Sacramento Redistricting Citizens Advisory Committee

Session 4 – May 16, 2011

Primer #5

RACE & ETHNICITY

City of Sacramento 2011 Redistricting

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Voting Rights Act of 1965:

Voting rights has been a vital aspect of American civic participation, particularly for minorities and immigrants who have historically been barred from citizenship and voting. African-Americans were denied the right to vote, primarily in the South. Devices such as poll taxes, literacy tests, and grandfather clauses were used to deny eligible voters access to the ballot.

Other communities of color also faced barriers to voting. When immigration quotas were increased for immigrants from Asia in 1965, voting as a form of political participation became even more important. However, Asian American voters faced barriers, such as language access, unfamiliarity with the voting process, and the societal perception of Asian Americans as outsiders.

The civil rights movement of the 1960s led to the passage of the federal Voting Rights Act of 1965 to help protect the legal right of all U.S. citizens to vote. The Voting Rights Act (VRA) contained several key provisions to ensure equal access to the political process.

The term “racial gerrymandering” initially designated the post-Reconstruction practice which, like poll taxes and literacy tests, was designed to disenfranchise African-Americans. Legislative district boundaries were drawn with the aim of diluting the electoral power of newly registered voters from ethnic minority groups.

Following the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965, this practice was prohibited; indeed, in many circumstances, the statute in fact requires the creation of majority-minority districts. The practice of drawing districts that would afford racial and ethnic minorities the opportunity for elected representation has come to be known as affirmative gerrymandering or—in a somewhat ironic reversal—racial gerrymandering.

- The Voting Rights Act prohibits intentional discrimination against minorities.
- Intentional discrimination can include drawing district lines which split a geographic area containing politically cohesive minority voters where the reason for the split is to preserve incumbency.
- Even though there is no intent to discriminate, dividing a geographic area that contains a majority of politically-cohesive minority voters can also violate the Act under certain circumstances.
- In addition, a "loading" of one district with minorities that dilutes their impact in neighboring areas can also potentially violate the Act, depending on the circumstances.

The primary purpose of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 is to protect the right to vote as guaranteed by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. As amended in 1970, 1975, 1982, and 2006, the Act prohibits states and their political subdivisions from denying or abridging citizens' rights to vote “on account of race or color” (§§ 2(a), 5; 42 U.S.C. §§ 1973(a), 1973c) or membership in a “language minority group” (§ 4(f)(2); 42 U.S.C. § 1973b(f)(2)). As valid federal legislation (see, e.g., *Katzenbach v. Morgan* (1966) 384 U.S. 641, 648-651), the Act is the “supreme law of the land” (U.S. Const., art. VI, § 2) and supersedes any conflicting state laws or state constitutional provisions.

Section 2 of the Voting Rights Act

Two sections of the Act directly affect our task, but in different ways. Section 2, as amended in 1982, has two subsections.

> Subsection (a) is a substantive prohibition of any voting procedure that "results in" denial or abridgement of a racial or lingual minority's voting rights "as provided in subsection (b)."
>
> Subsection (b) states that a violation of subsection (a) is established by a showing, "based on the totality of circumstances," that members of a protected class have less than an equal opportunity "to participate in the political process and to elect representatives of their choice." The section expressly disavows establishing any right of proportional representation but permits consideration of the extent of minority candidates' success in getting elected.

Additionally, in 2009 the Supreme Court ruled that Section 2 does not require that jurisdictions draw district lines favorable to minorities when they constitute less than half the population.

Section 2 has been the basis for scores of lawsuits, typically prosecuted in federal court by members of protected groups, claiming that methods of electing candidates to office, such as the demarcation of legislative district boundaries, unlawfully dilute minority votes. Though most of these suits are directed at voting procedures in Southern states, a substantial number have arisen in Northern or Western states, including California. (See, e.g., *Garza v. County of Los Angeles* (9th Cir. 1990) 918 F.2d 763; *Gomez v. City of Watsonville* (9th Cir. 1988) 863 F.2d 1407.)

Section 5 of the Voting Rights Act

The other relevant section of the Act is Section 5 (42 U.S.C. § 1973c). It applies only to states or counties in which *fewer than half of the residents of voting age were registered to vote, or voted, in the Presidential Elections of 1964, 1968, or 1972*. (See § 4(b); 42 U.S.C. § 1973b(b) [voting registration determined by Director of the Census].) The section requires that *any redistricting or other change of voting procedures in those jurisdictions be cleared in advance* either by the federal district court in Washington, D.C., or by the United States Attorney General. The usual practice is to submit a proposed change to the Civil Rights Division of the Department of Justice, after which the Attorney General has 60 days in which to interpose an objection.

Four California counties -- Kings, Merced, Monterey, and Yuba -- are covered by section 5. All have relatively small populations that include the assigned personnel of large military bases, who are unlikely to register to vote. Sacramento is not subject to Section 5.

The Sacramento Redistricting Citizens Advisory Committee and City Council must comply with:

1. Federal Voting Rights Act requirements; that is, it cannot set boundaries that have the intent or the effect of minority (race, color) vote dilution; and
2. The City must avoid "racial gerrymandering," which occurs when race is the sole, primary, or predominant basis for redistricting, and there is no constitutionally adequate justification for use of race as a key factor in the redistricting plan.

Summary

In re-drawing district boundaries based on the 2010 Census figures, the Sacramento Redistricting Citizens Advisory Committee and City Council should first ensure that the districts are drawn in a way that complies with the "equal population" rule and other traditional criteria. For purposes of the equal population rule and the interests that may justify some deviation from strict population equality among districts, the factors identified in the Charter and in Elections Code section 21620 should be considered legitimate interests that will – in an appropriate situation and with adequate findings – justify deviation from strict equality.

The Sacramento Redistricting Citizens Advisory Committee and City Council should be careful to avoid basing its decisions primarily on racial considerations. However, the Council should review its redistricting plan to ensure that it will not result in the dilution of minority voting strength in violation of the Voting Rights Act. To the extent necessary, the Council could adopt a plan that is narrowly tailored to ensure compliance with the Voting Rights Act.

For additional guidance, please see memorandum – dated January 18, 2011 – from Eileen Teichert and Matthew Ruyak to the City Council: "**2011 Redistricting – Legal Principles,"** as well as the VRA presentation from the Committee's May 9, 2011, meeting.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS: VOTING RIGHTS ACT

Coalition-district claims: two minority groups from a coalition to elect the candidate of the coalition's choice.

Cracking: A form of dilution occurring when districts are drawn so as to divide a geographically compact minority community into two or more districts. If the minority community is politically cohesive and could elect a preferred candidate if placed in one district but, due to cracking, the minority population is divided into two or more districts where it no longer has any electoral control or influence, the voting strength of the minority population is diluted.

