Racial Discrimination in Health Care Among African Americans in America

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“*The United States government did something that was wrong—deeply, profoundly, morally wrong. It was an outrage to our commitment to integrity and equality for all our citizens... clearly racist.*”

—President Clinton’s apology for the Tuskegee Syphilis Experiment to the eight remaining survivors, May 16, 1997

For forty years between 1932 and 1972, the U.S. Public Health Service (PHS) conducted an experiment on 399 black men in the late stages of syphilis (Brandt, 1978). These men were predominately uneducated sharecroppers from one of the poorest counties in Alabama. They were never told of their syphilis diagnosis or the seriousness of the disease. Informed that they were being treated for “bad blood” instead, their doctors had no intention of curing them of syphilis during the course of the study. The data for the experiment was to be collected from autopsies of the men, and they were subsequently left to degenerate under the ravages of advanced syphilis—which can include tumors, heart disease, paralysis, blindness, insanity, and death. “As I see it,” one of the doctors involved explained, “we have no further interest in these patients until they die” (Jones, 1981, p. 134). The true nature of the experiment had to be kept from the subjects to ensure their cooperation. The sharecroppers’ lack of education and low incomes made them prime targets for the experiment. Pleased at the prospect of free medical care—almost none of them had ever seen a doctor before—these unsophisticated and trusting men became the pawns in one of, if not the most, unethical human experiments (Brunner, 2007).

The study was meant to discover how syphilis affected blacks as opposed to whites. The theory proposed by researchers was that whites experienced more neurological complications from syphilis than blacks and that African Americans were more susceptible to cardiovascular damage (Brandt, 1978). How this knowledge would have changed clinical treatment of syphilis is still unclear. When the experiment was brought to the attention of the media in 1972, news
anchor Harry Reasoner described it as an experiment that “used human beings as laboratory animals in a long and inefficient study of how long it takes syphilis to kill someone” (Jones, 1981, p. 10). By the end of the experiment, 28 of the men had died directly because of syphilis, 100 were dead of related complications, 40 of their wives had been infected, and 19 of their children had been born with congenital syphilis (Brunner, 2007).

Following the Tuskegee syphilis study being revealed to the public, African Americans began questioning the government and health care practices involving other illnesses as well. In 1990, a survey found that ten percent of African Americans believed that the U.S. government created AIDS as a plot to exterminate blacks, and another 20 percent claimed they could not rule out the possibility that this might be true (Kelley, 2008). As unbelievable and appalling as this may sound, at one time the Tuskegee experiment must have seemed equally implausible. Who could imagine the government, all the way up to the Surgeon General of the United States, deliberately allowing a group of its citizens to die from a terrible disease for the sake of an ill-conceived experiment? In light of this and many other shameful episodes in our history, African Americans’ widespread mistrust of the government and white society in general should not be a surprise to anyone (Brunner, 2007). This medical mistrust among African Americans is a long held attitude, which stems from centuries of racial discrimination and maltreatment, as best demonstrated by the Tuskegee syphilis study (Paradies, 2006).

Race and Racism

African Americans have been defending their race against discrimination and power struggles for centuries, but in reality, what really are race and racism and what causes these ideas to exist in society? According to Paradies (2006), race is not a biological construct, but instead, a social one. The racial groups as we know of today were actually created before the development
of valid scientific theories about genetics and so therefore do not represent biological distinctiveness. According to the American Association of Physical Anthropology, “There is considerable biological variation in human populations, but our racial categories fail to capture it. There is more genetic variation within our existing racial groups than between them” (Paradies, 2006, p. 891). Currently in the United States, the racial groups are constructed to capture the differences in power, status, and resources. Racial categorization has always been rooted in racism and within the U.S. context Whites have always been on top, blacks on the bottom and other racial groups scattered in between. Racism is demonstrated through the idea that inferiority is used to justify unequal treatment, or discrimination of members of groups defined as inferior by individuals and societal institutions. This construct of racism enhances the understandings of racial inequalities in the health care system because the ideology of inferiority may lead to the development of negative attitudes and beliefs towards different racial groups and therefore influence the quality of health care different racial groups receive. Another helpful definition of racism by Gee (2002) is that racism involves harmful and degrading beliefs and actions expressed and implemented by both institutions and individuals. This framework of racism touches on the important idea that not only can individuals be racist, but institutions as well.

