foster inclusive communities free from barriers that restrict access to opportunity based on protected characteristics.”⁹ The new law has strengthened provisions of the State Housing Element law, which requires that general plans of all cities and counties plan for housing for all Californians.

As a regional planning organization, understanding the disparities and inequities resulting from geography and the built environment are central to SCAG’s work to plan for a more racially just, equitable future. Connect SoCal includes an extensive Environmental Justice (EJ) Technical Report with detailed analyses on current conditions and the consequences of the region’s transportation projects on low-income communities and Black, Indigenous, and people of color. Connect SoCal also includes a robust, data-driven Public Health Technical Report which is grounded in the Social Determinants of Health (SDOH), a public health framework which is centered on the built environment and conditions in which we live, work, play and age.

As a government agency focused on planning, SCAG has the opportunity, and in some cases the legal obligation, to analyze and address the inequities that government and the planning profession have created by systemically driving and perpetuating societal differences along racial lines that have resulted in vastly different living and social conditions and access to opportunities. While SCAG considers impacts on low-income families and people of color in our regional growth, transportation, and economic development planning and analysis, SCAG recognizes that more affirmative approaches that seek to counter the effects of historic practices, like those being pursued through state housing law to overcome patterns of segregation and foster inclusive communities, are needed to advance equity and social justice across the region.

⁷ Elina Shatkin. “The Ugly, Violent Clearing of Chavez Ravine Before It Was Home to the Dodgers.” LAist, 2018. https://laist.com/2018/10/17/dodger_stadium_chavez_ravine_battle.php

⁸ AB 686 Summary of Requirements in Housing Element Law, California Department of Housing and Community Development Memorandum to Planning Directors et. al, April 23, 2020; AB 686, Ch. 958 (Santiago) Statutes of 2018.

⁹ California Government Code § 8899.50 (a)(1).

A NOTE ON TERMINOLOGY

Language and terms are intricately connected to equity and representation and are evolving. The names of indicators used in this report are drawn from the terminology used in the data source they are taken from. They do not always represent current best practice, and may in fact be offensive, triggering or erasing to some communities. The list below includes the demographic categories that are used in the following sections regarding the region's existing conditions.

- Black includes the category, Black or African American (not Hispanic or Latino), as defined by the U.S. Census.
- Hispanic (Latino) includes all populations that identify as Hispanic or Latino.
- Native American includes the U.S. Census category, American Indian and Alaskan Native, not Hispanic or Latino.
- Asian/Pacific Islander includes the categories Asian (not Hispanic or Latino) and Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander (not Hispanic or Latino). Select analyses only address the category Asian (not Hispanic or Latino) and will be noted as such.
- Mixed/Other includes the categories Some Other Race (not Hispanic or Latino) and Two or More Races (not Hispanic or Latino).
- White includes the census category white (not Hispanic or Latino).
- The designation "people of color" indicates the percentage of the population that does not identify as non-Hispanic white, inclusive of the following categories: Black, Hispanic (Latino), Asian/Pacific Islander, and Mixed/Other.¹⁰ People of color is both a helpful and unhelpful term: people of color puts anyone besides non-Hispanic white into one group, hiding the unique disparities that differ greatly among various populations. Yet at the same time, the term people of color recognizes the significant disparities that have endured over time as a result of historical discrimination and racism and highlights these inequities against non-white populations. This report uses this term to highlight the stark inequities in the region, while also further breaking down each indicator by race/ethnicity.

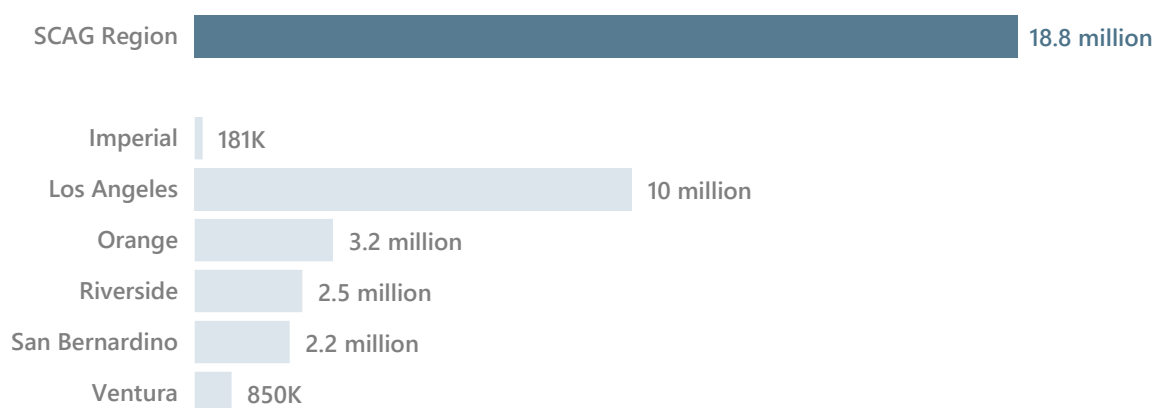
¹⁰ U.S. Census Bureau, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 Decennial Census Summary Files, 2017 National Population Projections; Woods & Poole Economics, Inc., 2019 Complete Economic and Demographic Data Source.

1 | Who Considers Southern California Home?

Southern California is home to roughly 19 million people, about half the entire state’s population. One of the region’s greatest assets is its diversity, not just in its geography, but in its people. People of color currently represent about seventy percent (70%) of the region’s population and by 2045 are expected to grow to nearly eighty percent (80%). In reviewing our current demographics, SCAG relied on the U.S. Census Bureau and American Community Survey 2019 1-year estimate and 5-year estimates.

Total Population

Nearly 19 million residents live in the SCAG region.



Source: 2019 American Community Survey (1-year estimate), U.S. Census Bureau

Race/Ethnicity Distribution

People of color make up over 70% of the region’s population.

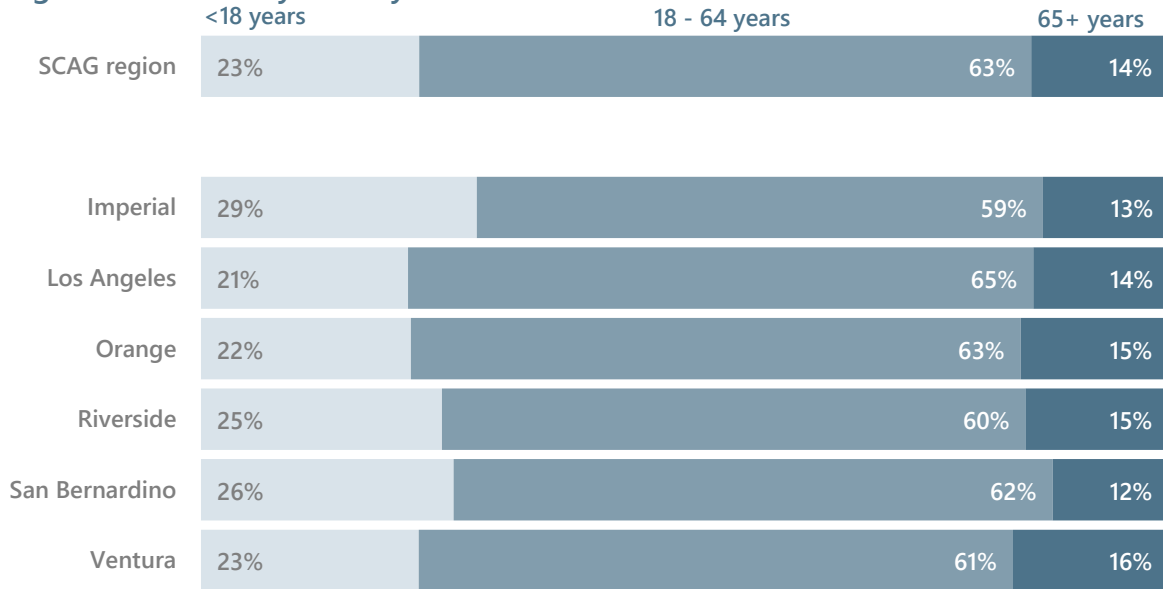
Race/Ethnicity breakdown by county in the region

Race/Ethnicity	Imperial	Los Angeles	Orange	Riverside	San Bernardino	Ventura	SCAG Region
Black	2.2%	7.8%	1.6%	6.1%	7.9%	1.7%	6.2%
Hispanic (Latino)	84.2%	48.5%	34.1%	48.9%	53.3%	42.7%	46.8%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.4%	14.6%	20.6%	6.6%	7.3%	7.4%	13.4%
Native American	0.6%	0.2%	0.2%	0.4%	0.4%	0.2%	0.3%
Mixed/Other	1.0%	2.6%	3.0%	2.7%	2.7%	2.6%	2.7%
White	10.6%	26.2%	40.6%	35.3%	28.5%	45.4%	30.8%
People of color	90.4%	76.3%	62.5%	67.4%	74.3%	57.2%	71.9%

Source: 2019 American Community Survey (1-year estimate), U.S. Census Bureau

Age Distribution

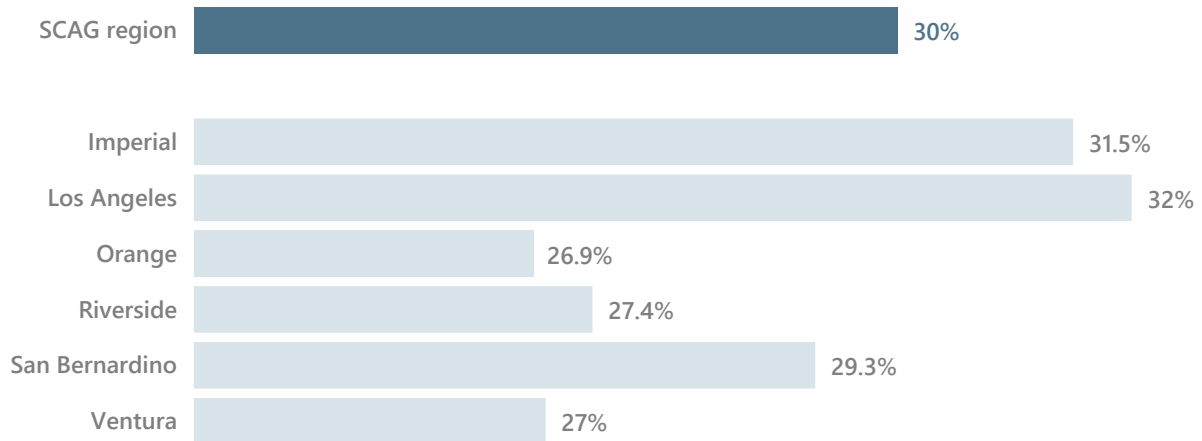
Age Distribution by County



Source: 2019 American Community Survey (1-year estimate), U.S. Census Bureau

Female-Headed Households

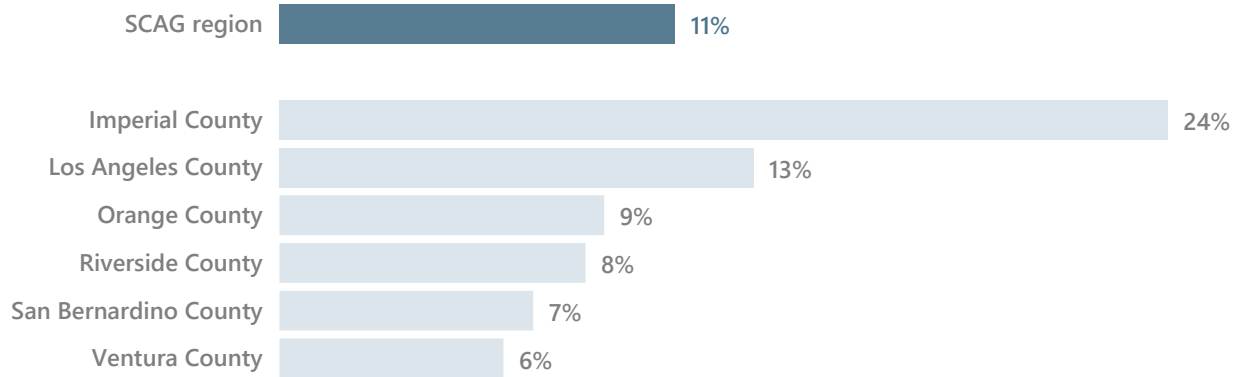
Regionally, 30% of households are female-headed households.



Source: Social Explorer Tables: ACS 2019 (5-Year Estimates), ACS 2019 (5-Year Estimates), Social Explorer; U.S. Census Bureau

Limited English Proficiency

Regionally, 1 in 10 residents are considered to currently have Limited English proficiency.

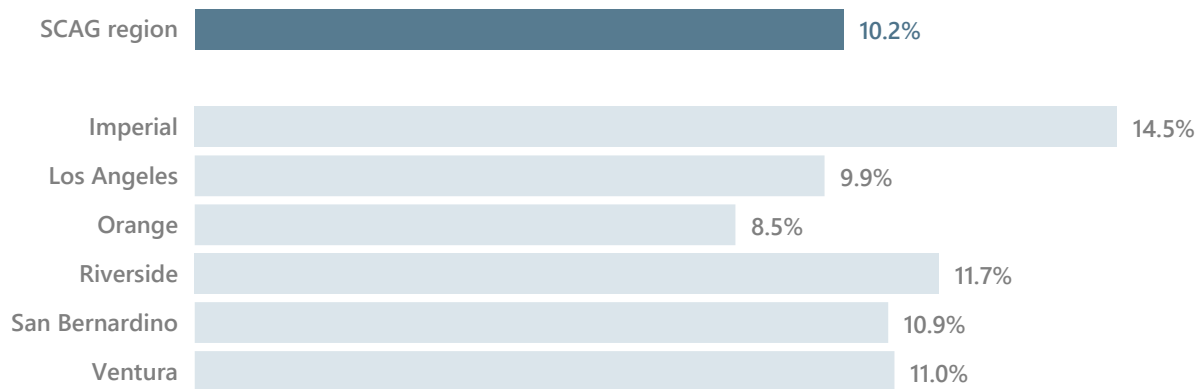


Source: American Community Survey 2015 - 2019 (5-Year Estimates), ACS 2019 (5-Year Estimates), U.S. Census Bureau

People with limited English proficiency are more likely to experience larger disparities as it can be more difficult to access resources, employment, healthcare, and other needs, furthering inequitable outcomes.¹¹

People with Disabilities

1 in 10 residents identify as having one or more disabilities in the region.



Source: American Community Survey 2015 - 2019 (5-Year Estimates), ACS 2019 (5-Year Estimates), U.S. Census Bureau

People with disabilities often face increased systemic barriers to resources and opportunities.¹² These experiences might be compounded when people with disabilities are racialized, and/or live in poverty.¹³ Regionally, nearly one in ten residents identify as having a disability (10.2%).¹⁴

¹¹ Limited English-speaking population is measured for those aged 5 and above.