Source: www.brenanncenter.org

Crossover districts: minority voters make up less than a majority of voting age population, but it is, at least potentially, large enough to elect the candidate of its choice with help from majority-group voters who cross over to help minority's preferred candidate (nee "coalitional districts")*[§2 does not require]*

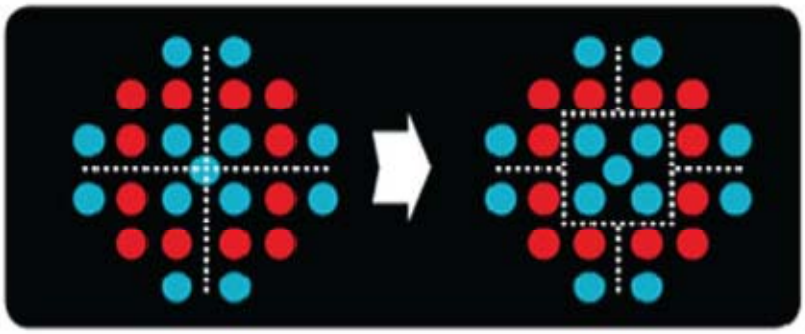
Gingles Factors: The *Gingles* factors are three preconditions set forth by the U.S. Supreme Court in *Thornburg v. Gingles*, 478 U.S. 30 (1986), that a minority group must prove to establish a violation of Section 2 of the Voting Rights Act. These preconditions are the following: 1) a minority group must be sufficiently large and geographically compact to comprise a majority of the district; 2) the minority group must be politically cohesive (it must demonstrate a pattern of voting for the same candidates); and, 3) white voters vote sufficiently as a bloc usually to defeat the minority group's preferred candidate. (As indicated above, in addition to the *Gingles* factors, a plaintiff must establish that the "totality of circumstances" show a minority group does not have equal opportunity for voter participation.)

Majority-minority district: A majority-minority district is one in which a minority group composes a numerical, working majority of the voting-age population [§2 can require creation].

Minority Influence district: A minority group can influence the outcome of an election even if its preferred candidate cannot be elected[§2 does not require creation].

Minority vote dilution: Minority vote dilution occurs when minority voters are deprived of an equal opportunity to elect a candidate of choice. It is prohibited under the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Examples of minority vote dilution include cracking, packing and the discriminatory effects of at-large election systems.

Packing: A form of vote dilution prohibited under the Voting Rights Act where a minority group is overconcentrated in a small number of districts. For example, packing can occur when the African American population is concentrated into one district where it makes up 90% of the district, instead of two districts where it could be 50% of each district.



Source: www.brenanncenter.org

Welcome to America's Most Diverse City

By Ron Stodghill and Amanda Bower Sunday, Aug. 25, 2002
Time Magazine
http://www.time.com/time/nation/article/0,8599,340694,00.html

Many William Land Elementary students speak a language other than English
LYNSEY ADDARIO/CORBIS SABA FOR TIME

Sequoia Way is easy for travelers to overlook. Nestled in the middle-class neighborhood of Village Park on the south side of Sacramento, Calif., it is an unremarkable stretch of single-story frame houses. But if you stroll a bit along the winding road and visit Sequoia Way's residents, you will quickly realize there's something extraordinary about this street.

You will meet Tom and Debra Burruss, who moved onto the street a couple of years ago. He's black and she's white, but on Sequoia the interracial union doesn't stand out. The Burrusses' next-door neighbors are also minorities, a Vietnamese couple named Ken Wong and Binh Lam. Living directly across are the Cardonas, a Hispanic-and-white couple. And nearby are the Farrys, a Japanese- and-white pair. In fact, sprinkled throughout the street are more flavors than you can get at Baskin-Robbins—Mexicans, African Americans, East Indians, Asians, you name it.

Now head downtown to William Land Elementary School. Here the classrooms are so ethnically diverse that teachers are considering switching from celebrating individual cultural holidays, like Black History Month, Cinco de Mayo and Chinese New Year, to holding a multiethnic festival. Of Land's 347 kids, 189 speak a language other than English at home. Immigrant parents are so common in Sacramento's public schools that one child volunteered that her father is also a foreigner—he's from New York.

Or go over to Downtown Plaza mall and chat with teenage couples like Kayla, 17, and Gerald, 18. Kayla's mother is white, and her father is black; Gerald's mother is Japanese, and his dad is black. As they munch pizza in a bustling food court as diverse as a U.N. cafeteria, Kayla shrugs her shoulders at the notion of same-race friendships. "Personally, it doesn't matter what color you are," she says. "I am mixed, he is mixed, and most everybody is mixed."

So it goes in America's most integrated city, as determined in research for TIME by the Civil Rights Project at Harvard University. In Sacramento everyone's a minority—including whites. Of the city's inhabitants, 41% are non-Hispanic white, 15.5% are black, 22% are Hispanic and 17.5% are Asian/Pacific Islander. Although many cities are diverse (think New York City or Los Angeles), in Sacramento people seem to live side by side more successfully. The city got that way thanks in part to affordable real estate for middle-class households (the black population has dropped in the Bay Area but increased in Sacramento over the past 10 years) as well as innovative housing programs for low-income families. In addition, state-government agencies and college campuses are sprinkled throughout the city, providing stable, well-paid, equal-opportunity employment.

But while Sacramento approaches an ideal for integration, it certainly isn't paradise. Beneath the multicolored surface, the city's 407,018 inhabitants vacillate between racial harmony and ethnic tension. You see a Sikh casually strolling into a Mexican restaurant for takeout, an Eskimo and a white punk hanging out together downtown. But you also see black and Hispanic parents outraged because their kids' test scores lag behind those of whites and Asians in integrated schools. And you hear Anne Gayles-White, the N.A.A.C.P. chapter president, saying "There's still too much hatred and racism in a city like this."

Sacramento's Crayola culture is no statistical anomaly. Indeed, it may well be a sign of the times. Non-Hispanic whites still account for 69% of the U.S. population and maintain a predominant share of the nation's fiscal and political power. But by 2059 at the latest, according to U.S. Census figures, there will no longer be a white majority in America. Sacramento, then, provides perhaps the clearest view into the nation's future—a glimpse into what our neighborhoods, schools, churches and police forces may look like just a few decades from now.

70 Languages, One System

Three weeks ago, Yun Qian (Cindy) Zhong, a sixth-grader assigned to Randy Helms' homeroom, walked into William Land Elementary School for the first time. She had all the gifts of a model student—intelligence, friendliness and an eagerness to learn. There was just one problem: Zhong, an immigrant from Canton, China, didn't speak a word of English.

Helms didn't panic. His students and their parents hail from as far away as Vietnam, Mexico, Germany, Portugal, Panama and, fortunately, China. By the end of Zhong's second week, Helms, with help from the Cantonese-speaking students in his class, had taught Zhong to count past 10 as well as to answer yes and no to questions translated for her.

A William Land education doesn't come easy. The school is located in a poor community downtown (90% of Land's kids qualify for free lunch), the classes are big (Helms alone teaches 32 students) and language barriers are routine (many kids' parents speak no English). Kids are tested for English proficiency within 30 days of enrolling; most score from 1 to 5 out of a maximum of 10. Across Sacramento, educators face similar challenges. How does a school district of 53,400 students communicate with a parent group that speaks more than 70 languages? And perhaps even more pressing, how much do cultural differences contribute to the fact that Latino and African-American children do not perform as well on standardized tests as white and Asian kids in the city's integrated schools?

