

Healthy Schools Can Create More Racially Equitable Communities

Kristen Harper, Cassidy Guros, and Deborah Temkin

Introduction

Historic and ongoing inequities in people's ability to access infrastructure—including differential access to services and supports that advance health outcomes and differential exposure to challenges that threaten well-being—reinforce disparate health and economic outcomes by race. Such inequities¹ begin prenatally and accumulate over the course of a child's early years and through adolescence. Schools play a critical role in either perpetuating or interrupting these inequities, as they are both a venue for children and youth to receive the supports needed for healthy development and for encountering various health risks.

Creating healthy schools, then, is one strategy to disrupt ongoing racial health inequities and broader societal inequities. The National Healthy Schools Collaborative² defines a healthy school as one that “recognizes and advances the mental, physical, social, and emotional wellbeing of students and educators as a fundamental strategy to effective learning.”

This brief examines how healthy schools may help address racial inequities across five key areas: health systems, public education, juvenile justice, environmental conditions, and family income. For each area, the brief reviews related racial inequities and, most importantly, describes how healthy schools may contribute to community efforts to dismantle such inequities.

Five Ways that Healthy Schools Can Support Racial Equity

Healthy schools can mitigate racial disparities in access to health services that lead to disparate health outcomes.

The U.S. health care system is characterized by differences in access to services by race. For example, in one study,³ Black patients reported significantly longer travel times to access health services than White patients. For others, critical health services might exist locally, but financial barriers may make them unreachable. As of 2021, roughly 1 in 10 ten Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native children were uninsured,⁴ even with boosts to public insurance coverage established under the 2020 Families First Coronavirus Response Act (for example, to prevent individuals from losing Medicaid coverage). For children, disruptions in health insurance are associated with fewer physician visits.⁵ In 2020 and 2021, nearly one third of Hispanic and Asian children⁶ went without any visits to a doctor or health care professional for preventative care. On average, fewer than one in four children missed such visits. Beyond costs, there are many other obstacles to health care access. For example, the parents of nearly one quarter of Black children report that either a lack of child care or transportation⁷ contributed to challenges for their children's access to health care.

Gaps in access are particularly troubling given wide racial and ethnic health disparities in health outcomes, particularly in chronic disease. Black children, for example, have high rates of asthma⁸ (13%)—nearly double the national rate⁹ (7%). In recent years, the prevalence of Type 2 diabetes¹⁰ has risen sharply, with American Indian and Black girls now experiencing the highest rates.

School communities can make it easier for students across racial and ethnic groups to access health services by providing school-based services and ensuring that eligible children are enrolled in Medicaid. Schools with school nurses can screen for health challenges and support chronic disease management.¹¹ More intensive models such as wellness centers and school-based health centers can go even further, offering primary care, counseling, and prescriptions, and other health services.¹²

Healthy schools can alleviate health-related barriers to educational attainment for children of color.

Educational attainment is strongly linked to decreased rates of morbidity and mortality¹³ and increased economic opportunity.¹⁴ Health challenges and unmet health needs can inhibit school participation, limiting students' academic progress. Illness is the primary reason for student absence from school¹⁵ and racial and ethnic disparities in asthma, oral health, behavioral health, and acute illness contribute to disparities in chronic absenteeism.¹⁶ Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, Black and American Indian children,¹⁷ as well as Pacific Islander children,¹⁸ experienced higher rates of chronic absenteeism than their peers. School districts with strong racial and income segregation¹⁹ comprise one quarter of districts with the highest rates of absence.

Beyond absenteeism, students with disabilities often experience exclusionary school practices that limit their school participation and their access to rigorous academic content. Children identified with emotional disturbance, while promised special education services (including behavioral supports²⁰) under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, still experience education segregation and disciplinary exclusion.²¹ Such practices advance racial inequity,²² as schools disproportionately identify Black children and American Indian/Alaska Native children with disabilities—including emotional disturbance and intellectual disability—at higher rates²¹ than their peers.