¹² (Center for Disease Control and Prevention 2020)

¹³ (Artiles 2013)

¹⁴ American Community Survey Tables: 2015 - 2019 (5-Year Estimates), ACS 2019 (5-Year Estimates), U.S. Census Bureau

2 | Economic Vitality

In considering economic equity and the corresponding indicators, SCAG consulted the National Equity Atlas, a detailed report card on American racial and economic equity.¹⁵ The National Equity Atlas defines an equitable community as one where all residents, regardless of their race, nativity, gender, or zip code, are fully able to participate in a community's economic vitality, contribute to its readiness for the future, and connect to its assets and resources. A multitude of structural barriers, such as discrimination in the labor market and predatory financial practices, have prevented people of color from advancing and contributed to racial inequities in employment, income, and wealth. In the sections that follow, economic equity indicators for the region are highlighted, disaggregated by race and ethnicity, and other demographics whenever possible.

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought increased recognition that improving economic health and achieving equity will require new approaches and strategies that address social, economic, and environmental factors that influence the economy. Pre-pandemic, the income gap grew faster in California than anywhere else in the nation. The wealthiest Californians have enjoyed a growing slice of the income pie, while the poorest households' share shrunk.¹⁶ The pandemic has disproportionately impacted the least advantaged and most at-risk SCAG region residents, and low-resourced jurisdictions have seen larger impacts. Lower-income segments of the population at the regional levels have experienced dramatically higher job losses and economic disruptions related to the pandemic, and these were people who were already experiencing significant difficulties pre-pandemic. As the region moves forward to build an inclusive economic recovery strategy, efforts aim to ensure that the region's most disadvantaged populations can realize growth and opportunities.

Economic vitality indicators examine whether all people regardless of race or gender can access high-quality jobs, economic security, rising incomes, and entrepreneurship and homeownership opportunities. They also measure income inequality and job and wage growth in relation to overall economic growth. In the following section, economic vitality indicators are highlighted, providing a regional snapshot, disaggregated by race and ethnicity, county, and other demographics whenever possible.

"True economic recovery demands a more integrated, community-led, place- and people-centered approach—one designed to build upon community strengths and break down the structural inequities."

—Hanna Love, Tunua Thrash-Ntuk, and Jennifer S. Vey¹⁷

A note for interpreting the figures that follow: the designation "people of color" indicates the percentage of the population that does not identify as non-Hispanic white, inclusive of the following categories, Black, Hispanic (Latino), Asian/Pacific Islander, and Mixed/Other.¹⁸

¹⁵ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

¹⁶ California Budget Fiscal Year 2021: <http://www.ebudget.ca.gov/budget/2021-22/#/BudgetDetail> (Newsom January 8, 2021)

¹⁷ Hanna Love, Tunua Thrash-Ntuk, and Jennifer S. Vey, "No more status quo: A community-led action plan for addressing structural inequity during COVID-19 recovery" (August 3, 2020)

¹⁸ U.S. Census Bureau, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 Decennial Census Summary Files, 2017 National Population Projections; Woods & Poole Economics, Inc., 2019 Complete Economic and Demographic Data Source.

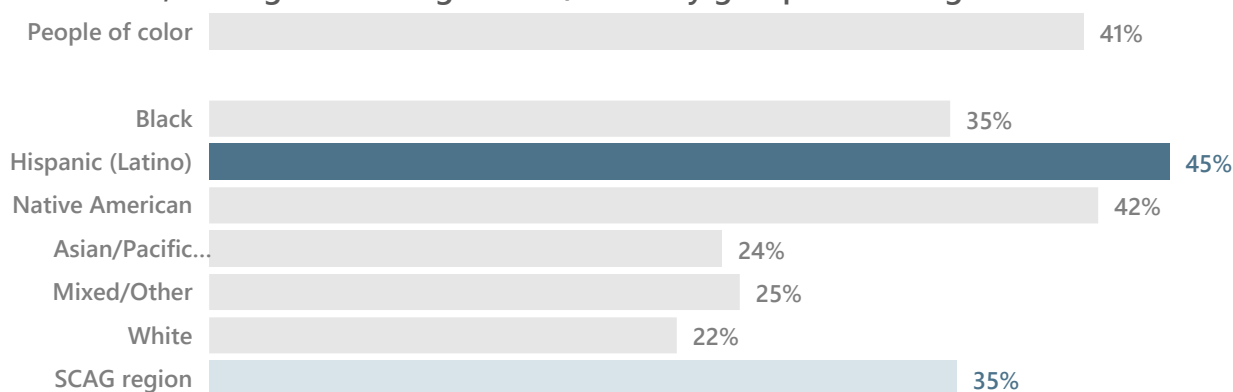
INDICATOR 1

Percent of People Below 200% Poverty by Race/Ethnicity¹⁹

WHO IS MOST LIKELY TO LIVE IN POVERTY?

Lack of sufficient income has multiple negative consequences on health, well-being, and economic success. Children who experience poverty are at greater risk of starting school behind their peers, scoring lower on achievement tests, being unemployed and earning less as adults, and having poor health as adults.²⁰

45% of the Hispanic (Latino) population lived below 200% of the poverty line in 2018, the highest among all race/ethnicity groups in the region.



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- There is a disproportionate burden of poverty on people of color relative to their white counterparts. Thirty-five percent (35%) of people of color live in poverty across the region.²¹
- Overall, the percentage of residents that fall under the two hundred percent (200%) federal poverty level is significantly higher in every county for people of color than for white populations.
- Since 1980, white populations experienced the lowest poverty rates across the region compared to all other racial and ethnic groups.
- Hispanic (Latino) (45%) and Native American (42%) populations experienced poverty at the highest rates compared to all other racial and ethnic groups in the SCAG region in 2018.
- About twenty-five percent (25%) of Asian/Pacific Islanders lie under the two hundred percent (200%) federal poverty level, except for in Ventura County, where Asian/Pacific Islanders experience the lowest poverty rates as compared to other racial and ethnic groups.

¹⁹ The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

²⁰ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

²¹ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

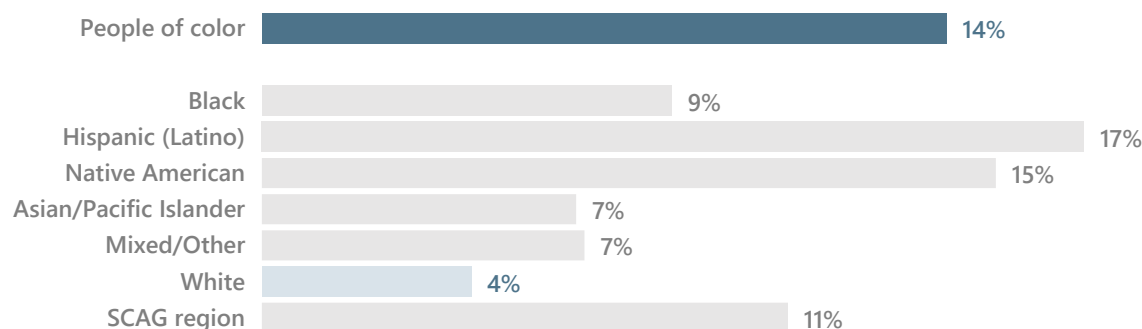
INDICATOR 2

Percent of Working Poor by Race/Ethnicity²²

DO ALL JOBS PAY HOUSEHOLD-SUPPORTING WAGES?

Many full-time jobs do not pay enough to keep workers out of poverty, leaving them struggling to pay their bills and not able to invest in their future. Low-wage workers face the challenge of finding affordable childcare and experience greater family instability and worse health than higher-wage workers.²³

Full-time workers of color were three times more likely than their white counterparts to live in poverty in the SCAG region.



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- Regionwide, people of color (14.4%) were considered working poor three times more than that of the white population (4%) in 2018.²⁴
- The percentage of working poor has increased overall since 1980 from seven percent (7%) of workers to eleven percent (11%) of workers, although Black and Mixed/Other populations experienced slight decreases.
- In 2018, across all race and ethnicity groups, Hispanic (Latino) workers were most likely to be considered working poor with seventeen percent (17%) of full-time workers still living below two hundred percent (200%) federal poverty level. Hispanic (Latino) workers were most likely to be identified as working poor in Los Angeles County (21%), San Bernardino County (19%), and Orange County (18%).
- In San Bernardino County, Native American populations were significantly more likely than any other race or ethnic group to be identified as working poor at twenty-seven percent (27%), more than fifteen percent (15%) higher than the regional average of working poor.²⁵

²² The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

²³ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

²⁴ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

²⁵ Disaggregated data was unavailable for Imperial County (Black, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Mixed/Other), Los Angeles County (Asian/Pacific Islander), Orange County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), Riverside County (Asian/Pacific Islander), San Bernardino County (Asian/Pacific Islander), and Ventura County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander).

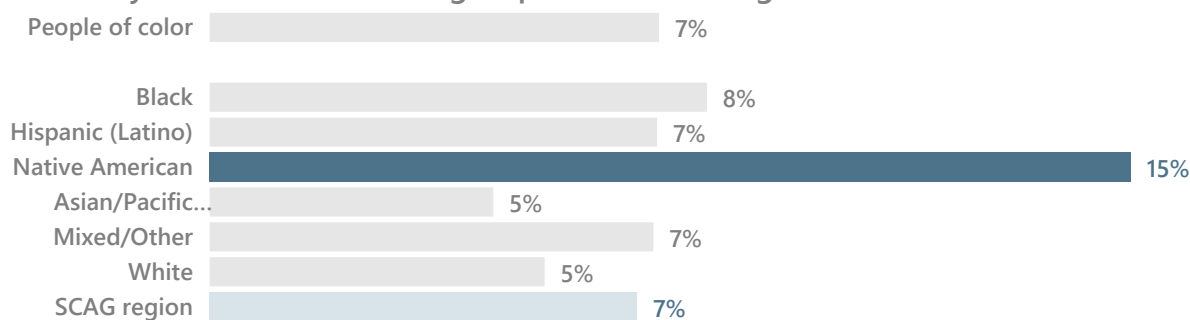
INDICATOR 3

Unemployment Rate by Race/Ethnicity²⁶

CAN ALL RESIDENTS ACCESS EMPLOYMENT?

Employment is the predominant source of income for the vast majority of working-age people, and unemployment is strongly associated with poverty as well as physical and mental illness, drug addiction, and suicide. Full employment would reduce racial inequities and create a stronger economy.²⁷

Native Americans were 2 - 3 times more likely to be unemployed than any other race or ethnic group in the SCAG region in 2018.



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- Between 1980 and 2017, the average unemployment rate for people of color remained stable. While the disparity in unemployment between the white population and people of color had shrunk prior to the pandemic, the unemployment rate for people of color was still thirty-eight percent (38%) higher.²⁸ This disparity shrinking was likely due to the bounce back after the recession. However, this growth was the result of increasing numbers of jobs with lower skills and lower wages.²⁹
- Native Americans expressed a different, more concerning picture, with significantly higher rates of unemployment (15%) than any other race or ethnicity group in the region. Twenty-one percent (21%) of Native Americans experienced unemployment in Riverside County.³⁰
- This differed widely under the COVID-19 pandemic: the region experienced four percent (4.2%) unemployment in February 2020, which rapidly grew to eighteen percent (18.1%) by May 2020 due to significant losses among low-paying jobs, predominantly staffed by people of color.³¹

²⁶ The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

²⁷ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

²⁸ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

²⁹ (Southern California Association of Governments 2020)

³⁰ Disaggregated data was unavailable for Imperial County (Black, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Mixed/Other), Los Angeles County (Asian/Pacific Islander), Orange County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), Riverside County (Asian/Pacific Islander), San Bernardino County (Asian/Pacific Islander), and Ventura County (Asian/Pacific Islander).

³¹ (Southern California Association of Governments 2020)

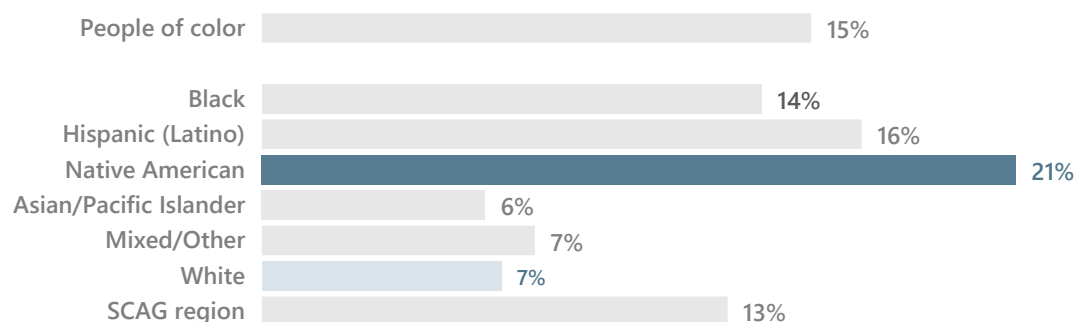
INDICATOR 4

Percent Living in High-Poverty Neighborhoods by Race/Ethnicity³²

ARE RESIDENTS CONNECTED TO OPPORTUNITIES?

A long history of racial segregation in the United States, including in Southern California, led to the concentration of people of color in neighborhoods with concentrated poverty.³³ This concentration of poverty has led to neighborhoods with less access to jobs, services, high-quality education, parks, safe streets, and other essential ingredients of economic and social success. As the National Equity Atlas notes, “Across the nation, people of color—particularly African Americans, Hispanic (Latino)s, and Native Americans—are significantly more likely than their white counterparts to live in high-poverty neighborhoods, even if they themselves are not poor.”³⁴

Native Americans are three times more likely than white residents to live in a high poverty area across the region.



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- Overall, an average of fifteen percent (15%) of the region’s people of color population live in high-poverty areas, two times more likely than white populations in the region.³⁵ When excluding Orange and Ventura Counties, the percentage of people of color living in a high-poverty area increases to an average of twenty percent (20%) of residents, five percent (5%) higher than regionwide.
- Across the region, Native Americans (21%) are the most likely to live in a high-poverty area as compared to other racial/ethnic groups.³⁶
- Asian/Pacific Islander (6%) and white (7%) populations were the least likely to live in a high-poverty area as compared to other racial/ethnic groups.
- Approximately sixteen percent (16%) of Hispanic (Latino) residents, fourteen percent (14%) Black, and seven percent (7%) Mixed/Other populations live in a high-poverty census tract. An average of nearly thirteen percent (13%) of all residents across the region live in a high-poverty area.

³² The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021).

³³ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

³⁴ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

³⁵ U.S. Census Bureau, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year Summary File; Geolytics, Inc., 1990 and 2000 Long Form in 2010 Boundaries.

³⁶ Disaggregated data was unavailable for Asian/Pacific Islander populations for all counties.

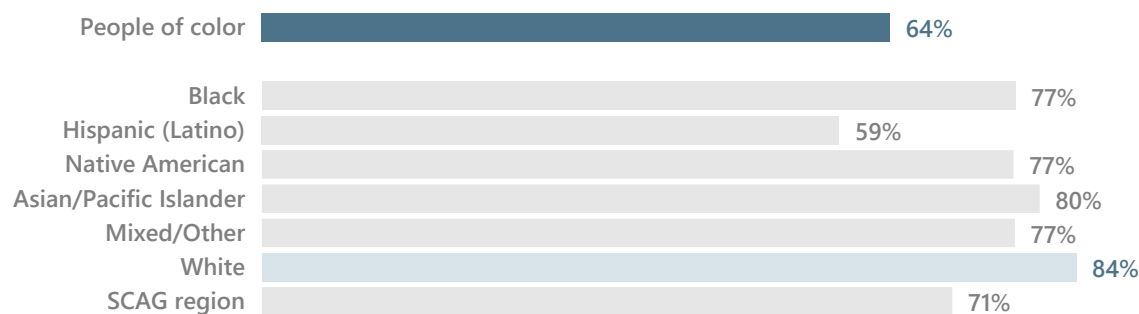
INDICATOR 5

Share of Workers Earning at least \$15/hour by Race/Ethnicity³⁷

CAN ALL WORKERS EARN A LIVING WAGE?