**Mechanism**

For centuries, African Americans have faced the consequences and daily struggles of discrimination and racial inferiority in every stroke of life. Healthcare is an area in which many African Americans have perceived racism and suffered the detrimental health effects and consequences of this maltreatment. In fact, racism is one of the mechanisms that explains and expands racial disparities in health (Gee, 2002). Whether indirectly through environmental
factors and educational and economic resources or directly through lack of care and minimal
treatment of diseases, African Americans have experienced racial discrimination and racism in
the field of health care and have suffered the negative effects of this disparity for centuries.
While strides have been taken to improve these conditions that cause racial discrimination,
studies suggest these efforts are simply not working.

Many different studies have been conducted on racial discrimination in health care. They
all operate under the notion that African Americans have a higher disease rate as compared to
Whites and that this has been persistent over time (Williams, 1999). An example was discussed
in an article in Newsweek, which stated that the HIV rate has doubled in the African American
population while remaining fairly consistent in the white population (Kelley, 2008). African
Americans consistently comprise a higher percentage of hypertensive patients and have higher
mortality rates as compared to white patients, as well. These differences in health outcomes bring
up the question of “why” and “how”. What mechanism is causing the unequal distribution of
serious medical conditions and outcomes among blacks and whites? According to Williams and
Jackson (2005), these disparities in health and health care are rooted in a deeper and larger
historical, geographic, sociocultural, economic and political context with the overall consensus
being that the indirect and direct effect of socioeconomic status (SES) and the resources and
treatment that come with each of these serve as the mechanism by which health disparities
operate.

**Socioeconomic Status**

Socioeconomic status is the social standing of an individual in terms of their income,
education and occupational status. Individuals with a lower socioeconomic status face more
challenges in regards to accessing health care and preventative services (American Psychological
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Association, 2012). It is challenging for those who live in poverty to gain access to health insurance plans or affordable ones at minimum. And the plans sponsored by State Governments are meager when it comes to care, especially in regards to preventative measures. Mental health problems and the therapy needed by these patients are not typically covered under most of these policies, even though a high proportion of the population living in poverty suffers from mental health disorders.

Socioeconomic status predicts variation in health and healthcare within minority and white populations and is responsible for much of the racial differences in health and health outcomes (Williams, 1999). According to the American Psychological Association, 26% of African Americans are currently living in poverty (lowest SES level) as compared to only 8% of Non-Hispanic Whites (American Psychological Association, 2012). This is a huge disparity between these two racial groups. Studies have shown that those who live at lower economic levels have higher rates of morbidity and mortality and are two to five times more likely to be diagnosed with or suffer from a mental disorder than those who are living in the upper socioeconomic statuses (American Psychological Association, 2012). According to the data conducted in a study of psychosocial correlates of medical mistrust by Hammond in 2010, the positive correlation of socioeconomic status and the ability to access healthcare is upheld. It was found that men with more years of education were more likely to report having seen a doctor more recently and having higher quality patient/physician interactions than those with fewer years of education (Hammond, 2010).
Indirect Disparities

The inability of people with lower socioeconomic status receive proper healthcare is a problem with its source rooted in the racial segregation and discrimination by the government and citizens themselves. Even though segregation laws in regards to public facilities and housing are now illegal, the structure and therefore the consequences have remained intact over the period of time since the 1960’s when these laws were repealed and the Civil Rights Movement occurred (Williams & Collins, 2001). Unfortunately, a person’s socioeconomic status greatly affects the residential area in which he or she will reside and therefore the environment they are exposed to as well as educational resources and community benefits that are available to them. According to Williams and Jackson (2005), the residential concentration of African Americans leads to inequalities in neighborhoods, socioeconomic status and quality of medical care. The previous racial segregation in residential areas has maintained its prevalence, even through the twenty first century. It is a vicious cycle, as those who live in impoverished areas have less access to quality schools, are less likely to graduate and obtain well-paying jobs and therefore remain in poverty and in the same racially segregated residential areas. And as stated before, lower income is positivity related to poor and lower standard healthcare (Williams, 1999). This institutionalized racism and racial segregation within income levels has an indirect effect on healthcare and health outcomes of minority races.

The inability to obtain affordable healthcare has put a strain on the health of those who occupy a lower ladder in the hierarchy of the socioeconomic status. According to Newsweek, children living in poverty are about seven times more likely to be in poor health than children living in higher income households (Kelley, 2008). The number and severity of health problems has an inverse relationship with socioeconomic status. As a person’s socioeconomic status drops,
the number of health problems and the severity of these issues increase. This is another example of the indirect effect of economic segregation on the health and health outcomes of those who live in poverty. Also, chronic exposure to stress can cause altered physiological functioning and therefore increase risk for a broad range of health conditions (Williams & Jackson, 2005). As someone’s socioeconomic status decreases, the levels of stress a person endures increases dramatically. And as stress levels increase, there is an increase in a person’s vulnerability to the negative health effects of stressors (Williams & Jackson, 2005).

