

***Center for Elimination of
Disproportionality and Disparities***

***Equity: Together We Can Achieve It!
Workshop***

Participant Handbook

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| Topic | Page |
|--|------|
| Overview | 3 |
| Training Goals and Objectives | 4 |
| Module 1: Welcome and Introduction | 5 |
| Module 2: Definitions | 7 |
| Module 3: Understanding Our History | 9 |
| Module 4: Understanding Race Equity Principles | 13 |
| Module 5: Data Driven Strategies | 17 |
| Module 6: Collaboration and Engagement with Communities and Across Systems | 19 |
| Module 7: Conclusion | 22 |
| References | 25 |

Acknowledgments:

Training materials developed by:



In collaboration with multiple community partners

OVERVIEW

The Texas Health and Human Services Commission (HHSC) Center for Elimination of Disproportionality and Disparities (the Center) was created in September 2010 to address disproportionality and disparities and ensure racial equity in the delivery of services across all health and human services (HHS) agencies and programs.

This curriculum centers on principles related to addressing disproportionality and disparities, including health and health access. Participants will engage in interactive small and large group dialogues and activities as well as view video clips throughout the training. Participants will be asked to complete a pretest and posttest survey to assess their current knowledge of topic areas and to determine to what degree the curriculum and trainers achieved learning objectives. Participants will also be asked to complete evaluations after the training to provide feedback and help improve the workshop for future attendees.

AGENDA OVERVIEW

Welcome and Overview

Learning Objectives

Group Agreements

Definitions

Understanding Our History

Race Equity Principles

Data Driven Strategies

Collaboration and Engagement with Communities and Across Systems

Conclusion

Training goals:

1. Increase awareness of racial and ethnic disparities in outcomes within our agencies.
2. Educate staff about ways they can seek equity in their practice.
3. Further develop cultural competencies of staff and stakeholders in Health and Human Services (HHS) agencies and other systems and communities.



Training Learning Objectives:

1. Participants will identify and recognize the existence of systemic racial inequities within health and human services.
2. Participants will examine how they play a role in perpetuating practices that lead to inequitable outcomes within systems.
3. Participants will identify strategies to address the causes of systemic racial inequities.

MODULE 1: WELCOME AND INTRODUCTION

You will be provided with group agreements to guide your participation throughout the workshop. These agreements will help to ensure the workshop environment is a safe place for communication, sharing, learning, dialogue, and collaboration. Everyone has the opportunity to add suggestions to the group agreements and will agree to abide by them throughout our time together.

Goal(s):

1. Welcome participants.
2. Establish a safe space for discussions.
3. Introduce the Texas Model: A Framework for Equity.
4. Identify components of the Texas Model: A Framework for Equity.

Group Agreements

Confidentiality

Find Your Growing Edge

Listen and Be Respectful

No Racial Slurs

Focus on Race/Ethnicity in the United States and Texas

Stay Engaged

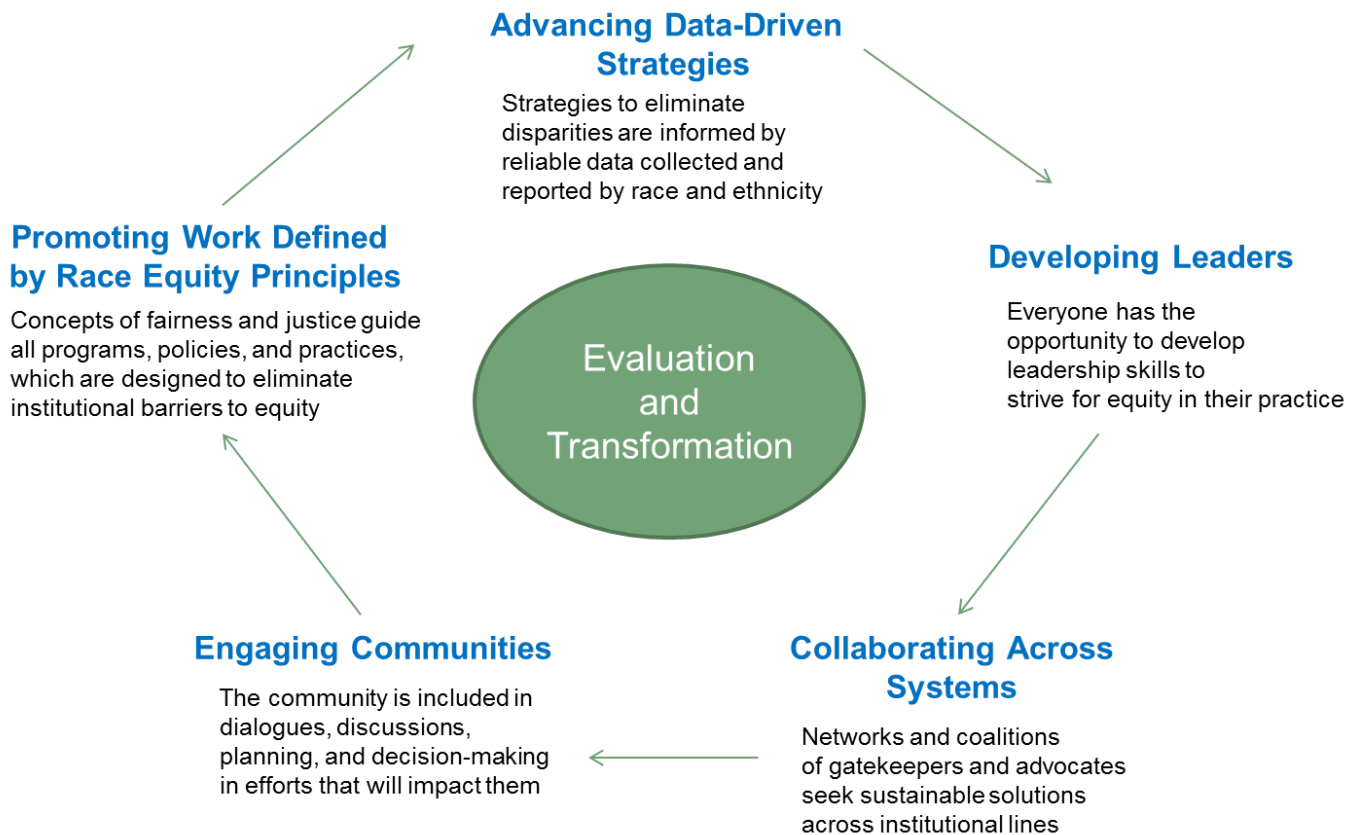
Everyone Participates

Manage Technology

MODULE 1: WELCOME AND INTRODUCTION

The Center encourages equity in services by utilizing the *Texas Model: A Framework for Equity* (Texas Model). The Texas Model is a framework to guide reform as we seek sustainable equity in our practice. The objective of the Texas Model is to promote practices that are informed by community and guided by a common language and understanding of the root causes of disproportionality and disparities. Race Equity principles and data-driven strategies are two key components of the Texas Model.

The Texas Model: A Framework for Equity



MODULE 2: DEFINITIONS

The definitions in this manual provide a common language and understanding of core terms that will be used throughout the training. The definitions provided come from numerous sources, listed in the References section at the end of this Handbook, and best meet the needs of this training curriculum. Other definitions, in different contexts, may also be appropriate.

Goal(s): Develop a common language for talking about racial equity.

Objectives:

At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Define key terms.
2. Use a common language to support communication, sharing, and collaboration, and for talking effectively about issues of race and ethnicity and how they impact communities.

MODULE 2: DEFINITIONS

Disproportionality

The under or overrepresentation of a particular group, race, or ethnicity in a public system compared to their representation in the general population (APHSA, 2010).

Disparity

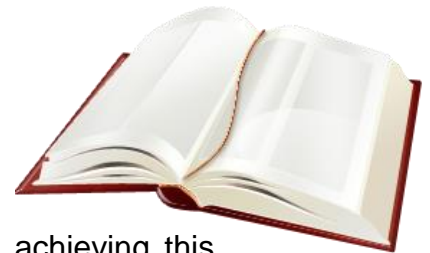
A difference that should not exist (Byers, 2012).

Equality

The quality or state of being equal (Merriam-Webster, 2014).

Equity

The concept that everyone should have a fair opportunity to attain their full potential and that no one should be disadvantaged from achieving this potential if it can be avoided (as cited in Whitehead, 1990).



Race

A socially constructed phenomenon based on the erroneous assumption that physical differences such as skin color, hair color and texture, and facial [or other physical] features are related to intellectual, moral, or cultural superiority. The concept of race has no basis in biological reality and, as such, has no meaning independent of its social definitions (Henry & Tator, 2006).

Ethnicity

A social construct that divides people into smaller social groups based on characteristics such as shared sense of group membership, values, behavioral patterns, language, political and economic interests, history and ancestral geographical base (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 1997).

Race Equity Lens

“Race equity lens” brings into focus the ways in which race and ethnicity shape experiences with power, access to opportunity, treatment, and outcomes, both today and historically (Grantcraft, 2011).

MODULE 3: UNDERSTANDING OUR HISTORY

Understanding Our History is an important principle that forms the foundation of work to achieve racial equity in Texas human services. Being aware of our history is critical to the way systems operate today. Without this foundation, we are unable to view policies and practices with a race equity lens and risk perpetuating negative outcomes. This module will help you understand history and allow time to explore and discuss how policies and practices can impact the people we serve in ways we did not expect.

Goal(s):

Understand how history relates to disproportionality and disparities.

Objectives:

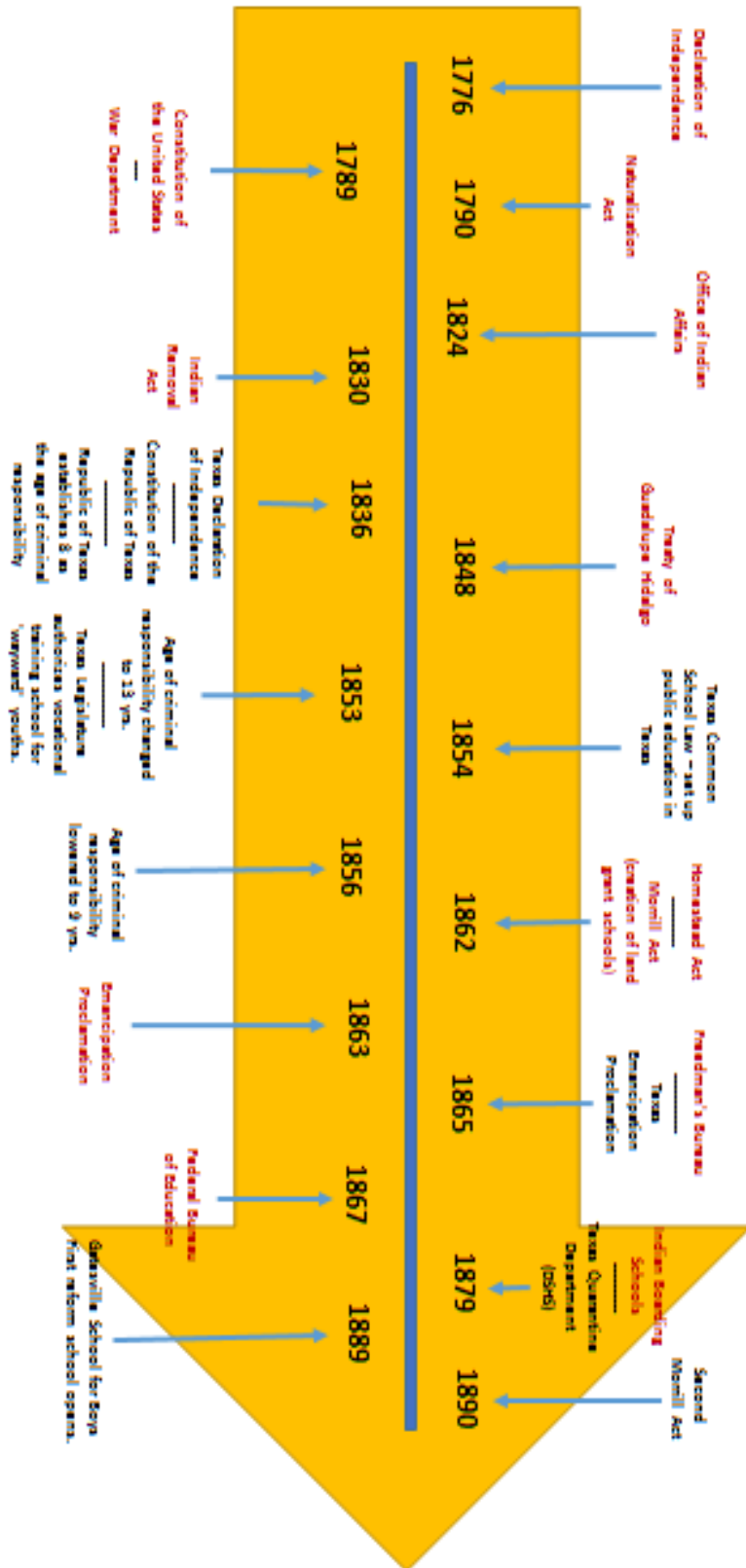
At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