To prevent school absences among students with chronic health conditions, schools can improve school nursing services, establish school-based health centers, or create formal partnerships with community health organizations. For children with disabilities, schools can ensure that students receive robust individualized education programs that fully address their health, mental health, and behavioral health needs.

Healthy schools can help prevent, and provide community-based alternatives to, racially disparate youth incarceration.

Youth incarceration is strongly linked to poor adult physical and mental health outcomes.²³ In the last two decades, youth incarceration has declined sharply—by 77 percent from 2000 to 2020.²⁴ However, racial inequity within the juvenile justice system remains stark, with Black youth over age 16 constituting 46 percent of detained youth, and 38 percent of committed youth,²⁵ in residential placement.

Racial and ethnic disparities in the juvenile justice system²⁶ are often attributed to differences in offending by race and the differential (or biased) treatment²⁷ of youth of color by law enforcement and within the larger juvenile justice system. However, differences in youth offending rates across racial and ethnic groups have not been empirically linked to differences in juvenile justice outcomes (e.g., sentencing outcomes). Instead, research links racial differences in certain types of violent and nonviolent offending to differences in exposure to environmental risk factors²⁶ for crimes. These risk factors include high concentrations of unemployment, poor housing conditions, exposure to violence, inadequately resourced

educational institutions, and neighborhood poverty. Schools can play a critical role in providing resources to address these risk factors.

However, schools can also contribute to racial disparities in the juvenile justice system, depending on their response to student behavior. Punitive school responses to behavior—such as suspension, expulsion,²⁸ and school policing²⁹—heighten students' risk of contact with the juvenile justice system. Federal datasets indicate that children of color, particularly Black children, are disproportionately subject to punitive discipline and referrals to law enforcement.³⁰ Unsafe school environments can also expose students to various forms of violence.³¹ Alternatively, healthy schools can respond to students' social, emotional, and mental health needs with services and support—and contribute to broader community initiatives to reduce environmental risk factors—to prevent school violence and limit the need for punitive discipline.

Healthy schools can help prevent, and provide community-based alternatives to, racially disparate youth incarceration.

Childhood exposure to lead, pesticides, and other pollutants³² is associated with a range of negative health and mental health outcomes, including asthma and cancer. A child's degree of exposure is heavily influenced by where the child lives: For example, children of color suffer greater levels of exposure due to a combination of historic and ongoing residential segregation, land use decisions that place hazards closer to their communities,³² and concentrated substandard housing and infrastructure in communities of color.³³ Schools are part of this equation, as children spend most of their waking hours within school buildings, and students of color and low-income students are often the least likely to have access³⁴ to structurally sound and well-maintained schools.

Schools are well positioned to either further contribute to or reduce disparities in childhood exposure to hazards based on the condition of school's infrastructure. However, the Government Accountability Office (GAO) and the American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE) both report that the majority of American school buildings are increasingly in disrepair.^{35,36} Approximately 54 percent of schools need to update or repair multiple building systems. Healthy school environments in which students have access to clean water, good air quality and ventilation, and proper heating and cooling would decrease disparate childhood exposure to hazardous environments.

Healthy schools can mitigate the harmful influences of racial income inequities by providing resources to support the social determinants of health.

Income inequities by race and ethnicity within the United States are wide and persistent,³⁷ and expose children of color to a range of deprivations, including inequities in access to food, housing, and clothing. In 2021, when child poverty reached record lows after federal COVID-19 interventions,³⁸ 23 percent of Black households with children and 18 percent of Hispanic households with children nevertheless experienced food insecurity.³⁹ Of students experiencing homelessness during the 2020-2021 school year, 39 percent were Hispanic (although Hispanic students comprise only 28% of the student population) and 24 percent were Black (Black students comprise only 15% of the student population).⁴⁰

Healthy schools can help children connect with school- and community-based supports to ensure their basic needs are met and can generally promote core social determinants of health. Community schools,⁴¹ for example, build partnerships with families and communities to establish schools as a core source of neighborhood support and provide integrated students supports,⁴² including housing assistance, job placement services, and nutrition programs. Schoolwide free meal programs support student participation in meals and improve nutrition by alleviating stigma and removing cost barriers.⁴³ Schools that attend to students' basic needs have the potential to lessen the impacts of broader income inequity on child well-being.

