haas institute
FOR A FAIR AND INCLUSIVE SOCIETY

2016

inclusiveness index

Measuring Inclusion and Marginality

haasinstitute.berkeley.edu

haas institute
FOR A FAIR AND INCLUSIVE SOCIETY

Table of Contents

Introduction

We are pleased to introduce our first annual report of the Haas Institute **Inclusiveness Index**. In a complex and diverse world, with more data than ever before at our fingertips, how do we make sense of it all? What does it tell us about our societies and how we can do better?

Our new tool draws upon the latest datasets to holistically measure the degree of inclusivity or marginality experienced by different groups across societal settings and social cleavages, such as gender, race/ethnicity, religion, disability, and sexual orientation.

Though many multi-dimensional indices have been developed by other organizations, such as the United Nations Development Program's Human Development Index (HDI), the Haas Institute **Inclusiveness Index** is unique as a research tool to measure inclusion1 of underserved and marginalized groups within our society—nationally and internationally. And while there are many excellent equity indices that examine and attempt to measure well-being in particular,[2] the **Inclusiveness Index** is uniquely focused on the degree of inclusion and marginality rather than a more general assessment of group-based well-being.

Inclusivity entails greater access to power and public and private resources, and improves the way society views group members. Inclusivity is realized when historically or currently marginalized groups feel valued, when differences are respected, and when basic and fundamental needs and rights—relative to those society's dominant groups—are met and recognized. Our **Index** focuses on social groups rather than individuals or even communities, as marginality often occurs as a result of group membership.

The goal of the **Inclusiveness Index** initiative is to identify policies, interventions, and other levers that have proven effective at ameliorating marginality and promoting inclusivity, belonging, and equity. The **Index** is a diagnostic instrument intended to help us pursue that goal by illustrating how different regions, states, and nations fare relative to each other in terms of inclusivity and marginality.

The Haas Institute is holistically focused on the processes of "Othering" and marginality that share common structures and features, as we are most concerned with the forces that engender inclusion or marginality across multiple social cleavages.

In this report, we rank nation-states according to a core set of indicators, as well as all 50 states within the United States. We then delve behind the data in our findings and themes sections, and surface deeper insights on notable trends and patterns, such as the global migration crisis and rise of extreme and toxic economic inequality.

Our rankings are not the final word on inclusivity nor a definitive assessment of any national or state performance, but intended to spark a conversation and generate further inquiry into how and why some places, communities, and nations are more inclusive than others.

All information and complete downloadable data files are available at **haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/ inclusivenessindex.**

Inclusiveness Indicators

Developing an index that is capable of measuring inclusivity and marginality across many of the full range of human differences is an immense challenge. Our **Inclusiveness Index** attempts to meet this challenge by selecting universal indicators that reflect group-based marginality in any context. In addition, the **Inclusiveness Index** relies on datasets for those indicators that can be measured across a range of social groupings.

In developing this **Index**, we were guided by the conviction that multi-factor indices paint a more vivid portrait of underlying structural conditions and forms of advantage and disadvantage experienced by marginalized groups than any single indicator, such as poverty or per capita GDP. Single indicator metrics fail to capture the myriad of inputs that shape individual and group life chances.[3] As a multi-factor index that incorporates six core indicators of inclusivity, each indicator is given a pre-assigned weight within the **Inclusiveness Index**.

Another practical criterion for inclusion was that each indicator had to be scalable to the global level. Developing a global country ranking would not be possible if similar data sets did not exist for a sufficient number of countries to justify a global ranking. Not only are there a multiplicity of measures across nations for similar information, but some countries track and collect datasets that others do not. We were also limited by data sets that were commensurate or comparable across geographies and national boundaries.

Finally, we wanted our indicators to reflect cultural norms, policies, laws, and institutional practices rather than economic strength or tax base capacity. Otherwise, any measure or ranking of inclusivity risks becoming a function of national wealth. In the **Inclusiveness Index**, the poorest nations on the planet are capable of faring best in terms of inclusivity, while the wealthiest are capable of faring the worst. Insofar as possible, the indicators are non-economic, and not proxies for governmental expenditures or investments in human capital, but rather reflect legal and institutional regimes.

In reviewing the range of possible indicators for our **Inclusiveness Index**, we ultimately selected the following domains that we believe reflect the inclusivity or exclusion of marginalized populations. Within these domains, we selected indicators that measure how various demographic subgroups fare, including: gender, LGBTQ populations, people with disabilities, and racial, ethnic, and religious subgroups.

OUTGROUP VIOLENCE

Outgroup violence is a direct indicator of group marginalization and oppression. Disproportionate violence suffered by discrete social groups reflects animus towards those groups as well as group vulnerability. For example, in the United States, lynching of African Americans in the early twentieth century or assaults on LGBT people in more recent decades reflects both animus as well as vulnerability. This is also true internationally, where ethnic or religious conflict may result in violence and fatalities, with genocide being an extreme expression.[6]

POLITICAL REPRESENTATION

Political representation and the extent to which citizens are able to participate in governance is another strong indicator of group-based marginality or relative inclusion. In democratic societies, ethnic, racial, or religious majorities are capable of outvoting minority groups in electoral politics. This can result in under-representation of minority groups. Similarly, if certain groups are marginalized within a society, even if they are not a numerical minority, we might also expect members of those groups to be under-represented in electoral politics. If members of certain groups, such as women or religious or racial minorities, are consistently under-represented in elected groups, that is often suggestive of marginality. Although there may be limited choices ideologically or between political affiliation and party membership in some nations, there may still be a choice among social group membership. Political representation among appointed representatives is less indicative of marginality because majorities lack direct say.

INCOME INEQUALITY

Group-level income inequality is a revealing indicator of group-based marginality. It not only reflects discrimination in the provision of educational resources, investment in human capital, and employment opportunities, but may also be indicative of discrimination in private markets and segregation in social networks.[4] The degree of income inequality within a nation or state is not dependent upon the size of the economy or the wealth of a nation, but is rather a function of political institutions, cultural norms, and law.[5] In other words, group-level income inequality does not depend on the size of the economic pie, but the distribution of that pie.

ANTI-DISCRIMINATION LAWS

The presence of anti-discrimination laws protecting marginalized groups is another direct indicator of institutional inclusion. Examples of such laws include laws that prohibit government and private discrimination on the basis of race, national origin, disability, religion, gender, or sexual orientation. Explicit protections for marginalized populations and social groups through anti-discrimination laws reflect not only of a society's commitment to equality norms for minority or marginalized groups, but also the presence of a discriminatory problem requiring a policy and legal response. Enacting anti-discrimination laws is not an easy task, especially where a marginalized group is an unpopular minority or lacks political clout or influence.[7] Such laws often reflect broad consensus about the moral and practical necessity of enacting such protections.

RATES OF INCARCERATION

Marginality and inclusivity are often most dramatically evident in a nation's use of criminal law enforcement and incarceration differential rates. Criminal law reflects the cultural norms and values of the dominant group, and its enforcement through incarceration and other forms of criminal punishment are often inflected with social biases. Even in the absence of state oppression against minority or marginalized populations, incarceration rates may reflect cultural or social prejudices that disparately impact marginalized groups. Rates of incarceration more broadly reflect institutional and legal structures that impede inclusivity.

Rates of incarceration vary dramatically from state to state domestically and country to country globally. Lower rates of incarceration are sometimes reflective of more inclusive cultural norms generally, and an emphasis on rehabilitation and reentry over retribution and punishment. Differential rates of incarceration across subgroups serve as an indirect measure of cultural perceptions of those subgroups and their relative social position within a society. For especially marginalized social groups, criminal law is a tool of social control that may result in higher rates of incarceration and punishment.

IMMIGRATION/ASYLUM POLICIES

Another indicator of a society's degree of inclusiveness and group-based marginality within it is the society or nation's immigration or asylum policies. These policies decisions are reflective of the values and perspectives of the society vis-à-vis the marginalized group, and how welcoming or tolerant the dominant group is of outgroups. As an example of exclusionary immigration policies, the United States infamously had Chinese Exclusion Acts, quotas on many ethnic and racial groups, and a blanket prohibition on African immigration shortly after its founding. Strains of nativism and xenophobia tend to not only reflect the openness of a society with respect to the immigrant group, but also the degree of inclusivity within a society.

A complete list of indicators and a description of sources is provided in the Appendix at the end of this report.

Our Inclusiveness Index is a multi-factor index that is uniquely focused on the degree of inclusion and marginality rather than a more general assessment of well-being.

Multi-factor indices paint a more vivid portrait of underlying structural conditions and forms of advantage and disadvantage than single indicator approaches.