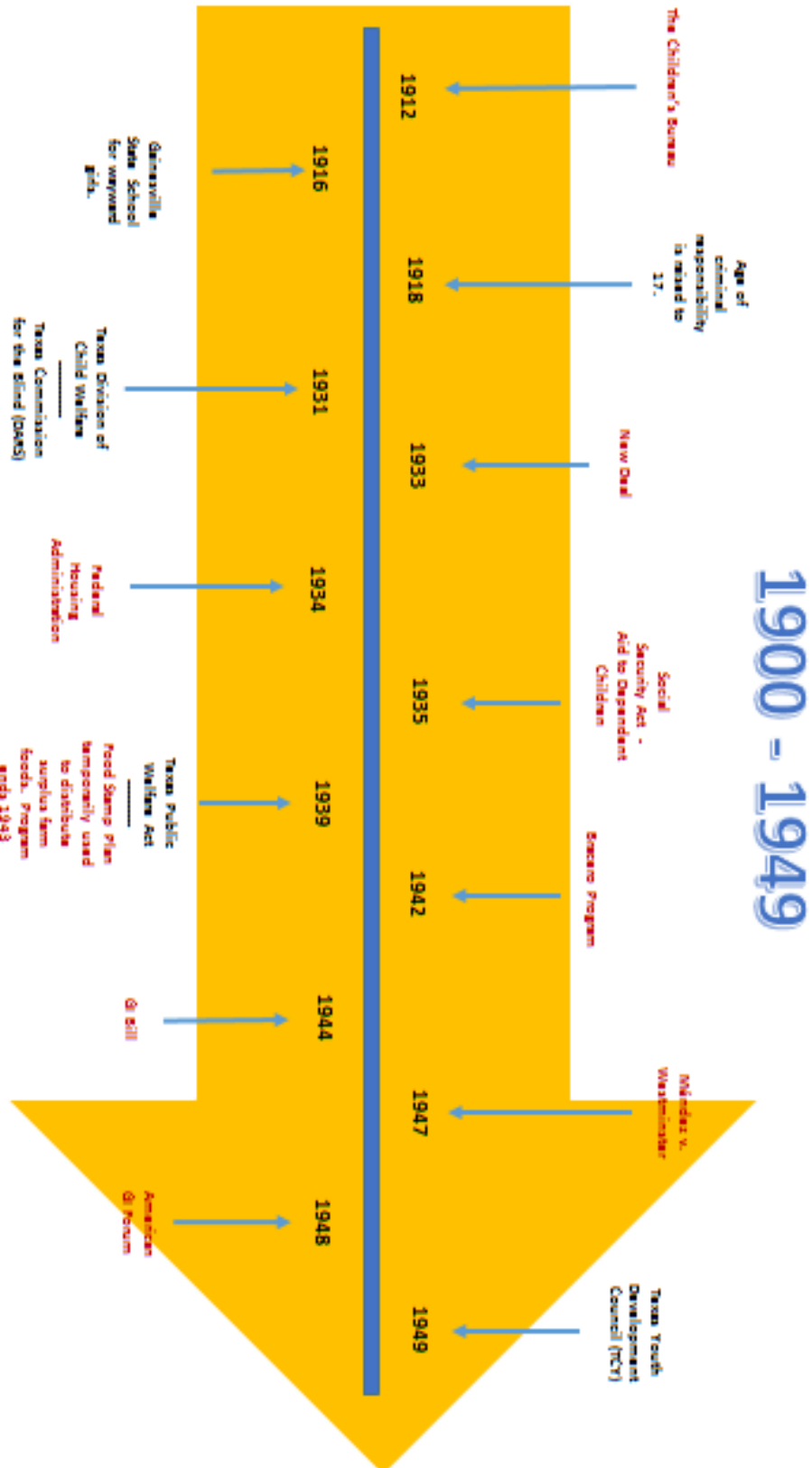
1. Recognize the history of systems and how this history established a foundation for the disproportionality and disparities that exist today.
2. Recognize that systems should use a race equity lens when they develop policies and practices to encourage positive outcomes for racial and ethnic groups and people who experience poverty.

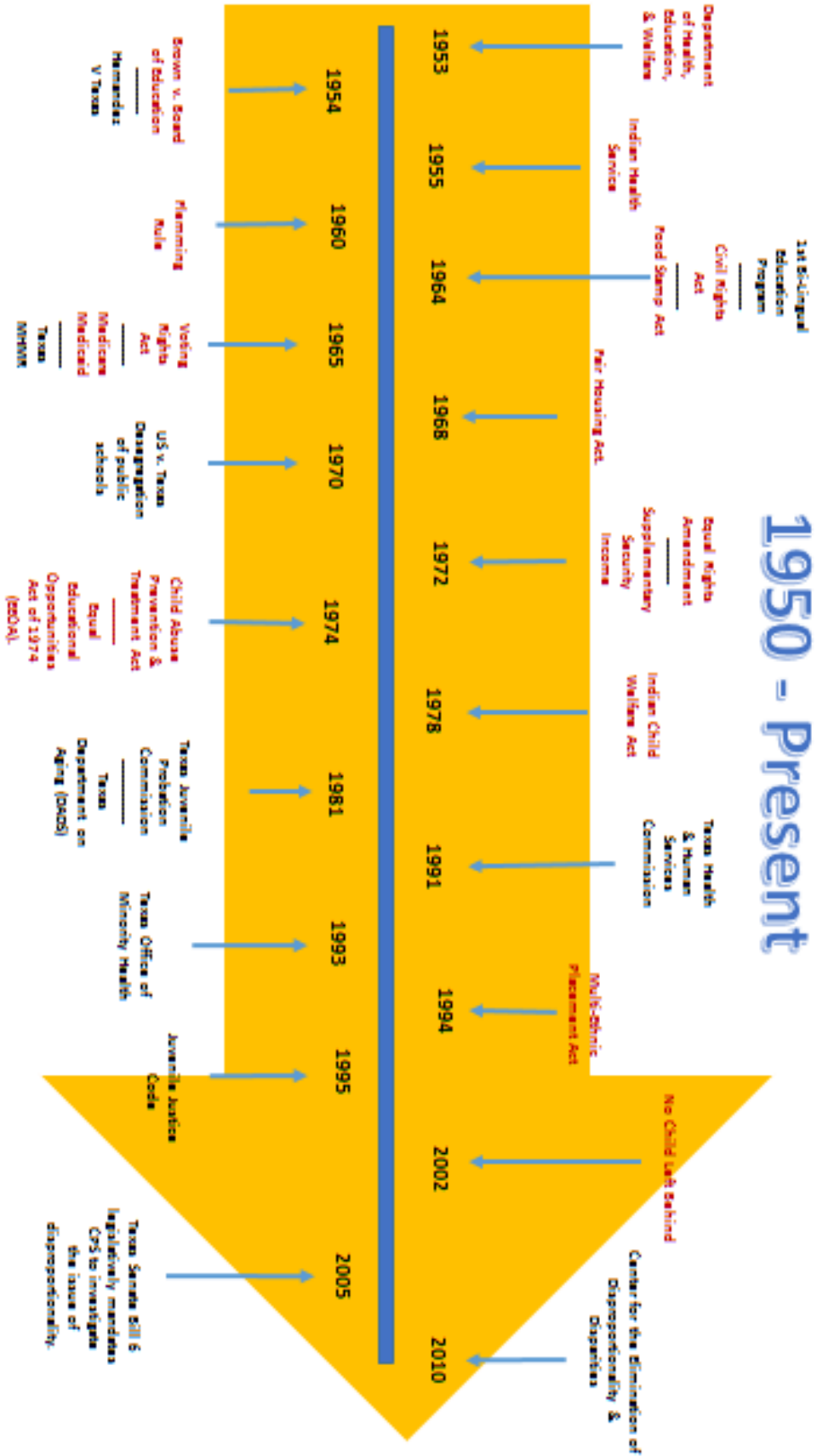
See the Reference List at the end of this handbook for sources containing more detail about the events discussed in this module.



1700 - 1899







MODULE 3: UNDERSTANDING OUR HISTORY



- ❖ What was the original purpose of systems?

- ❖ Considering race and ethnicity, how effectively do you think systems serve the diverse population of Texas and the United States?

- ❖ How well do you think systems have considered race and ethnicity in the development and implementation of their policies and practices? Or have they considered it at all?

NOTES

MODULE 4: UNDERSTANDING RACE EQUITY PRINCIPLES

Another component of the Texas Model is Work Defined by Race Equity Principles. Race Equity principles promote equity within our systems. They strive to address the perspectives, experiences, and needs of all people. Most importantly, race equity principles encourage humanity between systems, communities, and people.

Goal(s):

Develop a common understanding among participants of race equity principles.

Objectives:

At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Define race equity principles.
2. Identify and work to understand race equity principles.
3. Apply race equity principles.

MODULE 4: UNDERSTANDING RACE EQUITY PRINCIPLES

RACE EQUITY PRINCIPLES

Analyze Power

Power is the ability and capacity to control and influence other people and their actions, including their access to resources. The process of evaluating power includes looking for system imbalances that will appear as groupings of people that are consistently at a disadvantage.

Celebrate Culture

Culture is learned and shared human patterns or models for living; day-to-day living patterns. Some of the elements of culture include thoughts, beliefs, customs, values, and language. Culture is a way of life. Everyone has culture. Celebrating culture by honoring and respecting diversity enriches and strengthens bonds and relationships between people. Celebrating and sharing culture with one another is a uniting force.



Develop Leadership

Develop leadership is the process of identifying and enhancing the quality of leadership within an individual or organization. This process allows the opportunity for everyone to cultivate and advance the leadership skills necessary to strive for and achieve equity in their practice.



Challenge Individual Racism

Individual racism is the differential assumptions about the abilities, motives, and intents of others by race.