Higher wages improve living standards, provide greater workforce stability, reduce reliance on social safety-net services, and increase the tax base. California's minimum wage is currently \$13 or \$14 per hour, depending on the number of employees.³⁸

In 2018, 64% of workers of color earned an hourly wage of \$15 or more, 20% fewer than that of white workers (84%).



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- The share of full-time workers earning at least \$15 an hour was lower in 2017 than in 1980. Overall, seventy-one percent (71%) of workers in the region earned at least \$15 an hour in 2018, leaving twenty-nine percent (29%) of the region's workers earning less than a minimum livable wage.³⁹
- In 2018, sixty-four percent (64%) of workers of color earned at least \$15 an hour while eighty-four percent (84%) of white workers did.⁴⁰
- Hispanic (Latino) residents were the least likely to earn more than \$15 an hour, with 41% of Hispanic (Latino) workers earning less than the livable wage threshold.
- After white workers, an average of eighty percent (80%) of Asian/Pacific Islander workers earned more than \$15 an hour, seventy-seven percent (77%) of Native American workers, seventy-seven percent (77%) of Black workers, and seventy-seven percent (77%) of Mixed/Other races.
- There are wide wage inequities by race and ethnicity among people with similar education levels: fifty-two percent (52%) of white people who did not graduate high school earn at least \$15/hour, compared with thirty-four percent (34%) of people of color.⁴¹

³⁷ The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

³⁸ (State of California Department of Industrial Relations 2020)

³⁹ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

⁴⁰ Disaggregated data was unavailable for Imperial County (Black, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Mixed/Other), Los Angeles County (Asian/Pacific Islander), Orange County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), Riverside County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), San Bernardino County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), and Ventura County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander).

⁴¹ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

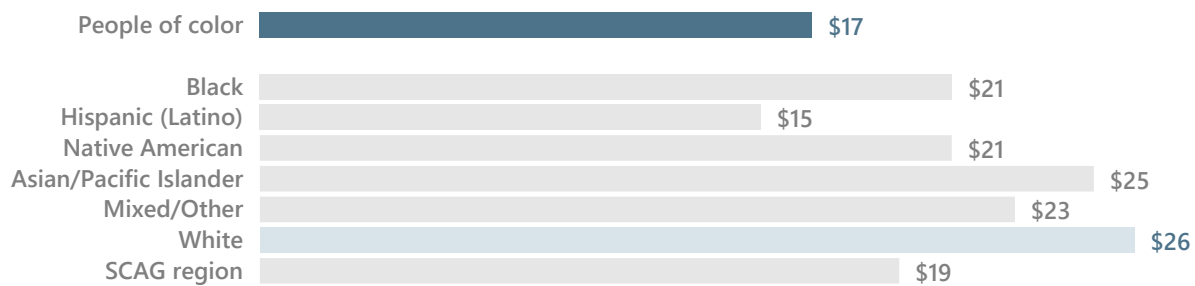
INDICATOR 6

Median Hourly Wage by Race/Ethnicity⁴²

CAN ALL WORKERS EARN A LIVING WAGE?

Low wages and pay gaps by race and gender challenge workers and their communities, while reducing local spending and tax revenue. Rising wages for low-wage workers will boost incomes, resulting in more of the consumer spending that supports business growth and job creation.⁴³

Workers of color make nearly \$10 less per hour (\$17) than their white counterparts (\$26), equating to a nearly \$20,000 deficit in pre-tax revenue.



Source: IPUMS USA, National Equity Atlas

- From 1980 and 2018, the median hourly wage for workers of color decreased from \$18 to \$17 over the four decades.⁴⁴
- Workers of color make nearly \$10 less in median hourly wage than their white counterparts. Assuming a 40-hour workweek, this equates to a nearly \$20,000 deficit of pre-tax annual revenue.⁴⁵
- White people with only a high school diploma have a higher median hourly wage (\$22) than people of color with some college education or an associate degree at \$20 per hour.⁴⁶

⁴² The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

⁴³ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

⁴⁴ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

⁴⁵ Disaggregated data was unavailable for Imperial County (Black, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Mixed/Other), Los Angeles County (Asian/Pacific Islander), Orange County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), Riverside County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander), San Bernardino County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander) and Ventura County (Native American and Asian/Pacific Islander).

⁴⁶ Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org, 1980 5% State Sample, 1990 5% Sample, 2000 5% Sample, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey 5-year samples.

3 | Healthy & Complete Communities

SCAG’s long-range plan, Connect SoCal, charts a path toward a more mobile, sustainable, and prosperous region, and includes the goal of developing more healthy and complete communities. Analysis of regional conditions continues to reinforce that where a person lives matters. A range of economic and social impacts such as health outcomes, education, employment, housing conditions, the likelihood of incarceration, and life expectancy, vary vastly in this region based on race, income, and census tract. With more research establishing a significant link between public health outcomes and built environment characteristics such as housing, Healthy and Complete Communities indicators highlight existing public health and housing conditions in the region and how they vary between different communities, many of which have led to exacerbated outcomes during the COVID-19 pandemic. To understand existing regional housing and public health disparities, SCAG consulted data from the 2018 5-year American Community Survey and the National Equity Atlas.

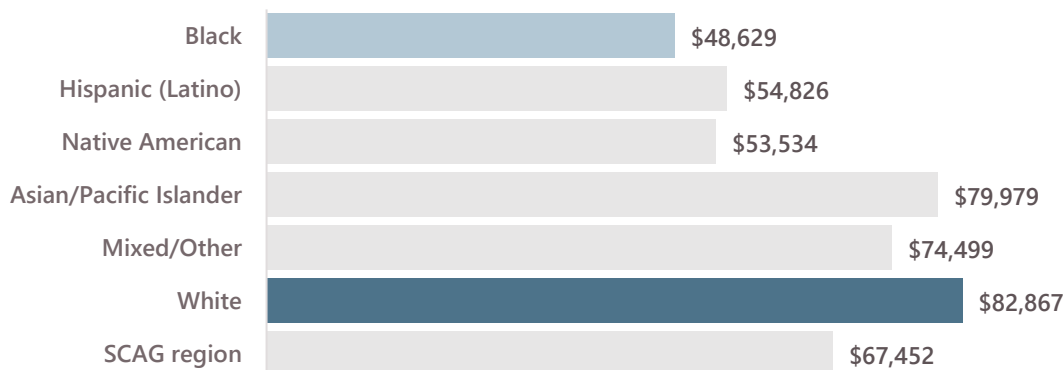
INDICATOR 1

Median Household Income by Race/Ethnicity⁴⁷

HOW ARE HOUSEHOLDS PAYING FOR RENT OR HOUSING?

The amount of median household income deeply affects the proportion of income spent on housing costs which can then divert income from other important obligations and necessities such as healthcare and education. While Asian/Pacific Islander households earn higher income across the region (though not as much as white households), other communities of color such as Black, Hispanic (Latino), and Native American households earn much less. Income levels significantly influence who is able to purchase a home in the region.

Median Household Income for Black households are less than 60% of the Median Household Income for White households.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

⁴⁷ The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

- White household income (\$82,867) was the highest across the region, and nearly \$3,000 more than the nearest community of color (Asian/Pacific Islanders, at \$79,979).
- While Orange County has the highest median household income of all region’s counties, Black, Hispanic (Latino) and Native Americans still earn less than the white population, a difference of \$32,070 for Hispanic (Latino) households, \$23,006 for Native American households, and \$20,828 for Black households.⁴⁸

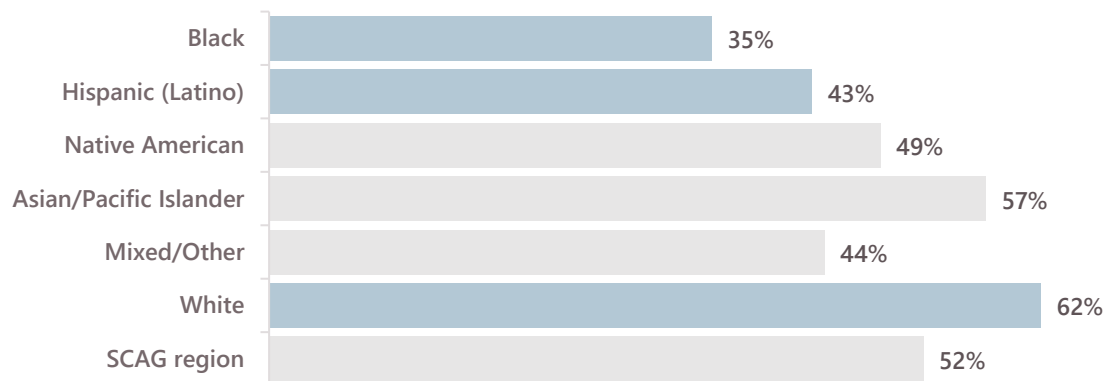
INDICATOR 2

Percent of Owner-Occupied Households by Race/Ethnicity⁴⁹

WHO IS MOST LIKELY TO OWN THEIR HOME?

Homeownership has been identified as a significant contributor to wealth building.⁵⁰ Due to a history of restrictive covenants and discriminatory lending practices, many households of color have been locked out of owning a home and thus an opportunity to maintain and increase wealth between generations. The Great Recession exacerbated many existing inequities and set back communities of color in both homeownership rates and household wealth.⁵¹

62% of white households own their homes, compared to 35% of Black households and 43% of Hispanic (Latino) households.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Overall, in the SCAG region, there are more homeowners than renters. The only county that has more renters than owners is Los Angeles County.⁵²

⁴⁸ 5-Year 2018 American Community Survey, Calculations from Southern California Association of Governments.

⁴⁹ The Federal Poverty Level (FPL) is a measurement of the minimum amount of annual income that is needed for individuals and families to pay for essentials, such as room and board, clothes, and transportation. The FPL takes into account the number of people in a household, their income, and the state in which they live. The percentage of the population living below the indicated federal poverty threshold based on their family income, size, and composition. The federal poverty threshold in 2017 for a family of four with two children was about \$25,000 per year (thus, 200% of the federal poverty threshold was about \$50,000). In California, 200% of the federal poverty line was \$52,400 for a family of four. (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.) (Covered California, Medi-Cal 2021)

⁵⁰ "Equitable Housing and Homeownership." Greenlining Institute, accessed February 1, 2021. <https://greenlining.org/our-work/economic-equity/homeownership/>

⁵¹ N.a. (n.d.) Equitable Housing and Homeownership. Greenlining Institute. <https://greenlining.org/our-work/economic-equity/homeownership/>

⁵² 5-Year 2018 American Community Survey, Calculations from Southern California Association of Governments.

- The percentage of owner-occupied households in the region was fifty-two percent (52%) in 2018. White households continue to lead the proportion of owner-occupied households (62%), compared to thirty-five percent (35%) of Black households and forty-three percent (43.3%) of Hispanic (Latino) households.
- In Los Angeles County, where only forty-six percent (46%) of households are owner-occupied, Black households experience the lowest rates of homeownership at thirty-three percent (33%), followed closely by Hispanic (Latino) households at thirty-eight percent (38%).

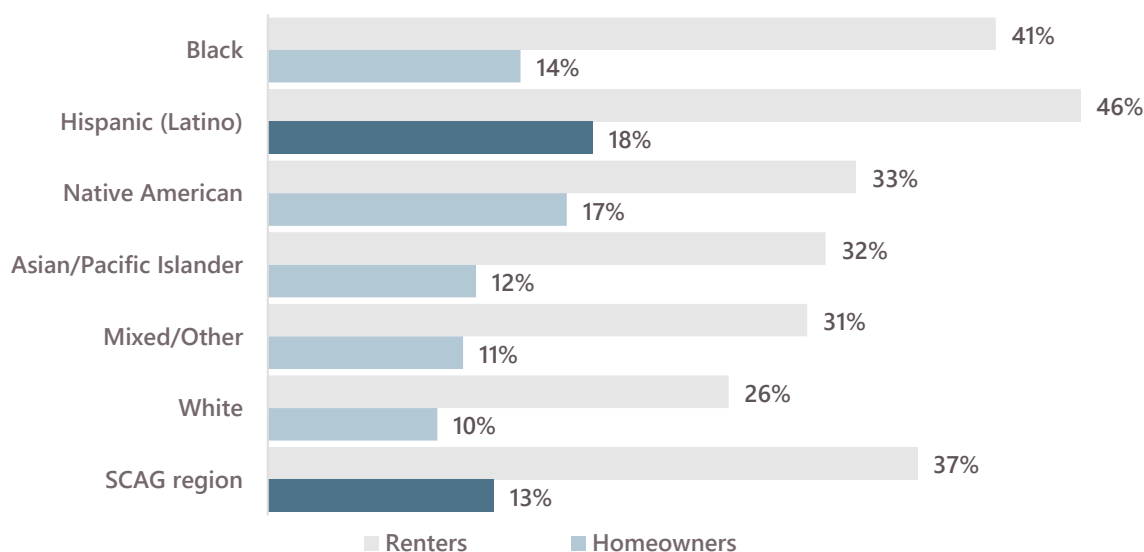
INDICATOR 3

Housing Burden Race/Ethnicity⁵³

WHO IS OVERBURDENED BY HOUSING COSTS?

Low income households that are housing burdened (defined by the U.S. Census Bureau as those spending upwards of thirty percent (30%) of their household income housing- and rent-related costs) often spend less on food and healthcare costs, which can result in increased negative health outcomes. Housing burdened households also tend to choose housing in areas that may be lower cost but have longer commute times to jobs and urban centers with job opportunities. This causes increased expenditures in transportation-related costs, resulting in households having less to spend on healthcare and food related costs.⁵⁴

Hispanic (Latino) households experience the greatest housing burdens, regardless of whether they rent or own their homes.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

⁵³ This indicator denotes the share of households that pay upwards of 30% their household income on housing- and rent-related costs (severely cost-burdened is referred to as more than 50%) at the 200% Federal Poverty Line. Households living below 200% Federal Poverty Line for a four-person household with two children would be \$24,465 in 2018 (U.S. Census Bureau).

⁵⁴ "Plan Performance: Public Health," Southern California Association of Governments, 2020. https://scag.ca.gov/sites/main/files/file-attachments/0903fconnectsocial_public-health.pdf?1606001755

- Across the region, Black, Hispanic (Latino) and Native American households, regardless of whether they own or rent their homes, experience the greatest housing cost burdens: forty-six percent (46%) of renting Hispanic (Latino) households, forty-one percent (41%) of renting Black households, and thirty-three percent (33%) of renting Native American households spend over thirty percent (30%) of their incomes on housing costs compared to twenty-six percent (26%) of renting white households.
- The high burden of housing costs carries over to households that own their homes: forty-six percent (46%) of Hispanic (Latino) home-owning households, forty-one percent (41%) of Black home-owning households, and thirty-three percent (33%) of Native American home-owning households spend over thirty percent (30%) of their incomes on housing compared to ten percent (10%) of white home-owning households.
- In Imperial County, where eighty-four percent (84%) of the population is Hispanic (Latino),⁵⁵ almost fifty percent (50%) of households spend over thirty percent (30%) of their income on housing costs.⁵⁶

INDICATOR 4

Overcrowding by Race/Ethnicity⁵⁷

WHO HAS ENOUGH ROOM AT HOME?