The goal of the Inclusiveness Index initiative is to identify policies, interventions, and other levers that have proven effective at ameliorating marginality and promoting inclusivity and equity.

global inclusiveness index
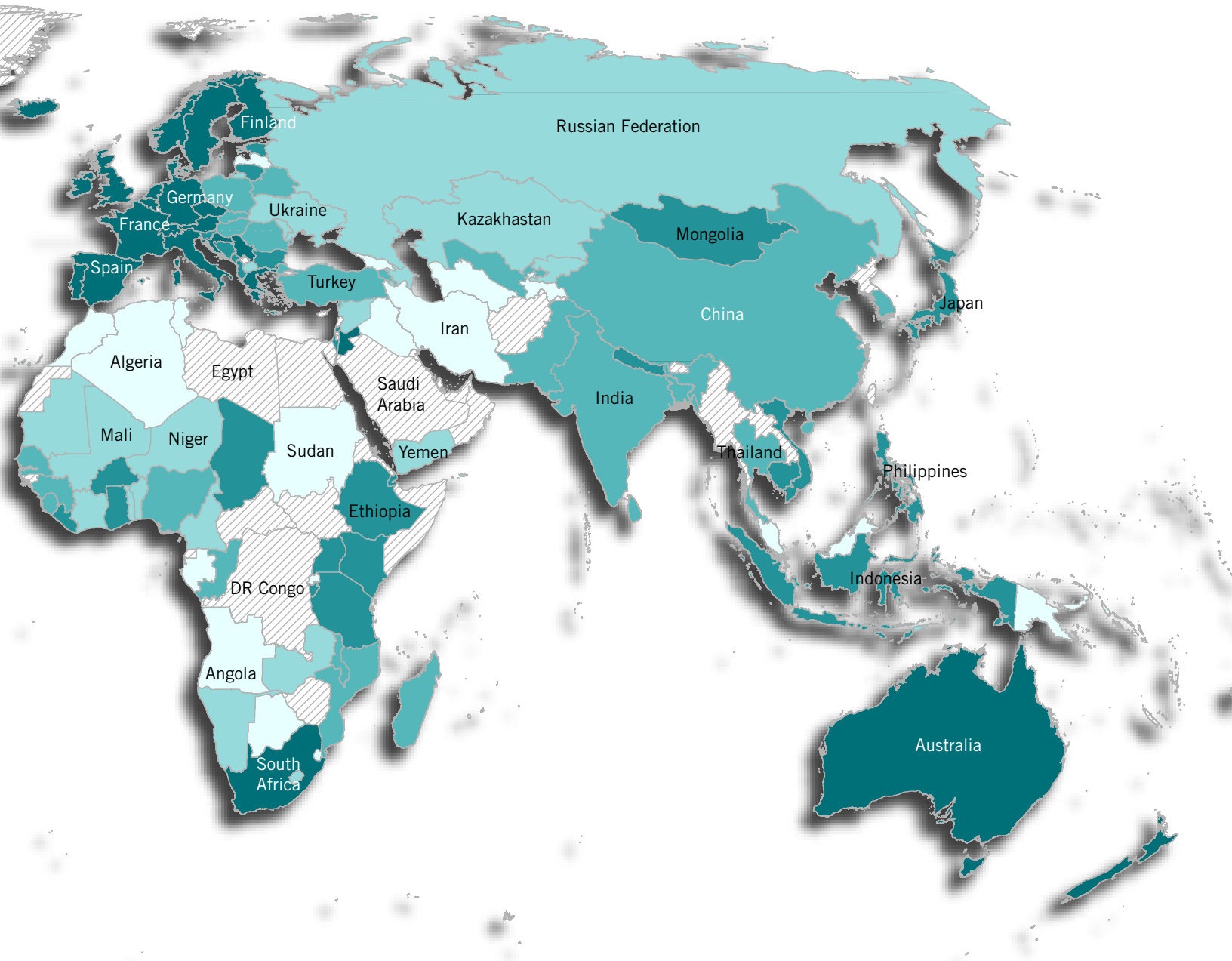
MAP 1

Global Inclusiveness Index Map
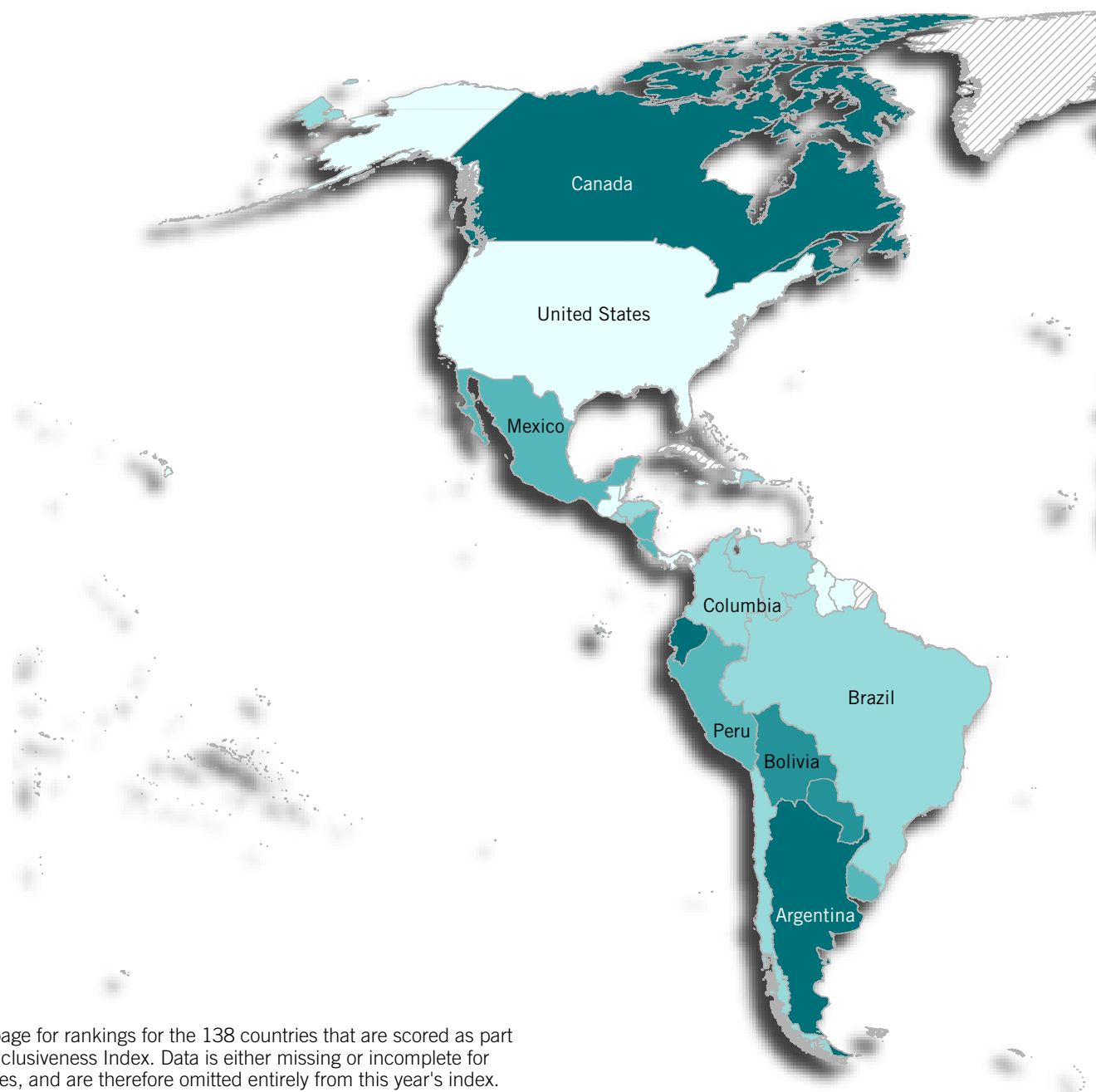
See the next page for rankings for the 138 countries that are scored as part of our 2016 Inclusiveness Index. Data is either missing or incomplete for 106 of countries, and are therefore omitted entirely from this year's index.

National index scores are particularly sensitive to individual indicator rankings. A very high or very low value on any given indicator may be responsible for the relative position of any given nation.

HIGH ▢▢▢▢ LOW NO DATA

Finland

Russian Federation

Germany

Ukraine

Kazakhastan

Mongolia

France

Turkey

Spain

China

Japan

Iran

Algeria

Egypt

Saudi Arabia

India

Mali

Niger

Sudan

Yemen

Thailand

Philippines

Ethiopia

DR Congo

Indonesia

Angola

Australia

South Africa

Global Inclusiveness Rankings 2016

COUNTRY NAME	SCALED SCORE*
Netherlands	100.00
Sweden	98.44
Norway	94.89
Denmark	77.02
Austria	74.91
Germany	74.41
Iceland	72.86
Belgium	72.19
Switzerland	71.29
Canada	70.72
Finland	70.44
France	67.26
Greece	66.95
United Kingdom	66.89
New Zealand	64.84
Ireland	64.55
Jordan	63.69
Spain	57.41
South Africa	57.11
Serbia	57.07
Italy	56.17
Argentina	56.10
Croatia	55.25
Australia	54.68
Slovenia	54.32
Portugal	53.56
Cambodia	52.56
Djibouti	50.64
Ecuador	50.52
Czech Republic	50.20
Chad	50.13
Philippines	49.96
Montenegro	49.34
Nepal	48.58
Vietnam	47.99

COUNTRY NAME	SCALED SCORE*
Albania	47.95
Burundi	47.70
Tanzania	47.67
Estonia	47.34
Bulgaria	47.08
Lithuania	46.71
Japan	46.60
Bosnia & Herzegovina	46.32
Israel	45.87
Indonesia	45.87
China	45.70
Liberia	45.23
Kenya	45.23
Uruguay	44.39
Uganda	44.33
Ethiopia	43.99
Bangladesh	43.76
Mozambique	43.73
Poland	43.50
Paraguay	43.13
Mongolia	43.10
Armenia	42.82
Hungary	42.76
Uzbekistan	42.64
Burkina Faso	42.60
Pakistan	42.50
East Timor	41.25
Romania	41.00
Slovakia	40.58
Belarus	40.51
Ghana	40.13
India	39.89
Moldova	39.34
Malawi	38.99

HIGH

LOW

COUNTRY NAME	SCALED SCORE*
Kyrgyzstan	38.73
Senegal	38.70
Sierra Leone	38.45
Thailand	38.44
Costa Rica	38.14
Madagascar	38.07
Nicaragua	37.95
Nigeria	37.35
Bolivia	36.89
South Korea	36.82
Guinea	36.69
Tajikistan	36.67
Macedonia	35.98
Ukraine	35.21
Kazakhstan	35.04
Mexico	34.97
Togo	34.80
Yemen	34.62
Chile	34.54
Cameroon	34.25
Sri Lanka	34.02
Mali	33.23
Syria	33.10
Turkey	32.72
Latvia	32.63
Azerbaijan	32.54
Mauritania	32.03
Malaysia	31.83
Dominican Republic	31.76
Turkmenistan	31.76
Venezuela	31.54
Republic of Congo	31.19
CÔte d'Ivoire	31.09
Gambia	30.88
Niger	30.81

COUNTRY NAME	SCALED SCORE*
Benin	30.81
Colombia	30.28
Georgia	30.19
Brazil	29.72
Algeria	28.49
Lesotho	28.20
Iraq	27.76
Zambia	27.29
Peru	27.28
Haiti	27.13
El Salvador	27.07
Tunisia	26.95
Honduras	26.95
Jamaica	26.75
Russia	26.63
Namibia	25.61
Papua New Guinea	25.35
Sudan	24.84
Trinidad and Tobago	24.41
Guatemala	24.32
United States ±	24.01
Suriname	21.23
Saint Lucia	20.72
Guyana	19.39
Singapore	19.13
Gabon	19.01
Morocco	18.04
Iran	17.00
Panama	13.77
Angola	11.88
Rwanda	11.84
Swaziland	10.03
Botswana	6.72
Belize	0.00

HIGH

LOW

± The United States' ranking is primarily explained by the rates of incarceration present in the US, but the United States also lags behind other nations in a number of other areas, including gender representation among elected politicians.