Take John F. Kennedy High School, which at first blush is a picture of integration, with 21% white students, 22% black, 35% Asian and 16% Latino (the remainder are primarily Pacific Islanders, Filipinos and American Indians). J.F.K. routinely ships top graduates to Ivy League schools. But while the typical Asian kid has a 3.01 grade-point average, African-American kids score 1.85. What's going on? School district superintendent Jim Sweeney attributes the gap to class differences. J.F.K. students come from two neighborhoods—a middle-class area known as the Pocket, and a low-income, predominantly black and Hispanic part of town called Meadowview. Lower-income parents, he says, are often less able to spend time helping their kids with homework and encouraging them to learn. "Some surveys say poor children actually hear a million less words a year in the formative years," he says.

That explanation is too simplistic for Patricia Gandara, a University of California at Davis professor of education and Sacramento resident. She believes that teachers and administrators stereotype students on the basis of race. There are plenty of examples—from the teacher who asked a Latino boy if his parents had jobs (his mother was a school principal) to the Mexican child in an advanced-placement class who was asked whether she was Asian (her classmates couldn't imagine that a Latina could perform so well). "The schools make assumptions along class lines about which parents care and which don't, and parents and children begin to read those signs very early," Gandara says.

The district is making some progress in closing the gap. One effective method: home visits, which foster a relationship between teachers and parents and encourage working together to meet a child's needs. Suggested by a parent in 1998, the program helped boost reading scores in the district's elementary schools 36% and math scores 73% (reading and math scores are still only at the 46th and 59th national percentile, respectively).

The Most Segregated Hour

It is Sunday morning in Sacramento's Meadowview community, and hundreds of Russian-speaking immigrants—men in dark suits, women in traditional head scarves, children excited about the latest X-box game—are thronging into the First Slavic Evangelical Baptist Church. A couple of blocks away, African Americans fill the sanctuary at Twenty-Fourth Street Baptist Church to listen to the Rev. Samuel Mullinax preach the same Gospel. An hour later, Latinos begin filing into the pews of nearby St. Anne's Catholic Church for a Spanish- language Mass. Meadowview residents live together, but many pray separately.

More than 30 years ago, Martin Luther King Jr. famously said that "the 11 o'clock hour on Sunday is the most segregated hour in American life." It's an indictment that still carries weight today, as an estimated 90% of Americans worship primarily with members of their race or ethnicity. Yet Sacramento's complex social tapestry challenges conventional notions that racial segregation in worship is a failure of America's national ideal of equality. Sometimes segregation is driven not by bigotry but by language barriers and cultural heritage.

When Ukrainian immigrant Tamila Demyanik says, through an interpreter, that "the church is the major part of my life," it is no understatement. To the Demyaniks, First Slavic is a lifeline in a foreign land. Her husband buys bread at First Slavic and checks its bulletin board and a Russian phone book for community information. Longtime church members accustomed to America provide emotional support to newcomers and help them negotiate thickets of red tape in health care, housing and more.

Kevin Armstrong, a United Methodist pastor and director of the Religion and Public Teaching Project, based in Indianapolis, Ind., concedes that segregation, whether voluntary or compulsory, seems at odds with religious ideals. But he argues that the outcome often justifies the practice, particularly in immigrant communities. "They preserve their tradition," Armstrong explains, "sing in their native language, eat the food of their own culture, [and are] with people who remember what their land looks like and who their people are."

Shades of Blue

Cruising Del Paso heights in an unmarked police car, Chou Vang, 33, gestures toward a section of tired apartment houses and talks about gang violence. "Back in Laos, the Hmong are a minority ethnic group," he explains, "and the ethnic Lao ruled and ran the country. They have carried their old tensions to this country."

Vang is a police officer with the Sacramento police department, assigned to the problem-oriented policing unit. He is also a Laos-born member of the Hmong. The combination—his cop instincts and Hmong sensibility—enables Vang to be an effective negotiator in Hmong cases, including recurring episodes of gang violence between north-side teens and another Hmong gang in the southern part of town. Vang works on cases of all types, and frequently they involve drugs. In Del Paso Heights methamphetamines are the drug of choice. In Sacramento just last week federal authorities indicted 10 people on charges of importing yaba, a candy-flavored amphetamine.

The Sacramento police department has had difficulty attracting immigrant officers and people of color. White men still make up 46% of the department's staff; women swell the Caucasian ranks to 70%. Hispanics of any race account for 12%, blacks 8% and Asians 8%. Concern about racial profiling led the department to launch a study of its practices in 2000, and its first report found that 27% of drivers stopped by police were African American although African Americans make up only 15.5% of the local population. Despite such controversies, Vang feels he made the right move in signing up. "Occasionally someone will tell me to go back to my own country," he says. "But for the most part, I don't think they see me as an Asian. They just see me as a police officer."

All of Me

When Mariko Ferronato was 3 years old, she would regularly quiz her mother about which half of her was white and which was Japanese. "I thought there was a physical line that divided the Japanese me from the Caucasian me," says Ferronato, now 18 and a high school senior. A soccer goalie who plays the violin and has her eye on pre-med studies, Ferronato says her racial identity developed in stages. At her mostly white elementary school, she considered herself a white person "who happened to eat a lot of sticky rice." But in the ninth grade at her diverse high school, another student, who is white, called her a "cheating Jap." It hit hard. "I then tried to focus primarily on my Japanese side, completely ignoring my white side, as if to make up for all those years," she says.

In the 2000 U.S. Census, 24 in 1,000 people said they were multiracial (it's the first time Census pollers asked the question). It's often said with pride. While people of mixed race were once portrayed as tragic figures in movies, such as 1934's *Imitation of Life,* its 1959 remake and 1960's *I Passed for White,* today's pop-culture scene is bursting with mixed-race heroes, from

movie tough guys Vin Diesel and The Rock to golfer Tiger Woods and rising tennis star James Blake to singers like Alicia Keys and Norah Jones. Sacramento is ahead of the curve; 2 of every 10 babies born here are multiracial. When those babies grow up and start marrying—a national survey shows more than 90% of today's teens approve of interracial marriage—the numbers will climb even higher.

It took time—and a feeling of not quite belonging at an Asian students' club—for Ferronato to finally realize that she is neither Japanese nor white. She is both. "Now I believe in the theory of hybrid vigor," she says. "A specimen derived from two different species has the strongest traits of both sides."

But people are not plants, and theories are not proofs. Sacramento, as a city, is still searching to find its best self, its strongest traits. Single-race parents of mixed-race children can offer guidance to their kids but not always full understanding. Sacramento is on a similar, unchaperoned journey. Will hybrid theory hold? Who can tell? But the blossoms will be something to see.

