REGIONAL EQUITY INDICATORS REPORT

COUNTY OF SAN DIEGO







FISCAL YEAR

2022-2023

"Not everything that is faced can be changed,
but nothing can be changed until it is faced."
– James Baldwin

Land Acknowledgement

Any look at equity in San Diego County should begin by acknowledging the presence and wisdom of indigenous peoples who are the original stewards of this land. This is a first and vital step toward reckoning with the history of colonialism, slavery and racialized oppression.

In recognition of and respect for indigenous peoples as traditional stewards of the land that we now call the County of San Diego. For millennia, the Kumeyaay people have been a part of this land. This land has nourished, healed, protected, and embraced them for many generations in a relationship of balance and harmony. As members of the San Diego community, and inhabitants of Ma'at Tipai/Kumeyaay Territory, we acknowledge this legacy. We promote this balance and harmony. We find inspiration from this land; the land of the Kumeyaay.

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Executive Summary

The County of San Diego is dedicated to creating a more equitable and just world. It acknowledges past injustices and current structural barriers to equality and is actively working to repair the harm to our communities. This Equity Indicators report is one of the many steps the County is taking to address inequity. It identifies impacts of racism and other forms of oppression. It can empower all of us to create strategies to help eliminate inequity. Centuries of discriminatory policies and practices have been woven into the fabric of this country. They have created and perpetuated inequity in many parts of life, including health, safety, education, wealth, and social mobility. People in America can unfairly be less healthy, less safe, less educated, earn less and achieve less just because of their race and ethnicity, gender, immigration status, disability, class and even geography.

The County of San Diego commits itself to working with everyone to co-create solutions that will improve life outcomes for all people and to team up with all sectors of government, nonprofit organizations, businesses, people and community groups. Dismantling unjust structures is not just the morally right thing to do. It can also unlock the economic potential of people who have been systematically held back, foster belonging across communities and energize neighborhoods. That benefits us all.

This report shows data at a single point in time, generally for the year 2021, but these disparities are the result of long-term trends that are expected to change slowly as attitudes, policies, and systems change. Below are key highlights for San Diego County from each area:

1. Related to **communities and civic life** in 2021, there was less racial/ethnic diversity in the coastal and eastern parts of the county than the central parts of the county. Eligible voters were more likely to be registered in eastern and north coastal parts of the county than central parts of the county as well. Minority-owned businesses and female-owned businesses were underrepresented in the county in 2017 (most recent data at time of report development).

2. In **early childhood development**, Hispanic and Black public-school students were overrepresented among homeless youth in academic year 2021-2022, and youth poverty was unequally distributed by race, disability, and immigration status in 2021. Most notably, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino, and Black or African American children experienced poverty at more than twice the rate of White children in San Diego County. In 2019 (the most recent date data were available at the time of report development), 63% of adults had experienced one or more Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) before the age of 18. ACEs were highest among males, non-Hispanic Other Races, non-Hispanic Whites, and Hispanics compared to the county overall.

3. In **education**, wide disparities existed among students by race, gender, disability status, and economic status in standardized testing in academic year 2021-2022, but students in the county overall outperformed their peers in California. There were also unequal graduation rates in academic year 2021-2022 and differences in 3- and 4-year-olds enrolled in school in 2021 by race, disability, and immigrant status. In the academic year 2021-2022, Hispanic or Latino, African American, and American Indian or Alaska Native students were overrepresented in suspensions compared to their total enrollment. Across K-12 public school students, about 17% of English Language Learners had Level 4 proficiency, the highest level, in English, meaning they had well-developed listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills.

4. **Food systems** disparities were also evident across race, sex, disability, immigration status, and geography. The race/ethnicity differences in food insecurity in 2021 were stark. Black or African American people were more than three times as likely to be enrolled in SNAP than White people and twice as likely than county residents overall. In 2019, the most recent data available at the time of report development, many areas of the county had very low to low grocery access.

5. Differences in **health** outcomes among groups are found beginning at birth—low birthweight was twice as common among births to Black or African American mothers when compared to births to White mothers in 2021. Life expectancy at birth varied by gender and race, with a 9.8-year gap between the lowest and highest life expectancies by race. More than a quarter of census tracts in 2021 experienced a mental health, dental health, or primary care shortage. Compared to White residents, American Indian or Alaska Natives were five times more likely to be uninsured, Hispanic or Latinos more than three times more likely, and Black or African Americans twice more likely.

6. In **housing**, White and Asian households were twice as likely to own their homes as Black or African American households in 2021. Additionally, Black or African American households were more likely to spend more than half of their income toward housing compared to other households. In 2022, the number of people experiencing homelessness was highest in the city of San Diego, followed by Oceanside, Chula Vista, and El Cajon.

7. **Infrastructure** disparities were also present in 2021. A greater percentage of Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino, American Indian or Alaska Native, and Some Other Race people reported not having high-speed internet access at home compared to White people. A disabled worker was twice as likely to take public transportation than a non-disabled worker. Eastern parts of the county had the longest commute times, particularly in comparison to coastal areas.

8. Among some of the starkest disparities were access to opportunity through **jobs and finances**. In 2021, about 27% of people with disabilities participated in the labor force,

compared to 72% of non-disabled people. Black or African American and disabled people had the lowest employment rates of those participating in the labor force. There were marked disparities in poverty by race, gender, disability, and immigration status. Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Some Other Race people, disabled residents, and immigrants were more likely to be below 200% of the federal poverty level than county residents overall. Further, about 36% of residents did not make a self-sufficient wage in 2021. In 2022, about 20% of households had any debt in collections, and across all debt types, communities of color were more likely to have debt in collections than majority White communities.

9. There were also disparities with access to **parks** and quality of **natural resources** across the county in 2021. Of eight air quality monitoring stations in the county, Alpine had the lowest percentage of "Good" air quality days related to Ozone, and El Cajon and Otay Mesa had the lowest percentage of "Good" air quality days related to particulate matter <2.5 microns. About 53% of San Diego County residents had adequate access to parks or community spaces, and South County beaches were disproportionately affected by beach closures.

10. When looking at **crime and the legal system** in 2021, violent crime rates were highest in National City and Lemon Grove and property crime rates were highest in Del Mar and National City. There were 89 hate crimes in the county recorded in 2021. Seventy-one percent (71%) of hate crimes were motivated by race and almost 50% of the racially motivated hate crimes were anti-Black or anti-African American. In the cities of San Diego and Carlsbad, Black or African American and Hispanic or Latino people were overrepresented in traffic stops, though the opposite was true for the San Diego County Sheriff's Department. The San Diego County Sheriff's Department had the highest juvenile arrest rate followed by police departments in El Cajon, National City, and Escondido. The per capita incarceration rate of Black or African American people was greater than that of White people, and the incarceration rates of Hispanic or Latinos and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders were almost twice that of Whites.

This report will hopefully complement other publicly available data and catalyze action in the region, making it a better place to live, work and thrive for all. The information in this report will be used to build consensus among regional governments and agencies on the importance of equity and to foster collaboration on improving outcomes.

Introduction

In January 2021, the San Diego County Board of Supervisors declared racism a public health crisis. This action recognized that some San Diego County residents do not share the same access or positive outcomes in health, resources, and opportunities due to a variety of factors stemming from racist systems, including residential segregation, disproportionate environmental injustices, and economic inequity.

The full understanding and measurement of these disparities are essential to every one of the County of San Diego's core values of integrity, belonging, excellence, access, sustainability, and equity. The County of San Diego's Office of Equity & Racial Justice (OERJ) is responsible for working with a broad range of regional partners including County departments, community members, and other institutions to co-create equitable solutions to regional equity and justice challenges. To that end, the Board of Supervisors commissioned the Equity Indicators project as a tool for the County government and its partners to assess the impact of social inequity and racial injustice to advance a more equitable vision that is measurable and sustainable.

This report provides a snapshot of disparities that were identified through both data analysis and by listening to those impacted by these inequities.

Any discussion of equity should start with defining the term. This process relied on a definition from the Government Alliance of Race & Equity, a national network of public sector practitioners. Racial equity is realized when race can no longer be used to predict life outcomes, and outcomes for all groups are improved.[1] This lens is used in this report to look not only at outcomes by race, but also sex, disability, immigration, geography, and more.

Achieving equity requires improving conditions across social spheres. Equitable outcomes in education can exist alongside inequity in healthcare, for example. Further, disparities in one area can worsen outcomes and disparities in another, which we see when a child who has not had enough to eat cannot focus and suffers academically, or when a lack of reliable transportation keeps someone from holding down a job. Some of these compounding systems are so pervasive that they have names, such as the school-to-prison-pipeline. This report takes a wide view to capture those intersections. Inequity can be perpetuated by institutional practices, like those in education, healthcare, and policing.

The indicators within each theme are selected based on their current and historical relevance to the region, as well as the availability and quality of the data. The data come from reliable, consistently collected sources from city, county, state, and federal government agencies,

[1] Curren, R., Nelson, J., Marsh, D. S., Noor, S., & Liu, N. (2016). *Racial Equity Action Plans*. Local and Regional Government Reliance on Race & Equity. https://www.racialequityalliance.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/GARE-Racial-Equity-Action-Plans.pdf

including the U.S. Census Bureau, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the California Department of Education, and others.

These indicators will also serve to monitor change over time. It is hoped that this baseline set of indicators will not only raise awareness and spur conversation about inequity in San Diego, but also reshape regional goals and policies, guide investment in solutions, scale best practices to improve outcomes, and encourage San Diego County residents to see and appreciate the diverse experiences of our communities. It is also intended that this report validates the experience of communities most impacted by discriminatory policies, inequitable practices, and racist structures, begins the process of collective healing, and sparks action across sectors to improve quality of life for the entire population.

You are invited to dive into the data that are relevant to your role, your organization, and your community and, as you do so, recognize the interconnectedness of these systems and outcomes. The data will be updated annually on the County of San Diego Open Data Portal.

Demographics Overview

To better understand these indicators, it is important to understand the composition of San Diego County. Using data from the American Community Survey (ACS), the estimated San Diego County population is presented in each race/ethnicity, sex, disability, and immigration category. Some indicators in this report rely on other data sources or subsets of the total county population, so the total distribution may be different than what is presented here. For example, many education indicators limit data to public school students.

To read more about how the ACS and race/ethnicity classification methods, see Appendix B: Methods.

In 2021 in San Diego County, the estimated population was 3,296,897 residents (Table 1). The population was predominantly Hispanic or Latino and White. Nearly a quarter of the population were immigrants. One in 10 residents reported a disability. Males and females were similarly distributed in the population.

Table 1: Number and Percent of Population, San Diego County, 2021

	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaska Native	9,737	0.3%
Asian	380,560	11.5%
Black or African American	150,906	4.6%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	1,131,506	34.3%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	11,443	0.3%
White	1,456,360	44.2%
Multiracial	144,530	4.4%
Some Other Race	11,855	0.4%
Sex		
Female	1,627,861	49.4%
Male	1,669,036	50.6%
Disability Status		
With Reported Disability	330,607	10.0%
Without Reported Disability	2,966,290	90.0%
Immigrant Status		
Immigrant	820,427	24.9%
Non-Immigrant	2,476,470	75.1%
Total	3,296,897	100.0%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown.

Communities & Civic Life

Businesses, neighborhood diversity, and political participation benefit communities and those in them. However, if these benefits are unevenly accessible to people because of their race, gender, disability, place of birth, they can exacerbate inequity. This section reviews equity indicators related to communities and civic life: Businesses Ownership, Neighborhood Diversity, and Voter Registration.

Businesses Ownership

Business ownership can create wealth for owners and employment in communities. Increasing business ownership, and especially small business ownership, may strengthen the local economy and create jobs. However, this opportunity is not equitably distributed.[2] Structural difficulties like lack of access to business loans and wealth disparities contribute to inequitably distributed business ownership.[3] Additionally, minority-owned businesses are more likely to be smaller businesses and are also more likely to have been negatively affected by the COVID-19 pandemic (layoffs, furloughs, and/or closures).[4]

Business ownership in San Diego County was assessed according to the 2018 Annual Business Survey (ABS)[5, 6] and the 2018 Nonemployer Statistics by Demographics (NES-D),[7, 8] which cover

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[2] Fairlie, R. (2018). Racial inequality in business ownership and income. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy, 34*(4), 597–614. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxrep/gry019

[3] Winston, A. (2021). The Contribution of Minority Business Enterprises to the U.S. Economy. Minority Business Development Agency. Retrieved from https://www.mbda.gov/sites/default/files/2021-09/The%20Contribution%20of%20MBEs%20to%20US%20Economy%20Report%20%20-%20September%202021.pdf

[4] McKinsey & Company. (2020, May 27). COVID-19's effect on minority-owned small businesses. Retrieved September 12, 2022, from https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/public-and-social-sector/our-insights/covid-19s-effect-on-minority-owned-small-businesses-in-the-united-states

[5] The Annual Business Survey (ABS) obtains information on employer businesses through yearly surveys and sampled 300,000 businesses yearly between 2019-2022. Annual Business Survey: https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/abs/about.html

[6] U.S. Census Bureau. (2018). AB1800CSA01 - Annual Business Survey: Statistics for Employer Firms by Industry, Sex, Ethnicity, Race, and Veteran Status for the U.S., States and Metro Areas: 2018. (2018). https://data.census.gov/table?q=AB1800CSA01&g=310XX00US41740&tid=ABSCS2018.AB1800CSA01

[7] The Nonemployer Statistics by Demographics series (NES-D) obtains information on nonemployer businesses through existing individual-level administrative records. Nonemployer Statistics by Demographics: https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/abs/technical-documentation/NESDmethodology.html

[8] U.S. Census Bureau. (2018). AB1800NESD01 - Nonemployer Statistics by Demographics series (NES-D): Statistics for Nonemployer Firms by Industry, Sex, Ethnicity, Race, and Veteran Status for the U.S., States, and Metro Areas: 2018. Retrieved from https://data.census.gov/table?q=AB1800NESD01:+Nonemployer+Statistics+by+Demographics+series+(NES-

employer and nonemployer businesses for 2017. ABS data come from surveying a sample of businesses and do not include all existing businesses, and NES-D data are based on administrative data for all taxpaying nonemployer businesses. A nonemployer business is one that has no paid employees, has annual business receipts of $1,000 or more ($1 or more in the construction industries), and is subject to federal income taxes. Nonemployer businesses are generally small. Some examples include real estate agents and independent contractors. According to the U.S. Small Business Administration, businesses may be classified as "small businesses" to qualify for federal programs if they meet revenue and employee size standards that vary by industry.[9] Small businesses may be counted as a nonemployer or employer business in this analysis.

The ABS collects demographic information of employer business owners using a self-reported survey and NES-D collects demographic information of nonemployer business through administrative records. Demographic information, including sex, ethnicity, and race, is summarized for each business using the demographics of up to four people owning the largest percentages of the business. Businesses may be counted in more than one race and ethnicity group if the sole owner or majority owner reported more than one race or if a majority combination of owners reported more than one race. Similarly, businesses may be tabulated in more than one sex group. For these reasons, the sub-group data may not add up to the total.

The ABS and NES-D define minority as people who are Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic or Latino, American Indian or Alaska Native, or Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander. Although San Diego County has a majority-minority population, minority-owned businesses were underrepresented. Only 23.8% of employer businesses and 38.9% of nonemployer businesses were minority-owned in 2017, compared to 54.7% of the overall county minority population (Table 2).

There were also large differences in business ownership by sex. Although about half the population were women, 41.6% of nonemployer firms and only 19.8% of employer firms were owned by women in 2017. Interestingly, there was a greater percentage of equally female/male owned employer businesses than nonemployer businesses (15.6% vs. 1.7%, respectively).

Some of these disparities may be addressed through the Small Business Administration (SBA), which aims to help create and maintain small businesses. The SBA offers many resources, including federal contracting assistance, loans, and community navigators. Additionally, the SBA assists small businesses in recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic.[10] The Minority Business Development Agency is another organization that provides similar support, focusing on

D):+Statistics+for+Nonemployer+Firms+by+Industry,+Sex,+Ethnicity,+Race,+and+Veteran+Status+for+the+U.S.,+States,+and+Metro+Areas:+2018&g=310XX00US41740&mode=results

[9] Table of Small Business Size Standards. U.S. Small Business Administration. Retrieved from, Table of size standards | U.S. Small Business Administration (sba.gov)

[10] U.S. Small Business Administration. (n.d.). Learn about SBA federal resources. https://www.sba.gov/local-assistance

connecting Minority Business Enterprises (MBEs) to private lenders, promoting MBEs to buyers (helping secure contracts), and positioning MBEs to expand their client base. [11] Local government and nonprofit programs across San Diego County include distributing small business relief funds, [12] providing loans and financing, [13] and offering consulting services to help businesses obtain grants [14] and navigate the county's business community. [15] Some other local initiatives to boost minority-owned businesses include Microenterprise Home Kitchen Operations (MEHKOs), [16, 17] the Social Equity Cannabis Program, [18] and a yearly Tourism Accelerator Program for small businesses. [19]

[11] Minority Business Development Agency. (n.d.). Who We Are. Retrieved September 21, 2022, from https://www.mbda.gov/who-we-are/overview

[12] Stimulus Grant Program, Small Business Stimulus Grant. (n.d.). San Diego County Official Website. https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/stimulusgrant/#:~:text=The%20Small%20Business%20Stimulus%20Grant,entities%20impacted%20by%20COVID%2D19.

[13] Find resources for your business. (n.d.). The City of San Diego Official Website. https://www.sandiego.gov/economic-development/business-resource-guide

[14] Connect SBDC. (n.d.). Small Business Development Center. https://connect.org/sbdc/

[15] Doing Business Here. (n.d.). San Diego Regional EDC. https://www.sandiegobusiness.org/doing-business-here/

[16] Environmental Health and Quality, Home Kitchen Operations. (n.d.). San Diego County Official Website. https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/deh/fhd/food/homekitchenoperations.html

[17] "A Microenterprise Home Kitchen Operation (abbreviated "MEHKO") is a permit category for a food facility that is operated by a resident in a private home." Microenterprise Home Kitchens (MEHKO). (n.d.). San Diego Food System Alliance. https://www.sdfsa.org/mehko

[18] Planning & Development Services, Socially Equitable Cannabis Program. (n.d.). San Diego County Official Website. https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/pds/Cannabis.html

[19] San Diego Tourism Authority's Tourism Accelerator. (n.d.). San Diego Tourism Authority. https://www.sandiego.org/about/tourism-accelerator.aspx

Table 2: Businesses Summarized by Characteristics of People Owning the Largest Percentage of the Business, San Diego County, 2017

	2017 Population		Nonemployer Businesses		Employer Businesses	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity*						
American Indian or Alaska Native, Non-Hispanic	12,699	0.4%	450	0.2%	154	0.2%
Asian, Non-Hispanic	394,340	11.8%	30,000	10.2%	8,846	13.0%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Non-Hispanic	12,808	0.4%	700	0.2%	†	†
Black or African American, Non-Hispanic	153,740	4.6%	11,500	3.9%	658	1.0%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	1,129,970	33.9%	71,000	24.2%	6,392	9.4%
Equally Hispanic/Non-Hispanic	.	.	800	0.3%	1,201	1.8%
White, Non-Hispanic	1,512,229	45.3%	171,000	58.4%	46,781	68.7%
Multiracial	113,880	3.4%	.	.	.	.
Some Other Race	8,019	0.2%	.	.	.	.
Minority/Nonminority						
Minority‡	1,825,456	54.7%	114,000§	38.9%	16,237§	23.8%
Nonminority	1,512,229	45.3%	171,000§	58.4%	46,070§	67.6%
Equally Minority/Nonminority	.	.	1,300§	0.4%	1,652§	2.4%
Unclassifiable¶						
Unclassifiable	.	.	6,800	2.3%	4,176	6.1%
Sex						
Female	1,658,275	49.7%	122,000	41.6%	13,521	19.8%
Male	1,679,410	50.3%	159,000	54.3%	39,786	58.4%
Equally Female/Male Owned	.	.	5,000	1.7%	10,652	15.6%
Total	3,337,685#		293,000§	100.0%	68,133§	100.0%

Data Sources: 2017 American Community Survey 1-year Estimates, 2018 Nonemployer Statistics by Demographics series, 2018 Annual Business Survey.

* Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. Multiracial and Some Other Race Categories are not used as categories in the ABS nor NES-D tabulations.

† Withheld by the Census Bureau to avoid disclosing data for individual companies; data are included in higher level totals.

‡ For population estimates, minority is a sum of all race/ethnicity categories except for non-Hispanic White.

§ Detailed subgroups do not add up to the total due to rounding by the U.S. Census Bureau and because businesses may be counted in more than one subgroup.

¶ Businesses are unclassifiable by sex, ethnicity, and race if they have no owners with 10% or greater ownership of the stock or equity in the business.

The sum of categories in the population column equals the total because people are tabulated under one category. Data may not be comparable to business counts because businesses may be tabulated in multiple categories.

Neighborhood Diversity

Many neighborhoods provide access to services and amenities like schools and parks. Not all neighborhoods, however, are invested in equality. Racial segregation may be one reason why minority neighborhoods often have less benefits than White neighborhoods at the same income levels.[20] Although most people living in the United States are satisfied with the racial mix of their community according to a Pew Research Center survey,[21] living in more integrated neighborhoods could decrease racial prejudice, improve education, and benefit health.[22,23,24]

Discriminatory housing practices have contributed to racial segregation in American communities, including San Diego.[25] Redlining and other discriminatory housing policies allowed lenders to offer people of color predatory loans and realtors to steer people to minority or mixed neighborhoods, while steering White people to predominantly White neighborhoods.[26,27] Property values lagged in minority neighborhoods because they were seen as less desirable. Housing discrimination unfairly restricted wealth building and the quality of public services for people living there. This led to the geographic concentration of poverty in

[20] Roithmayr, D. (2004). Locked in Segregation. Virginia Journal of Social Policy & the Law, 12, 197-294.

[21] Horowitz, J. M. (2019). Americans See Advantages and Challenges in Country's Growing Racial and Ethnic Diversity. https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2019/05/08/americans-see-advantages-and-challenges-in-countrys-growing-racial-and-ethnic-diversity/

[22] Ihlanfeldt, K. R., & Scafidi, B. P. (2002). The Neighbourhood Contact Hypothesis: Evidence from the Multicity Study of Urban Inequality. *Urban Studies, 39*(4), 619–641. https://doi.org/10.1080/00420980220119499

[23] Acs, G., Pendall, R., Treskon, M., & Khare, A. (2017). The Cost of Segregation: National Trends and the Case of Chicago, 1990–2010. Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/cost-segregation

[24] Wells, A. S., Fox, L., & Cordova-Cobo, D. (2016). How Racially Diverse Schools and Classrooms Can Benefit All Students. The Century Foundation. Retrieved from https://tcf.org/content/report/how-racially-diverse-schools-and-classrooms-can-benefit-all-students/

[25] Ford, L., & Griffin, E. (1979). The ghettoization of paradise. Geographical Review, 69(2), 140–158.

[26] Massey, D. S., & Denton, N. A. (1993). American Apartheid: Segregation and the Making of the Underclass. Harvard University Press, pp. 51-57, 98-100.

[27] Coates, T.-N. (2014). The Case for Reparations. The Atlantic, June 2014. https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2014/06/the-case-for-reparations/361631/

majority-Black neighborhoods.[28,29,30] Although redlining was banned by the Fair Housing Act of 1968, its legacy lives on.[31]

The American Community Survey 2021 5-year estimates were used to measure racial diversity within neighborhoods in San Diego County.[32] A diversity score was calculated for each ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA) with a theoretical range from 0 (for no diversity, as occurs when everyone in the ZCTA is of the same race/ethnicity) to 0.875 (as would occur if the population in the ZCTA were exactly equally distributed between the eight racial/ethnic categories used in the table cited[33]). In San Diego County ZCTAs, the scores ranged from 0 to 0.732. The 0 score was registered in one ZCTA where 100% of the population was White. The 0.732 score was in a ZCTA that was 0.04% Some Other Race, 0.1% American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.5% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 6.3% Multiracial, 11.6% White, 12.7% Black or African American, 29.5% Asian, and 38.3% Hispanic or Latino.

For the map in Figure 1, the score was divided into five equal groups to display racial/ethnic diversity in San Diego County and were categorized from least to most diverse. In general, the east and coastal parts of the county were less diverse.

Policy actions recommended by the Urban Institute include testing real estate agents, rental housing providers, lending institutions, and mortgage brokers to detect discrimination in the house buying and rental market. Other actions include educating the public through a local fair housing organization or a housing counseling center to address fears and stereotypes that may be associated with diverse neighborhoods. Affordable housing, Housing Choice Vouchers, and investing in historically marginalized neighborhoods to improve schools, parks, and other amenities may be, incentives to encourage people to move to neighborhoods where they are not the majority race or ethnicity. Finally, enhanced down payment assistance, low-interest

[28] Nelson, R. K., Winling, L., Marciano, R., & Nathan, C. (n.d.). Mapping Inequality. American Panorama. Retrieved August 8, 2023, from https://dsl.richmond.edu/panorama/redlining/#loc=12/32.739/-117.174&city=san-diego-ca

[29] Rothstein, R. (2017). The Color of Law, A Forgotten History of How Our Government Segregated America. Liveright.

[30] Gruenstein Bocian, D., & Zhai, R. (2005). Borrowers in Higher Minority Areas More Likely to Receive Prepayment Penalties on Subprime Loans. Center for Responsible Lending. Retrieved from https://www.responsiblelending.org/research-publication/borrowers-higher-minority-areas-more-likely-receive-prepayment-penalties

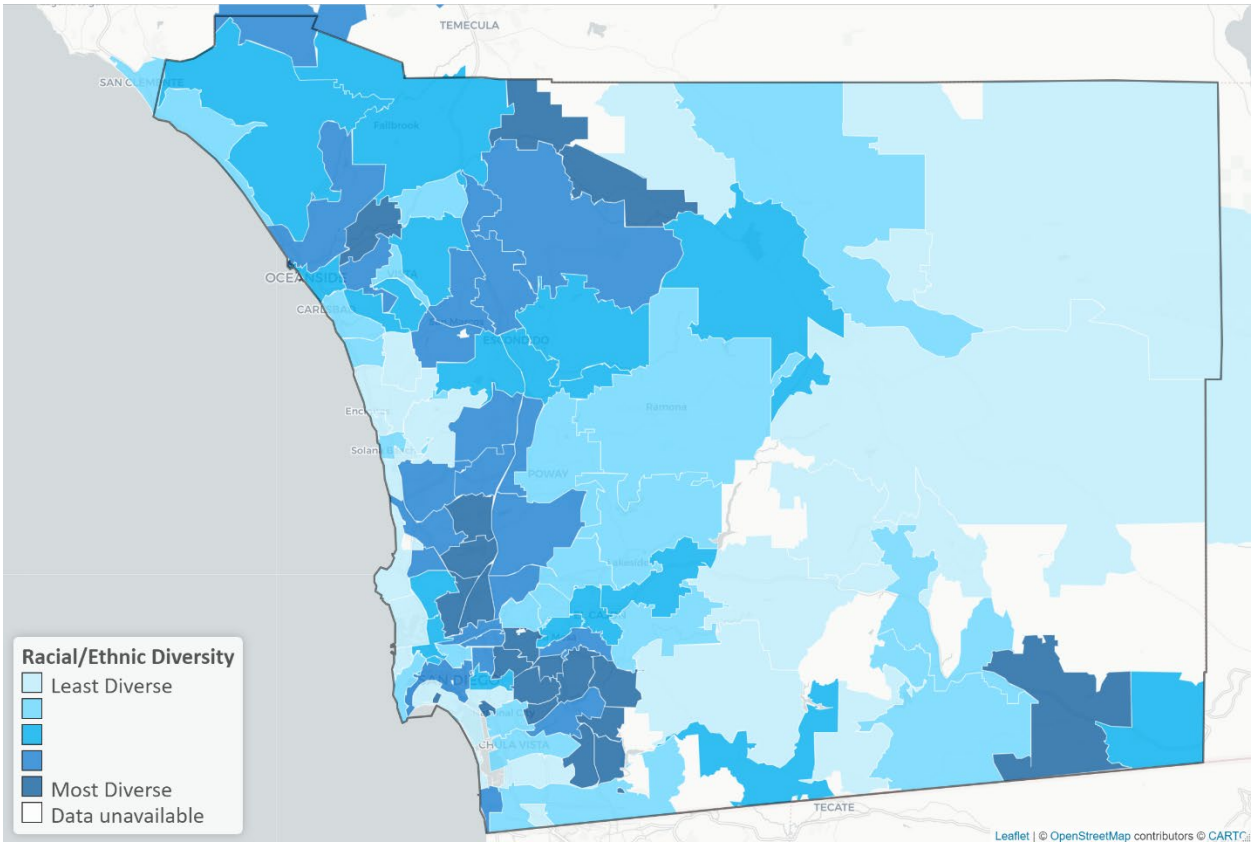
[31] Mitchell, B., & Franco, J. (2018, March 20). HOLC "redlining" maps: The persistent structure of segregation and economic inequality » NCRC. https://ncrc.org/holc/

[32] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). B03002 – Hispanic or Latino Origin by Race. Retrieved from https://data.census.gov/table?q=B03002&g=310XX00US41740$8600000

[33] Formally, Ethnic heterogeneity=1-(p_{AIAN}^2+ p_{Asian}^2+ p_{Black}^2+ $p_{Hispanic}^2$+ p_{NHPI}^2+ p_{White}^2+ p_{Multi}^2+ p_{Other}^2) where p is the proportion of the population in each racial/ethnic category. The number of categories used to calculate the measure impacts the theoretical distribution of the measure, so caution should be used in comparing this measure year-to-year if the measure is modified. Blau, P. (1977). Inequality and Heterogeneity: A Primitive Theory of Social Structure. Free Press.

loans, and other types of financial assistance may help families move to neighborhoods they may not otherwise afford. [34]

Figure 1: Racial and Ethnic Diversity by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates, Table B03002.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

[34] Turner, M. A., & Rawlings, L. (2009). Promoting Neighborhood Diversity: Benefits, Barriers, and Strategies. The Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/promoting-neighborhood-diversity-benefits-barriers-and-strategies

Voter Registration

Access to voting is fundamental to ensuring equity. Voting allows people to have a say in government policy and processes. It is not perfect— there is a lot of interference between access to voting and implementation of the preferences of voters—but access is a necessary condition for democratic equity.

Eligible voters might not register to vote if they perceive barriers outweigh the benefits. Time and effort to register may be higher for those who do not have internet access at home; who live far from in-person registration facilities; have recently moved, frequently move, or do not have a steady address; recently became a citizen; require physical assistance to register or vote and/or accessible in-person registration facilities; or are in other special circumstances. This could mean that rural, poor, immigrant, migrant, those experiencing homelessness, disabled, and other already disadvantaged populations may be less likely to register to vote. Studies estimate that eliminating registration barriers raises voter turnout by 5 to 10%.[35]

The Current Population Survey,[36] sponsored by the U.S. Census Bureau and the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, includes questions about voting and registration following each national election. According to the Current Population Survey, those who did not register to vote for the 2020 election reported that they did not register for many reasons. Reasons included were: not interested in the election or in politics (38.8%), they did not meet registration deadlines (10.6%), they were not eligible to vote (9.8%), they have a permanent illness or disability (4.9%), they believed their vote would not make a difference (4.7%), they did not know how or where to register (3.2%), they did not meet residency requirements (2.8%), they were concerned about the COVID-19 pandemic (2.3%), or they had difficulty with English (1.2%).[37] The Census reports how these explanations differ across race, age, and educational attainment across the country, but does not sample enough people in the Current Population Survey to allow for analysis in San Diego County.[38]

Additionally, people who would be disenfranchised in some states but can vote in California may not be aware that they are eligible to register in California, especially if they moved here from one of those states. For example, in California, most people convicted of a felony who have served their time are eligible to vote, but in some other states they are disenfranchised.

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[35] Ansolabehere, S., & Konisky, D. M. (2006). The introduction of voter registration and its effect on turnout. *Political Analysis, 14*(1), 83–100. https://doi.org/10.1093/pan/mpi034

[36] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). Current Population Survey (CPS). Retrieved April 4, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps.html

[37] Fabina J. & Scherer, Z. (2022). Voting and Registration in the Election of 2020. Current Population Reports. Retrieved, https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2022/demo/p20-585.pdf

[38] These national statistics may not reflect the reasons people in San Diego County did not register to vote in the 2020 election, particularly due to varying voter laws and procedures across the United States. The Current Population Survey also only includes the non-institutionalized, civilian population of citizens 18 years of age or older residing in the United States; people living abroad that may cast absentee ballots are not included.

Figure 2 shows the percent of adults 18 years of age and older in each ZIP code who were registered to vote as of September 1, 2021. The denominator includes some people who are not eligible to vote due to the difficulty in estimating sizes of the ineligible groups: non-citizens, people serving in state or federal prisons, and those found mentally incompetent are ineligible.[39] Although the consequence of including some ineligible people in the denominator is that these voter registration rates are slightly underestimates, comparing across ZIP codes is still useful. Differences not only help identify areas that may benefit from additional outreach, but also plainly show the proportion of adult residents who have the possibility of representation in elections.

Overall, 78.0% of the San Diego County population 18 years of age and older were registered to vote as of September 1, 2021. Downtown and surrounding areas had some of the lowest voter registration rates, while some ZIP codes in east and north county had higher rates. Some universities and military bases have their own ZIP codes; these ZIP codes are shown in grey. Voter registration data are not shown for these ZIP codes because it is likely that most of the population are university students and military members who are registered to vote at their home addresses elsewhere in the county or out of the county.

Although the County cannot address all the reasons that an eligible voter may not register, the County can continue to provide educational opportunities to potential voters, making registration (including pre-registration for first-time voters) easy and accessible, and working with community organizations that run registration drives in areas with low voter registration. The County of San Diego Registrar of Voters continually aims to improve access and ease of voting, often by leveraging strong partnerships with community-based organizations, community advisory committees, and trusted leaders in the community. In October 2021, the County of San Diego Board of Supervisors approved the County's transition to a vote center model under the Voters Choice Act. The Election Administration Plan was finalized in March 2022 and outlines processes for future elections in San Diego County. Visit sdvote.com for more information about the Election Administration Plan and accurate information about upcoming elections.

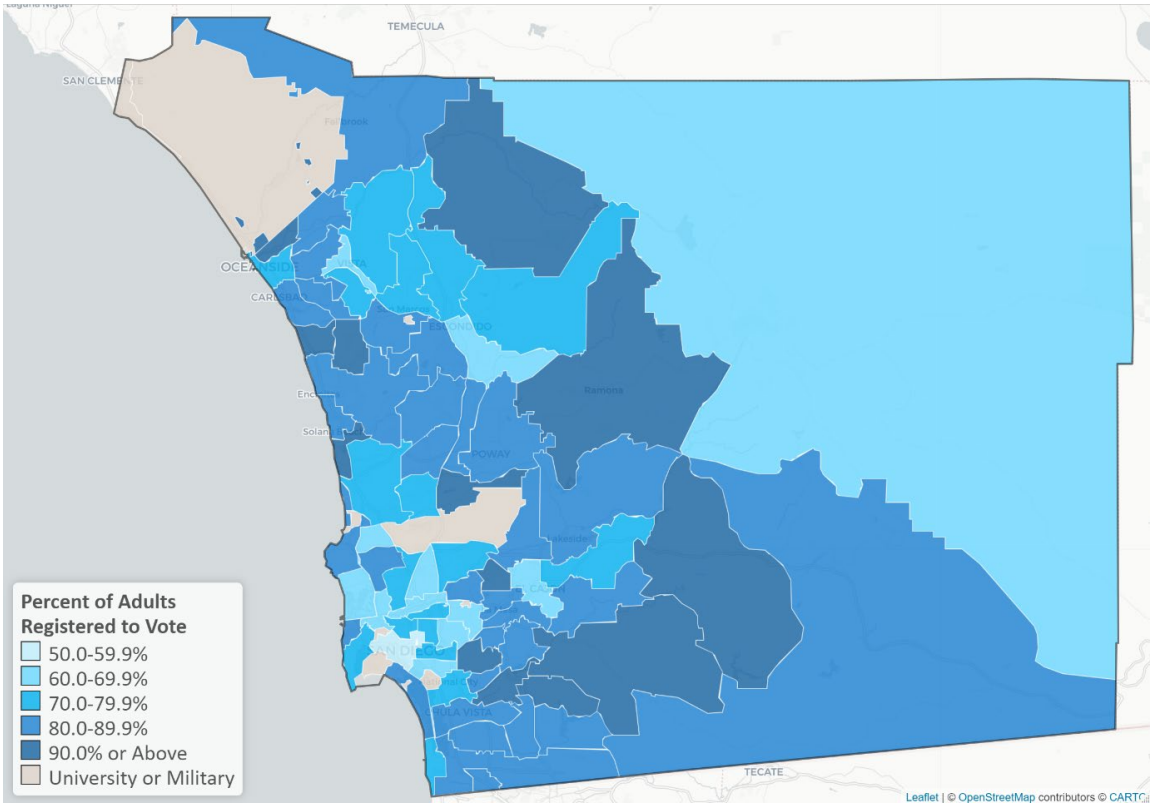
Examining voter registration in San Diego County is limited by data availability. Voters in California are not required to report their race when registering to vote, resulting in a large amount of missing data that may bias registration rates that are disaggregated by race. Determining accurate estimates of the eligible population is difficult at the county level,

[39] According to State of California estimates that account for all voter eligibility criteria, 89.9% of eligible San Diego County residents were registered to vote as of August 30, 2021. The rate differs from what is presented here because the State has the resources to estimate the eligible population more accurately for the denominator; they consider other eligibility criteria in addition to age 18 years or older. California data by County: https://elections.cdn.sos.ca.gov/ror/15day-recall-2021/county.pdf

State report overall: https://elections.cdn.sos.ca.gov/ror/15day-recall-2021/historical-reg-stats.pdf

although this may be explored for future reports. Additionally, voter registration alone does not fully reflect equity issues in all voting stages.

Figure 2: Percent of Adults Registered to Vote by ZIP Code, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: Voter registration data were obtained from the Registrar of Voters, data as of September 1, 2021.
Population data are the 2021 SANDAG population estimates (prepared Sep. 2022). Total San Diego County population = 3,315,404. Note: These estimates do not reflect the 2020 decennial census counts.
ZIP codes with population <10,000 people were combined if they were not censored due to being Universities or Military areas. Voter registration data for ZIP codes with Universities or Military areas are not shown because most people may be registered elsewhere, and the number of registered voters could be underestimated. The total number of registered voters for these ZIP codes is 2,725, the total population 64,130, and the percentage registered to vote is 4.2%.
The percentage of population registered to vote may approach, or exceed, 100%. The most recent population estimates may not reflect recent social and environmental changes of a community, possibly leading to an under- or overestimate of a population. Additionally, the number of registered voters by ZIP code is geocoded to a specific location while the population estimates are at the census tract level and appropriated to the ZIP code level. The appropriation of population estimates from one census tract to more than one ZIP codes may result in imprecise population estimates.

Early Childhood Development

Stability, family support, and safety from trauma foster healthy human development and long-term flourishing. To fulfill those basic needs during early childhood requires the collaboration of communities, schools, and human service agencies. Interventions in early childhood, especially among children who need the most help, can generate long-lasting cognitive, behavioral, academic, and health benefits.[40]This section reviews equity indicators related to the first few years of children's lives, a critical period for a variety of outcomes.[41] The indicators include the number of homeless public-school children, adverse childhood experiences, and youth poverty. The *Live Well San Diego* Report Card on Children, Families, and Community has a much broader set of indicators that may be of interest for readers wanting further exploration of data about this crucial period of life.[42]

Other indicators related to early childhood development can be found in Crime and the Legal System (See: Juvenile Justice Arrests) and Education (See: 3- and 4-Year-Olds Enrolled in School, Standardized Assessment Performance, English Language Learners, and Suspensions).

Youth Homelessness

Stable housing is foundational for thriving, especially among young people. In addition to lacking physical security and shelter, homeless youth may:[43]

- have traumatic experiences that impact their mental health.
- have employment or a need to move often that interferes with school attendance and academic achievement.
- not have access to school records and other paperwork.
- be concerned about being reported to law enforcement or local child welfare agencies.
- not have a permanent connection with and support from a caring adult.
- have limited access to basic needs, like food, medical care, hygiene facilities (like bathing and laundry), clothing, school supplies, transportation.

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[40] Nores, M., & Barnett, W. S. (2010). Benefits of early childhood interventions across the world: (Under) Investing in the very young. *Economics of Education Review, 29*(2), 271–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2009.09.001

[41] Jeong, J., Franchett, E. E., Ramos de Oliveira, C. V., Rehmani, K., & Yousafzai, A. K. (2021). Parenting interventions to promote early child development in the first three years of life: A global systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Medicine, 18*(5), e1003602. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003602

[42] McBrayer, S., & Mostofi, S. (2021). Live Well San Diego Report Card on Children, Families, and Community. Retrieved from https://www.thechildrensinitiative.org/_files/ugd/17d248_6f8d9c9c150a4588acce41bff445a01e.pdf

[43] National Center for Homeless Education. (n.d.) Supporting the Education of Unaccompanied Homeless Students. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED574561.pdf

When students experience homelessness, they are more likely to be chronically absent, less likely to graduate high school,[44] and less likely to be prepared for college.[45] LGBTQ+ students[46] and students of color[47] are disproportionately more likely to be homeless than their peers. There is a mutually reinforcing relationship between disability and homelessness. People with disabilities often face many challenges that contribute to being unable to secure or afford housing[48,49] and homelessness can negatively impact the mental and physical health and development of young people.[50]

Youth considered "homeless" can be living in shelters, living with another family, living in hotels, or unsheltered (including those who sleep in cars, campgrounds, abandoned buildings, etc.) and can be with family or on their own.[51] Rates of homelessness in San Diego County schools in the school year 2021-2022 (3.1%) were similar to those in California schools overall (2.9%).

The McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act is a federal law requiring public schools to report the number of homeless students and some limited information about those students. The data use the racial categories of African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Filipino, Hispanic or Latino, Pacific Islander, White, Two or More Races, and Not Reported. Unfortunately, no data about LGBTQ+ students' homelessness rates were published.

As shown in Figure 3, the largest group of homeless students enrolled in San Diego County public schools in the 2021-2022 school year were classified as Hispanic or Latino (70.9% of all homeless public-school students), followed by White students (8.4%) and African American

[44] Department of Education. (2016). Supporting the Success of Homeless Children and Youth. Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/160315ehcyfactsheet072716.pdf

[45] Bishop, J. P., Gonzalez, L. C., & Rivera, E. (2020). State of Crisis. UCLA Center for the Transformation of Schools. Retrieved from https://secureservercdn.net/198.71.233.214/38e.a8b.myftpupload.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/cts-state-of-crisis-executive-summary.pdf

[46] Department of Education. (2016). Supporting the Success of Homeless Children and Youth. Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/160315ehcyfactsheet072716.pdf

[47] Bishop, J. P., Gonzalez, L. C., & Rivera, E. (2020). State of Crisis. UCLA Center for the Transformation of Schools. Retrieved from https://secureservercdn.net/198.71.233.214/38e.a8b.myftpupload.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/cts-state-of-crisis-executive-summary.pdf

[48] Brown, M., & McCann, E. (2021). Homelessness and people with intellectual disabilities: A systematic review of the international research evidence. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities, 34*(2), 390–401. https://doi.org/10.1111/jar.12815

[49] Beer, A., Baker, E., Lester, L., & Daniel, L. (2019). The relative risk of homelessness among persons with a disability: New methods and policy insights. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 16*(22), Article 22. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16224304

[50] Edidin, J. P., Ganim, Z., Hunter, S. J., & Karnik, N. S. (2012). The mental and physical health of homeless youth: A literature review. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development, 43*(3), 354–375. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-011-0270-1

[51] California Department of Education (CDE). (n.d.). Retrieved August 1, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/sg/homelessyouth.asp

students (7.8%). Hispanic or Latino students were vastly overrepresented among the homeless student population (70.9% of homeless students compared to 48.9% of enrolled students), as were African American students (7.8% of homeless students compared to 4.1% of enrolled students). This is a stark reflection of the racial wealth gap discussed throughout this report.

These reported public-school students do not represent the entirety of homeless youth, leaving out students in private schools or who are homeschooled. Public schools are required to count homeless students they serve, but they often do so through parent self-report. Fear of being reported to local child welfare agencies may dissuade families experiencing homelessness from disclosing their housing status and may contribute to underreporting.[52] COVID-19 may have also impacted the accuracy of these data.[53] However, this metric is comparable to counties nationwide. Further, it is particularly useful for those who make decisions about public schools to identify the estimated number of homeless children they can help. The McKinney-Vento Act requires that schools make and update policies to reduce barriers to high-quality education for homeless students.[54]

In addition to the County Office of Education being tasked with supporting San Diego students experiencing homelessness in public schools, a broad range of County programs can help prevent youth homelessness. According to national studies of homelessness programs, housing programs make a difference for young people experiencing homelessness overall but Black and Hispanic youth were less likely to find housing or return to families.[55] Equitable intervention to prevent and address homelessness across racial and ethnic groups may require broad, upstream intervention in policy areas like child welfare, education, employment, affordable housing, and neighborhood investment. [56]

[52] Jones, C. (n.d.). Quick Guide: Understanding how schools serve homeless children in California. EdSource. Retrieved September 12, 2022, from https://edsource.org/2017/understanding-how-california-serves-its-homeless-children-a-quick-guide/590137

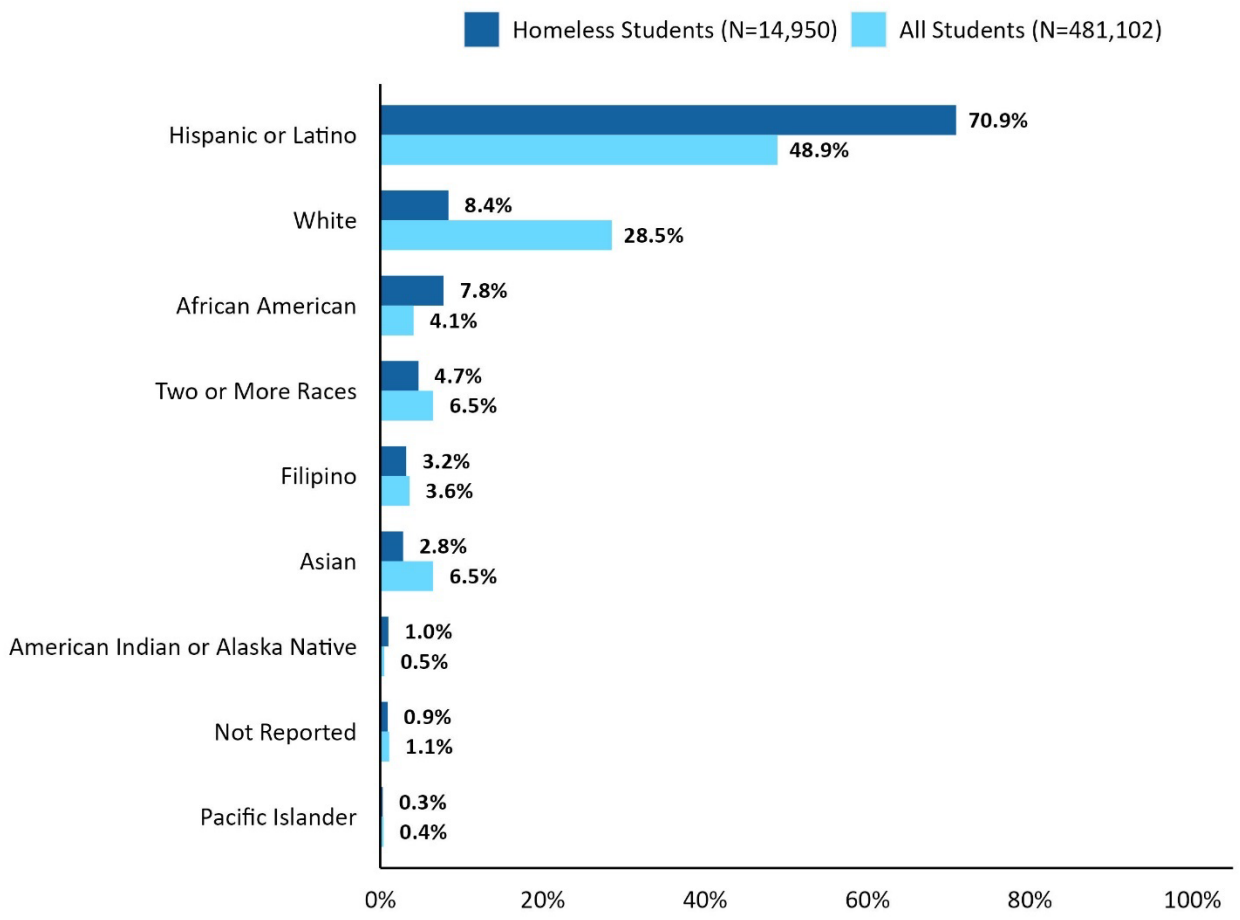
[53] National Center for Homeless Education (NCHE). (n.d.). Retrieved September 12, 2022, from https://profiles.nche.seiservices.com/StateProfile.aspx?StateID=6

[54] The McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act As Amended by S.896 The Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing (HEARTH) Act of 2009. (2009). 50.

[55] Morton, M. H., Rice, E., Blondin, M., Hsu, H., & Kull, M. (2018). Toward a System Response to Ending Youth Homelessness: New Evidence to Help Communities Strengthen Coordinated Entry, Assessment, and Support for Youth. Chapin Hall at the University of Chicago. Retrieved from https://www.chapinhall.org/wp-content/uploads/Chapin-Hall-Youth-Collaboratory-Toward-A-System-Response-To-Youth-Homele....pdf

[56] Ibid.

Figure 3: Race/Ethnicity of Students Who Were Ever Homeless Compared to All Students, San Diego County, Academic Year 2021-2022



Data Source: California Department of Education, Academic Year 2021-2022.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown.

Adverse Childhood Experiences

Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) have a widespread impact on the public and social health of communities and people across the United States. ACEs refer to a combination of negative early life experiences involving emotional, physical and sexual abuse, neglect and exposure to violence, mental illness, substance use, parental separation, and incarceration in the household endured before the age of 18.[57, 58] According to a recent study, almost 62% of adults have experienced an ACE during early childhood, with nearly one-fourth experiencing three or more

[57] Felitti, V. J., Anda, R. F., Nordenberg, D., Williamson, D. F., Spitz, A. M., Edwards, V., & Marks, J. S. (1998). Relationship of childhood abuse and household dysfunction to many of the leading causes of death in adults: The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 14*(4), 245-258.

[58] Craig, J. M., Wolff, K. T., & Baglivio, M. T. (2022). Clustering of adverse and positive childhood experiences: the nature and correlates of risk and protective factors. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 134*, 105878.

ACEs.[59] Traditionally obtained through surveys and interviews, the presence of these indicators from a person's early life are added up or summed to produce an ACS score. Even though studies vary on the specific indicators used to make up an ACE score, many studies count ACEs out of 10.[60] These experiences are linked to a variety of outcomes such as poor physical and mental health, trauma, and antisocial behavior, like criminal offending.[61]

Importantly, studies show that the prevalence of ACEs differs based on some key demographic characteristics nationally. For example, Native Americans tend to experience higher numbers of ACEs relative to other groups.[62] Being Black, Hispanic, gay, lesbian, bisexual, unemployed, and having a lower education are associated with a higher number of ACEs.[63] Disabled adults in the United States experience more ACEs than other adults.[64] In contrast, first-generation immigrants have reported fewer ACEs compared to second-generation immigrants and native-born Americans, but their experiences and how they report them may differ based on the policies and history of the city or county where they live.[65,66]

The Community Health Statistics Unit in the County of San Diego's Health and Human Services Agency compiled a report based on data from the California Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System in 2015, 2017, and 2019.[67] (Details on how ACEs were defined and how these data were

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[59] Merrick, M. T., Ford, D. C., Ports, K. A., & Guinn, A. S. (2018). Prevalence of adverse childhood experiences from the 2011-2014 behavioral risk factor surveillance system in 23 states. *JAMA Pediatrics, 172*(11), 1038-1044.

[60] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2019). Preventing Adverse Childhood Experiences: Leveraging the Best Available Evidence. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

[61] Malvaso, C. G., Cale, J., Whitten, T., Day, A., Singh, S., Hackett, L., ... & Ross, S. (2022). Associations between adverse childhood experiences and trauma among young people who offend: A systematic literature review. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 23*(5), 1677-1694.

[62] Richards, T. N., Schwartz, J. A., & Wright, E. (2021). Examining adverse childhood experiences among Native American persons in a nationally representative sample: differences among racial/ethnic groups and race/ethnicity-sex dyads. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 111*, 104812.

[63] Merrick, M. T., Ford, D. C., Ports, K. A., & Guinn, A. S. (2018). Prevalence of adverse childhood experiences from the 2011-2014 behavioral risk factor surveillance system in 23 states. *JAMA Pediatrics, 172*(11), 1038-1044.

[64] Schüssler-Fiorenza Rose, S. M., Xie, D., & Stineman, M. (2014). Adverse childhood experiences and disability in U.S. adults. *PM&R, 6*(8), 670–680. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pmrj.2014.01.013

[65] Vaughn, M. G., Salas-Wright, C. P., Huang, J., Qian, Z., Terzis, L. D., & Helton, J. J. (2017). Adverse childhood experiences among immigrants to the United States. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 32*(10), 1543-1564.