Households that are housing burdened are also at an increased risk of living in poor quality housing, overcrowded housing and living in housing located near high-volume roadways, as these options are typically less expensive. All of these situations increase the risk of negative health outcomes. The cost of housing can lead to choices to live in unsafe or poor-quality housing that can expose residents to toxins or other harmful conditions.⁵⁸

Overcrowded housing can also lead to unsafe living conditions. Housing is considered overcrowded when there is more than one person per room in a given household (PPR).⁵⁹ Severe overcrowding is defined as more than 1.5 PPR in a given household. Overcrowded housing is a dangerous public health issue, as it increases risk of infection from communicable diseases, prevalence of respiratory issues and vulnerability to homelessness.⁶⁰

⁵⁵ ACS 2019, 5-year.

⁵⁶ ACS 2018, 5-year – SCAG calculations.

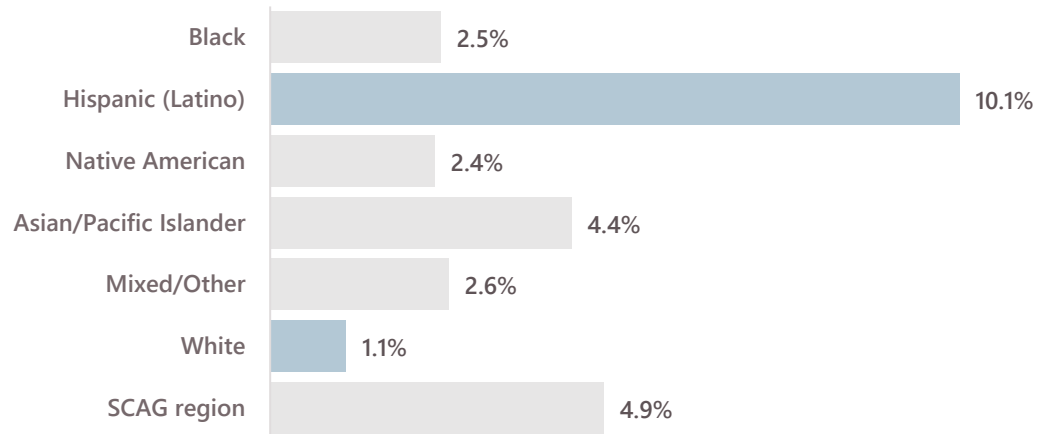
⁵⁷ Described as the likelihood of individuals living in housing units with more than 1.5 people per room. The Census Bureau notes that Persons-per-room is a common measure for overcrowding in housing and 1.5 is a widely accepted threshold above which there are impacts on health and personal safety.

⁵⁸ "Plan Performance: Public Health," Southern California Association of Governments, 2020. https://scag.ca.gov/sites/main/files/file-attachments/0903fconnectsocial_public-health.pdf?1606001755

⁵⁹ N.a. (2017). Office of Health Equity - Healthy Communities Data and Indicators: Percent of household overcrowding. California Department of Public Health. <https://data.chhs.ca.gov/dataset/housing-crowding/resource/9cf0037a-62cd-48fc-8646-18086a1b5e53>

⁶⁰ Ibid.

Hispanic (Latino) individuals have a **10.1% likelihood of being in overcrowded housing**, compared to 1.1% of White individuals.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Across the region, there is a much higher likelihood for Hispanic (Latino) people to be living in overcrowded housing (10%), while white people have only a one percent (1%) likelihood across the region.
- With research finding that the Hispanic (Latino) community in Southern California has been severely impacted by COVID-19 (they are disproportionately represented in positive COVID-19 cases and deaths⁶¹), and that people living in more crowded housing units are more likely to contract the virus,⁶² overcrowded housing is another example of how existing inequities have exacerbated the effects of public health crisis in certain communities.
- Larger counties such as Los Angeles County, which also have higher housing costs, also experience higher rates of overcrowding: six percent (6%) of housing units in Los Angeles County experience overcrowding, compared to about five percent (4.9%) across the region.

INDICATOR 5

Lack of Plumbing Facilities by Race/Ethnicity

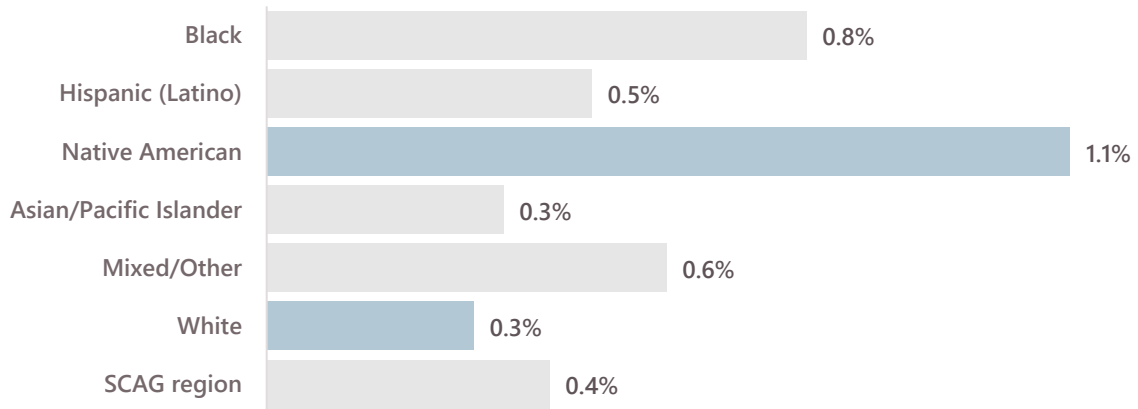
WHO HAS ACCESS TO SAFE SANITATION?

In addition to the affordability of housing, the essential amenities offered by a housing unit matters greatly in being able to maintain sanitation. The availability of plumbing facilities provides insight on who has access to necessary sanitation that helps keep residents safe and healthy. This is a particularly critical issue in light of the pandemic.

⁶¹ Villarreal, Alexandra. (Jan 11, 2021). "Everywhere you look, people are infected": Covid's toll on California Latinos. The Guardian. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2021/jan/11/covid-california-latino-cases-inequality>

⁶² N.a. (April 10, 2020). COVID-19 Cases in New York City, a Neighborhood-Level Analysis. The Stoop: NYU Furman Center Blog. <https://furmancenter.org/thestoop/entry/covid-19-cases-in-new-york-city-a-neighborhood-level-analysis>

1.1% of Native Americans live in housing units without complete plumbing facilities, compared to 0.3% of White individuals.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Across the region, greater proportions of Native Americans and Black people live in housing units without complete facilities (1.1% and 0.7%, respectively), compared to 0.3% of white people.
- Native Americans and Black people living in housing units without complete plumbing facilities in Imperial County was above two percent (2%) (all other groups were below 0.15%).
- In Riverside County, three percent (3%) of Native Americans lived in housing with no complete plumbing (comparatively, every other group was below 0.65%).⁶³

INDICATOR 6

Lack of Complete Kitchen Facilities by Race/Ethnicity⁶⁴

WHO HAS ACCESS TO IMPORTANT KITCHEN FACILITIES?

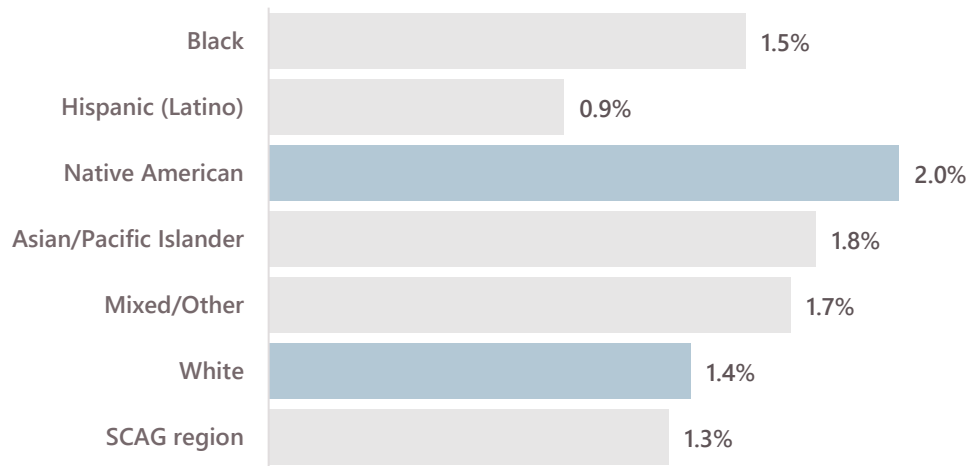
Without kitchen facilities, which include a sink with running water, a stove or range, or a refrigerator, it can become more difficult to prepare nutritious food and maintain sanitation, which may lead to increased food insecurity and poorer health outcomes.⁶⁵

⁶³ ACS 2018, 5-year – SCAG calculations.

⁶⁴ This indicator considers the availability of a sink and a faucet, a stove or range, and a refrigerator in a housing unit.

⁶⁵ N.a. (N.d.) No Kitchens: What does this indicator measure? Public Health Alliance of Southern California. <https://phasocal.org/hdi-indicator-no-kitchen/>

Compared to 1.4% of White individuals living in housing units without kitchen facilities, 2% of Native Americans live in similar types of units.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Across the region, the total proportion of people living in housing units without complete kitchen facilities is about one percent (1.3%). Native Americans, Asian/Pacific Islander and Mixed/Other Races have the highest proportion of individuals who live in housing units without complete kitchen facilities (2%, 1.75%, and 1.7%, respectively).
- The percentage of Black people living in housing units without complete kitchen facilities in Imperial County was higher than the total percentage in the same county (5% compared to 0.85%), in addition to Black people living in Ventura County, compared to white people (3.1% compared to 1.2%).⁶⁶

INDICATOR 7

Lack of High-Speed Internet by Race/Ethnicity

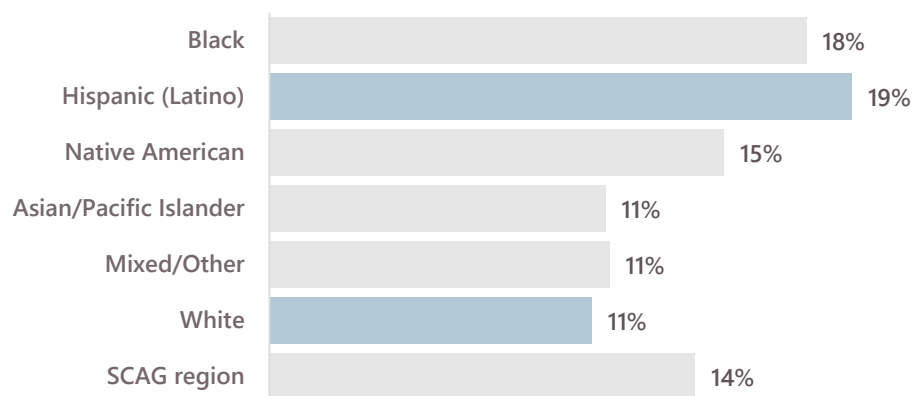
WHO IS MISSING ACCESS TO HIGH-SPEED INTERNET?

High speed internet access, referred to generically as “broadband” and including both wired and wireless technologies, is considered as essential as electricity for daily life during the pandemic. Schooling, jobs, government services, medical care, and grocery shopping and many other consumer purchases, activities that once were performed in-person, have transferred to the internet. This dependence on the internet for core functions is exposing a digital divide. Though internet usage and broadband access are at all-time highs, only seventy-four percent (74%) of households in California have broadband subscriptions at home – the type of internet speed people need to effectively engage in online activities such as school.⁶⁷ Gaps in access to broadband persist for low-income, less educated, rural, Black, and Hispanic (Latino) households. It is clear that after the pandemic, high speed internet will remain crucial for daily life, and households without access will be greatly impacted.

⁶⁶ ACS 2018, 5-year – SCAG calculations.

⁶⁷ Public Policy Institute of California. California’s Digital Divide. <https://www.ppic.org/publication/californias-digital-divide/>

Compared to 11% of White households that do not have high speed internet, 19% of Latino households do not have the same access.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Across the region, Black and Hispanic (Latino) households have the highest rates of no access at eighteen percent (18%) and nineteen percent (19%), respectively.
- Native Americans also experience high levels of no access to high-speed internet. In both Imperial and San Bernardino Counties, Native Americans experience the highest levels of being without high-speed internet access at more than twenty-five percent (27.5% and 25.7% respectively) compared to the percentage of white people who are without internet access (25.9% in Imperial County and 16.4% in San Bernardino County).⁶⁸

INDICATOR 8

Health Insurance

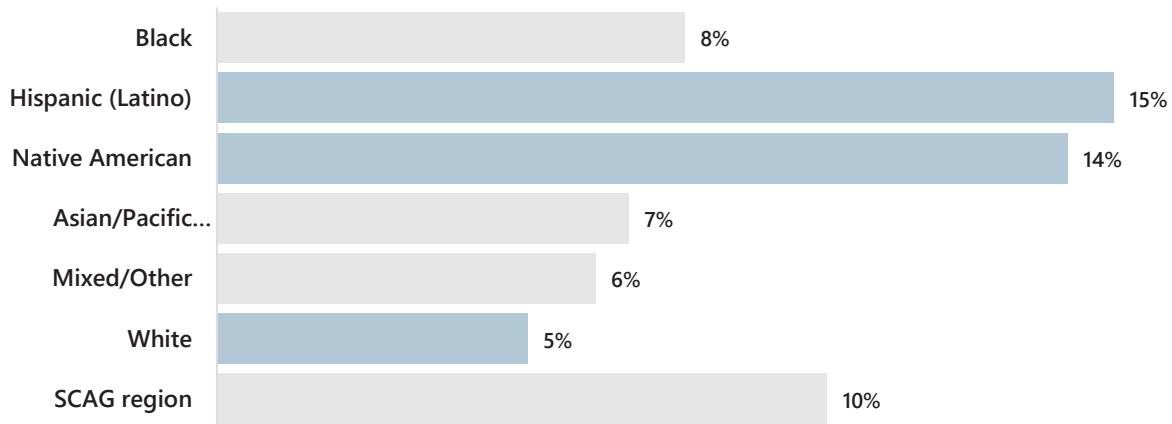
WHO HAS ACCESS TO HEALTH SERVICES?

Insured individuals have better health outcomes as they have more access to health services and a greater variety of health services available to them. Insured individuals are less likely to use emergency services for routine procedures or conditions. Without access to primary care services, uninsured individuals are likely to utilize more emergency services for more routine procedures, and the overutilization of emergency services can lead to an increase in overall health care spending.⁶⁹

⁶⁸ ACS 2018, 5-year – SCAG calculations.