City of Sacramento 1980 Census Data - Citywide

Total Population	**275,741**	**100.0%**
American Indian / Alaska Native	3,322	1.2%
Asian / Pacific Islander	24,017	8.1%
Black / African American	36,866	13.4%
White	186,477	67.6%
Some Other Race	25,059	9.1%
Spanish Origin	39,160	14.2%

City of Sacramento 1990 Census Data - Citywide

Total Population	**369,365**	**100.0%**
American Indian / Alaska Native	4,561	1.1%
Asian / Pacific Islander	55,426	15.0%
Black / African American	56,521	15.3%
White	221,963	64.9%
Some Other Race	30,894	7.1%
Hispanic or Latino of Any Race	60,007	14.1%

City of Sacramento 2000 Census Data – Citywide

Total Population	**407,018**	**100.0%**
American Indian / Alaska Native	5,300	1.3%
Asian Alone	67,635	16.6%
Black / African American Alone	62,968	15.5%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander Alone	3,861	0.9%
White Alone	196,549	48.3%
Some Other Race	44,627	11.0%
Two or More Races	26,078	6.4%
Hispanic or Latino of Any Race	87,974	21.6%

Race, Hispanic or Latino, Age, and Housing Occupancy: 2010
2010 Census Redistricting Data (Public Law 94-171) Summary File
CITY OF SACRAMENTO

Subject	Total		18 + years	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
POPULATION				
Total population	466,488	100.0	350,367	100.0
RACE				
One race	433,363	92.9	332,116	94.8
White	210,006	45.0	172,205	49.1
Black or African American	68,335	14.6	48,357	13.8
American Indian and Alaska Native	5,291	1.1	3,959	1.1
Asian	85,503	18.3	64,513	18.4
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	6,655	1.4	4,784	1.4
Some Other Race	57,573	12.3	38,298	10.9
Two or More Races	33,125	7.1	18,251	5.2
HISPANIC OR LATINO AND RACE				
Hispanic or Latino (of any race)	125,276	26.9	81,388	23.2
Not Hispanic or Latino	341,212	73.1	268,979	76.8
One race	320,101	68.6	256,643	73.2
White	161,062	34.5	138,989	39.7
Black or African American	64,967	13.9	46,635	13.3
American Indian and Alaska Native	2,586	0.6	2,067	0.6
Asian	83,841	18.0	63,464	18.1
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	6,392	1.4	4,620	1.3
Some Other Race	1,253	0.3	868	0.2
Two or More Races	21,111	4.5	12,336	3.5

Source: 2010 Census Redistricting Data (Public Law 94-171) Summary File, Tables P1, P2, P3, P4, H1.

RACE & ETHNICITY – 2010 CENSUS
CITY OF SACRAMENTO – BY COUNCIL DISTRICT

District	Total	Hispanic	White	Black	AIAN	Asian	NHPI	Other	2 or more
1	106,729	28,902	48,304	16,311	1,124	18,920	1,155	12,666	8,249
2	52,975	18,192	20,947	8,640	794	8,362	1,084	9,400	3,748
3	50,645	8,887	38,323	2,638	534	3,121	207	3,096	2,726
4	45,703	8,114	25,581	4,682	493	8,562	282	2,961	3,142
5	46,514	16,112	20,682	7,671	793	5,665	534	7,724	3,445
6	49,879	14,948	23,505	4,345	616	10,620	430	7,166	3,197
7	52,585	11,581	18,094	9,569	399	14,388	979	5,229	3,927
8	61,458	18,540	14,570	14,479	538	15,865	1,984	9,331	4,691
Total	466,488	125,276	210,006	68,335	5,291	85,503	6,655	57,573	33,125

Percentage of District Population

District	% of City	Hispanic	White	Black	AIAN	Asian	NHPI	Other	2 or more
1	23%	27%	45%	15%	1%	18%	1%	12%	8%
2	11%	34%	40%	16%	1%	16%	2%	18%	7%
3	11%	18%	76%	5%	1%	6%	0%	6%	5%
4	10%	18%	56%	10%	1%	19%	1%	6%	7%
5	10%	35%	44%	16%	2%	12%	1%	17%	7%
6	11%	30%	47%	9%	1%	21%	1%	14%	6%
7	11%	22%	34%	18%	1%	27%	2%	10%	7%
8	13%	30%	24%	24%	1%	26%	3%	15%	8%
Total	100%	27%	45%	15%	1%	18%	1%	12%	7%

Analysis: City of Sacramento Racial / Ethnic Composition

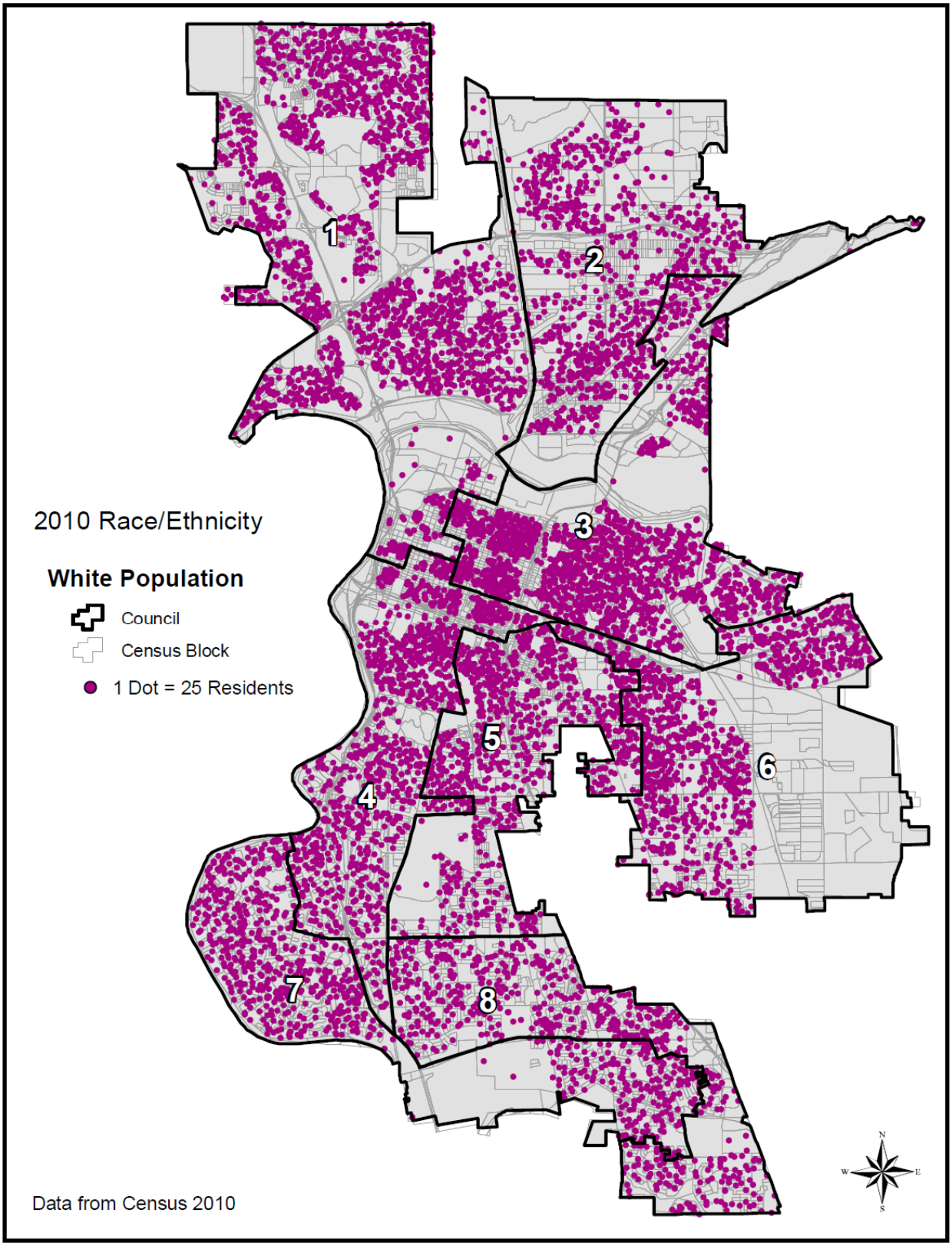
1980: During the 1980 Census, "White" constituted 67.6% of the City's population, while the racial & ethnic minorities constituted 8.1%, 13.4% and 14.2% for Asian/Pacific Islander, African-American, and Spanish Origin, respectively.