Maintain Accountability

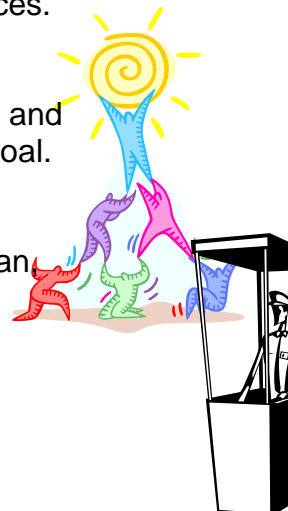
Accountability is the acknowledgment and assumption of responsibility for actions, inactions, decisions, policies, and practices. Systems, and those who work within them, must have a strong commitment of responsibility for all those that seek their services.

Networking

Networking is the building of a supportive system in which information, resources, and services are shared among individuals and groups having a common interest or goal.

Reshape Gatekeeping

A gatekeeper is anyone who controls the flow of resources whether they are human, monetary, or informational. Gatekeepers must consistently work to maintain accountable relationships with the people in the community that they serve.



MODULE 4: UNDERSTANDING RACE EQUITY PRINCIPLES

Race equity work is about changing *systems* whose practices, beliefs, and policies contribute to inequitable outcomes. Transforming systems is only possible when we are able to step back and examine *our* role in maintaining systems that benefit some and disadvantage others.

NOTES

MODULE 4: UNDERSTANDING RACE EQUITY PRINCIPLES

ACTION PLAN



❖ Which principles do I already use in my daily work?

❖ Which principles can I immediately incorporate into my work?

❖ What specific implementation strategies will I use?

❖ What resources and tools will I need?

❖ What or who will be obstacles to my success?

❖ What or who will be supportive of incorporating the principles into my work?

❖ How will I be able to measure my success?

MODULE 5: DATA DRIVEN STRATEGIES

Data Driven Strategies is the first component of the Texas Model and is critical to our ability to identify and then address disproportionality and disparities within our systems. Data driven strategies involves all data collection, research, and evaluation being reported by race and ethnicity and shared transparently with other systems and communities.

Goal(s):

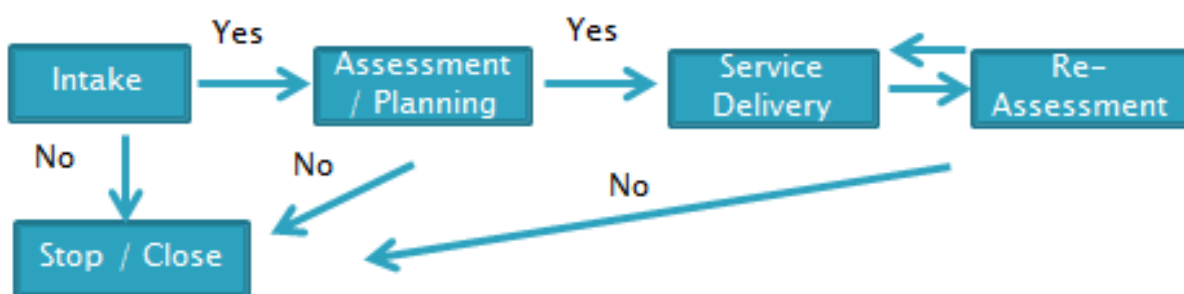
Understand the importance of collecting and evaluating outcome data by race and ethnicity.

Objectives:

At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Identify and recognize the importance of collecting and reporting data by race and ethnicity.
2. Identify decision points within an agency or system and explain how they can contribute to disparities.

Module Five: Data Driven Strategies Generic Decision Point Map



MODULE 5: DATA DRIVEN STRATEGIES

Consider

Please respond to the following:

Reflecting on the information you have received so far regarding data...

- ❖ What are some ways you use data in your daily work efforts, or what are some ways data impacts your job?

- ❖ Why is collecting and analyzing data by race and ethnicity so important for an accurate assessment of community needs?

- ❖ Are we perpetuating disparities and other differences by examining outcomes by race and ethnicity?

- ❖ What are the problems with taking a “colorblind” approach?

MODULE 6: COLLABORATION AND ENGAGEMENT WITH COMMUNITIES AND ACROSS SYSTEMS

Addressing disproportionality and disparities and promoting racial equity in service delivery requires an integrated and collaborative approach to meeting the needs of those served by systems. Agencies best serve individuals and families involved with multiple systems when they work together toward positive outcomes. Collaboration across systems and with communities enhances service delivery and ultimately improves the experiences and outcomes for the individuals and families being served. Effective collaboration involves identifying and building relationships in partnership with communities, other systems, institutions, and agencies whose services, programs, policies, and practices impact the same or similar populations.

Goal(s):

Understand the importance of collaboration and engagement with communities and across systems to eliminate disproportionality and disparities to achieve equity.

Objectives:

At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Identify the Principles of Collaboration and Engagement across systems and with communities and their importance in cross systems work.
2. Identify how seeking input from communities and across systems can improve one's daily practice.
3. Identify obstacles that can take place from systems towards communities and vice versa.

MODULE 6: COLLABORATION AND ENGAGEMENT WITH COMMUNITIES AND ACROSS SYSTEMS



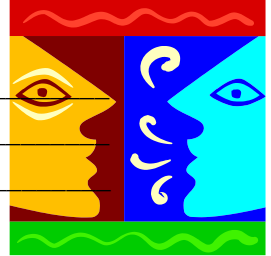
Collaboration and Engagement Principles:

1. Disproportionality and disparities exist in many systems and may have an adverse impact on the people we serve and those living in poverty.
2. Community and system partnerships form the cornerstone for addressing and eliminating racial and ethnic disproportionality and disparities.
3. Strengths and supports already present in communities and across systems contribute to eliminating disproportionality and disparities.
4. Community participation helps inform system practices and ensures community voices are heard and integrated.
5. Equity is attainable when community members and those who work in systems have this shared belief.
6. Race equity principles support effective collaboration and engagement across systems and with communities.

MODULE 6: COLLABORATION AND ENGAGEMENT WITH COMMUNITIES AND ACROSS SYSTEMS

Reflecting on the communities you serve and the Collaboration and Engagement principles...

- ❖ When do you think agencies and systems should collaborate with members of the community? Can you share an example from your own work?



- ❖ How can agencies and systems collaborate and engage members of the community?

- ❖ How does your daily work impact the people served by your system?

- ❖ How can your system maximize the community voice when carrying out work that will have direct impact on the community?

NOTES

MODULE 7: CONCLUSION

To achieve sustainable systems change, practices must be informed by communities and guided by a common understanding of the root causes of disproportionality and disparities which are seen when we look at data by race and ethnicity. Remember, no matter what our role, data impacts our work. We all have the ability to affect change and to ensure we strive for equitable outcomes for everyone we serve.

Goal(s):

Debrief modules, encourage implementation of skills learned, and close out the day.

Objectives:

At the end of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Summarize key points of each module.
2. Understand application of material to individual jobs.

MODULE 7: CONCLUSION

We have discussed the importance of collecting and reporting data by race and ethnicity, and how decision points within an agency or system can contribute to disparities. We learned about race equity principles, how they can be used in reforming our systems for the benefit of all, and how they provide a framework for transforming our systems to serve all people with a racial equity lens. We discussed the historical origins of our present-day systems and how policies can have unfavorable consequences. And finally, we learned about principles of collaboration with communities and across systems.



- ❖ What is something that you will do differently based on what you have learned?

- ❖ How will you use the ideas and skills you learned?

NOTES

Module Three Timeline References

1776 – Declaration of Independence. “The Declaration's most famous sentence reads: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.’ Even today, this inspirational language expresses a profound commitment to human equality. This ideal of equality has certainly influenced the course of American history . . . The ideal of full human equality has been a major legacy (and ongoing challenge) of the Declaration of Independence. But the signers of 1776 did not have quite that radical an agenda . . .” (Ushistory.org, 2014).

1789 – Constitution of the United States. “The Constitution of the United States of America is the supreme law of the United States. Empowered with the sovereign authority of the people by the framers and the consent of the legislatures of the states, it is the source of all government powers, and also provides important limitations on the government that protect the fundamental rights of United States citizens” (White House, 2014).

“For over two centuries the Constitution has remained in force because its framers successfully separated and balanced governmental powers to safeguard the interests of majority rule and minority rights, of liberty and equality, and of the central and state governments. More a concise statement of national principles than a detailed plan of governmental operation, the Constitution has evolved to meet the changing needs of a modern society profoundly different from the eighteenth-century world in which its creators lived” (United States Senate, 2014).

1789 – War Department. “The War Department was established in 1789, and was the precursor to what is now the Department of Defense” (United States Department of Defense, 2014).

1790 – Naturalization Act. “Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That any Alien being a free white person, who shall have resided within the limits and under the jurisdiction of the United States for the term of two years, may be admitted to become a citizen thereof on application to any common law Court of record in any one of the States wherein he shall have resided for the term of one year at least, and making proof to the satisfaction of such Court that he is a person of good character, and taking the oath or affirmation prescribed by law to support the Constitution of the United States, which Oath or Affirmation such Court shall administer, and the Clerk of such Court shall record such Application, and the proceedings thereon; and thereupon such person shall be considered as a Citizen of the United States. And the children of such person so naturalized, dwelling within the United States, being under the age of twenty one years at the time of such naturalization, shall also be considered as citizens of the United States. And the children of citizens of the United States that may be born beyond Sea, or out of the limits of the United States, shall be considered as natural born Citizens: Provided, that the right of citizenship shall not descend to persons whose fathers have never been resident in the United States: Provided also, that no person heretofore proscribed by any States, shall be admitted a citizen as aforesaid, except by an Act of the Legislature of the State in which such person was proscribed” (Library of Congress, 1790).

1824 – Office of Indian Affairs. “In the early years of the United States, Indian affairs were governed by the Continental Congress, which in 1775 created a Committee on Indian Affairs headed by Benjamin Franklin. Article I, Section 8, of the U.S. Constitution describes Congress's powers over Indian affairs: To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes. The BIA, one of the oldest bureaus in the Federal government, was administratively established by Secretary of War John C. Calhoun on March 11, 1824, to oversee and carry out the Federal government's trade and treaty relations with the tribes” (Bureau of Indian Affairs, 2014).

1830 – Indian Removal Act. “The Indian Removal Act was signed into law by Andrew Jackson on May 28, 1830, authorizing the president to grant unsettled lands west of the Mississippi in exchange for Indian lands within existing state borders. A few tribes went peacefully, but many resisted the relocation policy. During the fall and winter of 1838 and 1839, the Cherokees were forcibly moved west by the United States government. Approximately 4,000 Cherokees died on this forced march, which became known as the ‘Trail of Tears.’”

“In his Second Annual Message to Congress on December 6, 1830. Jackson's comments on Indian removal begin with the words, ‘It gives me pleasure to announce to Congress that the benevolent policy of the Government, steadily pursued for nearly thirty years, in relation to the removal of the Indians beyond the white settlements is approaching to a happy consummation. Two important tribes have accepted the provision made for their removal at the last session of Congress, and it is believed that their example will induce the remaining tribes also to seek the same obvious advantages’” (Library of Congress, 2014).

1836 – Texas Declaration of Independence. “The Texas edict, like the United States Declaration of Independence, contains a statement on the nature of government, a list of grievances, and a final declaration of independence. The separation from Mexico was justified by a brief philosophical argument and by a list of grievances submitted to an impartial world. The declaration charged that the government of Mexico had ceased to protect the lives, liberty, and property of the people; that it had been changed from a restricted federal republic to a consolidated, central, military despotism; that the people of Texas had remonstrated against the misdeeds of the government only to have their agents thrown into dungeons and armies sent forth to enforce the decrees of the new government at the point of the bayonet; that the welfare of Texas had been sacrificed to that of Coahuila; that the government had failed to provide a system of public education, trial by jury, freedom of religion, and other essentials of good government; and that the Indians had been incited to massacre the settlers. According to the declaration, the Mexican government had invaded Texas to lay waste territory and had a large mercenary army advancing to carry on a war of extermination. The final grievance listed in justification of revolution charged that the Mexican government had been “the contemptible sport and victim of successive military revolutions and hath continually exhibited every characteristic of a weak, corrupt, and tyrannical government” (Steen, 2014).