[66] Barajas-Gonzalez, R. G., Ayón, C., Brabeck, K., Rojas-Flores, L., & Valdez, C. R. (2021). An ecological expansion of the adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) framework to include threat and deprivation associated with U.S. immigration policies and enforcement practices: An examination of the Latinx immigrant experience. *Social Science & Medicine, 282*, 114126.

[67] County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency, Public Health Services, Community Health Statistics Unit. (2022). Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) in San Diego County, 2015-2019. Retrieved from

collected are available in the cited report). Disaggregated ACE data by single year at the county level are not publicly available, so 2019 data could not be analyzed separately. Race and sex categories were available, but data were not available for disability status or whether the individual was an immigrant.

ACEs have a major impact on residents of San Diego County. In 2019, 63% of adults in San Diego County had experienced one or more ACEs before the age of 18.[68] The most common ACEs experienced were emotional abuse, parental separation or divorce, and physical abuse. Prevalence of ACEs varied by race/ethnicity and sex (Figure 4). The non-Hispanic Other racial group had the highest prevalence of one or more ACEs, followed by non-Hispanic White and Hispanic. Males reported a higher percentage of one or more ACEs than females.

To reduce ACEs and their subsequent effects, prevention efforts must be made at the local and family level. The County of San Diego's "ACEs in San Diego County" report highlighted prevention strategies to reduce the prevalence of ACEs and harm to public health.[69] Primary prevention strategies typically work towards a more secure and healthy home environment. These include improving financial support for families embedded in poorer communities, promoting family bonds, and providing access to high quality childcare, education, and healthcare.[70,71] Lastly, the report, as well as much of the research, notes the importance of being able to screen for or detect the presence of ACEs early and effectively.

In California, notable ACE-based initiatives have been launched to bring awareness to the topic and inspire positive change in diverse California communities. One such initiative is "The Story of Your Number" campaign, which has worked with San Diego communities to understand, detect, and reduce the toxic impact of ACEs on people and subsequent generations of families.[72,73] Since ACEs reflect a variety of experiences—and knowing the existence of one ACE often signals the presence of another—detection efforts can be crafted towards addressing

https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/dam/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/CHS/ACEs%20in%20San%20Diego%20County%20Brief.pdf

[68] Ibid.

[69] Ibid.

[70] Barajas-Gonzalez, R. G., Ayón, C., Brabeck, K., Rojas-Flores, L., & Valdez, C. R. (2021). An ecological expansion of the adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) framework to include threat and deprivation associated with US immigration policies and enforcement practices: An examination of the Latinx immigrant experience. *Social Science & Medicine, 282*, 114126.

[71] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2019). Preventing adverse childhood experiences: Leveraging the best available evidence. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

[72] NumberStory.org. (n.d.). The story of your number is the story of your ACE history. Retrieved November 13, 2022, from https://numberstory.org/

[73] San Diego State University Social Policy Institute. (n.d.). ACEs aware. Retrieved November 13, 2022, from https://sdsusocialpolicyinstitute.org/work/aces-aware/

specific community needs at the local level in San Diego (e.g., schools, economic programs for those in need). Because these experiences are often very personal and traumatic, future detection and intervention efforts should carefully safeguard respondent data.

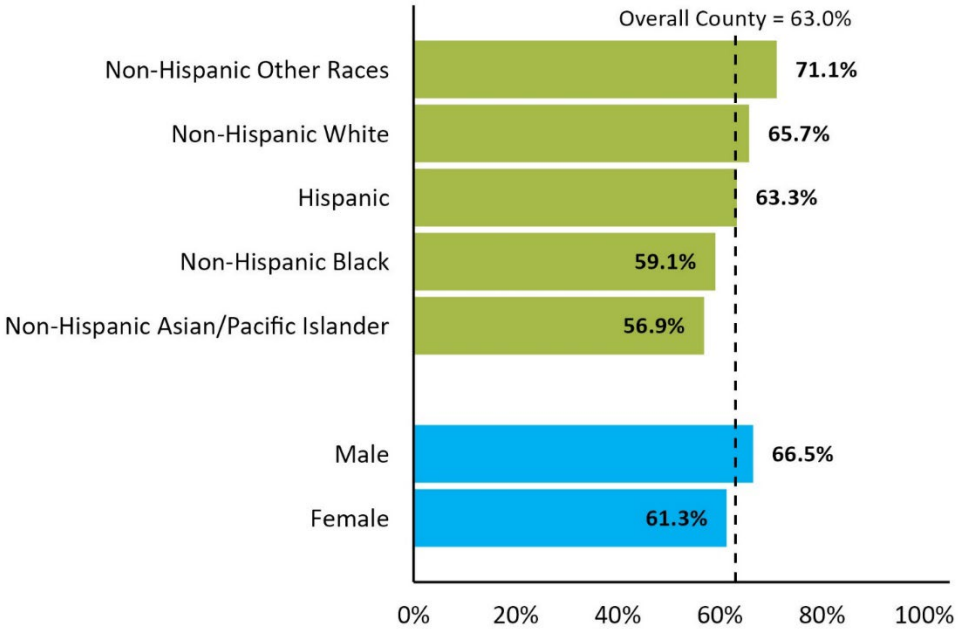
To that end, several relevant agencies signed a Memorandum of Understanding to cooperate and design trauma-informed services across child welfare, juvenile justice, education, developmental, and mental health children's services.[74] The San Diego County Office of Education has compiled resources for schools and educators[75] and the San Diego ACEs Connection gathers interested people within and outside of government around ACEs awareness and trauma-informed programs.[76]

[74] County of San Diego Health and Human Services, Child Welfare Services, Behavioral Health Services, San Diego County Probation Department, San Diego County Office of Education, Foster Services Coordinating Program, San Diego Regional Center, Voices for Children, Special Education Local Plan Area, & Tribal Nations. (n.d.). San Diego County Children and Youth System of Care Memorandum of Understanding. Retrieved May 4, 2023, from https://www.chhs.ca.gov/wp-content/uploads/2022/08/SAN-DIEGO-COUNTY-SYSTEM-OF-CARE-MOU-Executed-03.15.2021.pdf

[75] San Diego County Office of Education. (n.d.). Trauma-Sensitive Schools. Retrieved May 4, 2023, from https://www.sdcoe.net/students/health-well-being/trauma-sensitive-schools

[76] *Home | San Diego County ACEs Connection (CA) | PACEsConnection*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 2, 2023, from https://www.pacesconnection.com/g/san-diego-county-aces-connection-group

Figure 4: Percent of Adults With At Least One Adverse Childhood Experience, San Diego County, 2015-2019



Data Source: From Centers for Disease Control (CDC) and The Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) 2015, 2017, 2019. Prepared by the County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency. Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) in San Diego County. September 1, 2022.

Youth Poverty

Poverty remains a significant public health issue that affects millions of people living in the United States (see Poverty). In the U.S., youth living in poverty experience a wide range of negative outcomes across mental, physical, social, and cultural domains. Youth poverty, for example, has been linked to poor physical health such as low birth rates, growth stunting, malnutrition, frequent and severe chronic conditions (e.g., diabetes, asthma, and problems with hearing, vision, and speech), obesity, and morbidity.[77] Youth living in poverty are at an increased risk of experiencing mental health issues and cognitive challenges including Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), conduct disorders, depression, and mood and anxiety disorders.[78] Educational risks associated with youth poverty have included lower rates of academic achievement, such as lower tests scores, decreased reading proficiency, and dropping out of school.[79] Additional adverse experiences associated with youth poverty have included

[77] Brooks-Gunn, J., & Duncan, G. T. (1997). The effects of poverty on children. *The Future of Children, 7*(2), 55-71.

[78] Fry, C. E., Langley, K., & Shelton, K. H. (2017). A systematic review of cognitive functioning among young people who have experienced homelessness, foster care, or poverty. *Child Neuropsychology, 23*(8), 907-934.

[79] Engle, P. L., & Black, M. M. (2008). The effect of poverty on child development and educational outcomes. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1136*(1), 243-256.

increased exposure to violence, family turmoil, and separation from family.[80,81] Children and adolescents in low-income households have also experienced high housing mobility, homelessness, and food insecurities (see Food Insecurity). Finally, people who experience poverty when young are more likely to experience poverty as an adult.[82,83]

Definitions of poverty often relate to the inability to meet basics needs like food, clothing, and shelter based on monetary income. The most common measure of poverty in the U.S. is the Official Poverty Measure (OPM), which is calculated based on household income, age, the number of people living in each household, and the cost of living.[84] For example, the federal poverty threshold in 2021 for a single adult under the age of 65 years with no children was $14,097.[85]

Assessing information about poverty among youth is more complex because children are dependent on adult caretakers. In 2021, the U.S. Census Bureau reported the poverty threshold for a household comprised of an adult and two related children under the age of 18 years was $21,831.[86] Knowing the percentage of youth in poverty provides valuable information about how young people in the region compare to those across the nation. The federal poverty threshold is limited, however, in that it is not adjusted for the local cost of living which is higher than the national average. For more information about how families are faring considering local conditions, see Self-Sufficiency Wage.

Approximately 17% of youth in the United States were classified as living in poverty in 2021.[87] Children of color were especially at risk in 2021, as 31% of Black children, 23% of Hispanic

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[80] Halfon, N., Larson, K., Son, J., Lu, M., & Bethell, C. (2017). Income inequality and the differential effect of adverse childhood experiences in U.S. children. *Academic Pediatrics, 17*(7), s70-s78.

[81] Pascoe, J. M., Wood, D. L., Duffee, J. H., & Kuo, A. (2016). Mediators and adverse effects of child poverty in the United States. *Pediatrics, 137*(4), e1-e17.

[82] McCarty, A. T. (2016). Child poverty in the United States: A tale of devastation and the promise of hope. *Sociology Compass, 10*(7), 623-639.

[83] Moore, K. A., Redd, Z., Burkhauser, M., Mbwana, K., & Collins, A. (2002). Children in poverty: Trends, Definitions of poverty often relate to the inability to meet basics needs like food, clothing, and shelter based on monetary income. The most common measure of poverty in the U.S. is the Official Poverty Measure (OPM), which is calculated based on household income, age, the number of people living in each household and the cost of living.[83] In 2020, for example, the federal poverty level for a single adult under the age of 65 years with no children was $14,248.55.

[84] Poverty Solutions at the University of Michigan. (n.d.). Poverty Facts. Retrieved November 10, 2022, from https://poverty.umich.edu/research-funding-opportunities/key-issues/poverty-facts/

[85] U.S. Census Bureau. (2022). Poverty Thresholds. Retrieved November 10, 2022, from https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/historical-poverty-thresholds.html.

[86] Ibid.

[87] The Annie E Casey Foundation. (2021). Children in poverty by race and ethnicity | KIDS COUNT Data Center. Retrieved August 1, 2023. https://datacenter.aecf.org/data/tables/44-children-in-poverty-by-race-and-ethnicity.

children, and 28% of American Indian/Alaska Native children experienced poverty compared to 11% of White children. Youth poverty for girls and boys under the age of 18 in the U.S. was similarly distributed (17%).[88] Previous research indicates that immigrant children were also disproportionately affected by poverty compared to children whose parents were born in the U.S.[89]

The data presented above describe youth living in poverty at 100% of the poverty threshold. For this report, ACS data were used to calculate the percentage of people under the age of 18 who were living in households with incomes that were below 200% of the federal poverty level since it is a better indicator of economic hardship (Table 3 and Figure 5). In 2021, the percent of youth below 200% of the federal poverty level in San Diego County, 31.9%, was higher than the percent in San Diego County overall below 200% of the federal poverty level, 25.3%. This is consistent with national trends,[90] and is likely because children usually do not bring in income, but more children in a household increase that household's costs. Higher percentages of Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander youth were living below 200% of the federal poverty level compared to county youth overall. Youth with a reported disability and immigrants were also more likely to be below 200% of the federal poverty level than county youth overall.

[88] Statistica. (2022). Poverty Rate in the United States in 2021, by Age and Gender. Retrieved November 10, 2022 from https://www.statista.com/statistics/233154/us-poverty-rate-by-gender/.

[89] McCarty, A. T. (2016). Child poverty in the United States: A tale of devastation and the promise of hope. *Sociology Compass, 10*(7), 623-639.

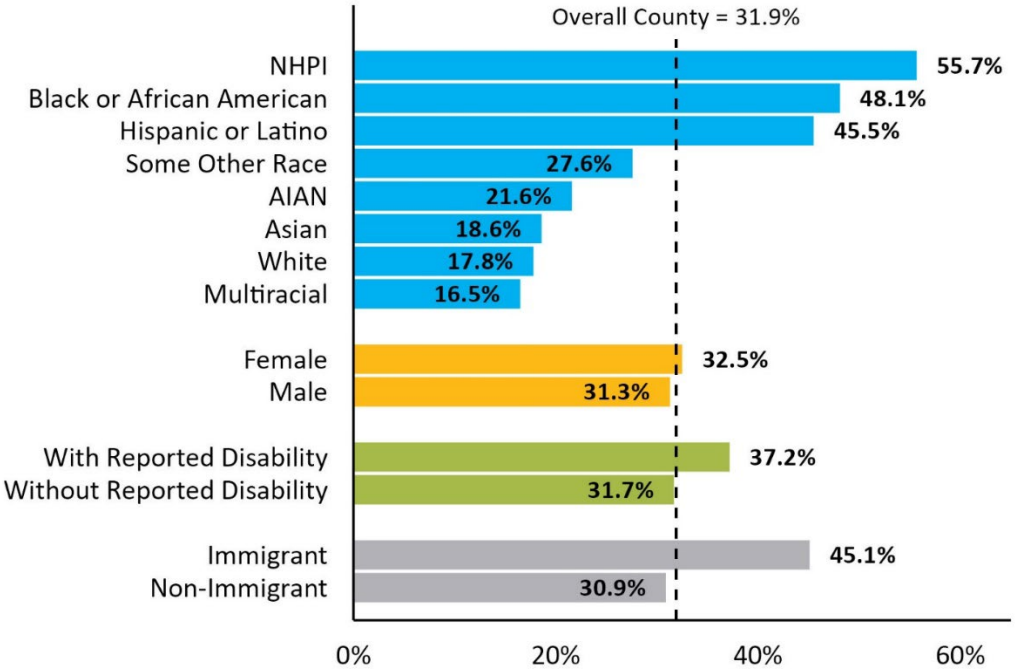
[90] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). Poverty Rate of Children Higher Than National Rate, Lower for Older Populations. Retrieved February 28, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2022/10/poverty-rate-varies-by-age-groups.html

Table 3: Number and Percent of Youth Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level, San Diego County, 2021

	Overall Ages <18	Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level			
		Not In Poverty		In Poverty	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	1,547	1,213	78.4%	334	21.6%
Asian	62,981	51,268	81.4%	11,713	18.6%
Black or African American	28,970	15,026	51.9%	13,944	48.1%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	326,753	178,008	54.5%	148,745	45.5%
NHPI	1,249	553	44.3%	696	55.7%
White	224,434	184,566	82.2%	39,868	17.8%
Multiracial	59,335	49,541	83.5%	9,794	16.5%
Some Other Race	3,079	2,230	72.4%	849	27.6%
Sex					
Female	345,631	233,268	67.5%	112,363	32.5%
Male	362,717	249,137	68.7%	113,580	31.3%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	24,142	15,155	62.8%	8,987	37.2%
Without Reported Disability	684,206	467,250	68.3%	216,956	31.7%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	48,353	26,553	54.9%	21,800	45.1%
Non-Immigrant	659,995	455,852	69.1%	204,143	30.9%
Total	708,348	482,405	68.1%	225,943	31.9%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Includes people where a poverty status can be determined. Poverty status cannot be determined for people in institutional group quarters (such as prisons or nursing homes), college dormitories, military barracks, and living situations without conventional housing (and who are not in shelters). Additionally, poverty status cannot be determined for unrelated people under age 15 (such as foster children) because income questions are asked of people age 15 and older and, if someone is under age 15 and not living with a family member, their income is unknown.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 5: Percent of Youth Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Education

Education can prepare children for rewarding careers, long-term financial security, good citizenship, and a life of learning. It is commonly referred to as the great equalizer with the promise of upward social mobility and equal education was declared a right by the Supreme Court in 1964 in *the Brown v. Board of Education* case.[91,92] Although education has the promise of equalizing, inequity in public education threatens this promise. Ensuring equity is important as education influences a host of other social spheres. To understand educational equity, this report presents data on school enrollment of 3-and 4-year-olds, public school students' proficiency in math and language arts, English language learners/multilingual students English language proficiency, (ELL), suspensions, and high school graduation.

3- and 4-Year-Olds Enrolled in School

Early childhood education can support children's social development, academic growth, and parents' employment opportunities. Expanding preschool access is seen as one way to bridge educational and opportunity gaps that emerge among children before they reach kindergarten, including differences by gender, number of parents in the household, socio-economic status, and race.[93,94] Currently, neither preschool nor kindergarten are mandatory in California and children may not enter kindergarten until five years of age. [95]

High-quality early childhood education may support improved educational attainment and adult earnings[96] and even have effects on those children's children and non-participating siblings.[97] Other studies demonstrate that pre-kindergarten, Head Start, and similar programs show a greater benefit for children with low cognitive test scores as toddlers, parents with a high school

[91] Growe, R. & Montgomery, P.S. (2003). Educational Equity in America: Is Education the Great Equalizer? *Professional Educator* 25(2)23-29.

[92] Thompson, D.L. & Thompson, S. (2018). Educational Equity and Quality in K-12 Schools: Meeting the Needs of All Students. *Journal for the Advancement of Educational Research International*. 12(1)34-46.

[93] National Center for Education Statistics. (n.d.). Preschool: First Findings From the Third Follow-up of the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B). Retrieved October 31, 2022, from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2008/preschool3/findings.asp

[94] Wang, A. (2008). A Pre-Kindergarten Achievement Gap? Scope and Implications. *U.S. China Education Review*, 5(9), 23-31.

[95] CA Dept of Education. (n.d.). Kindergarten Frequently Asked Questions—Elementary. Retrieved March 2, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/gs/em/kindergartenfaq.asp

[96] Campbell, F. A., Ramey, C. T., Pungello, E., Sparling, J., & Miller-Johnson, S. (2002). Early childhood education: Young adult outcomes from the Abecedarian Project. *Applied Developmental Science, 6*(1), 42–57. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532480XADS0601_05

[97] Heckman, J. J., & Karapakula, G. (2019). Intergenerational and intragenerational externalities of the Perry Preschool Project (NBER Working Paper Series). National Bureau of Economic Research. https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w25889/w25889.pdf

diploma or lower education, single parents, children living in poverty, and more.[98,99] Early care and education may help sustain healthier, wealthier families by giving parents more time to work, which may also increase students' educational opportunities down the road.[100]

Due to the benefits of early education, this report measures the proportion of 3- and 4-year-olds enrolled in school. This is calculated by using the proportion of 3- and 4-year-olds whose head of household reported to the ACS that the children had attended school at any time in the last three months. The question text in the ACS specifically notes that the term "school" includes "nursery" and "preschool", although respondents may include prekindergarten, transitional kindergarten, and other similar programs.[101,102]

In 2021 in San Diego County, 46.7% of 3- and 4-year-olds in San Diego County were enrolled in school (Table 4 and Figure 6). This represents a decline from 2020, when 49.4% of San Diego County 3- and 4-year-olds were enrolled in school. [103] There were large gaps in school enrollment by race/ethnicity and immigrant status in 2021. Over half of White and Multiracial children were enrolled in school, which was higher than the percentages of all other racial groups, except for Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander children (73.7%). Among immigrants, the enrollment percentage was higher compared to non-immigrants. The percentage of 3- and 4-year-olds enrolled in school with a reported disability was higher compared to those without a reported disability. Enrollment rates by ZCTA are shown in Figure 7.

The State of California passed Assembly Bill (AB) 130 in 2021 to expand access to early education programs and make other programmatic and budget changes related to education. This bill requires that every local education agency that offer kindergarten must also offer free transitional kindergarten (full day or partial day) by the 2025-2026 school year to all students that will turn 4 years of age by September 1. Referred to as Universal Transitional Kindergarten, the program is intended to ensure all 4-year-olds regardless of income, race/ethnicity, location, and background have access to education programs before kindergarten. AB 130 also established the California Prekindergarten Planning and Implementation Grant Program to

[98] Lee, R., Zhai, F., Brooks-Gunn, J., Han, W.-J., & Waldfogel, J. (2014). Head Start participation and school readiness: Evidence from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study-Birth Cohort December 10, 2012. *Developmental Psychology, 50*(1), 202–215. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032280

[99] Magnuson, K. A., Meyers, M. K., Ruhm, C. J., & Waldfogel, J. (2004). Inequality in preschool education and school readiness. *American Educational Research Journal, 41*(1), 115–157. https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312041001115

[100] Morrissey, T.W. & Warner, M.E. (2007). Why Early Care and Education Deserves as Much Attention, or More, than Prekindergarten Alone. *Applied Development Science*.11(2):57-70.

[101] Sample ACS & PRCS Forms and Instructions. (2022) Retrieved September 19, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/about/forms-and-instructions.2021.html#list-tab-9466845

[102] Universal Prekindergarten FAQS. (n.d) California Department of Education. Retrieved September 19, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/gs/em/kinderfaq.asp

[103] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). S1401 – School Enrollment. Retrieved from https://data.census.gov/table?q=S1401&g=050XX00US06073&tid=ACSST5Y2020.S1401

provide funding for educational agencies that need assistance with establishing or expanding preschool or prekindergarten programs.[104, 105]

Table 4: Number and Percent of 3- and 4-Year-Olds Enrolled in School, San Diego County, 2021

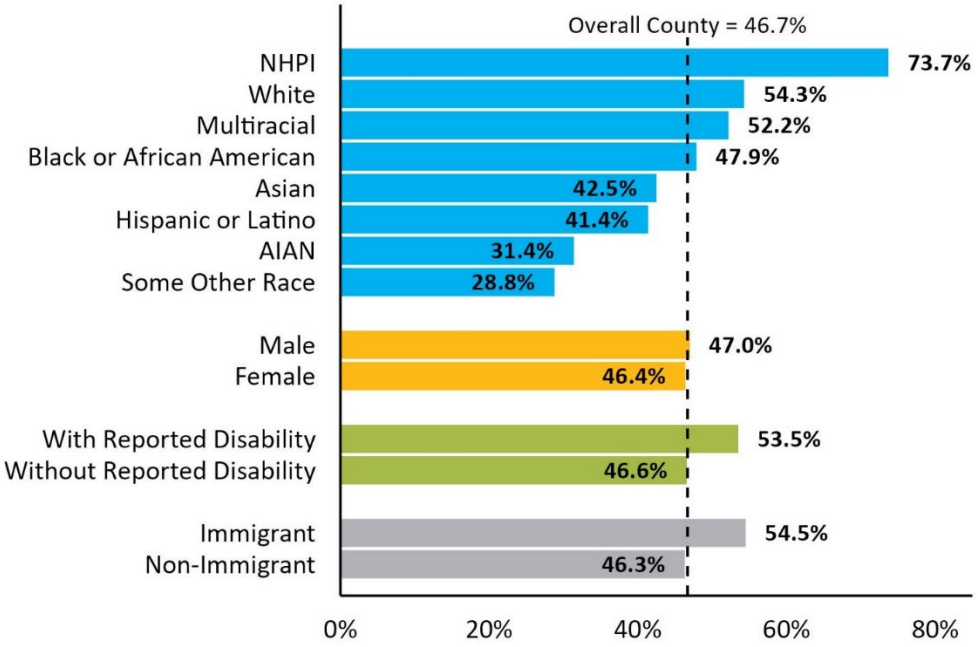
	Overall, Ages 3 to 4	School			
		Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	236	162	68.6%	74	31.4%
Asian	6,525	3,750	57.5%	2,775	42.5%
Black or African American	2,839	1,478	52.1%	1,361	47.9%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	39,131	22,941	58.6%	16,190	41.4%
NHPI	171	45	26.3%	126	73.7%
White	26,108	11,944	45.7%	14,164	54.3%
Multiracial	6,715	3,208	47.8%	3,507	52.2%
Some Other Race	271	193	71.2%	78	28.8%
Sex					
Female	41,169	22,066	53.6%	19,103	46.4%
Male	40,827	21,655	53.0%	19,172	47.0%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	402	187	46.5%	215	53.5%
Without Reported Disability	81,594	43,534	53.4%	38,060	46.6%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	3,859	1,756	45.5%	2,103	54.5%
Non-Immigrant	78,137	41,965	53.7%	36,172	46.3%
Total	81,996	43,721	53.3%	38,275	46.7%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

[104] Universal Prekindergarten FAQS. (n.d) California Department of Education. Retrieved September 19, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/gs/em/kinderfaq.asp

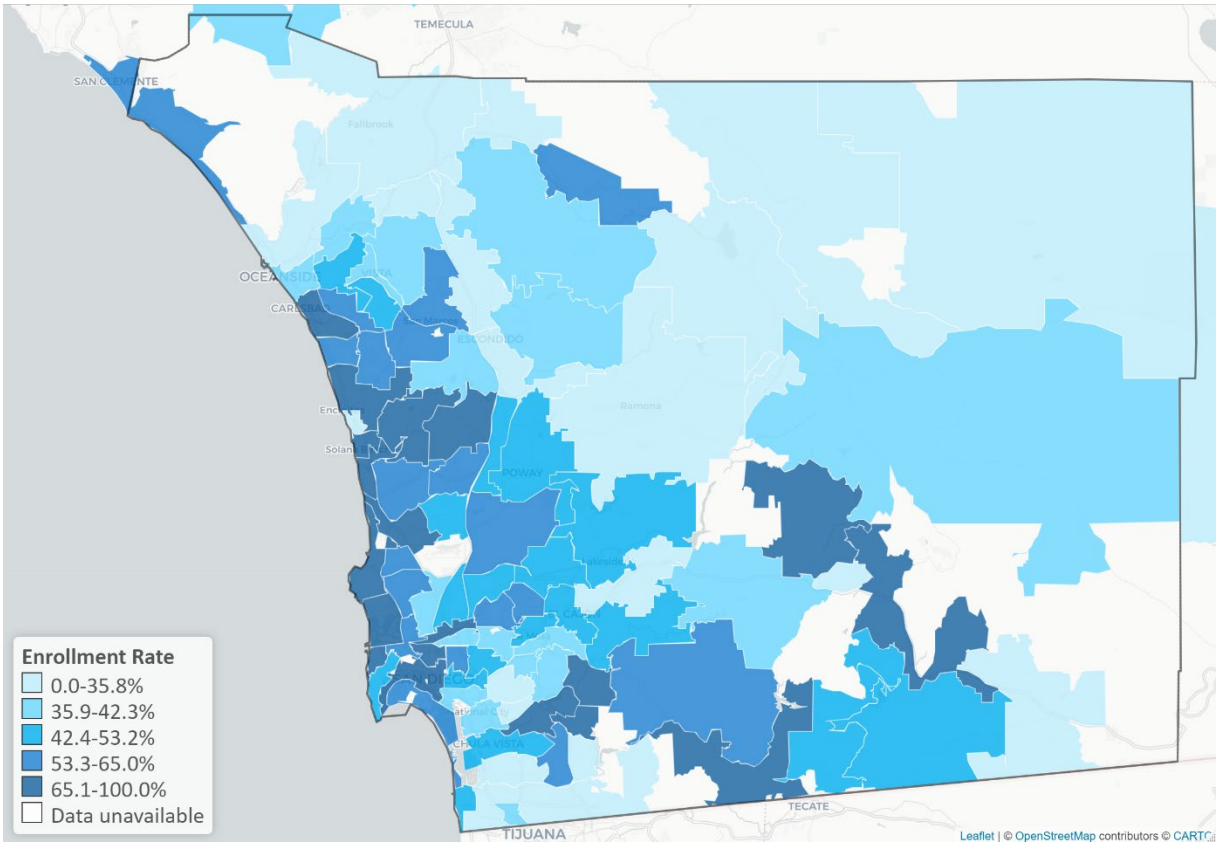
[105] AB-130 Education Finance: Education Omnibus Budget Trailer Bill. (July 12 2021). California Legislative Information. Retrieved from, https://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billTextClient.xhtml?bill_id=202120220AB130

Figure 6: Percent of 3- and 4-Year-Olds Enrolled in School, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 7: Percent of 3- and 4-Year-Olds Enrolled in School by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table S1401.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Standardized Assessment Performance

Achievement gaps across sociodemographic lines such as race/ethnicity and parental income begin as early as kindergarten and follow students throughout their education.[106] Students from low-income families are more likely to have poor nutrition[107], inconsistent healthcare access[108],

[106] Reardon S.F., Robinson-Cimpian J.P., & Weathers, E.S.(2008). Patterns and trends in racial/ethnic achievement gaps and socioeconomic academic achievement gap.Handbook of Research in Education Finance and Policy.497-516. New York, NY: Routledge.

[107] Nelson, M. (2000). Childhood nutrition and poverty. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, *59*(2), 307–315. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0029665100000343

[108] Lazar, M., & Davenport, L. (2018). Barriers to health care access for low income families: A review of literature. *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, *35*(1), 28–37. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370016.2018.1404832

higher exposure to pollution[109], and more consistent stress.[110] These factors may harm brain development[111] and/or distract students from their education.[112] Parents who work inconsistent or long work schedules (a pattern common among those with multiple part-time jobs, temporary jobs, "gig economy" jobs, or other precarious work arrangements) may not be available to read with their children, help with homework, attend school functions, or do other activities that support their children's learning.[113] Parents who have limited English or mathematics skills themselves may struggle to support their children's academic performance in these subjects, even if they do have the time. Although standardized testing has received a large amount of criticism from students, educators, and administrators, it remains a fundamental part of the education system within the U.S.[114]

The California Department of Education reports standardized test scores for students across the state in English Language Arts and Mathematics in grades three through eight and grade eleven through the Smarter Balanced Summative Assessment.[115] Students with severe cognitive disabilities and English language learners within their first 12 months of attending school in the United States are excluded from these assessments.[116] Figure 8 and Figure 9 present the percentage of San Diego County students who were tested and met or exceeded grade level standard on the Smarter Balanced Summative Assessment for English Language Arts and Mathematics by disability status, race/ethnicity, economic status, and sex for the 2021-2022 school year. Students reported as "economically disadvantaged" met at least one of seven criteria including: neither of student's parents received a high school diploma, eligible for free or reduced lunch, eligible for or participated in the Title 1 Part C Migrant program, considered

[109] Grineski, S., Bolin, B., & Boone, C. (2007). Criteria air pollution and marginalized populations: Environmental inequity in metropolitan Phoenix, Arizona. *Social Science Quarterly*, *88*(2), 535–554. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6237.2007.00470.x

[110] Ridge, T. (2011). The Everyday costs of poverty in childhood: A review of qualitative research exploring the lives and experiences of low-income children in the UK. *Children & Society*, *25*(1), 73–84.

[111] Shonkoff, J. P., Phillips, D. A., & National Research Council (U.S.) (Eds.). (2000). From neurons to neighborhoods: The science of early child development. National Academy Press.

[112] Engle, P. L., & Black, M. M. (2008). The effect of poverty on child development and educational outcomes. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *1136*(1), 243–256. https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1425.023

[113] Barnes, M., Bryson, C., & Maisey, R. (2006). *Working atypical hours: What happens to "family life"?* National Centre for Social Research.

[114] Hutt, E. L. & Schneider, J. (2018). A History of Achievement Testing in the United States Or: Explaining the Persistence of Inadequacy. *Teachers College Record* 120(11):1-34.

[115] CA Dept of Education. (n.d.). 2021–22 Smarter Balanced ELA and Mathematics Test Results at a Glance—CAASPP Reporting. Retrieved March 3, 2023, from https://caaspp-elpac.ets.org/caaspp/DashViewReportSB?ps=true&lstTestYear=2022&lstTestType=B&lstGroup=1&lstSubGroup=1&lstGrade=13&lstSchoolType=A&lstCounty=37&lstDistrict=00000&lstSchool=0000000

[116] CAASPP Description – CalEDFacts (n.d) Retrieved August 2, 2023 from, CAASPP Description - CalEdFacts (CA Dept of Education)

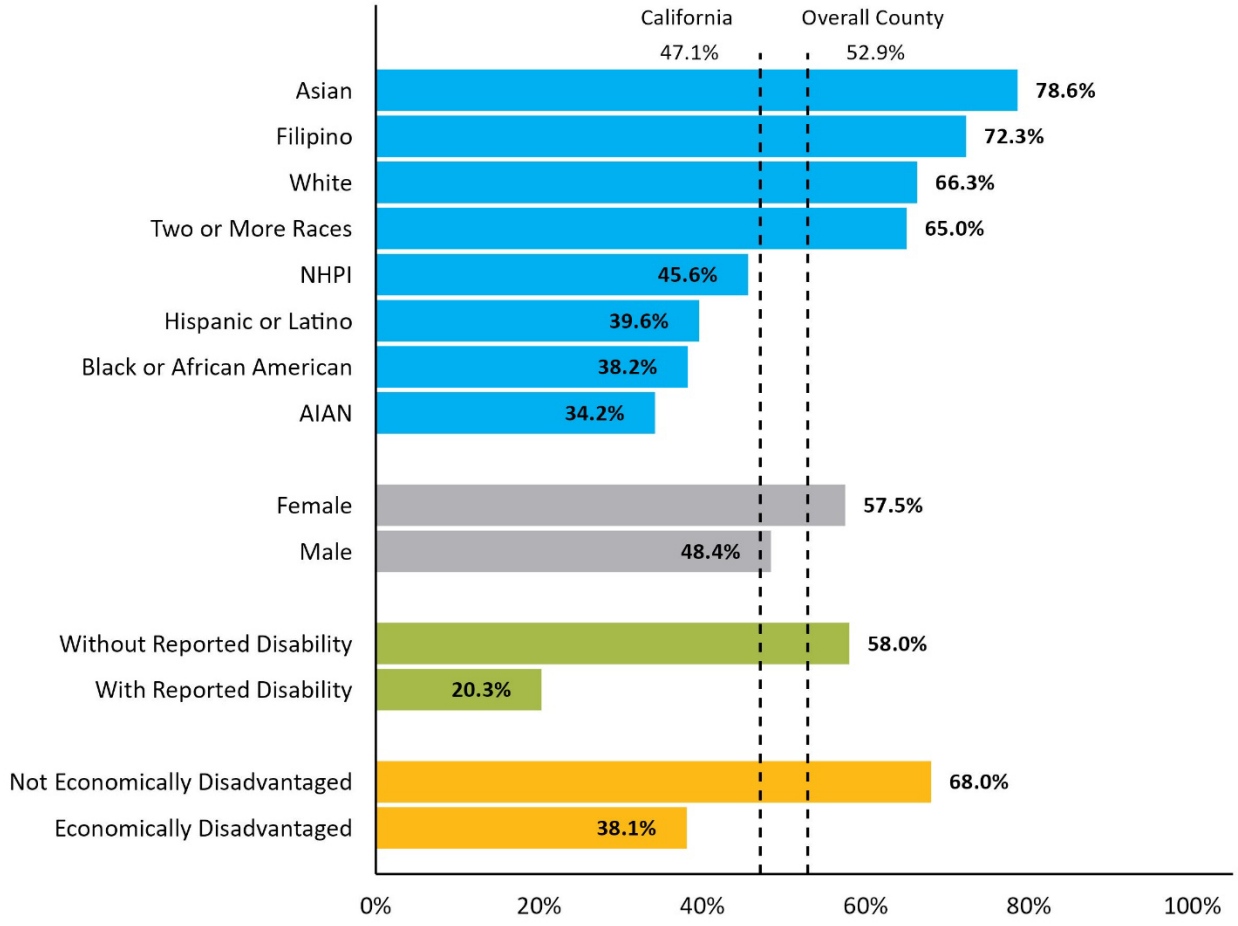
homeless, eligible for foster program, enrolled in a Juvenile Course School, or eligible as Tribal Foster Youth.[117]

Displayed in Figure 8, about 53% of students in San Diego County met or exceeded grade level standard in English Language Arts in the school year 2021-2022. Asian, Filipino, White students and students who identified as two or more races met or exceeded grade level beyond the overall county. Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, and Hispanic or Latino students were about half as likely to meet or exceed grade level standard compared to White students and students who identified as Two or More Races. About 58% of female students met or exceeded grade level standard compared to male students at 48%. Students with a reported disability were three times less likely to meet or exceed grade level standard than students without a reported disability and economically disadvantaged students were two times less likely to meet or exceed grade level standard than students who were not economically disadvantaged.

Similar patterns emerged across Math assessment scores presented in Figure 9. Overall, the percentage of students in San Diego County that met or exceeded grade level standard for Math was less than English Language Arts at 39%. The percentage of Asian, Filipino, and White students and students who identified as Two or More Races surpassed the overall county percentage. Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, and American Indian or Alaska Native students were over two times less likely to meet or exceed grade level standard in Math than White and Filipino students and about three times less likely than Asian students. While female students outperformed their male counterparts in English Language Arts, male students met or exceeded grade level standard in Math more often than female students (41% and 37%, respectively). About 15% of students with a reported disability met or exceeded grade level standard, while almost three times (43%) as many students without a reported disability met or exceeded grade level standard. Economically disadvantaged students were almost two times less likely to meet grade level standard than students who were not economically disadvantaged.

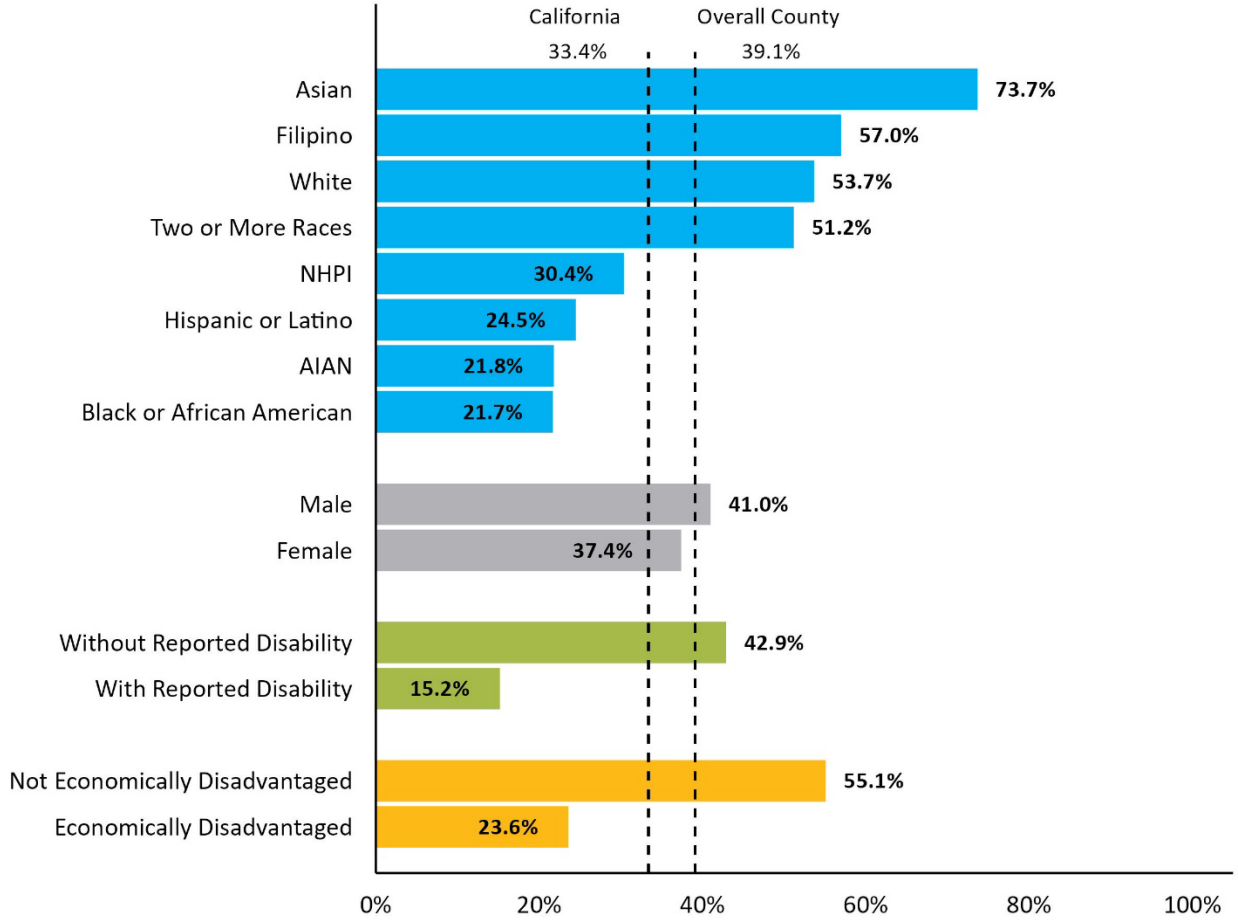
[117] California Department of Education: CALPADS. (n.d.). *Socio-Economically Disadvantaged Subgroup*. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://documentation.calpads.org/Glossary/AccountabilitySubgroupData/Socio-EconomicallyDisadvantagedSubgroup/

Figure 8: Percent of Students that Met or Exceeded Grade-level Standard for English Language Arts (N= 238,896), San Diego County, Academic Year 2021-2022



Data source: California Department of Education, Academic Year 2021-2022.
AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 9: Percent of Students that Met or Exceeded Grade-level Standard for Mathematics (N=239,342), San Diego County, Academic Year 2021-2022



Data source: California Department of Education, Academic Year 2021-2022.
AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

English Language Learners

The San Diego County region has a relatively high proportion of residents who speak a language other than English in the home compared to the rest of the country, due to the diversity of the population, the shared border with Mexico, and San Diego County being one of the top refugee resettlement destinations in California.[118] Moreover, English Language Learners (ELL) or multilingual students are one of the fastest growing subgroups in the U.S. education system.[119]

[118] California Immigrant Data Portal. (n.d.). Refugee Arrivals. Retrieved October 12, 2022, from https://immigrantdataca.org/indicators/refugee-arrivals#/?geo=04000000000006073

[119] Mavrogordato, M. & White, R.S. (2020) Leveraging Policy Implementation for Social Justice: How School Leaders Shape Educational Opportunity When Implementing Policy for English Learners. *Educational Administration Quarterly.* 56(1):3-45.

This population of students often faces high rates of school segregation and linguistic isolation.[120]

Learning English supports academic achievement, reduces social isolation, and opens future employment opportunities for students in the U.S.[121] Federal law, State law, and judicial precedent require schools to support students who are not fluent in English by giving them equal access to a high-quality education while they learn English.[122] These policies acknowledge the importance of ELL instruction to be equitable, without preventing multilingual students from taking courses that their peers are granted access to.[123]

Learning English may be more challenging for students who do not have close relationships with English-fluent peers or adults, and for disabled students. Educators, parents, advocates, and others can help these students by connecting them with mentors and ensuring that they have materials that do not rely on the student being able to solely perceive or process auditory, visual, or verbal information to learn. Further, culturally responsive and dual-immersion courses have been shown to be beneficial for multilingual students in the long run.[124]

In San Diego County public schools, Spanish was the primary language spoken by ELL students in the 2021-2022 school year with about 80% of ELL students who spoke it, followed by Arabic, Chaldean, Vietnamese, and Tagalog/Pilipino.[125]

[120] Garanda, P. & Orfield, G. (2010). A Return to the "Mexican Room": The Segregation of Arizona's English Learners. *UCLA: The Civil Rights Project/Proyecto Derechos Civiles.* Retrieved from https://escholarship.org/uc/item/7m67q3b9

[121] Ibid.

[122] Schools' Civil Rights Obligations to English Learner Students and Limited English Proficient Parents. (2020, February 10). [Laws; Educational Resources]. https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/ellresources.html

[123] Garanda, P. & Orfield, G. (2010). A Return to the "Mexican Room": The Segregation of Arizona's English Learners. *UCLA: The Civil Rights Project/Proyecto Derechos Civiles.* Retrieved from https://escholarship.org/uc/item/7m67q3b9

[124] Umansky, I.M. & Reardon, S.F. (2014) Reclassification Patterns Among Latino English Learner Students in Bilingual, Dual Immersion, and English Immersion Classrooms. *American Educational Research Journal* 54:879-912.

[125] CA Dept of Education. (n.d.). English Learner Students by Language by Grade—DataQuest. Retrieved January 4, 2023, from https://data1.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/SpringData/StudentsByLanguage.aspx?Level=County&TheYear=2021-22&SubGroup=All&ShortYear=2122&GenderGroup=B&CDSCode=37000000000000&RecordType=EL

In line with California guidelines, the San Diego County Office of Education collects data on the number of students in each level of the English Language Proficiency Assessments for California (ELPAC) Performance Level Descriptors (PLDs) and the number of students who changed levels. The PLDs are as follows[126]:

1. Minimally developed listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills in English, needs substantial to moderate linguistic support to communicate in familiar contexts and substantial support in less familiar contexts.
2. Somewhat developed listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills in English, needs moderate to light linguistic support to communicate in familiar contexts and substantial to moderate support in less familiar contexts.
3. Moderately developed listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills in English, needs light to minimal linguistic support to communicate in familiar contexts and moderate to light support in less familiar contexts.
4. Well-developed listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills in English, needs occasional support to communicate in familiar contexts and light support in less familiar contexts.

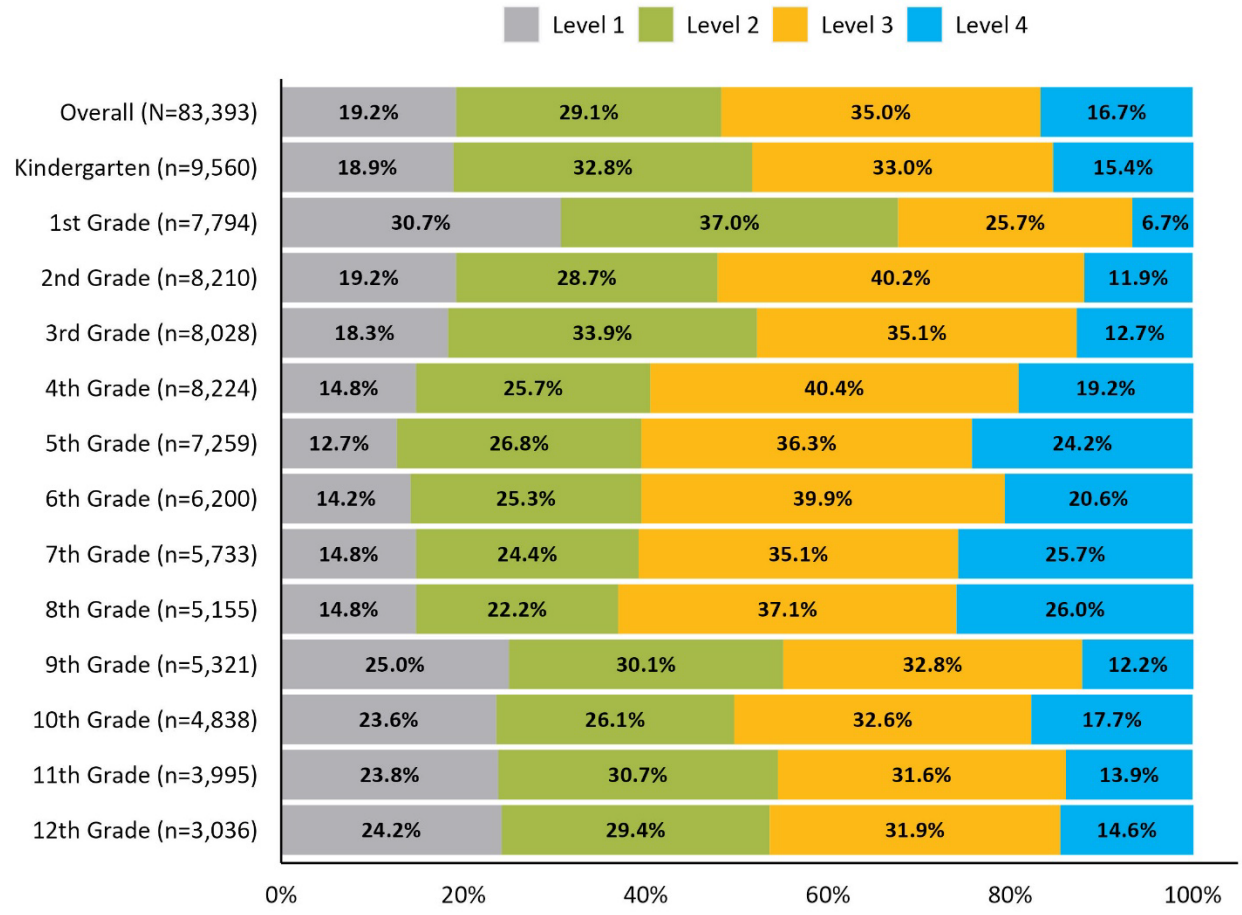
As shown in Figure 10, in the 2021-2022 school year, about 83,000 San Diego multilingual students were tested for their English proficiency. Nearly 17% of those students tested into the highest level of proficiency. Proficiency levels varied across grade level, but generally the greatest proportion of multilingual students tested into Level 3 proficiency. Both early elementary and high school grades tended to have the lowest proportion of students who tested into Level 4 proficiency, with only about 15% of students who tested into Level 4 in the 12th grade. The data in this report show proficiency at a single point in time. Multilingual students may enter the school system at any grade level or proficiency level throughout the year; thus, these data do not reflect individual improvement and the relative proportions may not change much year to year. The San Diego County Office of Education's Equity Blueprint for Action highlights multilingual students as an important demographic of student to provide equity to and suggests districts eliminate tracking (the practice of assigning students to hierarchically separated classrooms with differentiated coursework)[127], establish strengths-based belief systems that use rhetoric such as multilingual as opposed to English learner, ensure both designated and integrated English language development, and implement California's new English Learner Roadmap. [128]

[126] Understanding Summative ELPAC. Caaspp-elpac.ets.org. Accessed July 24, 2023. Understanding Summative ELPAC Summary Reports - ELPAC Reporting (CA Dept of Education) (ets.org)

[127] Umansky, I. (2016). Leveled an Exclusionary Tracking: English Learners Access to Academic Content in Middle School. American Educational Research Journal 53(6) 1792-1833. DOI: 10.3102/0002831216675404

[128] Equity Blueprint for Action (2021). San Diego County of Office of Education. Retrieved from, Equity Blueprint (finalsite.net)

Figure 10: English Language Learners Performance Level Descriptors by Grade, San Diego County, Academic Year 2021-2022



Data Source: California Department of Education, Academic Year 2021-2022.

Suspensions

When students exhibit behavioral problems and do not respond to other forms of discipline, schools can resort to exclusionary discipline—namely suspensions, where students are temporarily excluded from the classroom, and expulsions, where students are required to leave a school altogether.

In California, students can be suspended or expelled only for certain behaviors, following the regulations set by California Education Code 48900-48927.[129] For some categories of behavior, punishment is subject to administrator discretion based on the student's past behavior, the feasibility of other options for punishment, and administrators' predictions of future behavior (i.e., whether the administrator perceives that the student "causes a continuing danger" to

[129] Education Code, 48900-48927. (n.d) California Legislative Information. Retrieved April 10, 2023, from https://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/codes_displaySection.xhtml?lawCode=EDC&sectionNum=48900.

themselves or others).[130] This kind of discretion allows for administrators to select alternate, less harmful types of punishment, consider extenuating circumstances, and otherwise try to help students who are subject to school discipline. However, if that discretion is applied differently across students, it also opens the door for discrimination and disparate impact.

Although exclusionary discipline works to quickly limit the impact of a misbehaving student on their classmates, it can inadvertently be harmful to the student. Suspension and expulsion remove the student from the learning environment and associated support structures, do not address the cause of the behavior, may aggravate problem behaviors, and are associated with juvenile justice involvement.[131] Studies and local data are consistent that students of color, particularly Black students, students with disabilities, male students, LGBTQ+ youth, foster youth, migrants, homeless youth, English learners, other marginalized groups, and the intersections of those populations are disproportionately subject to exclusionary discipline.[132, 133, 134, 135, 136]

The California Department of Education released State Guidance for New Laws on Discipline in August 2021 that aims to reduce negative consequences of exclusionary practices by informing educators of new laws that encourage alternatives to suspension and support school environments that are beneficial for all. Other recent state legislation prohibits suspension for willful defiance or disruption for students in kindergarten through eighth grade[137] and requires schools to provide students with homework upon request when they are suspended for two or

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[130] *Administrator Recommendation of Expulsion Matrix.* (n.d.) California Department of Education. Retrieved September 19, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ls/ss/se/expulsionrecomm.asp

[131] Gerlinger, J., Viano, S., Gardella, J. H., Fisher, B. W., Chris Curran, F., & Higgins, E. M. (2021). Exclusionary school discipline and delinquent outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 50*(8), 1493–1509. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-021-01459-3

[132] Office of Justice Programs. (n.d.). Breaking Schools' Rules: A Statewide Study of How School Discipline Relates to Students' Success and Juvenile Justice Involvement. Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://www.ojp.gov/ncjrs/virtual-library/abstracts/breaking-schools-rules-statewide-study-how-school-discipline

[133] de Brey, C., Musu, L., McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Branstetter, C., & Wang, X. (2018). Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups 2018. 228.