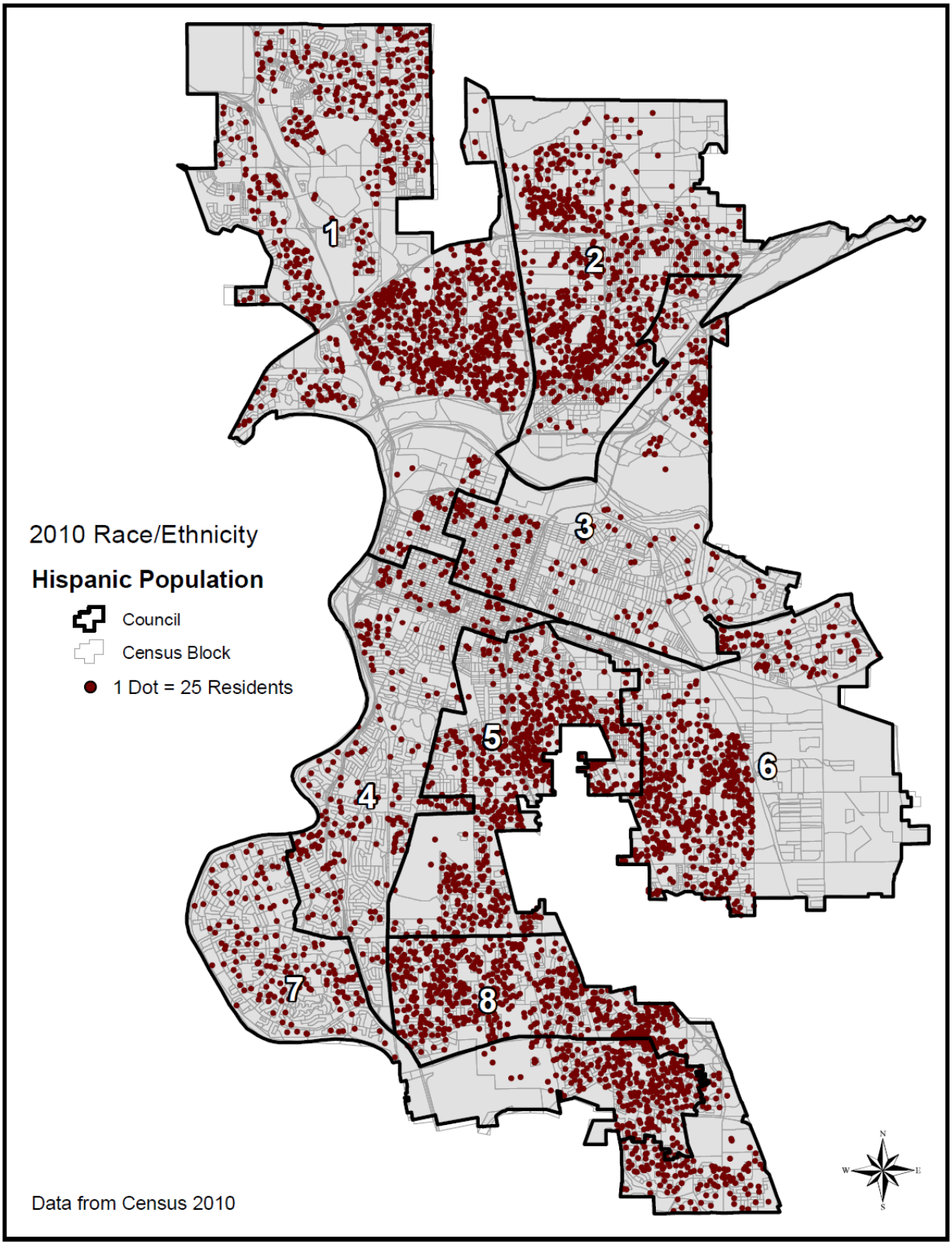
1990: During the 1990 Census, "White" constituted 64.9% of the City's population, while the racial & ethnic minorities constituted 15.0%, 15.3% and 14.1% for Asian / Pacific Islander, African-American, and Hispanic, respectively.

2000: During the 2000 Census, "White Alone" was the largest racial group with 48.3% of Citywide population; for the first time, the white population constituted less than a majority of total City population. Minority population was 21.6% "Hispanic or Latino of Any Race", followed by 16.6% "Asian Alone" and 15.5% "Black / African-American Alone".

2010: During the 2010 Census, "White" constituted 45.0% of the City's population (49.1% of voting-age population). African-American constituted 14.6% (13.8% of voting age population), Asian constituted 18.3% (18.4% of voting age population). Hispanic / Latino (of any race) constituted 26.9% (23.2% of voting age population).