1836 – Constitution of the Republic of Texas. “The Constitution of the Republic of Texas (1836), the first Anglo-American constitution to govern Texas, was drafted by a convention of fifty-nine delegates who assembled at Washington-on-the-Brazos on March 1, 1836 . . . Typical American features included a short preamble; separation of the powers of government into three branches-legislative, executive, and judicial; checks and balances; [slavery](#); citizenship, with ‘Africans, the descendants of Africans, and Indians excepted’; a Bill of Rights; male suffrage; and method of amendment. The legislature was bicameral, the two houses being the Senate and the House of Representatives. The executive resembled the American presidency, and the four-tiered judiciary system comprised justice, county, district, and supreme courts, of which the district courts were the most important” (Ericson, 2010).

1836 – Republic of Texas establishes 8 as the age of criminal responsibility. “The age of adult criminal responsibility . . . had been 8 years old in 1836 and nine in 1856 . . .” (Jasinski, 2010).

1848 – Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. “Under the terms of the treaty negotiated by Trist, Mexico ceded to the United States Upper California and New Mexico. This was known as the Mexican Cession and included present-day Arizona and New Mexico and parts of Utah, Nevada, and Colorado (see Article V of the treaty). Mexico relinquished all claims to Texas and recognized the Rio Grande as the southern boundary with the United States (see Article V).

The United States paid Mexico \$15,000,000 'in consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States' and agreed to pay American citizens debts owed to them by the Mexican government (see Article XV). Other provisions included protection of property and civil rights of Mexican nationals living within the new boundaries of the United States (see Articles VIII and IX), the promise of the United States to police its boundaries (see Article XI), and compulsory arbitration of future disputes between the two countries (see Article XXI)" (Gray, 2014).

"As a result of the treaty, the United States acquired more than 500,000 square miles of valuable territory and emerged as a world power in the late nineteenth century . . . Within a generation the Mexican-Americans became a disenfranchised, poverty-stricken minority (del Castillo, 2014).

1853 – Legislature raises age of criminal responsibility to 13 and authorizes construction of a vocational training school for 'wayward' youths. (Jasinski, 2010).

1854 – Texas Common School Law. "The Common School Law of 1854 provided for the first state public school system in Texas (Centennial Handbook - Texas Public Schools 1854–1954, p. 1, Texas Education Agency). As a result of receiving \$10 million from the United States government in exchange for giving up claims to western lands claimed by the former Republic of Texas, Texas was able to retire the public debt of the Republic, and \$2 million was left over which the School Law of 1854 used to create a special fund for schools, which is known today as the Texas Permanent School Fund (Journal of Texas Public Education, Vol. 1, Winter 1993, p. 41, TASB)" (TEA, 2004).

1856 – Republic of Texas changes the age of criminal responsibility to 9. "The age of adult criminal responsibility . . . had been 8 years old in 1836 and nine in 1856 . . ." (Jasinski, 2010).

1862 – Homestead Act. "The new law established a three-fold homestead acquisition process: filing an application, improving the land, and filing for deed of title. Any U.S. citizen, or intended citizen, who had never borne arms against the U.S. Government could file an application and lay claim to 160 acres of surveyed Government land. For the next 5 years, the homesteader had to live on the land and improve it by building a 12-by-14 dwelling and growing crops. After 5 years, the homesteader could file for his patent (or deed of title) by submitting proof of residency and the required improvements to a local land office.

Local land offices forwarded the paperwork to the General Land Office in Washington, DC, along with a final certificate of eligibility. The case file was examined, and valid claims were granted patent to the land free and clear, except for a small registration fee. Title could also be acquired after a 6-month residency and trivial improvements, provided the claimant paid the government \$1.25 per acre. After the Civil War, Union soldiers could deduct the time they served from the residency requirements" (Potter & Schamel, 1997).

1862 – Morrill Act. "The Act provided grants in the form of federal lands to each state for the establishment of a public institution to fulfill the act's provisions. While a number of institutions had begun to expand upon the traditional classical curriculum, higher education was still widely unavailable to many agricultural and industrial workers. The Morrill Act was intended to provide a broad segment of the population with a practical education that had direct relevance to their daily lives. In Texas, the institution created was Texas A&M University and was established in 1876. There is now at least one land-grant institution in every state and territory of the United States, as well as the District of Columbia" (Texas A & M Agrilife Extension District 12, 2014).

1863 – Emancipation Proclamation. "President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863, as the nation approached its third year of bloody civil war. The proclamation declared 'that all persons held as slaves' within the rebellious states 'are, and henceforward shall be free'" (National Archives and Records Administration, 2014).

1865 – Freedman's Bureau. "The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, commonly known as the Freedmen's Bureau, was established by Congress in March 1865 as a branch of the United States Army. It was to be a temporary agency. Its functions were to provide relief to the thousands of refugees, black and white, who had been left homeless by the Civil War; to supervise affairs related to newly freed slaves in the southern states; and to administer all land abandoned by Confederates or confiscated from them during the war. Since the profits from administering the lands were to provide funds for the operation of the bureau, the bill establishing the agency did not appropriate money for it. President Andrew Johnson, however, returned most of the confiscated property to its owners, and Congress was forced to appropriate funds for the bureau's operations after the first year. Gen. Oliver Otis Howard was commissioner of the bureau throughout its existence. Under Howard was an extensive hierarchy of assistants and subassistants. Officers working with the bureau at the state level were headed by an assistant commissioner and included a superintendent of education, a traveling inspector, and, during the early months of the bureau's activities, a surgeon-in-chief.

The Freedmen's Bureau operated in Texas from late September 1865 until July 1870. During that time five men served as assistant commissioner: Edgar M. Gregory, from September 1865 until May 14, 1866; Joseph Kiddoo, until January 14, 1867; Charles Griffin, until his death on September 15, 1867; Joseph J. Reynolds, until January 1869; and Edward R. S. Canby, briefly, until he was replaced by Reynolds. In the beginning, at least, Howard regarded Texas as his most difficult sphere of operations. Much later in his Autobiography he recalled that the job of assistant commissioner for Texas, to which he was appointing Gregory, 'seemed at the time...to be the post of greatest peril'" (Harper, 2010).

1865 – Texas Emancipation Proclamation. JUNETEENTH. "On June 19 ('Juneteenth'), 1865, Union general [Gordon Granger](#) arrived in Galveston and issued General Order Number 3, which read in part, 'The people of Texas are informed that, in accordance with a proclamation from the Executive of the United States, all slaves are free. This involves an absolute equality of personal rights and rights of property between former masters and slaves, and the connection heretofore existing between them becomes that between employer and hired labor.' The tidings of freedom reached the approximately 250,000 slaves in Texas gradually as individual plantation owners informed their bondsmen over the months following the end of the war" (Acosta, 2013).

1867 – Federal Bureau of Education. ". . . which later became the Office of Education, was established" (TEA, 2004).

1879 – Indian Boarding School. "First off-reservation boarding school for Native children opens. Congress authorizes the establishment of the Carlisle Indian Industrial School in Pennsylvania. The school's first superintendent, Captain Henry Pratt, selects an abandoned army barracks as a school building. Pratt, who advocates 'Americanization' and cultural assimilation, famously states, 'Kill the Indian and save the man'" (National Library of Medicine, 2014).

1879 – Texas Quarantine Department. "In 1879 an act amending and supplementing the Quarantine Act of 1870 authorized the governor to appoint a 'medical health officer for the State.' This person was to be a physician 'familiar with yellow fever,' old enough to have mature judgment but not too old to be capable of active duty, and 'pledged to the importance of both quarantine and sanitation.' He was to operate exclusively under the direction of the governor and to be paid ten dollars for each day of service, plus travel expenses. Later that year, \$12,000 was appropriated to build quarantine stations along the coast and at the principal points of entry from other states. The original organization was called the Texas Quarantine Department" (Bernstein, 2010).

1889 – Gatesville State School for Boys. "Gatesville State School for Boys, three miles northeast of Gatesville in Coryell County, was the first juvenile training and rehabilitation institution in the southern

United States. It was established by the Texas legislature in 1887 and opened in January 1889 as the House of Correction and Reformatory, a division of the Texas penal system" (Markham & Field, 2010).

1890 – Morrill Act. "The Second Morrill Act (1890) sought to extend access to higher education by providing additional endowments for all land-grants, but prohibiting distribution of money to states that made distinctions of race in admissions. However, states that provided a separate land-grant institution for blacks were eligible to receive the funds. In Texas, the Second Morrill Act helped establish Prairie View A&M University" (Texas A & M Agrilife Extension District 12, 2014).

1912 – The Children's Bureau. "The Children's Bureau is the first federal agency within the U.S. Government . . . to focus exclusively on improving the lives of children and families. Since its creation by President Taft in 1912, the bureau has tackled some of our nation's most pressing social issues . . ." (Children's Bureau, 2014).

1913 – Gainesville State School for Girls. "Gainesville State School for Girls was established in 1913 as a home for delinquent and dependent girls. Girls between the ages of eight and seventeen are sent to the institution by court order." (Hart, 2010).

1918 – Age of criminal responsibility is raised to 17. "The age of adult criminal responsibility, which had been eight years old in 1836 and nine in 1856, was raised to age seventeen in 1918 . . ." (Jasinski, 2010).

1931 – Texas Division of Child Welfare. "The child protection program began with the Child Welfare Division created by the Texas Legislature in 1931 as a program within the Texas Board of Control. During the following decades, federal, state and county participation in services to abused and neglected children gradually increased. The Texas Family Code, created in 1974, gave the Texas Department of Public Welfare more responsibility for services to abused, neglected, truant and runaway children. Under the code, the failure to report suspected abuse or neglect of children became a misdemeanor offense.

In 1987, the Texas Legislature enacted statutory definitions of child abuse and child neglect. The definitions are incorporated in the Texas Family Code and serve to identify the jurisdiction for Child Protective Services (CPS) involvement in families. In 1992, the Texas Legislature formed the Texas Department of Protective and Regulatory Services; and CPS, along with Adult Protective Services and Child Care Licensing, became major programs within the new agency.

The 78th Texas Legislature, Regular Session, created the Texas Department of Family and Protective Services with the passage of House Bill 2292. DFPS is charged with protecting children, adults who are elderly or have disabilities living at home or in state facilities, and licensing group day-care homes, day-care centers, and registered family homes. The agency is also charged with managing community-based programs that prevent delinquency, abuse, neglect and exploitation of Texas children, elderly and disabled adults" (Texas Department of Family and Protective Services, 2009).

1931 – Texas Commission for the Blind. "The State Commission for the Blind was established in 1931 for rehabilitation of blind people by physical and vocational training. Initially the commission was composed of six members, appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate, with two members required to be graduates of [Texas School for the Blind](#)" (Johnson, 2010).