[134]Snapp, S.D., Day, J. K., & Russell, S.T. (2022) School Pushout: The Role of Supportive Strategies Versus Punitive Practices for LGBT Youth of Color *J Res Adolesc*.32(4):1470-1483.

[135] Wood, J. L., Harris III, F., Howard, T.C., Qas, M., Essien, I., & King T. (2021) Suspending Our Future: How Inequitable Disciplinary Practices Disenfranchise Black Kids in California's Public Schools. *Black Minds Project*, retrieved, https://bmmcoalition.com/suspendingourfuture/

[136] Discipline Data. (n.d) California Department of Education. Retrieved September 20, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/ad/distop.asp

[137] Bill Text—SB-419 Pupil discipline: Suspensions: Willful defiance. (2019). Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billNavClient.xhtml?bill_id=201920200SB419

more school days.[138] The 2021 guidance encourages schools to use suspension as a last resort, provide support for correcting behavior in lieu of suspension, reduce or eliminate the use of suspension against students who are absent or late, and implement restorative justice and trauma-informed practices.[139] Some of these practices were already being utilized locally. In 2020, San Diego Unified School District implemented a restorative discipline policy aimed at encouraging pro-social behavior among students, reducing disparate impacts of discipline policies by race, and increasing awareness of ways that behaviors can be influenced by trauma, disability, and cultural differences.[140]

It may be difficult to evaluate the impact of these state and local changes due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, which resulted in physical school closures starting in February/March 2020 and widespread distance learning in the following academic years.[141] Caution should be exercised when comparing discipline data across recent academic years.

In total, there were 184 students expelled in San Diego County during the 2021-2022 school year. Due to small numbers, expulsion data disaggregated by race and ethnicity are not included in this report but are available through the California Department of Education.[142] There were 13,103 total students suspended in San Diego County during the 2021-2022 school year; suspensions by race and ethnicity are shown in Figure 11.[143] In the 2021-2022 school year, African American, Hispanic or Latino, American Indian or Alaska Native, and Pacific Islander students were overrepresented in the percentage of students suspended compared to their total enrollment. African American students made up 4.3% of total enrolled students and 8.8% of suspensions; Hispanic or Latino students made up 49% of total enrolled students and 59.7% of suspensions; American Indian or Alaska Native made up 0.5% of total enrolled students and 1% of suspensions; and Pacific Islander students made up 0.4% of all enrolled students and 0.5% of suspensions.

[138] Bill Text—AB-982 Pupils: Homework assignments for suspended pupils. (2019). Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billTextClient.xhtml?bill_id=201920200AB982

[139] CA Dept of Education. (n.d.). State Guidance for New Laws on Discipline—Letters. Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/nr/el/le/yr21ltr0819.asp

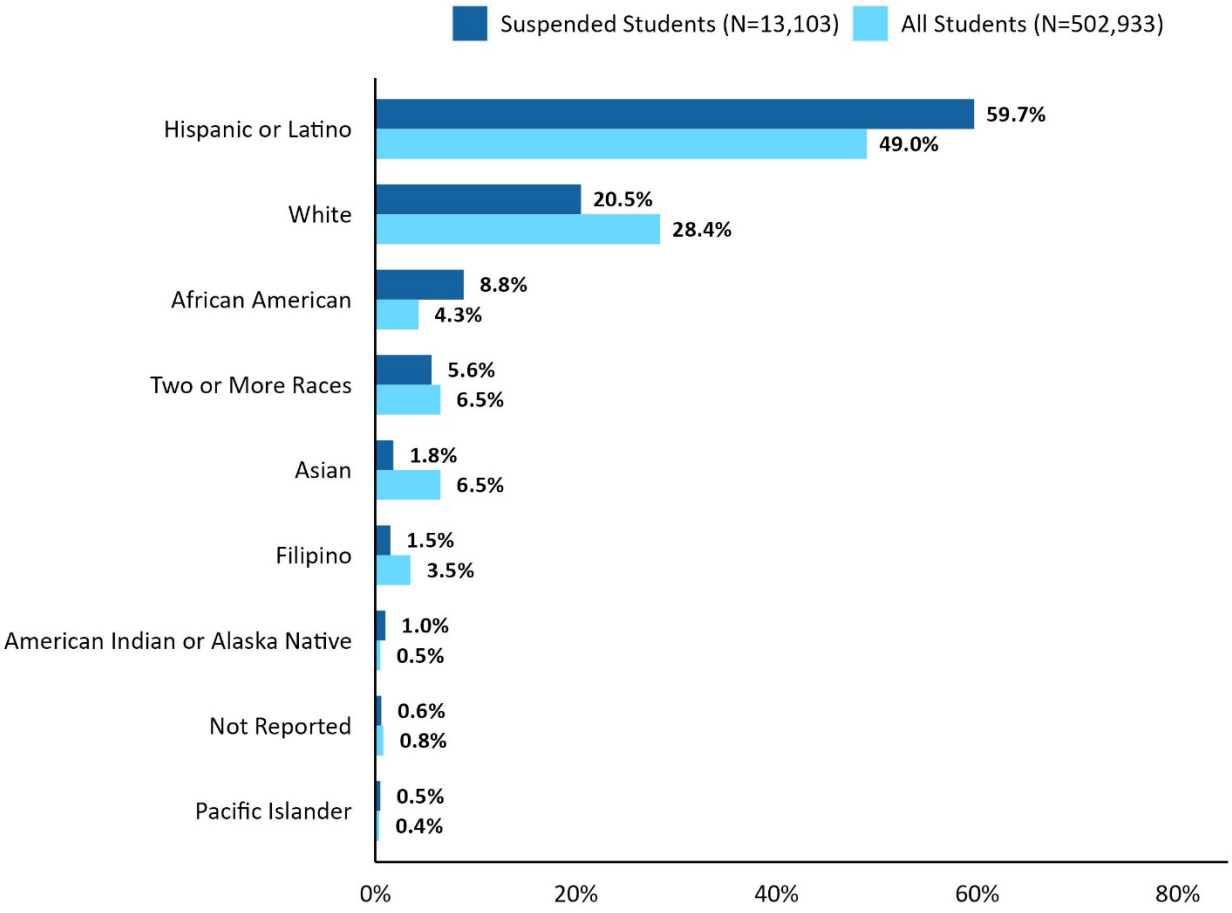
[140] San Diego Unified School District. (2020). Restorative Discipline Policy (BP 5144). Retrieved from https://go.boarddocs.com/ca/sandi/Board.nsf/files/BUPS6B712052/$file/BP%205144%20Restorative%20Discipline%20Policy%20(New%20for%20Adoption).pdf

[141] Discipline Data. (n.d) California Department of Education. Retrieved September 20, 2023, from https://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/ad/distop.asp

[142] 2021-22 Expulsion Rate. San Diego County Report Disaggregated by Ethnicity. Data Quest, California Department of Education. Retrieved August 3, 2023, from https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/dqCensus/DisExpRate.aspx?year=2021-22&agglevel=County&cds=37

[143]2021-22 Suspension Rate. San Diego County Report Disaggregated by Ethnicity. Data Quest, California Department of Education. Retrieved September 20, 2023, from https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/dqCensus/DisSuspRate.aspx?year=2021-22&agglevel=County&cds=37&ro=y

Figure 11: Percent of K-12 Students Suspended Compared to Total Enrollment, San Diego County, Academic Year 2021-2022



Data Source: California Department of Education, Academic Year 2021-2022.
Suspensions are the unduplicated count of students suspended; students who are suspended multiple times are only counted once.

High School Graduates

High school diplomas represent the culmination of more than a decade of education and provide the foundation for future earning potential. Educational attainment is associated with higher earnings and improved health outcomes.[144] In 2021, American workers aged 25 and older with a high school diploma earned 29% higher median usual weekly earnings than workers without one. A high school diploma is necessary for enrollment at most colleges;

[144] Zajacova, A. & Lawerence, E. (2021). Postsecondary Educational Attainment and Health among Younger U.S. Adults in the "College-for-All Era. *Socius* 7:1-13. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/23780231211021197

workers with a bachelor's degree had median usual weekly earnings 65% higher than those with a high school diploma in 2021. [145]

Students who are less likely to graduate from high school include those from low-income families,[146] from minority racial or ethnic backgrounds,[147] whose parents are divorced,[148] who have mental health or substance use concerns,[149] or who are arrested or incarcerated.[150] Nationwide, low-income and disabled students are more likely to drop out of high school than non-low-income students and non-disabled students.[151] Academic struggles, negative interactions with other students or school employees, mental illness or developmental disorders, family or financial problems, unmet learning needs, not liking school, believing it would be easier to get a GED, and other issues are other reasons students may leave school.[152, 153]

This report presents the proportion of 19- and 20-year-olds who have completed grade 12 or higher from the ACS. This aligns with the Urban Institute's "preparation for college" metric (19- and 20-year-olds who have graduated high school[154]), which allows for comparison across other parts of the country. Common alternate metrics include the proportion of the population age 25 and over with a high school degree (sometimes published by the Census Bureau and the County

[145] U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (n.d.). Education pays, 2021: Career Outlook. Retrieved September 26, 2022, from https://www.bls.gov/careeroutlook/2022/data-on-display/education-pays.htm

[146] McFarland, J. (2018). Trends in high school dropout and completion rates in the United States: 2018. 101.

[147] Hjalmarsson, R. (2008). Criminal justice involvement and high school completion. *Journal of Urban Economics, 63*(2), 613–630. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jue.2007.04.003

[148] Brand, J. E., Moore, R., Song, X., & Xie, Y. (2019). Parental divorce is not uniformly disruptive to children's educational attainment. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 116*(15), 7266–7271. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1813049116

[149] Breslau, J., Miller, E., Joanie Chung, W.-J., & Schweitzer, J. B. (2011). Childhood and adolescent onset psychiatric disorders, substance use, and failure to graduate high school on time. *Journal of Psychiatric Research, 45*(3), 295–301. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2010.06.014

[150] Hjalmarsson, R. (2008). Criminal justice involvement and high school completion. *Journal of Urban Economics, 63*(2), 613–630. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jue.2007.04.003

[151] Feldman, D. L., Smith, A. T., & Waxman, B. L. (2017). "Why We Drop Out": Understanding and Disrupting Student Pathways to Leaving School. Teachers College Press.

[152] Ibid.

[153] Doll, J. J., Eslami, Z., & Walters, L. (2013). understanding why students drop out of high school, according to their own reports: Are they pushed or pulled, or do they fall out? A comparative analysis of seven nationally representative studies. *SAGE Open, 3*(4), 2158244013503834. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244013503834

[154] *High-quality Education | Boosting Upward Mobility (Urban Institute)*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 2, 2023, from https://upward-mobility.urban.org/high-quality-education#preparation-for-college

of San Diego[155],[156]) or adult educational attainment. These measures offer a picture of the educational background of the entire population but dilute current graduation rates and near-term progress. Observing the high school attainment of people within a year or two of graduation is a lagging indicator but measuring as close to graduation age as possible provides information most relevant to policy decisions. Graduation rates reported by education agencies are another option, but only reflect public school students who graduate on time, leaving out students who took an extra year to complete school, private school students, and homeschooled students. For context, San Diego County's 2020-21 four-year public high school graduation rate was 82.5% and California's 2020-21 rate was 83.6%.[157]

In San Diego County in 2021, 94.2% of 19- and 20-year-olds had completed grade 12 or higher (Table 5 and Figure 12). Disparities were evident for race/ethnicity, sex, disability status, and immigrant status. The following groups of 19- and 20-year-olds had lower graduation rates compared to the county overall in 2021: 91.3% of Hispanic or Latino, 88.6% of Black or African American, 93.2% of male, 78.4% of disabled, and 90.0% of immigrants completed grade 12 or higher.

[155] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). High School Completion Rate Is Highest in U.S. History. Retrieved November 2, 2022, from https://www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2017/educational-attainment-2017.html

[156] Live Well San Diego. Health and Human Services Agency. (2023). 2017-2021 Demographic Profiles. Retrieved from, https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/dam/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/CHS/2021%20Region%20SRA%20Demographic%20Profiles.pdf

[157] CA Dept of Education. (n.d.). Four-Year Adjusted Cohort Graduation Rate—San Diego County. Retrieved March 28, 2023, from https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/dqcensus/CohRate.aspx?agglevel=county&year=2020-21&cds=37

Table 5: High School Graduation, San Diego County, 2021

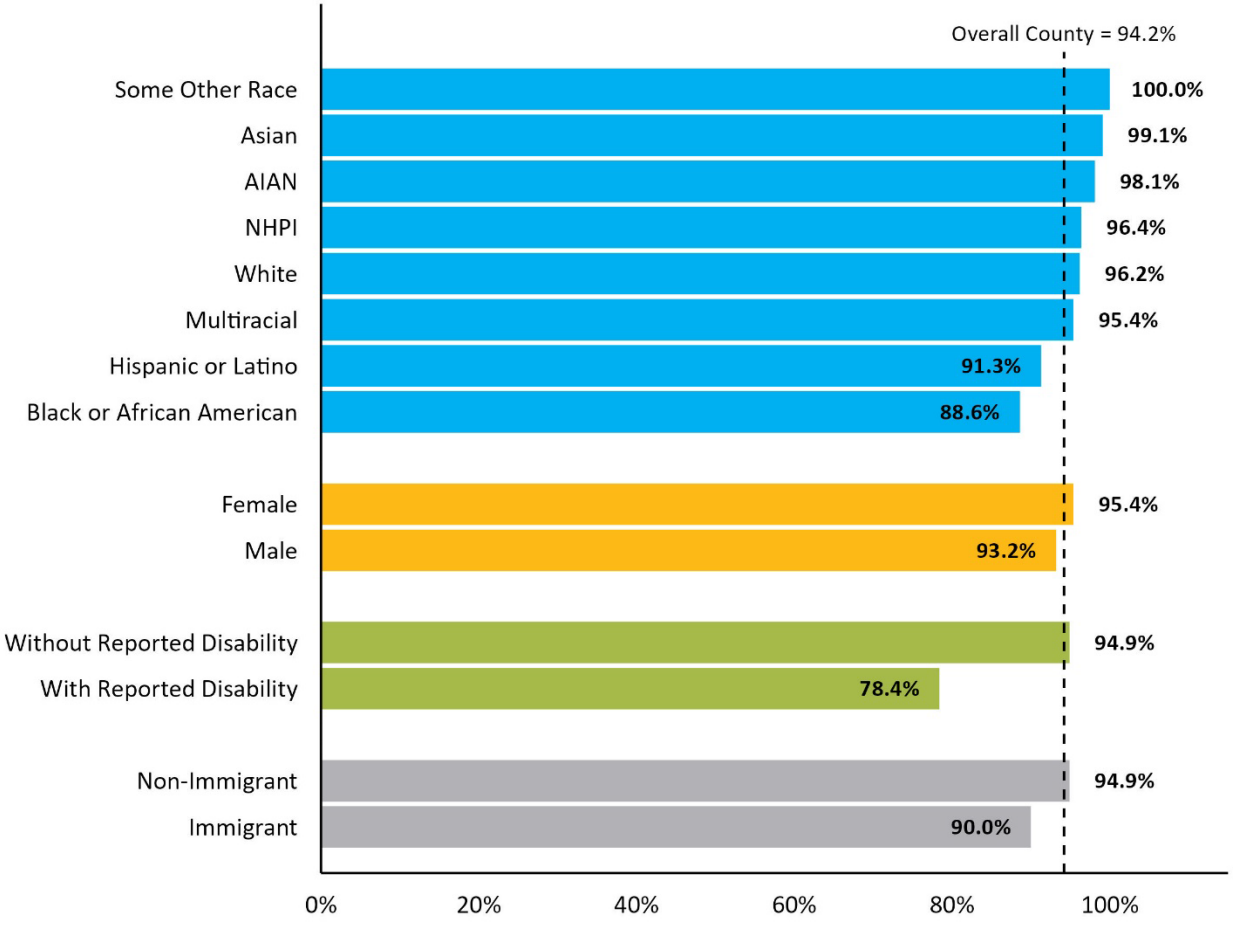
	Overall, Ages 19 and 20	High School Students			
		Did Not Graduate		Graduated	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	257	5	1.9%	252	98.1%
Asian	9,954	91	0.9%	9,863	99.1%
Black or African American	4,596	522	11.4%	4,074	88.6%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	36,881	3,203	8.7%	33,678	91.3%
NHPI	476	17	3.6%	459	96.4%
White	35,637	1,340	3.8%	34,297	96.2%
Multiracial	4,403	204	4.6%	4,199	95.4%
Some Other Race	230	.	.	230	100.0%
Sex					
Female	40,788	1,879	4.6%	38,909	95.4%
Male	51,646	3,503	6.8%	48,143	93.2%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	3,984	861	21.6%	3,123	78.4%
Without Reported Disability	88,450	4,521	5.1%	83,929	94.9%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	12,804	1,285	10.0%	11,519	90.0%
Non-Immigrant	79,630	4,097	5.1%	75,533	94.9%
Total	92,434	5,382	5.8%	87,052	94.2%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.

Figure 12: Percent of 19- and 20-Year Olds Who Graduated High School, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.

Food Systems

Access to consistent, affordable nutrition is essential. Low-income and rural people in the United States may have limited access because of their distance to affordable food outlets and other factors.[158] Grocery chains often judge that they will not be profitable in low-income or low-density areas,[159] leaving low-income and rural residents to travel longer distances to shop for groceries or buy from expensive outlets, like convenience stores or fast-food restaurants.[160, 161, 162] In addition, higher food costs may leave people and households unable to afford consistent meals. Food insecurity as measured by enrollment in SNAP and geographic proximity to grocery stores were selected as indicators to understand equity in local food systems.

Food Insecurity

Food insecurity hurts communities across the country. A recent report from Feeding America revealed the negative effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, like rising food and housing costs due to inflation, were associated with increased hunger across the U.S.[163]

The U.S. Department of Agriculture broadly defines low food security as the reduction in the quality and variety of diet, as well as disrupted eating patterns and reduced food intake in the past year for financial reasons.[164] According to the USDA, approximately 10.2% of U.S. households (13.5 million people) experienced some form of food insecurity in 2021, and 3.8% (5.1 million people) experienced very low food security.

[158] Rhone, Alana, et al. (2019). Understanding low-income and low-access census tracts across the nation: subnational and subpopulation estimates of access to healthy food. No. 1476-2019-1856. Retrieved from https://ageconsearch.umn.edu/record/289136/

[159] Dutko, P., Ploeg, M. V., & Farrigan, T. (2012). Characteristics and Influential Factors of Food Deserts. https://www.ers.usda.gov/webdocs/publications/45014/30940_err140.pdf

[160] Powell, L. M., Slater, S., Mirtcheva, D., Bao, Y., & Chaloupka, F. J. (2007). Food store availability and neighborhood characteristics in the United States. Preventive Medicine, 44(3), 189–195. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2006.08.008

[161] Gittelsohn, J., Franceschini, M. C. T., Rasooly, I. R., Ries, A. V., Ho, L. S., & Pavlovich, W. (2008). Understanding the food environment in a low-income urban setting: Implications for food store interventions. Journal of Hunger & Environmental Nutrition, 2(2–3), 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/19320240801891438

[162] Richardson, A. S., Boone-Heinonen, J., Popkin, B. M., & Gordon-Larsen, P. (2012). Are neighbourhood food resources distributed inequitably by income and race in the USA? Epidemiological findings across the urban spectrum. BMJ Open, 2(2). https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2011-000698

[163] Feeding America. (2022). Elevating voices to end hunger: Community-driven solutions to address America's hunger crisis. https://www.feedingamerica.org/sites/default/files/2022-09/FA_EV2EH_Report_FINAL_1.pdf

[164] Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M.P., Gregory, C.A., Singh, A. (2022). Household Food Security in the United States in 2021, ERR-309. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.

In studies from across the country, food insecurity has been linked to poor health conditions such as obesity,[165] diabetes,[166] high blood pressure,[166] and depression.[167] Prior research also shows that food insecurity varies based on demographic characteristics. Black and Hispanic people,[168, 169] immigrants,[170] and people with disabilities[171] are more likely to be impacted by food insecurity.

A variety of indicators can be used to capture food insecurity, like survey questions (e.g., "In the last 12 months, did you or other adults in the household ever cut the size of your meals or skip meals because there wasn't enough money for food?"), enrollment in the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP),[172] or reported income compared to the poverty line.[173] For the food insecurity indicator, this report presents data for enrollment in SNAP, collected each year by ACS.

In 2021 in San Diego County, 10.2% of residents were enrolled in SNAP (Table 6 and Figure 13) There were substantial inequities by race/ethnicity, with 20.2% of Black or African American, 17.1% of Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander, 15.7% of Hispanic or Latino, and 12.5% of Some Other Race people enrolled in SNAP, compared to 5.8% of White people. Enrollment in SNAP was also higher among immigrants compared to non-immigrants and people with reported disabilities compared to people without reported disabilities.

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[165] Testa, A., & Jackson, D. B. (2019). Food insecurity, food deserts, and waist-to-height ratio: Variation by sex and race/ethnicity. *Journal of Community Health, 44*(3), 444-450.

[166] Te Vazquez, J., Feng, S. N., Orr, C. J., & Berkowitz, S. A. (2021). Food insecurity and cardiometabolic conditions: A review of recent research. *Current Nutrition Reports*, 1-12.

[167] Pourmotabbed, A., Moradi, S., Babaei, A., Ghavami, A., Mohammadi, H., Jalili, C., ... & Miraghajani, M. (2020). Food insecurity and mental health: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Public Health Nutrition, 23*(10), 1778-1790.

[168] Myers, A. M., & Painter, M. A. (2017). Food insecurity in the United States of America: An examination of race/ethnicity and nativity. *Food Security, 9*(6), 1419-1432.

[169] Potochnick, S., Perreira, K. M., Bravin, J. I., Castañeda, S. F., Daviglus, M. L., Gallo, L. C., & Isasi, C. R. (2019). Food insecurity among Hispanic/Latino youth: Who is at risk and what are the health correlates?. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 64*(5), 631-639.

[170] Maynard, M., Dean, J., Rodriguez, P. I., Sriranganathan, G., Qutub, M., & Kirkpatrick, S. I. (2019). The experience of food insecurity among immigrants: A scoping review. *Journal of International Migration and Integration, 20*(2), 375-417.

[171] Coleman-Jensen, A. (2020). U.S food insecurity and population trends with a focus on adults with disabilities. *Physiology & Behavior, 220*, 112865. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2020.112865

[172] Smith, S., Malinak, D., Chang, J., Perez, M., Perez, S., Settlecowski, E., ... & Aedo, S. (2017). Implementation of a food insecurity screening and referral program in student-run free clinics in San Diego, California. *Preventive Medicine Reports, 5*, 134-139.

[173] San Diego Hunger Coalition. (2022). Hunger in San Diego March 2022 Data Release. https://static1.squarespace.com/static/55130907e4b018f9300f3e63/t/6334d981e09b8742d0c517d9/1664407938684/2022-March_Nutrition-Insecurity-Issue-_Brief_20220928_FINAL.pdf

SNAP enrollment rates for each ZCTA are shown at the household level in Figure 14. Compared to other regions in the county, the southern and eastern regions had higher percentages of households enrolled in SNAP (Figure 14).

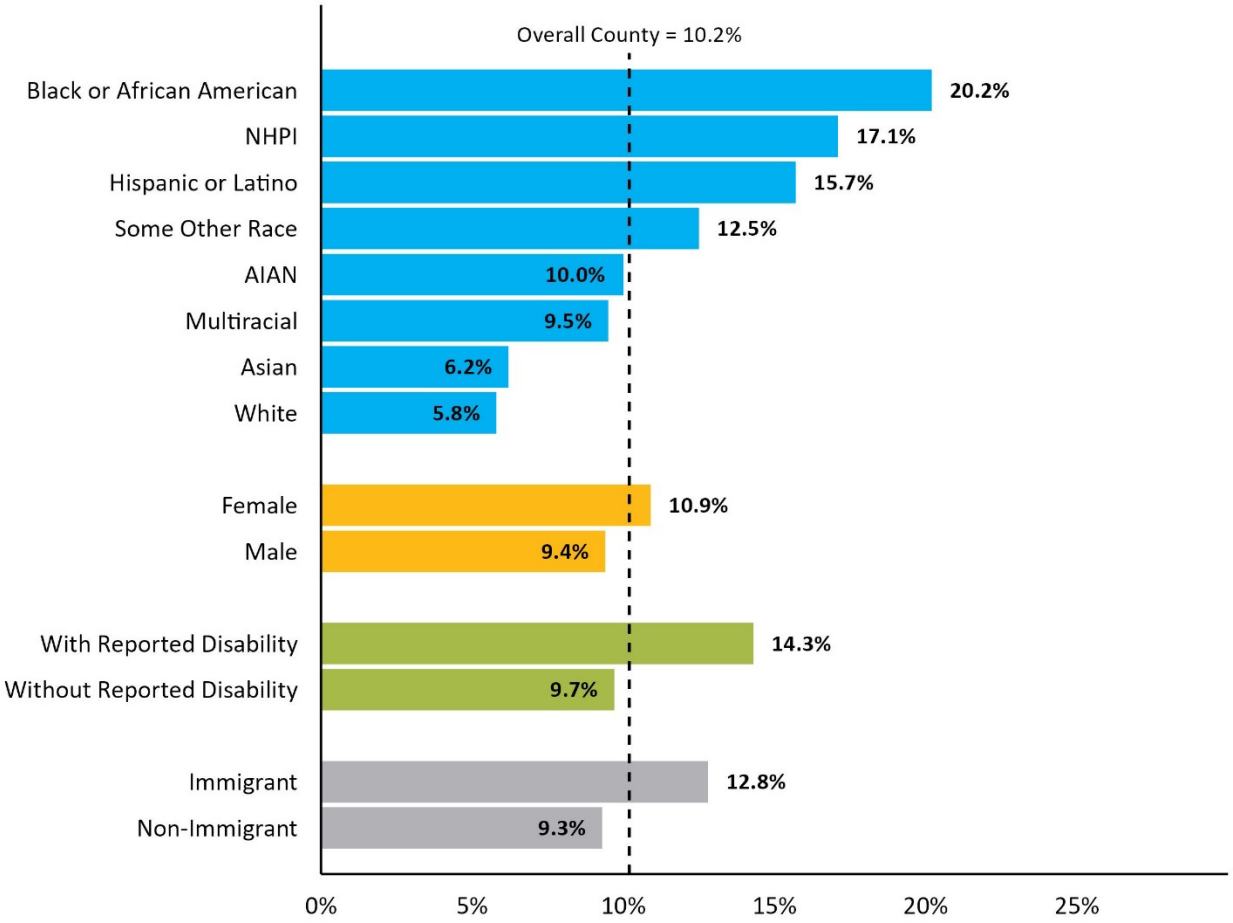
Local programs in San Diego County like Feeding San Diego and the San Diego Food Bank offer potential solutions to address food insecurity and barriers to accessing healthy and affordable food. To establish potential solutions to serve San Diego communities, identifying food insecurity is key. For example, integrating food insecurity screening and referral systems into low-income community programs or clinics can help San Diego residents in need of food.

Table 6: Residents Enrolled in SNAP, San Diego County, 2021

		SNAP Enrollment			
	Overall	Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
	County	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	9,737	8,766	90.0%	971	10.0%
Asian	380,560	357,114	93.8%	23,446	6.2%
Black or African American	150,906	120,429	79.8%	30,477	20.2%
Hispanic or Latino	1,131,506	953,592	84.3%	177,914	15.7%
NHPI	11,443	9,488	82.9%	1,955	17.1%
White	1,456,360	1,371,505	94.2%	84,855	5.8%
Multiracial	144,530	130,841	90.5%	13,689	9.5%
Some Other Race	11,855	10,374	87.5%	1,481	12.5%
Sex					
Female	1,627,861	1,450,301	89.1%	177,560	10.9%
Male	1,669,036	1,511,808	90.6%	157,228	9.4%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	330,607	283,355	85.7%	47,252	14.3%
Without Reported Disability	2,966,290	2,678,754	90.3%	287,536	9.7%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	820,427	715,523	87.2%	104,904	12.8%
Non-Immigrant	2,476,470	2,246,586	90.7%	229,884	9.3%
Total	3,296,897	2,962,109	89.8%	334,788	10.2%

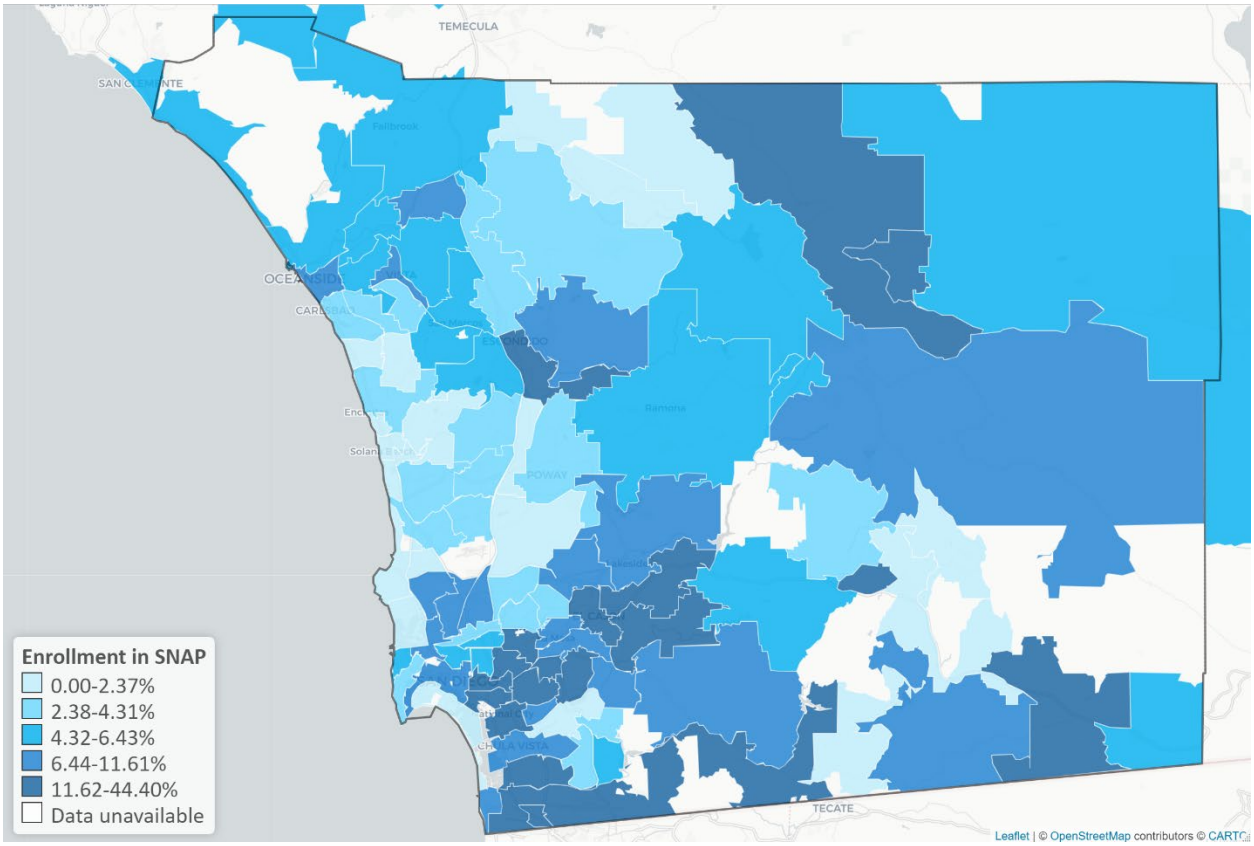
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 13: Residents Enrolled in SNAP, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 14: Households Enrolled in SNAP by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table DP03.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Grocery Access

Some areas of the country have limited access to nutritious and affordable food; these areas have commonly been called "food deserts." The term "food apartheid" has also been used because "desert" implies that this phenomenon is natural or neutral, but inequitable distribution of affordable food outlets is the result of human-made systems, like redlining, housing and employment discrimination, and "White flight."[174] This barrier is even higher for low-income households, for whom transportation costs to a far-away store are a heavier burden.[175] This report follows the terminology used by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Economic Research Service (ERS); since 2013 they use the terms "low income and low

[174] Gripper, A. B., Nethery, R., Cowger, T. L., White, M., Kawachi, I., & Adamkiewicz, G. (2022). Community solutions to food apartheid: A spatial analysis of community food-growing spaces and neighborhood demographics in Philadelphia. *Social Science & Medicine, 310*, 115221. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2022.115221

[175] Walker, R. E., Keane, C. R., & Burke, J. G. (2010). Disparities and access to healthy food in the United States: A review of food deserts literature. *Health & Place, 16*(5), 876–884. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2010.04.013

access" because it more accurately reflects what is measured.[176] Across the U.S. in 2019, 40% of the population lived more than a mile away from a food store, 30% lived within a half mile, and 30% lived between one mile and one-half mile away.[177]

Grocery stores, supermarkets, and super centers are used for this measure; convenience stores, restaurants, and other food outlets are excluded because they are more likely to be expensive and less likely to have fresh produce. Access to healthy, affordable food is essential for physical and financial thriving. The USDA's Economic Research Service reports food access according to income and proximity to grocery stores, supermarkets, or supercenters at the census tract level.[178,179] The USDA assigns census tracts to low access and/or low income categories if a large number of residents in a census tract meet specific criteria, adapted for this report as described in Table 7. For example, if an urban census tract has 33% low-income residents and the closest retailer is more than a half mile away, it is labeled "low income and low access."

Table 7: Definitions of Low and Very Low Grocery Access Census Tracts by Income

	Low Access	Very Low Access
Any Income	At least 500 people or at least 33% of the population is greater than **one half mile** from the nearest retailer for urban census tracts or greater than **10 miles** for rural census tracts.	At least 500 people or at least 33% of the population is greater than **one mile** from the nearest retailer for urban census tracts or greater than **20 miles** for rural census tracts.
Low Income	20% or more of people in the census tract has family income at or below the Federal poverty thresholds by family size, the median family income is less than or equal to 80% of the State--wide median family income, or the tract is in a metropolitan area and the median family income is less than or equal to 80% of the metropolitan area's median family income.	

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service, Food Access Research Atlas. Accessed September 7, 2022.

The most recent data available from the USDA at the time of analysis were released in 2019. There were many areas of the county with either low access or very low access regardless of

[176] Introduction to the Food Access Research Atlas. Economic Research Service. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from, https://gisportal.ers.usda.gov/portal/apps/experiencebuilder/experience/?id=a53ebd7396cd4ac3a3ed09137676fd40

[177] Rhone, A. (2019). Low-Income and Low-Foodstore-Access Census Tracts, 2015–19. 2. https://www.ers.usda.gov/webdocs/publications/104158/eib-236_summary.pdf?v=9920.8

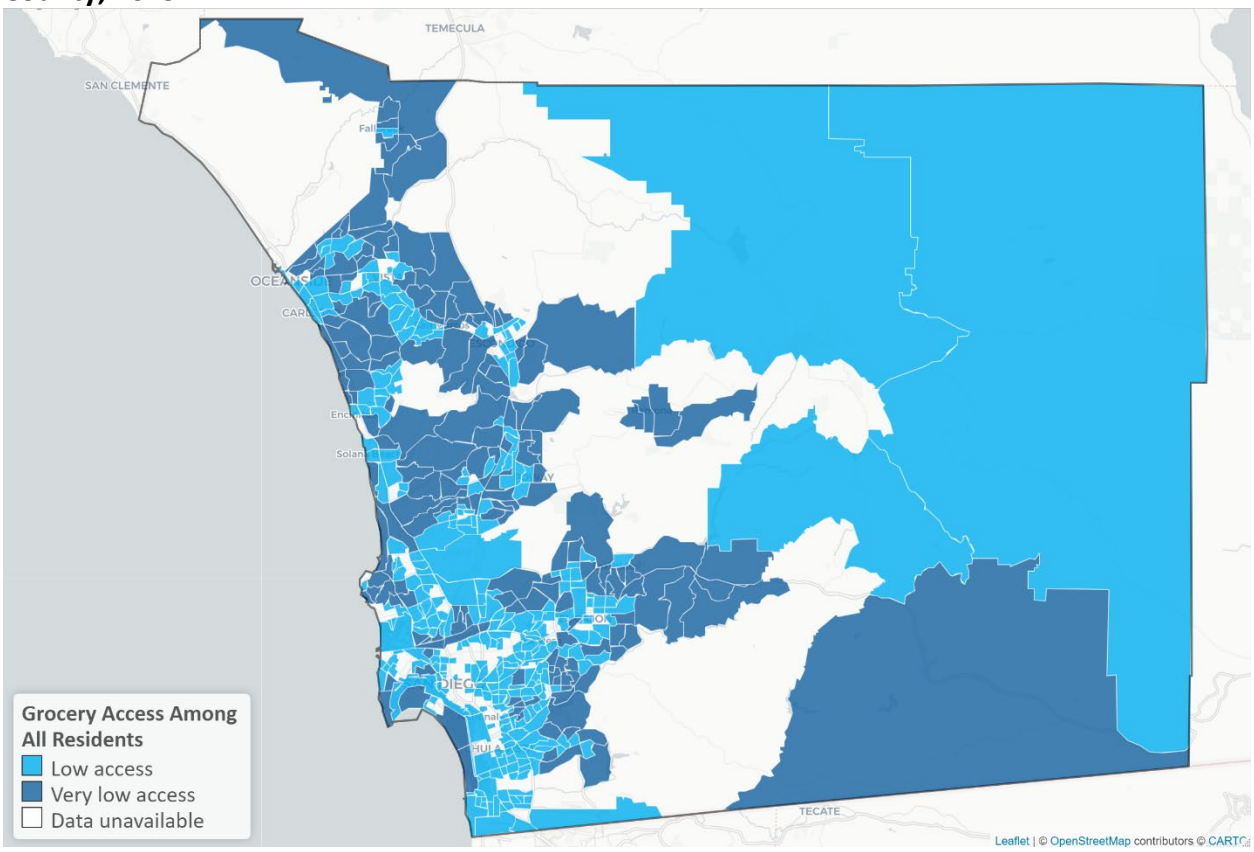
[178] *USDA ERS - Download the Data*. (2019). Retrieved May 10, 2023, from https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/food-access-research-atlas/download-the-data/

[179] USDA. (n.d.). ERS -Documentation. Retrieved September 7, 2022, from https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/food-access-research-atlas/documentation/

income (Figure 15). There were fewer areas of the county such as Chula Vista, El Cajon, and several areas in central and north central San Diego that were identified as both low-income and low or very low access (Figure 16).

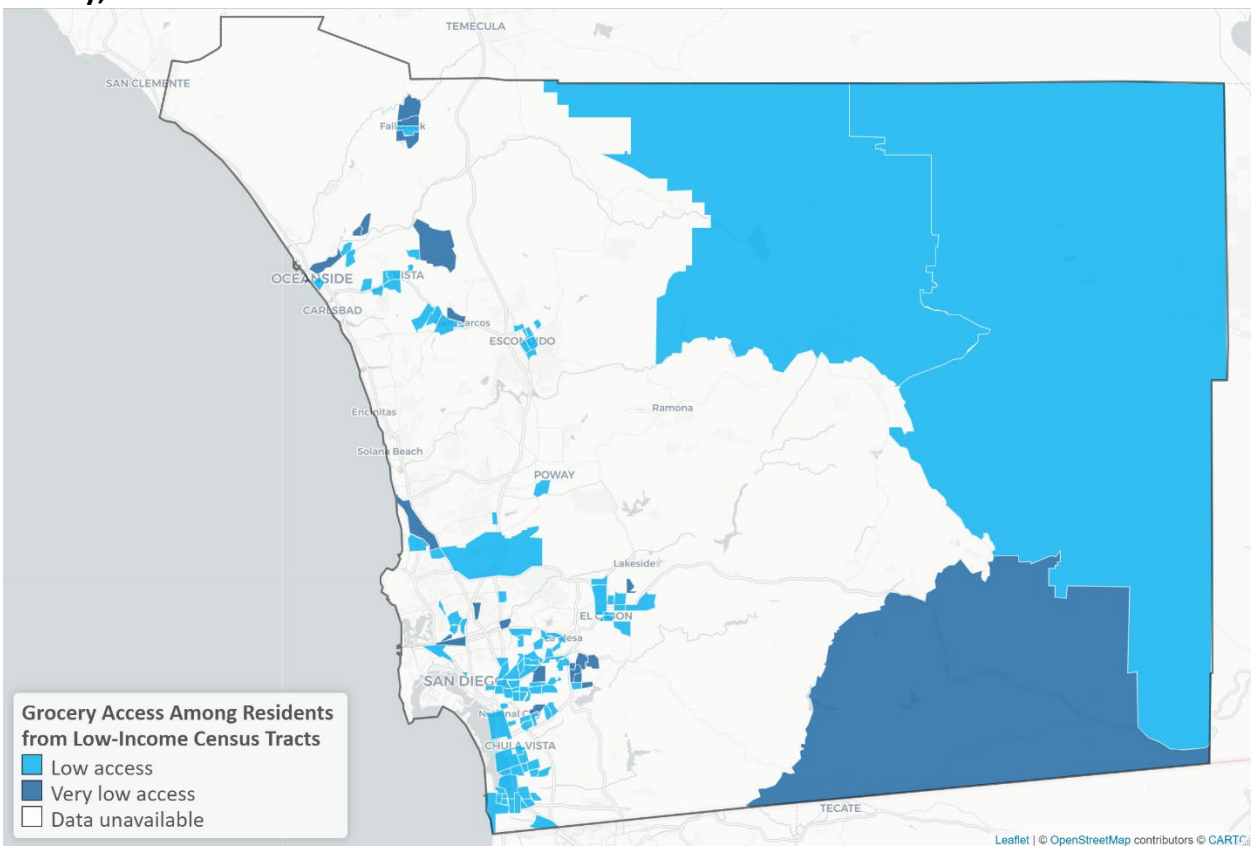
This measure has some limitations. For example, it does not consider transportation access. If a low-income household in a rural area does not have a reliable vehicle or access to public transit, a 10-mile distance to a grocery store may be insurmountably far away. It does not consider some ways of accessing food, like subsistence farming, barter, farmers' markets, or club stores like Costco. Food outlets also vary by food quality; grocery stores and other types of retailers included in this measure may not have adequate healthy, affordable food available. Additionally, this measure is released infrequently and may not be reflective of current conditions.

Figure 15: Low and Very Low Grocery Access at All Income Levels by Census Tract, San Diego County, 2019



Data Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service, Food Access Research Atlas, 2019.
Unavailable data are census tracts that do not meet the grocery access criteria or have missing data.

Figure 16: Low and Very Low Grocery Access among Low Income Census Tracts, San Diego County, 2019



Data Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service, Food Access Research Atlas, 2019.
Unavailable data are census tracts that do not meet the grocery access criteria or have missing data.

Health

Measuring equity in health is important but difficult because of the number of factors influencing health (like health behaviors and environmental hazards) and the variety of possible outcomes (like asthma, diabetes, cancer, and so on). This section includes indicators that reflect many other interrelated health factors: Low Birthweight, Health Insurance, Health Professional Shortage Areas, and Life Expectancy.

Low Birthweight

Low birthweight (LBW), defined as birth weights below 5 pounds, 8 ounces (<2,500 grams), is a leading cause of infant mortality in the United States, [180] and is inequitably distributed across race/ethnicity groups.[181] Nationally, Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander women had disproportionately high shares of low birthweight births compared to White women. The national Healthy People 2030 objectives, set by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, includes objectives for improving the health and safety of infants, including reduction of infant deaths. Reducing infants born with low birthweight, preterm births, and sudden infant death syndrome can contribute to reductions in infant deaths. [182]

To measure the prevalence of low birthweight, the County of San Diego Health and Human Services' Maternal, Child, and Family Health Services Branch analyzes birth data from the California Department of Public Health's Center for Health Statistics and Informatics. [183] The data are by region of the birthing parent's residence, their race and ethnicity, nativity, age, educational attainment, and other characteristics.

Because these data show wide gaps between racial groups and it is expected that County action can mitigate this inequity, the prevalence of low birthweight is shown by race. National estimates also find that Black women are twice as likely as White women to have babies with

[180] CDC. (2023). National Center for Health Statistics: Mortality in the United States, 2021. Retrieved August 4, 2023. https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs/db456.htm#:~:text=The%2010%20leading%20causes%20of%20infant%20death%20in%202021%20(congenital,the%20circulatory%20system%2C%20and%20intrauterine

[181] KFF. (November 2022). Racial Disparities in Maternal and Infant Health: Current Status and Efforts to Address Them. Retrieved August 4, 2023. https://www.kff.org/racial-equity-and-health-policy/issue-brief/racial-disparities-in-maternal-and-infant-health-current-status-and-efforts-to-address-them/

[182] Healthy People 2030. (n.d.). Reduce the rate of infant deaths—Healthy People 2030. Retrieved September 30, 2022, from https://health.gov/healthypeople/objectives-and-data/browse-objectives/infants/reduce-rate-infant-deaths-mich-02

[183] Maternal, Child, and Family Health Services (MCFHS); Health & Human Services; County of San Diego. (2023). Statistics. Retrieved April 10, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/maternal_child_family_health_services/MCFHSstatistics.html

low birthweight when controlling for poverty.[184] As indicated in the California Dignity in Pregnancy and Childbirth Act, "there is a growing body of evidence that Black women are often treated unfairly and unequally in the health care system."[185]

In 2021 in the United States, 8.5% of all infants were born with low birthweight;[186] the U.S. performs poorly on this metric compared to other developed countries.[187] In California in 2021, the percentage of babies born with low birthweight was 7.3%.[188] In 2021 in San Diego County, 6.9% of infants were born with low birthweight (Table 8). Infants born to African American/Black or Asian mothers were more likely to have low birthweight compared to infants born to mothers in the county overall. South, Central, North Central, and East HHSA Service Regions had higher percentages of births with low birthweight compared to the county overall, although the difference was small (6.9% overall vs. 7.0-7.5% for those areas) (Figure 17).

Families in poverty are disproportionately impacted by infant mortality,[189] perhaps because of limited healthcare access, a poorly integrated healthcare system, nutrition deficits, and poorer

[184] Innovative prenatal care initiative shows early signs of potential for improving birth outcomes. (n.d.). Urban Institute. Retrieved September 30, 2022, from https://www.urban.org/urban-wire/innovative-prenatal-care-initiative-shows-early-signs-potential-improving-birth-outcomes

[185] SB 464—California Senate. (n.d.). Retrieved September 1, 2022, from https://openstates.org/ca/bills/20192020/SB464/

[186] *FastStats*. (2023, May 16). https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/fastats/birthweight.htm

[187] Rothwell, J. (2015). Starting behind: Low birth weight in the United States. *Brookings*. https://www.brookings.edu/blog/social-mobility-memos/2015/03/04/starting-behind-low-birth-weight-in-the-united-states/

[188] *Stats of the States—Low Birthweight Births*. (2022, February 25). https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/pressroom/sosmap/lbw_births/lbw.htm

[189] Chen, A., Oster, E., & Williams, H. (2014). Why is Infant Mortality Higher in the US than in Europe? (No. w20525; p. w20525). National Bureau of Economic Research. https://doi.org/10.3386/w20525

environmental conditions in low-income neighborhoods.[190, 191, 192, 193, 194] Public health interventions, including improving healthcare access,[195] reducing particle air pollution,[196] and nutrition interventions[197] can dramatically reduce low birthweight.

The County of San Diego runs several programs that may help address low birthweight, including some targeted for populations who are particularly at risk. These include the Black Infant Health Program[198], the Perinatal Equity Initiative[199], First 5 First Steps[200], the Nurse

[190] Neggers, Y., & Crowe, K. (2013). Low birth weight outcomes: Why better in Cuba than Alabama? *The Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine, 26*(2), 187–195. https://doi.org/10.3122/jabfm.2013.02.120227

[191] Li, X., Huang, S., Jiao, A., Yang, X., Yun, J., Wang, Y., Xue, X., Chu, Y., Liu, F., Liu, Y., Ren, M., Chen, X., Li, N., Lu, Y., Mao, Z., Tian, L., & Xiang, H. (2017). Association between ambient fine particulate matter and preterm birth or term low birth weight: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. *Environmental Pollution, 227*, 596–605. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2017.03.055

[192] Lopes, K. da S., Ota, E., Shakya, P., Dagvadorj, A., Balogun, O. O., Peña-Rosas, J. P., De-Regil, L. M., & Mori, R. (2017). Effects of nutrition interventions during pregnancy on low birth weight: An overview of systematic reviews. *BMJ Global Health, 2*(3), e000389. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2017-000389

[193] Sabo, S., Wightman, P., McCue, K., Butler, M., Pilling, V., Jimenez, D. J., Celaya, M., & Rumann, S. (2021). Addressing maternal and child health equity through a community health worker home visiting intervention to reduce low birth weight: Retrospective quasi-experimental study of the Arizona Health Start Programme. *BMJ Open, 11*(6), e045014. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-045014

[194] Rothwell, J. (2015). Starting behind: Low birth weight in the United States. Brookings. Retrieved from https://www.brookings.edu/blog/social-mobility-memos/2015/03/04/starting-behind-low-birth-weight-in-the-united-states/

[195] Sabo, S., Wightman, P., McCue, K., Butler, M., Pilling, V., Jimenez, D. J., Celaya, M., & Rumann, S. (2021). Addressing maternal and child health equity through a community health worker home visiting intervention to reduce low birth weight: Retrospective quasi-experimental study of the Arizona Health Start Programme. *BMJ Open, 11*(6), e045014. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-045014

[196] Li, X., Huang, S., Jiao, A., Yang, X., Yun, J., Wang, Y., Xue, X., Chu, Y., Liu, F., Liu, Y., Ren, M., Chen, X., Li, N., Lu, Y., Mao, Z., Tian, L., & Xiang, H. (2017). Association between ambient fine particulate matter and preterm birth or term low birth weight: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. *Environmental Pollution, 227*, 596–605. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2017.03.055

[197] Lopes, K. da S., Ota, E., Shakya, P., Dagvadorj, A., Balogun, O. O., Peña-Rosas, J. P., De-Regil, L. M., & Mori, R. (2017). Effects of nutrition interventions during pregnancy on low birth weight: An overview of systematic reviews. *BMJ Global Health, 2*(3), e000389. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2017-000389

[198] *Black Infant Health Program*.(n.d.) Health and Human Services Agency San Diego County. Retrieved September 18, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/black_infant_health_program.html

[199] *The Perinatal Equity Initiative*. (n.d) Black Legacy Now. Retrieved September 18, 2023, from https://www.blacklegacynowsd.com/?msclkid=bc9739eabd0411ec8c2a1f6b894251d0

[200] *First 5 First Steps Home Visiting Program.* (n.d.) First 5 San Diego. Retrieved September 18, 2023, from https://first5sandiego.org/programs/family/first-5-first-steps-home-visiting-program/

Family Partnership Program, and the Maternal Child Health Program.[201] Although County policy and programs may not be able to solve all problems that lead to low birthweight, they can be leveraged to improve environmental conditions, nutrition, access to healthcare and community resources, and medical treatment for at-risk pregnant people.

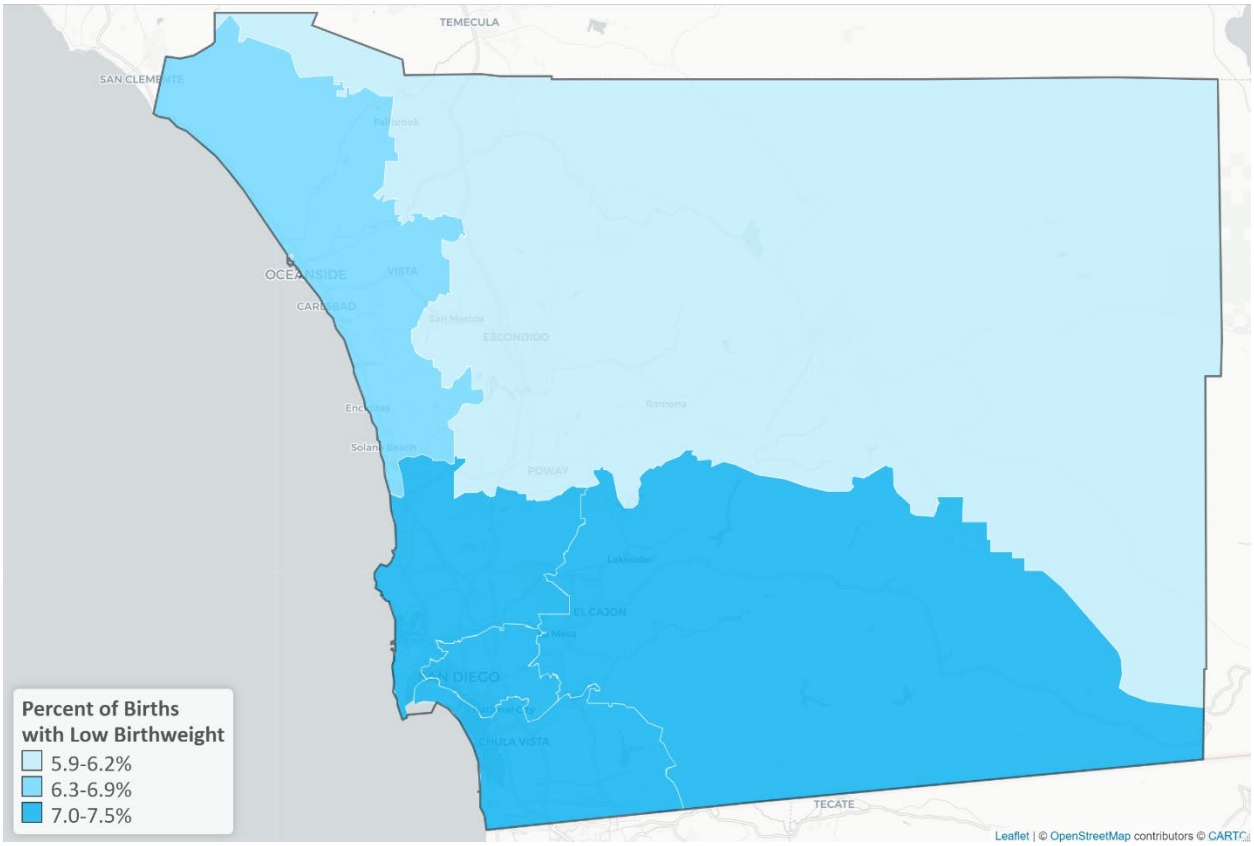
Table 8: Low Birthweight, San Diego County, 2021

	Number of Births with Known Weight	Percent of Births with Low Birthweight
Race/Ethnicity of Mother		
African American/Black	1,539	10.5%
Asian	3,531	9.4%
Hispanic	14,811	6.4%
Native American/Alaskan	118	5.1%
Pacific Islander	124	6.5%
White	11,958	5.0%
Other	17	.
Two or More Races	1,135	7.9%
Unknown Race/Ethnicity	4,193	10.5%
Gender of Infant		
Female	18,430	7.3%
Male	18,996	6.5%
Nativity of Mother		
U.S.-born	26,830	6.6%
Foreign-born	10,534	7.5%
Unknown Nativity	62	21.0%
Total	37,426	6.9%

Data Source: State of California, Department of Public Health, Center for Health Statistics and Informatics, California Comprehensive Birth Files. Prepared by the County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency, Public Health Services, Maternal, Child and Family Health Services (www.sdmcfhs.org), 11/18/2022.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown.
Percentages for the categories of Native American/Alaskan, Pacific Islander, and Unknown Nativity are based on a very small number of births and should be interpreted with caution. A percentage was not calculated and shown for the categories of Other Race and Undetermined/Unknown Gender of Infant because the reported numbers were too low.