Conclusion

Dismantling the various forms of racial inequity within the United States will require continuous effort from a broad coalition that spans public and private entities and cuts across nearly every institution—including education systems, human services, health systems, the criminal and juvenile justice systems, and more. For children and youth, schools can provide a foundation for healthy development and support that can reduce (or mitigate the influence of) the structural inequities that threaten their well-being. However, school conditions, cultures, and practices are also known sources of racial inequity that, without reforms, can exacerbate the broader societal challenges that children of color are forced to navigate. Deliberate investment and attention to creating healthy schools is a necessary strategy to battle racial inequity on behalf of children of color.

Acknowledgements

This report was commissioned by Kaiser Permanente Thriving Schools. The authors thank Kaiser Permanente for their generous support. The views and opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors. They do not necessarily reflect the opinions or positions of Kaiser Permanente.



Suggested Citation: Harper, K., Guros, C., & Temkin, D. (2023). *Healthy schools can create more racially equitable communities*. Child Trends and Kaiser Permanente Thriving Schools. <https://doi.org/10.56417/2766n1313c>

Endnotes

¹ Gee, G. C., Walsemann, K. M., & Brondolo, E. (2012). A life course perspective on how racism may be related to health inequities. *American Journal of Public Health*, 102(5), 967–974.

<https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2012.300666>

²National Healthy Schools Collaborative. (n.d.). *The Roadmap*.

<https://www.healthyschoolsroadmap.org/overview>

³ Wong, M. S., Grande, D. T., Mitra, N., Radhakrishnan, A., Branas, C. C., Ward, K. R., & Pollack, C. E. (2017). Racial differences in geographic access to medical care as measured by patient report and geographic information systems. *Medical Care*, 55(9), 817–822.

<https://doi.org/10.1097/MLR.0000000000000774>

⁴Artiga, S., Hill, L., & Damico, A. (2022). *Health coverage by race and ethnicity, 2010–2021*. Kaiser Family Foundation. <https://www.kff.org/racial-equity-and-health-policy/issue-brief/health-coverage-by-race-and-ethnicity/>

⁵Osorio, A. & Alker, J. (2021). *Kids with gaps in coverage have less access to care*. Georgetown University Health Policy Institute Center for Children and Families. <https://ccf.georgetown.edu/2021/10/15/kids-with-gaps-in-coverage-have-less-access-to-care/>

⁶Child Adolescent Health Measurement Initiative. (2022). *2020–2021 National Survey of Children’s Health (NSCH): Preventative care visit [Data set]*. Data Resource Center for Child and Adolescent Health.

<https://www.childhealthdata.org/browse/survey/results?q=9373&r=1&g=1010>

⁷Child Adolescent Health Measurement Initiative. (2022). *2020–2021 National Survey of Children’s Health (NSCH): Forgone health care due problems getting transportation or child care [Data set]*. Data Resource Center for Child and Adolescent Health.