1. The City is no longer a white majority population (this shift was evident with the 2000 Census)
    a. Whites constitute a majority of the population only in Districts 3 (76%) and District 4 (56%)
    b. Whites constitute only 24% in District 8
2. Hispanics are the largest ethnic minority population with approximately 27%
    a. Population exceeds 27% in District 2 (34%), District 5 (35%), District 6 (30%), and District 8 (30%)
    b. Population is less than 27% in Districts 3 (18%), 4 (18%), 6, 7 (22%)
    c. Population is 27% in District 1
3. Asians are the next largest ethnic minority population with approximately 18%
    a. Population exceeds 18% in District 4 (19%), District 6 (21%), District 7 (27%), and District 8 (26%)
    b. Population is less than 18% in District 2 (16%), District 3 (6%), and District 5 (12%)
    c. Population is 18% in District 1
4. Blacks are the 3rd largest ethnic minority population with approximately 15%.
    a. Population exceeds 15% in District 2 (16%), District 5 (16%), District 7 (18%), and District 8 (24%)
    b. Population is less than 15% District 3 (5%), District 4 (10%), and District 6 (9%),
    c. Population is 15% in District 1


2010 Race/Ethnicity
White Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
Data from Census 2010


2010 Race/Ethnicity
Hispanic Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
1
2
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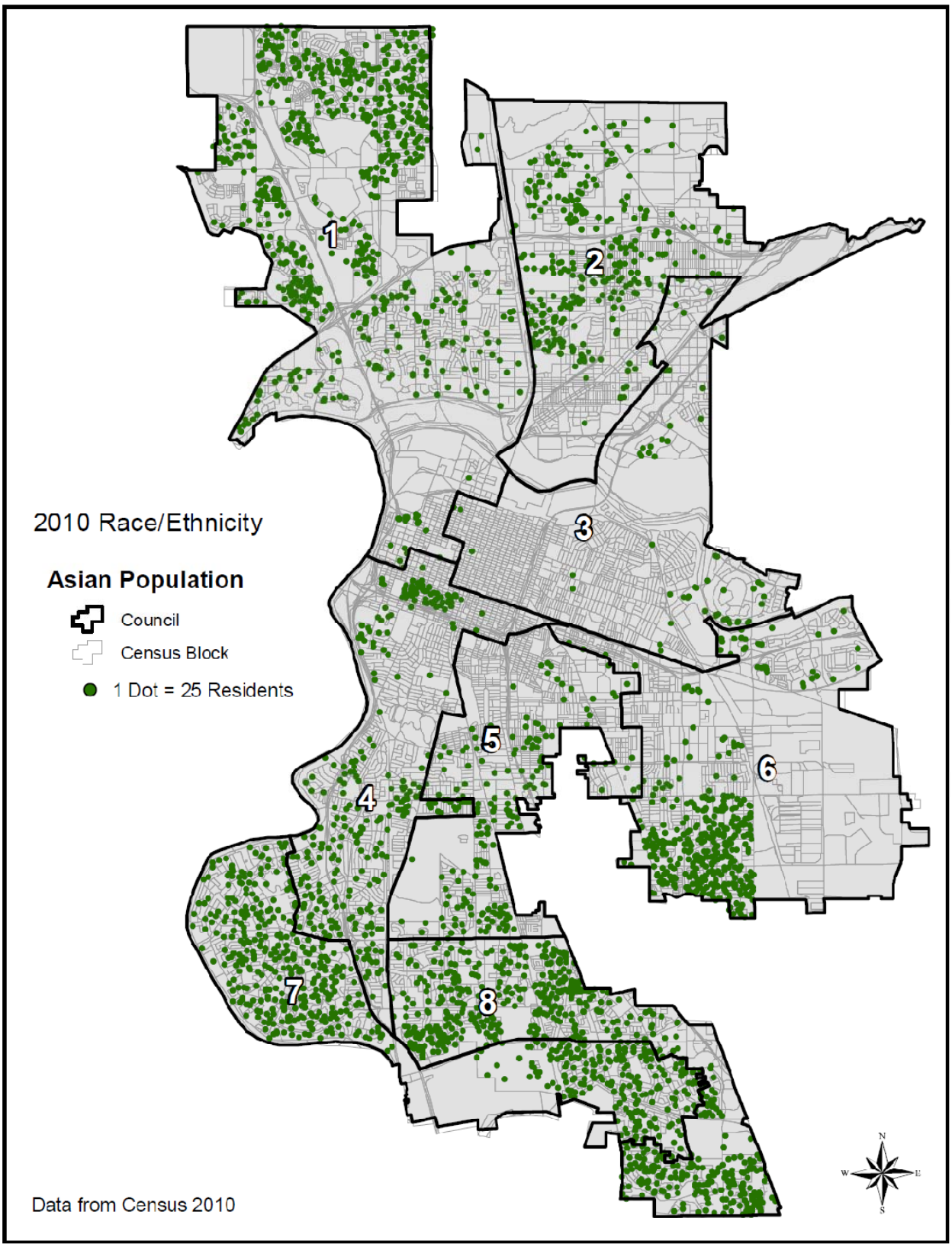
Data from Census 2010