*Raw scores for each indicator may be downloaded at haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/inclusivenesindex.

Global Themes and Findings

The composite scores and relative rankings within the Inclusiveness Index convey an overall, holistic assessment of the institutional inclusiveness of many of the world's nations. The holistic scores and relative position may mask important patterns or trends that are worth illuminating. In this section of the report, we surface many critical global trends and findings, including: Global Migration, Income Inequality, Marriage Equality, Violence against Women, and Religious Discrimination.

GLOBAL MIGRATION

Across the globe, we are witnessing the largest movements of migration in nearly a century. An estimated 65.3 million people have been forcibly displaced worldwide, the largest since World War II.[8] Violent conflict, military intervention, environmental degradation, and other conditions, including austerity measures and land dispossession, are driving major migratory waves in many parts of the world.[9] These waves of global migration are a product of mechanisms of expulsion and Othering connected to human development, geopolitics, and violent conflict, not simply natural disasters or economic patterns.[10] These mechanisms expel the most vulnerable and marginalized out of their own social and cultural environments, often under inhumane conditions and circumstances, forcing them to seek refuge elsewhere. We highlight several major migratory patterns that are shaping inclusivity values across the globe.

The Migrant Crisis in Europe

The waves of migrants into the European Union (EU) and Euro-zone countries has received much attention in the last year, especially as migrants and refugees flee conflicts in the Middle East and North Africa. The heartbreaking images of a drowned Syrian boy on a Turkish beach underscored the humanitarian crisis.[11] In 2015 alone, the number of asylum seekers to Europe quadrupled from 2014.[12]

The movement of people towards the EU was not a new phenomenon, and the EU has institutional mechanisms devoted to deal with it. Between 2011 and 2014, EU countries received more than 80 million migrants and asylum–seekers, most from non-Middle Eastern and/or non-Muslim countries. The recent wave of migrants and refugees are mostly Muslims and of Syrian, Afghani, Somali, Eritrean, and Sudanese backgrounds. Concerns over migrant groups' social identities, as well as austerity measures, have made the responses of EU institutions and Euro-zone countries substantially less receptive and slower than previous migrant waves.[13]

626,065 asylum applications in Europe in 2014
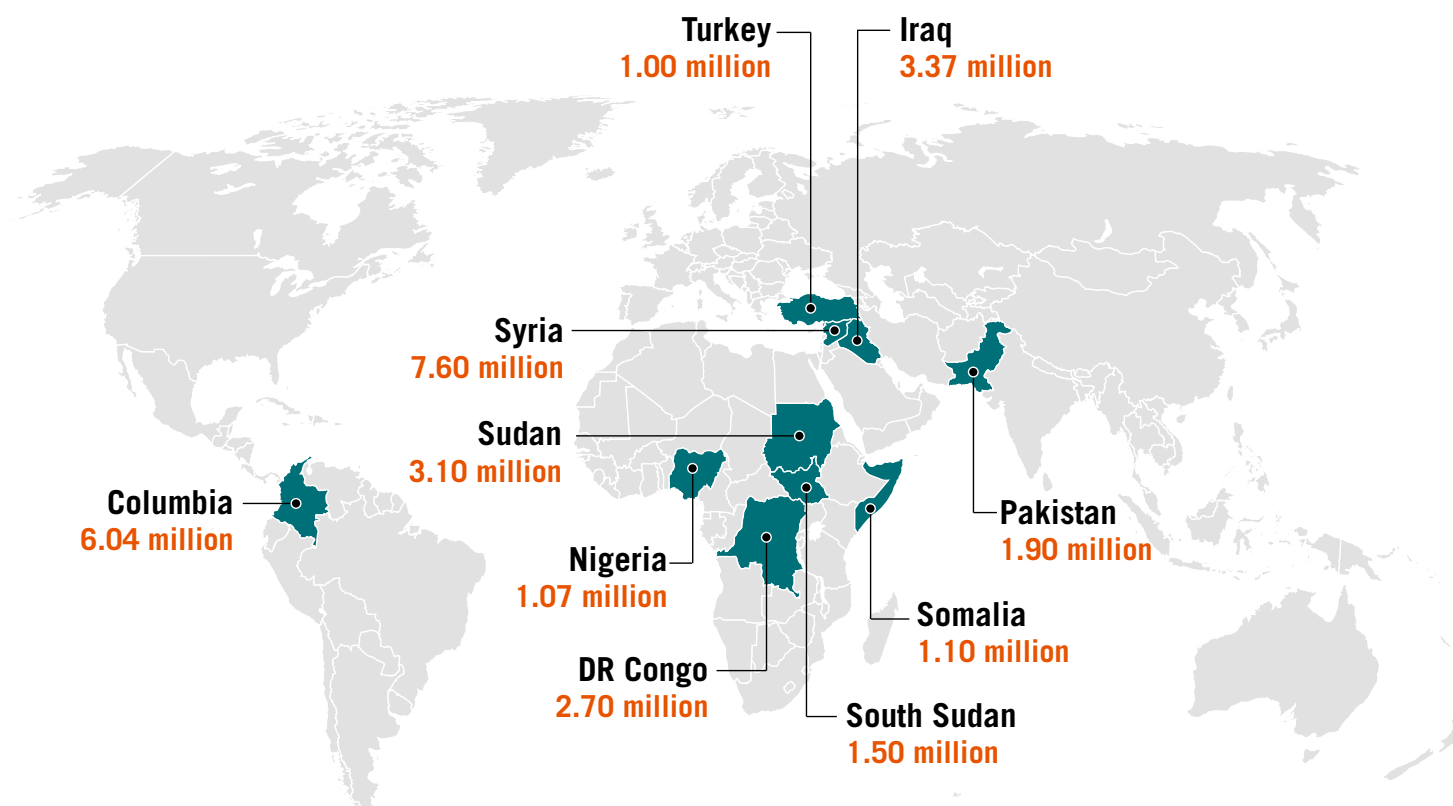
Source: UNCHR

Top 3 countries of Europe's Asylum Seekers

	2013	2014	Change
Syria	50,420	122,790	↑144%
Afghanistan	26,235	41,305	↑57%
Kosovo	20,220	37,875	↑87%

The current migrant crisis in Europe is a byproduct of both institutional and economic crises that have shaken EU and Euro-zone member states since 2009. Although the crisis reverberates across the EU, it has been most acute on the European peripheries of southern and eastern Europe. Economic stagnation and austerity measures have undermined the willingness of Euro-Zone member states to welcome migrants on account of the costs of settling newcomers and fears of labor competition between migrants and local citizens. At the same time, de-funding of humanitarian agencies

MAP 2

Top 10 Countries of Internally Displaced Peoples

Turkey
1.00 million

Iraq
3.37 million

Syria
7.60 million

Sudan
3.10 million

Columbia
6.04 million

Nigeria
1.07 million

Pakistan
1.90 million

Somalia
1.10 million

DR Congo
2.70 million

South Sudan
1.50 million

has left existing EU institutions and member-states unable to cope with the influx of migrants. During and aftermath of the implementation of austerity measures, non-EU refugees and migrants are about twice as likely to be unemployed as EU nationals, and this unemployment is often extended over multiple months, and even years.[14]

The EU and Euro-zone countries have put political calculations ahead of humanitarian duties in dealing with the influx of tens of millions of people fleeing their homelands due to military intervention, austerity measures, and the effects of climate change. A report by Caritas Europa (2014) found that "human cost of the economic crisis and the measures taken in response to it and to the threat to European cohesion that is now growing as a result," and the report also observes that "negative effects [will be] lasting for decades even if the economy starts to improve in the near future, and of risks of unrest and extremism flowing from rising unemployment."[15]

The current approach to the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe has done little to address the root causes of the crisis. Specifically, exclusionary policies compel populations involuntarily to flee their homeland, including but not limited to civil wars and climate change, and religious, ethnic,
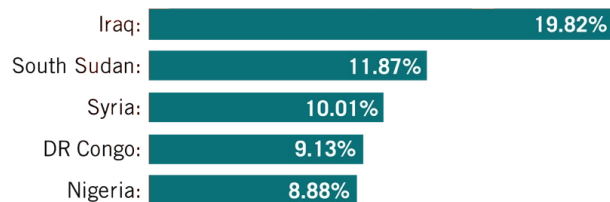
MAP 3