⁶⁹ “Plan Performance: Public Health,” Southern California Association of Governments, 2020. https://scag.ca.gov/sites/main/files/file-attachments/0903fconnectsocial_public-health.pdf?1606001755

Across the region, 15% of Hispanic (Latino) population and 14% of the Native American population do not have health insurance, compared to 5% of the white population.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Almost a quarter (25%) of Native Americans in Riverside County do not have health insurance coverage—the highest percentage of any group, in any county.⁷⁰
- Los Angeles County and San Bernardino County experience the highest rates of missing health insurance coverage at ten percent each (10%).⁷¹
- The Hispanic (Latino) population is the most uninsured in four of the region’s six counties (Los Angeles, Orange, San Bernardino, and Ventura Counties), yet continue to work essential jobs with high COVID-19 exposure rates⁷² and continue to be disproportionately represented in the state’s COVID-19 positive cases and deaths.⁷³

INDICATOR 9

Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) Reciprocity⁷⁴

WHO IS AT RISK OF EXPERIENCING FOOD INSECURITY?

The Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) provides nutrition benefits to supplement the food budget of low-income families so they can purchase healthy food. Eligibility is tied to the federal poverty level.⁷⁵ In California, food insecurity is exacerbated by COVID-19: more than one in five Hispanic (Latino) and Black households with children are reporting that they are sometimes or often do not have enough to eat.⁷⁶

⁷⁰ ACS 2018, 5-year – SCAG calculations.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² Hayes-Bautista, D. E. and Hsu, P. (April 24, 2020). Uninsured Working Latinos and COVID-19: Essential Businesses at Risk. UCLA Health Center for the Study of Latino Health and Culture. <https://www.uclahealth.org/ceslac/workfiles/Research/Uninsured-Working-Latinos-andCOVID19-Apr-23.pdf>

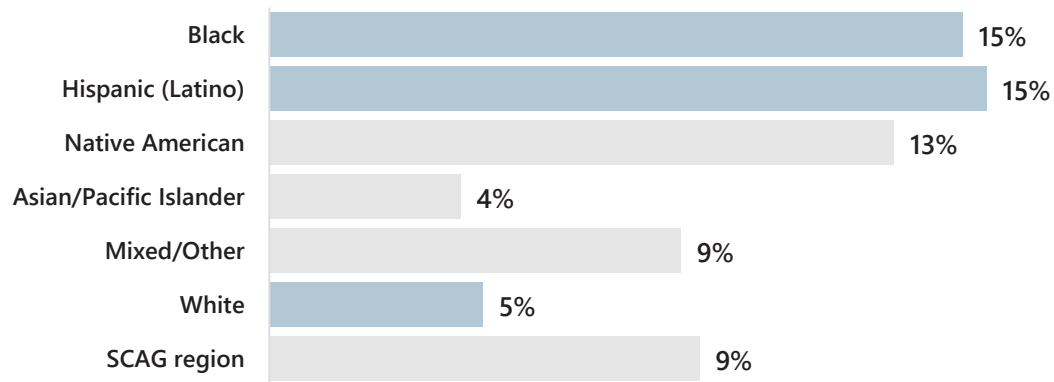
⁷³ Villarreal, Alexandra. (Jan 11, 2021). “Everywhere you look, people are infected”: Covid’s toll on California Latinos. The Guardian. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2021/jan/11/covid-california-latino-cases-inequality>

⁷⁴ Refers to percent of individuals who live in households in which at least one household member received SNAP.

⁷⁵ N.a. (n.d.) SNAP Benefits Recipients. Census Bureau. <https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/saipe/guidance/model-input-data/snap.html>

⁷⁶ Ramos-Yamamoto, Adriana. (September 2020). Not Enough to Eat: California Black and Latinx Children Need Policymakers to Act. California Budget & Policy Center. <https://calbudgetcenter.org/resources/snap-calfresh-california-black-and-latinx-children-need-policy-makers-to-act/>

While 5% of the white population received SNAP benefits, 15% of Hispanic (Latino) and Black populations across the region received SNAP benefits.



Source: 2018 5-Year American Community Survey

- Black, Hispanic (Latino) and Native American households have higher rates of receiving SNAP, at fifteen percent (15%), fifteen percent (15%) and thirteen percent (13%), respectively, across the region.
- In Imperial County, more than a quarter of Black, Hispanic (Latino), and Native American persons live in a household where one member is receiving SNAP benefits. Over thirty percent (30%) of Mixed/Other individuals in Imperial County also live in households where at least one household member received SNAP.

INDICATOR 10

Life Expectancy at Childbirth

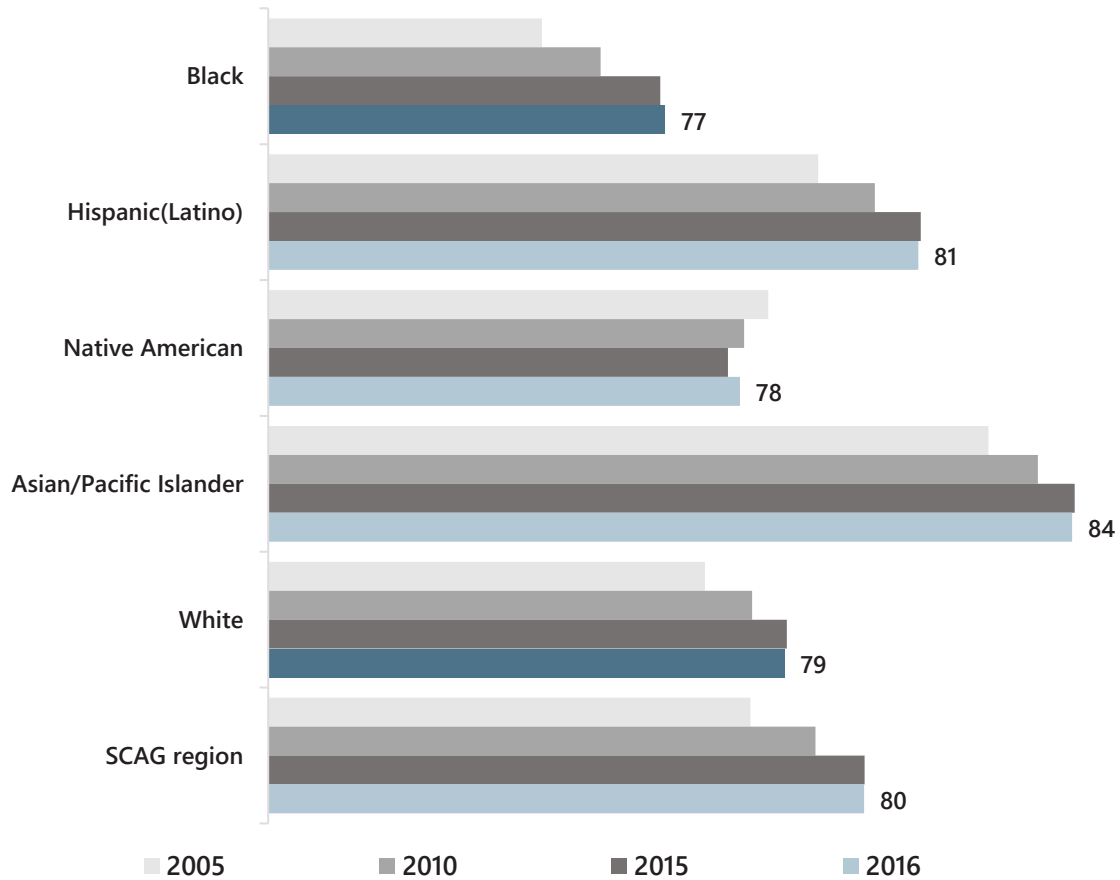
WHO IS LIKELY TO LIVE A LONGER LIFE?

Life expectancy is one indicator of how health outcomes can vary between different communities of people. While the gap between the life expectancies of Black, Hispanic (Latino), and Native Americans generally narrowed over the years recorded, COVID-19 has greatly disrupted these gains⁷⁷ as Black, Hispanic (Latino), and Native Americans across the country were approximately three times more likely to die of COVID-19 than white people (as of December 2020).⁷⁸

⁷⁷ Yong, Ed. (December 29, 2020). Where Year Two of the Pandemic Will Take Us. The Atlantic. <https://www.theatlantic.com/health/archive/2020/12/pandemic-year-two/617528/>

⁷⁸ Ibid.

In 2015, an average white person had a life expectancy of 79, compared to the life expectancy for a Black person of 77.



Source: National Equity Atlas

- In 2016, white individuals had an average life expectancy of 79 across the region, compared to Asian/Pacific Islanders, who had an average life expectancy of 84—the highest across the region.
- Native Americans across the region experienced consistent decreases in the average life expectancy, from 78.7 in 2005, to 78.2 in 2010, and 78.0 in 2015.
- While there were increases in life expectancy for both Black and Hispanic (Latino) individuals in the region (with the biggest increase being from 2010 to 2015 for Black individuals), COVID-19 has depressed previous increases.⁷⁹

⁷⁹ February 2021: Vital Statistics Rapid Release: <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/vsrr/VSRR10-508.pdf>

4 | Mobility

It is widely understood that transportation and land use decisions determine access to opportunities and have far-reaching effects on equity and social justice.⁸⁰ Transportation links people to places, allowing them to move between home, work, play and community services. A community's land use pattern can determine the distribution of these activities and destinations, which when combined with transportation options, impacts the ability of a household to meet their daily needs. Historically, patterns such as racial segregation, gentrification, and displacement, have limited communities of color's accessibility to essential services and overall mobility.⁸¹ Mobility indicators measure who can access job opportunities, transportation, parks, and more.⁸² To understand existing regional mobility disparities, SCAG analyzed data from the National Equity Atlas, Transportation Injury Mapping System (TIMS), Statewide Integrated Traffic Records System (SWITRS), U.S. Census American Community Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, and the SCAG Regional Travel Model, Socioeconomic Growth Forecast and Regional Household Travel Survey.

INDICATOR 1

Access to Employment⁸³

DO ALL RESIDENTS HAVE ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT?

Accessibility to various destinations, in particular employment opportunities, is foundational for social and economic interactions to meet basic needs. As an indicator, accessibility is measured by the spatial distribution of potential destinations, the ease of reaching each destination, and the magnitude, quality, and character of activities at potential destination sites.⁸⁴ The number of destination choices that people have is equally crucial: the more destinations and the more varied the destinations, the higher the level of accessibility.⁸⁵ While not included in the below data on accessibility, travel cost is also an important element of accessibility. This methodology also does not differentiate between high versus low wage employment; individuals are more likely to commute farther for higher wage jobs.⁸⁶

⁸⁰ (Wilson, Hutson and Mujahid 2008)

⁸¹ (Trounstine 2020)

⁸² PolicyLink/USC Equity Research Institute, National Equity Atlas, www.nationalequityatlas.org.

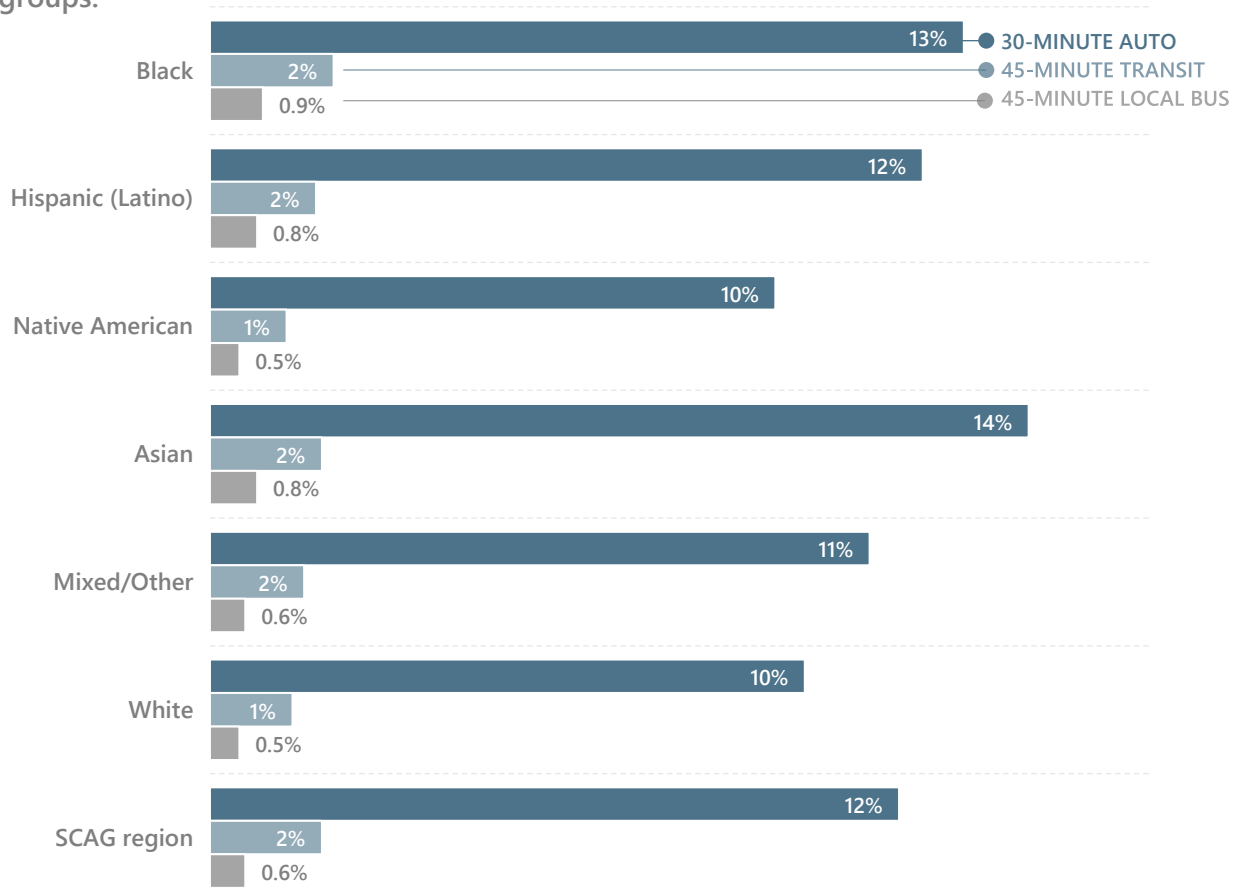
⁸³ Accessibility to employment and shopping measured the share of regional destinations that are reachable between work and home or between retail stores and home within 30 minutes of travel by automobile, and 45 minutes of travel by transit during the evening peak period (5pm to 7pm). Travel time by transit took into account factors incurred by riders that impact total travel time, such as the accumulation of initial wait time, transfer wait time, access walk time, egress walk time, transfer walk time, and in-vehicle time. In addition, accessibility is measured for all transit (bus and rail included) and exclusively for bus service. Accessibility is measured for all transit (bus and rail included) and exclusively for bus service.

⁸⁴ (PolicyLink, USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

⁸⁵ Measured as the percent of regional employment accessible for each demographic group.

⁸⁶ (Kneebone and Holmes 2015)

Native Americans can reach the lowest percent of employment in the region via all transportation modes as compared to all other racial/ethnic groups.