2010 Race/Ethnicity
Asian Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
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Data from Census 2010
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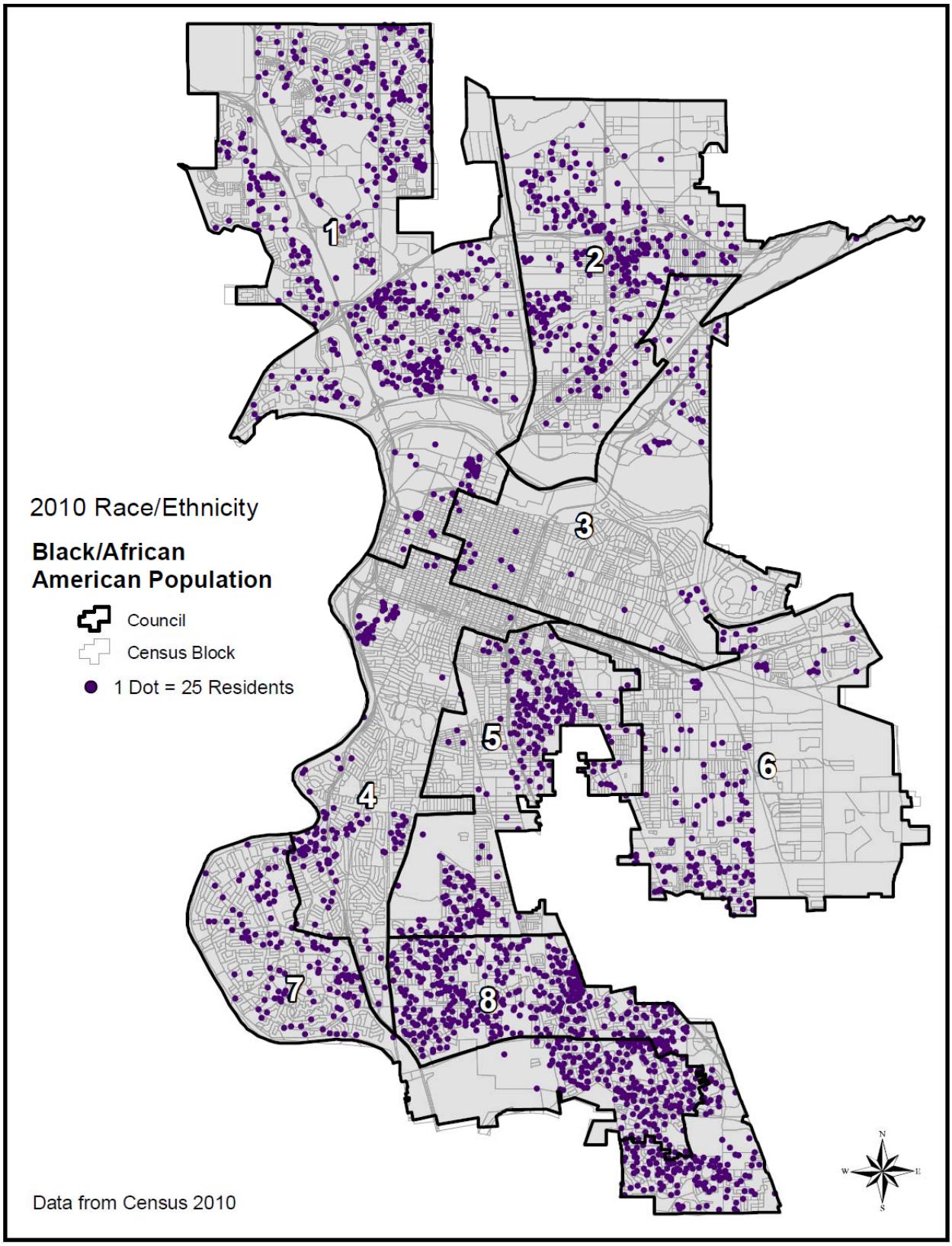
2010 Race/Ethnicity
Black/African American Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
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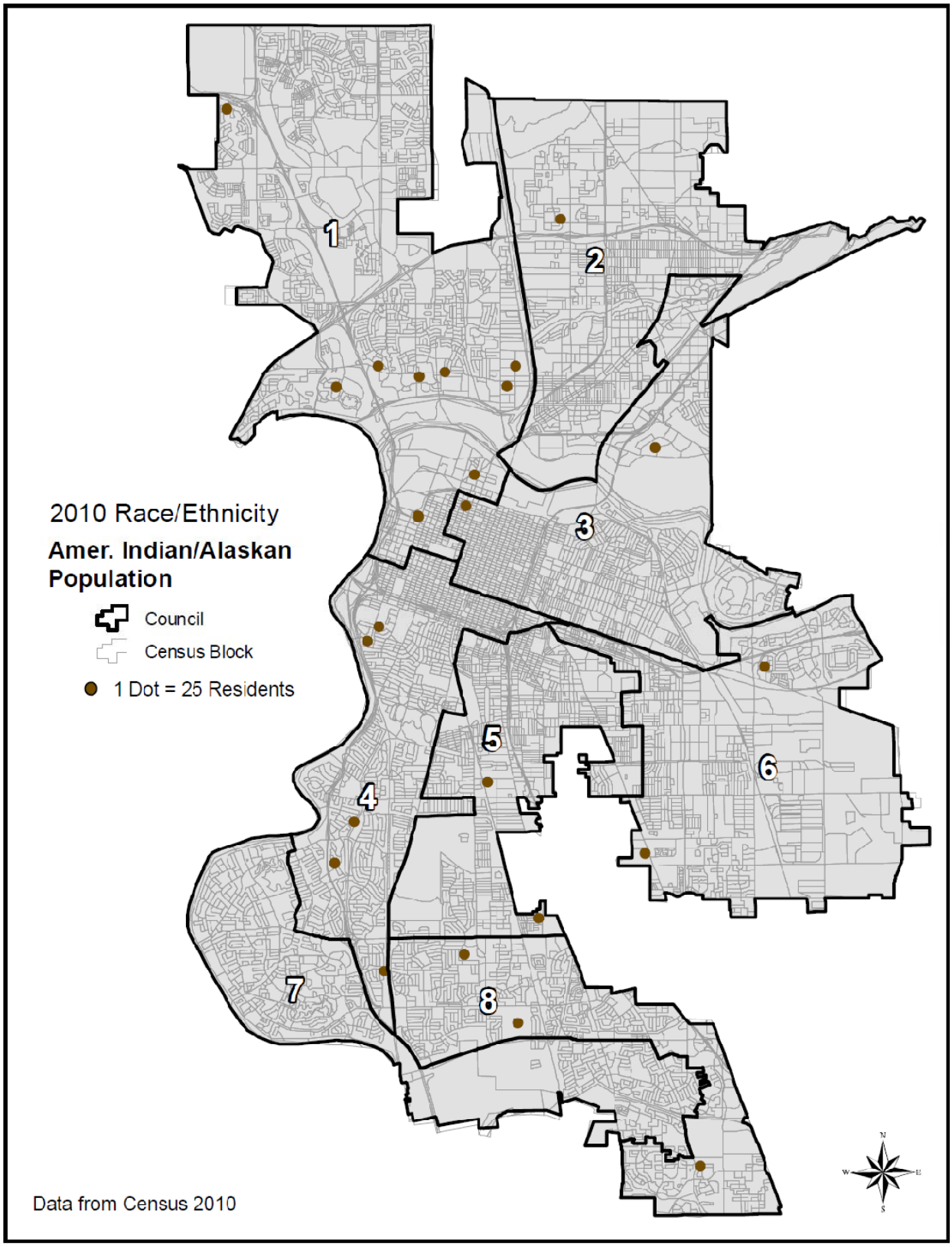
Data from Census 2010