Top 10 Countries that Host Refugees

Turkey
1.94 million,
now more than 2 million

Iran
1.00 million

Germany
0.85 million

Syria
1.25 million

Lebanon
1.17 million

Chad
0.37 million

China
0.30 million

Pakistan
2.31 million

Kenya
0.65 million

Jordan
2.48 million
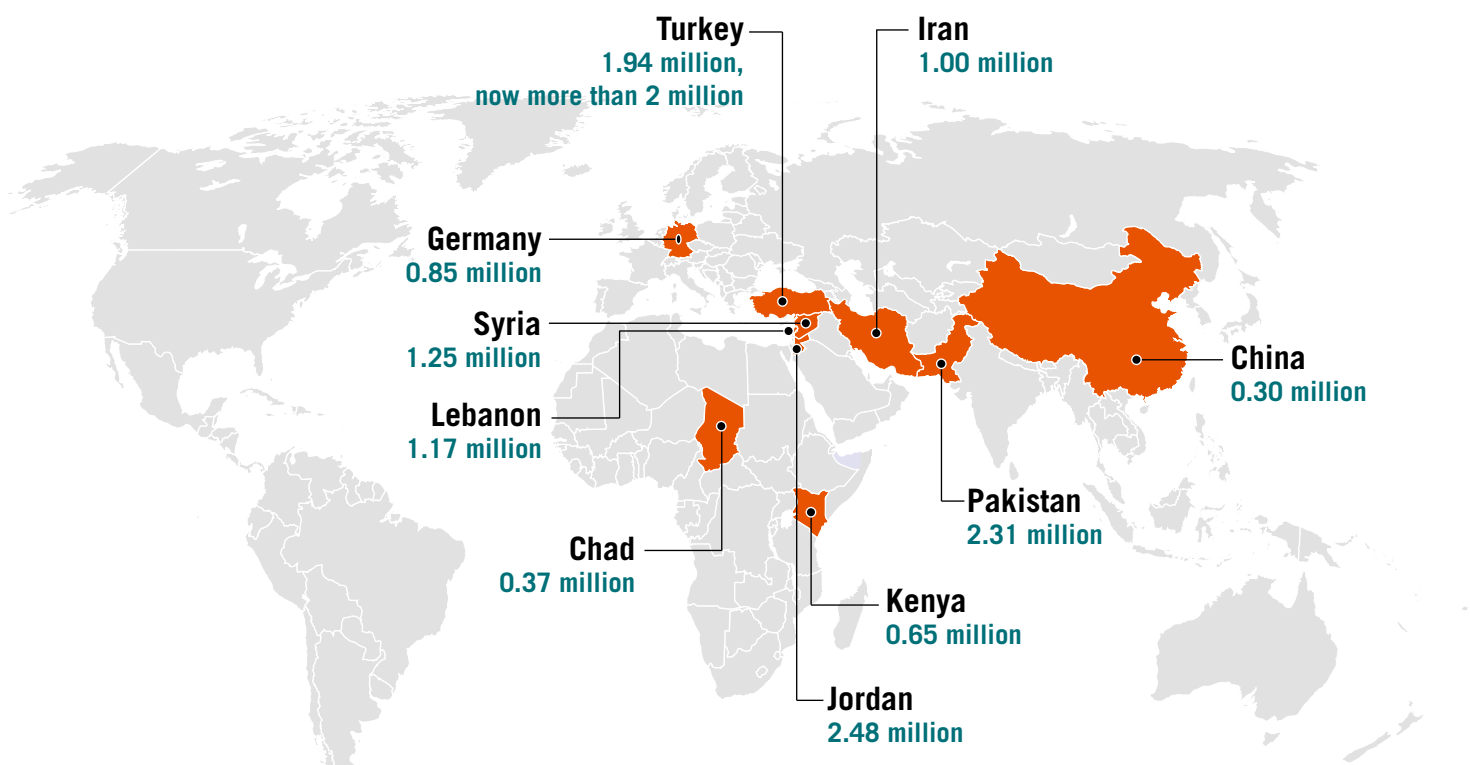
political, and gender persecutions. Many nation-states, such as Afghanistan, Myanmar, DR Congo, Iraq, Pakistan, South Sudan, and Syria just to name a few, subject their populations to forced migration due to state's institutions captured by elites, internal civil conflict, extreme indiscriminate acts of violence, or to religious persecution. In their totality, these mechanisms make life unbearable, particularly for the most marginalized. For example, a 2015 report published by the International Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) found that, globally, there are 38 million people who are displaced by conflicts.[16] Seventy-seven percent of the world's Internally Displaced Peoples (IDPs) live in just ten countries (See Map 2), and sixty percent of the new displaced took place in just five countries. Additionally, "between 2008 and 2013 disasters have displaced an average of 27 million people each year."[17] In addition, in 2013 alone, there were 22 million people who were displaced by natural disasters, such as earthquakes, typhoons, extreme rains and floods, and droughts.[18]

60% of new IDPs live in these **5** countries

Iraq:	19.82%
South Sudan:	11.87%
Syria:	10.01%
DR Congo:	9.13%
Nigeria:	8.88%

The massive migration on the southern border of Europe is an extreme example of forced expulsions in countries of origin. Similarly, refugees' attempts to reach safe havens in destination or transition countries have not proved welcoming. As millions of people flee their homelands, escaping forces of expulsions, and risking their own lives, the receiving countries of the European Union and Euro Zone are shutting their doors in the face of such a massive human tragedy. Governments and non-government actors on all sides (origin, transition, and destination countries) are engaged in exclusionary practices, that ultimately deny the humanity of refugees.[19]
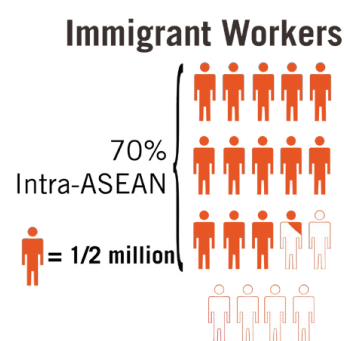
Migrant Labor in Southeast Asia

Southeast Asia is another part of the globe experiencing massive migratory patterns. While ethnic and religious persecution are playing a role in many of the migratory waves, economic conditions are playing an outsized role in Southeast Asia. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) report on Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries suggests an average growth rate of 5.6% for 2015–19 for the region.[20] However there are large economic disparities between countries in the region. In general, economically advanced countries have low or negative working age population growth.[21] This generates a demand for labor which is supplied by an inflow of migrants from other countries, regionally and globally.

In ASEAN countries, a skilled migrant workforce has contributed greatly to the economies of Singapore, Thailand and Malaysia, but the region lacks a structured policy framework and related mechanisms for a smooth flow of labor from and to member countries. This has resulted in migration of low-skill labor from weak economies to emerging and strong economies in the region. Irregular unskilled labor accounts for 87% of low-skilled intra-ASEAN migration.[22] Additionally, nearly 70% of the 9.5 million migrant workers in the region are intra-ASEAN.[23]

This irregular migration has created intractable issues within the region. Many low-skill migrants are marginalized and exploited. Low wages, extended work hours, and discriminatory behaviors are endured by these low-skilled migrants. There are reports of gender bias and child exploitation as well within the irregular migrant communities. An inclusive society would accord better working conditions and fair and guaranteed remunerations to its labor force, whether domestic or migrant.

Immigrant Workers

70% Intra-ASEAN

= 1/2 million

Low Skilled Migrants

87% Unskilled Labor

A comprehensive immigration policy and implementation of fair labor laws will benefit not only the migrant community but would also increase tax revenue for the host country by eliminating shadow economy and strengthening low-skill labor market. In 2007, ASEAN member countries pledged to create an ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by 2015 to transform the region into a "single market and production base," and AEC was formally established in Dec 2015.

INCOME INEQUALITY

The issue of inequality has, in recent years, become increasingly central in public and policy debates.[24] This fact has been driven by income and wealth trends over the last thirty years which reflect growing inequality within most nations. It is important to note that this trend has occurred within both advanced and emerging economies, as well as low inequality and high inequality countries. In other words, even traditionally egalitarian nations such as the Scandinavian countries have experienced higher levels of inequality in recent decades.

Global GINI co-efficient 1960-2010

The most common measure of income inequality is the Gini coefficient, which measures the top of the income distribution against the bottom. Research suggests that Gini coefficient scores have risen in since the 1980s in most countries, and sharply in many.[25] In addition to a rising Gini coefficient, much attention has been paid to returns and earnings of the 1% of the income distribution, as well as the even greater concentration of wealth. These findings have been well documented elsewhere.[26]
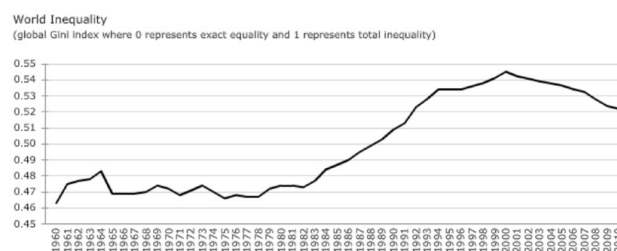
Trends in income and wealth inequality are among the most important findings in the global **Inclusiveness Index**. Income and wealth inequality are increasingly evident in many of the advanced and emerging economies in the world/global north. We will highlight one of those exceptions here, South America.

Income Inequality in South America

Relative to other regions, Latin America has historically higher degrees of income inequality than the world. For example, in the late 1990s, these nations had a weighted Gini coefficient score of .548,[27] more unequal than Sub-Sahara African and East Asia by significant margins.[28] High income inequality in these regions has been described as a persistent feature of this region. These nations have some of the wealthiest individuals in the world, but also many of the poorest. However, between 2000 and 2012, this region experienced the greatest reduction of income inequality in the world. Between 2000 and 2011, the Gini coefficient declined in 16 of 17 nations in this region.[29] The global recession did not seem to change this basic pattern. This trend was pronounced throughout the region, but most visible in in Nicaragua, Bolivia, and Ecuador. In fact, the weighted Gini coefficient for these nations dropped to .488 by the late 2000s, and has fallen even further since.

It is important to note that this pattern has occurred across the region and is evident in wealthier, poorer, larger, less populated, more autocratic, and more democratic nations. That suggests deep economic forces may partially explain these patterns. That is not to say, however, that policies and institutional roles have not played an important role. World Bank and UN Development Program economists estimate that much as 30% of the reduction in income inequality can be explained by progressive redistributionist policies and cash transfers.[30]

We must, however, distinguish between trends and levels of inequality. Despite these positive trends for the region, Latin America remains the most unequal region in the world. It remains to be seen whether market forces and further institutional reform and policy practice will sustain these hopeful trends.