Source: SCAG Regional Travel Model and Socioeconomic Growth Forecast

- Across the region, Native Americans have the lowest accessibility to employment⁸⁷ in the region compared to other racial/ethnic groups by car, with less than ten percent (9.6%) of employment within reach. Within a 45-minute transit commute, less than one percent (1%) of employment is accessible within the region for Native Americans, and by local bus, only 0.5% of employment in the region is accessible.
- Residents face the least accessibility to jobs in the region via automobile in Imperial County (0.6% of all employment), followed by Ventura County (3.3%), and Riverside County (3.7%).
- Imperial County has the lowest accessibility to jobs via transit (0.0%). However, regionally, all employment within a 45-minute commute by transit is marginal, with less than two percent (1.7%) of all employment within reach for any demographic group.
- Regionally, Asian/Pacific Islanders have the greatest accessibility to employment, accessing fourteen percent (14%) of all employment sites via a 30-minute drive.
- Orange County provides the greatest employment accessibility within a thirty-minute (30-minute) drive to the largest number of jobs in the region. Overall, nearly seventeen percent (16.7%) of the regional share of all employment can be reached.

⁸⁷ Measured as the percent of regional employment accessible for each demographic group.

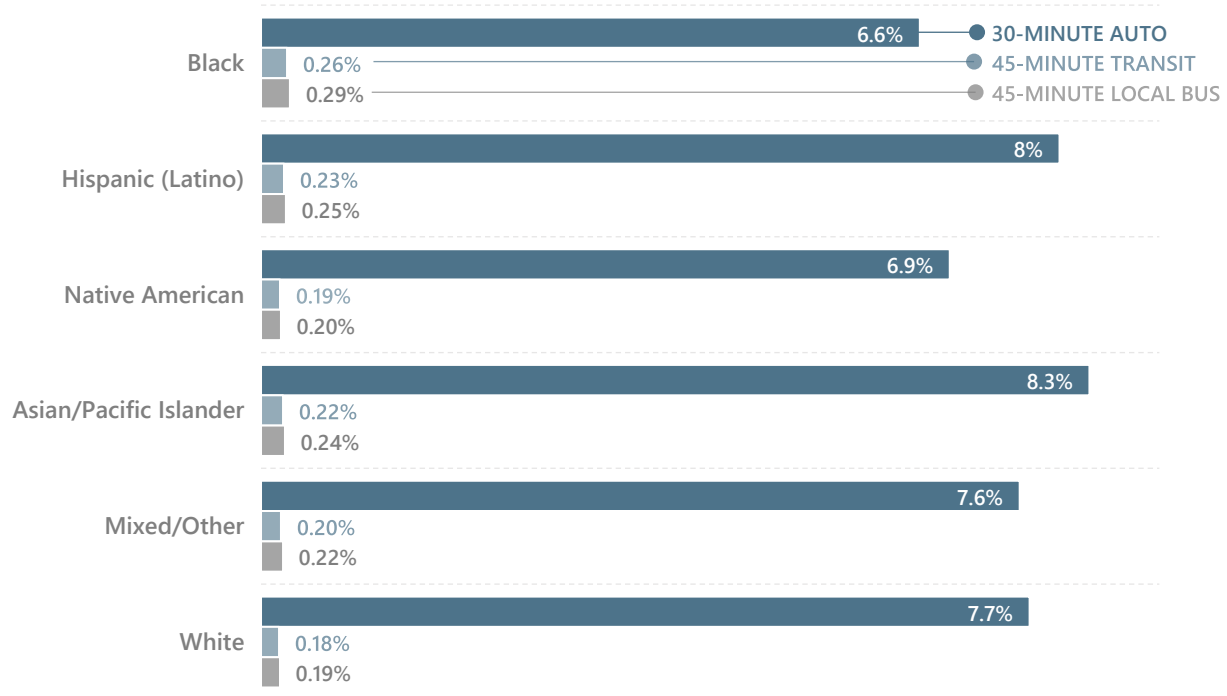
INDICATOR 2

Access to Open Space & Parks⁸⁸

DO ALL RESIDENTS HAVE ACCESS TO OPEN SPACE AND PARKS?

Local parks and other natural lands are important amenities for residents' quality of life. Residents who live near parks have easier access to recreation and other outdoor activities (e.g. walking, biking, hiking, etc.), providing numerous physical, mental, and social benefits.⁸⁹ The region is diverse in its open space resources and offers a wide variety of public parks as well as national parks, state parks, and numerous county parks. Not all parks are created equal, however, and many neighborhoods do not have access to a variety of public resources.⁹⁰ For instance, some neighborhoods have more natural lands, some parks are better maintained, some are built so that those with disabilities can enjoy them, and some parks are safer. In addition, there is a greater need for urban green spaces and trees to cool and offset warming temperatures from the impacts of climate change which are known to disproportionately impact communities of color and low-income populations.

Black residents can access the least percentage of local park acreage in the region (6.6%) within a 30-minute drive, as compared to other racial/ethnic groups.



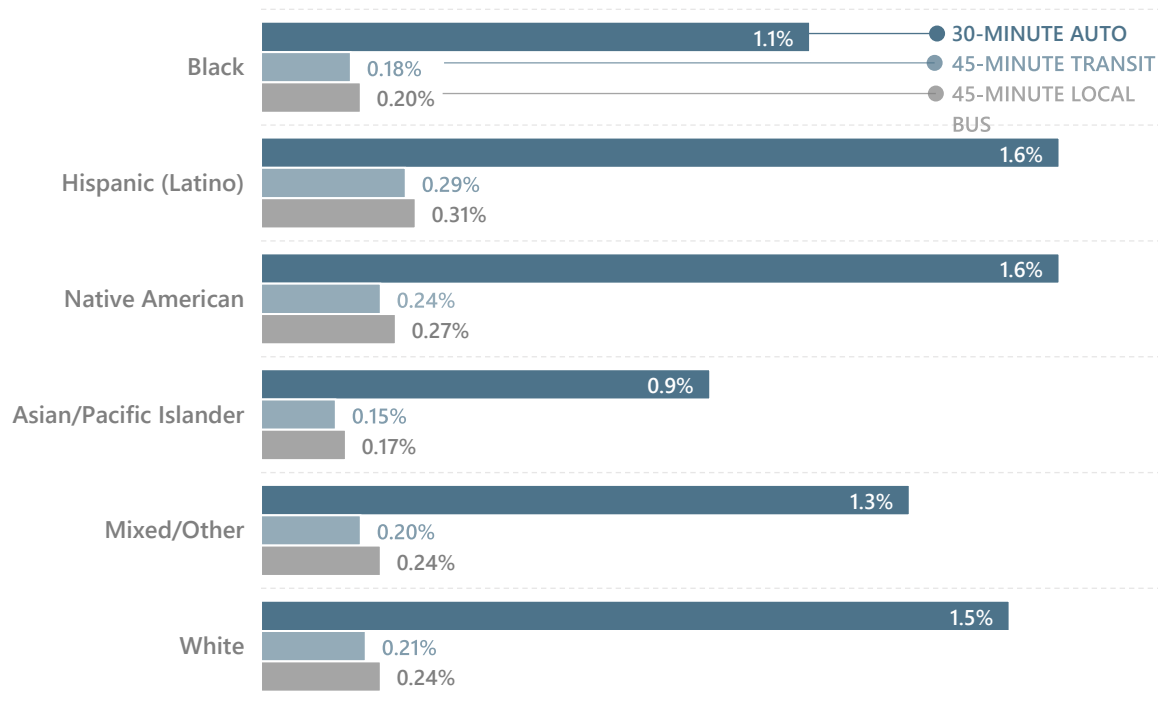
Source: SCAG Regional Travel Model and Socioeconomic Growth Forecast

⁸⁸ Accessibility to parks is defined as the percentage of park acreage that may be reached within 30 minutes of travel time by automobile or 45 minutes by transit.

⁸⁹ (Gies 2006)

⁹⁰ (Grinspan, et al. 2020)

Asian/Pacific Islanders can access the least percentage of other natural lands in the region (0.9%) within a 30-minute drive, as compared to other racial/ethnic groups.



Source: SCAG Regional Travel Model and Socioeconomic Growth Forecast

- On average, Black residents have the least access to local parks via a 30-minute drive, with less than seven percent (6.6%) of local parks accessible to Black residents as compared to the regional average for all racial/ethnic groups of the share of the region’s local park acreage accessible to residents (7.5%).
- Less than one percent (0.9%) of other natural lands are accessible to Asian/Pacific Islanders within a 30-minute drive, the lowest of any other racial/ethnic group. However, Asian/Pacific Islanders have the highest access to local parks by car, with over eight percent (8.3%) of the region’s local park acreage accessible, more than any other racial/ethnic group.
- All demographic groups have limited access to local parks and other natural lands via public transportation rather than via automobile. When analyzing only natural lands, there is very limited access for all groups to national and state parks via transit. Overall, transit and local bus provide very limited access to local parks and other natural lands. Households of color disproportionately do not own their own vehicle, resulting in even more reduced access to local parks and natural lands.

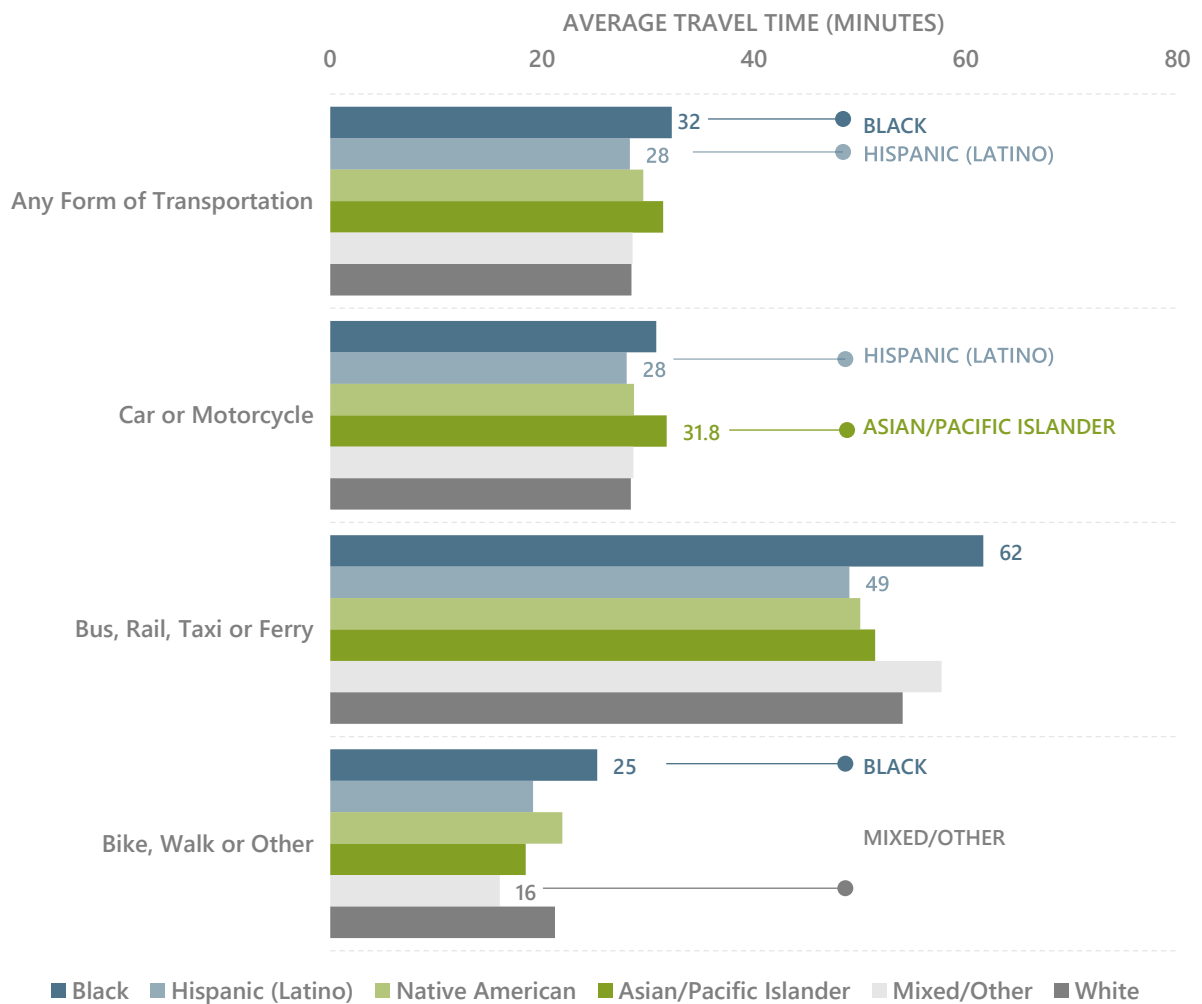
INDICATOR 3

Average Travel Time to Work

DO WORKERS HAVE SHORT COMMUTES TO THEIR JOBS?

Long commutes are linked with worse physical and mental health, including higher rates of obesity, stress, and depression.⁹¹ Employers also suffer from high turnover and employee dissatisfaction, and the public is affected by more air pollution, congestion, and climate change.

Average Travel Time to Work in Minutes by Race/Ethnicity



Source: National Equity Atlas, American Community Survey PUMS

- Across the region, Black residents experience the longest commutes to work via bus, rail, taxi, or ferry, at over one hour (61.7 minutes) as compared to all other racial/ethnic groups. Black households are also the least likely to own their own vehicle (12.7%). When biking, walking, or using another mode of transportation, Black residents commute an average of twenty-five (25.2) minutes. Overall, Black residents travel over half an hour (32.2 minutes) to work across any form of transportation.

⁹¹ (Public Health Alliance of Southern California n.d.)

- On average, Hispanic (Latino) residents tend to have shorter commutes than other racial/ethnic groups, by car or motorcycle (28 minutes), bus, rail, taxi, or ferry (49 minutes), and overall, any form of transportation (28 minutes).

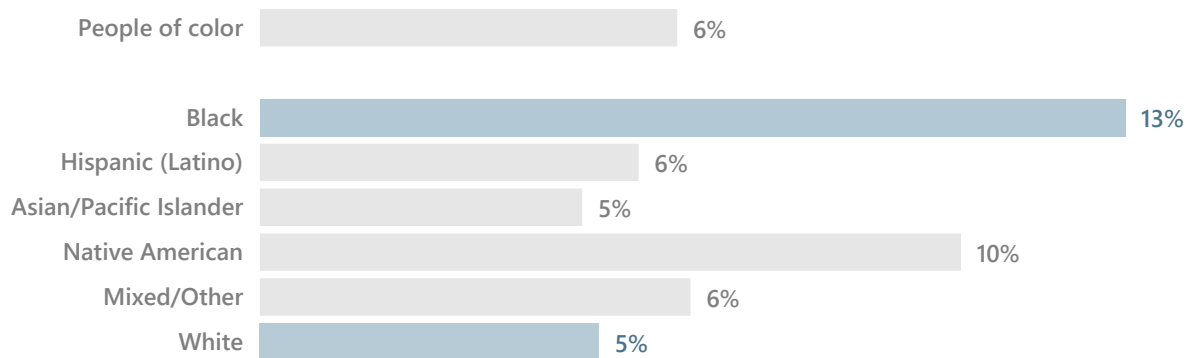
INDICATOR 4

Percent of Households Without a Vehicle

DO ALL HOUSEHOLDS HAVE RELIABLE TRANSPORTATION?