<https://www.childhealthdata.org/browse/survey/results?q=9454&r=1&g=1010>

-
- ⁸Child Adolescent Health Measurement Initiative. (2022). *2020-2021 National Survey of Children's Health (NSCH): Prevalence of current asthma [Data set]*. Data Resource Center for Child and Adolescent Health. <https://www.childhealthdata.org/browse/survey/results?q=9257&r=1&g=1010>
- ⁹Ibid.
- ¹⁰Lawrence, J. M., Divers, J., Isom, S., Saydah, S., Imperatore, G., Pihoker, C., Marcovina, S. M., Mayer-Davis, E. J., Hamman, R. F., Dolan, L., Dabelea, D., Pettitt, D. J., Liese, A. D., & SEARCH for Diabetes in Youth Study Group (2021). Trends in prevalence of type 1 and type 2 diabetes in children and adolescents in the US, 2001-2017. *JAMA*, 326(8), 717-727. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2021.11165>
- ¹¹Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2017). *Managing chronic health conditions in schools: the role of the school nurse*. https://www.cdc.gov/healthyschools/chronic_conditions/pdfs/2017_02_15-FactSheet-RoleOfSchoolNurses_FINAL_508.pdf
- ¹²National Association of School Nurses & School-Based Health Alliance (n.d.). *School nursing & school-based-health centers in the United States: Working together for student success*. https://www.sbh4all.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/SBHA_JOINT_STATEMENT_FINAL_F.pdf
- ¹³Walsemann, K. M., Gee, G. C., & Ro, A. (2013). Educational attainment in the context of social inequality: New directions for research on education and health. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 57(8), 1082-1104. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764213487346>
- ¹⁴Gottlieb, P. D., & Fogarty, M. (2003). Educational attainment and metropolitan growth. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 17(4), 325-336. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891242403257274>
- ¹⁵Lim, E., Davis, J., Choi, S. Y., & Chen, J. J. (2019). Effect of sociodemographics, health-related problems, and family structure on chronic absenteeism among children. *The Journal of School Health*, 89(4), 308-318. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.12736>
- ¹⁶Healthy Schools Campaign. (n.d.). *Addressing the health-related causes of chronic absenteeism: A toolkit for action*. https://healthyschoolscampaign.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/Addressing_Health-Related_Chronic_Absenteeism_Toolkit_for_Action_Full.pdf
- ¹⁷U.S. Department of Education. (2019). *Chronic absenteeism in the nation's schools*. <https://www2.ed.gov/datastory/chronicabsenteeism.html>
- ¹⁸Gee, K. (2018). Minding the gap in absenteeism: Disparities in absenteeism by race/ethnicity, poverty and disability. *Journal for Education for Students Placed at Risk*. 23(1-2), 204-208. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10824669.2018.1428610>
- ¹⁹Attendance Works & Everyone Graduates Center. (2016). *Preventing missed opportunity: Taking collective action to confront chronic absence*. https://new.every1graduates.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/PreventingMissedOpportunityFull_FINAL.pdf
- ²⁰U.S. Department of Education. (2022). *Questions and answers: Addressing the needs of children with disabilities and IDEA's discipline provisions*. <https://sites.ed.gov/idea/files/qa-addressing-the-needs-of-children-with-disabilities-and-idea-discipline-provisions.pdf>
- ²¹U.S. Department of Education. (2022). *43rd annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2021*. <https://sites.ed.gov/idea/files/43rd-arc-for-idea.pdf>
- ²²Harper, K. & Fergus, E. (2017). *Policymakers cannot ignore the overrepresentation of black students in special education*. *Child Trends*. <https://www.childtrends.org/blog/policymakers-cannot-ignore-overrepresentation-black-students-special-education>
- ²³Barnert, E. S., Abrams, L. S., Dudovitz, R., Coker, T. R., Bath, E., Tesema, L., Nelson, B. B., Biely, C., & Chung, P. J. (2019). What is the relationship between incarceration of children and adult health outcomes? *Academic Pediatrics*, 19(3), 342-350. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acap.2018.06.005>
- ²⁴Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (2022). *Highlights from the 2020 Juvenile Residential Facility Census*. https://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/snapshots/DataSnapshot_JRFC2020.pdf
- ²⁵Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (2021). *Trends and characteristics of youth in residential placement, 2019*. https://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/snapshots/DataSnapshot_CJRP2019.pdf
- ²⁶Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (2022). *Racial and ethnic disparity in juvenile justice processing*. <https://ojjdp.ojp.gov/model-programs-guide/literature-reviews/racial-and-ethnic-disparity#6>
- ²⁷Piquero, A.R. (2008). Disproportionate minority contact. *The Future of Children*, 18(2), 59-79. <https://doi.org/10.1353/foc.0.0013>
- ²⁸Fabelo, T., Thompson, M.D., Plotkin, M., Carmichael, D., Marchbanks III, M.P., & Booth, E.A. (2011). *Breaking schools' rules: A statewide study on how school discipline relates to students' success and juvenile*

involvement. Council of State Governments Justice Center.