1933 – New Deal. "The Great Depression in the United States began on October 29, 1929, a day known forever after as 'Black Tuesday,' when the American stock market—which had been roaring steadily upward for almost a decade—crashed, plunging the country into its most severe economic downturn yet. Speculators lost their shirts; banks failed; the nation's money supply diminished; and companies went bankrupt and began to fire their workers in droves. Meanwhile, President Herbert Hoover urged patience

and self-reliance: He thought the crisis was just 'a passing incident in our national lives' that it wasn't the federal government's job to try and resolve. By 1932, one of the bleakest years of the Great Depression, at least one-quarter of the American workforce was unemployed. When President Franklin Roosevelt took office in 1933, he acted swiftly to try and stabilize the economy and provide jobs and relief to those who were suffering. Over the next eight years, the government instituted a series of experimental projects and programs, known collectively as the New Deal, that aimed to restore some measure of dignity and prosperity to many Americans. More than that, Roosevelt's New Deal permanently changed the federal government's relationship to the U.S. populace" (History.com, 2009).

1934 – Federal Housing Authority. "As the depression ended, and the prospect of improved financial status for individual families increased, the National Housing Act of 1934 was passed to relieve unemployment and stimulate the release of private credit in the hands of banks and lending institutions for home repairs and construction. To accomplish this, the Act of 1934 created the Federal Housing Administration (FHA). The FHA continues to this day, under the Assistant Secretary for Housing-Federal Housing Commissioner, as the main federal agency handling mortgage insurance . . ." (United States Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2007).

1935 – Social Security Act - Aid to Dependent Children. "The Social Security Act (Act of August 14, 1935) [H. R. 7260] An act to provide for the general welfare by establishing a system of Federal old-age benefits, and by enabling the several States to make more adequate provision for aged persons, blind persons, dependent and crippled children, maternal and child welfare, public health, and the administration of their unemployment compensation laws; to establish a Social Security Board; to raise revenue; and for other purposes" (SSA, 1935).

1939 – Texas Public Welfare Act. "In 1939 the legislature established the Department of Public Welfare, incorporating the earlier agencies under a more centralized control. . . The major duties of the department were to administer the state laws regarding assistance to the needy aged, dependent children, and blind and to carry out the state's child welfare program . . . In 1965 the Department of Public Welfare was authorized to cooperate with the federal government in administering the anti-poverty program, which had been established the previous year" (Smyrl, 2010).

1939 – Food Stamp Plan. "To formalize this food distribution and to avoid duplicating efforts by local relief agencies, Secretary of Agriculture, Henry Wallace, created the Food Stamp Program in the United States. The initiative, called the 'Food Stamps Plan,' was implemented in 1939 under the administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt as a key component of the New Deal program. Food assistance was made available to low-income individuals through the purchase of food stamps and the provision of additional bonus stamps that could be used to purchase specific foods identified as being in surplus. Participants in the program purchased booklets of orange stamps to buy food and household items including starch, soap and matches but the stamps could not be used to buy alcohol, tobacco or foods eaten at stores. For every \$1 in orange stamps that were purchased, an additional \$0.50 of blue stamps were given to participants. Blue stamps could be used to buy commodity surplus foods that were listed in the grocery store including dry beans, flour, corn meal, eggs and fresh vegetables. Participants were required to buy the stamps so that money allocated for food purchases would not be spent on non-food items. The program ended in 1943, as World War II and the subsequent economic boom significantly decreased the number of people living in poverty in the United States" (Center for the Study of the Presidency and Congress / Snap to Health, 2014).

1942 – Bracero program. "By the late thirties, when the crop fields [in México] began yielding insufficient harvest and employment became scarce, the peasant was forced to look for other means of survival.

The occurrence of this grave situation coincided with the emergence of a demand in manual labor in the U.S. brought about by World War II. On August 4, 1942, the U.S. and the Mexican government instituted the Bracero program. Thousands of impoverished Mexicans abandoned their rural communities and headed north to work as braceros.

The majority of the braceros were experienced farm laborers . . . who stopped working their land and growing food for their families with the illusion that they would be able to earn a vast amount of money on the other side of the border.

The bracero contracts were controlled by independent farmers associations and the 'Farm Bureau.' The contracts were in English and the braceros would sign them without understanding their full rights and the conditions of employment. When the contracts expired, the braceros were required to turn in their permits and return to México. The braceros could return to their native lands in case of an emergency, only with written permission from their boss.

The braceros, a very experienced farm labor, became the foundation for the development of North American agriculture. Despite their enormous contribution to the American economy, the braceros suffered harassment and oppression from extremist groups and racist authorities.

By the 60's, an excess of 'illegal' agricultural workers along with the introduction of the mechanical cotton harvester, destroyed the practicality and attractiveness of the bracero program. The program under which more than three million Mexicans entered the U.S. to labor in the agricultural fields ended in 1964. The U.S. Department of Labor officer in charge of the program, Lee G. Williams, had described it as a system of 'legalized slavery.'

The braceros returned home. Unable to survive in their communities, however, they continue to cross the Río Bravo (or Río Grande) to work in the farms and ranches of this country. In the fields of West Texas and Southern New Mexico, you will still find braceros. They are now known as chili pickers and continue to be one of the most exploited labor groups in the U.S." (Marentes & Marentes, 1999).

1944 – GI Bill. "President Franklin D. Roosevelt signs the G.I. Bill into law.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt's Statement on Signing the G.I. Bill
June 22, 1944

'This bill, which I have signed today, substantially carries out most of the recommendations made by me in a speech on July 28, 1943, and more specifically in messages to the Congress dated October 27, 1943, and November 23, 1943:

It gives servicemen and women the opportunity of resuming their education or technical training after discharge, or of taking a refresher or retrainer course, not only without tuition charge up to \$500 per school year, but with the right to receive a monthly living allowance while pursuing their studies.

It makes provision for the guarantee by the Federal Government of not to exceed 50 percent of certain loans made to veterans for the purchase or construction of homes, farms, and business properties.

It provides for reasonable unemployment allowances payable each week up to a maximum period of one year, to those veterans who are unable to find a job.

It establishes improved machinery for effective job counseling for veterans and for finding jobs for returning soldiers and sailors.

It authorizes the construction of all necessary additional hospital facilities.

It strengthens the authority of the Veterans Administration to enable it to discharge its existing and added responsibilities with promptness and efficiency.

With the signing of this bill a well-rounded program of special veterans' benefits is nearly completed. It gives emphatic notice to the men and women in our armed forces that the American people do not intend to let them down.

By prior legislation, the Federal Government has already provided for the armed forces of this war: adequate dependency allowances; mustering-out pay; generous hospitalization, medical care, and vocational rehabilitation and training; liberal pensions in case of death or disability in military service; substantial war risk life insurance, and guaranty of premiums on commercial policies during service; protection of civil rights and suspension of enforcement of certain civil liabilities during service; emergency maternal care for wives of enlisted men; and reemployment rights for returning veterans.

This bill therefore and the former legislation provide the special benefits which are due to the members of our armed forces -- for they 'have been compelled to make greater economic sacrifice and every other kind of sacrifice than the rest of us, and are entitled to definite action to help take care of their special problems.' While further study and experience may suggest some changes and improvements, the Congress is to be congratulated on the prompt action it has taken" (United States Department of Veteran Affairs, 2014).

1947 – Méndez v. Westminster. ". . . a 1947 case that prohibited segregating Latino schoolchildren from white children. It proved to be an important predecessor to *Brown v. Board of Education*, in which the U.S. Supreme Court determined that a 'separate but equal' policy in schools violated the Constitution" (Nittle, 2014).

"Using Méndez, district courts in Texas and Arizona ruled to end segregation for Mexican Americans before the U.S. Supreme Court decided that all state-sponsored segregation is unconstitutional in *Brown*" (National Park Service, 2014).

1947 – Crockett State School. "In 1927 the Texas legislature authorized the state Board of Control to establish a correctional facility for delinquent black girls. Not until 1945, however, did the legislature appropriate funds for such a facility. In August 1946 the Board of Control entered into a lease agreement with the federal government for use of the former prisoner of war camp near Brady, McCulloch County. Brady State School for Negro Girls opened to students in February 1947. By the end of August 1947 forty-eight girls had been admitted. Before the establishment of the Brady school, there was no facility in the state that would admit delinquent black girls" (Smyrl, 2010).

1948 – American GI Forum of Texas. "On March 26, 1948, 700 Mexican-American veterans, led by Hector P. Garcia, met in Corpus Christi and organized the American G.I. Forum, a civil-rights organization devoted to securing equal rights for Hispanic Americans. The first issue the forum dealt with was the failure of the Veterans Administration to deliver earned benefits through the G.I. Bill of Rights of 1944. After securing those benefits, the forum addressed other veterans' concerns, such as hospital care and Mexican-American representation on draft boards. In 1949 the director of the Rice Funeral Home in Three Rivers refused the use of his chapel for the funeral of Private Felix Longoria. . . Garcia and the Corpus Christi forum organized a widespread protest that gained national attention. Eventually, through the intervention of [Lyndon B. Johnson](#), Longoria was buried in Arlington National Cemetery. The incident in Three Rivers established the forum as an effective civil-rights advocate for Hispanics and expanded the scope and nature of its activities" (Allsup, 2010).

1949 – Texas Youth Development Council (TYC). "The Gilmer-Aikin Laws established the Texas Youth Development Council in 1949. It consisted of fourteen members, with the commissioner of the

Department of Public Welfare serving as the council's executive secretary. . . In 1983 the legislature changed the name of the Texas Youth Council to the Texas Youth Commission, to be governed by a six-member board appointed by the governor with Senate concurrence" (Jasinski, 2010).

1953 – Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. "The Cabinet-level Department of Health, Education and Welfare was created under President Eisenhower, officially coming into existence April 11, 1953. In 1979, the Department of Education Organization Act was signed into law, providing for a separate Department of Education. HEW became the Department of Health and Human Services, officially arriving on May 4, 1980" (United States Department of Health and Human Services, 2014).

1954 – Brown v. Board of Education. "On May 17, 1954, U.S. Supreme Court Justice Earl Warren delivered the unanimous ruling in the landmark civil rights case *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*. State-sanctioned segregation of public schools was a violation of the 14th Amendment and was therefore unconstitutional. This historic decision marked the end of the 'separate but equal' precedent set by the Supreme Court nearly 60 years earlier and served as a catalyst for the expanding civil rights movement during the decade of the 1950s.

While the 13th Amendment to the United States Constitution outlawed slavery, it wasn't until three years later, in 1868, that the 14th Amendment guaranteed the rights of citizenship to all persons born or naturalized in the United States, including due process and equal protection of the laws. These two amendments, as well as the 15th Amendment protecting voting rights, were intended to eliminate the last remnants of slavery and to protect the citizenship of black Americans. In 1875, Congress also passed the first Civil Rights Act, which held the 'equality of all men before the law' and called for fines and penalties for anyone found denying patronage of public places, such as theaters and inns, on the basis of race. However, a reactionary Supreme Court reasoned that this act was beyond the scope of the 13th and 14th Amendments, as these amendments only concerned the actions of the government, not those of private citizens. With this ruling, the Supreme Court narrowed the field of legislation that could be supported by the Constitution and at the same time turned the tide against the civil rights movement.

By the late 1800s, segregation laws became almost universal in the South where previous legislation and amendments were, for all practical purposes, ignored. The races were separated in schools, in restaurants, in restrooms, on public transportation, and even in voting and holding office. In 1896 the Supreme Court upheld the lower courts' decision in the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*. Homer Plessy, a black man from Louisiana, challenged the constitutionality of segregated railroad coaches, first in the state courts and then in the U. S. Supreme Court. The high court upheld the lower courts noting that since the separate cars provided equal services, the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment was not violated. Thus, the 'separate but equal' doctrine became the constitutional basis for segregation. One dissenter on the Court, Justice John Marshall Harlan, declared the Constitution 'color blind' and accurately predicted that this decision would become as baneful as the infamous Dred Scott decision of 1857.