Everyone needs reliable transportation access and in most American communities, due to land use configuration, that means a car.⁹² Reliable and affordable transportation is critical for meeting daily needs and accessing educational and employment opportunities located throughout the region. Much of the region’s current built environment is primarily oriented towards the car. Throughout the region, the share of households without a vehicle has gone down substantially since 2000, from ten percent (10.1%) to seven percent (7.2%).⁹³ A private vehicle should not be a requirement for full participation in social, civic, and economic life, as it is unaffordable and burdensome for many people. To address this significant issue, the built environment needs to become more supportive of non-car trips and more non-car forms of transportation need to become more reliable.

Regionally, 1 in 8 Black residents do not own a car (12.7%), the highest of any other race/ethnicity groups.



Source: National Equity Atlas, American Community Survey PUMS

- One in eight Black households (12.7%) do not own a vehicle, the highest rate of any demographic group. Additionally, ten percent (10%) of Native Americans do not own a vehicle.
- Overall, six percent (6.1%) of people of color across the region do not own a vehicle.
- White and Asian/Pacific Islander households have the highest rate of vehicle ownership with just five percent of white households (5.0%) and less than five percent (4.7%) of Asian/Pacific Islander households who do not own a vehicle.

⁹² PolicyLink/USC Equity Research Institute, National Equity Atlas, www.nationalequityatlas.org.

⁹³ ACS PUMS

INDICATOR 5

Share of Transportation System Usage

WHO USES DIFFERENT TYPES OF TRANSPORTATION MODES?

Overall, people of color are more likely to use transit and active transportation modes to reach destinations than white residents.⁹⁴ Communities of color and low-income households have been shown to have higher rates of walking and bicycling, and also experience higher rates of fatalities and collisions.⁹⁵ This indicator breaks down the usage of various transportation modes by race/ethnicity relative to each population’s share of all travel.

Share of Transportation System Usage

Race/Ethnicity breakdown across the region

	Auto Mode	Bus	Commuter Rail	Urban Rail	Non-Motorized	Others	Total Usage
Black	6.9%	8.7%	6.7%	8.0%	7.5%	5.7%	7.0%
Hispanic (Latino)	36.2%	41.3%	34.7%	39.4%	37.5%	29.6%	36.4%
Native American	0.3%	0.4%	0.3%	0.4%	0.4%	0.3%	0.3%
Asian/Pacific Islander	15.1%	13.1%	15.7%	13.9%	14.6%	17.5%	15.1%
Mixed/Other	2.5%	2.4%	2.5%	2.4%	2.5%	2.6%	2.5%
White	38.9%	34.1%	40.1%	35.9%	37.6%	44.3%	38.8%

Source: 2012 Household Travel Survey, with 2016 Supplement. Processed by SCAG Modeling staff

- By race/ethnicity, Hispanics (Latinos) disproportionately use more bus and rail than the rest of the share of total population. Forty percent of bus (41.3%) and urban rail (39.4%) trips are made by Hispanic (Latino) residents. Hispanic (Latino) residents make up a total of thirty-six percent (36.4%) of all trips via any transportation mode.
- Overall, white residents take significantly more trips via any transportation mode than any other racial/ethnic group, accounting for nearly thirty-nine percent (38.8%) of all trips in the region, despite making up only thirty-one percent (30.8%) of the population. White residents use disproportionately higher auto (38.9%).
- Usage of the transportation system by low-income households is disproportionately high for other modes, particularly bus, rail transit, passenger rail, walking, and biking. However, all usage for any race/ethnicity group via any mode must first consider an individual’s access to the transportation mode including factors such as vehicle ownership, access to transit, safe routes for pedestrians and bicyclists, and more.

⁹⁴ (Anderson 2016)

⁹⁵ (Sandt, Combs and Cohn 2016)

INDICATOR 6

Highest Rates of Bicycle and Pedestrian Collisions

WHO IS AT THE HIGHEST RISK FOR A COLLISION?⁹⁶

Making walking and bicycling safer and more convenient transportation options is key to attracting more people to choose these healthy alternatives.⁹⁷ Bicycling or walking along roadways near motor vehicles is often perceived as dangerous and reducing hazards in the pedestrian and cycling environment is a primary strategy toward achieving the region's goal of promoting healthier, more active communities. This indicator is used to identify patterns of active transportation hazards and potential risk disparities among the various communities in the region, evaluating incidences of motor vehicle collisions involving bicyclists and pedestrians in communities.

To identify where most of the collisions are occurring, SCAG created a High Injury Network at a regional scale.⁹⁸ High Injury Networks identify stretches of roadways where the highest concentrations of collisions occur on the transportation network.⁹⁹ Currently, the majority of the High Injury Network is in areas identified as being disadvantaged communities, with approximately sixty-six percent (66%) of auto-pedestrian and auto-bicycle fatal and serious injury collisions occurring in these areas.¹⁰⁰ Improving transportation safety in these areas is particularly critical when considering the higher non-motorized mode share of people of color.

⁹⁶ 2016 population breakdown of SCAG region and high concentrated area of bike and pedestrian collisions

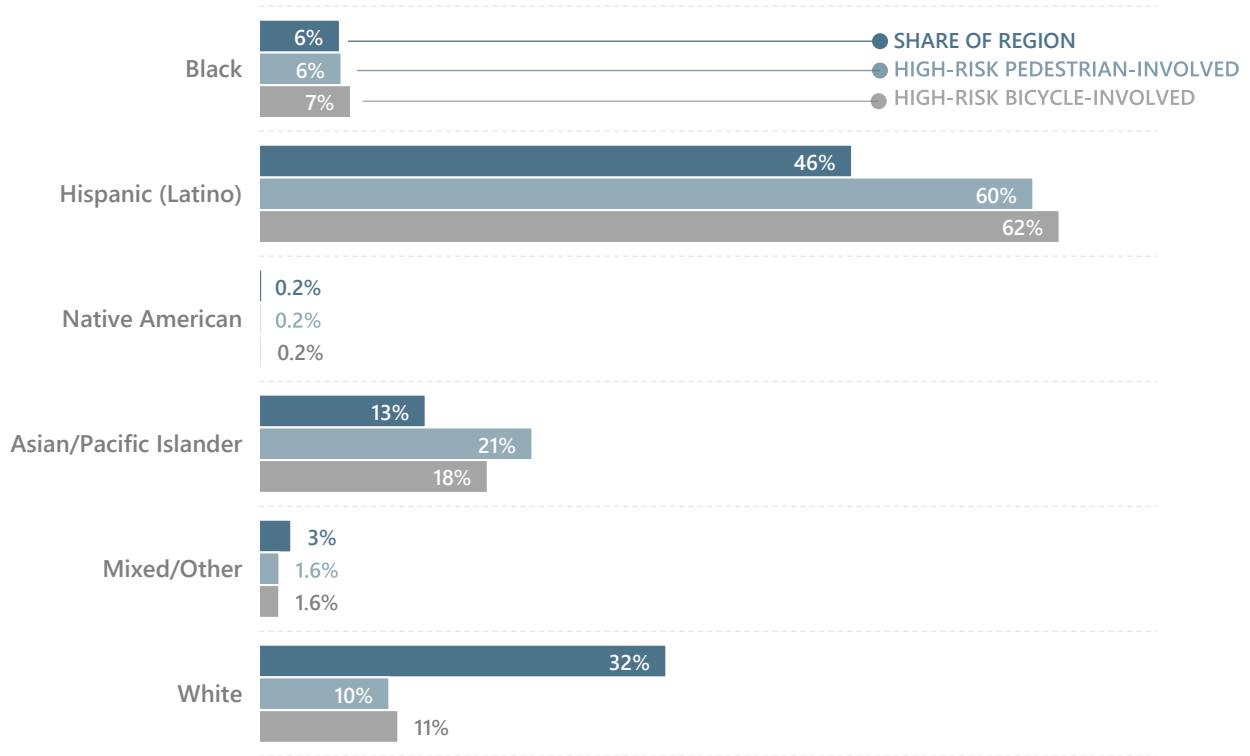
⁹⁷ (Pucher and Dijkstra 2003)

⁹⁸ (Southern California Association of Governments n.d.)

⁹⁹ (Southern California Association of Governments n.d.)

¹⁰⁰ (Southern California Association of Governments n.d.)

Hispanic (Latino) residents are the most likely to live in high-risk areas for a pedestrian-involved (60%) or bike-involved (62%) collisions as compared to other demographic groups.



Source: SCAG, SWITRS, TIMS, 2016

- Hispanic (Latino) residents are at a significantly higher risk for a pedestrian-involved (60%) or bicycle-involved (62%) collision than any other racial/ethnic group in the region, disproportionately higher than their share of the overall population (46%).
- White residents have a much lower risk for a pedestrian-involved (10%) or bicycle-involved (11%) collision than any other racial/ethnic group in the region, nearly one third lower than their share of the overall population (32%).

5 | Environment

Historically, people of color have been provided less protection from poor environmental conditions, living in closer proximity to highways, highly traveled roads, industrial plants, and other sources of pollutants.¹⁰¹ The most disadvantaged bear the consequences of environmental degradation, even if many contribute little to the underlying causes. The Environmental indicators highlighted below are focused on climate vulnerability and pollution exposure, representing a subset of issues negatively impacting communities of color. To understand existing environmental disparities, SCAG consulted data from the Federal Emergency Management Agency, California Building Resilience Against Climate Effects (CalBRACE), California Communities Environmental Health Screening Tool, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2014 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA), the U.S. Decennial Census, and the 2017 5-year American Community Survey.

INDICATOR 1

Climate Vulnerability¹⁰²

WHO IS MOST VULNERABLE TO CLIMATE CHANGE?

Existing conditions show that people of color and low-income populations are at a greater risk for experiencing negative impacts from climate change, such as extreme heat, flooding, and other events.¹⁰³ These populations have fewer resources to respond or adapt to climate-related issues, and often have higher rates of chronic diseases, which increases their susceptibility to climate threats. For example, lack of air conditioning and transportation options may exacerbate vulnerability in heat prone areas, and access to cooling centers may be limited. The ability to adapt to climate change is critical to prevent further heightened disparities in health outcomes across different communities.¹⁰⁴

WHO LIVES IN A FLOOD HAZARD AREA?^{105,106}

Climate change is projected to alter precipitation patterns, increase the intensity of major storm events, and increase risks of floods throughout the region.¹⁰⁷ Consequently, many communities are at risk for devastation from floods, disproportionately people of color and low-income communities.¹⁰⁸ Flooding may cause serious health impacts and risks that include death and injury, contaminated drinking water, hazardous material spills, and increases in the populations of disease-carrying insects and rodents.¹⁰⁹ Other negative impacts can include damage to critical infrastructure, as well as community disruption and displacement.¹¹⁰

¹⁰¹ (PolicyLink/USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

¹⁰² Climate vulnerability provides a population analysis by race/ethnicity for areas potentially impacted by substandard housing, sea level rise, wildfire risk, or extreme heat effects related to climate change.

¹⁰³ (Shonkoff, Morello-Frosch and Pastor 2011)

¹⁰⁴ Rudolph, L., Harrison, C., Buckley, L. & North, S. (2018). Climate Change, Health, and Equity: A Guide for Local Health Departments. Public Health Institute and American Public Health Association.

¹⁰⁵ Flood hazard analyzes the percent population of a flood-prone community and demonstrates areas within the 100-year Flood Hazard Zones (one percent annual chance of occurring) and 500-year Flood Hazard Zones region-wide (0.2 percent).

¹⁰⁶ (Federal Emergency Management Agency 2020)

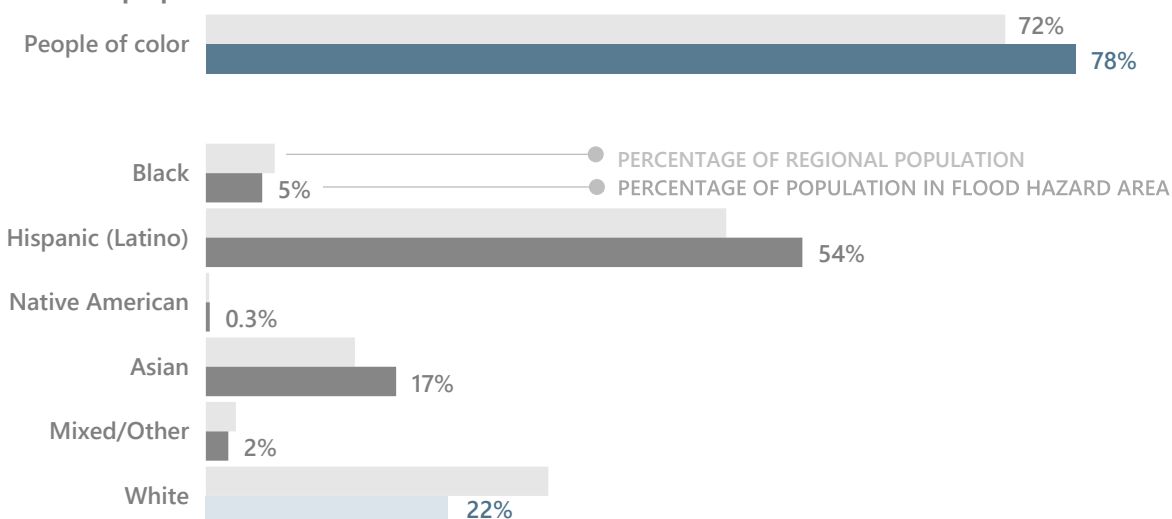
¹⁰⁷ (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2020)

¹⁰⁸ (Center for Social Solutions 2020)

¹⁰⁹ (World Health Organization 2021)

¹¹⁰ Handmer, J., Y. Honda, Z.W. Kundzewicz, N. Arnell, G. Benito, J. Hatfield, I.F. Mohamed, P. Peduzzi, S. Wu, B. Sherstyukov, K. Takahashi, and Z. Yan, 2012: Changes in impacts of climate extremes: human systems and ecosystems. In: *Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation* [Field, C.B., V. Barros, T.F. Stocker, D. Qin, D.J. Dokken, K.L. Ebi,

Disproportionately, people of color are more likely to live in a 100-year Flood Hazard Zone (78%), despite making up 72% of the overall population.



Source: 2019 SCAG, Federal Emergency Management Agency, U.S. Census

- People of color disproportionately live in 100-year and 500-year flood hazard areas, comprising seventy-eight percent (78%) of the population living in 100-year Flood Hazard Zones and seventy-eight percent of the population (78%) residing in 500-year Flood Zones.
- Hispanic (Latino) communities are the most likely to reside in a 100-year Flood Hazard zone, making up fifty-four percent (54%) of residents at high risk, yet only making up forty-seven percent (47%) of the regional population.
- Asian/Pacific Islanders are also at an increased risk, consisting of seventeen percent (17%) of those who live in a 100-year flood hazard area, yet only comprising thirteen percent (13.4%) of the overall population.
- White residents make up thirty-one percent (30.8%) of the overall population yet are proportionately less likely to live in a 100-year flood hazard area compared to other racial/ethnic groups. Twenty-two percent (22%) of those in a flood hazard area are white residents.

WHO IS AT RISK FOR A WILDFIRE?

Warmer temperatures combined with longer dry seasons have resulted in more wildfires in recent years.¹¹¹ Large fires statewide are anticipated to increase from roughly fifty-eight percent (58%) to 128 percent (128%) over the next several years.¹¹² As a result, air quality, water quality and even food production and energy pricing will be affected. These extra costs are expected to impact low-income communities more severely, in turn disproportionately impacting people of color.