[201] *Home Visiting Programs.* (n.d.) Medical Care Services San Diego County. Retrieved September 18, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/hhsa/programs/mcsd/Office-of-Nursing-Excellence/Home-Visiting-Program.html

Figure 17: Percent of Births with Low Birthweight by Health and Human Services Agency Region of Mother, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: State of California, Department of Public Health, Center for Health Statistics and Informatics, California Comprehensive Birth Files. Prepared by the County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency, Public Health Services, Maternal, Child and Family Health Services (www.sdmcfhs.org), 11/18/2022.

Health Insurance

People with health insurance tend to have better access to care and preventative services than those who do not.[202] Those who are uninsured are likely to receive less medical care and less timely care, which can lead to being diagnosed at a later stage of an illness or getting less treatment for an illness.[203] In 2021, working age adults (ages 18-64) without health insurance were almost twice as likely to have problems paying their medical bills as those with health insurance.[204]

[202] AHIP. (2018). The Value of Medicaid: Providing Access to Care and Preventive Health Services. Retrieved from https://www.ahip.org/resources/the-value-of-medicaid-providing-access-to-care-and-preventive-health-services

[203] Buchmueller, T. C., Grumbach, K., Kronick, R., & Kahn, J. G. (2005). The effect of health insurance on medical care utilization and implications for insurance expansion: A review of the literature. *Med Care Res Rev, 62*(1), 3–30. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077558704271718.

[204] Cohen, R., & Cha, A. (2023). *Problems Paying Medical Bills: United States, 2021*. National Center for Health Statistics (U.S.). https://doi.org/10.15620/cdc:122191

Because of the high cost of health insurance, low-income workers are more likely to be uninsured. Low-income workers are also less likely to have access to employer-based coverage, due in part to job characteristics like working in smaller firms, working part-time, and working in certain industries like retail or personal services.[205] For those who are insured, unemployment can mean losing access to health coverage. Uncertain access can impact health outcomes: if patients believe they are at risk of losing their insurance, they may choose shorter-term treatment options, postpone, or avoid medical care to reduce future bills.[206] Additionally, race independent of income also plays a big role in whether people are insured.[207] Even though disparities in the uninsured rate between White people and peoples of other racial groups nationwide decreased after the Affordable Care Act (ACA) was implemented in 2014, uninsured rates are not yet equal.[208] These and other healthcare inequities lead Hispanic, Black or African American, and American Indian or Alaska Native people to have lower life expectancy or higher rates of specific health problems when compared to other groups.[209] Among disabled adults in the U.S., health insurance improves healthcare access, reduces the cost burden of healthcare, and reduces disparities in healthcare access and use by race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status.[210]

The percentage of uninsured in San Diego County (7.6%) was lower than the percentage of uninsured nationally (8.8%) in 2021.[211] Table 9 and Figure 18 illustrate the disparities for health insurance coverage by race/ethnicity, sex, disability status, and immigrant status. Higher percentages of American Indian or Alaska Native and Hispanic or Latino people were uninsured than people in the county overall, at 20% and 13%, respectively. Hispanic or Latino people were

[205] Lee, K., Lucia, L., Graham-Squire, D., & Dietz, M. (2019, November 22). Job-based coverage is less common among workers who are Black or Latino, low-wage, immigrants, and young adults. Rising Health Care Costs in California: A Worker Issue. UC Berkeley Labor Center. https://laborcenter.berkeley.edu/job-based-coverage-is-less-common-among-workers-who-are-black-or-latino-low-wage-immigrants-and-young-adults/

[206] Bittker, B. M. (2020). Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Employer-Sponsored Health Coverage. *Human Rights Magazine, 45*(4). Retrieved from https://www.americanbar.org/groups/crsj/publications/human_rights_magazine_home/health-matters-in-elections/racial-and-ethnic-disparities-in-employer-sponsored-health-coverage/

[207] Lee, D.-C., Liang, H., & Shi, L. (2021). The convergence of racial and income disparities in health insurance coverage in the United States. *International Journal for Equity in Health, 20*(96). https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1186/s12939-021-01436-z

[208] Artiga, S., Hill, L., Orgera, K., & Damico, A. (2021). Health Coverage by Race and Ethnicity, 2010-2019. Kaiser Family Foundation.

[209] USAFACTS. (2022). Does access to healthcare differ by race and ethnicity? USAFACTS. https://usafacts.org/articles/does-access-to-healthcare-differ-by-race-and-ethnicity/

[210] Miller, N. A., Kirk, A., Kaiser, M. J., & Glos, L. (2014). The relation between health insurance and health care disparities among adults with disabilities. *American Journal of Public Health, 104*(3), e85–e93. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2013.301478

[211] Selected Characteristics of Health Insurance Coverage in the United States. (2021). United States Census Bureau. S2701: SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ... - Census Bureau Table

more than three times as likely, Black or African American people nearly twice as likely, and American Indian or Alaska Native people five times as likely to be uninsured than White people. More males had no health insurance than females. Immigrants face additional barriers to acquiring health insurance, including financial constraints and potential ineligibility for free statewide programs; immigrants were more than twice as likely as non-immigrants to have no health insurance. These disparities persist (and even worsen in some cases) looking only at those employed in San Diego County (Table 9 and Figure 19). Figure 20 shows the differences by geography for Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs).

Those with a reported disability in San Diego County in 2021 were more likely to have health insurance than those without a reported disability. This may be in part because some people with disabilities are qualified for government programs that provide insurance. It is also worth considering that some people with disabilities may be acutely aware of their need for health insurance, causing them to prioritize health insurance when they select an employer over other important factors, like pay.

According to the 2021 National Health Interview Survey, the greatest barrier to obtaining health insurance in the U.S. was reported to be unaffordable coverage, with 69.5% of nonelderly adults citing that as a reason for being uninsured. Other reasons included not being eligible, 26.2%; not needing or wanting insurance, 23.5%; difficulty with or confusion about signing up, 19.9%; and not finding a plan that meets their needs, 18.3%.[212] The Family Health Centers of San Diego's Insurance Enrollment Assistance program[213] and the Community Transition Center[214] are helping fill these gaps and increase health insurance enrollment by helping residents sign up.

Table 10 outlines the types of health insurance coverage among San Diego County residents in 2021. Most people, 1,757,818 (53.3%) had private insurance through their employer or union. Among public insurance types, most people were enrolled in Medicaid, with about 657,663 (20.0%) people enrolled in 2021 according to the ACS. According to California's Department of Health Care Services, the number of people in the county enrolled in Medi-Cal, the State's version of Medicaid, was 953,824 (28.9%) as of Jul. 1, 2021.[215] The difference can be attributed to differences in the data sources, where ACS is a survey that a portion of the population completes (respondents may not know what type of insurance they have or leave it blank),

[212] Tolbert, J., Drake, P., & Damico, A. (2022). Key Facts about the Uninsured Population. Kaiser Family Foundation. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/uninsured/issue-brief/key-facts-about-the-uninsured-population/

[213] Family Health Centers of San Diego. (n.d.). Insurance Enrollment Assistance. https://www.fhcsd.org/insurance-enrollment/

[214] Liebler, D. (2016, April 25). San Diego County Partnership Focuses on Health of Probationers. The County Voice, California State Association of Counties. https://www.counties.org/county-voice/san-diego-county-partnership-focuses-health-probationers

[215] Medi-Cal Managed Care Operations Division/Research & Analytics Unit. *Medi-Cal Managed Care Enrollment Report January 2007-present. California Department of Health Care Services*. https://data.chhs.ca.gov/dataset/medi-cal-managed-care-enrollment-report

while the California's Department of Health Care Services data are based on the program enrollment system.

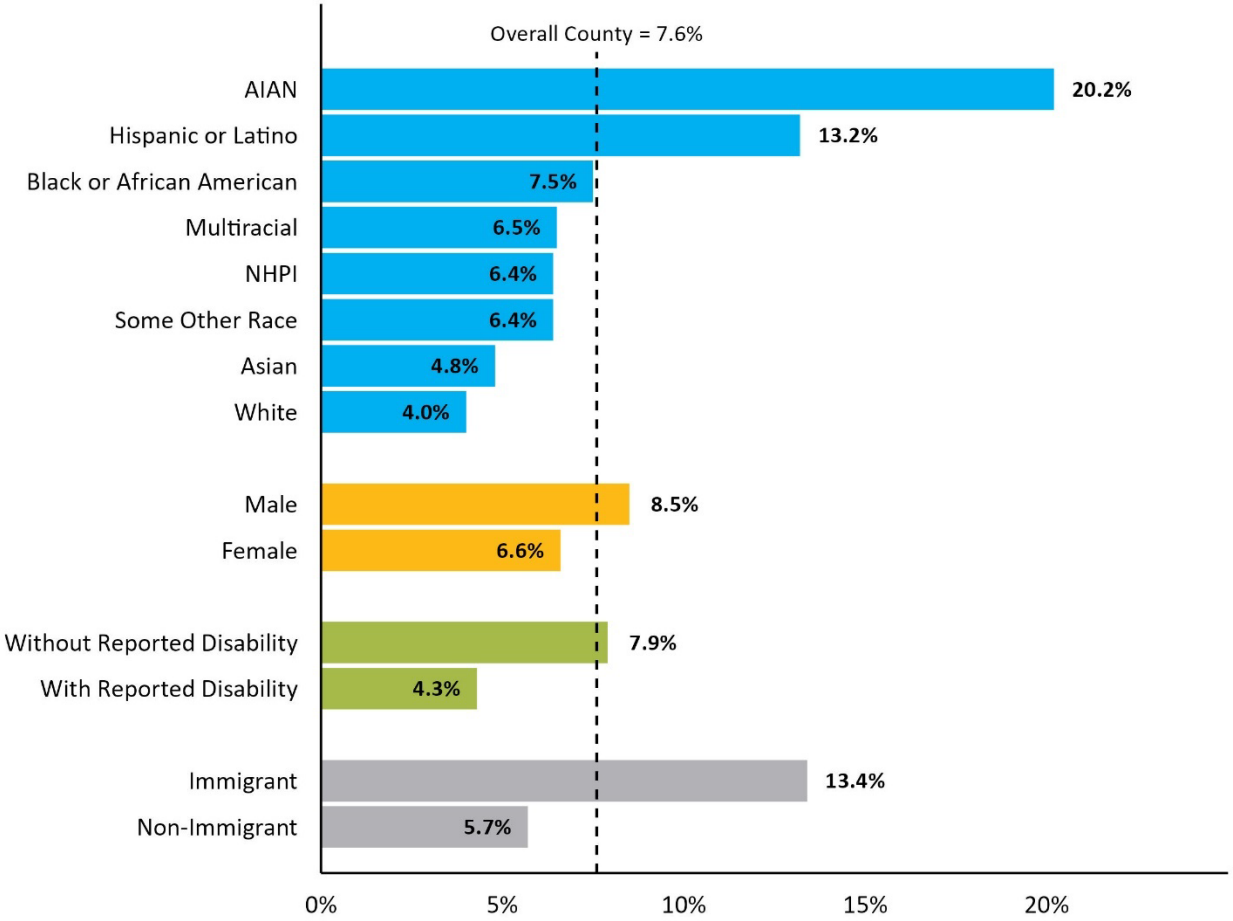
During the COVID-19 pandemic, the federal government expanded affordable care options through the American Rescue Plan. As these temporary programs expire, people are likely to struggle once again to obtain and maintain access to health insurance.

Table 9: Number and Percent of People Overall and Employed Who Were Uninsured, San Diego County, 2021

	Overall County (All Ages)	Uninsured		Employed Population Ages 16 and Over	Uninsured Employed	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity						
AIAN	9,737	1,969	20.2%	4,704	457	9.7%
Asian	380,560	18,435	4.8%	202,097	8,385	4.1%
Black or African American	150,906	11,378	7.5%	74,239	4,460	6.0%
Hispanic or Latino	1,131,506	149,292	13.2%	540,805	88,419	16.3%
NHPI	11,443	727	6.4%	6,709	507	7.6%
White	1,456,360	58,056	4.0%	760,292	31,705	4.2%
Multiracial	144,530	9,379	6.5%	59,581	4,259	7.1%
Some Other Race	11,855	760	6.4%	5,803	481	8.3%
Sex						
Female	1,627,861	107,712	6.6%	737,767	51,072	6.9%
Male	1,669,036	142,284	8.5%	916,463	87,601	9.6%
Disability Status						
With Reported Disability	330,607	14,183	4.3%	72,314	4,793	6.6%
Without Reported Disability	2,966,290	235,813	7.9%	1,581,916	133,880	8.5%
Immigrant Status						
Immigrant	820,427	109,756	13.4%	477,019	67,893	14.2%
Non-Immigrant	2,476,470	140,240	5.7%	1,177,211	70,780	6.0%
Total	3,296,897	249,996	7.6%	1,654,230	138,673	8.4%

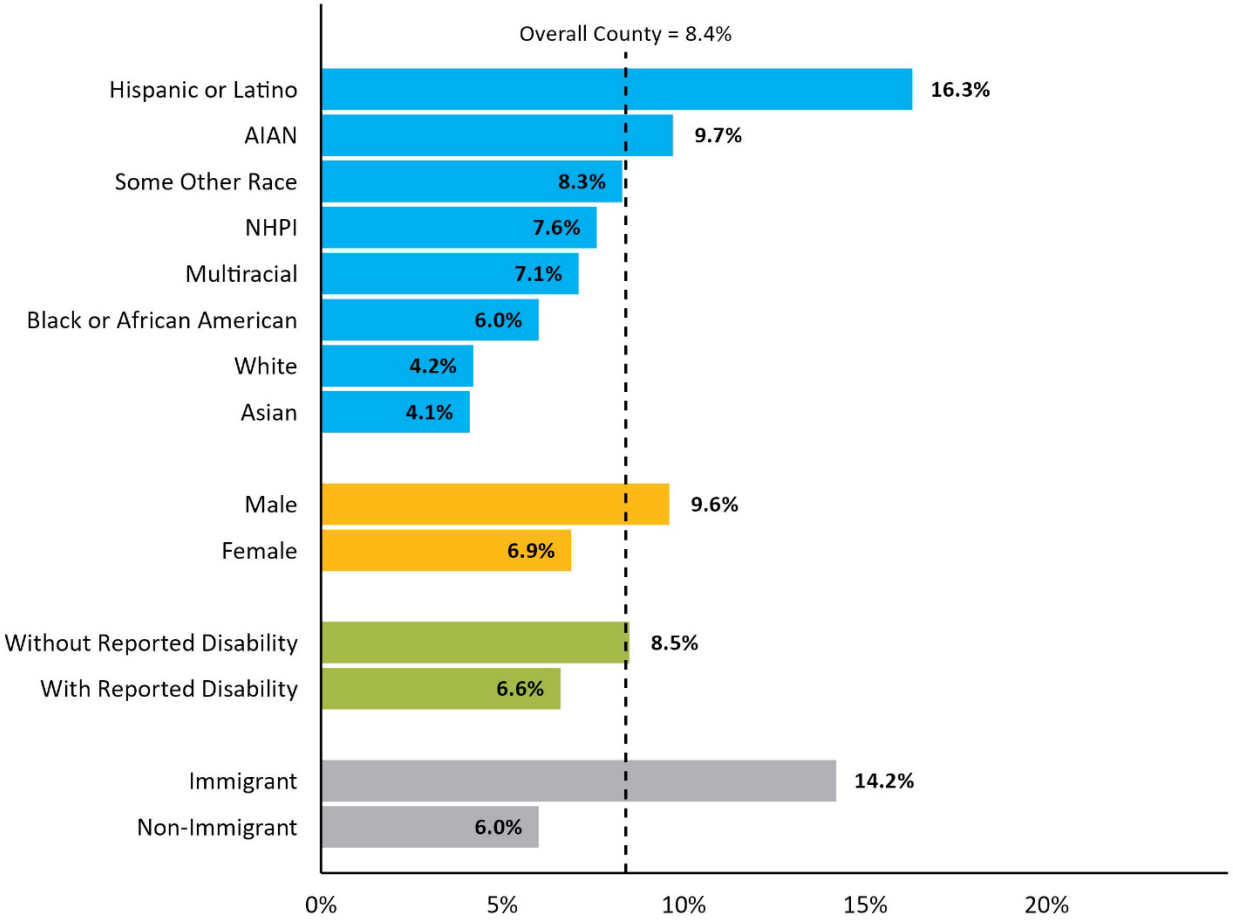
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 18: Percent of People Overall Who Were Uninsured, San Diego County, 2021



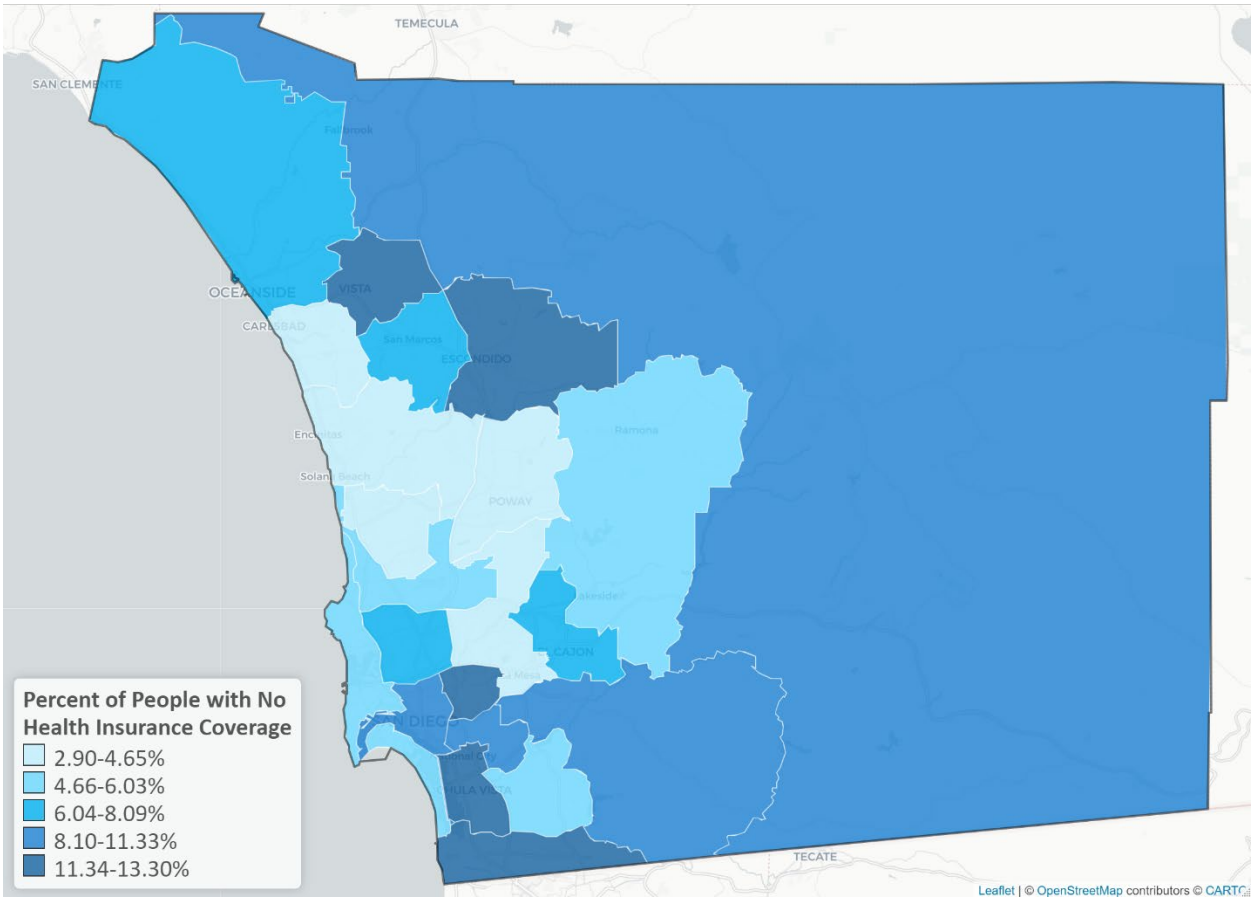
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 19: Percent of People Employed Who Were Uninsured, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 20: Percent of People with No Health Insurance Coverage by Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Table 10: Types of Health Insurance Coverage, San Diego County, 2021

	Number with Coverage	Percent with Coverage
Private		
Has insurance through employer/union	1,757,818	53.3%
Has insurance purchased directly	400,367	12.1%
Has insurance through TRICARE	291,991	8.9%
Public		
Has insurance through Medicaid*	657,663	20.0%
Has insurance through Medicare	497,838	15.1%
Has insurance through VA	84,990	2.6%
Other†		
Has insurance through Indian Health Service	9,064	0.3%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
The percent of people with health insurance coverage is out of all county residents, N=3,296,897.
* According to California's Department of Health Care Services, the number of people in the county enrolled in Medi-Cal, the State's version of Medicaid, was 953,824 (28.9%) as of Jul. 1, 2021.
† Health insurance policies though Indian Health Services are not always comprehensive, so the Census Bureau does not consider people with only IHS coverage to be insured. [216]

Health Professional Shortage Areas

Healthcare access is key to health outcomes. When people must travel far to visit a healthcare provider (a structural barrier to healthcare access), they are more likely to delay treatment and forgo preventative care and screenings.[217]

The Health Resources & Services Administration (HRSA) designates and scores Health Professional Shortage Areas (HPSAs), geographic areas that do not have enough healthcare providers.[218] The Bureau of Health Workforce designates HPSAs according to the type of health professional: primary care, mental health,[219] and dental healthcare. The HPSA label can go on a geographic area for a certain population, like Medicare-eligible residents or low-income residents; on a geographic area for the entire population of that area; or on facilities, like

[216] Branch, B., & Conway, D. (2021). *Health Insurance Coverage by Race and Hispanic Origin: 2021*.

[217] Carrillo, J., Carrillo, V., Perez, H., Salas-Lopez, D., Natale-Pereira, A., & Alex, B. (2011). Defining and targeting health care access barriers. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved, 22,* 562–575. https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2011.0037

[218] HPSA Find (hrsa.gov) Retrieved August 22, 2023.

[219] Mental health care shortage areas can either be defined by the number of psychiatrists, other mental health practitioners, or both; the publicly available data do not clarify which definition was used for mental health care. It is also not clear from the data nor the documentation whether behavioral health providers, including providers of substance use services, are included in the mental health HPSA designation.

Federally Qualified Health Centers or correctional institutions.[220] However, HPSA designations associated with facilities and designations withdrawn or proposed for withdrawal were not considered for this report.

Each type of score is based on the same foundational criteria—population-to-provider ratio, poverty, and travel time—and includes some additional criteria specific to the type of designation. Primary care HPSA scores range from 0-25 and take infant mortality and low birthweight rates into account. Dental HPSA scores range from 0-26 and include water fluoridation status. Mental health HPSA scores range from 0-25 and include the proportion of people over 65, under 18, and dealing with alcohol or substance abuse. Higher HPSA scores indicate a worse shortage and greater priority; in this report, any score greater than zero is considered a HPSA.[221] For geographies, the HPSA designation is assigned to 2010 census tracts for 2021 (census tracts were redefined for the 2020 decennial census but were not yet in use by the HRSA).

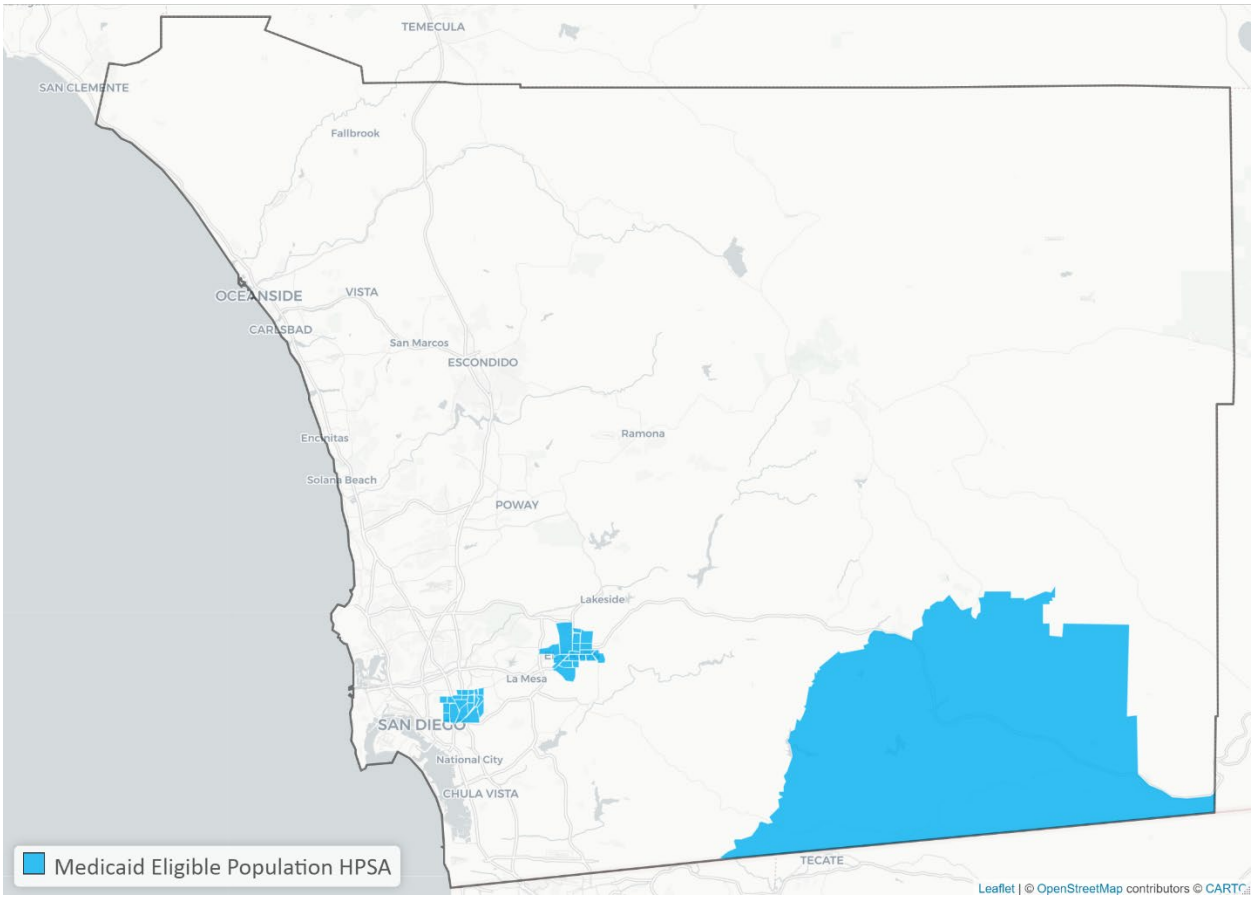
Census tracts in San Diego County with a population or geographic HPSA as of December 31, 2021, were identified. For primary care, there were 39 total census tracts in central and southeast San Diego County where the HPSA designation applied to the Medicaid-eligible population (Figure 21). For dental healthcare, there were 43 census tracts in north county where the HPSA designation applied to the Medicaid-eligible population (Figure 22). For mental health, there were 152 census tracts in south and central San Diego County where the shortage designation applied to the low-income population of those areas and one census tract along the southern border where the shortage designation applied to the whole population of the census tract (Figure 23). In total, 177 of 628 (28.2%) census tracts in San Diego County experienced at least one type of health professional shortage; 18 census tracts had all three types of HPSA and 21 census tracts had two types of HPSA (all were mental health and primary care) (data not shown).

Limitations of these data include how the HPSA scores are calculated. HPSA scores are based on the federal poverty level and are not adjusted for cost of living. This may artificially reduce the HPSA scores throughout San Diego County, where wages are higher than in many other areas of the country. Although this means the scores may not capture all areas with a health professional shortage, these data are still helpful for identifying areas with the most extreme need.

[220] Bureau of Health Workforce. (n.d.). What is Shortage Designation? Retrieved September 8, 2022, from https://bhw.hrsa.gov/workforce-shortage-areas/shortage-designation

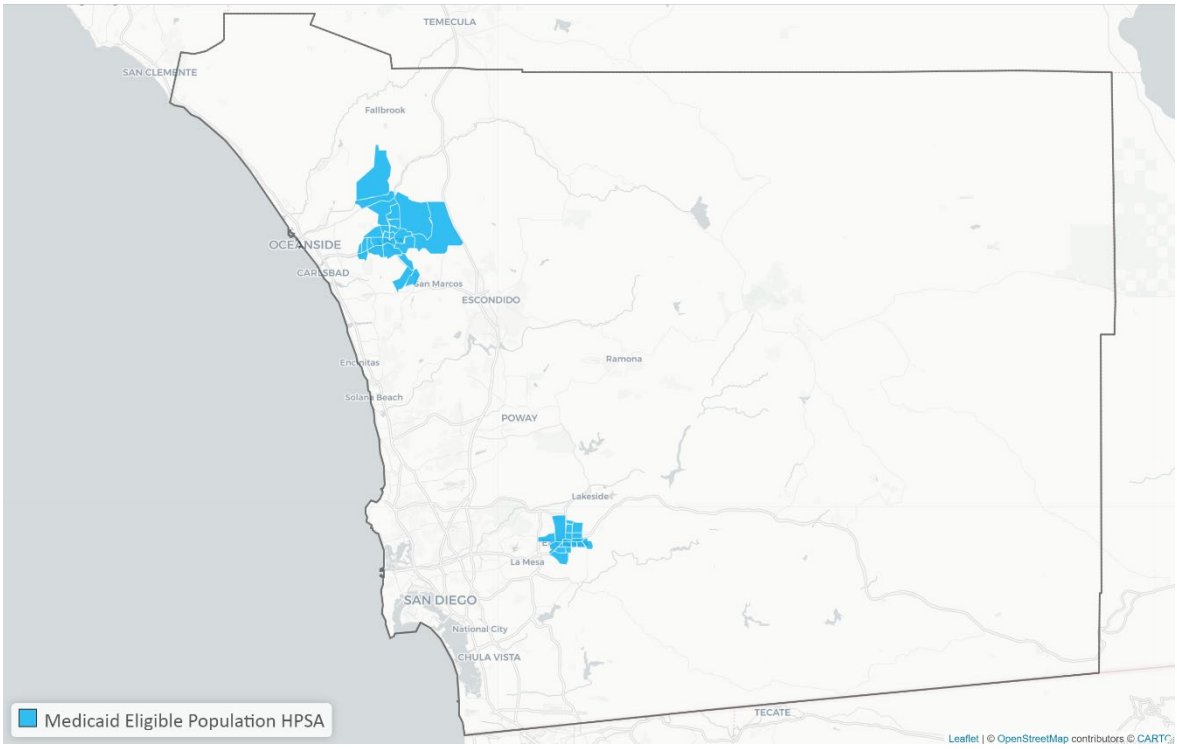
[221] https://data.hrsa.gov/topics/health-workforce/shortage-areas. Retrieved December 13, 2022.

Figure 21: Primary Care Health Professional Shortage Areas by Census Tract, San Diego County, 2021



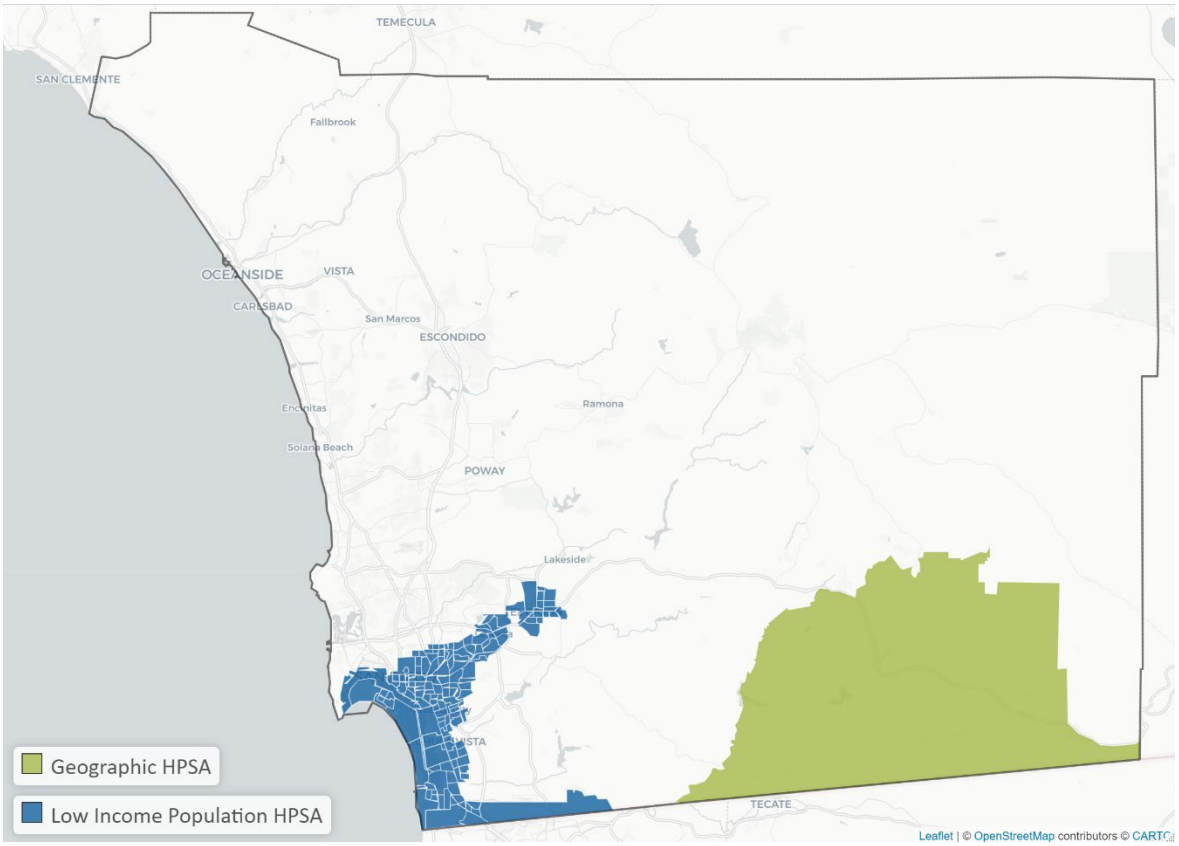
Data Source: Health Resources & Services Administration, 2021.
HPSA designations are based on 2010 Census Tracts.

Figure 22: Dental Health Professional Shortage Areas by Census Tract, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: Health Resources & Services Administration, 2021.
HPSA designations are based on 2010 Census Tracts.

Figure 23: Mental Health Professional Shortage Areas by Census Tract, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: Health Resources & Services Administration, 2021.
HPSA designations are based on 2010 Census Tracts.

Life Expectancy

Overall, people living in the United States are living longer, healthier lives. However, the number of years that a person can expect to live varies across demographic groups and geography. In fact, the differences in life expectancy across U.S. counties have broadened over the last several decades.[222] In this case, the impact of geography on life expectancy is reflected in a larger underlying set of causes. People who live near each other predominantly have similar incomes, health care access, food access, environmental exposure, and social norms that can influence

[222] ScienceDirect. (2020). Explaining the spatial variation in American life expectancy. Retrieved September 9, 2022, from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0277953619307543

things like smoking, drinking, substance abuse, exercise, and more. [223, 224, 225, 226] County action can influence many of these factors, including environmental exposure, food and health care access, and safety nets that can reduce the stress and other health impacts of having a low or precarious income.

Life expectancy is increasingly correlated with income: the gap between life expectancy in the richest and poorest census tracts in California increased from an 11.5 year difference in 2019 to a 14.7 year difference in 2020, and to 15.5 years in 2021.[227] Further, there are differences in mortality rates when evaluated by race and ethnicity minority groups. In California in 2021, life expectancy in years for non-Hispanic Asians was 83.5, non-Hispanic Whites was 78.7, Hispanics was 76.8, and non-Hispanic Blacks was 71.0. Nationwide in 2021, life expectancy in years for non-Hispanic Asians was 83.5, 77.7 for Hispanics, 76.4 for non-Hispanic Whites, and 70.8 for non-Hispanic Blacks.[228]

This report reflects life expectancy at birth. Life expectancy at birth represents the average number of years a person born that year would live if they were to experience throughout life the age-specific death rates prevailing during that year. This measure is useful for understanding the geographic variation within and between counties and then observing the effects of population-wide events and interventions. However, this method does leave out some information. For example, life expectancy can also be calculated by cohort, estimating the life expectancy for all people of a certain birth year.[229] The cohort method is more useful for an individual trying to assess their own life expectancy. Period-level life expectancy is of interest for showing geographic variation within the county and observing the impact of interventions that are not isolated to cohorts. However, when interpreting the numbers in this report, it is still important to remember that cohort factors can influence life expectancy across the county. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, life expectancy declined in 2020 and again in 2021, at

[223] McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Cook, J. M. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *27*, 415–444.

[224] Reardon, S. F., & Bischoff, K. (2011). Income inequality and income segregation. *American Journal of Sociology*, *116*(4), 1092–1153. https://doi.org/10.1086/657114

[225] Bezin, E., & Moizeau, F. (2017). Cultural dynamics, social mobility and urban segregation. *Journal of Urban Economics*, *99*, 173–187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jue.2017.02.004

[226] Smith, K. P., & Christakis, N. A. (2008). Social networks and health. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *34*, 405-429.

[227] Schwandt, H., Currie, J., von Wachter, T., Kowarski, J., Chapman, D., & Woolf, S. H. (2022). Changes in the relationship between income and life expectancy before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, California, 2015-2021. *JAMA, 328*(4), 360–366. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.10952

[228] Arias, E., Betzaida, T-V., Kochanek, K.D., & Ahmad, F.B. (2022). Provisional Life Expectancy Estimate for 2021. National Vital Statistics System, Vital Statistics Rapid Release Report No. 23. National Center for Health Statistics. Retrieved from, Vital Statistics Rapid Release, Number 023 (August 2022) (cdc.gov)

[229] Luy, M., Di Giulio, P., Di Lego, V., Lazarevič, P., & Sauerberg, M. (2020). Life expectancy: Frequently used, but hardly understood. *Gerontology, 66*(1), 95–104. https://doi.org/10.1159/000500955

not just the county level but the state and federal levels as well.[230] Further, because COVID-19 impacts people differently across the life course, it may have lowered the life expectancy for people born in 1950 more than those born in 1990.

To estimate life expectancy in different areas throughout the county, the Public Health Services Community Health Statistics Unit (CHSU) in the County of San Diego's Health and Human Services Agency uses SANDAG estimates of population in its denominator.[231] In order to make annual life expectancy estimates of smaller geographic areas in San Diego County a more robust population estimate is required. The report relied on population projections made using 2010 census data because 2020 census data were not available at the time. CHSU reports life expectancy by sex and by the racial categories of Asian, Black, Hispanic, and White. Unfortunately, these data are not disaggregated by other important features like disability status, immigrant status, or a more comprehensive and granular view of race.

In 2021 in San Diego County, the overall life expectancy of San Diego County residents was 80.6 years, meaning that children born in 2021 are expected to live 80.6 years on average (Table 11). In 2021, life expectancy was higher in San Diego County compared to California (78.4 years) and the U.S. (76.1 years).[232,233] Life expectancy was lower for males compared to females, and lower for Hispanics and Blacks compared to the county overall. In 2021, subregional areas of San Diego County had life expectancies ranging from 73.3 years in Chula Vista to 88.9 in University, which includes communities near the University City neighborhood within the City of San Diego (Figure 24).

[230] Schwandt, H., Currie, J., von Wachter, T., Kowarski, J., Chapman, D., & Woolf, S. H. (2022). Changes in the relationship between income and life expectancy before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, California, 2015-2021. *JAMA, 328*(4), 360–366. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.10952

[231] Life Expectancy in San Diego County 2010-2021. Retrieved, LifeExpectancyinSanDiegoCounty2010-2021.pdf

[232]. Schwandt, H., Currie, J., von Wachter, T., Kowarski, J., Chapman, D., & Woolf, S. H. (2022). Changes in the relationship between income and life expectancy before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, California, 2015-2021. *JAMA, 328*(4), 360–366. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.10952

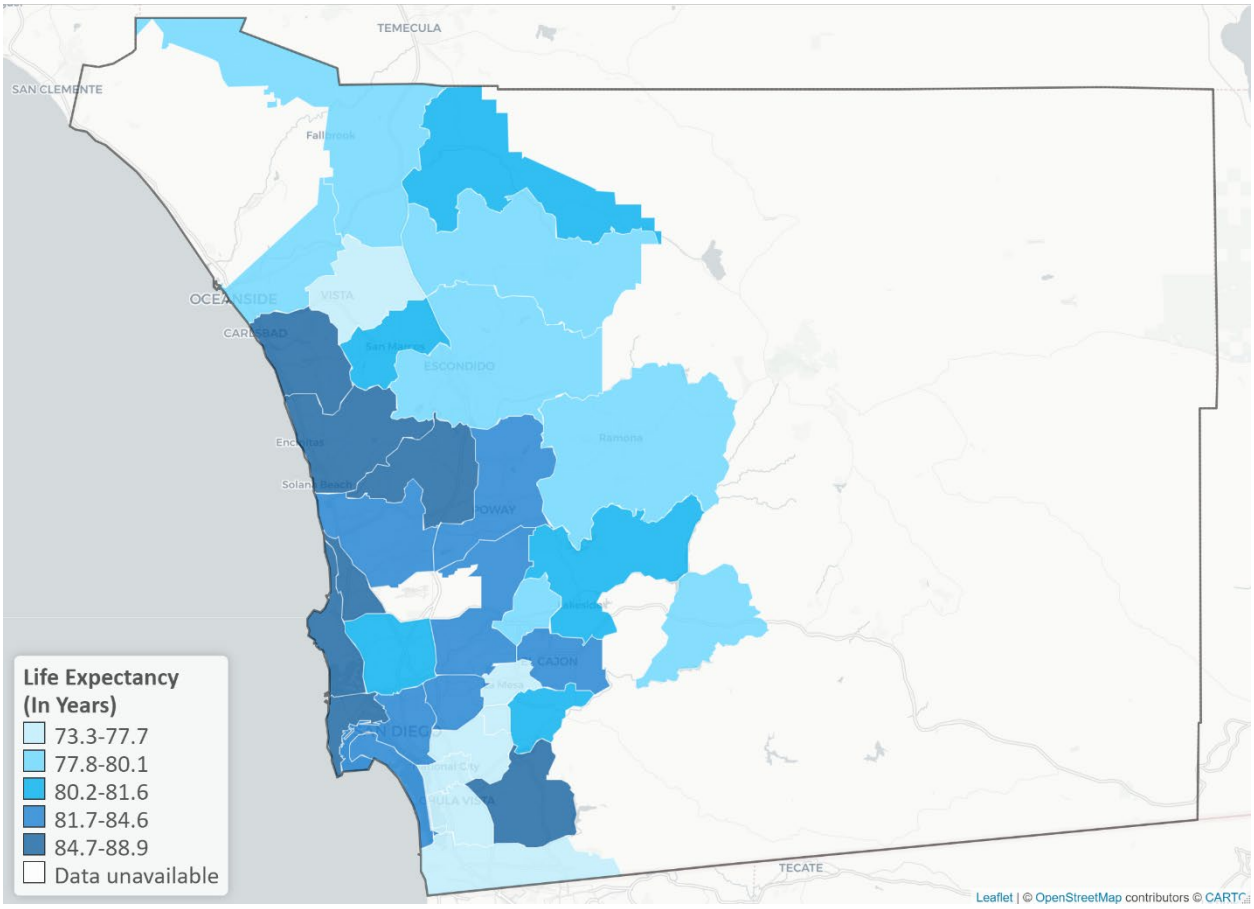
[233] Life Expectancy in the U.S. Dropped for Second Year in a Row in 2021. National Center for Health Statistics (2022). Life Expectancy in the U.S. Dropped for the Second Year in a Row in 2021 (cdc.gov)

Table 11: Life Expectancy by Race/Ethnicity and Sex, San Diego County, 2021

	Life Expectancy (In Years)
Race/Ethnicity	
Asian	84.9
Black	75.1
Hispanic	79.9
White	80.9
Sex	
Female	83.8
Male	77.6
Total	80.6

Data Sources: California Department of Public Health, Center for Health Statistics, Office of Health Information and Research, Vital Records Business Intelligence System (VRBIS). SANDAG Population Estimates, 2021 (vintage: 09/2022). Prepared by County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency, Public Health Services, Community Health Statistics Unit, 2022.

Figure 24: Life Expectancy by Subregional Areas (SRAs), San Diego County, 2021



Data Sources: California Department of Public Health, Center for Health Statistics, Office of Health Information and Research, Vital Records Business Intelligence System (VRBIS). SANDAG Population Estimates, 2021 (vintage: 09/2022). Prepared by County of San Diego, Health and Human Services Agency, Public Health Services, Community Health Statistics Unit, 2022. Unavailable data are censored due to variation in population size.

Housing

Shelter is an essential human need and for families with children, housing offers critically important stability. Many people living in the United States see homeownership as part of "the American Dream" and as a source of long-term financial security and well-being. There are many existing housing assistance programs, first-time home buyer programs, and regulations including the California Tenant Protection Act of 2019 and the California Fair Employment and Housing Act. However, housing of any type in San Diego County can be difficult to acquire due to factors like cost. Even when a person or family secures a form of housing, other circumstances can quickly threaten their ability to afford it, including adjustable-rate mortgages, increasing property taxes, rent increases, and income loss. In addition to financial barriers, potential renters may find applications denied due to credit history, lack of credit history (such as for recent immigrants), certain criminal convictions, family size, pets, previous evictions (even if the tenant won the complaint), illegal discrimination, and more. [234, 235, 236] This section of the report will focus on the three topics related to housing: Homelessness, Cost-Burdened Households, and Homeownership.

Homelessness

It is difficult to quantitatively describe the extent of homelessness because data are difficult to collect, and collection methods vary. Nationwide estimates of deaths among people experiencing homelessness range greatly, from 5,800 to 46,500 each year.[237] Life expectancy estimates for those who are experiencing homelessness also vary but are estimated to be substantially lower than the population at large.[238] It is believed that poor health can both lead to homelessness and be caused by homelessness. Unsheltered living and unstable housing can worsen health outcomes by limiting health care access and slowing recovery.[239] Suicidal ideation is many times more common among people experiencing homelessness, especially

[234] California Department of Real Estate. (2022) *California Tenants: Guide to Residential Tenants' and Landlords' Rights and Responsibilities*. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://www.courts.ca.gov/documents/California-Tenants-Guide.pdf

[235] California Civil Rights Department. (2023). Housing Discrimination: What Discrimination Looks Like. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://calcivilrights.ca.gov/housing/

[236]Khouri, A. (2022, Nov. 19). Illegal Section 8 housing discrimination is rampant. Los Angeles Times. Retrieved November 28, 2022, from https://www.latimes.com/california/story/2022-11-19/california-outlawed-section-8-housing-discrimination-why-it-still-persists

[237] National Health Care for the Homeless Council. (2020). National Homeless Mortality Overview. https://nhchc.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Section-1-Toolkit.pdf

[238] Romaszko, J., Cymes, I., Dragańska, E., Kuchta, R., & Glińska-Lewczuk, K. (2017). Mortality among the homeless: Causes and meteorological relationships. *PLoS ONE*, *12*(12), e0189938. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0189938

[239] National Health Care for the Homeless Council. (2019). Homelessness & Health: What's the Connection. Retrieved from https://nhchc.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/homelessness-and-health.pdf

among men.[240,241] In a recent poll of registered voters in California, homelessness ranked second out of 15 most important issues facing the state, with 29% of registered voters indicating it was one of the most important issues.[242]

The Regional Task Force on Homelessness (RTFH) provides annual estimates of people experiencing homelessness each year using #WeAllCount Point-In-Time Counts[243], a federally mandated program where volunteers survey those experiencing homelessness across the San Diego Region. This method is the most common way of measuring homelessness and includes counts of people experiencing homelessness by jurisdiction and whether the person was sheltered, such as a homeless shelter. Twenty census tracts in the North and East Regions of San Diego County are excluded from the counts due to no known unsheltered population and lack of outreach in those areas to confirm. Although many communities across the country participate in the same annual homeless Point-In-Time Count,[244] methods are adapted to regional needs and circumstances, so it may be difficult to compare the results of this count to those in other regions.

Table 12 presents the total number of sheltered and unsheltered people experiencing homelessness by jurisdiction in 2022. The City of San Diego showed the highest number of unsheltered and sheltered people experiencing homelessness. Oceanside had the second largest number of unsheltered people, and El Cajon had the second largest number of sheltered people. Future reports will aim to include demographic data. More information can be found on the RTFH website.[245]

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[240] Patterson, A. A., & Holden, R. R. (2012). Psychache and suicide ideation among men who are homeless: A test of Shneidman's model. *Suicide & Life-Threatening Behavior, 42*(2), 147–156. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1943-278X.2011.00078.x

[241] Coohey, C., Easton, S. D., Kong, J., & Bockenstedt, J. K. W. (2015). Sources of psychological pain and suicidal thoughts among homeless adults. *Suicide & Life-Threatening Behavior, 45*(3), 271–280. https://doi.org/10.1111/sltb.12126

[242] DiCamillo, M. (2022). Release #2022: Voters offer a wide range of issues they'd like the state to address. https://escholarship.org/uc/item/7sn293xs

[243] *We All Count*. (n.d.) San Diego Regional Task Force on Homelessness. Retrieved September 19, 2023, from https://www.rtfhsd.org/about-coc/weallcount-pitc/

[244] United States Interagency Council on Homelessness (USICH). (n.d.). Homelessness Statistics by State. Retrieved September 9, 2022, from https://www.usich.gov/tools-for-action/map/#fn[]=1300&fn[]=2900&fn[]=6400&fn[]=10200&fn[]=13400

[245] County of San Diego 2022 Point-in-Time Data. (n.d.) San Diego Regional Task Force on Homelessness. Retrieved from https://www.rtfhsd.org/reports-data

Table 12: Number of Unsheltered and Sheltered People Experiencing Homelessness by Jurisdiction, San Diego County, 2022

	Unsheltered	Sheltered
Incorporated Cities		
City of San Diego	2,494	2,307
Carlsbad	75	43
Chula Vista (Sweetwater)	206	103
Coronado	1	0
El Cajon	185	1,123
Encinitas (San Dieguito, Solana Beach, and Del Mar)	76	37
Escondido (NC Metro & Hidden Meadows)	182	172
Imperial Beach	25	0
La Mesa	35	18
Lemon Grove	31	0
National City	149	9
Oceanside	318	196
Poway	23	0
San Marcos	12	0
Santee	48	99
Vista (Bonsall)	76	41
Unincorporated Areas		
Alpine (Crest-Dehesa)	1	0
Fallbrook	25	0
Lakeside	63	0
Ramona	21	0
Spring Valley (Casa de Oro)	60	0

Data Source: Regional Task Force on Homeless, 2022 Point in Time Count.