In 1909 the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was officially formed to champion the modern black civil rights movement. In its early years its primary goals were to eliminate lynching and to obtain fair trials for blacks. By the 1930s, however, the activities of the NAACP began focusing on the complete integration of American society. One of their strategies was to force admission of blacks into universities at the graduate level where establishing separate but equal facilities would be difficult and expensive for the states. At the forefront of this movement was Thurgood Marshall, a young black lawyer who, in 1938, became general counsel for the NAACP's Legal Defense and Education Fund. Their significant victories at this level included *Gaines v. University of Missouri* in 1938, *Sipuel v. Board of Regents of University of Oklahoma* in 1948, and *Sweatt v. Painter* in 1950. In each of these cases, the

goal of the NAACP defense team was to attack the 'equal' standard so that the 'separate' standard would in turn become susceptible.

By the 1950s, the NAACP was beginning to support challenges to segregation at the elementary school level. Five separate cases were filed in Kansas, South Carolina, Virginia, the District of Columbia, and Delaware . . . While each case had its unique elements, all were brought on the behalf of elementary school children, and all involved black schools that were inferior to white schools. Most important, rather than just challenging the inferiority of the separate schools, each case claimed that the 'separate but equal' ruling violated the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment. The lower courts ruled against the plaintiffs in each case, noting the *Plessy v. Ferguson* ruling of the United States Supreme Court as precedent. In the case of *Brown v. Board of Education*, the federal district court even cited the injurious effects of segregation on black children, but held that 'separate but equal' was still not a violation of the Constitution. It was clear to those involved that the only effective route to terminating segregation in public schools was going to be through the United States Supreme Court.

In 1952 the Supreme Court agreed to hear all five cases collectively. This grouping was significant because it represented school segregation as a national issue, not just a southern one. Thurgood Marshall, one of the lead attorneys for the plaintiffs (he argued the Briggs case), and his fellow lawyers provided testimony from more than 30 social scientists affirming the deleterious effects of segregation on blacks and whites. . . The lawyers for the school boards based their defense primarily on precedent, such as the *Plessy v. Ferguson* ruling, as well as on the importance of states' rights in matters relating to education. Realizing the significance of their decision and being divided among themselves, the Supreme Court took until June 1953 to decide they would rehear arguments for all five cases. The arguments were scheduled for the following term, at which time the Court wanted to hear both sides' opinions of what Congress had in mind regarding school segregation when the 14th Amendment was originally passed.

In September 1953, President Eisenhower appointed Earl Warren, governor of California, the new Supreme Court chief justice. Eisenhower believed Warren would follow a moderate course of action toward desegregation . . . In his brief to the Warren Court that December, Thurgood Marshall described the separate but equal ruling as erroneous and called for an immediate reversal under the 14th Amendment. He argued that it allowed the government to prohibit any state action based on race, including segregation in public schools. The defense countered this interpretation pointing to several states that were practicing segregation at the time they ratified the 14th Amendment. Surely they would not have done so if they had believed the 14th Amendment applied to segregation laws. The U.S. Department of Justice also filed a brief; it was in favor of desegregation but asked for a gradual changeover.

Over the next few months, the new chief justice worked to bring the splintered Court together. He knew that clear guidelines and gradual implementation were going to be important considerations, as the largest concern remaining among the justices was the racial unrest that would doubtless follow their ruling. Finally, on May 17, 1954, Chief Justice Earl Warren read the unanimous opinion; school segregation by law was unconstitutional. Arguments were to be heard during the next term to determine just how the ruling would be imposed. Just over one year later, on May 31, 1955, Warren read the Court's unanimous decision, now referred to as *Brown II*, instructing the states to begin desegregation plans 'with all deliberate speed.' . . .

Despite two unanimous decisions and careful, if not vague, wording, there was considerable resistance to the Supreme Court's ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*. In addition to the obvious disapproving segregationists were some constitutional scholars who felt that the decision went against legal tradition by relying heavily on data supplied by social scientists rather than precedent or established law. Supporters

of judicial restraint believed the Court had overstepped its constitutional powers by essentially writing new law. . ." (National Archives, 2014).

1954 – Hernández v. Texas. "The first and only Mexican-American civil-rights case heard and decided by the United States Supreme Court during the post-World War II period was *Hernández v. the State of Texas*. In 1950 Pete Hernández, a migrant cotton picker, was accused of murdering Joe Espinosa in Edna, Texas, a small town in Jackson County, where no person of Mexican origin had served on a jury for at least twenty-five years. Gustavo (Gus) García, an experienced Mexican-American civil-rights lawyer, agreed to represent the accused without fee. García envisioned the Hernández case as a challenge to the systematic exclusion of persons of Mexican origin from all types of jury duty in at least seventy counties in Texas. It was not surprising to him when Hernández was found guilty and the decision was upheld by the Texas Court of Criminal Appeals. The Supreme Court acted upon a *writ of certiorari* and heard the arguments on January 11, 1954. With García were James de Anda and Chris Alderete of the American G.I. Forum and Carlos Cadena and John J. Herrera of the League of United Latin American Citizens. García argued that the Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed protection not only on the basis of race, Caucasian and Negro, but also class. Those who administered the process of jury selection introduced discrimination because of exclusion based on class. The state of Texas contended that the Fourteenth Amendment covered only whites and blacks, and that Mexican Americans are white. The state admitted that no person with a Spanish surname had served on any type of jury for twenty-five years, but that this absence only indicated coincidence, not a pattern of attitude and behavior. García and his associates presented comprehensive evidence that in Jackson County discrimination and segregation were common practice, and Mexican Americans were treated as a class apart.

Chief Justice Earl Warren delivered the unanimous opinion of the court in favor of Hernández and ordered a reversal of conviction. The Supreme Court accepted the concept of distinction by class, that is, between 'white' and Hispanic, and found that when laws produce unreasonable and different treatment on such a basis, the constitutional guarantee of equal protection is violated. The court held that Hernández had 'the right to be indicted and tried by juries from which all members of his class are not systematically excluded.' This decision was a major triumph for the 'other white' concept, the legal strategy of Mexican-American civil-rights activists from 1930 to 1970. Faced with the separate but equal doctrine they argued that segregation of Mexican-origin persons was illegal in the absence of state law. *Hernández* was the logical extension of that argument. The case was a valuable precedent until it was replaced in 1971 by *Cisneros v. Corpus Christi ISD*, which recognized Hispanics as an identifiable minority group and utilized the *Brown* decision of 1954 to prohibit segregation" (Allsup, 2010).

1955 – Indian Health Services. Treaties exchanged aboriginal lands for federal trust responsibilities and benefits. Snyder Act authorized funds "for the relief of distress and conservation of health ... [and] for the employment of ... physicians ... for Indian tribes throughout the United States." (1921). Transfer Act placed Indian health programs in the PHS. (1955) The appropriation to IHS by Congress to provide medical services and health care programs are made available through the Snyder Act of 1921. The IHS must compete with other agencies for Federal funds through Congress; therefore, funds appropriated for IHS programs cannot be designated as entitlement programs.

History - "Federal health services for Indians began under War Department auspices in the early 1800's. At this time the Federal Indian policy was primarily one of military containment. As early as 1802 or 1803 Army physicians took emergency measures to curb contagious diseases among Indian tribes in the vicinity of military posts. The first large scale smallpox vaccination of Indians was authorized by Congress in 1832. Transfer of the Indian program from the War Department to the Department of the Interior, newly created in 1849 to deal with the Nation's resources, stimulated the extension of physicians' services to Indians. Federal construction of hospitals and infirmaries began in the early 1880's, originally

to serve Indian boarding school students almost exclusively. Nurses appeared on the staff for the first time in the 1890's.

Professional medical supervision of Indian health activities began with the establishment of the position of Chief Medical Supervisor in 1908. Appropriations designated specifically for general health services to Indians first appeared in the budget in fiscal year 1911. Creation of the Health Division in 1924 raised the status of the program and allowed direct access to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. Officers of the Public Health Service Commissioned Corps have been detailed to the Indian health program to meet the needs for qualified staff, especially in the supervisory posts, since 1926. Proposals for transfer of the program to the Public Health Service were made by the House Committee on Indian Affairs as early as 1919, but were rejected at that time by both the Public Health Service and the Bureau of Indian Affairs as undesirable and impracticable. A similar proposal was made in 1949 by the Hoover Commission's Task Force on Public Welfare, and was supported by the Association of State and Territorial Health Officers, the American Medical Association, the Association on American Indian Affairs, and others. The transfer was made on July 1, 1955, to the Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare as the agency responsible for the country's human resources" (Indian Health Service, 2014).

1960 – Flemming Rule. "Children of color throughout America, and especially those who are African American, are disproportionately represented in the child welfare system. One explanation for this phenomenon may lie in the historical evolution and implementation of the Flemming Rule . . ." (Lawrence-Webb, 1997, p. 9)

"The Flemming Rule was implemented in response to the national publicity garnered by the 1960 actions of Louisiana and other states where mass expulsions took place. The public outcry that arose as a result of the actions of the Louisiana state government in its expulsion of 23,000 children from the welfare rolls in 1960 was overwhelming, although it was not the first time states had taken that kind of action.

Mississippi had engaged in this practice in the early 1950s and Florida had done so just a year earlier in 1959, when it expelled 14,000 children (over 90% of them African Americans) from the welfare rolls without any public outcry.

The Flemming Rule declared that if a state believed a particular home was 'unsuitable,' that state had to (1) provide due process protections for the family, and (2) provide service interventions to families that were deemed to be 'unsuitable.' States could no longer simply apply a label of "unsuitable," expel the family from the AFDC rolls, and ignore the family. The rule was the first action taken against the arbitrary state home suitability policies . . ." (Lawrence-Webb, 1997, 12-13).

1964 – 1st Bi-Lingual Education Program (Texas). "1964 Superintendent Harold Brantley of the Laredo United Consolidated School District launched the first bilingual program in Texas. He built on the experience of the first bilingual program in the nation, initiated in the Coral Way school in Dade County, Florida. At Coral Way federal funds supported bilingual education for Cuban immigrants and inspired similar ventures elsewhere in the nation. Brantley made the initial effort in the first grade of the Nye Elementary School, and expanded the program into the second and third grades. The idea spread to schools in San Antonio, McAllen, Edgewood, San Marcos, Harlandale, Zapata, Del Rio, Edinburg, Bandera, El Paso, La Joya, Mission, Corpus Christi, and Del Valle. The programs fostered the transition of Spanish-speaking children from instruction in their native language to English-only teaching and learning. The program ranged from exclusive instruction in Spanish with gradual integration of ESL, to thirty minutes a day in Spanish with the rest of the instruction in English. District funds financed the initial programs and later were supplemented with federal subsidies available under Title I or Title III of the 1965

Elementary and Secondary Education Act. By May 1969, Texas had sixteen school districts with bilingual programs serving 10,003 students" (Rodríguez, 2010).

1964 – Civil Rights Act. "In 1964 Congress passed Public Law 88-352 (78 Stat. 241). The provisions of this civil rights act forbade discrimination on the basis of sex as well as race in hiring, promoting, and firing. The word 'sex' was added at the last moment. According to the *West Encyclopedia of American Law*, Representative Howard W. Smith (D-VA) added the word. His critics argued that Smith, a conservative Southern opponent of federal civil rights, did so to kill the entire bill. Smith, however, argued that he had amended the bill in keeping with his support of Alice Paul and the National Women's Party with whom he had been working. Martha W. Griffiths (D-MI) led the effort to keep the word 'sex' in the bill. In the final legislation, Section 703 (a) made it unlawful for an employer to 'fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions or privileges or employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.' The final bill also allowed sex to be a consideration when sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for the job. Title VII of the act created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to implement the law.