Direct Disparities

Racial discrimination does not only indirectly affect healthcare of African Americans, but racism and discrimination are directly seen within the actual field of medicine in patient care and interaction. One study in particular investigated how a patient’s race is a determinant of patient satisfaction, specifically cardiac patients (LaVeist, Nickerson & Bowie, 2000). In the study, 30% of African American patients endorsed the idea that racial discrimination in a doctor’s office is common while only 7.3% of Whites agreed. On the other side, 88.1% of White patients agreed that African American patients can receive the care they want as equally a White patients can, but only 61.2% of African Americans agreed and felt the same way. This says suggests that African Americans believe racial discrimination occurs more in a doctor’s office than White patients and that Whites tend to be blind to the idea of racial discrimination within the healthcare setting.

This study also found that African Americans were 91% more likely than White patients to perceive social class differences in the treatment that patients received at hospitals (LaVeist, Nickerson & Bowie, 2000). In a research study by Williams and Jackson (2005), the Institute of Medicine reported that African Americans also receive poorer quality emergency room care than
do their white counterparts. This relates back to the previous idea that socioeconomic status plays a great role in the quality of health care received by an individual. When it comes to satisfaction with the care received, 73% of White patients in the study reported that the doctor did a good or excellent job providing care overall. Only 61.4% of African Americans said the same thing. Also, only 65.6% of African American patients felt like the doctor did a good or excellent job treating them with dignity and respect, compared to 78% of White patients. Overall results of the study showed that African American patients were significantly less satisfied with their care and reported more medical mistrust than their White counterparts. In other words, perceived racism and patient satisfaction are inversely related. As a patient’s perceived racism increases, the patient’s satisfaction decreases (LaVeist, Nickerson & Bowie, 2000).

Perception of racism in healthcare by African American men was found to be the most powerful correlate of medical mistrust (Hammond, 2010). This perception of racism stemmed from personal past experiences and expectations of disparities in treatment. In other words, the men go into the appointments thinking that they will be treated differently because of their race and therefore increase their personal medical mistrust. According to a study by Gamble (1997), this perception of racism stems back to the Tuskegee Syphilis study previously discussed. African American men constantly are shadowed by the umbrella of Tuskegee nightmare and the way the medical community treated them and therefore, still feel like they do not know whom they can trust. According to Gamble (1997), the Tuskegee experiment is the singular reason why African American men still distrust the high institutions of medicine and the public health system.

This medical mistrust has also progressed into limited participation of African Americans in medical research trials since the truth of the Tuskegee experiment came to light (Gamble,
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1997). This critically low black participation in research trials and organ donations, has caused issues and complications in studying future procedures and medications, and will only continue to disable and handicap researchers in finding cures and solutions to problems which affect African American’s predominately (Gamble, 1997).

Another example of direct racial disparity in healthcare is the fact that the number of Blacks living in the United States with hypertension is more than twice that of the White population (Krieger & Sidney, 1996). In a study using CARDIA (coronary artery risk development in young adults) (Krieger & Sydney, 1996), the authors determined that self-reported experiences of racial discrimination and blood pressure were related and this mechanism helped explain the disparities in elevated blood pressure between the two racial groups. The results indicated that racial discrimination shapes patterns of hypertension among Blacks and Whites differently.

This pattern could also be related to socioeconomic levels and ability to obtain and maintain a healthy, well-balanced diet. People living in poverty typically suffer from a poorer diet of processed food, get little to no exercise and experience daily stress, which increases the likelihood of elevated blood pressure (Krieger & Sidney, 1996). Areas of urban development sometimes become known as food deserts, which are neighborhoods and communities that have limited or restricted access to nutritious and health food choices (Whitacre, Tsai, & Mulligan, 2009). In these food deserts, individuals of lower socioeconomic status are more likely to eat energy dense foods that are nutrient-poor compared to higher income individuals who eat more fresh and protein rich diets (Darmon & Drewnowski, 2008). In these neighborhoods with limited access to supermarkets and grocery stores that provide shoppers with healthy food options,
individuals have higher rates of obesity, diabetes and cardiovascular disease (Whitacre, Tsai, & Mulligan, 2009).