Cost-Burdened Households

Housing is one of the largest budget items for most San Diego County families. In 2021, the median home price in San Diego County was about $743,000, up 15.2% over the course of that year.[246] The median list price in the U.S. at that time was less than $400,000.[247] The average rent in San Diego for a one-bedroom apartment in August 2022 was $2,678, up from $2,018 in 2021 (33% increase in one year) and $1,763 in 2019 (52% increase over 3 years), according to

[246] *San Diego home prices end year on high note—But not a record—The San Diego Union-Tribune*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 5, 2023, from https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/business/story/2022-01-20/san-diegos-home-price-ended-year-at-record-high

[247] Redfin. (n.d.). *United States Housing Market & Prices | Redfin*. Retrieved June 5, 2023, from https://www.redfin.com/us-housing-market

one report.[248] Further, landlords often require tenants to have incomes that are 2½ to three times the rent cost.[249, 250, 251] This equates to a tenant needing an annual income of $60,000 to $72,000 to rent a one-bedroom apartment for $2,000.

Low-income families, disabled residents and low-income older adults in San Diego may qualify for rental assistance through one of the county's six Public Housing Authorities. Low-income residents can qualify for Section 8 vouchers, but the average wait time for these vouchers as of March 2022 was 12 years in the city and 12 and a half years in the county.[252] The supply of affordable housing units in San Diego is not enough to meet current demand and is declining.[253]

While some San Diego County residents may have secured their housing when prices were much lower and some use less costly living arrangements, like living with others and applying for affordable housing, these options are not available to everyone.[254, 255, 256] To understand how the cost of housing impacts San Diego County while taking into account that not all households are paying the current market rate for a new lease or mortgage, a widely used measure called "cost-burdened households" is reported that relies on ACS data that include income and housing costs. Cost-burdened household measures set a threshold for the proportion of household income spent on housing. Various measures use 30% to 50%

[248] Zumper. (n.d.). Average Rent in San Diego, CA and Cost Information. Retrieved September 15, 2022, from https://www.zumper.com/rent-research/san-diego-ca

[249] Pure. (n.d.). *Rental Application Criteria*. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://sandiego.purepm.co/rental-criteria

[250] Fine Living San Diego. (2016). *Rental Application Requirements*. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://finelivinginsandiego.com/rental-application-requirements/

[251] Strata. (2023). *Qualification Requirements*. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://www.udr.com/san-diego-apartments/east-village/strata/faq/qualification-requirements/

[252] Halverstadt, L. (2022, March 17). Housing Subsidies Can't Keep Pace with Surging Rents. Voice of San Diego. Retrieved from http://voiceofsandiego.org/2022/03/17/housing-subsidies-cant-keep-pace-with-surging-rents/

[253]Half of San Diego's 70K "affordable" rental units could be gone by 2040, report says. (2020, June 3). San Diego Union-Tribune. Retrieved from https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/news/politics/story/2020-06-02/report-says-half-of-san-diegos-70k-affordable-rental-units-could-be-gone-by-2040

[254] Molnar, P. (2017). More San Diegans are taking on a roommate. The San Diego Tribune. https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/business/real-estate/sd-fi-roommates-more-20171218-story.html

[255] Weisberg, L., & Molnar, P. (2023). Homeownership in San Diego loses ground in last decade, especially for minorities and younger, middle-aged households. The San Diego Union Tribune. https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/business/story/2023-05-28/homeownership-in-san-diego-loses-ground-in-last-decade-especially-for-minorities-and-younger-middle-aged-households

[256] Castillo, C. (2023). Many San Diegans live in homes with three generations or more, whether or not there's space. KPBS. https://www.kpbs.org/news/local/2023/05/15/many-san-diegans-live-in-homes-with-three-generations-or-more-whether-or-not-theres-spa

thresholds; some include utilities, taxes, and insurance, and some choose to include only *low-income* residents whose housing meets a threshold, such as the CalEnviroScreen indicator. [257]

In San Diego County, the cost of housing is so high that it is often even a burden for people with higher incomes. Because of that, this measure is not limited to only those with low incomes. This means that the measure of cost-burdened households is a complement, rather than a repeat, of the CalEnviroScreen indicator. Two levels of cost burden measured both at the 30% level (cost-burdened) and 50% level (extremely cost-burdened) are presented in this report. Homeowner and renter costs were determined separately, and then combined into a single housing cost, whereby homeowner costs were used in the calculation of cost burden only for non-zero values of rental cost. Homeowner costs were defined as the sum of the first monthly mortgage payment, monthly property taxes, monthly property insurance, monthly condominium fee, monthly mobile home fee, and monthly utility fees for gas, water, electric, and fuels. Renter costs were defined as the gross monthly rental cost of the housing unit, including contract rent plus additional costs for utilities. Monthly housing costs were divided by the monthly household income to determine the level of cost burden. Cost burden was not calculated for households with missing income (90,799 people). Households with zero income or with negative income were assumed to be extremely cost-burdened.

This measure has some limitations: it does not include the impact of fixed housing costs (like down payments) or ongoing maintenance and repairs, only monthly ones. This particularly overlooks the costs of adapting housing for disabled residents' needs, for example by installing ramps, widening doorways, adding handrails, or installing elevators. Although there are some financial supports for accessibility modifications, not all disabled people qualify for those programs and landlords may not want to make these modifications. Second, the ACS data include only ranges for property tax costs, rather than exact amounts. The top value in the range was used to be inclusive of the maximum potential cost burden, but this may overestimate cost burden for homeowners on average. It was determined that it was more appropriate to overestimate in these cases because homeowners have additional, unaccounted for costs of maintenance and repairs (as discussed above).

In San Diego County in 2021, 38% of households were cost-burdened (20% cost-burdened, 18% extremely cost-burdened) (Table 13 and Figure 25). In the U.S. in 2021, 32% of households were cost-burdened. [258] More Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Some Other Race, and Hispanic or Latino people in San Diego County were living in cost-burdened and extremely cost-burdened households than the county overall. A higher percentage of people with a reported disability, females, and immigrants were living in extremely cost-burdened households compared to the county overall. Living in a cost burdened household can compress

[257] *Housing Burden | OEHHA*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 5, 2023, from https://oehha.ca.gov/calenviroscreen/indicator/housing-burden

[258] Joint Center for Housing Studies of Harvard University (2023). The State of the Nation's Housing 2023. https://www.jchs.harvard.edu/sites/default/files/reports/files/Harvard_JCHS_The_State_of_the_Nations_Housing_2023.pdf; U.S. Census Bureau. *2021 American Community Survey 1-year Estimates.*

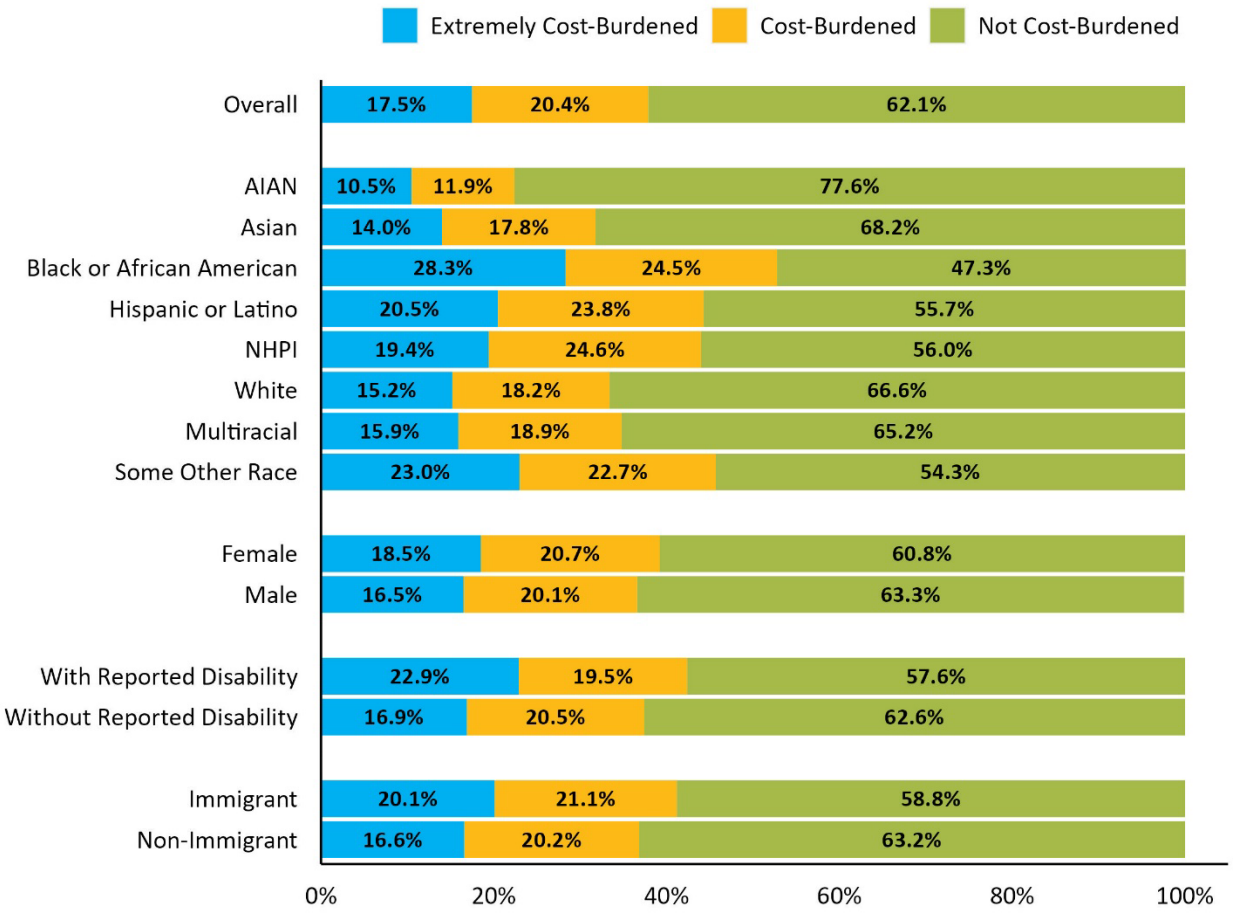
personal budgets and limit a person's ability to pay for other needs, save for retirement, grow their families, make other financial decisions.

Table 13: Number and Percent of People in Cost-Burdened Households, San Diego County, 2021

	Overall People in Households	Cost Burden Status					
		Extremely Cost-Burdened		Cost-Burdened		Not Cost-Burdened	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity							
AIAN	8,975	943	10.5%	1,065	11.9%	6,967	77.6%
Asian	375,027	52,577	14.0%	66,758	17.8%	255,692	68.2%
Black or African American	139,205	39,374	28.3%	34,052	24.5%	65,779	47.3%
Hispanic or Latino	1,107,814	226,743	20.5%	264,021	23.8%	617,050	55.7%
NHPI	10,936	2,119	19.4%	2,695	24.6%	6,122	56.0%
White	1,410,180	213,921	15.2%	256,682	18.2%	939,577	66.6%
Multiracial	142,391	22,655	15.9%	26,849	18.9%	92,887	65.2%
Some Other Race	11,570	2,659	23.0%	2,631	22.7%	6,280	54.3%
Sex							
Female	1,603,940	296,382	18.5%	332,062	20.7%	975,496	60.8%
Male	1,602,158	264,609	16.5%	322,691	20.1%	1,014,858	63.3%
Disability Status							
With Reported Disability	311,789	71,403	22.9%	60,850	19.5%	179,536	57.6%
Without Reported Disability	2,894,309	489,588	16.9%	593,903	20.5%	1,810,818	62.6%
Immigrant Status							
Immigrant	811,001	163,403	20.1%	171,123	21.1%	476,475	58.8%
Non-Immigrant	2,395,097	397,588	16.6%	483,630	20.2%	1,513,879	63.2%
Total	3,206,098	560,991	17.5%	654,753	20.4%	1,990,354	62.1%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 25: Percent of People in Cost-Burdened Households, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Homeownership

Homeownership can be a pathway toward financial well-being. It can also be a source of community, stability, and pride. People often build wealth through homeownership because they are forced to save for a down payment, mortgage payments build equity, and home values often appreciate, further increasing household net worth.[259] Although there are discussions about whether renting or buying a home can lead to greater wealth accumulation, in practice,

[259] Herbert, C. E., McCue, D. T., & Sanchez-Moyano, R. (2013). Is homeownership still an effective means of building wealth for low-income and minority households? (Was it ever?). *Homeownership Built to Last: Lessons from the Housing Crisis on Sustaining for Low-Income and Minority Families.*

owners who own for long periods tend to build wealth.[260] Renters are more likely to be living on a lower income and cost-burdened. In the U.S. according to 2021 data, 49% of renters spent at least 30% of their income on housing costs (see Cost-Burdened Households).[261]

Historically, redlining has barred communities of color from accessing proper mortgage loans.[262] Neighborhoods where Black residents lived were designated as high-risk, non-loan worthy areas for government-insured mortgage loans and later private bank loans.[263,264] Although now illegal, the consequences of redlining continue to affect communities across the U.S., including San Diego (see Neighborhood Diversity).

Currently, Black homeowners pay higher mortgage interest rates, are less likely to be able to refinance, pay higher insurance premiums, and pay higher property taxes.[265, 266] People with higher mortgage interest rates spend more to pay for the interest on their loan and less on the principal that builds equity and wealth. That can increase the risk of homeowners being unable to keep paying their mortgage.[267] The housing shortage has created an affordability crisis that makes it even more difficult for Black and Hispanic residents to purchase and keep homes, owing to the long-term impacts of discrimination on income and on generational wealth that

[260] Xiao Di, Z., Belsky, E., & Liu, X. (2007). Do homeowners achieve more household wealth in the long run? *Journal of Housing Economics, 16*(3–4). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhe.2007.08.001

[261] Joint Center for Housing Studies of Harvard University (2023). The State of the Nation's Housing 2023. https://www.jchs.harvard.edu/sites/default/files/reports/files/Harvard_JCHS_The_State_of_the_Nations_Housing_2023.pdf

[262] Government race-based sectioning of neighborhoods into low and high-risk areas to determine access to government-insured mortgage loans from 1930's New Deal programs. Maps were later adopted by private banks.

[263] Enemark, D., & Valle, B. (2020). San Diego's Racial Equity Gap: How We Got Here. San Diego Workforce Partnership. Retrieved from https://workforce.org/news/san-diegos-racial-equity-gap-how-we-got-here/

[264] Jackson, C. (2021). What Is Redlining? The New York Times. www.nytimes.com/2021/08/17/realestate/what-is-redlining.html

[265] Aronowitz, M., Golding, E., & Choi, J. H. (2020). The Unequal Costs of Black Homeownership. MIT Golub Center for Finance and Policy. Retrieved from https://gcfp.mit.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/Mortgage-Cost-for-Black-Homeowners-10.1.pdf

[266] Desilver, D., & Bialik, K. (2017, January 10). Blacks and Hispanics face extra challenges in getting home loans. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/01/10/blacks-and-hispanics-face-extra-challenges-in-getting-home-loans/

[267] Gruenstein Bocian, D. (2008). Race, ethnicity and subprime home loan pricing. *Journal of Economics and Business, 60*(1–2), 110–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeconbus.2007.10.001

could have been built through home equity over the years.[268] Further, there is not enough housing stock[269] which keeps rents and homeownership unaffordable.[270, 271]

Homeownership was measured from the ACS, which asked respondents if the home, apartment, or mobile home in which they live is owned free and clear (without a mortgage or loan), owned with a mortgage or loan, rented, or occupied without rent. The home, apartment, or mobile home may be owned or rented by the person completing the survey (head of household) for the household or by someone else living in the housing unit (inhabitant). In this report, homeownership status was measured by the head of household. Although the ACS survey does not identify which person in a household is the homeowner, the demographic characteristics of the head of household can be used to estimate the characteristics of the owners. This assumes that the person who completed the ACS survey for the home (the head of household) is most likely the homeowner if the home is owned, and that the demographic characteristics of the head of household approximate the characteristics of other household members.

About half of households (50%) were owned or being bought in San Diego County in 2021 (Table 14 and Figure 26). Homeownership appears to be disproportionately high among Asian and White people. While 58.4% of Asian and 57.2% of White heads of households lived in a home where one of the occupants was the owner, only 37.7% of Hispanic or Latino, 25.1% of Black or African American, and 23.1% Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander heads of households lived in an owner-occupied home.

Many in San Diego are working to address this issue, and the County can provide additional support. One barrier to homeownership is lack of funds for a down payment.[272] To overcome this, targeted down payment assistance is a great tool to decrease the racial gap in homeownership. Programs in San Diego County are already working to help more people

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[268] Keatts, A. (2022). One Year In, San Diego Isn't Anywhere Close to Building the Homes the State Says It Needs. Voice of San Diego. Retrieved from https://voiceofsandiego.org/2022/07/13/one-year-in-san-diego-isnt-anywhere-close-to-building-the-homes-the-state-says-it-needs/

[269] Keatts, A. (2022). One Year In, San Diego Isn't Anywhere Close to Building the Homes the State Says It Needs. Voice of San Diego. Retrieved from https://voiceofsandiego.org/2022/07/13/one-year-in-san-diego-isnt-anywhere-close-to-building-the-homes-the-state-says-it-needs/

[270] Price, S. (2022). Rent across San Diego County increases up 82% for 3-bedroom unit in Encinitas. CBS8. Retrieved from www.cbs8.com/article/news/local/paradise-at-a-price/rent-san-diego-county-increases-up-82-3-bedroom-unit-encinitas/509-12643ea3-a50d-41de-b397-098ea8f20fb7

[271] Kearns, P. (2022). San Diego passes San Francisco as nation's least affordable metro. Ojolabs. Retrieved from https://email.ojo.com/san-diego-passes-san-francisco-as-nations-least-affordable-metro

[272] Goodman, L., McCargo, A., Bai, B., Golding, E., & Strochak, S. (2018). *Barriers to Accessing Homeownership: Down Payment, Credit, and Affordability—2018*. The Urban Institute, Housing Finance Policy Center. https://www.urban.org/research/publication/barriers-accessing-homeownership-down-payment-credit-and-affordability-2018

become homeowners by providing down payment and closing assistance, financing the construction of lower-income units, and providing first-time homebuyer classes and credit counseling. For example, the San Diego Homeownership Equity Project involves 14 community organizations to support homeownership opportunities for people of color.[273] However, consumer education is necessary to help people navigate the multiple existing programs and their requirements.[274] Post-purchase counseling and financial support with expenses like major housing repairs can help homeowners sustain homeownership.[275,276] Another thing that local governments can do to help is modifying regulations to allow for different housing types in locations zoned for single-family homes, and revising requirements imposed on builders that may be hindering the construction of more housing.[277,278]

[273] San Diego Housing Commission. (n.d.). Homeownership Equity Project. Retrieved May 3, 2023, from https://www.sdhc.org/housing-opportunities/homeownership-equity-project/

[274] Goodman, L., McCargo, A., Bai, B., Golding, E., & Strochak, S. (2018). Barriers to Accessing Homeownership: Down Payment, Credit, and Affordability - 2018. The Urban Institute, Housing Finance Policy Center. Retrieved from www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/99028/barriers_to_accessing_homeownership_2018_4.pdf

[275] Dewar, M., & Mehdipanah, R. (2022). Lessons From Detroit's Make It Home Program For Sustaining Very Low-Income Homeownership. Poverty Solutions. Retrieved from https://poverty.umich.edu/publications/lessons-from-detroits-make-it-home-program-for-sustaining-very-low-income-homeownership/

[276] Herbert, C. E., & Belsky, E. S. (2008). The homeownership experience of low-income and minority households: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Cityscape, 10*(2), 5–59. http://www.jstor.org/stable/20868655

[277] Joint Center for Housing Studies of Harvard University (2022). America's Rental Housing.

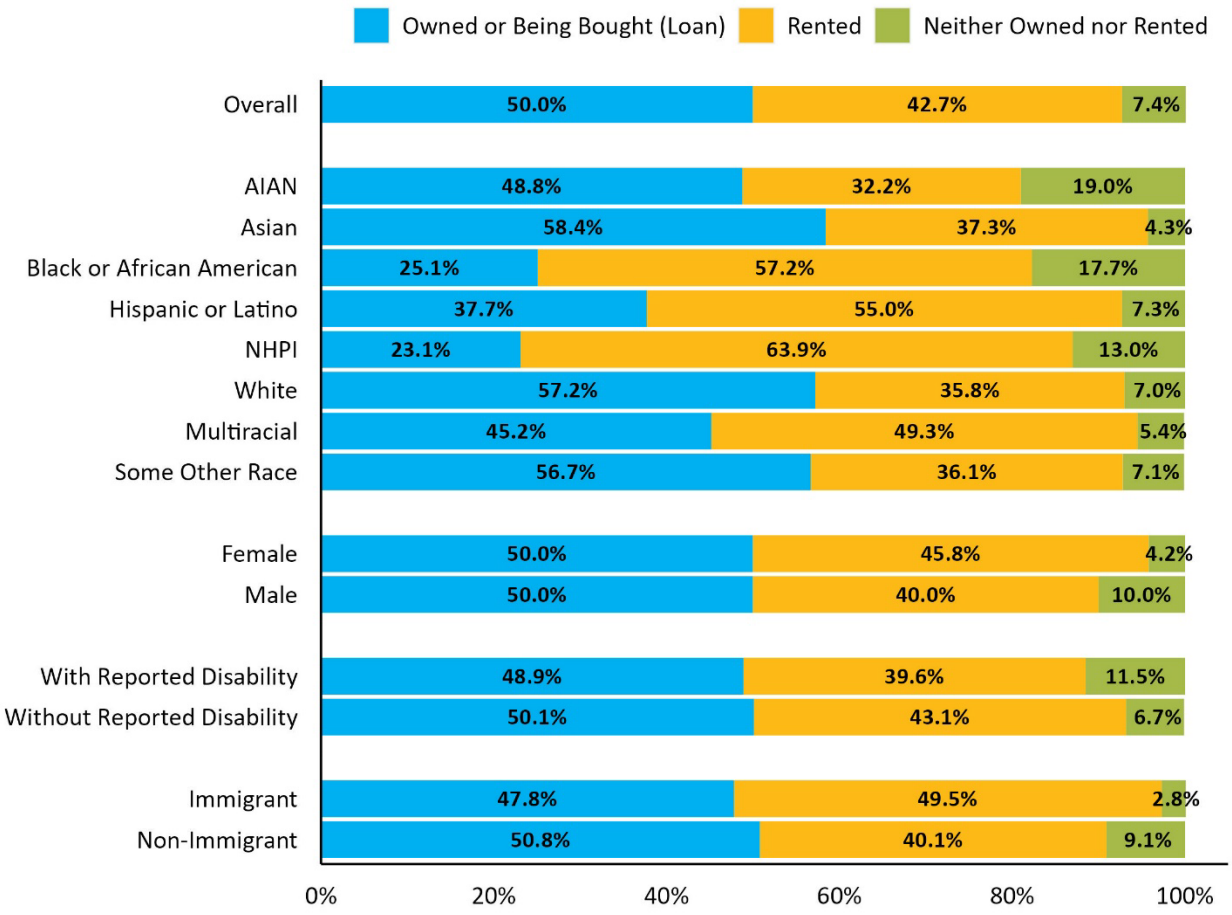
[278] McCargo, A. (2019). A five-point strategy for reducing the black homeownership gap. Urban Wire. Retrieved from www.urban.org/urban-wire/five-point-strategy-reducing-black-homeownership-gap

Table 14: Demographic Characteristics of Heads of Household Who Reported the Housing Unit was Rented or Owned by Its Inhabitants, San Diego County, 2021

		Housing Unit Ownership Status					
	Total Number of Reported Heads of Household	Neither Owned nor Rented*		Owned or Being Bought (Loan)		Rented	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity							
AIAN	4,011	762	19.0%	1,959	48.8%	1,290	32.2%
Asian	129,267	5,533	4.3%	75,529	58.4%	48,205	37.3%
Black or African American	65,985	11,701	17.7%	16,570	25.1%	37,714	57.2%
Hispanic or Latino	323,661	23,692	7.3%	121,942	37.7%	178,027	55.0%
NHPI	3,889	507	13.0%	898	23.1%	2,484	63.9%
White	660,513	46,180	7.0%	377,905	57.2%	236,428	35.8%
Multiracial	39,256	2,139	5.4%	17,753	45.2%	19,364	49.3%
Some Other Race	4,003	285	7.1%	2,271	56.7%	1,447	36.1%
Sex							
Female	563,014	23,921	4.2%	281,371	50.0%	257,722	45.8%
Male	667,571	66,878	10.0%	333,456	50.0%	267,237	40.0%
Disability Status							
With Reported Disability	163,545	18,818	11.5%	79,900	48.9%	64,827	39.6%
Without Reported Disability	1,067,040	71,981	6.7%	534,927	50.1%	460,132	43.1%
Immigrant Status							
Immigrant	339,796	9,426	2.8%	162,269	47.8%	168,101	49.5%
Non-Immigrant	890,789	81,373	9.1%	452,558	50.8%	356,858	40.1%
Total	1,230,585	90,799	7.4%	614,827	50.0%	524,959	42.7%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.
* Respondents selected "Occupied without payment of rent?" for the question "Is this house, apartment, or mobile home -- Mark (X) ONE box."

Figure 26: Demographic Characteristics of Heads of Household Who Reported the Housing Unit was Rented or Owned by Its Inhabitants, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.
The "Neither Owned nor Rented" category are respondents that selected "Occupied without payment of rent?" for the question "Is this house, apartment, or mobile home -- Mark (X) ONE box."

Infrastructure

To support the regional economy, the city, county, state, and federal governments cooperate with industry to fund, plan, build, and maintain infrastructure. This section reviews indicators relating to how that infrastructure works for residents of the county and where inequities exist.

The focus in this report is on two key types of infrastructure that support San Diego County residents' ability to work and connect— internet infrastructure (Internet Access) and transportation infrastructure (Commute Time and Method of Transportation). Other indicators in this report reflect the impact of different types of infrastructure, including those in Food Systems, Health, Housing, and Parks and Natural Resources.

Internet Access

Many consider internet access to be an essential social good. People rely on the internet for social interaction, especially people with disabilities, older adults, and rural residents.[279, 280, 281] The internet may be required to participate in education in many places. And the internet is pragmatically essential for exercising and protecting some human rights.[282] Many employers require job applicants to inquire online, so the "convenient" online applications or professional networking sites are a barrier for those without internet, with slow connections, or with outdated hardware and software. Internet access, especially high-speed connections, also increases access to medical services and information like telehealth, and to work remote jobs.

Barriers to internet access can be financial: for example, internet access requires hardware in addition to a monthly internet subscription. There is also limited availability: not all areas of the country have options for internet service providers or affordable options, especially in rural areas.

Definitions of "high-speed" internet access vary and change over time. Since 2015, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) has defined broadband as 25 megabits per second (Mbps)

[279] Obst, P., & Stafurik, J. (2010). Online we are all able bodied: Online psychological sense of community and social support found through membership of disability-specific websites promotes well-being for people living with a physical disability. Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 20(6), 525–531. https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.1067

[280] Stern, M. J., & Adams, A. E. (2010). Do rural residents really use the Internet to build social capital? An empirical investigation. American Behavioral Scientist, 53(9), 1389–1422. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764210361692

[281] Hunsaker, A., & Hargittai, E. (2018). A review of Internet use among older adults. New Media & Society, 20(10), 3937–3954. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444818787348

[282] Archer, A., & Wildman, N. (2021). Internet Access as an Essential Social Good. In E. Aarts, H. Fleuren, M. Sitskoorn, & T. Wilthagen (Eds.), The New Common: How the COVID-19 Pandemic is Transforming Society. Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-65355-2

for downloading and 3 Mbps for uploading data.[283] However, some stakeholders have advocated[284] to increase this threshold, recognizing that many households require the capacity for more than one person to simultaneously access online work or schoolwork during the day. A recent government initiative to expand high-speed internet access in the rural and tribal areas in the U.S. used a much higher threshold: 100 Mbps download and 100 Mbps upload.[285]

In the ACS, the source of the data used for this indicator, respondents were asked: "Do you or any member of this household have access to the Internet using a broadband (high speed) Internet service such as cable, fiber optic, or DSL service installed in this household?" The advantage of this approach is that self-report may reflect the residents' perception of the adequacy of their internet speed. However, residents' access speeds cannot be compared with any of the above thresholds. It is also important to note that the actual speed of internet upload and download often varies substantially from the advertised speed, and that asking residents about the advertised speed is not a reliable measure of actual access.[286]

Another limitation of this indicator is that it does not include mobile internet access. Increasingly, people rely on their phones and tablets for internet access, and many cite it as a reason for not purchasing broadband internet. According to Pew in 2019, 45% of non-broadband users say that they do not subscribe because their phone allows them to do everything they need to do online.[287] Many people in the United States rely solely on their phone's data plan to access the internet,[288] especially people under 29 years old, people who are Black or Hispanic, people with incomes below $30,000, or people with a high school diploma or less. Expanding cell phone data coverage throughout the county, improving that coverage's capacity, and smartphone access could improve access as well. Not all phones or data plans are capable of offering online education, telework tools, and job applications, and

[283] Congressional Research Service. (2021). *Raising the Minimum Fixed Broadband Speed Benchmark: Background and Selected Issues*. https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/IF/IF11875/2

[284] Bennet, M., King, A., Portman, R., & Manchin III, J. (n.d.). Bipartisan Broadband Speed Letter. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://cdn.vox-cdn.com/uploads/chorus_asset/file/22344741/2021_0304_Bipartisan_Broadband_Speed_Letter_FINAL__1__1_.pdf

[285] Biden-Harris Administration Announces $502 Million for High-Speed Internet in Rural Communities. (n.d.). Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://www.usda.gov/media/press-releases/2022/09/22/biden-harris-administration-announces-502-million-high-speed

[286] Federal Communications Commission. (2021). Measuring Fixed Broadband—Eleventh Report. Retrieved from https://www.fcc.gov/reports-research/reports/measuring-broadband-america/measuring-fixed-broadband-eleventh-report

[287] Anderson, M. (2019, June 13). Mobile Technology and Home Broadband 2019. Pew Research Center: Internet, Science & Tech. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/2019/06/13/mobile-technology-and-home-broadband-2019/

[288] Pew Research Center: Internet, Science & Tech. (n.d.). Internet/Broadband Fact Sheet. Retrieved February 22, 2023, from https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/fact-sheet/internet-broadband/

not all essential apps or webpages are readable on mobile phones. Future reports may include data about access to smartphones or tablets with these capabilities.

Table 15 and Figure 27 show that 11% of San Diego County residents reported not having access to high-speed internet in 2021. A greater percentage of Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino, American Indian or Alaska Native, and Some Other Race people than White people reported not having high speed internet access at home. Residents with a reported disability and immigrants were more likely to be without internet access than residents without a reported disability and non-immigrants, respectively. Compared to other regions in the county, the southern and eastern regions had higher percentages of households without access to high-speed internet (Figure 28).

Internet access is actionable by local government and other groups hoping to improve internet access in the county. For example, groups could participate in the ReConnect Program to expand rural access, refer qualifying residents to apply for internet cost assistance programs,[289] or enact a municipal wireless program. In January 2023, County of San Diego released a Comprehensive Broadband Plan[290] to set a vision for "high speed, affordable, and reliable broadband internet for those who want it in the unincorporated area," in part by expanding infrastructure (e.g., through grants, streamlined permitting, and public access points). SANDAG's GetConnected program[291] works to expand access through partnerships with community benefit organizations and by promoting the Federal Communications Commissions' Affordable Connectivity Program.[292]

[289] Biden-Harris Administration Announces $502 Million for High-Speed Internet in Rural Communities. (n.d.). Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://www.usda.gov/media/press-releases/2022/09/22/biden-harris-administration-announces-502-million-high-speed

[290] County of San Diego Land Use and Environment Group. (2023). Comprehensive Broadband Plan. Retrieved from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/lueg/docs/Comprehensive_Broadband_Plan_January_2023.pdf

[291] SANDAG (n.d.). Get Connected. Retrieved February 23, 2023, from https://www.sandag.org/getconnected/

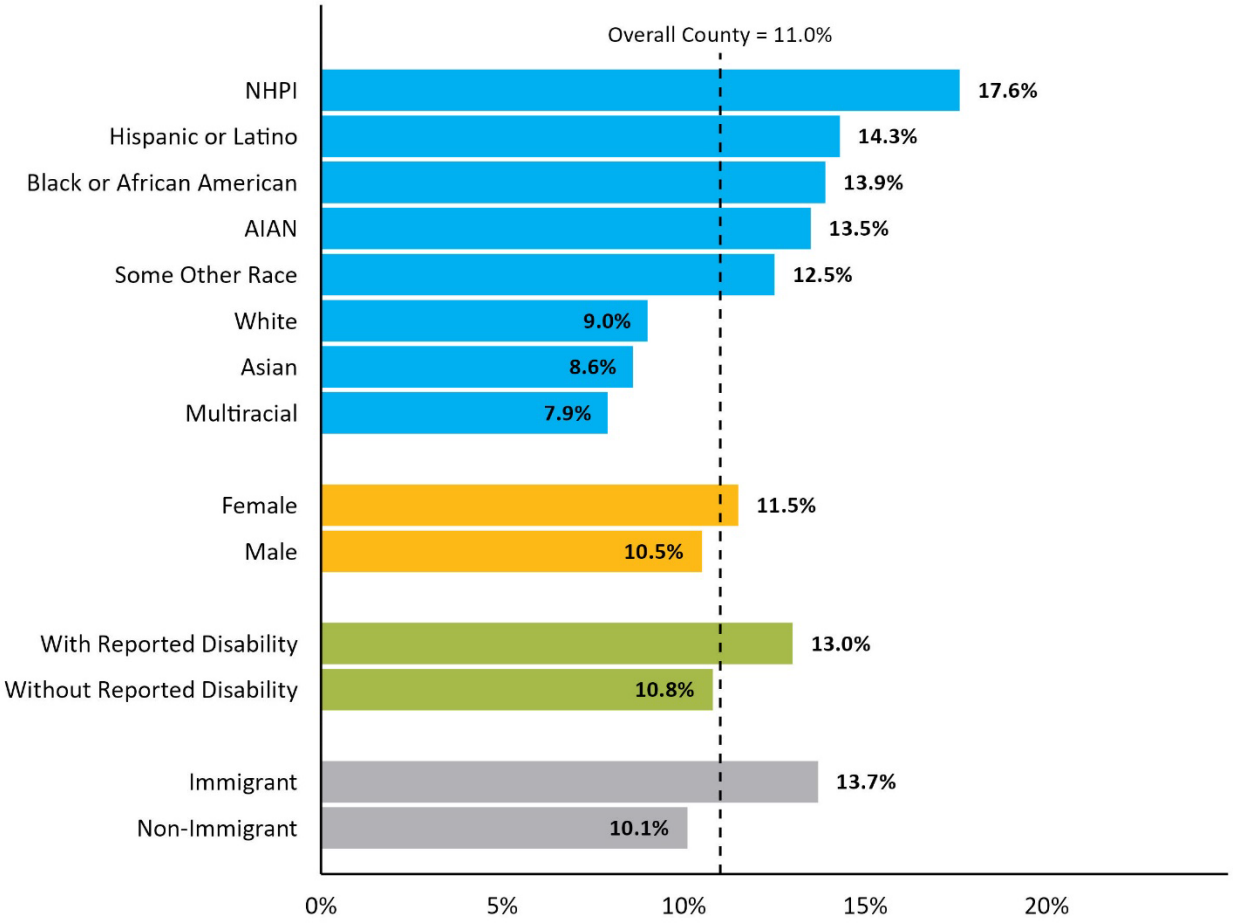
[292] USAC. (n.d.). Affordable Connectivity Program. Retrieved February 23, 2023, from https://www.affordableconnectivity.gov/

Table 15: Number and Percent With and Without High-Speed Internet Access, San Diego County, 2021

		Internet			
		With High-Speed Internet		Without High-Speed Internet	
	Overall County	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	9,737	8,427	86.5%	1,310	13.5%
Asian	380,560	347,676	91.4%	32,884	8.6%
Black or African American	150,906	129,931	86.1%	20,975	13.9%
Hispanic or Latino	1,131,506	969,472	85.7%	162,034	14.3%
NHPI	11,443	9,424	82.4%	2,019	17.6%
White	1,456,360	1,325,161	91.0%	131,199	9.0%
Multiracial	144,530	133,084	92.1%	11,446	7.9%
Some Other Race	11,855	10,372	87.5%	1,483	12.5%
Sex					
Female	1,627,861	1,440,404	88.5%	187,457	11.5%
Male	1,669,036	1,493,143	89.5%	175,893	10.5%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	330,607	287,789	87.0%	42,818	13.0%
Without Reported Disability	2,966,290	2,645,758	89.2%	320,532	10.8%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	820,427	708,111	86.3%	112,316	13.7%
Non-Immigrant	2,476,470	2,225,436	89.9%	251,034	10.1%
Total	3,296,897	2,933,547	89.0%	363,350	11.0%

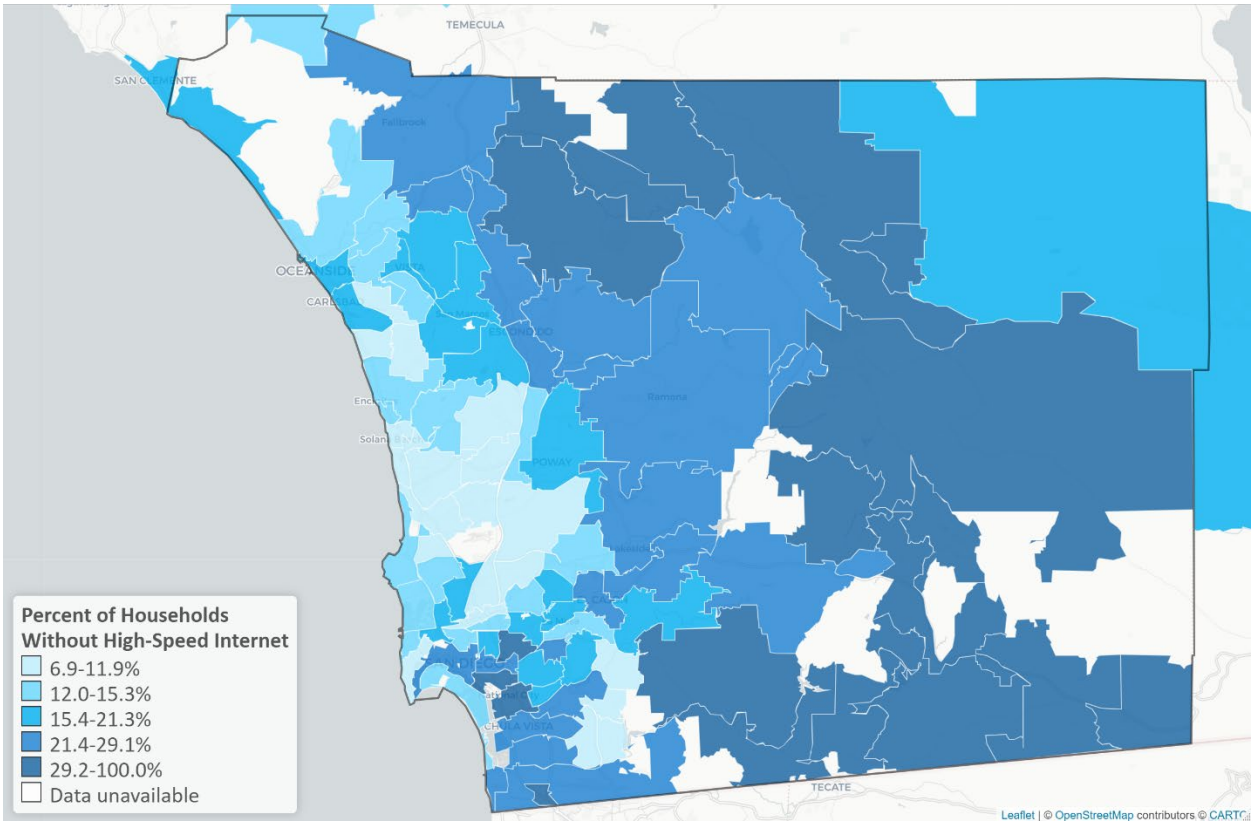
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 27: Percent of Residents Without High-Speed Internet Access, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 28: Households Without High-Speed Internet Access by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table S2801.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Commute Time and Method of Transportation

The time and money spent traveling between home and work adds up quickly, making a big impact on workers' mental health, the environment, and household budgets. Traffic congestion, crowding, and unpredictability can cause stress during one's commute; negative experiences during the commute can also spill over into how people feel and perform at home and work.[293] In terms of the environment, bus transit saves on fuel emissions compared to passenger cars; according to one analysis, a car with one occupant emits 89 pounds of CO_2 per 100 passenger miles, while a full bus emits 14 pounds.[294] Transportation can also be costly. According to the

[293] Chatterjee, K., Chng, S., Clark, B., Davis, A., De Vos, J., Ettema, D., Handy, S., Martin, A., & Reardon, L. (2020). Commuting and wellbeing: A critical overview of the literature with implications for policy and future research. *Transport Reviews, 40*(1), 5–34. https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2019.1649317

[294] Lowe, M., Aytekin, B., & Gereffit, G. (2009). Public Transit Buses: A Green Choice Gets Greener. Center on Globalization Governance and Competitiveness. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/294579836

annual Consumer Expenditure Survey from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS),[295] the average American in 2021 reported paying 12.1% of their pre-taxed household income on transportation (for any reason) annually over the previous two years.

Two variables from the ACS—how people usually got to work in the last week and the total amount of time in minutes that it usually took them to get from home to work in the last week—are used to report the commute time and method of transportation of residents in San Diego County. In 2021, as shown in Table 16, the vast majority of workers in San Diego County drove to their jobs, whether that be in an auto, truck, or van (79.7%) or on a motorcycle (0.5%). Only 2.6% of residents in San Diego County relied on public transportation, 3.0% on walking only, 1.1% on some other method of transportation, 0.5% on biking to work, and 12.7% worked at home and did not commute.

Table 17 and Figure 29 illustrate commute method of transportation by demographics in San Diego County in 2021. More White and Multiracial people in San Diego County worked from home than any other racial/ethnic group. A disabled worker was twice as likely to take public transportation to work than a non-disabled worker.

Despite carpool and bus lanes, taking the bus (and other public transportation) still often means a trade-off for time because buses make stops along their routes, and it takes time for bus riders to get to and from bus stops at home and their destination. Table 18 shows that the average commute time reported by people taking public transportation was 49 minutes, compared to 26 minutes for those driving private vehicles, in San Diego County in 2021. Bicyclists reported an average commute time of 20 minutes and those who walked to work reported an average of 12 minutes.

In Table 19, White residents of San Diego County had shorter average commute times than residents of most minority races and ethnicities.[296] Longer commute times may be due to living further away from the workplace, the relative likelihood of taking public transport, or some combination.

Transportation can be influenced by geography. In regions that are fairly spread out or where residents live far from employers, people must spend more time on the road getting to and from work. In 2021 in San Diego County, the commute times were longer for workers in the eastern parts of the county (Figure 30).

One option for reducing the negative well-being, environmental, and financial impacts of commuting on workers is to increase opportunities for remote work when possible. Remote and

[295] Calendar two year means tables by geographic areas: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (n.d.). Retrieved March 10, 2023, from https://www.bls.gov/cex/tables/geographic/mean.htm#msa

[296] The difference between the longest and shortest average commute times is about 25%. It would also be interesting to look at the range and standard deviation of these measures.

hybrid options reduce or eliminate commutes that can be stressful, expensive, time-consuming and usually unfriendly to the environment. Policies that close the digital divide by subsidizing or providing reliable, high-speed internet (see Internet Access), reward companies for offering remote or hybrid working models, or support childcare for those who work from home could help eliminate additional commutes. Of course, remote work is not possible in all occupations and remote-capable jobs are not equally accessible. Workers in restaurants and hotels, for example, mostly cannot work from home. They also have relatively low wages, making the financial costs of commuting particularly high. Remote workers tend to be higher educated and higher paid.[297] To ensure that benefits of lower commute times are widely and equitably distributed, maximizing remote work alone is not a complete solution.

Table 16: Percent of Commute Method of Transportation Among those Employed, San Diego County, 2021

	Percent of Employed
Private motor vehicle	
Auto, truck, or van	79.7%
Motorcycle	0.5%
Public transport	
Bus	1.9%
Ferryboat	0.0%
Light rail, streetcar, or trolley car	0.2%
Long-distance train or commuter train	0.2%
Subway or elevated	0.1%
Taxicab	0.2%
Bicycle	0.5%
Walked only	3.0%
Other	1.1%
Worked at home	12.7%
Total	100.0%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

[297] Bartik, A. W., Cullen, Z. B., Glaeser, E. L., Luca, M., & Stanton, C. T. (2020). What jobs are being done at home during the Covid-19 crisis? Evidence from firm-level surveys (Working Paper No. 27422). National Bureau of Economic Research. https://doi.org/10.3386/w27422

Table 17: Commute Method of Transportation Among those Employed by Demographics, San Diego County, 2021

	Overall County	Commute Method											
		Private Motor Vehicle		Public Transport		Bicycle		Walked Only		Other		Worked at Home	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity													
AIAN	4,563	3,725	81.6%	140	3.1%	27	0.6%	317	6.9%	.	.	354	7.8%
Asian	197,992	161,344	81.5%	5,541	2.8%	990	0.5%	3,769	1.9%	1,997	1.0%	24,351	12.3%
Black or African American	72,555	56,353	77.7%	4,414	6.1%	276	0.4%	3,631	5.0%	663	0.9%	7,218	9.9%
Hispanic or Latino	527,197	443,857	84.2%	18,513	3.5%	2,223	0.4%	15,158	2.9%	7,307	1.4%	40,139	7.6%
NHPI	6,574	5,425	82.5%	231	3.5%	7	0.1%	80	1.2%	11	0.2%	820	12.5%
White	743,866	576,079	77.4%	11,089	1.5%	4,975	0.7%	22,548	3.0%	7,152	1.0%	122,023	16.4%
Multiracial	58,407	44,648	76.4%	1,391	2.4%	198	0.3%	1,901	3.3%	1,228	2.1%	9,041	15.5%
Some Other Race	5,719	4,365	76.3%	105	1.8%	74	1.3%	299	5.2%	64	1.1%	812	14.2%
Sex													
Female	715,817	571,278	79.8%	19,430	2.7%	1,770	0.2%	14,364	2.0%	8,245	1.2%	100,730	14.1%
Male	901,056	724,518	80.4%	21,994	2.4%	7,000	0.8%	33,339	3.7%	10,177	1.1%	104,028	11.5%
Disability Status													
With Reported Disability	68,567	50,677	73.9%	3,716	5.4%	276	0.4%	2,009	2.9%	1,503	2.2%	10,386	15.1%
Without Reported Disability	1,548,306	1,245,119	80.4%	37,708	2.4%	8,494	0.5%	45,694	3.0%	16,919	1.1%	194,372	12.6%
Immigrant Status													
Immigrant	466,288	386,583	82.9%	15,156	3.3%	2,305	0.5%	9,027	1.9%	6,047	1.3%	47,170	10.1%
Non-Immigrant	1,150,585	909,213	79.0%	26,268	2.3%	6,465	0.6%	38,676	3.4%	12,375	1.1%	157,588	13.7%
Total	1,616,873	1,295,796	80.1%	41,424	2.6%	8,770	0.5%	47,703	3.0%	18,422	1.1%	204,758	12.7%

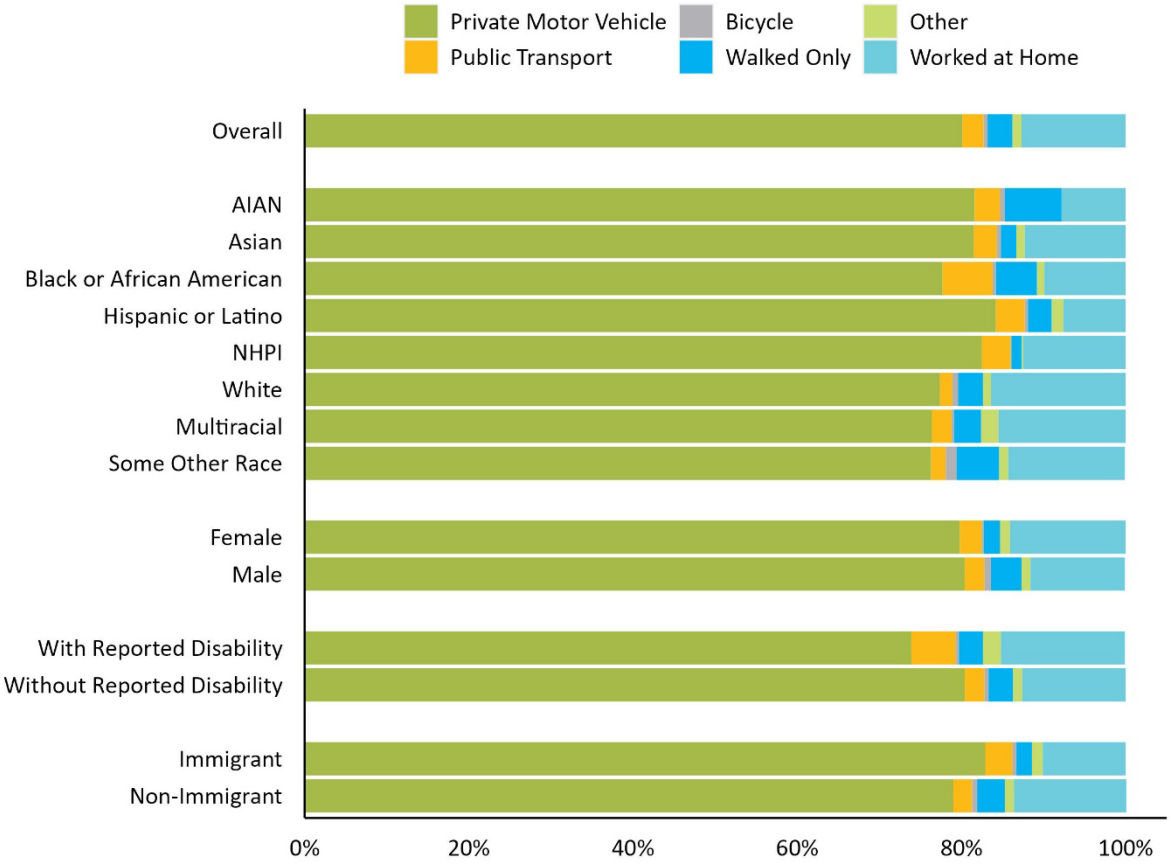
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.

The total number of employed people in the county, 1,616,873 is less than the number employed in Table 20 (n=1,654,230) because the question about commute methods of transportation was not applicable for some employed people and those people are excluded from this table.

Figure 29: Commute Method of Transportation Among those Employed by Demographics, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native.
NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.

Table 18: Commute Time by Method of Transportation, San Diego County, 2021

	Average Time (In Minutes)
Private Motor Vehicle	25.83
Public Transport	48.73
Bicycle	20.31
Walked Only	12.04

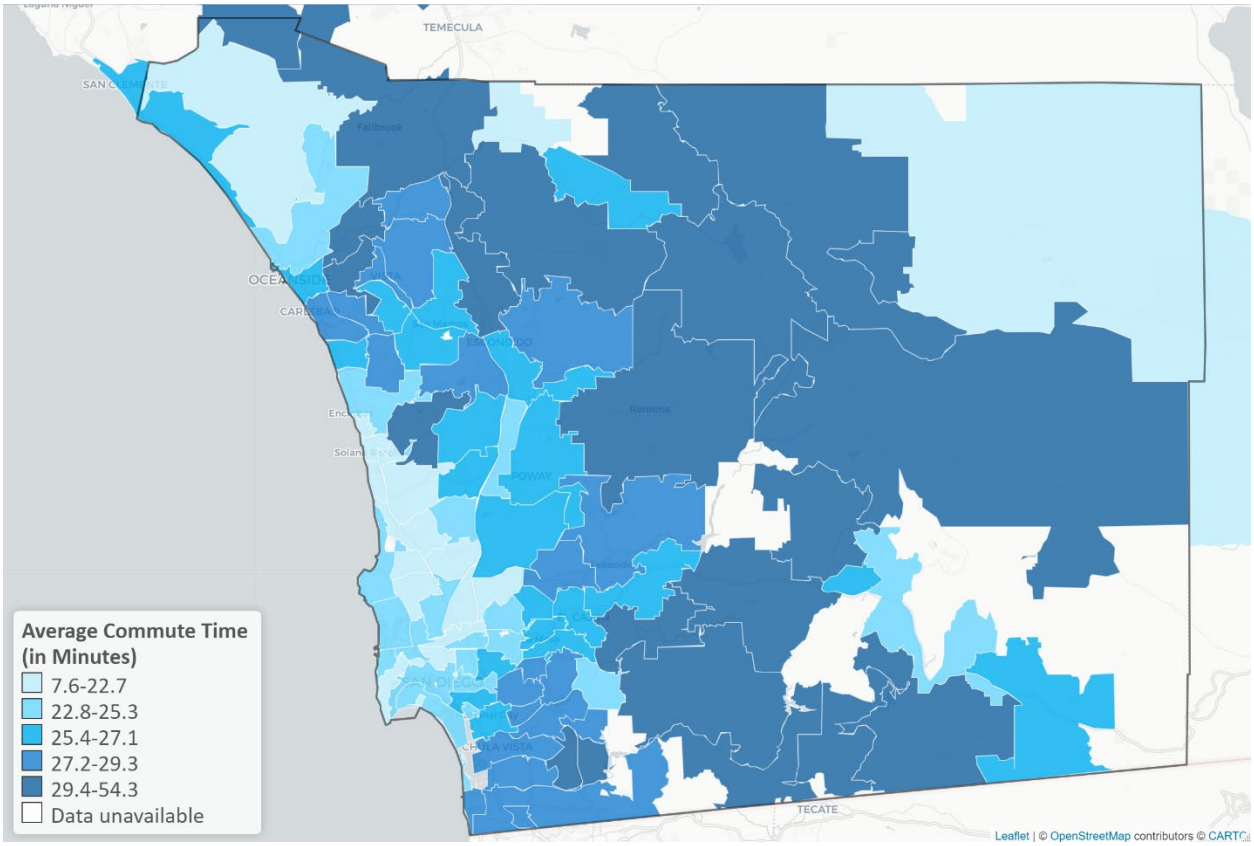
Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Table 19: Commute Time, San Diego County, 2021

	Average Time (In Minutes)
Race/Ethnicity	
AIAN	25.06
Asian	26.19
Black or African American	26.74
Hispanic or Latino	26.16
NHPI	24.39
White	25.77
Multiracial	26.22
Some Other Race	24.38
Sex	
Female	25.20
Male	26.63
Disability Status	
With Reported Disability	27.46
Without Reported Disability	25.94
Immigrant Status	
Immigrant	26.21
Non-Immigrant	25.92
Total	26.01

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 30: Average Commute Time for Employed People 16 Years of Age and Older by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table S0801.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Jobs and Finances

Consistent, sufficient income is central to families' financial stability, economic mobility, and health outcomes. Differences in income among demographic groups can stem from discrimination in education, recruiting, hiring[298], wage setting, and in promotions and performance evaluations. [299] Income differences can also come from factors that make it more difficult for prospective professionals to train for, apply, secure, and perform their occupation. Examples of inhibiting factors include different cultural backgrounds[300], having caregiving responsibilities[301], or physical or mental disabilities.[302]

Indicators to assess jobs and finances in this report include Employment, Poverty, Self-Sufficiency Wage, and Households with Debt in Collections.