Subsequent legislation expanded the role of the EEOC. Today, according to the *U. S. Government Manual of 1998-99*, the EEOC enforces laws that prohibit discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, disability, or age in hiring, promoting, firing, setting wages, testing, training, apprenticeship, and all other terms and conditions of employment. Race, color, sex, creed, and age are now protected classes. The proposal to add each group to protected-class status unleashed furious debate. But no words stimulate the passion of the debate more than 'affirmative action.'

As West defines the term, affirmative action 'refers to both mandatory and voluntary programs intended to affirm the civil rights of designated classes of individuals by taking positive action to protect them' from discrimination. The issue for most Americans is fairness: Should the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment be used to advance the liberty of one class of individuals for good reasons when that action may infringe on the liberty of another?

The EEOC, as an independent regulatory body, plays a major role in dealing with this issue. Since its creation in 1964, Congress has gradually extended EEOC powers to include investigatory authority, creating conciliation programs, filing lawsuits, and conducting voluntary assistance programs. While the Civil Rights Act of 1964 did not mention the words affirmative action, it did authorize the bureaucracy to make rules to help end discrimination" (National Archives, 2014).

1964 – Food Stamp Act. "In 1964, The Food Stamp Act (P.L. 88-525) was passed as a part of President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society Program. Ms. Isabelle M. Kelley, the principal author of the Food Stamp Act of 1964, also served as the first Director of the Food Stamp Program. The goal of this initiative was to achieve a more effective use of agricultural overproduction, improve levels of nutrition among individuals with low-incomes and strengthen the agricultural economy. The Food Stamp Program required the purchase of 'stamps' or coupons at benefit levels similar to what a household would normally allot to food expenditures. A 'bonus' amount (benefit), which was determined based on a participant's income level, was awarded to enable the purchase of a low-cost nutritionally adequate diet as defined by the Economy Food Plan. A U.S. House of Representatives provision to limit the purchase of soft drinks and 'luxury' foods was eliminated from the final version of the bill. The federal government funded the program and licensed retailers, while the states authorized applications for food stamps and distributed the benefits. The legislation prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, religion, national origin, or political ideology of participants" (Center for the Study of the Presidency and Congress / Snap to Health, 2014).

1965 – Voting Rights Act. "By 1965 concerted efforts to break the grip of state disfranchisement had been under way for some time, but had achieved only modest success overall and in some areas had proved almost entirely ineffectual. The murder of voting-rights activists in Philadelphia, Mississippi, gained national attention, along with numerous other acts of violence and terrorism. Finally, the unprovoked attack on March 7, 1965, by state troopers on peaceful marchers crossing the Edmund Pettus Bridge in Selma, Alabama, en route to the state capitol in Montgomery, persuaded the President and Congress to overcome Southern legislators' resistance to effective voting rights legislation. President Johnson issued a call for a strong voting rights law and hearings began soon thereafter on the bill that would become the Voting Rights Act.

Congress determined that the existing federal anti-discrimination laws were not sufficient to overcome the resistance by state officials to enforcement of the 15th Amendment. The legislative hearings showed that the Department of Justice's efforts to eliminate discriminatory election practices by litigation on a case-by-case basis had been unsuccessful in opening up the registration process; as soon as one discriminatory practice or procedure was proven to be unconstitutional and enjoined, a new one would be substituted in its place and litigation would have to commence anew.

President Johnson signed the resulting legislation into law on August 6, 1965. Section 2 of the Act, which closely followed the language of the 15th amendment, applied a nationwide prohibition against the denial or abridgment of the right to vote on the literacy tests on a nationwide basis. Among its other provisions, the Act contained special enforcement provisions targeted at those areas of the country where Congress believed the potential for discrimination to be the greatest. Under Section 5, jurisdictions covered by these special provisions could not implement any change affecting voting until the Attorney General or the United States District Court for the District of Columbia determined that the change did not have a discriminatory purpose and would not have a discriminatory effect. In addition, the Attorney General could designate a county covered by these special provisions for the appointment of a federal examiner to review the qualifications of persons who wanted to register to vote. Further, in those counties where a federal examiner was serving, the Attorney General could request that federal observers monitor activities within the county's polling place.

The Voting Rights Act had not included a provision prohibiting poll taxes, but had directed the Attorney General to challenge its use. In *Harper v. Virginia State Board of Elections*, 383 U.S. 663 (1966), the Supreme Court held Virginia's poll tax to be unconstitutional under the 14th Amendment. Between 1965 and 1969 the Supreme Court also issued several key decisions upholding the constitutionality of Section 5 and affirming the broad range of voting practices that required Section 5 review. As the Supreme Court put it in its 1966 decision upholding the constitutionality of the Act" (United States Department of Justice, 2014):

Congress had found that case-by-case litigation was inadequate to combat wide-spread and persistent discrimination in voting, because of the inordinate amount of time and energy required to overcome the obstructionist tactics invariably encountered in these lawsuits. After enduring nearly a century of systematic resistance to the Fifteenth Amendment, Congress might well decide to shift the advantage of time and inertia from the perpetrators of the evil to its victims.

South Carolina v. Katzenbach, 383 U.S. 301, 327-28 (1966).

1965 – Medicare/Medicaid. "With the signing of H.R. 6675 on July 30, 1965, the President put into law the Medicare program comprised of two related health insurance plans for persons aged 65 and over: (1) a hospital insurance plan providing protection against the costs of hospital and related care, and (2) a supplementary medical insurance plan covering payments for physicians' services and other medical and

health services to cover certain areas not covered by the hospital insurance plan" (Social Security Administration, 2014).

"Title XIX of the Social Security Act is a federal and state entitlement program that pays for medical assistance for certain individuals and families with low incomes and resources. This program, known as Medicaid, became law in 1965 as a cooperative venture jointly funded by the federal and state governments (including the District of Columbia and the territories) to assist states in furnishing medical assistance to eligible needy persons. Medicaid is the largest source of funding for medical and health-related services for America's poorest people" (United States Social Security Administration Office of Retirement and Disability Policy, 2011).

1965 – Texas Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation. "The Texas Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation was established in 1965 by the Texas legislature, replacing the former Board for Texas State Hospitals and Special Schools. The department's mission is to offer an array of services responding to the needs of individuals with mental illness and mental retardation, enabling them to make choices resulting in lives of dignity and increased independence. With passage of the Texas Mental Health/Mental Retardation Act of 1965, the department's role was narrowed almost exclusively to mental health and mental retardation services. In its previous incarnation, the agency had provided services for Texans with tuberculosis, orphans, and individuals who were blind and deaf. TXMHMR has grown to Texas's largest state agency (in terms of employees) from its beginning in 1861 in Austin, where the first state mental hospital was opened" (Jones & Allee, 2010).

1968 – Fair Housing Act. "On April 11, 1968, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1968, which was meant as a follow-up to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The 1968 act expanded on previous acts and prohibited discrimination concerning the sale, rental, and financing of housing based on race, religion, national origin, sex, (and as amended) handicap and family status. Title VIII of the Act is also known as the Fair Housing Act (of 1968).

The enactment of the federal Fair Housing Act on April 11, 1968 came only after a long and difficult journey. From 1966-1967, Congress regularly considered the fair housing bill, but failed to garner a strong enough majority for its passage. However, when the Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. was assassinated on April 4, 1968, President Lyndon Johnson utilized this national tragedy to urge for the bill's speedy Congressional approval. Since the 1966 open housing marches in Chicago, Dr. King's name had been closely associated with the fair housing legislation. President Johnson viewed the Act as a fitting memorial to the man's life work, and wished to have the Act passed prior to Dr. King's funeral in Atlanta.

Another significant issue during this time period was the growing casualty list from Vietnam. The deaths in Vietnam fell heaviest upon young, poor African-American and Hispanic infantrymen. However, on the home front, these men's families could not purchase or rent homes in certain residential developments on account of their race or national origin. Specialized organizations like the NAACP, the GI Forum and the National Committee Against Discrimination In Housing lobbied hard for the Senate to pass the Fair Housing Act and remedy this inequity. Senators Edward Brooke and Edward Kennedy of Massachusetts argued deeply for the passage of this legislation. In particular, Senator Brooke, the first African-American ever to be elected to the Senate by popular vote, spoke personally of his return from World War II and inability to provide a home of his choice for his new family because of his race.

With the cities rioting after Dr. King's assassination, and destruction mounting in every part of the United States, the words of President Johnson and Congressional leaders rang the Bell of Reason for the House of Representatives, who subsequently passed the Fair Housing Act. Without debate, the Senate followed the House in its passage of the Act, which President Johnson then signed into law" (United States Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2014).

1970 – *United States v. Texas*. "In November 1970, William Wayne Justice, chief judge of the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Texas, ordered the [Texas Education Agency](#) to assume responsibility for desegregating Texas public schools. The decision in *United States v. Texas*, frequently named by its docket number, Civil Order 5281, applied to the entire Texas public school system and is one of the most extensive desegregation orders in legal history. The decision was the first of a string of highly controversial reform rulings Judge Justice handed down in the 1970s and 1980s that dramatically changed Texas public institutions, including state reform schools, facilities for the mentally retarded, and state prisons. *United States v. Texas* originated with investigations in the late 1960s by the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare into alleged discriminatory practices in a number of small Texas public school districts, most in East Texas. Lacking effective enforcement power, HEW referred the matter to the Department of Justice, which was then at the height of its efforts to desegregate the nation's schools. The Justice Department sought to place the state as a whole under federal court order by naming both TEA and the state itself as parties to the lawsuit. Justice Department officials believed that Judge Justice would be highly supportive of their case and filed the lawsuit in his court in Marshall, Texas. Although the trial generated almost no press coverage, Justice's decision detailing how integration was to occur quickly captured the attention of both public school officials and top state policymakers. Denunciations began pouring into the court and continued thereafter for many years.

Justice first ordered the consolidation of the all-black school districts originally involved in the litigation with adjoining white districts. He then ordered TEA to prohibit all public school districts in the state from assigning students to schools on the basis of race, from discriminating in extracurricular activities and personnel practices, and from operating segregated bus routes. TEA was to conduct annual reviews of school districts with one or more campuses having a 66 percent or greater minority enrollment to determine compliance with federal desegregation law. If violations were found, TEA was to impose sanctions, including denial of accreditation. A year after Justice handed down his decision, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit affirmed it, but removed from his jurisdiction schools districts that were then or would later be under desegregation orders issued by other federal courts in Texas. Even with this modification, the order applied to more than 1,000 school districts and two million students. . ." (Kemerer, 2010).

1972 – Supplementary Security Income. "The Supplemental Security Income (SSI) program was enacted in 1972 and began paying benefits in 1974. It replaced federal-state programs of Old-Age Assistance, Aid to the Blind, and Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled" (Schieber et al., 2008).

1974 – Child Abuse Prevention & Treatment Act. "The key Federal legislation addressing child abuse and neglect is the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA), originally enacted on January 31, 1974 (P.L. 93-247). This Act was amended several times and was most recently amended and reauthorized on December 20, 2010, by the CAPTA Reauthorization Act of 2010 (P.L. 111-320).

CAPTA provides Federal funding to States in support of prevention, assessment, investigation, prosecution, and treatment activities and also provides grants to public agencies and nonprofit organizations, including Indian Tribes and Tribal organizations, for demonstration programs and projects. Additionally, CAPTA identifies the Federal role in supporting research, evaluation, technical assistance, and data collection activities; established the Office on Child Abuse and Neglect; and mandates Child Welfare Information Gateway. CAPTA also sets forth a minimum definition of child abuse and neglect" (Children's Bureau, 2011).