<https://csgjusticecenter.org/publications/breaking-schools-rules/>

²⁹King, R. & Schindler, M. (2021). *A better path forward for criminal justice: Reconsidering police in schools*. The Brookings Institution. <https://www.brookings.edu/research/a-better-path-forward-for-criminal-justice-reconsidering-police-in-schools/>

³⁰U.S. Government Accountability Office. (2018). *Discipline disparities for black students, boys, and students with disabilities*. <https://www.gao.gov/assets/gao-18-258.pdf>

³¹Irwin, V., Wang, K., Cui, J., and Thompson, A. (2022). *Report on indicators of school crime and safety: 2021*. National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, and Bureau of Justice, Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2022/2022092.pdf>

³²American Public Health Association. (n.d.). *Creating the healthiest nation: Children's environments health*. https://www.apha.org/-/media/Files/PDF/topics/equity/Childrens_Environmental_Health_Fact_Sheet.ashx

³³Benfer, E.A. (2017). *Contaminated childhood: The chronic lead poisoning of low-income children and communities of color in the United States*. Health Affairs.

<https://www.healthaffairs.org/doi/10.1377/forefront.20170808.061398/>

³⁴Filardo, M., Vincent, J. M., & Sullivan, K.J. (2019). How crumbling school facilities perpetuate inequality. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 100(8), 27-31. <https://kappanonline.org/how-crumbling-school-facilities-perpetuate-inequality-filardo-vincent-sullivan/>

³⁵U.S. General Accountability Office. (2020). *School districts frequently identified multiple building systems needing updates or replacement*. <https://www.gao.gov/assets/gao-20-494.pdf>

³⁶American Society of Civil Engineers. (2021). *2021 Infrastructure report card*.

<https://infrastructurereportcard.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Schools-2021.pdf>

³⁷Greig, F. & Eckerd, G. (2022). *Racial income inequality dynamics*. JPMorgan Chase Institute.

<https://www.jpmorganchase.com/institute/research/household-income-spending/racial-income-inequality-dynamics>

³⁸Burns, K., Fox, L., & Wilson, D. (2022). *Expansions to child tax credit contributed to 46% decline in child poverty since 2020*. U.S. Census Bureau. <https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2022/09/record-drop-in-child-poverty.html>

³⁹Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M.P., Gregory, C.A., Singh, A. (2022). *Household food security in the United States in 2021*. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.

<https://www.ers.usda.gov/webdocs/publications/104656/err-309.pdf?v=3293.5>

⁴⁰National Center for Homeless Education. (2022). *Student homelessness in America: School years 2018-19 to 2020-21*. University of North Carolina. <https://nche.ed.gov/wp-content/uploads/2022/11/Student-Homelessness-in-America-2022.pdf>

⁴¹Sanders, M. (2022) *Full-service community schools are critical investments for children and families in poverty*. Child Trends. <https://www.childtrends.org/blog/full-service-community-schools-are-critical-investments-for-children-and-families-in-poverty>

⁴²Partnership for the Future of Learning. (2018). *Community schools playbook*.

<https://communityschools.futureforlearning.org/assets/downloads/community-schools-playbook.pdf>

⁴³Ruffini, K. (2021). *Schoolwide free-meal programs fuel better classroom outcomes for students*. The Brookings Institution. <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/brown-center-chalkboard/2021/02/11/schoolwide-free-meal-programs-fuel-better-classroom-outcomes-for-students/>