MAP 4

Inclusiveness Related to Income Inequality in South America

HIGH				LOW

NO DATA

MARRIAGE EQUALITY & SAME-SEX RELATIONS

One of the most hopeful global trends towards inclusion has been to afford lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) peoples greater rights and protections, including the growing liberalization of same-sex marriage restrictions and laws regulating same-sex relations. While this trend is not universal, as of May 2016, there are twenty countries that have approved the right of same-sex couples to marry nationwide (See Map 5).
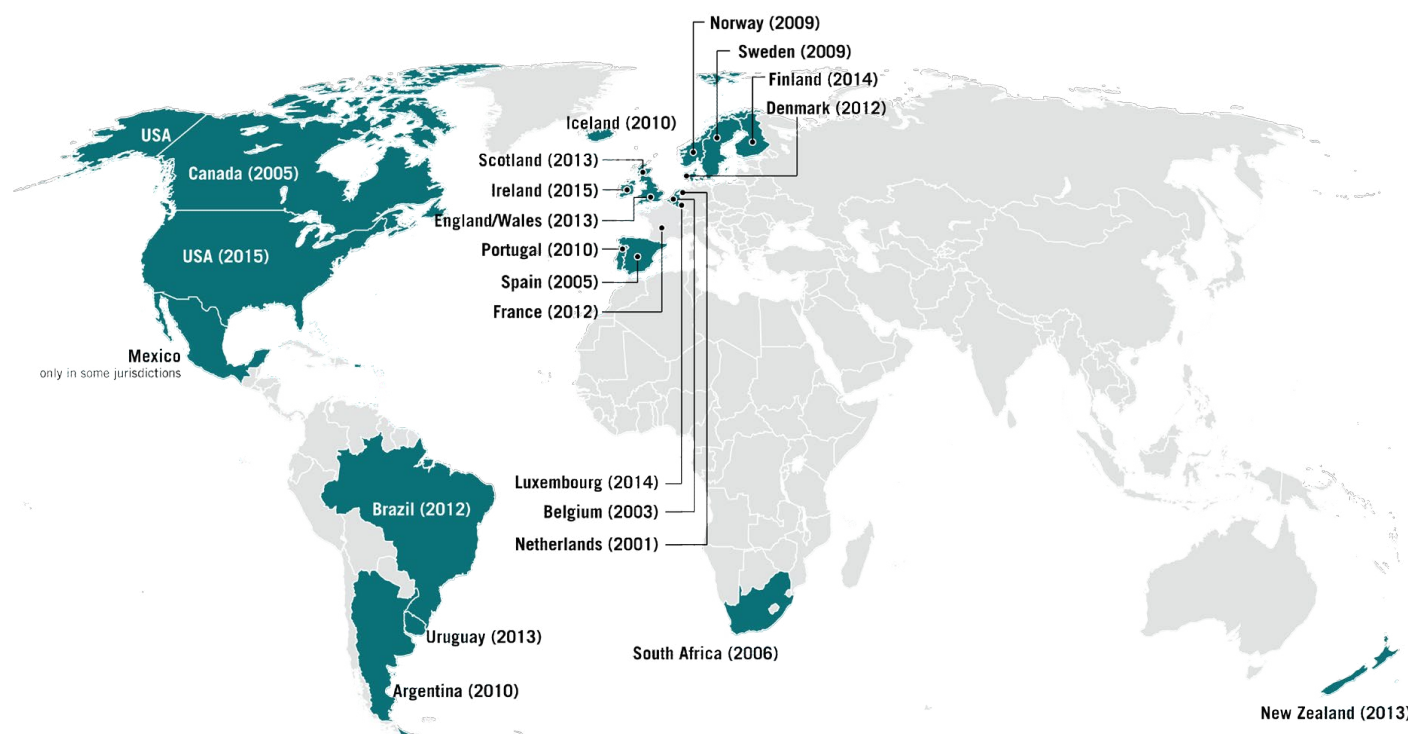
When Ireland became the first and only country in the world to approve the right to marry by popular referendum, it represented a tremendous step forward toward social progress and inclusion in that country, which may have reverberations around the globe.[31]

It is important to note, however, that other countries represent the other extreme. For instance, Barbados and Sierra Leone sentence people who engage in same-sex activities to life in prison, while Iran, Mauritania, parts of Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, and Sudan (if a person is convicted for same-sex relations three times) have the death penalty for convictions of same-sex relations or activities by men.[32]

In addition, Australia, Colombia, and Slovenia are making progress to legalize same-sex marriage with different variations.[33] Other countries have recognized alternative forms of relationship recognition for same-sex couples, including: Andorra, Austria, Chile, Croatia, Czech Republic, Ecuador, Germany, Greenland, Hungary, Israel, Liechtenstein, Malta, Northern Ireland, and Switzerland.[34] In the case of Mexico, the country has regional rights to same-sex marriage. Furthermore, in Kiribati, Mauritius, Singapore, Tunisia, and Zimbabwe, same-sex relations between women are legal. And in Egypt, technically, the penal code doesn't criminalize homosexuality; however, one could be arrested for breaking the law on the ground of debauchery or of offending religious and moral standards.[35]

inclusiveness

index

MAP 5

Countries with Marriage Equality

Norway (2009)
Sweden (2009)
Finland (2014)
Denmark (2012)
Iceland (2010)
Scotland (2013)
Ireland (2015)
England/Wales (2013)
Portugal (2010)
Spain (2005)
France (2012)

USA

Canada (2005)

USA (2015)

Mexico
only in some jurisdictions

Brazil (2012)

Luxembourg (2014)
Belgium (2003)
Netherlands (2001)

Uruguay (2013)

Argentina (2010)

South Africa (2006)

New Zealand (2013)

GENDER INEQUALITY AND VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Violence against women in India

Gender inequality and gender violence are disturbing features of many societies, but has become especially salient in the Indian subcontinent in recent years. Dowry, lower enrollment of school age girls, lower women labor force participation[36] are structural barriers for women to achieve their full potential, and gender selection at birth is creating demographic imbalances.[37] In India the desire to have a boy instead of a girl has led to unhealthy practices of female infanticide, illegal abortions, and ill treatment of female children and the mothers who give birth to girls.[38]

Over the past 20 years, there have been tremendous improvements in socioeconomic status of Indians primarily in urban areas; however, many cultural traditions in relation to women treatment have stalled women from being considered as equal partner with men in India.[39] This phenomenon is particularly evident in rural areas.

Specifically, during the last decade, economic growth has brought more opportunities to all citizens in India and for women in particular. Education of women and their participation in labor force is continuing to be on the rise; however, the work culture in India remains less conducive for women and working mothers. Long working hours and lack of appropriate childcare options are

haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/inclusivenessindex
20

emblematic of some of the unfavorable conditions for women. Furthermore, fewer laws and policy initiatives provided a gender-balanced approach. Land rights, political rights, employment opportunities, educational opportunities, were all male-dominated areas and policies.[40]

Simultaneously, the country also witnessed increase of sexual harassments against women that brought the crimes against women to the forefront of social contestations. For example, the brutal rape and death of Jyoti Singh in 2012 made international headlines. [41] The local outcry has put pressure on the Indian government to declare its commitment of making women safety a top priority. However, cases of rape and murder of women are happening unabated. As women safety concerns, on the one hand, could be traced to gender imbalance created by sex-selection bias in the society that leaves many rural areas to harbor bias against females. On the other hand, fewer cases are reported due to societal pressures, shame and the institutions of male-domination such as the law enforcement.

RELIGIOUS DISCRIMINATION

Islamophobia in the US and Europe

Islamophobia refers to fears, suspicions, hostility, or hate towards Muslims, Islam, or Islamic cultures, as well as policies and practices that subject Muslims to additional scrutiny, religious profiling, or other discriminatory practices. Islamophobia is a form of Othering expressed in prejudiced views and acts of legal, political, social, or cultural exclusion that aim to single out, vilify, verbally and/or physically harm Muslims. Islamophobia has manifested in overpolicing that engages in profiling, surveillance, and detention of people along the lines of racial and religious identity and country of origin.

Such practices assume the construction of a homogenized Muslim identity and an undifferentiated religious group with fixed characteristics, culture, behaviors, and ideas. In the context of Islamophobia, Muslims are presented as the opposite of the "Judeo-Christian western identity," and antithetical to liberal western values.[42] Those who are Islamophobic often view Muslims as outsiders or a threat to "Western" civilization and societies. [43] Authors and politicians may single out Muslims for differential and discriminatory treatment, as when Republican Presidential nominee Donald Trump and others called for "registering Muslims into a database and banning all Muslims from entering the United States," [44] or when Ted Cruz called for the state to "patrol and secure Muslim neighborhoods before they become radicalized." These statements symbolize the extreme form of Othering against Muslim Americans and the Muslim community in the US, but are far from the only examples.