In an article in the *American Journal of Public Health* written by van Ryn and Fu (2003), direct provider racism is also discussed. It states that providers may have preconceived beliefs and expectations of a patient based on their race, socioeconomic status and education level before even giving the patient a fair chance. These biased beliefs lend themselves to unequal treatment and unwillingness to aggressively treat patients. The article showed that providers who perceive that their patients are less likely to adhere to the necessary treatment, are less likely to aggressively treat their illnesses or prescribe more complicated, yet helpful, procedures and treatment plans (van Ryn & Fu, 2003). An example of this is the procedure recommendation and information given by physicians to African American individuals in regards to kidney transplants. Van Ryn and Fu (2003) found that African Americans are less likely to be told about transplant options, obtain all medical information in regards to transplants, be engaged in discussion about receiving a kidney from a family member and recommended for transplantation. This treatment by physicians occurs because of the preconceived notion that African American and lower income individuals are less likely to care about their health procedures are simply less likely to follow instructions and orders following treatment (van Ryn & Fu, 2003).

Research and data, however, does support the idea that African Americans are less likely to change health practices that are associated with major risk factors for diseases such as cancer and heart disease as compared to White counterparts (Williams & Jackson, 2005). African Americans are less likely to change their dietary behavior, physical activity levels, tobacco use and alcohol abuse in order to decrease their risk for coronary heart disease and cancer as
compared to Whites (Williams & Jackson, 2005). While this is no excuse for treating patients differently based on race or economic status, the data presented by Williams and Jackson (2005) show that as socioeconomic status decreases, the participation in high health risk behavior increases and the likelihood of changing those risk behaviors decreases. Instead of using this data to form preconceived biases, it would be more beneficial for providers to use this information to better form treatment plans for their at risk clients and create individualized approaches to helping those who fall within these categories achieve the changes in their lifestyle necessary to decrease their risk for such diseases.

African American’s not only are affected by different illnesses disproportionately to Whites, they also suffer direct racial discrimination in healthcare in regards to the number of procedures received. Overall, White patients typically undergo more procedures, tests, examinations, etc., within the world of health care and patient treatment (Krieger & Sidney, 1996). White and Black patients that have similar rates of hospitalization for chest pain undergo coronary angiography procedures at disproportionate rates. White patients are one third more likely to undergo this procedure as compared to black patients and are twice as likely to be treated with bypass surgery or angioplasty than black patients (Gamble, 1997). Also, older black patients who are on Medicare receive coronary artery bypass grafts only a fourth as much as white patients with comparable conditions and statuses (Gamble, 1997). There are only four procedures Blacks receive more than their White counterparts. These include the amputation of a lower limb, the removal of both testes, the removal of tissue related to decubitus ulcers and the implantation of shunts for renal dialysis. These procedures typically result from delayed diagnosis and initial treatment by physicians, poor or infrequent medical care and attention and failure in the management of chronic illness (Williams, 1999). Yet again, this seems to fall back...
onto socioeconomic class and the ability to obtain medical insurance that will cover preventative care procedures and treatments.

**No Disparities**

While many diseases and illnesses do have disparities based upon race, there are some illnesses, which show no disparities. These include the flu and pneumonia. In 1950, there was a large racial difference in those diagnosed with these two illnesses, but by 2000, minimal differences were shown. So why did this change happen? The flu and pneumonia are acute illnesses that differ from chronic illnesses such as high blood pressure or cardiovascular disease, which have symptoms that are not always as evident, because they have a large behavioral component and are long term in development (Williams & Jackson, 2005). Chronic illnesses have more disparity between African Americans and Whites because it takes more than simply some antibiotics or fluids to treat these diseases. To treat or prevent chronic illnesses, it requires regular doctor visits, preventative medical procedures and tests, and the resources to receive such medical care, which African Americans are less likely to receive (Williams & Jackson, 2005). According to Williams and Jackson, (2005) social motivation, knowledge and resources are required to eliminate the disparities of health and diseases.