Employment

Employment can be a path to financial stability and growth. Many people also rely on their employer for health and other insurance, retirement savings, and intangible benefits like social connection and a feeling of contributing to the community. Inequity in wealth,[303] education,[304] and social capital [305] may contribute to unequal opportunity to qualify and apply for high-paying, stable jobs. Additionally, conscious and unconscious biases may limit the success of

[298] Petersen, T., & Saporta, I. (2004). The opportunity structure for discrimination. American Journal of Sociology, 109(4), 852-901.

[299] Elvira, M., & Town, R. (2001). The effects of race and worker productivity on performance evaluations. Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society, 40(4), 571-590.

[300] Akee, R., Jones, M. R., & Porter, S. R. (2019). Race matters: Income shares, income inequality, and income mobility for all US races. *Demography*, *56*(3), 999-1021.

[301] Oliker, S. (2011). Sociology and studies of gender, caregiving, and inequality. *Sociology Compass*, *5*(11), 968-983.

[302] Pettinicchio, D., & Maroto, M. (2017). "Employment Outcomes Among Men and Women with Disabilities: How the Intersection of Gender and Disability Status Shapes Labor Market Inequality." In Factors in Studying Employment for Persons with Disability, edited by BM Altman, 3-33.

[303] Killewald, A., Pfeffer, F. T., & Schachner, J. N. (2017). Wealth inequality and accumulation. *Annual Review of Sociology, 43*, 379–404. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-060116-053331

[304] Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). The color line in American education: Race, resources, and student achievement. *Du Bois Review: Social Science Research on Race, 1*(2), 213–246. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1742058X0404202X

[305] McDonald, S., & Day, J. (2010). Race, gender, and the invisible hand of social capital. *Sociology Compass, 4*, 532–543. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9020.2010.00298.x

qualified applicants whose racial and ethnic characteristics,[306] sex or gender,[307, 308] disability,[309] age, [310] marital status,[311] sexuality,[312] appearance,[313] and other characteristics [314] challenge the beliefs and assumptions of recruiters and hiring managers.

Information on employment statistics was gathered from the ACS. Employment rates are available year-to-year and month-to-month, allowing for different years to be compared. However, the data collected in 2020 were substantially disrupted by the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic and interpretation of that year's data should be taken with caution. Because ACS data were neither an average across a year nor a point-in-time count, ACS data cannot be compared directly to point-in-time employment rates and counts from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS).

ACS allows respondents to indicate whether they are "employed," "unemployed," or "not in the labor force." Respondents who are not in the labor force (NILF) are not working and not looking for work, often because they are retired, in school, or a full-time caregiver.[315] People who are participating in the labor force can either be employed or not employed but looking for work. Employment is commonly reported alone, but for purposes of this report, it is presented alongside labor force participation for context and to observe the patterns in labor force participation across demographic characteristics.

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[306] Quillian, L., Pager, D., Hexel, O., & Midtbøen, A. H. (2017). Meta-analysis of field experiments shows no change in racial discrimination in hiring over time. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 114*(41), 10870–10875. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1706255114

[307] Gerdes, E. P., & Garber, D. M. (1983). Sex bias in hiring: Effects of job demands and applicant competence. *Sex Roles, 9*(3), 307–319. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00289666

[308] Shannon, M. (2022). The labour market outcomes of transgender people. *Labour Economics, 77*, 102006. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2021.102006

[309] Bjelland, M. J., Bruyère, S. M., von Schrader, S., Houtenville, A. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, A., & Webber, D. A. (2010). Age and disability employment discrimination: Occupational rehabilitation implications. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation, 20*(4), 456–471. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10926-009-9194-z

[310] Gordon, R. A., & Arvey, R. D. (2004). Age bias in laboratory and field settings: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*(3), 468–492. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2004.tb02557.x

[311] Nadler, J. T., & Kufahl, K. M. (2014). Marital status, gender, and sexual orientation: Implications for employment hiring decisions. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity, 1*, 270–278. https://doi.org/10.1037/sgd0000050

[312] Horvath, M., & Ryan, A. M. (2003). Antecedents and potential moderators of the relationship between attitudes and hiring discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation. *Sex Roles, 48*(3), 115–130. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022499121222

[313] Grant, S., & Mizzi, T. (2014). Body weight bias in hiring decisions: Identifying explanatory mechanisms. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 42*(3), 353–370. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.3.353

[314] Baert, S. (2005). Hiring Discrimination: An Overview of (Almost) All Correspondence Experiments Since 2005. 26. https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-319-71153-9_3

[315] U.S. Census Bureau (n.d). Glossary: Not In Labor Force. https://www.census.gov/glossary/?term=Not+in+labor+force

Table 20 presents the total number and percent of residents over the age of 16 years that were in the labor force, along with the number and percent of the labor force that were employed in San Diego County in 2021. Nearly two-thirds of residents over the age of 16 years participated in the labor force. The greatest differences in the county's labor force participation were in the categories of gender and disability. Women had a 60% participation rate in the labor force compared to men's 73%. Twenty-seven percent (27%) of people with disabilities participated in the labor force, compared to 72% of non-disabled people. Of those participating in the labor force, people with disabilities and Black or African American residents had the lowest employment rates at 87% and 90%, respectively.

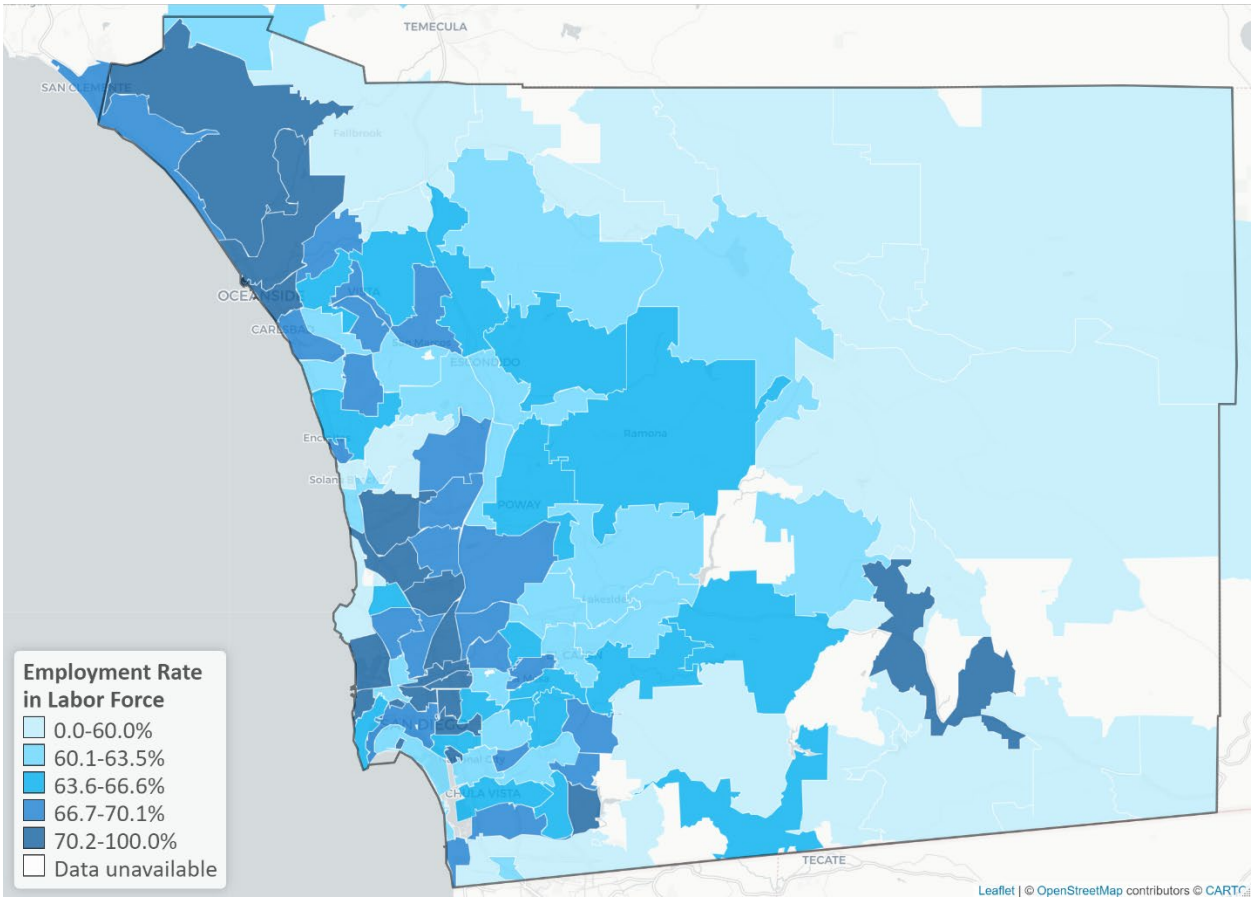
Figure 31 maps the 2021 employment rate in the labor force by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA) for San Diego County.

Table 20: Labor Force and Employment Participation, San Diego County, 2021

		Labor Force		Employed	
	Overall, Ages 16 and Older	Number in Labor Force	Percent in Labor Force	Number of Employed People	Percent of Labor Force Employed
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	8,321	4,939	59.4%	4,704	95.2%
Asian	325,341	213,647	65.7%	202,097	94.6%
Black or African American	124,295	82,446	66.3%	74,239	90.0%
Hispanic or Latino	839,378	584,617	69.6%	540,805	92.5%
NHPI	10,362	7,308	70.5%	6,709	91.8%
White	1,254,722	803,175	64.0%	760,292	94.7%
Multiracial	90,945	64,307	70.7%	59,581	92.7%
Some Other Race	9,057	6,224	68.7%	5,803	93.2%
Sex					
Female	1,318,986	792,151	60.1%	737,767	93.1%
Male	1,343,435	974,512	72.5%	916,463	94.0%
Disability status					
With reported disability	310,051	83,408	26.9%	72,314	86.7%
Without reported disability	2,352,370	1,683,255	71.6%	1,581,916	94.0%
Immigrant status					
Immigrant	779,991	507,233	65.0%	477,019	94.0%
Non-immigrant	1,882,430	1,259,430	66.9%	1,177,211	93.5%
Total	2,662,421	1,766,663	66.4%	1,654,230	93.6%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 31: Employment Rate in the Labor Force by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table DP03.
The ACS produces estimates based on a sample of the population. Percentages at or near 0% or 100% should be interpreted with caution.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Poverty

People who live in poverty are at risk of not being able to house, clothe, or feed themselves or their families. The federal poverty thresholds are based on family income, family size, and family composition (age of the members). The thresholds are updated each year for inflation by using the Consumer Price Index.[316] [317,] [318] For a single adult under the age of 65 years with no children

[316] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). How the Census Bureau Measures Poverty. Census.Gov. Retrieved February 22, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html

[317] Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. (n.d.) HHS Poverty Guidelines 2024. Retrieved January 8, 2024, from https://aspe.hhs.gov/topics/poverty-economic-mobility/poverty-guidelines

[318] Health Care Gov (n.d.). Federal Poverty Level (FPL). Retrieved January 8, 2024, from https://www.healthcare.gov/glossary/federal-poverty-level-fpl/

in 2021 the federal poverty threshold was $14,097 and the threshold for a same-age adult with two children was $21,831.[319]

Poverty rates in the U.S. differ substantially among racial groups. Blacks and Hispanics are particularly vulnerable to economic insecurity: the rate of poverty among these groups is more sensitive to fluctuations in the economy, while the rate among non-Hispanic Whites has held fairly steady over time.[320] Gender[321] and disability[322] are also associated with inequitable distribution of poverty across the country. This section highlights the distribution of poverty in San Diego among racial, gender, disability, and immigrant groups.

In 2021, 12.6% of people living in the United States were below the poverty level. Nationwide, non-Hispanic Whites had the lowest rates of poverty (9.2%) followed by Asians (10.3%). The highest rates of poverty in the U.S. by race were more than double the lowest rates, with 23.4% of American Indian and Alaska Natives and 21.7% of Black or African Americans living in poverty.[323]

To measure the poverty rate among people in San Diego County, ACS data were used to calculate the percentage of people living below 200% of the federal poverty level by race/ethnicity, sex, disability status, immigration status, and geography. Measuring poverty below 200% of the poverty level as opposed to 100% of the federal poverty level provides a more accurate picture of people moving in and out of poverty. The data are shown in Table 21, Figure 32, and Figure 33. In 2021 in San Diego County, 25.3% of residents were below 200% of the federal poverty level. The two racial/ethnic groups with the highest percentages below 200% of the federal poverty level were Black or African American residents (37.5%) and Hispanic or Latino residents (36.2%). A higher percentage of disabled persons in San Diego County compared to non-disabled persons, females compared to males, and immigrants compared to non-immigrants were below 200% of the federal poverty level. Figure 33 shows the percent of the population below 200% of the federal poverty level by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA).

Knowing the percentage of those in San Diego County in poverty gives us valuable information about how the people in our region compare to people across the nation. The federal poverty

[319] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). Poverty Thresholds. Retrieved December 5, 2022, from https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/historical-poverty-thresholds.html

[320] Poverty Solutions at the University of Michigan. (n.d.). Poverty Facts. Retrieved September 7, 2022, from https://poverty.umich.edu/research-funding-opportunities/key-issues/poverty-facts/

[321] Center for American Progress. (n.d.). The Basic Facts About Women in Poverty. Retrieved September 7, 2022, from https://www.americanprogress.org/article/basic-facts-women-poverty/

[322] Highlighting Disability / Poverty Connection, NCD Urges Congress to Alter Federal Policies that Disadvantage People with Disabilities. (2017, November 13). Retrieved from https://ncd.gov/

[323] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). S1701: Poverty Status in the Past 12 Months - Census Bureau Table. Retrieved September 7, 2022, from https://data.census.gov/table?q=poverty+in+the+United+States+in+2021&tid=ACSST5Y2021.S1701

level is limited, however, in that it is not adjusted for the local cost of living which is higher than the national average. For more information about local conditions, see Self-Sufficiency Wage.

Table 21: Number and Percent Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level, San Diego County, 2021

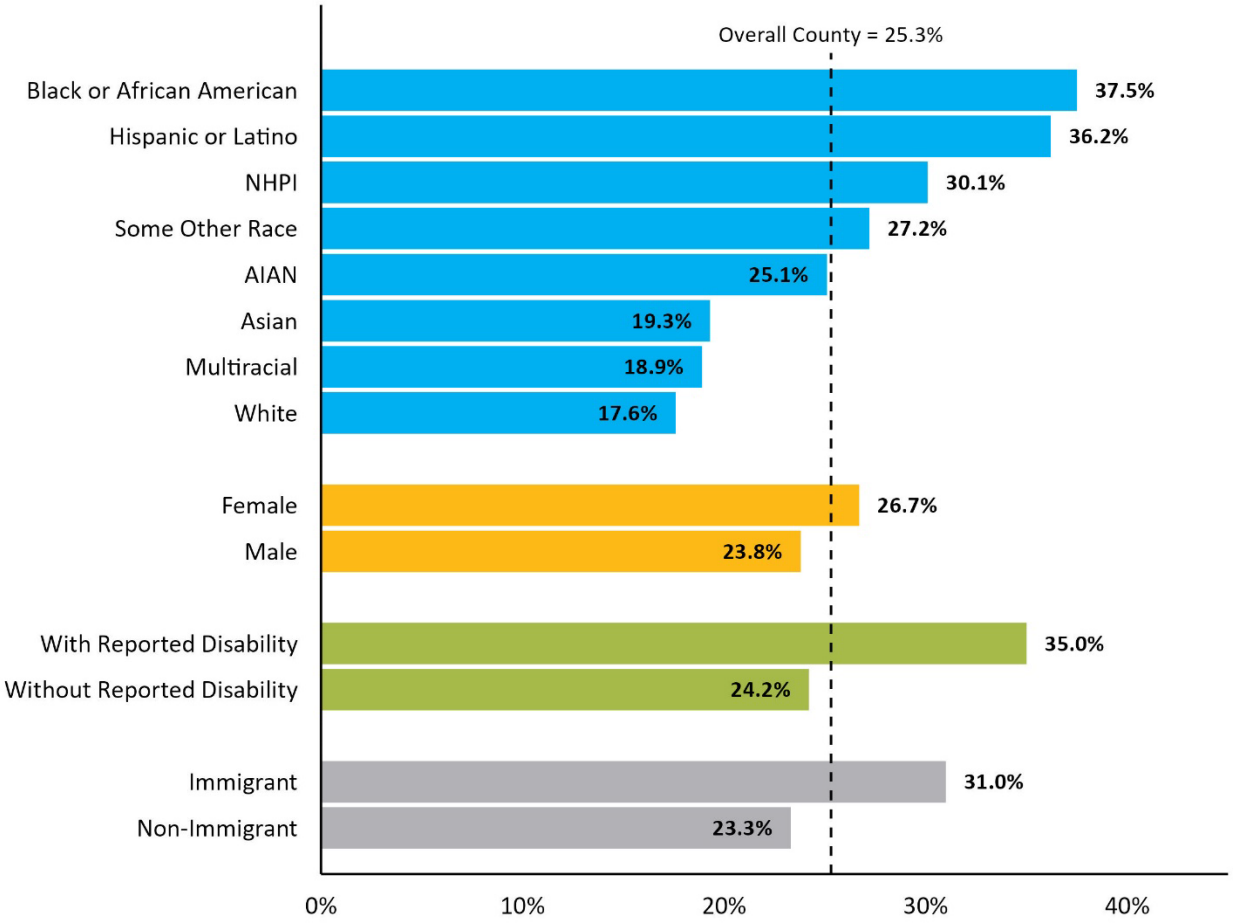
		Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level			
	Overall	Not In Poverty		In Poverty	
	County*	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity					
AIAN	9,034	6,770	74.9%	2,264	25.1%
Asian	375,615	303,184	80.7%	72,431	19.3%
Black or African American	140,377	87,738	62.5%	52,639	37.5%
Hispanic or Latino, of Any Race	1,108,624	707,168	63.8%	401,456	36.2%
NHPI	11,042	7,722	69.9%	3,320	30.1%
White	1,415,766	1,166,173	82.4%	249,593	17.6%
Multiracial	142,579	115,699	81.1%	26,880	18.9%
Some Other Race	11,603	8,449	72.8%	3,154	27.2%
Sex					
Female	1,606,978	1,177,834	73.3%	429,144	26.7%
Male	1,607,662	1,225,069	76.2%	382,593	23.8%
Disability Status					
With Reported Disability	317,598	206,502	65.0%	111,096	35.0%
Without Reported Disability	2,897,042	2,196,401	75.8%	700,641	24.2%
Immigrant Status					
Immigrant	811,797	559,984	69.0%	251,813	31.0%
Non-Immigrant	2,402,843	1,842,919	76.7%	559,924	23.3%
Total	3,214,640	2,402,903	74.7%	811,737	25.3%

Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

*Overall county counts include people where a poverty status can be determined. Poverty status cannot be determined for people in institutional group quarters (such as prisons or nursing homes), college dormitories, military barracks, and living situations without conventional housing (and who are not in shelters). Additionally, poverty status cannot be determined for unrelated people under 15 (such as foster children) because income questions are asked of people age 15 and older and, if someone is under age 15 and not living with a family member, their income is unknown.

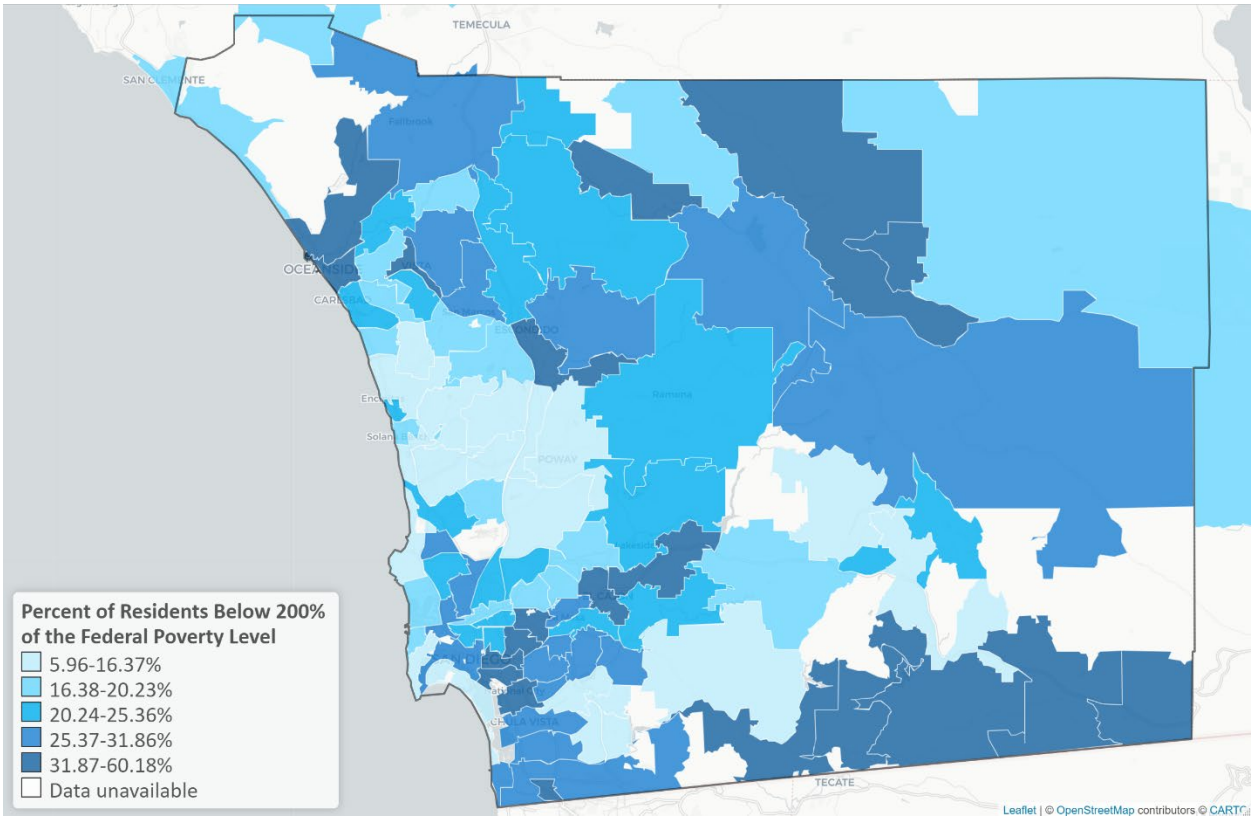
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 32: Percent of Population Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level, San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
Persons of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity may belong to any race group. All categories except Hispanic or Latino include persons for whom race is known but ethnicity is non-Hispanic or unknown. AIAN = American Indian or Alaska Native. NHPI = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.

Figure 33: Percent of Population Below 200% of the Federal Poverty Level by ZIP Code Tabulation Area (ZCTA), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates, Table C17002.
Unavailable data include ZCTAs that are not defined by the U.S. Census Bureau and ZCTAs with missing or censored data.

Self-Sufficiency Wage

Another method to assess whether an income is "good" or "enough," aside from looking at poverty rates (see Poverty), is to model a self-sufficiency standard: can a person at this income level cover basic needs in their region without assistance? There are different models for self-sufficiency that go beyond income and consider the local cost of living. These models differ in how “basic needs” are defined, what source is used for estimating the costs for those needs, and the overall structure of the model.

Two widely used models for self-sufficiency are the Living Wage Calculator from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)[324] and the Self-Sufficiency Standard from the Center for Women’s Welfare at the University of Washington (UW).[325] Both models include a set of costs: housing, healthcare, childcare, food, transportation, taxes, and other expenses. Some

[324] Glasmeier, A. K. (2023). Living Wage Calculator—Living Wage Calculation for San Diego County, California. Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Retrieved April 6, 2023, from https://livingwage.mit.edu/counties/06073

[325] University of Washington Center for Women’s Welfare. (n.d.). Self-Sufficiency Standard Calculator. Self Sufficiency Standard. Retrieved April 6, 2023, from https://selfsufficiencystandard.org/calculator/

key differences are that UW includes emergency savings, while MIT allocates money for recreation and entertainment. The models also differ in the way they estimate other expenses like clothing, cleaning supplies, and the internet: MIT enumerates these costs to estimate them, while UW adds 10% on the top of their estimate to account for these and other miscellaneous but necessary expenses.

MIT publishes self-sufficiency estimates for families with zero, one, two, or three children and one wage-earning adult, two adults with one earner, or two earning adults. UW publishes self-sufficiency thresholds for a wider variety of family structures that considers the ages of children. The UW standard was selected for this report because it classifies families based on a more precise view of family structure. This also aligns with the County of San Diego[326] and the San Diego Workforce Partnership, who base their self-sufficiency estimates on the UW model. For 2021, UW estimated the self-sufficiency wage for a single adult in San Diego County was $18.43 per hour, or $38,919 per year and MIT estimated it as $22.74 per hour, or $47,304 per year. [327]

Even though self-sufficiency wage can give a better view of income, it does have some limitations to consider. First, this measure takes a countywide average of costs, which obscures that some parts of the county have drastic cost differences. For example, residents living in downtown likely pay more for housing, whereas residents in the unincorporated areas of the county likely pay more for transportation. Second, the housing estimates come from ACS, which come out late in the year following the year they describe. This means that the self-sufficiency standard for 2021 is relying on 2020 data—the same year that the COVID-19 pandemic briefly lowered rental costs in San Diego County, and then rent quickly increased to meet and far exceed pre-pandemic prices.[328] This resulted in the self-sufficiency wage decreasing for year 2021. Third, the number of self-sufficient households by demographics, such as race, gender, and disability, is difficult to measure because households can contain multiple people, often with varying characteristics. Future analyses can consider methods for examining additional demographic differences by households, and self-sufficiency by the person (e.g., the number of people in households making a self-sufficient wage) rather than by households to make it easier to compare to the poverty indicator.

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[326] Public Health Services Community Health Statistics Unit. (2022). San Diego County Self Sufficiency Standard Brief Single Parent Household with Two Children, 2021. County of San Diego. https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/dam/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/CHS/San%20Diego%20County%20Self%20Sufficiency%20Standard%20Brief%20Single%20Parent%20Household%20with%20Two%20Children%2C%202021.pdf

[327] Calculator. (n.d.). *Self Sufficiency Standard*. Retrieved June 23, 2023, from https://selfsufficiencystandard.org/calculator/

[328] *Molnar, P. (2020, May). Forecast: San Diego rents to drop by 10%—The San Diego Union-Tribune. https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/business/story/2020-05-29/forecast-san-diego-rents-to-drop-by-1* Molnar, P. (2023, June 9). San Diego rent hits record high. There's at least one area where rent increases have almost stopped. *San Diego Union-Tribune*. https://www.sandiegouniontribune.com/business/story/2023-06-09/san-diego-rents-keep-rising-heres-how-much-in-each-area

Households were classified as either making or not making a self-sufficient wage using ACS data in concert with the UW self-sufficiency standard. First, households were classified to match the UW standard, calculating how many adults (ages 18 or older), infants (ages 0-2), preschool-age children (ages 3-5), school-age children (ages 6-12), and teenagers (ages 13-17) lived in each household.[329] Then, the monthly income for each head of household was compared to the monthly self-sufficiency wage UW assigns for the same household structure. This determines whether each household earns a self-sufficient wage or does not. Households with missing household income were excluded.

Figure 34 presents the number and percent of San Diego County households in 2021 that had or did not have a self-sufficient wage. Most households (about 64%) were making a self-sufficient wage, but 36% of households may have been struggling to meet their basic needs. Figure 35 maps the percent of households who made a self-sufficient wage in 2021 by Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs). The areas bordering Mexico (including Imperial Beach) and immediately north (including Chula Vista and National City), and East Escondido had the lowest percent of households making a self-sufficient wage.

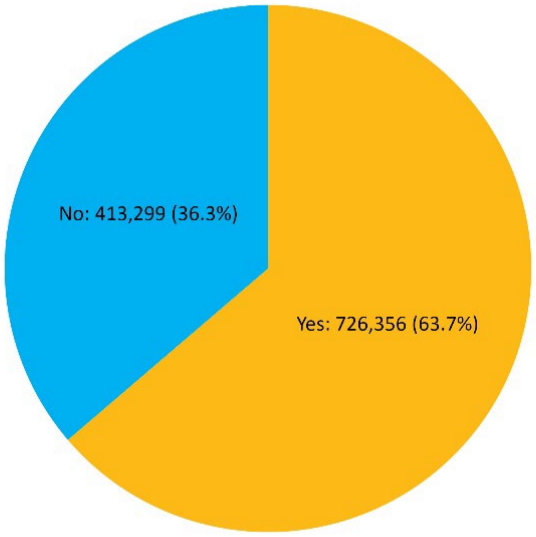
To better understand how self-sufficiency wage varies throughout the county, the County of San Diego's Community Health Statistics Unit has created a self-sufficiency standard dashboard[330] that measures how much income is needed for a household of a certain composition to adequately meet their basic needs without public or private assistance by subregional area. This tool allows people to learn more about the variability in the minimum wage required for self-sufficiency based on the average amount spent on basic necessities in San Diego County. The self-sufficiency income in this dashboard was calculated by adapting the UW self-sufficiency standard methodology using available data sources at the Health and Human Services Agency (HHSA) regional and subregional area (SRA) levels. The differences in measures used and adaptations made for use at the regional and subregional area levels can be found in the self-sufficiency standard briefs accompanying the dashboard.[331] This report is a complement to the Community Health Statistics Unit's Self Sufficiency Dashboard.

[329] Manzer, L. & Kucklick, A. (2022). Technical Brief The Self-Sufficiency Standard 2022 Update. Center for Women's Welfare. University of Washington School of Social Work. SSS2022_TechnicalBrief_03032022.pdf (selfsufficiencystandard.org)

[330] *San Diego County Self-Sufficiency Standard Dashboard*. (n.d.). Tableau Software. Retrieved June 12, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/community_health_statistics/healthequity.html#selfsufficiency

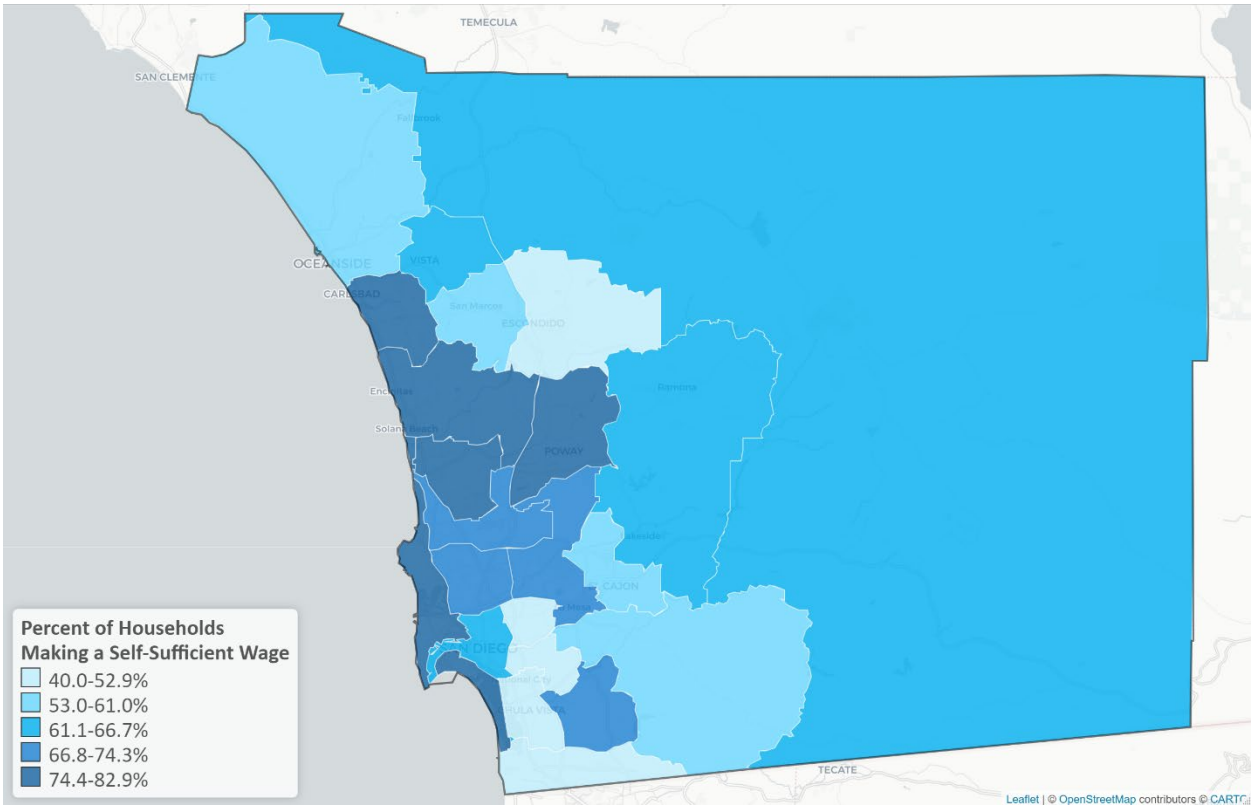
[331] Health & Human Services, San Diego County. (n.d.). Health Equity. Retrieved April 29, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/hhsa/programs/phs/community_health_statistics/healthequity.html#selfsufficiency

Figure 34: Self-Sufficient Households (N=1,139,655), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Figure 35: Percent of Households Making a Self-Sufficient Wage by Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: 2021 American Community Survey 5-year Estimates from IPUMS USA.

Households with Debt in Collections

Having debt in collections represents a financial difficulty that is influenced by spending as well as income. It has an impact on borrowers' financial future [332] and can impact people with income levels much higher than poverty or self-sufficiency thresholds.

The Urban Institute collects and reports proprietary data about households with debt in collections for counties across the country.[333] To understand the distribution of debt in collections, they classify debt in two ways: by its source and the communities that carry it. Debt sources include borrowing for medical expenses, student loans, car notes, retail accounts, and credit cards. Because the data from credit bureaus do not include race, the Urban Institute categorizes ZIP codes into those primarily inhabited by White people or people of color.

[332] *71 million US adults have debt in collections*. (2018, July 19). Urban Institute. https://www.urban.org/urban-wire/71-million-us-adults-have-debt-collections

[333] Carther, A., Martinchek, K., Braga, B., McKernan, S.M., & Quakenbush, C. (2022). Debt in America 2022. Retrieved from https://datacatalog.urban.org/dataset/debt-america-2022

In 2022 in San Diego County, 20% of households had any debt in collections (Table 22), compared to 26% of households nationally.[334] Across all debt types, communities of color were more likely to have debt in collections than majority White communities.

The way communities are classified for households with debt in collections is necessary because of the limitations of the data source, but it does make it difficult to compare the indicator to other indicators in this report. Because the ZIP codes are classified by their current residents, ZIP codes can move from "communities of color" to "majority White communities" or vice versa, making it difficult to compare across years. Nevertheless, debt in collections may provide context that is helpful to interpret other financial indicators and is comparable with the Urban Institute data about other counties. Data for other demographic features, like gender, disability, and whether the creditor is an immigrant, are not publicly available. Finally, the total amount of debt in collections at a point in time (February 2022) is reported, but the debt amount is not reported by debt source.

Access to health insurance with adequate coverage for health needs, college and student loan support, and other financial safety nets could reduce the share of households with debt in collections.

Table 22: Households with Debt in Collections by Type of Debt, San Diego County, 2022

	Percent of Households by Debt Type				Any Debt*	
	Medical Debt	Student Loan Debt	Auto / Retail Debt	Credit Card Debt	Percent	Median Amount
Communities of Color	11.0%	12.1%	3.1%	3.4%	25.9%	$2,031
Majority White Communities	7.7%	11.7%	1.6%	1.7%	15.5%	$1,748
Overall	9.2%	12.2%	2.2%	2.3%	20.2%	$1,924

Data Source: Urban Institute. Debt in America 2022.

* Note that some households have more than one type of debt in collections, so the number of households with any debt is smaller than the sum of households with each debt type.

[334] Ibid.

Parks and Natural Resources

A healthy natural environment and access to green spaces is important for physical and mental health.[335] Historically, however, redlining and segregation have deprived communities of color access to green spaces and relegated them to areas where environmental hazards threaten human health.[336] Wealthy communities may have more time and resources to advocate for the protection of their own communities from the extraction, transportation, processing, storage, and disposal of hazardous materials. Subsequently, the facilities that support those functions are built in or moved to communities without the same available time and resources to advocate for themselves.[337] Additionally, when new or existing hazards are discovered, richer people tend to have the ability to move away while families living in poverty are often limited.

This section reviews equity indicators related to parks and natural resources: Air Quality, Parks and Community Spaces, and Beach Water Quality. In the future, indicators related to climate and natural disaster resilience may be included.

Air Quality

Air quality is an important environmental factor that can greatly affect one's health. Poor air quality is associated with inflammation and stress in the body, which can lead to chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular and respiratory disease and cancer.[338] People who work outdoors, rely on open windows to control the temperature in their homes, or have disabilities or medical conditions that make them more sensitive to air pollution are disproportionately affected by poor air quality.[339] To ensure that environmental justice considerations such as these are intentionally and specifically integrated across all agency actions, the San Diego County Air Pollution Control District established the Office of Environmental Justice to work with the community to implement the Community Air Protection Program (CAPP). CAPP focuses on reducing exposure in communities most impacted by air pollution. [340]

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[335] Nutsford, D., Pearson, A. L., & Kingham, S. (2013). An ecological study investigating the association between access to urban green space and mental health. *Public health*, *127*(11), 1005-1011.

[336] Nardone, A., Rudolph, K. E., Morello-Frosch, R., & Casey, J. A. (2021). Redlines and greenspace: The relationship between historical redlining and 2010 greenspace across the United States. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, *129*(1), 1-9.

[337] Satterthwaite, D. (1997). Environmental transformations in cities as they get larger, wealthier and better managed. Geographical Journal, 216-224. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3060185

[338] National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences. (2018). Air Pollution and Your Health. Retrieved July 18, 2023. https://www.niehs.nih.gov/health/topics/agents/air-pollution/index.cfm

[339] Manisalidis, I., Stavropoulou, E., Stavropoulos, A., & Bezirtzoglou, E. (2020). Environmental and health impacts of air pollution: A review. *Frontiers in Public Health*, *8*.

[340] Air Pollution Control District, San Diego County (n.d.). Community. Retrieved March 29, 2023, from https://www.sdapcd.org/content/sdapcd/community.html

The San Diego County Air Pollution Control District measures air quality throughout the year at eight monitoring sites: Camp Pendleton, Chula Vista, Downtown, Kearny Mesa, Caramel Mountain Ranch, El Cajon, Otay Mesa, and Alpine. Three pollutants are monitored: ground-level ozone, particulate matter smaller than 2.5 microns, and particulate matter smaller than 10 microns.[341] Ground-level ozone can cause airway and lung damage, and aggravate conditions like asthma, emphysema, and chronic bronchitis.[342] Particulate matter are very small particles—like soot, smoke, pollen, or mold—that can cause lung and heart problems when inhaled.[343] They can also create visible pollution, change the pH and nutrient balance in water and soil, damage forests, hurt crops, and contribute to acid rain.[344]

The Environmental Protection Agency uses the Air Quality Index (AQI) to monitor and report air quality. AQI values are divided into six categories, each corresponding to a different level of health concern for each pollutant: “Good,” “Moderate,” “Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups,” “Unhealthy,” “Very Unhealthy” or “Hazardous”.[345] The higher the AQI, the greater the level of health concern. An AQI value of 100 or below (categorized as "Good" or "Moderate") is considered satisfactory and generally corresponds to the national air quality standard for the pollutant, which is the level EPA has set to protect public health. [346]

The tables below summarize 2021 annual air quality by each monitoring site in San Diego County for ozone (Table 23), particulate matter smaller than 2.5 microns (Table 24), particulate matter smaller than 10 microns (Table 25), and all pollutants combined (Table 26). Some monitoring sites collect data at different rates that can affect the reported data for that day; this information is noted in the footnotes when relevant.

In 2021 in San Diego County, Alpine and El Cajon were the only monitoring sites that reported AQI scores across all pollutants categorized as "Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups." While most monitoring sites had over 80% of the days with measured AQI categorized as "Good" for particulate matter <2.5 microns and <10 microns, El Cajon and Otay Mesa showed a lower

[341] US EPA. (2020, April 13). National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for PM [Other Policies and Guidance]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/national-ambient-air-quality-standards-naaqs-pm

[342] US EPA. (2015, June 5). Health Effects of Ozone Pollution [Overviews and Factsheets]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/ground-level-ozone-pollution/health-effects-ozone-pollution

[343] U.S. EPA. (2016, April 19). Particulate Matter (PM) Basics [Overviews and Factsheets]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/particulate-matter-pm-basics

[344] US EPA. (2016, April 26). Health and Environmental Effects of Particulate Matter (PM) [Overviews and Factsheets]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/health-and-environmental-effects-particulate-matter-pm

[345] US EPA. (2020, April 13). National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for PM [Other Policies and Guidance]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/national-ambient-air-quality-standards-naaqs-pm

[346] US EPA. (2016, August 30). Air Data Basic Information. Retrieved July 18, 2023. https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data/air-data-basic-information

percentage of "Good" days (76% and 53%, respectively) and more "Moderate" days (24% and 47%, respectively) for particulate matter <2.5 microns.

It is important to note that because many external factors, such as fire, can affect air quality, it can be difficult to compare year-to-year data. According to the CalFire 2021 incident archive, San Diego County experienced 11 fires over 10 acres in 2021: the Aruba fire, Border 13 fire, Road fire, Ysabel fire, Mesa fire, Clevenger fire, Overland fire, Sierra fire, Southern fire, Chapparal fire, and Paso fire.[347] However, smaller fires may have also occurred and impacted air quality.

Table 23: Air Quality Related to Ozone by Monitoring Station, San Diego County, 2021

		Percent of Days with Level of Health Concern					
Monitoring Site	Days with Measured AQI	Good	Moderate	Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	Unhealthy	Very Unhealthy	Hazardous
Camp Pendleton	314	97%	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Chula Vista	358	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Downtown San Diego	352	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Kearny Mesa	353	91%	9%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Carmel Mountain Ranch*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
El Cajon	335	82%	17%	1%	0%	0%	0%
Otay Mesa	357	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Alpine	356	56%	40%	4%	0%	0%	0%

Data Source: San Diego County Air Pollution Control District, 2021.
* Ozone not collected at Carmel Mountain Ranch site.

[347] 2021 Fire Season. (n.d.). Retrieved September 16, 2022, from https://www.fire.ca.gov/incidents/2021/

Table 24: Air Quality Related to Particulate Matter <2.5 microns by Monitoring Station, San Diego County, 2021

		Percent of Days with Level of Health Concern					
Monitoring Site	Days with Measured AQI	Good	Moderate	Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	Unhealthy	Very Unhealthy	Hazardous
Camp Pendleton	307	85%	15%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Chula Vista*	117	81%	19%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Downtown San Diego	356	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Kearny Mesa*	179	91%	9%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Carmel Mountain Ranch*	121	88%	12%	0%	0%	0%	0%
El Cajon	365	76%	24%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Otay Mesa	352	53%	47%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Alpine	343	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Data Source: San Diego County Air Pollution Control District, 2021.

* PM2.5 data collected every third day for Chula Vista, Kearny Mesa & Carmel Mountain Ranch sites.

Table 25: Air Quality Related to Particulate Matter <10 microns by Monitoring Station, San Diego County, 2021

		Percent of Days with Level of Health Concern					
Monitoring Site	Days with Measured AQI	Good	Moderate	Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	Unhealthy	Very Unhealthy	Hazardous
Camp Pendleton*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Chula Vista†	59	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Downtown San Diego*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Kearny Mesa*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Carmel Mountain Ranch*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
El Cajon†	118	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Otay Mesa†	122	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Alpine*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Data Source: San Diego County Air Pollution Control District, 2021.

* Particulate Matter <10 microns not collected at Camp Pendleton, Downtown San Diego, Kearny Mesa, Carmel Mountain Ranch, and Alpine sites.

† PM10 data collected every sixth day for Chula Vista; every third day for El Cajon & Otay Mesa.

Table 26: AQI Summaries by Site (Combined Pollutants), San Diego County, 2021

		Percent of Days with Level of Health Concern					
Monitoring Site	Days with Measured AQI	Good	Moderate	Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	Unhealthy	Very Unhealthy	Hazardous
Camp Pendleton	327	84%	16%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Chula Vista	361	89%	11%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Downtown San Diego	365	77%	23%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Kearny Mesa	355	88%	12%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Carmel Mountain Ranch	121	88%	12%	0%	0%	0%	0%
El Cajon	365	65%	34%	1%	0%	0%	0%
Otay Mesa	365	53%	47%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Alpine	364	56%	40%	4%	0%	0%	0%

Data Source: San Diego County Air Pollution Control District, 2021.
Air Quality is calculated using all pollutant concentrations. Level of Health Concern is considered "Good" if all pollutants met the standards for a "Good" day. Otherwise, the day is classified by its worst pollutant. For example, if a day is "Good" for ozone and particulate matter below 2.5 microns, but "Moderate" for particulate matter below 10 microns, its overall classification is "Moderate."

Parks and Community Spaces

Parks and community recreation areas contribute to public health, social cohesion, and community resilience. They enable social gatherings and community events[348] and especially benefit children, older adults, and people who do not have access to an outdoor area at home. Studies show that available facilities and proximity to parks are correlated with park use and physical activity.[349] [350] Parks can also mitigate urban "heat island" effects, which occur when natural ground cover is replaced with asphalt, concrete, buildings, and other materials that retain heat.[351]

[348] The Health Benefits of Parks and Their Economic Impacts. (n.d.). Urban Institute. Retrieved October 27, 2022, from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/health-benefits-parks-and-their-economic-impacts

[349] Kaczynski, A. T., Besenyi, G. M., Stanis, S. A. W., Koohsari, M. J., Oestman, K. B., Bergstrom, R., Potwarka, L. R., & Reis, R. S. (2014). Are park proximity and park features related to park use and park-based physical activity among adults? Variations by multiple socio-demographic characteristics. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 11*(1), 146. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12966-014-0146-4

[350] Kaczynski, A. T., Besenyi, G. M., Stanis, S. A. W., Koohsari, M. J., Oestman, K. B., Bergstrom, R., Potwarka, L. R., & Reis, R. S. (2014). Are park proximity and park features related to park use and park-based physical activity among adults? Variations by multiple socio-demographic characteristics. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 11*(1), 146. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12966-014-0146-4

[351] Zhang, R., Sun, F., Shen, Y., Peng, S., & Che, Y. (2021). Accessibility of urban park benefits with different spatial coverage: Spatial and social inequity. *Applied Geography, 135*, 102555. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2021.102555

However, available facilities can vary between parks, such as playgrounds or sports fields, water fountains, bathrooms, shade, seating areas, and off-leash dog areas. Parks' congestion, flexibility, programming, maintenance, and cleanliness can also differ.[352, 353]

Nationwide, communities historically subject to redlining have the least access to green space.[354] As a result, communities of color and low-income neighborhoods have less access to the health and social benefits of parks. Park audit data also suggest that parks tend to offer fewer amenities in neighborhoods that have a higher number of people of color.[355] The COVID-19 pandemic improved disparities in access to public parks because of the lower risk in socializing, organizing, and meeting in outdoor public spaces.[356]

Table 27 and Figure 36 show the percent of residents in each subregional area (SRA) with adequate access to parks or community spaces in San Diego County in 2021. Values are based on data from the County of San Diego, Land Use and Environment Group, Planning and Development Services.[357] "Adequate" access to parks or community spaces is defined as 1) living within a quarter mile of community space(s) and 2) that space having at least 300 square feet per nearby household.

Of all San Diego County residents, 53% had adequate access in 2021. Subregional areas in the county ranged from 3% in Miramar (largely occupied by a military base) and Anza-Borrego Springs to 75% or over in Coronado and South Bay. When interpreting the data, it is recommended to compare areas of the county with similar population densities and residential lot sizes. Park accessibility in rural communities can be misleading because residences are often situated on lots of land far from community spaces, reflected when comparing Mid-City (at 68%) to Anza-Borrego Springs (at 3%). Additionally, this measure does not account for amenities or other characteristics of community space and open spaces, like trails, playgrounds, fields, and areas designed for people with disabilities.

[352] Housing Matters. (2022, August 18). "Not All Parks Are Created Equal": How Communities Can Ensure Parks Are Accessible for All Residents. https://housingmatters.urban.org/feature/not-all-parks-are-created-equal-how-communities-can-ensure-parks-are-accessible-all

[353] The Health Benefits of Parks and Their Economic Impacts. (n.d.). Urban Institute. Retrieved October 27, 2022, from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/health-benefits-parks-and-their-economic-impacts

[354] Nardone, A., Rudolph, K. E., Morello, -Frosch Rachel, & Casey, J. A. (n.d.). Redlines and greenspace: The Relationship between historical redlining and 2010 greenspace across the United States. *Environmental Health Perspectives, 129*(1), 017006. https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP7495

[355] Hughey, S. M., Walsemann, K. M., Child, S., Powers, A., Reed, J. A., & Kaczynski, A. T. (2016). Using an environmental justice approach to examine the relationships between park availability and quality indicators, neighborhood disadvantage, and racial/ethnic composition. *Landscape and Urban Planning, 148*, 159–169. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2015.12.016

[356] Trust for Public Land. (n.d.). The Heat is On. Retrieved October 28, 2022, from https://www.tpl.org/the-heat-is-on

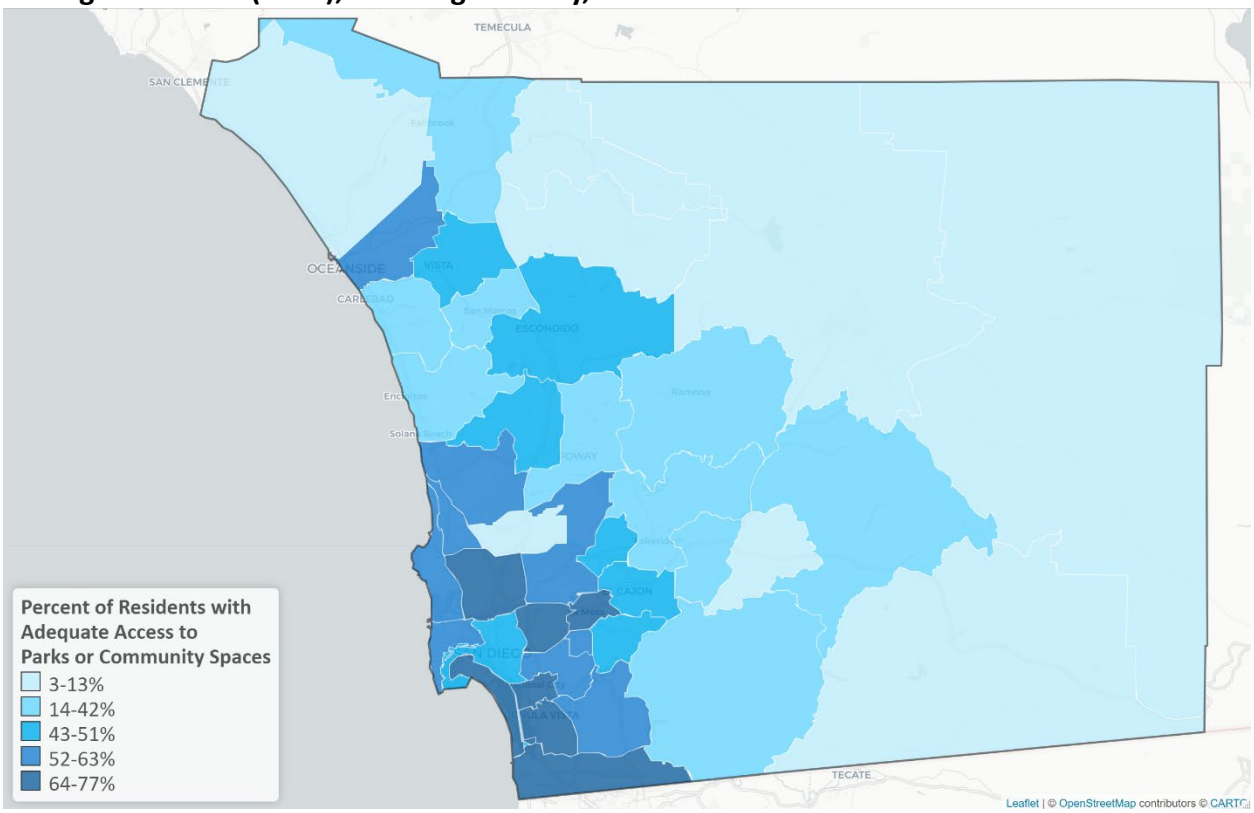
[357] Livewell San Diego Database. Live Well San Diego Database | Open Data Portal (sandiegocounty.gov)

Table 27: Percent of Residents with Adequate Access to Parks or Community Spaces by Subregional Areas (SRAs), San Diego County, 2021

Region	Sub-Regional Area	Percent
Central Region	Central San Diego	52%
	Mid-City	68%
	Southeastern San Diego	59%
East Region	Alpine	11%
	El Cajon	51%
	Harbison Crest	28%
	Jamul	14%
	La Mesa	65%
	Laguna-Pine Valley	16%
	Lakeside	40%
	Lemon Grove	62%
	Mountain Empire	6%
	Santee	52%
	Spring Valley	49%
North Central Region	Coastal	60%
	Del Mar-Mira Mesa	64%
	Elliott-Navajo	54%
	Kearny Mesa	66%
	Miramar	3%
	Peninsula	64%
	University	61%
North Coastal Region	Carlsbad	36%
	Oceanside	56%
	Pendleton	5%
	San Dieguito	43%
	Vista	46%
North Inland Region	Anza-Borrego Springs	3%
	Escondido	46%
	Fallbrook	28%
	North San Diego	44%
	Palomar-Julian	12%
	Pauma	6%
	Poway	41%
	Ramona	25%
	San Marcos	43%
	Valley Center	7%
South Region	Chula Vista	74%
	Coronado	75%
	National City	69%
	South Bay	77%
	Sweetwater	63%
Unincorporated Areas		28%
San Diego County		**53%**

Data Source: County of San Diego, Land Use and Environment Group, Planning and Development Services, 2021.