In 2012 Representative Peter King (R-NY) initiated the first installment in a series of hearings on the radicalization of Muslims in America. Representative King justified these hearings by arguing that Al-Qaeda "is recruiting Muslims living legally in the United States—homegrown terrorists who have managed to stay under the anti-terror radar screen." Furthermore, between 2011 and 2012, two legislation acts of the Department of Homeland Security (S. 1546 and H.R. 3116) contained language that singled out American Muslims for additional scrutiny over the threat of violent extremism in the US. And in 2013, 37 bills that single out Muslims or Islam were introduced in 16 states, and became law in seven of them: Alabama, Arizona, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, South Dakota, and Tennessee.[45]
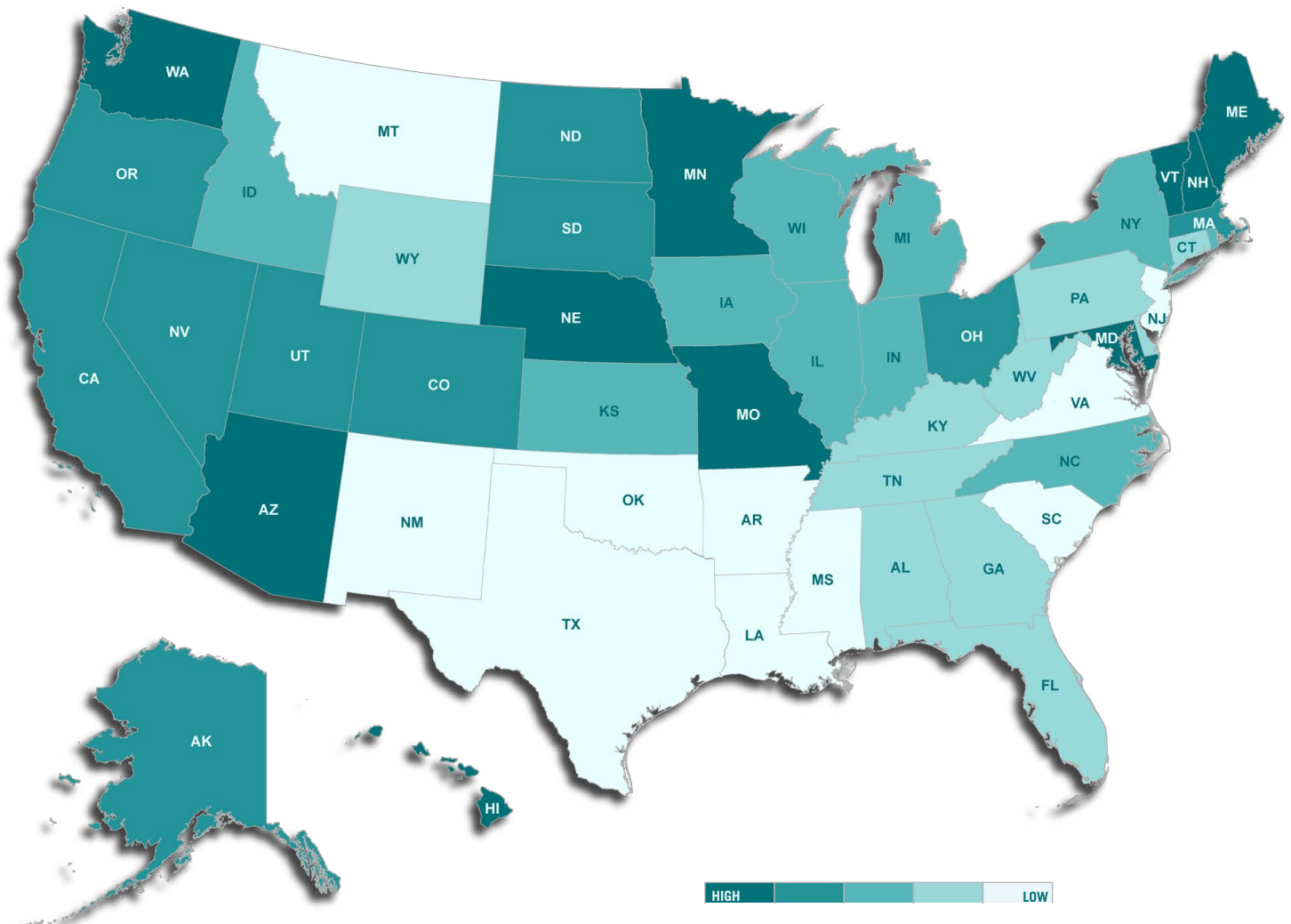
Discrimination against Muslims is not only a matter of religion, but is closely tied to judgments and associations to skin color, nationality, language, naming, and attire. In most European coun-

tries, Muslim minorities have been portrayed as not belonging and wanting to separate themselves from the rest of society. Government policies have failed to ensure access to equal rights and equal opportunity, forcing significant numbers of Muslim minorities to face unemployment, poverty, and limited civic and political participation, all of which aggravate stereotypes and intensify Othering of Muslims. Furthermore, in 2011–2012 Shadow Reports, published by the European Network Against Racism (ENAR), found that "anti-Muslim and anti-immigration discourses, promoted and exacerbated by both extremist and mainstream political parties, are fueling discrimination and preventing ethnic and religious communities from participating fully in the European society and economy."[46] For example, on July 13, 2010 the French National Assembly overwhelmingly voted in favor of a bill prohibiting clothing concealing the face in public places with 335 votes for the bill, one against, and most of the opposition boycotting the vote, by September 14, 2010, the bill ratified the law in October despite its previous warnings to the government.[47] Whereas, the French government believes that this legislation is necessary in order to protect gender equality and maintain public order.

united states inclusiveness index

MAP 6

United States
Inclusiveness Map 2016

HIGH | LOW

United States Inclusiveness Rankings

STATE	SCALED SCORE*	STATE	SCALED SCORE*
Vermont	100.00	North Carolina	58.18
New Hampshire	86.63	Illinois	57.81
Maryland	84.63	Kansas	57.78
Hawaii	81.63	Idaho	57.54
Minnesota	81.55	Pennsylvania	54.87
Washington	76.95	Georgia	54.64
Maine	75.52	Kentucky	53.64
Nebraska	74.69	Florida	52.43
Arizona	69.79	Tennessee	49.97
Missouri	69.47	Connecticut	49.64
Colorado	69.26	Delaware	48.57
North Dakota	67.93	Wyoming	48.46
Ohio	65.51	West Virginia	47.25
Oregon	63.82	Alabama	43.10
Nevada	63.82	New Mexico	41.67
Utah	63.25	Virginia	41.64
Alaska	62.79	Montana	39.29
South Dakota	62.45	New Jersey	38.42
California	62.22	South Carolina	34.72
Massachusetts	61.12	Arkansas	31.03
Iowa	60.57	Oklahoma	30.29
Rhode Island	60.30	Louisiana	24.07
Indiana	60.10	Texas	23.04
Wisconsin	59.83	District of Columbia	14.17
New York	59.66	Mississippi	0.00
Michigan	59.44		

As with the global inclusiveness index, the score values are not scaled but developed using a z-scoring methodology. A description of indicators and methods can be found in the Appendix of this report. Raw scores can be found at: haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/inclusivenessindex.

U.S. Themes and Findings

Our global rankings provide insight into the relative inclusivity of particular nations and regions along a range of relevant social dimensions.

Although limited data collection and reporting and incommensurate sources and measures make it difficult to draw firm conclusions, these rankings and the relative scoring suggests something about the institutional and political context that is worth investigating. Our findings and themes section sought to illuminate some of the dynamics behind the data.
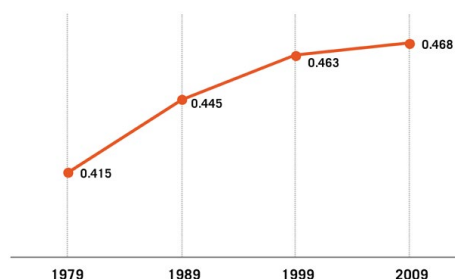
Within the United States, we have more data reported and collected across the range of social dimensions and measures of inclusivity. This offers a slightly more robust assessment of the relative inclusivity of states and regions. Within the United States, as globally, we observe wide variation in performance across jurisdictions. In this section of the report, we highlight five key areas of critical importance or notable trends that merit discussion: Income Inequality; Mass Incarceration; State & Local Immigration Policies; Refugee Admissions; and Marriage Equality.

INCOME INEQUALITY

Income inequality has become one of the more prominent political and social issues in the United States in the last few years, generating a trove of scholarship and research. Concern over trends with respect to declining or stagnant wages, the decline of the middle class, and the distribution of income and wealth have intensified.[48] Less attention has been paid to the variations and conditions between states.

The most common measure of income inequality is the Gini coefficient, which compares the income at the top of the income distribution with that at the bottom. According to this measure, a surprising and complex pattern emerges, visible in Map 7.

According to the Census Bureau, New York, Connecticut, Mississippi, Louisiana, and the District of Columbia have the highest levels of income inequality among the states. In contrast, Utah, Alaska, New Hampshire, Wyoming and Iowa have the lowest degrees of income inequality. Among the top and bottom are a mix of so-called "blue" and "red" states.

US GINI co-efficient 1979-2009

Some observers have argued that blue states actually produce more income inequality[49]—however, the underlying relationship is complex. Blue states such as New York and California may have larger economies, and states with larger economies have more inequality because of greater distance between the bottom and the top of the income distribution. It may also be that blue state economies rely more on knowledge and high-skilled labor, which leaves unskilled workers in those states more disadvantaged.[50]

What is clear is that the most unequal states before 1980 were far more geographically concentrated in the deep south.[51] In 1979, Alabama, Louisiana, Arkansas and Mississippi were the most unequal states. Now, blue states feature among the most unequal in the nation. It should also be