**Solutions**

Whether consciously or unconsciously, a proportion of the health care workers discriminate against African Americans (Williams, 1999). If this is true, what can be done to offset this discrimination and increase the positivity and quality of care that African Americans receive? The American Psychological Association has some suggestions. These include improving access to mental and behavioral health care by eliminating barriers such as limitations in health care coverage, intervening in early childhood to support the health and educational

Another way to offset this discrimination would be for the United States Government to make the moral and political commitment to guarantee equal access to medical care to all citizens as a fundamental right of American citizenship (Williams & Rucker, 2000). By ensuring everyone, no matter of income level or race, received health care and removing financial barriers, the health of individuals would increase, their socioeconomic status would increase and therefore their earned respect of others would increase. Physicians would be more inclined to treat the patients with more respect and dignity (Williams & Rucker, 2000).

Another way to reduce the disparities in health care among African Americans deals with the idea that minority patients often feel most comfortable in the health care setting when a physician of the same race provides care to them (LaVeist, Nickerson, & Bowie, 2000). Physicians of color are in high demand in areas with larger minority populations and could help decrease the perceived racism felt by patients and therefore increase their satisfaction and treatment. According to Betancourt, Green, Carrillo, and Ananeh-Firempong (2003), only 4% of the nation’s physicians are African American, and as stated earlier, many patients prefer to be treated by physicians of the same race. So the small number of African American physicians lends itself to problems in equal availability of services among minorities in America. A proposed solution to this problem was and still is affirmative action. Started in 1961, the idea of affirmative action was to promote equal opportunity to all minority groups within society and within all government and educational settings. It was justified as a compensation for past discrimination persecution and /or exploitation by the majority over minorities in the past. An
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increase in multicultural and minority physicians could help with the percentage of minority, specifically African Americans, who perceive racism within health care.

According to a study conducted by Betancourt et al. (2003), a concept entitled “cultural competence” is a strategy to address the disparities in health care delivery in America. Cultural competence, as defined by Betancourt et al., (2003) is the ability to understand the importance of the social and cultural influence on how a patient views health and health care and how these factors interact on a multi-level basis within the health care delivery system and can be used to develop interventions to ensure equal treatment of all patients. By developing cultural competence, the racial disparities in health care can be reduced by those who work in the field. Suggestions to eliminate these disparities include a framework approach addressing organizational, structural and clinical divisions of cultural competence. Two main points within this framework are the recruitment of minority health care providers and increasing provider education on cross cultural and racial issues. With the recruitment of more minority physicians and the increase awareness or development of “cultural competence” by current physicians, the disparities in health care among African Americans and Caucasians in America can be reduced.

Other potential solutions to eliminating health disparities include increasing the economic infrastructure of disadvantaged communities, narrowing the income gap between African Americans and Whites, improving the quality of medical care, and rethinking health care policies on the state, regional and federal level (Williams & Jackson, 2005). According to the research by Williams and Jackson (2005), to effectively address the racial disparities in health and health care, it will require addressing distal social policies and arrangements that created the disparities in the first place. By increasing the economic capital and standing of individuals in disadvantaged neighborhoods, the wealth will spill over into increasing health and narrowing the
income gap as well (Williams & Jackson, 2005). Then the access to preventative medical services will not only increase, but also save lives and money down the road.

The most important aspect to eliminate disparities is the improvement and implementation of new health policies. According to Williams and Jackson (2005), it is important to have policies that directly affect health and health disparities and promote equal access to health care for all. The research suggests engaging multiple departments such as Labor, Education, Justice, Energy and Transportation on a federal level and then on state levels as well to work together to address the problems and barriers to equal access to health care for all Americans, no matter race (Williams & Jackson, 2005). Until equal access to health care is a reality, the disparities in health care and health between African Americans and Whites will not begin to disappear and will only continue to increase.

**Conclusion**

Racism and discrimination are two things that, unfortunately, have been around for centuries and seem to find unique ways to interfere with the lives of those who are affected. Health care is something that everyone should be entitled to and something that is necessary in order to live and maintain a healthy life. Racial discrimination against African Americans in health care has been shown to exist directly and indirectly through perceived racism by patients in the quality of care, lower socioeconomic status, and the resources that are available and unavailable to its members.

Money can, unfortunately, buy better health (Williams & Collins, 2001). Those who make more money are able to afford better care and avoid preventable health problems at a much greater level than those who live at or below the poverty line. And unfortunately, economic segregation correlates to racial segregation, with a higher percentage of the African American
population living in poverty compared to the white population. Racism and discrimination still exist in society today, and one of the negative indirect effects of this is the decreased patient satisfaction and quality of services and quality of health for those minorities being discriminated against. Until healthcare becomes affordable for all, not dependent on someone’s economic status, minorities and lower income individuals will continue to face the adverse effects of limited and lower quality healthcare and healthy living environments.
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