Figure 36: Percent of Residents with Adequate Access to Parks or Community Spaces by Subregional Areas (SRAs), San Diego County, 2021



Data Source: County of San Diego, Land Use and Environment Group, Planning and Development Services, 2021.

Beach Water Quality

Locals and tourists alike value the San Diego region in part for its safe, accessible, and clean beaches. However, occasionally, water quality problems force their closure. To protect the health of local and visiting beach goers, the County of San Diego Department of Environmental Health and Quality's (DEHQ) Beach and Bay Water Quality Program monitors beach water quality and posts advisories, warnings, and closures when necessary.[358]

By state law, the water at beaches that receive both 50,000 annual visitors and have stormwater fallout are monitored at least weekly from April to October.[359] The frequency of San Diego's beach water quality monitoring exceeds the standards set by the state, with daily monitoring of south county beaches. When bacteria exceed state standards or the water is contaminated with sewage or chemicals, either an advisory, warning, or closure is issued. An advisory is issued when testing detects hazardous bacteria that exceed state thresholds. A warning is issued when

[358] San Diego County. (2022). Beach and Bay Program. Retrieved July 19, 2023. https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/deh/lwqd/beachandbay/

[359] California State Water Resources Control Board. (n.d.). Beaches—California Beach Water Quality Background Information. Retrieved March 7, 2023, from https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/beaches/beach_water_quality/background.html

currents push contaminated water north over the border from Mexico. An affected area is closed when there is known sewage or a sewage spill. The bacterial contaminants that caused beach closures in San Diego County beaches in 2021 include E. Coli, Enterococcus, and other fecal coliforms[360] which can cause diseases of the skin, eyes, ears, respiratory system, and digestive system.[361]

In San Diego County, advisories and closures commonly result from three types of events: storm water run-off bringing contaminated water to beaches, hazardous spills into beach water, or weather patterns bringing water with high bacterial levels close to shore.[362,363] While weather-related closures are difficult to mitigate because of their unpredictability, local and federal governments are working together on programs that could, over the course of several years, decrease the impact of sewage on San Diego County beaches.[364]

Using 2021 data from the California State Water Resources Control Board[365] for San Diego County beaches, Table 28 lists the number of advisories and closures, and the number of days affected by the closure or advisory at each site. Rain advisories are not included because they are often based on whether it has rained and not on evidence of contamination.[366]

Data show that water quality issues were not evenly distributed across the county because of varied geographic, environmental, and infrastructural features. For example, south county beaches, such as Border Field State Park and Imperial Beaches, were disproportionately affected by beach closures due to runoff from the Tijuana River and ocean patterns that bring sewage north from the San Antonio de los Buenos Treatment Plant in Mexico.

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[360] California State Water Resources Control Board. (2023). Search Beach Monitoring Data, Monitoring Data Search. Retrieved March 7, 2023, from https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/beaches/search_beach_mon.html

[361] U.S. EPA. (2013, September 3). Indicators Used in the National Aquatic Resource Surveys [Collections and Lists]. Retrieved from https://www.epa.gov/national-aquatic-resource-surveys/indicators-used-national-aquatic-resource-surveys

[362] San Diego County Environmental Health and Quality (n.d.). Beach and Bay Program. Retrieved August 10, 2023, from https://www.sandiegocounty.gov/content/sdc/deh/lwqd/beachandbay/

[363] California State Water Resources Control Board. (2018). Beaches - California Beach Water Quality Background Information. Retrieved March 7, 2023, from www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/beaches/beach_water_quality/background.html

[364] *Regional Leaders Announce Settlement in Tijuana River Valley Sewage Litigation | City of San Diego Official Website*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 23, 2023, from https://www.sandiego.gov/mayor/regional-leaders-announce-settlement-tijuana-river-valley-sewage-litigation

[365] California State Water Resources Control Board. (2023). Search Beach Monitoring Data, Beach Advisory Search. Retrieved from https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/beaches/search_beach_advisory.html

[366] California Water Boards. (n.d.). Frequently Asked Questions. Retrieved March 8, 2023, from https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/beaches/beach_surveys/docs/faqs.pdf

In May of 2022, the San Diego County Department of Environmental Health and Quality became the first coastal county to use a new, faster, and more accurate test for fecal indicator bacteria. This change will protect more beach visitors and provide the public with more accurate and timely information about beach water quality.

Table 28: Beach Advisories and Closures, San Diego County, 2021

Locations	Number of Collection Sites	Advisories		Closures	
		Total Number	Duration (in Days)	Total Number	Duration (in Days)
North					
Buccaneer Beach	2	5	14	0	0
Harbor Beach	1	4	11	0	0
Moonlight Beach	1	9	56	0	0
Oceanside municipal beach	3	4	9	0	0
South Carlsbad State Beach	2	2	2	0	0
Central					
La Jolla Shores Beach	2	6	60	0	0
La Jolla Cove	1	6	31	0	0
Mission Bay	4	6	10	0	0
Mission Bay, Bahia Point	1	1	1	0	0
Mission Bay, Campland On The Bay	1	8	31	0	0
Mission Bay, Fanuel Park	1	1	7	0	0
Mission Bay, Leisure Lagoon	3	2	32	0	0
Mission Bay, San Juan Cove	1	1	1	0	0
Mission Bay, Vacation Isle	1	1	1	0	0
San Dieguito River Beach	1	2	1	0	0
South Casa Beach S.D.	1	1	4	0	0
Tecolote Shores	1	3	4	0	0
Torrey Pines State Beach	1	2	7	0	0
Tourmaline Surfing Park	1	2	9	0	0
Windansea Beach	1	2	8	0	0
South					
Ocean Beach	2	2	4	0	0
Border Field State Park	2	4	4	17	249
Coronado City beaches	1	1	2	2	2
Coronado North beach	1	0	0	1	2
Dog Beach, O.B.	1	4	6	0	0
Imperial Beach municipal beach	2	5	8	17	71
North Imperial Beach	1	1	1	0	0
San Diego Bay	4	14	59	0	0
Silver Strand State Beach	1	0	0	7	31
Tijuana Slough National Wildlife Refuge	1	3	3	0	0

Data Source: California State Water Resources Control Board, 2021.

Crime and the Legal System

People who interact with the crime and legal system generally through arrest, prosecution, incarceration, and/or community supervision noted in this report as justice-involved people face many challenges.[367] Decisions made by criminal-legal system actors, including police, prosecutors, and judges, affect whether people accused of crimes end up with a criminal conviction.[368,369] People who have been incarcerated often have worse health and lower wealth than similarly situated people who were never incarcerated.[370,371,372,373] When someone is convicted of a crime, they can lose the right to vote, the ability to live in certain places, the ability to work in certain jobs, the ability to adjust their immigration status, and the right to partake in federally funded healthcare and education programs.[374]

Involvement in the crime and legal system and the associated outcomes often occurs inequitably for people of different race/ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, and other marginalized and intersectional identities. These inequitable experiences have long-lasting and compounding repercussions on people and communities that, aside from negative consequences for those people and communities, may also perpetuate inequitable practices within the crime and legal system.[375,376,377]

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[367] Simpson, J.M., Huang, L.N., Everett, A.E., Morrissette, D., & Berg, J. (n.d.) Principles of Community-based Behavioral Health Services for Justice-involved Individuals: A Research Based Guide. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Retrieved October 20, 2023 from https://store.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/d7/priv/sma19-5097.pdf

[368] Cole, G. F. (1970). The decision to prosecute. *Law & Society Review, 4*(3), 331. https://doi.org/10.2307/3053090

[369] Gottfredson, M. R., & Gottfredson, D. M. (1988). Decision Making in Criminal Justice. Springer.

[370] Booker, M. (2016). The crippling effect of incarceration on wealth. Prison Policy Initiative. Retrieved from https://www.prisonpolicy.org/blog/2016/04/26/wealth/

[371] Dumont, D. M., Brockmann, B., Dickman, S., Alexander, N., & Rich, J. D. (2012). Public health and the epidemic of incarceration. *Annual Review of Public Health, 33*(1), 325–339. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031811-124614

[372] Massoglia, M., & Pridemore, W. A. (2015). Incarceration and health. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*, 291–310.

[373] Zaw, K., & Hamilton, D. (2016). Race, wealth and incarceration: Results from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. *Race and Social Problems, 8*(1), 103–115. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12552-016-9164-y

[374] Chin, G. J. (2002). Race, the war on drugs, and the collateral consequences of criminal conviction. *The Journal of Gender, Race & Justice, 6*(2), 253-276.

[375] Steffensmeier, D., Ulmer, J., & Kramer, J. (1998). The interaction of race, gender, and age in criminal sentencing: The punishment cost of being young, Black, and male. *Criminology, 36*(4), 763–797.

[376] Wakefield, S., & Uggen, C. (2010). Incarceration and stratification. *Annual Review of Sociology, 36*(1), 387–406. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.012809.102551

[377] Gerlinger, J., Viano, S., Gardella, J. H., Fisher, B. W., Chris Curran, F., & Higgins, E. M. (2021). Exclusionary school discipline and delinquent outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 50*(8), 1493–1509.

This section reviews equity indicators related to crime and the legal system: Crime Rate, Hate Crimes, Police Stops and Searches, Juvenile Justice Arrests, and Jail Incarceration Rate.

Crime Rate

Crime rates in the United States and the San Diego County region have fallen drastically since the early 1990s,[378,379] but more than half of people in the United States report that they worry a "great deal" about crime.[380] Crime can have serious consequences for both victims and people who have committed an offense.[381,382] While the human costs, such as trauma or suffering, are immeasurable, some of the material costs include the costs of medical care, time away from work, and property loss for victims.[383] For people who have committed an offense, consequences can include short- or long-term loss of freedoms while on probation or during incarceration and long-term consequences such as loss of rights[384] and reduced earning potential over the lifetime.[385]

The Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI) Uniform Crime Reporting Program (UCR) were the nation's chief source of crime data from the 1930s until 2021.[386,387] The UCR consisted of

[378] Gramlich, J. (2020, November 20). What the data says (and doesn't say) about crime in the United States. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2020/11/20/facts-about-crime-in-the-u-s/

[379] See Figures 2 and 8 for comparison of regional and national crime rates since the 1980s. SANDAG. (2022). 42 years of crime in the San Diego region: 1980 through 2021. Retrieved from https://www.sandag.org/-/media/2DB1222AD0974680BF3C8CCB062F8F56.ashx#:~:text=As%20Figure%201%20shows%2C%20the,increasing%20to%203.74%20in%202021.

[380] Brenan, M. (2022, April 7). Worry about crime in U.S. at highest level since 2016. Gallup. Retrieved from https://news.gallup.com/poll/391610/worry-crime-highest-level-2016.aspx

[381] Basto-Pereira, M., & Farrington, D. P. (2022). Developmental predictors of offending and persistence in crime: A systematic review of meta-analyses. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 65*, 101761. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2022.101761

[382] Fitton, L., Yu, R., & Fazel, S. (2020). Childhood maltreatment and violent outcomes: A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 21*(4), 754–768. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838018795269

[383] Chalfin, A. (2016). The economic costs of crime. In W. G. Jennings (Ed.), The Encyclopedia of Crime and Punishment (Vol. 3). Wiley Blackwell.

[384] Chin, G. J. (2002). Race, the war on drugs, and the collateral consequences of criminal conviction. *The Journal of Gender, Race & Justice, 6*(2), 253-276.

[385] Booker, M. (2016). The crippling effect of incarceration on wealth. Prison Policy Initiative. Retrieved from https://www.prisonpolicy.org/blog/2016/04/26/wealth/

[386] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (n.d.). CDE: About. Retrieved September 28, 2022, from https://cde.ucr.cjis.gov/LATEST/webapp/#/pages/about

[387] Maltz, M. D. (1977). Crime statistics: A historical perspective. *Crime & Delinquency, 23*(1), 32–40. https://doi.org/10.1177/001112877702300103

multiple data collection projects, including Offenses Known to Law Enforcement.[388] For this program, police agencies across the U.S. counted the number of reported crimes each month in eight *index offenses*,[389] or crimes deemed to be serious and frequent enough, to give an idea of crime trends across time and report them to the FBI.[390, 391] The eight index offenses consisted of four violent crimes (homicide, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault) and three property crimes (burglary, larceny, and motor vehicle theft). Arson is a property crime monitored and reported by local jurisdictions (who report the data to the FBI), but it is not counted as a FBI index crime.[392]

Although UCR data were comparable across time and location, it was limited by its hierarchy rule (only the most serious crime was reported when more than one crime occurred during an incident), lack of detailed information, and only included crimes known to the police. Arson is reported separately from other index property crimes because it does not follow the hierarchy rule and must be reported for each incident it occurs. In 2020, approximately 60% of violent crimes and 67% of property crimes were not reported to the police and were not captured in the UCR data.[393]In 2021, the FBI addressed some of the limitations of the UCR program by replacing it with the National Incident Based Reporting System (NIBRS), which had been introduced as optional in 2011. The NIBRS does not follow the hierarchy rule and contains more detailed information about more crime types.[394] However, this report uses UCR data because reporting rates to NIBRS in 2021 was low: only 14 of 740 police agencies in California reported their crime data to the FBI through NIBRS.[395]

[388] Lynch, J. P., & Jarvis, J. P. (2008). Missing data and imputation in the Uniform Crime Reports and the effects on national estimates. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 24*(1), 69–85. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043986207313028

[389] In 2008, human trafficking was added to the UCR program under the William Wilberforce Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act. Farrell, A., Dank, M., Kafafian, M., Lockwood, S., Pfeffer, R., Hughes, A., & Vincent, K. (2019). Capturing human trafficking victimization through crime reporting (No. 252520).

[390] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2013). Criminal Justice Information Services (CJIS) Division Uniform Crime Reporting Summary Reporting System (SRS) User Manual.

[391] Maltz, M. D. (1977). Crime statistics: A historical perspective. *Crime & Delinquency, 23*(1), 32–40. https://doi.org/10.1177/001112877702300103

[392] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2013). Criminal Justice Information Services (CJIS) Division Uniform Crime Reporting Summary Reporting System (SRS) User Manual.

[393] Morgan, R. E., & Thompson, A. (2021). Criminal Victimization, 2020 (NCJ 301775). Bureau of Justice Statistics.

[394] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (n.d.). CDE: About. Retrieved September 28, 2022, from https://cde.ucr.cjis.gov/LATEST/webapp/#/pages/about

[395] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (n.d.). Crime Data Explorer. Retrieved April 5, 2023, from https://cde.ucr.cjis.gov/LATEST/webapp/#/pages/explorer/crime/crime-trend

Data on crimes committed in San Diego County were retrieved from the SANDAG Regional Criminal Justice Research & Clearninghouse Division. [396] Table 29 and Table 30 present the number of incidents of each index offense and the associated rates per 1,000 population for jurisdictions in San Diego County. Although crime rates are listed by jurisdiction and areas with higher rates are highlighted in this summary, SANDAG and the FBI encourage caution when ranking or comparing jurisdictions because many unmeasured factors influence each of these measures. Specifically, the FBI cautions: "These rankings, however, are merely a quick choice made by the data user; they provide no insight into the many variables that mold the crime in a particular town, city, county, state, region, or other jurisdiction. Consequently, these rankings lead to simplistic and/or incomplete analyses that often create misleading perceptions adversely affecting cities and counties, along with their residents." [397] The FBI includes the following list of factors to consider when comparing statistics:

- Variations in composition of population
- Population density and size of the locality
- Stability of population with respect to residents' mobility and commuting patterns
- Modes of transportation
- Economic conditions
- Cultural conditions
- Effective strength of law enforcement agencies
- Policies of law enforcement and other components of the criminal justice system (i.e., prosecutorial, judicial, correctional)
- Citizen attitudes

As another example of why higher rates of crime in one jurisdiction may not accurately reflect true differences in crime rates, higher reported rates of crime may be due to more active law enforcement agencies or reporting of crimes by residents.

For reports of violent crimes in 2021 (Table 29):

- Imperial Beach experienced the highest rate (number of homicides per 1,000 people) of reported homicide. The City of San Diego had the highest number of homicides.
- The highest rates of rape were reported in Oceanside, El Cajon, and the City of San Diego.
- Lemon Grove and National City experienced the highest rates of reported robbery and aggravated assaults.
- Aggravated assaults account for about 50% or higher of reported violent crimes.

[396] Sandag (2023). 43 Years of Crime in the San Diego Region: 1980 Through 2021.CJ Bulletin. Retrieved from, https://www.sandag.org/-/media/SANDAG/Documents/PDF/data-and-research/criminal-justice-and-public-safety/criminal-justice-research-clearinghouse/cj-42-years-crime-2022-04-01.pdf

[397] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2012). *Caution Against Ranking*. Uniform Crime Report, Crime in the United States, 2012. Retrieved from https://ucr.fbi.gov/cautionagainstranking.pdf

For reports of property crimes in 2021 (Table 30):

- El Cajon, La Mesa, and National City experienced the highest rates of reported arson.
- Del Mar and Solana Beach experienced the highest rates of reported Burglary.
- Del Mar, Oceanside, and National City experienced the highest rates for reported larceny.
- National City and City of San Diego experienced the highest rates of reported motor vehicle theft.
- Among all municipalities, 55% or more of reported property crimes were larceny.

Although it is unknown how much differences in law enforcement actions and resident reporting affect these observed differences in crime rates across local jurisdictions, these data can help inform government, nonprofits, and other community organizations. Local nonprofits play a key role in public safety, so much so that researchers found that for a city with 100,000 residents every 10 additional community organizations that focused on crime and community life was associated with a nine percent reduction in murder rate, a six percent reduction in the violent crime rate, and a four percent reduction in property crime rate.[398] Additionally, these data can be used to inform where investment in the built environment and third spaces may have an important impact. Third spaces are free spaces outside such as parks.[399] These spaces are associated with greater senses of safety, social cohesion, and allow for increased informal contact between people within an area. [400, 401, 402] Further, investment in the built environment is routinely associated with reduction in violent crime.[403, 404]

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[398] Sharkey, P., Torrats-Espinsoa, G., & Takyar, D. (2017). Community and Crime Decline: The Casual Effect of Nonprofits on Violent Crime. *American Sociological Review* 82(6):1214-1240.

[399] Butler, S.M. and Diaz, C. (2016). "Third places" as Community Builders. Brookings Institute. Retrieved September 21, 2023, from https://www.brookings.edu/articles/third-places-as-community-builders/#:~:text=Third%20places%20is%20a%20term,good%20time%2C%20and%20build%20relationships

[400] Grawer, A. & Kim, N. (2022). Myths and Realities: Understanding Recent Trends in Violent Crime. Brennan Center for Justice. Retrieved September 21, 2023, from https://www.brennancenter.org/our-work/research-reports/myths-and-realities-understanding-recent-trends-violent-crime?ms=gad_crime%20statistics_617000456634_8626214133_143843260761&gclid=EAIaIQobChMIwt_1u8a5gQMVuQznCh0FJQgcEAAYBCAAEgL0qvD_BwE

[401] Butler, S.M. and Diaz, C. (2016). "Third places" as Community Builders. Brookings Institute. Retrieved September 21, 2023, from https://www.brookings.edu/articles/third-places-as-community-builders/#:~:text=Third%20places%20is%20a%20term,good%20time%2C%20and%20build%20relationships.

[402] Love, H. (2021). Want to Reduce Violence? Invest in Place. Brookings Institute. Retrieved September 21, 2023, from https://www.brookings.edu/articles/want-to-reduce-violence-invest-in-place/

[403] Ibid.

[404] Branas, C. C., South, E., Kondo, M. C., Hohl, B. C., Bourgois, P., Wiebe, D. J., & MacDonald, J. M. (2018). Citywide cluster randomized trial to restore blighted vacant land and its effects on violence, crime, and fear. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115(12), 2946-2951.

Additional methods shown to reduce crime rates include developmental, situational, and community crime prevention strategies.[405] Developmental crime prevention strategies refer to interventions taken at early life stages that may impact long-term behavior, including pre- and post-natal home health visits, day care programs that focus on social and emotional development, high-quality preschool programs, and vocational training, among others. Situational crime prevention strategies include improving street lighting and other strategies that reduce opportunities for crime by changing the environment. Community crime prevention often combines elements of developmental and situational crime prevention strategies. The San Diego County Sheriff's Crime Prevention Unit provides programs to prevent crime such as the Crime Free Multi-Housing Program and free home vacation checks, as well as resources like the Personal Safety Crime Prevention Resources and Fraud and Identity Theft Crime Prevention Resources.

[405] Welsh, B. C., Farrington, D. P., & Gowar, B. R. (2015). Benefit-cost analysis of crime prevention programs. *Crime and Justice, 44*(1), 447–516. https://doi.org/10.1086/681556

Table 29: Number and Rate per 1,000 Population of FBI Index Violent Crimes by Jurisdiction, San Diego County, 2021

		Homicide		Rape		Robbery		Aggravated Assault		Total Violent Crimes	
	Population*	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate
Carlsbad	114,463	2	0.02	31	0.27	38	0.33	179	1.56	250	2.18
Chula Vista	272,202	9	0.03	65	0.24	265	0.97	616	2.26	955	3.51
Coronado	21,381	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
El Cajon	104,393	6	0.06	43	0.41	121	1.16	378	3.62	548	5.25
Escondido	153,008	2	0.01	48	0.31	153	1.00	400	2.61	603	3.94
La Mesa	59,966	2	0.03	14	0.23	45	0.75	114	1.90	175	2.92
National City	62,099	3	0.05	18	0.29	89	1.43	258	4.15	368	5.93
Oceanside	177,335	6	0.03	94	0.53	169	0.95	553	3.12	822	4.64
City of San Diego	1,430,483	57	0.04	571	0.40	1,091	0.76	4,156	2.91	5,875	4.11
Sheriff Total†	905,052	31	0.03	161	0.18	423	0.47	2,093	2.31	2,708	2.99
Del Mar	4,268	0	.	1	0.23	2	0.47	4	0.94	7	1.64
Encinitas	62,183	0	.	16	0.26	25	0.40	94	1.51	135	2.17
Imperial Beach	28,055	3	0.11	7	0.25	18	0.64	82	2.92	110	3.92
Lemon Grove	26,526	2	0.08	5	0.19	38	1.43	151	5.69	196	7.39
Poway	49,338	0	.	10	0.20	25	0.51	45	0.91	80	1.62
San Marcos	97,209	3	0.03	19	0.20	44	0.45	141	1.45	207	2.13
Santee	57,999	0	.	3	0.05	31	0.53	111	1.91	145	2.50
Solana Beach	13,838	1	0.07	3	0.22	9	0.65	13	0.94	26	1.88
Vista	102,928	2	0.02	22	0.21	87	0.85	246	2.39	357	3.47
Unincorporated	462,708	20	0.04	75	0.16	144	0.31	1,206	2.61	1,445	3.12
Other Sheriff	.	2	.	12	.	5	.	264	.	283	.
Other LEAs‡	.	0	.	23	.	20	.	135	.	178	.
Camp Pendleton	42,967	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Total	3,343,349	118	0.04	1072	0.32	2,418	0.72	8,887	2.66	12,495	3.74

Data Source: SANDAG Regional Criminal Justice Research & Clearinghouse Division, April 2022.

* 2020 California Department of Finance estimates; 2021 estimates were not available at the time of the SANDAG report.

† Sheriff Total includes contract cities and the unincorporated area served by the San Diego County Sheriff's Department. Camp Pendleton is not included.

‡ LEA = Law Enforcement Agency.

Table 30: Number and Rate per 1,000 Population of Property Crimes by Jurisdiction, San Diego County, 2021

				FBI Index Property Crimes (Excludes Arson)							
		Arson		Burglary		Larceny		Motor Vehicle Theft		Total	
	Population*	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate
Carlsbad	114,463	20	0.17	258	2.25	1,546	13.51	186	1.62	1,990	17.39
Chula Vista	272,202	50	0.18	403	1.48	2,038	7.49	906	3.33	3,347	12.30
Coronado	21,381	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
El Cajon	104,393	26	0.25	251	2.40	1,204	11.53	386	3.70	1,841	17.64
Escondido	153,008	31	0.20	318	2.08	1,771	11.57	536	3.50	2,625	17.16
La Mesa	59,966	15	0.25	175	2.92	769	12.82	186	3.10	1,130	18.84
National City	62,099	15	0.24	128	2.06	840	13.53	314	5.06	1,282	20.64
Oceanside	177,335	39	0.22	419	2.36	2,568	14.48	436	2.46	3,423	19.30
City of San Diego	1,430,483	158	0.11	3,393	2.37	18,075	12.64	6,165	4.31	27,633	19.32
Sheriff Total†	905,052	91	0.10	1,605	1.77	5,692	6.29	1,823	2.01	9,120	10.08
Del Mar	4,268	0	.	18	4.22	65	15.23	5	1.17	88	20.62
Encinitas	62,183	1	0.02	146	2.35	685	11.02	95	1.53	926	14.89
Imperial Beach	28,055	4	0.14	30	1.07	153	5.45	87	3.10	270	9.62
Lemon Grove	26,526	2	0.08	71	2.68	304	11.46	105	3.96	480	18.10
Poway	49,338	3	0.06	83	1.68	288	5.84	49	0.99	420	8.51
San Marcos	97,209	2	0.02	153	1.57	577	5.94	165	1.70	895	9.21
Santee	57,999	8	0.14	82	1.41	389	6.71	70	1.21	541	9.33
Solana Beach	13,838	0	.	60	4.34	139	10.04	32	2.31	231	16.69
Vista	102,928	8	0.08	210	2.04	758	7.36	262	2.55	1,230	11.95
Unincorporated	462,708	63	0.14	752	1.63	2,334	5.04	953	2.06	4,039	8.73
Other Sheriff	.	0	.	12	.	38	.	36	.	86	.
Other LEAs‡	.	8	.	144	.	1,015	.	182	.	1,341	.
Camp Pendleton	42,967	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Total	3,343,349	453	0.14	7,149	2.14	35,663	10.67	11,145	3.33	53,957	16.14

Data Source: SANDAG Regional Criminal Justice Research & Clearinghouse Division, April 2022.

* 2020 California Department of Finance estimates; 2021 estimates were not available at the time of the SANDAG report.

† Sheriff Total includes contract cities and the unincorporated area served by the San Diego County Sheriff's Department. Camp Pendleton is not included.

‡ LEA = Law Enforcement Agency.

Hate Crimes

Hate crimes are defined as crimes that are motivated by an offender's bias towards actual or perceived characteristics of people, organizations, or property. The FBI has been collecting data on hate crimes as part of the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program since 1991, and as of 2022 the FBI collects information on 34 separate bias types based on race/ethnicity/ancestry, religion, sexual orientation, disability, gender, and gender identity.[406] To be considered a hate crime by the FBI's standards, the crime must be one of a limited number of specific offenses: murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, rape, aggravated assault, simple assault, intimidation, human trafficking/commercial sex acts, human trafficking/involuntary servitude, robbery, burglary, larceny-theft, motor-vehicle theft, arson, or destruction/damage/vandalism.[407]

The hate crimes data have similar limitations to crimes data (see Crime Rate); many factors influence the number of crimes reported and the crime must have been reported to the police. However, not all crime is reported. Between 2015 and 2019, approximately 42% of violent hate crimes were not reported in the United States.[408] Victims of hate crimes may be afraid to report the incident or cooperate with the police due to fear of further victimization or stigmatization.[409] Additionally, a crime may only be reported by the responding police department to the FBI as a hate crime "if investigation reveals sufficient objective facts to lead a reasonable and prudent person to conclude that the offender's actions were motivated, in whole or in part, by bias"[410] as determined first by the responding officer and corroborated by a second officer who makes a final determination about whether a hate crime occurred.[411] The evidence for this form of crime is frequently something the offender said or did during the attack (in crimes against persons) or the nature of the vandalism in crimes against property. If the offender is motivated by bias but does not say or do anything to that effect during the incident, then there is no evidence that the crime was motivated by bias and will not be recorded as such.

As with all the UCR programs, participation is voluntary. Some police agencies do not report to the FBI's hate crimes program at all, some only report in some years, and some only report on

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[406] Federal Bureau of Investigation. (n.d.). Hate Crime. Retrieved October 19, 2022, from https://www.fbi.gov/how-we-can-help-you/need-an-fbi-service-or-more-information/ucr/hate-crime

[407] Smith, E. (2021). Hate crime recorded by law enforcement, 2010–2019 (NCJ 301554). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh236/files/media/document/hcrle1019.pdf

[408] Kena, G., & Thompson, A. (2021). Hate crime victimization, 2005–2019 (No. NCJ300954). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh236/files/media/document/hcv0519_1.pdf

[409] Pezzella, F. S., Fetzer, M. D., & Keller, T. (2019). The Dark Figure of Hate Crime Underreporting. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 0002764218823844. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764218823844

[410] Criminal Justice Information Services Division, Uniform Crime Reporting Program. (2022). Hate crime data collection guidelines and training manual, version 3.0. Federal Bureau of Investigation. Pg. 10. Retrieved from https://le.fbi.gov/file-repository/hate-crime-data-collection-guidelines-and-training-manual.pdf/view

[411] Ibid.

some bias motivations.[412] This leaves four distinct decision points where hate crimes can "fall out" of official reporting: victims can choose not to report the crime to police, the responding officer may not recognize that a crime was motivated by bias or may not report it as such, the second officer may determine there was not sufficient evidence to determine a crime was motivated by bias or may not report it as a hate crime, or the police agency itself may not participate fully or at all in the UCR hate crimes program. As such, the data reported in this report are likely underestimating the true number of bias-motivated crimes committed. Also, the FBI only records information on the bias motivation of the crime and not demographic information about victims.[413] This and other problems with the hate crimes data make it impossible to calculate a rate of hate crimes.[414]

Hate crime incidents may have more than one offender and more than one victim. Victims can be people, a business, a religious institution, government, or other types of organizations. One incident may also contain multiple types of criminal offenses; these data count incidents according to the most serious offense committed. This report only presents the total number of incidents classified as hate crimes in San Diego County by bias motivation (Table 31) and offense type (Table 32). Additional information about the hate crimes can be found on the State of California Department of Justice's (DOJ) OpenJustice data portal.[415]

There were a total of 89 hate crimes recorded in San Diego County in 2021: 71% were motivated by race, ethnicity, and/or ancestry, 21% by sexual orientation, and 8% by religion. No hate crimes motivated by gender, gender identity, or disability were reported in San Diego County in 2021, although that does not mean they did not occur. Of those motivated by race/ethnicity/ancestry, almost 50% of incidents were anti-Black or anti-African American. When looking at hate crimes by offence type, 71% were violent crimes, the majority being aggravated assault, and 29% were property crimes, almost all being destruction, damage, and/or vandalism.

[412] Kaplan, J. (2022). Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program data: A practitioner's guide. https://ucrbook.com/index.html

[413] Hate crime offenders are often making assumptions about victims (such as their race, religion, sexual orientation, etc.) that may or may not be true. The bias motivation (for example, anti-gay), if evidence exists for it (for example, if the offender used a homophobic slur during the crime), is recorded but the actual sexual orientation (gender, race, etc.) of the victim is not.

[414] Kena, G., & Thompson, A. (2021). Hate crime victimization, 2005–2019 (No. NCJ300954). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh236/files/media/document/hcv0519_1.pdf

[415] California Department of Justice. (2023). State of California Department of Justice—OpenJustice. Retrieved April 3, 2023, from https://openjustice.doj.ca.gov/data

Table 31: Hate Crimes by Bias Motivation, San Diego County, 2021

Bias Type	Bias Motivation	Number of Incidents*
Race/Ethnicity/Ancestry	Anti-Arab	4
	Anti-Asian	10
	Anti-Black or African American	29
	Anti-Hispanic or Latino	12
	Anti-White	6
	Anti-multiple races (group)	1
	Anti-other race/ethnicity/ancestry	1
	Total	**63**
Religion	Anti-Catholic	2
	Anti-Islamic (Muslim)	1
	Anti-Jewish	4
	Total	**7**
Sexual orientation	Anti-gay (male)	13
	Anti-lesbian	2
	Anti-LGBT (mixed group)	4
	Total	**19**
Total Number of Hate Crimes		**89**

Data Source: California Department of Justice and FBI Uniform Crime Reporting Program, 2021.
* Each incident may have one or more offenders, one or more victims, and one or more crimes. One incident may also contain multiple types of criminal offenses; these data count incidents according to the most serious offense committed.

Table 32: Hate Crimes by Offense Type, San Diego County, 2021

Crime Type	Offense	Number of Incidents*
Violent Crimes	Aggravated Assault	27
	Intimidation	15
	Robbery	3
	Simple Assault	18
	Total	**63**
Property Crimes	Burglary	1
	Destruction/Damage/Vandalism	25
	Total	**26**

Data Source: California Department of Justice and FBI Uniform Crime Reporting Program, 2021.
* Each incident may have one or more offenders, one or more victims, and one or more crimes. One incident may also contain multiple types of criminal offenses; these data count incidents according to the most serious offense committed.

Police Stops and Searches

There are three distinct parts of the criminal legal system: police, courts, and corrections. Police are considered the gatekeepers to the criminal legal system because the decisions they make largely determine if and how much a person will interact with the rest of the system.[416] In 2015 and 2018, traffic stops were the most common reason for contact with the police that was initiated by the police.[417] The decision to make a traffic stop and the subsequent decision to search the person and/or vehicle are important to examine when considering equity. As it relates to traffic stops across the country, research is consistent that Black and Hispanic people are stopped disproportionately, men are stopped more frequently than women, and Black men are more likely to be searched once stopped.[418,419] These findings are so pervasive for Black drivers that the phenomenon has been labeled "Driving While Black."[420] Although research on racial disparities is consistent, current methods limit the ability to draw causal inferences.

To assess whether groups of people are disproportionately stopped by police, this report compares the number of stops within a demographic group to the number of people within that group who are available to be stopped.[421] Estimating the number of people available to be stopped within an area is difficult because population estimates include people that do not drive and there are an unknown number of drivers passing through areas they do not live in. Some researchers estimate the number of people available to be stopped as the number of residents over a certain age.[422,423,424] Another option, used in this report, is to estimate the number of drivers in traffic collisions. This includes either at-fault drivers, not-at-fault drivers, or

[416]Neusteter, R.S., Subramanian, R., Trone, J., Khogali, M., & Reed, Cindy. (2019). Gatekeepers: The Role of Police in Ending Mass Incarceration. Vera Institute of Justice. Retrieved from VERA-Gatekeepers-Report.pdf (us-amsa.org)

[417] Harrell, E., & Davis, E. (2020). Contacts between police and the public, 2018 – Statistical tables (NCJ 255730). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/content/pub/pdf/cbpp18st.pdf

[418] Farrell, A. (2015). Explaining leniency: Organizational predictors of the differential treatment of men and women in traffic stops. Crime & Delinquency, 61(4), 509–537. https//doi.org/10.1177/0011128711420108

[419] Smith, M. R., Rojek, J. J., Petrocelli, M., & Withrow, B. (2017). Measuring disparities in police activities: A state of the art review. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 40*(2), 166–183. https://doi.org/10.1108/PIJPSM-06-2016-0074

[420] Ibid.

[421] Ibid.

[422] Ibid.

[423] Alpert, G. P., Dunham, R. G., & Smith, M. R. (2007). Investigating racial profiling by the Miami-Dade police department: A multimethod approach. *Criminology & Public Policy, 6*(1), 25–55. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9133.2007.00420.x

[424] Smith, M. R., Tillyer, R., Lloyd, C., & Petrocelli, M. (2021). Benchmarking disparities in police stops: A comparative application of 2nd and 3rd generation techniques. *Justice Quarterly, 38*(3), 513–536. https://doi.org/10.1080/07418825.2019.1660395

both. Using any subset of drivers in traffic collisions provides a snapshot of the people who are actually driving in a given jurisdiction.

Data on the traffic stops and searches in 2021 were obtained from the Racial and Identity Profiling Act (RIPA) Stop Data, collected by the California Department of Justice and available on the OpenJustice data portal.[425] Traffic collision data were obtained through the Statewide Integrated Traffic Records System for collisions that occurred January 1, 2021, to December 31, 2021.[426] The RIPA Stop Data program started with requiring only the largest police departments to report their stop data to the state In 2021 three police departments in San Diego County were large enough to meet the reporting requirements: the Carlsbad Police Department, the San Diego Police Department, and the San Diego County Sheriff's Department. The San Diego Sheriff's Department is responsible for patrolling the unincorporated areas of the county as well as the cities of Del Mar, Encinitas, Imperial Beach, Lemon Grove, Poway, San Marcos, Santee, Solana Beach, and Vista. All departments are required to report traffic stop data to the California Department of Justice by 2023.

The California Code of Regulation defines a stop as "(1) any detention…by a peace officer of a person; or (2) any peace officer interaction with a person in which the officer conducts a search."[427] Analyses were limited to stops for traffic violations, which included moving violations, equipment violations, and non-moving violations. It is not possible to differentiate between drivers and passengers in the RIPA stop data; therefore, these data show the number of stops, not the number of people present for the stop. Demographic information reported in the RIPA data, including race/ethnicity, gender, age, LGBT status, etc., are based on the perception of the police officer and are not self-identified by those stopped. Demographic information reported from the traffic collision data include some self-reported characteristics and some characteristics reported by the responding officer based on officer perception. [428]

[425] State of California Department of Justice—OpenJustice. (2023). Retrieved February 24, 2023, from https://openjustice.doj.ca.gov/data

[426] California Highway Patrol. (2019). Statewide Integrated Traffic Records System. Retrieved February 24, 2023, from https://iswitrs.chp.ca.gov/Reports/jsp/userLogin.do

[427] California Code of Regulations; Title 11, Law; Division 1, Enforcement; Chapter 19, Final Text of Regulations. Retrieved from https://oag.ca.gov/sites/all/files/agweb/pdfs/ripa/stop-data-reg-final-text-110717.pdf

[428] NHTSA. (2003). *California Collision Manual Chapters 1-13*. https://one.nhtsa.gov/nhtsa/stateCatalog/states/ca/docs/CA_CHP555_Manual_2_2003_ch1-13.pdf

Figure 37 displays the discrepancy between the actual number of traffic stops across race/ethnicity and gender and the expected number of traffic stops if the number of stops was proportional to the number of at-fault drivers involved in traffic collisions in each jurisdiction. In the cities of Carlsbad and San Diego, Black, and Hispanic people were overrepresented in traffic stops because those groups experienced a greater number of stops than traffic collisions in 2021. White people were underrepresented in traffic stops compared to at-fault White drivers in traffic collisions in those cities. In contrast, in the San Diego County Sheriff's jurisdiction White people were overrepresented in traffic stops in 2021, while Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino people were underrepresented in traffic stops. The San Diego Police Department and San Diego County Sheriff's Office stopped those classified as some other race more frequently than expected and across all three jurisdictions Asian people were stopped more frequently than expected. In both Carlsbad and the City of San Diego, men were overrepresented in traffic stops and women were underrepresented compared to what may be expected based on the number of traffic collisions. The opposite pattern was observed within the San Diego County Sheriff's jurisdiction, men were underrepresented and women were overrepresented in traffic stops.

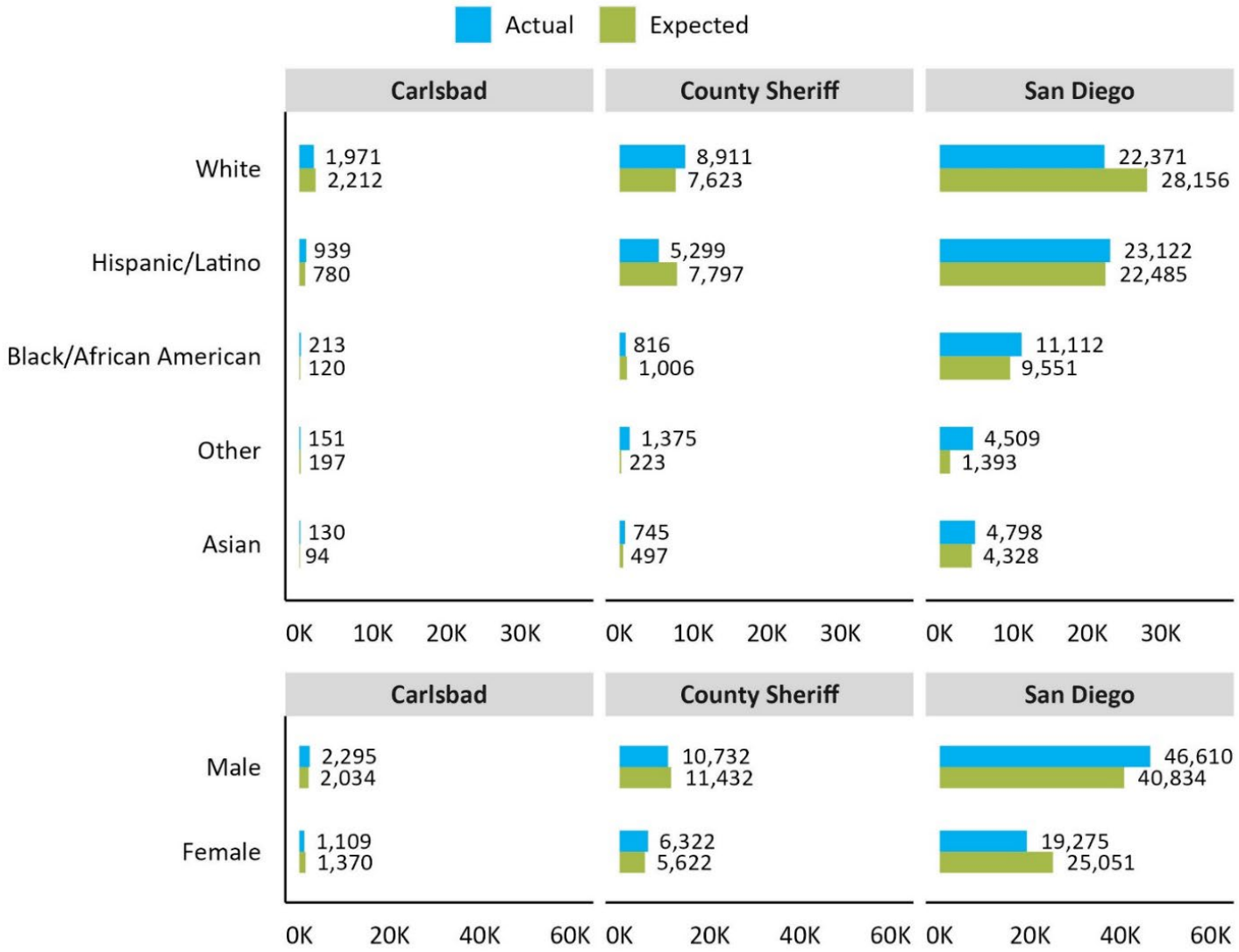
Table 33, Table 34, and Table 35 provide the percentage of stops and the percentage of at-fault drivers by race/ethnicity and gender as well as a disproportionality index for each jurisdiction. The disproportionality index is another way of looking at possible inequities in traffic stops and was calculated by dividing the rate of stops by the rate of at-fault drivers in collisions. Disproportionality index values over one indicate that a group was overrepresented in traffic stops compared to the population of at-fault drivers on the road. Values under one indicate that a group was underrepresented in stops to the population of at-fault drivers on the road. The patterns observed in the disproportionality index data are the same as those observed in Figure 37.

The tables also present data related to searches conducted during traffic stops in San Diego County in 2021 for each of the three agencies. As searches tend to be another high discretion event, the tables present the percentage of people in each racial/ethnic group and gender for which officers requested a search. Searches could be requested of the person, property, or both. This type of search is often referred to as a "consent search," as opposed to a search where the officer sees evidence that justifies a search without consent. Requests for consent searches were a rare event in all three departments, occurring in less than 4% of all traffic stops.

In addition to the percent of searches requested, the tables provide the percentage of searches that were actually conducted and a hit rate equal to the number of times contraband was discovered over the total number of searches conducted in 2021. In the City of San Diego, the hit rate for police finding contraband in a traffic search was similar across all groups: between 34% and 40% of searches yielded contraband or evidence. However, Black/African American people were searched at a much higher rates than others in the City of San Diego: 17% of Black/African American people who were stopped were searched compared to about 6% of

White people. Though White people were searched less frequently than their Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino counterparts, they were more likely to be found to have contraband or evidence across the three jurisdictions. Hispanic/Latino people were searched among the highest rates but had among the lowest rate of carrying contraband. Across all jurisdictions men were searched more frequently than women, though for San Diego PD and San Diego County Sheriff's office women had higher hit rates than their male counterparts.

Figure 37: Actual and Expected Traffic Stops by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, San Diego County, 2021



Data Sources: Racial and Identity Profiling Act Stop Data, 2021 and California Highway Patrol Collision Data, 2021.
Passengers were present during the traffic stop for 85 (2.5%) of the stops in Carlsbad, 332 (1.9%) of the stops in the San Diego Sheriff Department's jurisdiction, and 4,091 (6.2%) of the stops in the City of San Diego.

Table 33: Number and Percent of Police Stops and Searches, Carlsbad Police Department, 2021

	Traffic Stops				Searches				
	Stops		At-Fault Collisions		Percent Searches Requested				
	Number	Percent	Percent	Disproportionality Index	Person	Property	Both	Percent Conducted	Hit Rate
Race/ethnicity									
Asian	130	3.8%	2.8%	1.38	*	*	*	*	*
Black or African American	213	6.3%	3.5%	1.78	*	*	*	12.7%	33.3%
Hispanic or Latino	939	27.6%	22.9%	1.21	3.9%	3.9%	2.8%	12.1%	41.2%
White	1,971	57.9%	65.1%	0.89	2.5%	2.4%	1.9%	8.1%	35.6%
Some other race	151	4.4%	5.8%	0.77	*	*	*	3.3%	*
Sex									
Female	1,109	32.6%	40.2%	0.81	1.4%	1.9%	1.1%	5.9%	32.3%
Male	2,295	67.4%	59.8%	1.13	3.2%	3.0%	2.4%	10.7%	39.2%

Data Sources: Racial and Identity Profiling Act Stop Data, 2021 and California Highway Patrol Collision Data, 2021.
68 (15%) collisions were missing data on race/ethnicity and 61 (13%) were missing data on gender; these cases were removed from analyses. Vehicle passengers were present during 85 (2.5%) of the traffic stops.
* Data were suppressed due to incidence being less than 5.

Table 34: Number and Percent of Police Stops and Searches, San Diego Police Department, 2021

	Traffic Stops				Searches				
	Stops		At-Fault Collisions		Percent Searches Requested				
	Number	Percent	Percent	Disproportionality Index	Person	Property	Both	Percent conducted	Hit Rate
Race/ethnicity									
Asian	4,798	7.3%	6.6%	1.11	0.6%	1.3%	0.4%	5.5%	35.1%
Black or African American	11,112	16.9%	14.5%	1.16	1.6%	2.9%	1.1%	17.3%	36.4%
Hispanic or Latino	23,122	35.1%	34.1%	1.03	1.6%	2.7%	1.1%	11.9%	33.7%
White	22,371	33.9%	42.7%	0.79	0.7%	1.0%	0.6%	5.6%	37.7%
Some other race	4,509	6.8%	2.1%	3.24	0.9%	1.1%	0.6%	5.3%	39.8%
Sex									
Female	19,275	29.3%	38.0%	0.77	0.5%	1.0%	0.4%	4.9%	38.8%
Male	46,610	70.7%	62.0%	1.14	1.5%	2.4%	1.0%	11.8%	35.0%

Data Sources: Racial and Identity Profiling Act Stop Data, 2021 and California Highway Patrol Collision Data, 2021.
564 (18%) collisions were missing data on race/ethnicity and 363 (11%) were missing data on gender; these cases were removed from analyses. Vehicle passengers were present during 4,091 (6.2%) of the traffic stops.

Table 35: Number and Percent of Police Stops and Searches, San Diego County Sheriff's Department, 2021

	Traffic Stops				Searches				
	Stops		At-Fault Collisions		Percent Searches Requested				
	Number	Percent	Percent	Disproportionality Index	Person	Property	Both	Percent conducted	Hit Rate
Race/ethnicity									
Asian	745	4.4%	2.9%	1.50	*	*	*	0.7%	*
Black or African American	816	4.8%	5.9%	0.81	2.0%	1.6%	1.1%	4.0%	27.2%
Hispanic or Latino	5,299	30.9%	45.5%	0.68	2.9%	2.5%	1.6%	5.8%	36.2%
White	8,911	52.0%	44.4%	1.17	1.8%	1.4%	1.1%	3.3%	52.2%
Some other race	1,375	8.0%	8.0%	6.16	0.7%	0.5%	*	1.7%	52.2%
Sex									
Female	6,322	37.1%	33.0%	1.12	0.9%	1.0%	0.6%	2.1%	54.1%
Male	10,732	62.9%	67.0%	0.94	2.6%	2.0%	1.5%	4.9%	40.9%

Data Sources: Racial and Identity Profiling Act Stop Data, 2021 and California Highway Patrol Collision Data, 2021.
176 (11%) collisions were missing data on race/ethnicity and 113 (0.07%) were missing data on gender; these cases were removed from analyses. Vehicle passengers were present during 332 cases (1.9%) of the traffic stops.
* Data were suppressed due to incidence being less than 5.

Juvenile Justice Arrests

In 1899, reformers created a separate juvenile court system with the dual goals of controlling juvenile delinquency and providing social welfare to children and adolescents engaged in delinquent behaviors.[429] Though the juvenile justice system has undergone significant reform that has eroded some of its original welfare goals,[430] it still tries, when possible, to rehabilitate and reintegrate youth rather than incarcerate them.[431]

Youth most frequently come in contact with the juvenile justice system through contact with police.[432] Responding officers have discretion (see Police Stops and Searches) in the actions they take when interacting with youth. Those actions may include informal "adjustment" (requiring informal supervision of six months or less), diversion into a community rehabilitation program, or filing of a formal complaint or charges.[433] If formal charges are filed, youth enter an intake process where officials decide whether the case will be dismissed, handled informally, or handled formally where it will enter the juvenile justice system and go on to judicial processing. Youth judged in court as delinquent (essentially, found guilty of the charges) will then typically have a disposition plan developed for them by the court that specifies the consequences of the offense, whether it is probation, restitution, incarceration, or some other outcome.[434]

It is important to study juvenile arrests because arrests are most youths' entryway into the juvenile justice system. Research has found that the greatest racial disparity exists for arrests, followed by the most punitive of punishments (e.g., receiving a carceral sentence or being transferred to adult court).[435] In San Diego County in 2018, Black youth were significantly overrepresented in arrests and were more likely than all other youth to be detained pre-adjudication than to receive a referral to probation.[436] Hispanic youth had about equal

[429] Feld, B. C. (1999). Bad Kids: Race and the Transformation of the Juvenile Court. Oxford University Press.

[430] Ibid.