2010 Race/Ethnicity
Amer. Indian/Alaskan Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
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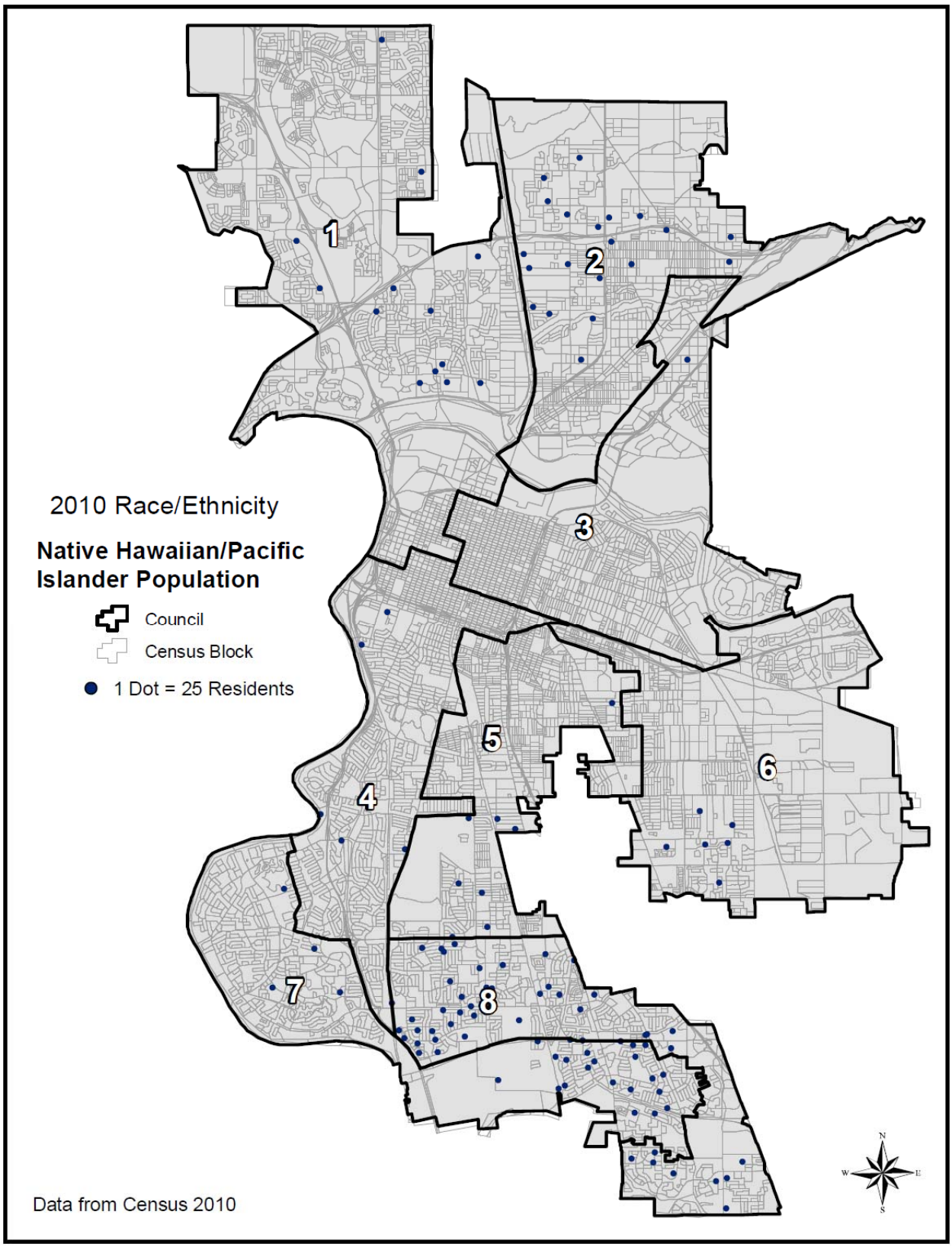
Data from Census 2010


2010 Race/Ethnicity
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander Population
Council
Census Block
1 Dot = 25 Residents
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Data from Census 2010

National Examples of redistricting plans harming minority voters

Minority voters have frequently faced discrimination in voting during the redistricting process. The following examples summarize some of the most egregious acts that denied opportunities for minority voters to elect a candidate of choice in recent redistricting cycles. (Source: Redrawing the Lines, NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc., http://www.redrawingthelines.org/faqs)

African Americans

During the redistricting process in the State of Louisiana that followed the 2000 Census, Louisiana adopted a discriminatory plan for its State House of Representatives that worsened the position of Black voters.

The results of the 2000 Census showed that the African- American population in Louisiana increased in real numbers and as a percentage of the overall state population. In January of 2001, however, the Louisiana legislature created a redistricting plan that completely eliminated a majority-minority district in the New Orleans area where there was no Black population loss according to the 2000 Census. The proposed redistricting plan also reduced the percentage of African-American voters in several other districts where African-Americans had a reasonable opportunity to elect their candidate of choice.

With regard to the proposed elimination of the New Orleans district, the State admitted that it eliminated the district in a conscious effort to limit African-American voting strength in the New Orleans area and to increase electoral opportunities for white voters. In the state's view, white voters were entitled to proportional representation in Orleans Parish, though proportionality did not exist for African-Americans elsewhere in the state or under the Voting Rights Act.

Notwithstanding this discrimination, Louisiana sought judicial approval for its reapportionment plan under Section 5 of the Voting Rights Act (see chapter 5 for more information) and vigorously argued that its 2001 redistricting plan was valid. On the eve of trial, and after fifteen months of litigation, evidence emerged that the 2001 plan violated the State's own redistricting principles. It was only at that point that the State withdrew the discriminatory redistricting plan and created a new redistricting plan that did not dilute African-American voting strength.

This is only one of many examples of the unlawful exclusion of African-American voters and their representatives from the redistricting process. Most notably, every initial state legislative redistricting plan for the Louisiana House of Representatives has drawn an objection since the Voting Rights Act was passed in 1965.

Asian Americans

Involvement in the redistricting process has been a relatively recent endeavor for Asian Americans. Asian American participation in redistricting began after the 1990 Census. Historically, areas with

significant Asian American populations were split into different districts, reducing the voting power of those populations.

In 1992, the riots in Los Angeles took a heavy toll on many neighborhoods, including the area known as Koreatown. It is estimated that the city suffered damages of more than $1 billion, much of it concentrated on businesses operated by Koreans and other Asian immigrants. When residents of these neighborhoods appealed to their local officials for assistance with the cleanup and recovery effort, however, each of their purported representatives – members of the City Council and the State Assembly – passed the buck, claiming that the area was a part of another official's district. This was because new district lines drawn after the 1990 Census fractured Koreatown. Koreatown, barely over one mile square, was split into four City Council districts and five State Assembly districts, and because Asian Americans did not make up a significant portion of any official's constituency, officials were left with little incentive to respond to the Asian American community.

In Chicago, there was similar fracturing during redistricting efforts. Even though the Asian American population is now nearly 5% of the state's population, and in some neighborhoods, Asian Americans make up around 30% of the population, no Asian American has ever been elected to the Illinois General Assembly or any statewide office, or the Chicago City Council.2 After the 2000 Census, five Illinois Senate districts were over 10% Asian American; yet, after the lines were redrawn in 2001, only two Senate districts were over 10% Asian American. The 2001 redistricting divided Chicago's Chinatown—a compact community whose members have common ground in terms of history, ethnicity, language, and social concerns—from two Illinois Senate districts into three Senate districts, and from three Illinois House districts into four House districts.3 In addition to the Chicago Chinatown area, there are several other Asian American communities that have been fragmented by past redistricting, including the area encompassing Devon Avenue, Lincolnwood, and Skokie, which was divided into two different Senate districts, and the Albany Park area in Chicago, which was similarly divided.

Latinos

After the 2001California statewide redistricting, MALDEF challenged the legality of three California districts. MALDEF asserted that two congressional districts had been racially gerrymandered to exclude Latino voters in order to limit the influence of the Latino vote. MALDEF also challenged a state legislative district under the Voting Rights Act because it was not drawn as a majority-Latino district. The court ruled against MALDEF and the districts were allowed to stand.

In 2003, Texas redrew its congressional district boundaries and dismantled the Latino-majority 23rd Congressional District along the U.S.-Mexico border. The incumbent in that district, who was not the preferred candidate of Latinos, faced an increasing threat of removal by the growing Latino electorate in the district. In order to shore up the re-election chances of the incumbent, Texas moved over 100,000 Latinos out of the 23rd Congressional District and reduced the Latino citizen voting age population of the district from 57% to 45%. MALDEF represented Latino voters of Congressional District 23 in a challenge to the redistricting plan and in 2006 won a ruling from the U.S. Supreme Court that Texas had discriminated against Latinos in violation of Section 2 of the federal Voting Rights Act.