1974 – Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (EEOA). "Section 1703(f) of the EEOA requires state educational agencies (SEAs) and school districts to take action to overcome language barriers that impede English Language Learner (ELL) students from participating equally in school districts' educational programs. As part of its efforts to enforce the EEOA, the Section investigates complaints that

SEAs or school districts are not providing adequate services to ELL students" (United States Department of Justice, 2014).

1978 – Indian Child Welfare Act. "The Indian Child Welfare Act (ICWA) is a federal law that seeks to keep American Indian children with American Indian families. Congress passed ICWA in 1978 in response to the alarmingly high number of Indian children being removed from their homes by both public and private agencies. The intent of Congress under ICWA was to 'protect the best interests of Indian children and to promote the stability and security of Indian tribes and families' (25 U.S.C. § 1902). ICWA sets federal requirements that apply to state child custody proceedings involving an Indian child who is a member of or eligible for membership in a federally recognized tribe" (NICWA, 2014).

1981 – Texas Juvenile Probation Commission. "The Texas Juvenile Probation Commission was established in 1981. A nine-member policymaking board is appointed by the governor. Two members are district court judges, one is a county judge or commissioner, and the other six are representatives of the public. The agency's main purpose is to administer juvenile probation services throughout Texas. The commission seeks to achieve this through improving the effectiveness of probation services, establishing uniform standards regarding probation administration as well as furnishing alternatives to commitment, setting minimum standards for detention facilities, and serving as a link with local entities in the juvenile justice system. The agency's goals are to provide public protection from crime, reduce the crime rate and strain on the adult criminal justice system, and ensure due process for juvenile offenders. Juvenile boards at the local level, in charge of children aged ten to seventeen, communicate their specific financial and administrative needs to the commission. The Texas Juvenile Probation Commission is also in charge of a number of programs designed to help juveniles, such as the use of foster care or emergency shelters instead of detention. The Border Children Justice Projects is in place in several Rio Grande counties and is a joint program sponsored by Texas and Mexico to address juvenile crime problems. In 1991 the agency employed over twenty people. It had an operating budget of over \$21 million" (Jasinski, 2010).

1981 – Texas Department on Aging. "The Texas Department on Aging in Austin serves more than two million older citizens, the fifth largest over-sixty population in the United States. In 1957 the legislature established an interim committee to develop legislation that would address the needs of the elderly. Eight years later the Senate established the Governor's Committee on Aging, and it was designated by the governor to administer federal funds made available through the Older Americans Act of 1965. In 1981 the Governor's Committee on Aging was made a state agency, and its name was changed to Texas Department on Aging. The functions of the department include advocacy, service-system development, and management. The governing body is the department on aging, composed of nine members appointed by the governor for six-year staggered terms. The department appoints the executive director, who is responsible for supervising a full-time staff and a twenty-eight member Citizens' Advisory Council. Each council member serves for three years and represents one of the department's twenty-eight Area Agencies on Aging advisory councils. Under the direction of the Texas Department on Aging, the Area Agencies on Aging are responsible for assessing the needs of the elderly and developing written annual plans to meet them. The department, in turn, develops a two-year state plan that reflects the priorities of the Area Agencies on Aging. Public hearings are then conducted across the state to ensure that the plan is responsive to the needs of the elderly. The network of Area Agencies on Aging provides nutrition programs, information and referral systems, employment programs, transportation systems, and in-home and other services directed toward preventing unnecessary institutionalization or life-threatening situations. State legislation passed in 1983 established the Long-Term Care Coordinating Council and made the Texas Department on Aging the lead agency. The TDA works with the Texas departments of Human Services, Health, and Mental Health-Mental Retardation to promote a broad range of services for the elderly" (Dickerson, 2010).

1991 – Texas Health and Human Services Commission. "The legislature authorized a new Health and Human Services Commission in 1992 to oversee the state's eleven human services agencies. Besides the Texas Department of Human Services, these agencies included the Texas Department of Health, the Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation, the Texas Rehabilitation Commission, the Texas Commission for the Blind, the Texas Commission for the Deaf and Hearing Impaired, the Texas Youth Commission, the Texas Juvenile Probation Commission, the Texas Commission on Alcohol and Drug Abuse, the Texas Department on Aging, and the Interagency Council on Early Childhood Intervention Services. One of the commission's functions was to develop a plan for the consolidation of human services programs and functions, as well as for a permanent governing structure. As part of this plan, the Child Protective Services, Adult Protective Services, and Childcare Licensing programs were transferred to the new Texas Department of Protective and Regulatory Services. Purchased health, indigent health, and preventive health services programs were to be transferred to the Texas Department of Health in September 1993" (Smyrl, 2010).

1993 – Texas Office of Minority Health. "In 1985, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services issued the Secretary's Task Force Report on Black and Minority Health. This report found a disparity in health status of the majority and minority populations in the United States. The minority population was defined as African Americans, Latino/ Hispanic Americans, Asian Americans and Native American Indians. 'Despite the unprecedented explosion in scientific knowledge and the phenomenal capacity of medicine to diagnose, treat and cure disease, Blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans and those of Asian/Pacific Islander heritage have not benefited fully or equitably from the fruits of science or from those systems responsible for translating and using health sciences technology,' the task force report stated.

In 1993, in response to this disparity, the 73rd Texas Legislature created the Texas Office of Minority Health with the passage of House Bill 1510. The Office of Minority Health was charged with facilitating an increased focus on the health care needs of minority populations in Texas. The functions of the office were to assume a leadership role in working with federal, state and private groups and agencies to develop minority health initiatives and to maximize the use of existing resources for this purpose" (Texas Health and Human Services Commission, 2014).

1994 – Multiethnic Placement Act. "H.R. 6. Enacted October 20, 1994. These provisions were enacted as title V, part E, subpart 1, of the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994.

Major Provisions of the Act

- Prohibited State agencies and other entities that receive Federal funding and were involved in foster care or adoption placements from delaying, denying, or otherwise discriminating when making a foster care or adoption placement decision on the basis of the parent or child's race, color, or national origin
- Prohibited State agencies and other entities that received Federal funds and were involved in foster care or adoption placements from categorically denying any person the opportunity to become a foster or adoptive parent solely on the basis of race, color, or national origin of the parent or the child
- Required States to develop plans for the recruitment of foster and adoptive families that reflect the ethnic and racial diversity of children in the State for whom families are needed

- Allowed an agency or entity to consider the cultural, ethnic, or racial background of a child and the capacity of an adoptive or foster parent to meet the needs of a child with that background when making a placement
- Had no effect on the provisions of the Indian Child Welfare Act of 1978
- Made failure to comply with MEPA a violation of title VI of the Civil Rights Act" (Children's Bureau, 2014).

1995 – Juvenile Justice Code. "In 1973, the Texas Legislature enacted Title 3 of the Family Code, which formed the statutory basis for juvenile law in this state. It was enacted with the following goals:

- to provide for the care and development of a child;
- to remove the stigma of criminality from the unlawful acts of a child;
- to separate a child from his or her parents only when necessary and to give the child needed care; and
- to provide a simple judicial procedure to ensure a fair hearing and enforcement of constitutional rights.

The Family Code attempted to balance the needs and rights of children against the safety needs of the community. Unfortunately, the 1973 Family Code was written for a different kind of juvenile offender from the type we presently have. The Texas juvenile justice system at the time was not fully equipped to deal with the number of juveniles committing offenses or with the extreme violence frequently perpetrated by juveniles.

In 1995, the legislature revised Title 3 of the Family Code by creating the Juvenile Justice Code. This code was enacted with the following goals:

- to strengthen public safety;
- to promote the concept of punishment for criminal acts;
- to remove, where appropriate, the taint of criminality from children committing certain unlawful acts; and
- to provide treatment, training and rehabilitation that emphasizes the accountability and responsibility of both the parent and the child for the child's conduct (§51.01, F.C.)" (Texas Office of the Attorney General, 2009).

2002 – No Child Left Behind. "The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) was first passed by Congress as part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty. The most recent reauthorization amending ESEA is the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). This legislation aims to close the achievement gap between groups of students through greater accountability and increased flexibility and choice. NCLB affects almost every school district and charter school in the state.

The Division of Federal and State Education Policy - ESEA Unit at the Texas Education Agency (TEA) is responsible for the state-level administration of specific programs under NCLB and the Ed-Flex Partnership program.

TEA Waiver Request

The Texas Education Agency has received approval from the U. S. Department of Education (USDE) to waive specific provisions of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as amended by the NCLB. The waiver gives TEA and more than 1,200 local education agencies (LEAs) additional flexibility while reducing duplication of efforts" (Texas Education Agency, 2014).

2004 – Texas Department of Assistive and Rehabilitative Services. "After a lengthy history, as part of H.B. 2292, the Legislature creates the Department of Assistive and Rehabilitative Services by consolidating four legacy health and human services agencies: the Interagency Council on Early Childhood Intervention (ECI), the Commission for the Blind, the Commission for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, and the Rehabilitation Commission. Under the oversight of the Health and Human Services Commission, DARS supports Texans with disabilities and families with children who have developmental delays to improve quality of life and to enable full participation in society" (Texas Department of Assistive and Rehabilitative Services, 2013).

2005 – Texas Senate Bill 6. "Some children are disproportionality presented in the child welfare system and frequently experience disparate and inequitable service provision. Research has shown that African American and Native American families and their children are overrepresented in the child welfare system relative to Anglo families and their children in virtually every state, while Hispanic families and their children are similarly overrepresented in ten states. Asian American and Pacific Islanders families tend to be underrepresented, relative to Anglo families.

Senate Bill 6, passed by the 79th Texas Legislature, 2005, and signed by Governor Rick Perry, laid the foundation for comprehensive reform of Child Protective Services (CPS) in Texas. One aspect of that reform is addressing issues of disproportionality or overrepresentation of a particular [race or ethnicity](#) within CPS. Since the legislation's passage, the state has analyzed data related to enforcement actions, reviewed policies and procedures in each CPS program, and developed and implemented programs to remedy [disparities](#).

A review of state enforcement policies and procedures found most policies to be sound, but it identified some policy areas needing improvement. The review also identified a need for some specific procedural changes to mitigate disproportionality in CPS.

Beyond policy and procedural changes, the Department of Family and Protective Services (DFPS) identified additional program or system improvements to enhance positive outcomes for all children and families served by CPS. These system improvements included changing casework practice, training, and workforce recruitment practices as well as leveraging community resources through a [Community Engagement Model](#) to better address factors related to child abuse and neglect and the underlying experience by many CPS families. The model originated with Project H.O.P.E. (Helping Our People Excel) in Port Arthur, Texas, and ultimately was expanded throughout Texas in collaboration with Casey Family Programs" (Texas Department of Family and Protective Services, 2010).

2010 – Center for Elimination of Disproportionality and Disparities. "The Center for Elimination of Disproportionality and Disparities was created by Senate Bill 501 of the 2011 Texas Legislature and designated as Texas State Office of Minority Health.

The center's mission is to partner with health and human services agencies, external stakeholders, other systems, and communities to identify and eliminate disproportionality and disparities affecting children, families, and disparately impacted individuals.

The Center for Elimination of Disproportionality and Disparities works to identify the systemic factors and practice improvements that address the disproportionate representation and disparate outcomes for children, families, and disparately impacted individuals in the state's health and human services programs.

The center includes the [State Office of Minority Health and Health Equity](#), the [Office of Border Affairs](#), and [Equity and Inclusion](#) with regional equity specialists throughout Texas" (Texas Health and Human Services Commission, 2014).

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