[431] Youth.gov. (n.d.). Juvenile Justice. Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://youth.gov/youth-topics/juvenile-justice

[432] Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (n.d.). Overview: Law Enforcement & Juvenile Crime. Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/crime/overview.html

[433] Youth.gov. (n.d.). Points of Intervention. Retrieved October 26, 2022, from https://youth.gov/youth-topics/juvenile-justice/points-intervention

[434] Ibid.

[435] Zane, S. N., Welsh, B. C., Mears, D. P., & Zimmerman, G. M. (2022). Pathways through juvenile justice: A system-level assessment of cumulative disadvantage in the processing of juvenile offenders. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 38*(2), 483–514. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-021-09505-w

[436] Keaton, S., Sauer, K., Schroeder, G., & Burke, C. (2020, September). *The Role of Race and Ethnicity in the San Diego County Juvenile Justice System*. SANDAG. Retrieved from https://www.sandag.org/data-and-research/criminal-justice-and-public-safety/evaluation-services/-/media/3D720CCFEC8E4D6A9362EF6BE52A7B92.ashx

proportions of receiving a referral or being detained, but of those with a true finding, the majority received a commitment.[437,438]

Nationally, people who were arrested at some point in adolescence had lower educational attainment and were more likely to be in debt and have lower assets and net worth in adulthood than juveniles who were never arrested.[439] Additionally, juveniles who were incarcerated had lower rates of employment and higher rates of adult criminal offending and incarceration.[440]

In addition to recording information about crimes reported to the police, the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program also collects information about arrests by age. These data are counts of the number of *arrests* made by the reporting police agency, not people arrested. If, for example, a person is arrested, released, and rearrested in the same month, they are counted as having more than one arrest. On the other hand, in cases where more than one crime is committed in a single incident, the hierarchy rule applies (see Crime Rate), only the most serious offense is recorded by the FBI, and only one arrest is recorded.

Nationally, arrests of juveniles have decreased sharply from a peak of nearly 2.7 million in 1996 to 424,300 in 2020.[441,442] Of those arrests in 2020, 64% were of White youth, 32% were of Black youth, 3% were of American Indian youth, and 1% were of Asian youth (data were not reported by ethnicity or broken into any further racial or other demographic categories). Only 29% of arrests were of females. Approximately 18% of juvenile arrests were for property index offenses such as burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson and 8% were for serious violent crimes including murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, robbery, forcible rape, and aggravated assault), with the remainder of arrests for crimes not traditionally considered serious.[443]

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[437] Ibid.

[438] "Commitment" is used in the juvenile justice system and is similar to "incarceration" (the language used in the adult system).

[439] Siennick, S. E., & Widdowson, A. O. (2022). Juvenile arrest and later economic attainment: Strength and mechanisms of the relationship. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 38*(1), 23–50. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-020-09482-6

[440] Aizer, A., & Doyle, J. J. (2015). Juvenile incarceration, human capital, and future crime: Evidence from randomly assigned judges. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 130*(2), 759–803. https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qjv003

[441] Puzzanchera, C. (2020). Juvenile arrests, 2018 (National Report Series Bulletin). Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Retrieved from https://ojjdp.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh176/files/media/document/254499.pdf

[442] Demographic characteristics of juvenile arrests, 2020. (2022). Retrieved October 28, 2022, from https://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/crime/qa05104.asp?qaDate=2020

[443] Ibid.

Data for juvenile arrests in this report come from the Automated Regional Justice Information System (ARJIS) as reported by the San Diego Association of Governments (SANDAG).[444] The number of arrests per 1,000 people ages 10-17 years old was calculated to standardize the measure for comparison but this can make rates in locations with small populations appear artificially high. For example, one arrest in a town with a population of 100 youth would have an arrest rate of 10 per 1,000 people 10-17 years of age.

As shown in Table 36, the rate of juvenile arrests in San Diego County in 2021 were generally low – less than 13 per 1,000 people 10-17 years of age. San Marcos had the highest arrest rate at about 12.5 people 10-17 years of age per 1,000 people, followed by Lemon Grove (11.6 per 1,000 people), Escondido (7.9 per 1,000 people), and National City (7.6 per 1,000). Each of the other police departments reported a juvenile justice arrest rate below 7 per 1,000. To reduce the juvenile arrest rate, police departments can instead divert some cases to community-based programs focused on meeting the needs of juveniles that will prevent further delinquent behavior.

[444] Sandag (2023). Arrests 2021: Law Enforcement Response to Crime in the San Diego Region.CJ Bulletin. Retrieved from, https://www.sandag.org/-/media/SANDAG/Documents/PDF/data-and-research/criminal-justice-and-public-safety/bulletin-arrests-2021-law-enforcement-response-2023-01-01.pdf

Table 36: Juvenile Arrests (10-17 Years of Age), San Diego County, 2021

	Number of Juvenile Arrests	County Population 10-17 Years Old	Juvenile Arrest Rate (per 1,000)
Carlsbad	13	11,585	1.1
Chula Vista	217	35,732	6.1
Coronado	8	1,496	5.3
El Cajon	57	11,763	4.8
Escondido	155	19,663	7.9
La Mesa	24	4,890	4.9
National City	62	8,110	7.6
Oceanside	74	20,216	3.7
San Diego	738	141,487	5.2
Sheriff Total	670	100,856	6.6
Del Mar	1	249	4.0
Encinitas	13	5,734	2.3
Imperial Beach	38	3,277	11.6
Lemon Grove	17	3,141	5.4
Poway	32	5,570	5.7
San Marcos	155	12,395	12.5
Santee	40	6,087	6.6
Solana Beach	2	1,111	1.8
Vista	69	13,141	5.3
Unincorporated	237	50,151	4.7
Other Sheriff	66	.	.
San Diego Harbor Police	35	.	.
Total	2,054	355,798	5.8

Data Sources: Automated Regional Justice Information System, SANDAG Population Estimates 2021.
Prepared by SANDAG Regional Criminal Justice Research & Clearinghouse Division, January 2023.
Rates include felony, misdemeanor, and status offense arrests. Camp Pendleton population is not included in the total rates.

Jail Incarceration Rate

While this report focuses on local jail incarceration rates, the corrections system is composed of a multitude of governmental and nongovernmental organizations. Those organizations include city, county, and federal jails, state and federal prisons, territorial prisons, private prisons, youth detention facilities, immigration detention facilities, Indian Country jails, military prisons, as well as certain facilities (such as psychiatric hospitals) where people are involuntarily committed. In 2022, almost 2 million people were incarcerated across the U.S. That is a rate of 573 per 100,000 residents, the highest in the world.[445] Another nearly 4 million people were under some other type of correctional supervision: 822,000 on parole and 2.9 million on probation.[446]

Incarceration has wide-reaching consequences for people, their families, and communities. In the U.S., people living in poverty (already at high risk of poor health[447]) are disproportionately incarcerated.[448] Incarceration can induce withdrawal symptoms in people with addictions who are not properly treated in jail or prison and exacerbate mental health problems when people are placed in solitary confinement or high-security or supermax facilities.[449] Controlling for prior health, experiencing incarceration increases people's risks of chronic health problems, infectious diseases, stress-related illnesses, and self-reported low health over the course of their lives.[450] The mortality rate among incarcerated Hispanic and White men is higher than their non-incarcerated peers.[451] In the first two weeks after release from incarceration, the mortality rate of all just-released people is about 13 times higher than for the general population.[452]

Negative health effects of incarceration extend to families and communities. Children experiencing parental incarceration are at higher risk of engaging in antisocial behaviors.[453] Women with incarcerated family members are at higher risk for reporting fair-to-poor health

[445] Sawyer, W., & Wagner, P. (2022). Mass Incarceration: The Whole Pie 2022. Prison Policy Initiative. Retrieved November 15, 2022, from https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/pie2022.html

[446] Ibid.

[447] Massoglia, M., & Pridemore, W. A. (2015). Incarceration and health. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*, 291–310.

[448] Rabuy, B., & Kopf, D. (2015, July 9). Prisons of Poverty: Uncovering the pre-incarceration incomes of the imprisoned. Prison Policy Initiative. Retrieved from https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/income.html

[449] Dumont, D. M., Brockmann, B., Dickman, S., Alexander, N., & Rich, J. D. (2012). Public health and the epidemic of incarceration. *Annual Review of Public Health, 33*(1), 325–339. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031811-124614

[450] Massoglia, M., & Pridemore, W. A. (2015). Incarceration and health. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*, 291–310.

[451] Ibid.

[452] Ibid.

[453] Murray, J., Farrington, D. P., & Sekol, I. (2012). Children's antisocial behavior, mental health, drug use, and educational performance after parental incarceration: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 138*(2), 175–210. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026407

and experiencing obesity, heart attack, and stroke.[454] People living in communities with high incarceration rates have higher odds of being diagnosed with major depressive disorder and generalized anxiety disorder, even if they have never been incarcerated themselves.[455] In addition, the incarceration rate in communities has been associated with higher infant mortality rates, lower female life expectancy, and higher AIDS infection rates.[456]

In the U.S., there are marked disparities in jail and prison incarceration by race and ethnicity. Black people are prominently overrepresented in jails and prisons. They comprise only 12% of the U.S. population but 38% of those incarcerated.[457] Latinos make up 18% of the U.S. population but 21% of the incarcerated population. Similarly, Native Americans make up 0.9% of the U.S. population but 2% of the incarcerated population. Despite comprising 60% of the U.S. population, White people make up 38% of those incarcerated. Though sentencing disparities have been declining over time, they have not been eliminated.[458,459]

One of the functions jails serve is pretrial detention. Jails hold some, though not all, people until the time of their trial.[460] Research suggests that people who were detained are more likely to plead guilty, to be sentenced to jail or prison, and to receive a longer sentence than those who were not, even controlling for demographic characteristics such as race and legal characteristics such as the type of charge and prior arrests.[461,462,463]

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[454] Massoglia, M., & Pridemore, W. A. (2015). Incarceration and health. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*, 291–310.

[455] Hatzenbuehler, M. L., Keyes, K., Hamilton, A., Uddin, M., & Galea, S. (2015). The collateral damage of mass incarceration: Risk of psychiatric morbidity among nonincarcerated residents of high-incarceration neighborhoods. *American Journal of Public Health, 105*(1), 138–143. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2014.302184

[456] Massoglia, M., & Pridemore, W. A. (2015). Incarceration and health. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*, 291–310.

[457] Sawyer, W., & Wagner, P. (2022). Mass Incarceration: The Whole Pie 2022. Prison Policy Initiative. Retrieved November 15, 2022, from https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/pie2022.html

[458] Enders, W., Pecorino, P., & Souto, A.-C. (2019). Racial disparity in U.S. imprisonment across states and over time. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 35*(2), 365–392. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-018-9389-6

[459] King, R. D., & Light, M. T. (2019). Have racial and ethnic disparities in sentencing declined? *Crime and Justice, 48*, 365–437. https://doi.org/10.1086/701505

[460] Zeng, Z. (2022). Jail inmates in 2021 – Statistical tables (NCJ 304888). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh236/files/media/document/ji21st.pdf

[461] Dobbie, W., Goldin, J., & Yang, C. S. (2018). The effects of pre-trial detention on conviction, future crime, and employment: Evidence from randomly assigned judges. *American Economic Review, 108*(2), 201–240. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20161503

[462] Donnelly, E. A., & Macdonald, J. M. (2019). The downstream effects of bail and pretrial detention on racial disparities in incarceration. *The Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology, 108*(4), 775–813.

[463] Heaton, P., & Stevenson, M. (2016). The downstream consequences of misdemeanor pretrial detention. *Stanford Law Review, 69*, 711–794. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2809840

The San Diego County Sheriff's Department is responsible for the operation of all public jail services for San Diego County: people incarcerated by both the Sheriff's department and municipal police are held in one of the seven facilities operated by the Sheriff's department. To examine incarceration in San Diego County, the jail incarceration rate per capita was analyzed using the Annual Survey of Jails from 2021 collected by the Bureau of Justice Statistics.[464] This report examines the confined population of adults (ages 18 years and older) on June 30, 2021, which is essentially a point-in-time count. This measure is limited because jail populations are in a near-constant state of flux. Some people, for example, are arrested, sent to jail, make bail within a few hours, and released, while others cannot make bail and are held until their trial. The Annual Survey of Jails only disaggregates the average daily population by sex, so this report presents the point-in-time count that includes counts by race/ethnicity as well as sex. The Annual Survey of Jails does not report on immigrant status or disability status.

The San Diego County Sheriff's Department does not have a Multiracial category in their jail information management system, so a one-to-one comparison of the racial/ethnic composition of the county to the jail population is not possible. Therefore, the per capita jail incarceration rate that is reported should be considered the upper-bound incarceration rate, calculated by only counting single-race people in their respective categories.

Table 37 shows the number and percent of people incarcerated by race/ethnicity and sex and the jail incarceration rate per 100,000 residents.[465] In San Diego County in 2021, the per capita incarceration rate was 115.2 per 100,000 residents, lower than the national rate of 192 per 100,000. [466] The per capita incarceration rate of Black of African American people housed in San Diego Sheriff's detention facilities was six times greater than that of White people. Hispanic or Latino and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander people were incarcerated just over twice the rate of White people. American Indian and Alaska Natives were incarcerated just over twice the rate of White people. Asian people had the lower incarceration rate at 25.2 per 100,000 people.

[464] U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2021). Annual Survey of Jails, 2021 [Computer file]. Conducted by RTI, International. ICPSR38408. Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research [producer and distributor]. Retrieved from https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/web/ICPSR/series/7

[465] This measure is limited because non-residents (e.g., tourists) can be arrested and held in the County jail, however, it is comparable to the way Oakland and King County, Washington report on incarceration.

Beatty, A., & Foster, D. (2015). The Determinants of Equity: Identifying Indicators to Establish a Baseline of Equity in King County. https://kingcounty.gov/~/media/elected/executive/equity-social-justice/2015/The_Determinants_of_Equity_Report.ashx

Oakland Equity Indicators: Measuring Change Toward Greater Equity in Oakland. (n.d.). https://cao-94612.s3.amazonaws.com/documents/2018-Equity-Indicators-Full-Report.pdf

[466] Zeng, Z. (2022). Jail inmates in 2021 – Statistical tables (NCJ 304888). Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh236/files/media/document/ji21st.pdf

Men were incarcerated at seven times the rate of women (200.7 per 100,000 compared to 27.5 per 100,000, respectively).

In San Diego County in 2021, 71% of incarcerated persons had not been convicted of a crime or were awaiting court action on their most serious charge (Table 38), comparable to the percent of people in jail who had not been convicted of a crime in the U.S. in 2021.[467] Bail allows people accused but not convicted of a crime to stay in the community until their trial, but sets financial conditions, and sometimes other nonfinancial conditions[468], upon this release. This figure does not reflect whether these people ultimately bailed out of custody.[469] Further, closures and modified operations of court procedures due to the COVID-19 pandemic, resulting in reduced capacity and delayed hearing dates, may have increased the number of people awaiting court action in 2021.

Nationally, a county's poverty rate is among the strongest predictors of its jail incarceration rate.[470,471] In San Diego County, the racial/ethnic group with the highest incarceration rate (Black or African American) also had the highest poverty rate in 2021 (see Poverty). To begin addressing inequities in incarceration that exacerbate negative health and wealth outcomes for minoritized populations, experts recommend eliminating the money bail system,[472] reducing pretrial detention and refocusing the correctional systems' structure toward reform. Money bail puts a price on release, thereby making it more accessible to those with wealth. Incarceration without reform interventions does not just hurt the incarcerated, it also harms public safety for

[467] Or, if accused of multiple crimes, had not been convicted of the most serious offense and were awaiting further court action. Ibid.

[468] Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1988). Pretrial Release and Detention: The Bail Reform Act of 1984. Washington, DC.

[469] Ibid.

[470] Ouellette, H. M., & Applegate, B. K. (2022). Local incarceration as social control: A national analysis of social, economic, and political determinants of jail use in the United States. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12103-022-09682-9

[471] Weiss Riley, R., Kang-Brown, J., Mulligan, C., Valsalam, V., Chakraborty, S., & Henrichson, C. (2018). Exploring the urban–rural incarceration divide: Drivers of local jail incarceration rates in the United States. *Journal of Technology in Human Services, 36*(1), 76–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/15228835.2017.1417955

[472] In 2018, then-Governor Jerry Brown signed Senate Bill 10, making California the first state to eliminate the money bail system in favor of a risk-based release system. The text of the bill left the method of determining the risk level up to each court, however, and critics were concerned that people of color would be more likely to be considered high risk and thus more likely to be detained pretrial. In 2020, California voted against Proposition 25 which would have upheld SB 10. The following year, the California Supreme Court addressed the question of money bail, holding In Re Humphrey that pretrial detention purely on the basis of the inability to post bail is unconstitutional. Importantly, the decision did not eliminate the money bail system but states that if money bail is found to be the only option for a defendant, their ability to pay must be among the considerations. McCrum, H. (2022, May 9). California Bail Reform: Where Are We Now? Georgetown Law. Retrieved from https://www.law.georgetown.edu/poverty-journal/blog/california-bail-reform-where-are-we-now/

everyone. That is because while pretrial detention has a short-term incapacitation effect—i.e., people in jail cannot engage in additional criminal behavior outside of the jail— in the long term it actually increases the risk of recidivism (i.e., rearrest after release).[473,474] Indeed, changes to pretrial booking policies in San Diego County during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic revealed that of the people that that had contact with the police for low-level offenses during that timeframe, nearly half did not have a second encounter with the police.[475] Of the people that did have a second contact with police officers, more than 90% were for nonviolent offenses.[476] A recent review and meta-analysis on the impact of incarceration (including in jails, prisons, juvenile detention facilities, and other detention facilities) on reoffending concluded,

> "All sophisticated assessments of the research have independently reached the same conclusion. The null effect of custodial compared with noncustodial sanctions is considered a 'criminological fact.' Incarceration cannot be justified on the grounds it affords public safety by Correctional settings] are unlikely to reduce reoffending unless they can be transformed into people-changing institutions on the basis of available evidence on what works organizationally to reform offenders."[477]

In 2021, the Board of Supervisors considered a Board Letter noting the negative effects of mass incarceration, particularly for the poor, those experiencing homelessness, mentally ill, and people of color. The Board approved recommendations for the County to hire a consultant to research the impact of COVID-19 on incarceration policy and practice, with particular attention to policy interventions that could permanently and safely reduce the San Diego jail population.[478] In response to the Board's direction, the County selected SANDAG to conduct the research.[479] On May 23, 2023, the County committed to a number of policy interventions to

[473] Dobbie, W., Goldin, J., & Yang, C. S. (2018). The effects of pre-trial detention on conviction, future crime, and employment: Evidence from randomly assigned judges. *American Economic Review, 108*(2), 201–240.

[474] Heaton, P., & Stevenson, M. (2016). The downstream consequences of misdemeanor pretrial detention. *Stanford Law Review, 69*, 711–794. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2809840

[475] SANDAG. (2023, March 15). A Data-Driven Approach to Protecting Public Safety, Improving and Expanding Rehabilitative Treatment and Services, and Advancing Equity Through Alternatives to Incarceration, Final Report. Retrieved from https://www.sandag.org/-/media/SANDAG/Documents/PDF/data-and-research/criminal-justice-and-public-safety/evaluation-services/adults/ati-final-report-2023-04-24.pdf

[476] Ibid.

[477] Petrich, D. M., Pratt, T. C., Jonson, C. L., & Cullen, F. T. (2021). Custodial sanctions and reoffending: A meta-analytic review. *Crime and Justice, 50*(1), p. 353. https://doi.org/10.1086/715100

[478] San Diego County. (n.d.). SanDiegoCounty.gov. Retrieved from https://sdcounty.legistar.com/LegislationDetail.aspx?ID=5165674&GUID=6FD16423-4322-4BEB-9C63-0FBB7BB5A476&Options=&Search=

[479] The final report can be accessed at SANDAG. (2023, March 15). A Data-Driven Approach to Protecting Public Safety, Improving and Expanding Rehabilitative Treatment and Services, and Advancing Equity Through Alternatives to Incarceration, Final Report. Retrieved from https://www.sandag.org/-

both prevent legal system involvement and prioritize alternatives to incarceration, including expanding community-based rehabilitative options supporting pretrial release. The full list of interventions can be accessed at Alternatives to Incarceration (ATI) Work Plan – May 23, 2023.

Table 37: Incarceration, San Diego County, 2021

	Number Incarcerated	Percent Incarcerated	County Population	Jail Incarceration Rate (per 100,000)*
Race/Ethnicity				
American Indian or Alaska Native	19	0.5%	9,737	195.1
Asian	96	2.5%	380,560	25.2
Black or African American	760	20.0%	150,906	503.6
Hispanic or Latino	1,688	44.5%	1,131,506	149.2
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	17	0.4%	11,443	148.6
White	1,166	30.7%	1,456,360	80.1
Some Other Race	0	0.0%	11,855	0.0
Unknown Race	51	1.3%	.	.
Sex				
Female	447	11.8%	1,627,861	27.5
Male	3,350	88.2%	1,669,036	200.7
Total	3,797		3,296,897	115.2

Data Sources: Annual Survey of Jails, 2021; 2021 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates from IPUMS USA.
*Multiracial does not exist as a category in the Jail Information Management System. The per capita jail incarceration rate should be considered an upper-bound estimate.

Table 38: Conviction Status Among Incarcerated, San Diego County, 2021

	Number Incarcerated	Percent Incarcerated
Convicted	1,100	29.0%
Unconvicted	2,697	71.0%
Total	3,797	

Data Source: Annual Survey of Jails, 2021.

/media/SANDAG/Documents/PDF/data-and-research/criminal-justice-and-public-safety/evaluation-services/adults/ati-final-report-2023-04-24.pdf

Limitations

This report is not without limitations. The main limitations of the report are described below. In addition, the limitations specific to each indicator where applicable are described within the section for that indicator.

- While most indicators present data from 2021, not all data sources had information from 2021. This should be considered when attempting to compare across indicators.

- Some demographic information is not currently collected, and therefore, could not be presented in this report. For instance, as the ACS stands currently, there is no category for Middle Eastern or North African (MENA) populations. This means that the outcomes of the MENA population in San Diego County cannot be observed, including the large Chaldean community in El Cajon.[480] There are efforts at the Census to address this gap.[481] Additionally, the ACS only collects information on sex, not gender, limiting any analysis on the experience of gender minorities, like trans, non-binary, and other gender non-conforming people.

- The ACS and most data sources used in this report do not collect information on sexual orientation, leaving the experiences of the LGBTQ+ community out of the analysis. This exclusion prevents important insight into potential disparities members of the LGBTQ+ community experience and limit examination of the compounding effects of race, sex, and sexual orientation.

- Demographics like race/ethnicity varied in how they were collected. For example, indicators from criminal-legal system organizations differ from many of the other indicators in this report such that demographic characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity, gender) are often not self-reported by the impacted person, but instead reported by people working in the criminal-legal system (e.g., police officers) relying on visual and verbal cues such as skin tone and language. This means that the data recorded on these characteristics may not necessarily align with how people self-identify and may differ across time and reporting agencies for the same person.[482] It is difficult to change

[480] Trageser, C. (2019, December 11). Large Chaldean Iraqi population thrives in San Diego suburb. CalMatters. Retrieved from http://calmatters.org/california-dream/2019/12/large-chaldean-iraqi-population-el-cajon/

[481] Samhan, H.H. (n.d.). Middle East/North Africa (MENA) Reporting Category. United States Census Bureau. Retrieved April 12, 2023, from https://www2.census.gov/about/partners/cac/nac/meetings/2022-05/discussant-mena-reporting-category.pdf

[482] Zatz, M. S., & Rodriguez, N. (2022). 2 Conceptualizing race and ethnicity in studies of crime and criminal justice. In R. D. Peterson, L. J. Krivo, & J. Hagan (Eds.), The Many Colors of Crime (pp. 39–53). New York University Press. https://doi.org/10.18574/nyu/9780814768549.003.0006

methods for race/ethnicity data collection when specific methods are required by legislation and policy set at the state and federal levels.

- Demographics also varied in how they were categorized across sources. As different data sources were used across indicators, disaggregation could not always be uniform. As mentioned above, almost four in 10 indicators in this report used ACS data that were disaggregated by race/ethnicity, sex, disability status, and immigrant status. However, indicators that used other data sources may be missing these categories or have different categories entirely.

- Because the indicators and data were partly selected on what data were current enough to use or available, some information of interest may not be presented in this report. For example, within Infrastructure, this report is limited in its ability to provide information on transportation costs, transit trips, and public transportation accessibility. Housing and Urban Development's Housing and Transportation Index, which contains these indicators and reports them consistently throughout the country, are not released frequently. The most recent data available at the time of report planning were 2012. Even though newer data were released in October 2022, it was determined that data released every 10 years are not sufficient for an annual equity report. Similarly, across Jobs and Finances, this report is unable to capture wealth which would give additional context to understand residents' economic stress, advancement, and security.

- Some data are also limited to specific populations for which data are available. Within the Education section, the data for proficiency in math and language arts, ELL students, and suspensions only include K-12 public school students. The California Department of Education's data repository, Dataquest, compiles reported data from public school districts and charter schools but does not include private schools or data about students who are schooled at home. Collecting and reporting comparable data for private and public-school students would provide a more complete picture of equity among San Diego County students.

Concluding Thoughts

Racism and other forms of oppression cast a long shadow over San Diego County's collective potential. Throughout this report, there are stark disparities by race and ethnicity, gender, immigration status, and disability status across every theme covered. For everyone who lives, works and learns in the region to have the opportunities, resources and power to thrive, racial hierarchies, systemic bias and other structural barriers must be addressed.

This report highlights the diversity of San Diego County and the many interrelated features of modern life that can reproduce and reflect inequity. In addition to efforts from the County, this report should encourage public agencies, advocates, philanthropies, businesses, and community-based organizations to be aware of the inequities that persist in the San Diego County region, discuss strategies to reduce them, and catalyze action.

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Appendix A: Key Concepts & Terms

Unincorporated Areas are communities and areas outside the jurisdictional boundaries of incorporated cities. Their basic municipal services, for example, law enforcement, building permits, libraries, parks, and street maintenance, are not provided by a city but instead by the County.[483] Incorporated places, recognized by state law, possess a legally established boundary and their own governmental structure. Cities, towns, and villages are incorporated places.[484]

Redlining was a practice across the country by the Federal Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC). It used the proportion of non-White residents in the area to designate a neighborhood as (un)desirable, then used the resulting maps to assign risk to loans. This practice kept Black, Hispanic, and other minority races in San Diego County from building wealth by denying them mortgages. Further, it contributed to racial segregation, and relied on and perpetuated harmful racial stereotypes. Redlining was designed and supported by the federal government (HOLC was established by the Home Owners' Loan Act of 1933) and was legal until the passing of the Fair Housing Act in 1968. Redlining maps and their associated notes for San Diego can be viewed at the Mapping Inequality website.[485]

Structural racism refers to the systemic way in which policies, practices, and cultural representations perpetuate racial group inequity.[486] Additionally, structural racism refers to the ways in which the oppression of non-European groups built and continues to shape American society, resulting in disparate outcomes throughout the life course.[487] The "structures" in structural racism include legal, political, and economic systems that perpetuate disparate outcomes and treatment. For an overview of local history of racist policies and practices, see San Diego's Racial Equity Gap: How We Got Here, and a video explainer of the severity of racial inequalities. See also how Black Americans and Native Americans impact San Diego throughout history to overcome injustices and inequalities.

[483] Economic Development, Unincorporated Area Services. (n.d.). Chief Executive Office, LA County. Retrieved April 10, 2023, from https://ceo.lacounty.gov/master-planning-unincorporated-area-services/

[484] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). Census Designated Places. Retrieved April 10, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/bas/information/cdp.html

[485] Mapping Inequality. (n.d.). Retrieved April 12, 2023, from https://dsl.richmond.edu/panorama/redlining/

[486] *To talk about structural racism, we have to talk about white privilege*. (2016, February 23). Urban Institute. https://www.urban.org/urban-wire/talk-about-structural-racism-we-have-talk-about-white-privilege

[487] Feagin, J. (2013). *Systemic Racism: A Theory of Oppression*. Routledge.

Inclusive Language

In this report, people and groups are referred to by the most respectful, accurate, and preferred terms. However, what those terms are is not always clear. Preferences and beliefs about these terms vary among members of the communities and changes over time. To that end, the thought process behind these selections is explained in this section. Discussion on how to improve language choices in future reports is welcome.

When making these selections, there was a lot to consider. Community preferences (where they were available), relevant history, and whether certain labels had experienced pejorative semantic drift—a process also called "perjoration"[488] where a word once considered neutral becomes, through its use, pejorative—have been included in this report.

Another way that language can change is in reaction to using identities as insults. People might say that they have "reclaimed" a word once used to insult them. For example, "queer" was once a word used to insult people, often based on their perceived or actual sexuality. Now, many people even refer to being part of "the queer community." Semantic drift has moved the meaning of "queer" from insulting to identifying. However, reclaimed words can still be used to insult people, depending on the speakers' intent. Reclaimed terms have been mostly avoided in this report to avoid confusion about intent.

Language about Race and Ethnicity

Race and ethnicity are social constructs and do not have biological meaning. Names for and definitions of racial groups are both debated and change over time. For this report, the race and ethnic groups used by each data source are used in the report because that is the best information about how that group was defined and how the data were collected for a particular indicator. When the terms "race" or "racial" are used in the report, this includes Hispanic or Latino unless otherwise noted. This report often uses the phrases "people of color" or "minority" to refer to racial and ethnic groups that the United States has historically marginalized.

There is a lot of discussion about whether to capitalize "White" when referring to race, as is done for "Black," for example. Black is often capitalized to reflect a shared identity, community, and history of being oppressed based on that identity and community membership. This does not apply to the White population in the same way. Nevertheless, White has been capitalized for two reasons. First, White has been capitalized to emphasize the historical role that Whiteness has played in the development of racial politics. And secondly, capitalization highlights the fact that being White and being perceived as White has an indelible impact on someone's perspective and experience of race and racial politics.

[488] Finkbeiner, R., Meibauer, J., & Wiese, H. (2016). Pejoration. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Language about Immigrant Status

Data in this report on immigrant status come from the American Community Survey. Immigrant is defined as anyone who was not a U.S. citizen at birth.[489] This population includes naturalized U.S. citizens, lawful permanent residents, temporary migrants, humanitarian migrants, and undocumented migrants.

Language about Gender and Sex

Most of this report's data sources, including ACS, include data about sex, not gender, and do not include information on whether a person was non-binary, transgender, intersex, or genderqueer. Therefore, the report uses sex, not gender, unless otherwise noted.

Language about Disability

Disability advocates, communities, and others debate over the use of person-first or identity-first language. Examples of person-first language are "person with a disability" or "person with autism." By situating the word "person" before the disability, person-first language aims to emphasize the humanity of the human subject of discussion. In contrast, identity-first language could sound like, for example "disabled person," or "autistic people." Many interested people prefer identity-first because they do not see disability as something shameful, but rather defining of their experience and important to recognize when it is relevant. Some argue that person-first language accentuates stigma,[490] one of the very things it was designed to combat.

People are divided on whether they prefer person-first or identity-first. Many autistic[491] and Deaf[492] advocates prefer identity-first. This is likely because of the advocacy discourse particular to the autistic and Deaf communities and the progress of semantic drift over recent history. To recognize this diversity and in line with recent guidance,[493,494] person-first and identity-first language are mixed throughout this document and defer to stated individual or community preferences where they were able to be identified.

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[489] American Community Survey and Puerto Rico Community Survey 2022 Subject Definitions. (2022). Retrieved, from https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/tech_docs/subject_definitions/2022_ACSSubjectDefinitions.pdf

[490] Crocker, A. F., & Smith, S. N. (2019). Person-first language: Are we practicing what we preach? *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare, 12*, 125–129. https://doi.org/10.2147/JMDH.S140067

[491] Autistic Self Advocacy Network. (2012, March 2). Identity-First Language. Retrieved from https://autisticadvocacy.org/about-asan/identity-first-language/

[492] Crocker, A. F., & Smith, S. N. (2019). Person-first language: Are we practicing what we preach? *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare, 12*, 125–129. https://doi.org/10.2147/JMDH.S140067

[493] Dunn, D. S., & Andrews, E. E. (2015). Person-first and identity-first language: Developing psychologists' cultural competence using disability language. *American Psychologist, 70*, 255–264. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038636

[494] American Psychological Association. (2022). Disability. Retrieved February 23, 2023, from https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines/bias-free-language/disability

Language about Poverty

When referring to people who have low income and wealth, there are a few options that were identified. “Poor people” is subject to some perjoration. This term is avoided being used in many contexts because it is often perceived as insulting. “Low-income people” is not precise because it does not cover wealth.

“People living in poverty” is precise and not affected by pejorative drift. However, it may be confusing, because the federal government has established a threshold that defines “poverty” at a very low income level. Most people who have low income and low wealth in San Diego are above the federal poverty line. It is explicitly stated throughout this report when the federal poverty line is being referenced. In all other instances, “poverty” is used in the traditional meaning of the word and does not refer to a formal, federal threshold.

Language about Homelessness

When discussing homelessness, this report recognizes the humanity of the people most affected. A variety of terms exist, but because of the frustration around this topic, many of these terms have taken on an insulting connotation.

For the purposes of this report, the terms “unhoused” and “people experiencing homelessness” are used to refer to people and “homelessness” to refer to the phenomenon. The exception to this is the indicator youth homelessness. The California Department of Education (CDE) refers to youth who experience homelessness as homeless youth and to be consistent with the data source, this report follows the language from the CDE. Further discussion about accurate, humane ways to discuss this problem and refer to the people affected are warranted.

Appendix B: Methods

This section reviews the methods used to select indicators, identify data sources, and analyze data. Considerations for selecting indicators of equity in San Diego County included whether they are actionable, comprehensive, timely, and reflect the priorities of community members.

Indicator Selection

Local, regional, and national equity reports and models were reviewed to identify possible indicators. These reports and models included:

- United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals[495]
- Equity articles from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (e.g. income inequality[496] measures)
- Urban Institute's Mobility Metrics[497]
- National Equity Atlas[498]
- King County's Equity & Social Justice initiatives[499]
- Oakland's Equity Scorecard[500]
- California Healthy Places Index 2.0 and 3.0[501]
- *Live Well San Diego* indicators[502]

To prioritize and tailor these frameworks and indicators for the San Diego community, listening sessions were held with San Diego County residents, community-based organizations, government agencies and other stakeholders from various sectors. Across three virtual forums[503], over one hundred participants provided feedback on indicators that were important

[495] *THE 17 GOALS | Sustainable Development*. (n.d.). Retrieved November 22, 2022, from https://sdgs.un.org/goals

[496] *Inequality—Income inequality—OECD Data*. (n.d.). Retrieved November 22, 2022, from https://data.oecd.org/inequality/income-inequality.htm

[497] *Mobility Metrics Framework | Urban Institute*. (n.d.). Retrieved September 20, 2022, from https://upward-mobility.urban.org/mobility-metrics-framework

[498] *National Equity Atlas Indicators* (n.d.) Retrieved September 20, 2022, from Indicators | National Equity Atlas

[499] *Equity and Social Justice—King County*. (n.d.). Retrieved September 20, 2022, from https://kingcounty.gov/elected/executive/equity-social-justice.aspx

[500] *Oakland Equity Indicators: Measuring Change Toward Greater Equity in Oakland*. (n.d.). https://cao-94612.s3.amazonaws.com/documents/2018-Equity-Indicators-Full-Report.pdf

[501] Public Health Alliance of Southern California. (n.d.). *Healthy Places Index*. Retrieved September 20, 2022, from https://www.healthyplacesindex.org/

[502] *Top 10 Live Well Indicators*. (n.d.). Retrieved September 20, 2022, from https://www.livewellsd.org/i-want-to/learn-more/data-indicators

[503] Listening sessions were conducted online to increase safety and accessibility while COVID-19 was circulating.

to their communities and discussed how to prioritize indicators across several initial themes: health, education, economic opportunity, environment, infrastructure, community, and safety.

County of San Diego staff members who attended the community listening sessions and researchers on the SDRPIC team reviewed a list of over 120 indicators that were identified through the review of existing equity reports and by members of the community. Indicators were sorted on how frequently they were mentioned. Indicators that were used in other published equity reports were flagged. The following considerations were prioritized by the project team to narrow the list down to 50 indicators:

- Actionable, reliable, timely, and quality data
- Comparable to indicators used by other jurisdictions or organizations
- Preferred or favored by the community

Indicators that met all three criteria were prioritized, followed by indicators that met at least two criteria. Then, a qualitative thematic analysis was conducted to organize indicators into themes and limit overlap between indicators. This review considered 1) which facet(s) of the theme each indicator addressed, 2) what other themes each indicator may be related to, and 3) any concerns about the indicators or organization of themes.

Data Selection

As mentioned above, indicators were selected partly based on data availability and quality. The following factors were prioritized when identifying and selecting the data source(s) for each indicator:

- High quality and reliable
- Updated annually, with exceptions for some indicators where the best available data are updated less frequently
- Consistent with other equity reports and/or highly regarded source within the field
- Robust data collection and/or sampling practices
- Sufficiently large sample size to meaningfully interpret data
- Clear descriptions about data collection, analysis, and reporting methods
- Publicly available data
- Data collected and managed by the County of San Diego were preferred over other sources

Thirteen of the 34 indicators (38%) use data from the American Community Survey (ACS) conducted annually by the U.S. Census Bureau. Information about this highly regarded survey is below to provide context and aid in interpretation of the indicators. Applicable information about other data sources used in this report are included in the narrative for each indicator.

American Community Survey

The ACS is a nationally representative survey that samples 1% of the U.S. population each year. Respondents are asked to self-report a variety of information, including demographic and family characteristics, income, housing characteristics, employment status, and more. The ACS is commonly used by local, state, and national government organizations as well as researchers to understand population characteristics and inform decisions that impact the community.

Data tables for frequently accessed information, such as race and ethnicity and economic characteristics, are available from the U.S. Census Bureau.[504] ACS tables are usually available at the county level to summarize a single variable, such as poverty in San Diego County.[505] Anonymized individual responses that have been processed to protect the confidentiality of respondents, called microdata by the U.S. Census Bureau, are available to conduct custom analysis. Possibilities for additional analysis using microdata include disaggregation to smaller subgroups, limiting to specific relevant populations (such as adults or employed residents), and creating measures based on the relationship between multiple variables. IPUMS USA,[506] an integrator for ACS microdata, was used for analysis of ACS data unless otherwise stated. The estimates presented in this report based on ACS microdata from IPUMS USA may differ slightly from pre-tabulated ACS estimates on data.census.gov because microdata are based on about 30% of the full ACS sample and because the Census Bureau takes steps to protect respondent confidentiality.

ACS data are available as 1-year or 5-year estimates. The 5-year estimates are a combination of the most recent five annual surveys. The 5-year estimates for 2021 (including 2017-2021) were selected for this report to ensure a larger sample size and more reliable estimates for smaller populations. However, the 5-year estimates should not be used to compare year-to-year changes because much of the data between neighboring 5-year estimates are the same. For example, the 2020 5-year estimates (2016-2020) and 2021 5-year estimates (2017-2021) estimates both contain the years 2017-2020. Instead, the U.S. Census Bureau recommends only comparing non-overlapping 5-year estimates and using 1-year estimates for year-to-year comparisons.[507]

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[504] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). American Community Survey Data Tables. Retrieved May 3, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/data/data-tables.html

[505] U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). S1701: Poverty Status in the Past 12 Months - Census Bureau Table. Retrieved April 12, 2023, from https://data.census.gov/table?q=poverty+in+San+Diego&tid=ACSST1Y2021.S1701

[506] Ruggles, Steven, Flood, Sarah, Sobek, Matthew, Brockman, Danika, Cooper, Grace, Richards, Stephanie, & Schouweiler, Megan. (2023). IPUMS USA: Version 13.0 (13.0) [Data set]. Minneapolis, MN: IPUMS. https://doi.org/10.18128/D010.V13.0

[507] Raglin, D. (2022). Period Estimates in the American Community Survey. United States Census Bureau. https://www.census.gov/newsroom/blogs/random-samplings/2022/03/period-estimates-american-community-survey.html

Since the ACS is a sample of the population, the data presented are estimates and may differ from values that would be obtained if the entire population was surveyed. Due to the uncertainty associated with complex sample surveys and necessary lag between data collection and reporting, the estimates may under- or overestimate the current population percentages. Small numbers and percentages at or near 0% or 100% should therefore be interpreted with caution. The U.S. Census Bureau does not define a threshold for when small numbers may be unreliable or associated with a high level of uncertainty. Margins of error are not included in this report, but the margins of error for established tables and guidance for calculating margins of error for custom analysis are available on the U.S. Census Bureau website.

Data Analysis

Generally, this report reflects data for 2021 or the most recently available data prior to 2021. Indicator data were disaggregated by demographic characteristics and geography when possible. The selection of characteristics and unit of geography for analysis was guided by data availability and standard practice within each subject area. Demographic characteristics examined included race and ethnicity, sex, disability status, immigration status, and location of residence. The choice of disaggregated data can be found in the narrative for each indicator.

The specific data processing steps varied by indicator and by data source. Descriptions of the methods used for each indicator can be found within the respective narratives.

Race and Ethnicity Classification

As stated in Appendix A: Key Concepts & Terms, race and ethnicity are social constructs and do not have biological meaning. Many people have more than one racial or ethnic identity and/or may not distinguish between the terms race and ethnicity. Consequently, how race and ethnicity are understood, quantified, and reported varies considerably by field of study and industry depending on historical practices and other factors.

The most frequently used method for reporting race and ethnicity data in this report follows the standards established by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) in 1997[508], which were based on extensive research and public comment. All federal agencies are required to follow these standards. Many state and local governments, academic and research institutions, non-profits, and others, including most departments, offices, and programs within the County of San Diego, also follow these standards. However, it is broadly recognized that these standards may not fully reflect the diversity of the American people nor the current discourse and sentiments

[508] Office of Management and Budget (1997). Revisions to the Standards for the Classification of Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity. Federal Registrar 62(210)58782-58790. https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/FR-1997-10-30/pdf/97-28653.pdf

about race and ethnicity. There is currently a formal process underway to revise the OMB standards with anticipated completion by summer of 2024.[509,510]

For the data sources that follow the 1997 OMB standards, self-reported race and ethnicity are collected by two separate questions. Respondents are asked to select all racial and ethnic categories that apply to them. Persons who report themselves as Hispanic can be of any race. The OMB defines minimum categories for each question:

- Ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino or Not Hispanic or Latino
- Race: White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

Many organizations include additional options and allow write-in responses. For example, the U.S. Census Bureau revised the questions for the 2020 decennial census based on research to better reflect the diversity of the American people, shown in Figure 38.[511] These questions were also used for the 2021 ACS.[512]

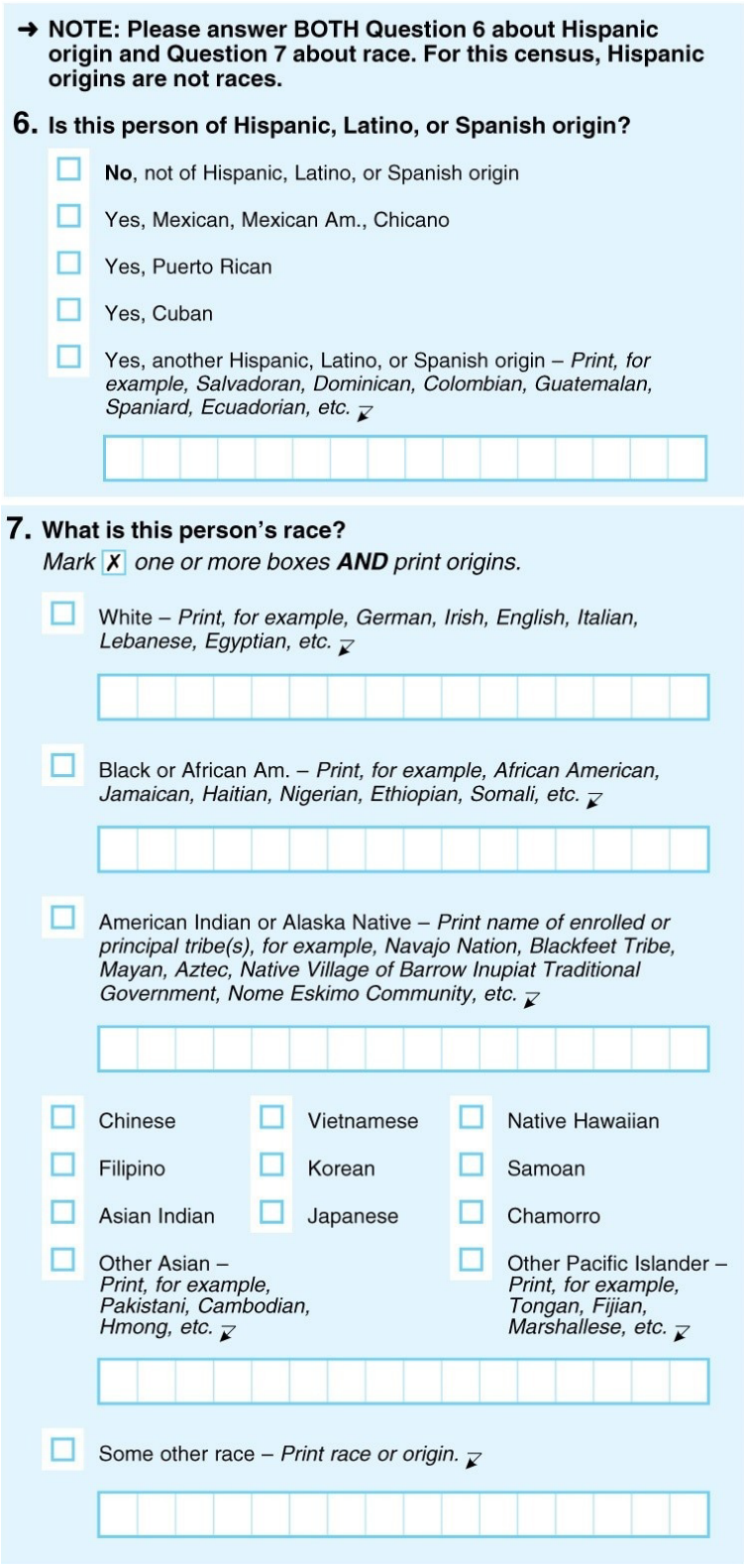
[509] Orvis, K. *Initial Proposals for Revising the Federal Race and Ethnicity Standard*. (2023, January 26). The White House. https://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/briefing-room/2023/01/26/initial-proposals-for-revising-the-federal-race-and-ethnicity-standards/

[510] *Initial Proposals For Updating OMB's Race and Ethnicity Statistical Standards*. (2023, January 27). Federal Register. https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2023/01/27/2023-01635/initial-proposals-for-updating-ombs-race-and-ethnicity-statistical-standards

[511] *Improvements to the 2020 Census Race and Hispanic Origin Question Designs, Data Processing, and Coding Procedures*. (n.d.). United States Census Bureau. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/newsroom/blogs/random-samplings/2021/08/improvements-to-2020-census-race-hispanic-origin-question-designs.html

[512] *Sample ACS & PRCS Forms and Instructions 2021.* (n.d.) United States Census Bureau. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/about/forms-and-instructions.2021.html#list-tab-9466845

Figure 38: 2020 Census Hispanic Origin and Race Questions



➜ **NOTE: Please answer BOTH Question 6 about Hispanic origin and Question 7 about race. For this census, Hispanic origins are not races.**

6. Is this person of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin?

- ☐ **No**, not of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin
- ☐ Yes, Mexican, Mexican Am., Chicano
- ☐ Yes, Puerto Rican
- ☐ Yes, Cuban
- ☐ Yes, another Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin – *Print, for example, Salvadoran, Dominican, Colombian, Guatemalan, Spaniard, Ecuadorian, etc.*

7. What is this person's race?

Mark ☒ *one or more boxes* ***AND*** *print origins.*

- ☐ White – *Print, for example, German, Irish, English, Italian, Lebanese, Egyptian, etc.*
- ☐ Black or African Am. – *Print, for example, African American, Jamaican, Haitian, Nigerian, Ethiopian, Somali, etc.*
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native – *Print name of enrolled or principal tribe(s), for example, Navajo Nation, Blackfeet Tribe, Mayan, Aztec, Native Village of Barrow Inupiat Traditional Government, Nome Eskimo Community, etc.*
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Filipino
- ☐ Asian Indian
- ☐ Vietnamese
- ☐ Korean
- ☐ Japanese
- ☐ Native Hawaiian
- ☐ Samoan
- ☐ Chamorro
- ☐ Other Asian – *Print, for example, Pakistani, Cambodian, Hmong, etc.*
- ☐ Other Pacific Islander – *Print, for example, Tongan, Fijian, Marshallese, etc.*
- ☐ Some other race – *Print race or origin.*

Source: U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved August 24, 2023.

Although this detailed information is collected by the U.S. Census Bureau and sometimes other organizations, it is common practice to process these data for reporting purposes. Detailed categories and write-in responses are aggregated from smaller groups to larger groups to protect confidentiality and achieve consistency with other reported data. Race and Hispanic origin are often cross tabulated into a single variable by assigning people to one mutually exclusive (non-overlapping) category. Each person is counted once, and the sum of the categories equals the total population. The U.S. Census Bureau and other organizations, including the County of San Diego, typically use the following categories for analysis and reporting (the labels may vary):

Long Category Label	Short Category Label
Hispanic or Latino	Hispanic or Latino
White alone, non-Hispanic	White
Black or African American alone, non-Hispanic	Black or African American
American Indian and Alaska Native alone, non-Hispanic	AIAN
Asian alone, non-Hispanic	Asian
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone, non-Hispanic	NHPI
Some Other Race alone, non-Hispanic	Some Other Race
Multiracial, non-Hispanic	Multiracial

Until new standards are established and adopted, this report adheres to the 1997 OMB standards when feasible. Due to the breadth of data examined and included in this equity report, it is not possible to follow these standards for some data sources because of how the data were collected and/or made publicly available. Caution must be taken when comparing race and ethnicity data across indicators using different data sources and classification methods because the populations may not be the same. The methods used for each indicator can be identified by reviewing the corresponding narrative, table and figure labels, and footnotes.

Geographic Regions

Geographic data were analyzed when it was feasible and relevant to outcomes. The type of geographic area used for analysis was selected based on data availability and quality. Smaller geographic areas were preferred over larger areas for closer examination of possible geographic inequities. Most continuous data were grouped into five equal categories based on the data values (quintiles); the exception to this is Low Birthweight (three equal categories).

The following geographic area types are presented in this report, listed from smallest to largest areas:

- **Census Tracts** are geographic areas defined by the U.S. Census Bureau.[513] They are reviewed and updated every 10 years to reflect population changes recorded by the decennial census. There were 628 census tracts in San Diego County defined by the 2010 census; census tracts from the 2020 census were not yet utilized by the data sources in this report.
- **ZIP Codes** are used by the United States Postal Service to identify a particular postal delivery area in the U.S.[514] The codes are represented by five digits in this report.
- **ZIP Code Tabulation Areas (ZCTAs)** are geographic areas created by the U.S. Census Bureau to approximate ZIP codes used by the United States Postal Service.[515] The differences between ZIP codes and ZCTAs are not meaningful at the level of the maps created for this report and are explained in detail by the Census Bureau. Like ZIP codes, some ZCTAs cross county borders and are part of more than one county. In this report, the San Diego County border is shown in the maps and ZCTAs that extend beyond county boundaries are not excluded because the data in those ZCTAs reflect some people living in other counties. The U.S. Census Bureau does not define ZCTAs for some areas if there are few or no households in the area. There are 116 ZCTAs in San Diego County.
- **Subregional Areas (SRAs)** are sets of census tracts used by the San Diego Association of Governments (SANDAG), *Live Well San Diego*, and many programs within the County of San Diego.[516] There are 41 SRAs in San Diego County.
- **Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs)** are areas with at least 100,000 people and are developed by the U.S. Census Bureau.[517] There are 22 PUMAs in San Diego County. Like census tracts, they are reviewed and updated every 10 years to reflect the decennial census. PUMAs from the 2010 census are used in this report.
- **Health and Human Services Agency Regions** are six areas of aggregated ZIP codes in San Diego County that were created by the County of San Diego Health and Human Services Agency to assist with the organization and provision of services locally. [518] They are updated as need to reflect changes in ZIP codes.

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[513] United States Census Bureau. (n.d) *History. Tracts and Block Numbering Areas*. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/history/www/programs/geography/tracts_and_block_numbering_areas.html

[514] United States Postal Service. (n.d.) *ZIP Code – The Basics*. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://faq.usps.com/s/article/ZIP-Code-The-Basics

[515] *ZIP Code Tabulation Areas (ZCTAs).* (n.d.) U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved April 12, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/geography/guidance/geo-areas/zctas.html

[516] Subregional Areas (SRAs) | Subregional Areas (SRAs) | San Diego Open Data Portal. (n.d.). Retrieved April 12, 2023, from https://sdgis-sandag.opendata.arcgis.com/datasets/subregional-areas-sras/explore?showTable=true

[517] Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAS). (n.d.) United States Census Bureau. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/geography/guidance/geo-areas/pumas.html#overview

[518] Health and Human Service Regions CN. (2022, November 14). SANDAG. Retrieved August 24, 2023, from https://rdw.sandag.org/file_store/District/HEALTH_AND_HUMAN_SERVICE_REGIONS_CN.pdf