MAP 7

US GINI Index 2014

WA

MT

ND

NH 0.441

ME

OR

ID

MN

VT 0.4406

WI 0.4397

SD

MI

NY 0.5111

MA 0.4863

WY 0.427

RI 0.4827

NV 0.4427

NE 0.4352

IA 0.4433

PA

CT 0.5005

UT 0.4283

IL

IN

OH

WV

VA

NJ

CA 0.489

CO

KS

MO

KY

DE

MD

DC 0.5224

AZ

NM

OK

AR

TN 0.4811

NC

SC

MS

AL

GA

TX 0.4827

LA 0.4902

FL 0.4834

AK 0.4175

HI 0.4325

GINI Index

- ■ Lower Values (Equality)
- ■ Higher Values (Inequality)
- ■ Other Values
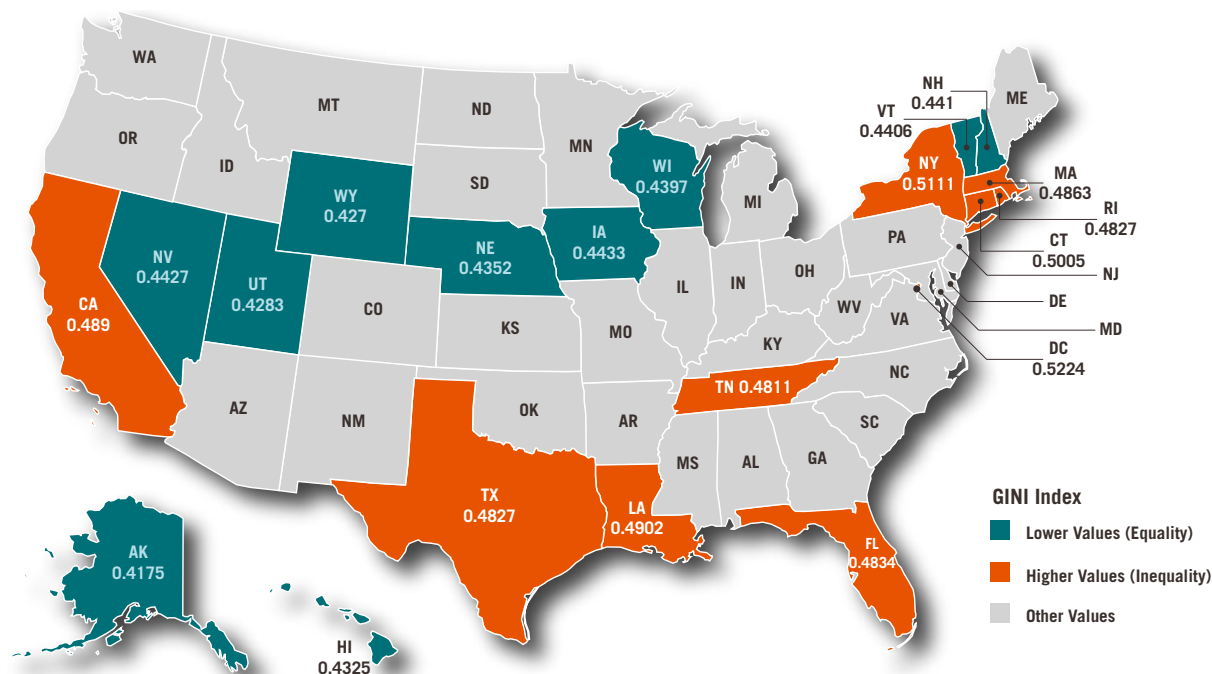
mentioned that blue states are more expensive to live in, with generally higher costs of living, housing, and higher taxes, despite greater services and public provision.

MASS INCARCERATION

Perhaps the most distributing finding evident in the **Inclusiveness Index** indicators within the United States is rates of incarceration. The United States is the world's leading incarcerator in both absolute and relative terms, with 2.2 million people in prison or jail and many more on parole.[52] Although the US has 5% of the world's population, it has 25% of the world's prison population.[53] The US incarcerates more than seven times as many people as Canada on a per capita basis. Only Russia, with a rate of 450 per 100,000, approaches the United States. China, a country not known for having a lenient criminal justice system, has a smaller prison population than the US despite four times the overall population.[54]

Mass incarceration in the United States is a relatively recent historical trend. Today, more than 700 out of every 100,000 people are incarcerated. That is compared to about 150 people per 100,000 people in the mid-1970s, which is more in line with other major countries. In terms of group-based disparities, the rise of mass incarceration has clearly has racial impacts as seventy percent of those incarcerated are Black or Latinx.[55] As many as one in three Black males between the ages of 18 to 29 are under the supervision of this system.

It is important to note that not only is mass incarceration a recent phenomenon, but that rates of incarceration vary greatly within the United States, just as they do from nation to nation. As is evident in this table, there are regional variations of incarceration. Southern states have the highest rates of incarceration while the New England states have the fewest percentage of resident imprisoned. Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Georgia, and Texas lead the nation in rates of incarceration, with rates that are 5 times as great as the least carceral states in the union.

This geographic variation globally and within the United States suggests that rates of incarceration are primarily explained by policy and institutional practice rather than rates of crime. Saskia Sassen observes that states with the highest rates of incarceration have more punitive sentencing laws, fewer opportunities for pre-release, and, perhaps, higher rates of re-offending. She also notes a correlation between for-profit prison industries and services and incarceration rates—which may serve as a perverse incentive system that makes this disturbing pattern more difficult to reverse.

IMMIGRATION POLICIES AND REFUGEE ADMISSIONS

One of the issues that is not reflected in our data but is worthy of discussion is the varying local and state response to immigration and the federal refugee program. On a federal level, undocumented immigrants have limited civil, political, and cultural rights, and they live in constant fear of deportation. In an effort to make immigrants part of the social fabric, many states and municipalities across the country have enacted legislation that pushes back against the harsh and punitive federal immigration laws. On the other hand, there has been a backlash against the federal government's proposal to resettle Syrian refugees in the country, and most states have manifested outright opposition or skepticism about the plan.

Immigration and Sanctuary Cities

Immigration policy is generally set by the federal government. However, state and local governments have developed a number of policies that supplement, support, or resist federal immigration policies in a variety of ways. For instance, some states and municipalities have limited

Rank	State	Incarceration Per 100,000
1	Louisiana	1341
2	Mississippi	1155
3	Oklahoma	1081
4	Georgia	1074
5	Texas	1063
6	Arizona	1060
7	Kentucky	948
8	South Carolina	900
9	West Virginia	895
10	Florida	891
11	Arkansas	886
12	New Mexico	870
13	Alabama	886
14	Virginia	815
15	Colorado	807
16	South Dakota	777
17	Pennsylvania	770
18	Indiana	751
19	Tennessee	740
20	Nevada	737
21	Delaware	719
22	Idaho	719
23	Missouri	701
24	California	689
25	Wisconsin	670
26	Ohio	664
27	North Carolina	647
28	Wyoming	634
29	Kansas	631
30	Michigan	628
31	Maryland	621
32	District of Columbia	598
33	Alaska	592
34	Oregon	580
35	Connecticut	561
36	Illinois	552
37	Montana	540
38	New Jersey	506
39	New York	492
40	Washington	475
41	Utah	458
42	Nebraska	448
43	Iowa	437
44	Hawaii	417
45	Minnesota	385
46	Massachusetts	377
47	North Dakota	370
48	New Hampshire	368
49	Rhode Island	359
50	Maine	277
51	Vermont	254

their compliance with federal immigration law enforcement due to expense, concern for family unit, constitutional separation of powers, and disapproval of the rampant deportation of non-violent, perhaps non-convicted individuals. In general, this was a result of the efforts of grassroots movements across the country. Currently more than 320 jurisdictions limit compliance with federal immigration law enforcement in some fashion.[56] These jurisdictions have been dubbed "sanctuary cities."

For example, California's Trust Act limits compliance with federal detainer orders[57] based upon conviction of specific crimes. New York City enacted a similar law.[58] Washington, DC limits detainer enforcement to violent or dangerous offenders, and only with the pre-commitment of the federal government to reimburse all costs incurred.[59] Other jurisdictions are also making strides toward offering immigrants civil rights. For example, Chicago allows parents to vote in school board elections irrespective of immigration status. Takoma Park, in Maryland, permits noncitizens to volte in all local elections.[60] With regard to public services, California allows undocumented immigrants to access healthcare, and specific counties within the state provide undocumented immigrants with even more robust access to healthcare. Moreover, 15 jurisdictions in the US allow undocumented immigrants to obtain a driver's license. Lastly, Massachusetts has passed a law that extends to undocumented domestic workers labor protections that are unavailable on a federal level.[61] Similar, though narrower, laws are in effect in New York, California, and Hawaii, and legislation is pending in Oregon and Connecticut.[62]

Refugee Admissions

One issue that has recently become far more salient in public discourse is the refugee admissions program. In the US, the definition of refugee mirrors that of the United Nations. A refugee is a person who is unable or unwilling to return to her country because of persecution or a well-founded fear of persecution on account of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion. The Refugee Act of 1980 provides that in situations of emergency the President may fix a number of refugees to be admitted to the United States during the succeeding period of up to 12 months.

The political and military conflict in Syria, which has taken the lives of at least 470,000 people and has internally displaced at least 6.5 million, has also caused people to flee the country.[63] According to the UNHCR, Syrians are the world's largest refugee population, with at least 4.9 million refugees.[64]

As a response to this crisis, the United States has committed to resettling 10,000 refugees in 2016, but this issue has quickly become politicized. After the terrorist attacks in Paris in late 2015, more than half the governors in the US have expressed that they do not want to allow Syrian refugees into their states.[65] Citing fear of security threats, 26 governors have explicitly said that they will not accept Syrian refugees to resettle in their states. Five other governors have called for stricter security screenings of refugees, though they have not explicitly banned Syrian refugees.