M.D. Mastrandrea, K.J. Mach, G.-K. Plattner, S.K. Allen, M. Tignor, and P.M. Midgley (eds.)). A Special Report of Working Groups I and II of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, and New York, NY, USA, pp. 231-290.

¹¹¹ Handmer, J., Y. Honda, Z.W. Kundzewicz, N. Arnell, G. Benito, J. Hatfield, I.F. Mohamed, P. Peduzzi, S. Wu, B. Sherstyukov, K. Takahashi, and Z. Yan, 2012: Changes in impacts of climate extremes: human systems and ecosystems. In: *Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation* [Field, C.B., V. Barros, T.F. Stocker, D. Qin, D.J. Dokken, K.L. Ebi, M.D. Mastrandrea, K.J. Mach, G.-K. Plattner, S.K. Allen, M. Tignor, and P.M. Midgley (eds.)]. A Special Report of Working Groups I and II of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, and New York, NY, USA, pp. 231-290.

¹¹² California Public Utilities Commission, SCAG, 2019

The climate in Southern California continues to be increasingly hospitable to wildfires. Smoke from wildfires can contain over 10,000 substances (particulate matter and gaseous products of combustion) and expose the population to PM_{2.5} for months at a time.¹¹³ PM_{2.5} from wildfires increases the amount of hospital visits and the risk of mortality¹¹⁴. Air pollution from wildfires is estimated to cause 339,000 deaths per year worldwide.¹¹⁵ According to the California Department of Public Health, there are around 1.5 million people who live in fire hazard zones who are at a higher risk of being exposed to the effects of PM_{2.5}.¹¹⁶

Wildfire Risk by Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity breakdown by County in the region

Race/ Ethnicity	Imperial	Los Angeles	Orange	Riverside	San Bernardino	Ventura	Total
People of color	-	5%	4%	7%	5%	11%	6%
Black	-	4%	5%	7%	5%	15%	7%
Hispanic (Latino)	-	4%	2%	6%	4%	8%	5%
Native American	-	7%	6%	10%	9%	15%	9%
Asian	-	9%	6%	11%	7%	25%	12%
Pacific Islander	-	3%	3%	7%	5%	11%	6%
Mixed	-	12%	9%	11%	9%	25%	13%
Other	-	8%	8%	10%	8%	21%	11%
White	-	17%	10%	12%	12%	28%	16%
SCAG region	-	8%	6%	8%	7%	20%	

Source: California Building Resilience Against Climate Effects, California Public Utilities Commission 2019, Cal FIRE, U.S. Census, SCAG

- Across the region, white residents are most likely to live in very high wildfire risk areas at sixteen percent (16%) of the region. In Ventura County, twenty-eight percent of white residents live in high-risk areas (28.3%).
- However, Asian/Pacific Islanders, Mixed, and Other populations make up the next largest proportions of residents who live in wildfire risk areas in Ventura County. Twenty-six percent (26%) of Asian/Pacific Islanders, twenty-five percent (24.9%) of Mixed, and twenty-one percent (21%) of Other residents live in high-risk wildfire areas.
- Native Americans are at high risk in Riverside County with ten percent (10%) of Native Americans living in high-risk areas. In addition, white (11.8%), Mixed (10.8%), Asian/Pacific Islanders (10.5%), and Other (9.8%) residents are all at high risk for wildfire.

¹¹³ (California Air Resources Board, California Department of Public Health 2019)

¹¹⁴ (California Air Resources Board, California Department of Public Health 2019)

¹¹⁵ (Johnston, et al. 2012)

¹¹⁶ (California Air Resources Board n.d.)

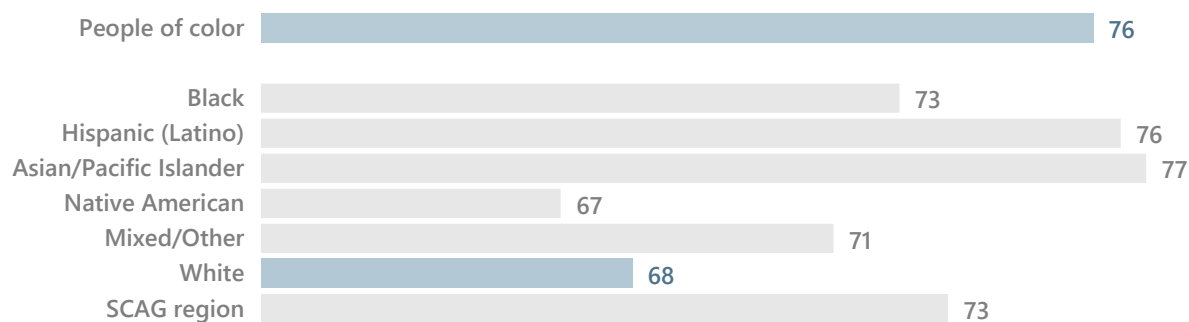
INDICATOR 2

Air Pollution Exposure Index¹¹⁷

CAN EVERYONE BREATHE CLEAN AIR?

Healthy neighborhoods are free of pollution and toxics that undermine safety, health, and well-being.¹¹⁸ People of color are more likely to live in neighborhoods with high levels of air pollution, corresponding to a higher risk for many serious health issues like respiratory problems, heart disease, cancer, and premature death.¹¹⁹ Children are particularly vulnerable to air pollution because they breathe more air relative to their size and their organs are not fully developed. A disproportionate share of people of color and low-income communities live near freeways and industry, exposing communities to higher rates of exposure to all sources of air pollution, as measured via an index by the National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA).¹²⁰

People of color face greater exposure to air toxics for environmental pollution from all sources (index score of 76) compared to white residents (68).



Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1999, 2011 and 2014 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA); U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Decennial Census Summary File 3, 2010 and 2017 American Community Survey (ACS) 5-Year Summary File.

- In general, people of color face a significantly higher exposure to air toxics for environmental pollution from all sources at seventy-six (76), as compared to white residents at sixty-eight (68). Native Americans also face a lower exposure to air toxics for environmental pollution from all sources as sixty-seven (67).
- When specifically examining toxics posing cancer risk, the air pollution exposure index for people of color (68.3) is six points higher than the index for white residents (62.0).
- The air exposure index for cancer risk for Asian/Pacific Islanders is the highest in the region at nearly seventy (69.4). Hispanic (Latino) populations follow close behind in exposure to air toxics that pose risk of cancer (68.7).

¹¹⁷ Index of exposure to air toxics for cancer and non-cancer risk (combined and separately). Values range from 1 (lowest risk) to 100 (highest risk) on a national scale based on the distribution across census tracts nationwide. For example, a value of 65 for Latinos in a given region suggests that the average pollution exposure for Latinos in that region is equivalent to the census tract that ranks at the 65th percentile nationally in pollution exposure (i.e. has more exposure than 64 percent of U.S. tracts but less exposure than 35 percent of tracts).

¹¹⁸ (PolicyLink/USC Equity Research Institute n.d.)

¹¹⁹ (Hajat, Hsia and O'Neill 2015), (Research Division n.d.)

¹²⁰ (United States Environmental Protection Agency n.d.)

- Reviewing air pollution that poses a non-cancer risk but instead respiratory hazard, the air pollution index for people of color (78.3) is eight points higher than the index for white populations (70.3), indicating communities of color are more at risk for asthma and other respiratory problems.
- Overall, Asian/Pacific Islanders (78.9) and Hispanic (Latino) (78.7) populations have the highest exposure to air toxics that pose respiratory hazards.

6 | Key Terms & Concepts

By defining key terms and concepts, the quality of dialogue and discourse on equity can be enhanced. Many of these key terms and concepts have evolved over time. The key terms and concepts listed below are intended to reflect current usage. It should be noted that many of these key terms and concepts have evolved over time. The key terms and concepts listed below are intended to reflect current usage. Preferred language is always evolving and each person's identities, life experiences, and understandings will influence the preference for a given term.

Discrimination

The unequal treatment of members of various groups based on race, gender, social class, sexual orientation, physical ability, religion and other categories. In the United States the law makes it illegal to discriminate against someone based on race, color, religion, national origin, or sex. The law also makes it illegal to retaliate against a person because the person complained about discrimination, filed a charge of discrimination, or participated in an employment discrimination investigation or lawsuit. (A Community Builder's Tool Kit; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "Laws Enforced by EEOC")

Diversity

A multiplicity of races, genders, sexual orientations, classes, ages, countries of origin, educational status, religions, physical, or cognitive abilities, documentation status, etc. within a community, organization or grouping of some kind. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Equity

Fairness and justice in policy, practice, and opportunity consciously designed to address the distinct challenges of non-dominant social groups, with an eye to equitable outcomes. See also: Racial equity. (University of Washington Diversity and Social Justice Glossary)

Ethnicity

A social construct that divides people into smaller social groups based on characteristics such as shared sense of group membership, values, behavioral patterns, language, political and economic interests, history and ancestral geographical base. (Teaching for Diversity and Social Justice: A Sourcebook. Marianne Adams, Lee Anne Bell, and Pat Griffin, editors. Routledge, 1997)

Explicit bias

Explicit biases are negative associations that people knowingly hold. They are expressed with conscious awareness. Example: sign in the window of an apartment building reads: "whites only." (Government Alliance for Race and Equity)

Implicit bias

Also known as unconscious or hidden bias, implicit biases are negative associations that people unknowingly hold. They are expressed automatically, without conscious awareness. Implicit biases have been shown to trump individuals' stated commitments to equality and fairness, thereby producing behavior that diverges from the explicit attitudes that many people profess. (State of the Science Implicit Bias Review 2013, Cheryl Staats, Kirwan Institute, The Ohio State University)

Inclusion

Authentically bringing traditionally excluded individuals and/or groups into processes, activities, and

decision/policy making in a way that shares power. (University of Washington Diversity and Social Justice Glossary)

Institutional racism

Institutional racism refers specifically to the ways in which institutional policies and practices create different outcomes for different racial groups. The institutional policies may never mention any racial group, but their effect is to create advantages for whites and oppression and disadvantage for people of color. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Examples: Government policies, known as redlining, that explicitly restricted the ability of people to get loans to buy or improve their homes in neighborhoods with high concentrations of Black people. City sanitation department policies that concentrate trash transfer stations and other environmental hazards disproportionately in communities of color.

Intersectionality

A term created by Black lawyer and scholar Kimberlé Williams Crenshaw to describe how race, class, gender, age and other aspects of identity intersect and inform the experience of individuals or groups of people. For example, a Black woman in America does not experience gender inequalities in the same way as a white woman, nor racial oppression in the same way as does a Black man. Each intersection produces a distinct life experience. (Intergroup Resources, 2012, Kimberlé Williams Crenshaw)

People of Color

Often the preferred collective term for referring to non-white racial groups. Racial justice advocates have been using the term “people of color” (not to be confused with the pejorative “colored people”) since the late 1970s as a unifying frame across different racial groups that are not White, to address racial inequities. While “people of color” can be a politically useful term, it is also important whenever possible to identify people through their own racial/ethnic group, as each has its own distinct experience and meaning and may be more appropriate. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Power

Power is unequally distributed globally and in U.S. society; some individuals or groups wield greater power than others, thereby allowing them greater access to and control over resources. Wealth, whiteness, citizenship, patriarchy, heterosexism, and education are a few key social mechanisms through which power operates. (University of Washington Diversity and Social Justice Glossary)

Prejudice

A pre-judgment or unjustifiable, and usually negative, attitude of one type of individual or groups toward another group and its members. Such negative attitudes are typically based on unsupported generalizations (or stereotypes) that deny the right of individual members of certain groups to be recognized and treated as individuals with individual characteristics. (Institute for Democratic Renewal and Project Change Anti-Racism Initiative, A Community Builder's Tool Kit)

Privilege

Advantages and benefits systemically accorded, often by default, to a person or group. Privilege is best understood intersectionality because colorism, documentation status, economic class, and education, can all accord distinct privilege within racial and ethnic groups. (Colors of Resistance Archive)

Race

For many people, it comes as a surprise that racial categorization schemes were invented by scientists to support worldviews that viewed some groups of people as superior and some as inferior. There are three important concepts linked to this fact: Race is a made-up social construct, and not an actual biological fact. Race designations have changed over time. Some groups that are considered “white” in the United States today were considered “nonwhite” in previous eras, in census data and in mass media and popular culture (for example, Irish, Italian and Jewish people). The way in which racial categorizations are enforced (the shape of racism) has also changed over time. For example, the racial designation of Asian American and Pacific Islander changed four times in the 19th century. That is, they were defined at times as white and at other times as not white. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Racial equity

Racial equity is the condition that would be achieved if one's racial identity no longer predicted, in a statistical sense, how one fares. Racial equity describes the actions, policies, and practices that eliminate bias and barriers that have historically and systemically marginalized communities of color, to ensure all people can be healthy, prosperous, and participate fully in civic life. (Source: Center for Assessment and Policy Development)

Racism

Racism is different from racial prejudice, hatred, or discrimination. Racism involves one group having the power to carry out systematic discrimination through the institutional policies and practices of the society and by shaping the cultural beliefs and values that support those racist policies and practices. Other ways to consider racism include: Racism = race prejudice + social and institutional power; Racism = a system of advantage based on race; Racism = a system of oppression based on race; Racism = a white supremacy system. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Racial justice

The systematic and proactive fair treatment of people of all races, resulting in equitable opportunities and outcomes for all. Racial justice—or racial equity—goes beyond anti-racism. It is not just the absence of discrimination and inequities, but also the presence of deliberate systems and supports to achieve and sustain racial equity. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Social Justice

Justice in terms of distribution of wealth, opportunities, and privileges within a society for all social identity groups. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Structural racism

The normalization and legitimization of processes and dynamics that provide advantage to white people while producing cumulative and chronic adverse outcomes for people of color. Structural racism may be difficult to locate in an institution because it involves the reinforcing effects of multiple institutions and cultural norms. (Racial Equity Tools Glossary, 2019)

Examples: We can see structural racism in the many institutional, cultural and structural factors that contribute to lower life expectancy for Black and Native American men, compared to white men. These include higher exposure to environmental toxins, dangerous jobs, and unhealthy housing stock; higher exposure to and more lethal consequences for reacting to violence, stress and racism; lower rates of health care coverage, access and quality of care; and systematic refusal by the nation to fix these things.



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MAIN OFFICE

900 Wilshire Blvd., Ste. 1700,
Los Angeles, CA 90017
Tel: (213) 236-1800

REGIONAL OFFICES

IMPERIAL COUNTY

1503 North Imperial Ave., Ste. 104
El Centro, CA 92243
Tel: (213) 236-1967

ORANGE COUNTY

OCTA Building
600 South Main St., Ste. 741
Orange, CA 92868
Tel: (213) 236-1997

RIVERSIDE COUNTY

3403 10th St., Ste. 805
Riverside, CA 92501
Tel: (951) 784-1513

SAN BERNARDINO COUNTY

1170 West 3rd St., Ste. 140
San Bernardino, CA 92410
Tel: (213) 236-1925

VENTURA COUNTY

4001 Mission Oaks Blvd., Ste. L
Camarillo, CA 93012
Tel: (213) 236-1960

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