Governors cannot prohibit refugees from settling in their states, since the question of who is authorized into the country is a matter of federal jurisdiction. However, lack of cooperation on the part of the states can make refugee resettlement very difficult, as states may refuse to fund programs that would help refugees integrate and thrive in the US, such as English classes, job training, and academic support.[66] At the other end of the spectrum, the governors of states such as Delaware, Colorado, and Hawaii have already declared that they will accept Syrian refugees. It remains to be seen whether and how the US will carry out its resettlement program of Syrian refugees.[67]
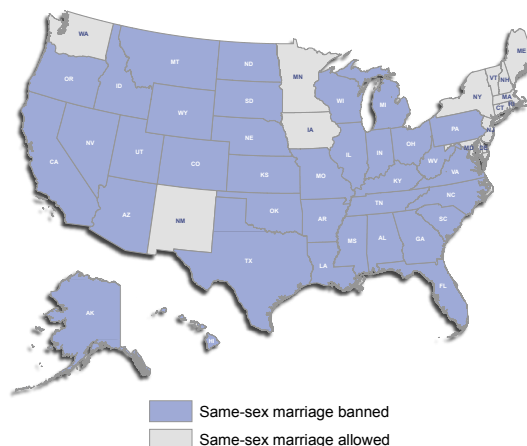
MAP 8

States that had laws allowing or banning inter-racial marriage in 1948

No anti-miscegenation laws
Anti-miscegenation laws exist
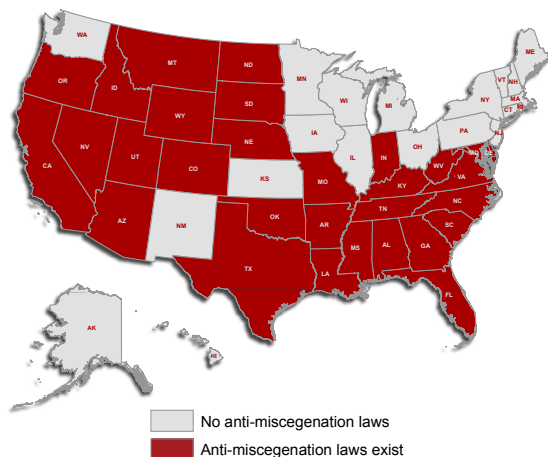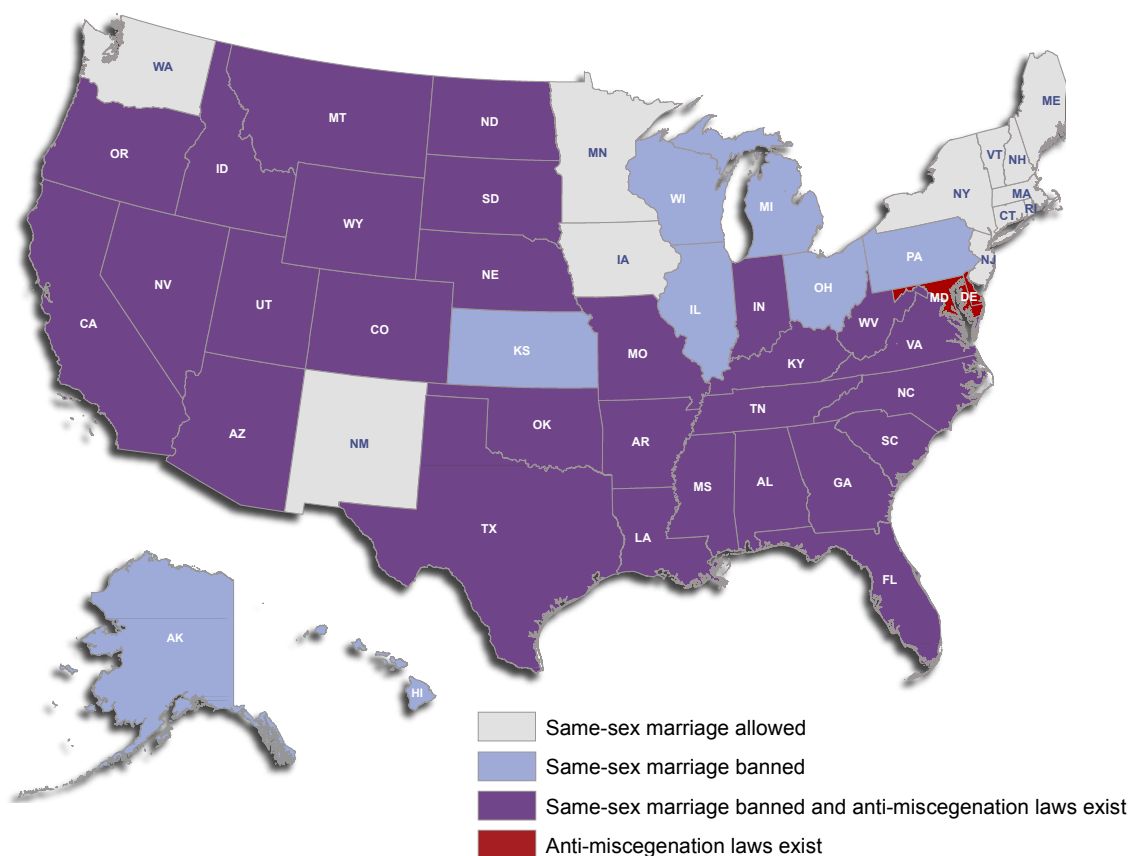
MAP 9

States that had laws allowing or banning same-sex marriage in 2013

Same-sex marriage banned
Same-sex marriage allowed

MAP 10

States that banned anti-interracial marriage in 1948 and same-sex marriage in 2013

Same-sex marriage allowed
Same-sex marriage banned
Same-sex marriage banned and anti-miscegenation laws exist
Anti-miscegenation laws exist

MARRIAGE INCLUSIVITY

One of the areas in which the United States has experienced the most rapid change and social inclusion is the issue of marriage equality. Within a generation, the United States has transformed from a nation that generally prohibited same-sex marriage to one that constitutionally permits it. This transformation has occurred in stages and through different forums throughout the nation. Some have occurred by popular referenda or ballot, some by legislative act, and some through litigation in the courts.

In 1996, the United States prohibited same-sex marriage under federal law, and until 2004, no state permitted same-sex marriage.[68] At its peak, more than 30 states enacted constitutional prohibitions on same-sex marriage, although some permitted civil unions as an alternative institutional arrangement. When the Supreme Court's decision in *United States v. Windsor* struck down part of the federal Defense of Marriage Act in 2013, only nine states permitted same-sex marriage.[69] Following the *Windso*r decision, a number of courts began to strike down state-level prohibitions—a trend that culminated in *Obergefell v. Hodges*. In 2015, the Supreme Court finally ruled in *Obergefell*[70] that marriage is a fundamental right, and that same-sex couples may exercise this right on an equal basis with opposite-sex couples in all states.

As a prominent civil institution that is a source of thousands of legal rights and privileges, exclusionary laws and practices have long governed marital relations. From the first colonial anti-miscegenation laws of the seventeeth century, laws prohibiting inter-racial marriage were prevalent in North America until finally ruled unconstitutional in *Loving v. Virginia* in 1968.[71] As recently as 1948, 30 of the 48 states prohibited inter-racial marriage. The overlap between states that prohibited same-sex marriage and inter-racial marriage are striking, and suggestive of states that promote inclusivity and those that do not.

Although the Supreme Court's decision declaring same-sex marriage rights in *Obergefell* the law of the land, it is easy to miss how deeply contested this issue remains. More generally, it is unclear how the resolution of the marriage debate will affect the debates over other LGBTQ rights and legal protections, such as discrimination in public accommodations and restrooms.

Conclusion

We have little doubt that our rankings may raise many questions for readers, especially where our findings run counter to expectations. Without purporting to have all of the answers, we present our work in the hope that it may prompts further inquiry and deeper investigation. Our aspiration is that the Haas Institute Inclusiveness index may serve as a tool to identify places, policies, and interventions that have proven effective in promoting inclusivity, belonging and equity. This index is designed to be an evolving measure of inclusivity, and we hope to improve upon it with each annual addition, and as more data becomes available. Please be sure to send us your suggestions, feedback, and ideas and visit our website at haasinstitute.berkeley.edu for more information about this initiative and our work.

Endnotes

1. "Human Development Index (HDI)," UNDP Human Development Reports, accessed March 06, 2016, http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi.

2. For a comprehensive look, see Erik Lampmann, "Seeking Belongingness: Examining Equity, Capability and Opportunity through Existing Index Schemes," The Haas Institute for a Fair and Inclusive Society, September 2013, http://diversity.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/Seeking%20Belongingness-%20Examining%20Equity%2C%20Capability%2C%20and%20Opportunity%20through%20Existing%20Index%20Schemes_1.pdf

3. Lampmann, "Seeking Belongingness."; john a. powell and Stephen Menendian, "Fisher V. Texas: The Limits of Exhaustion and the Future of Race-Conscious University Admissions," University of Michigan Journal of Law Reform 47, no. 4 (2014): 917, http://repository.law.umich.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1114&context=mjlr.

4. Rachel G. Kleit, "Neighborhood Segregation, Personal Networks, and Access to Social Resources," in Segregation: The Rising Costs for America, ed. James H. Carr and Nandinee K. Kitty (New York: Routledge, 2008), 236-60.

5. For the importance of institutional arrangements on economic and political outcomes, see Thomas Piketty and Arthur Goldhammer, Capital in the Twenty-First Century (United States: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2014).

6. For example, see "20 Years Since the Srebrenica Massacre," The Atlantic, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.theatlantic.com/photo/2015/07/20-years-since-the-srebrenica-massacre/398135/.

7. To some extent, these indicators overlaps with the political representation indicator. Where marginalized groups or minority populations are denied the right to vote, political leaders may prove less responsive to their needs. Until the 19th Amendment to the United States Constitution, ratified in 1920, women in the United States, although not a demographic minority, were not generally permitted to vote.

8. "World at War: UNHCR Global Trends 2014," 2001, accessed July 19, 2016, http://unhcr.org/556725e69.html.

9. Saskia Sassen, Expulsions: Brutality and Complexity in the Global Economy (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2014).

10. Achille Mbembe, "Necropolitics," Public Culture 15, no. 1 (January 1, 2003), doi:10.1215/08992363-15-1-11. Another form of displacement, not mentioned here, but which will be addressed in future reports, is "protected displacement," which refers to populations who live under occupation. An example of this are Palestinians in the Palestinian Occupied Territories.

11. Joe Parkinson and David George-Cosh, "Image of Drowned Syrian Boy Echoes Around World," The Wall Street Journal, September 3, 2015, http://www.wsj.com/articles/image-of-syrian-boy-washed-up-on-beach-hits-hard-1441282847.

12. BBC, "Migrant Crisis: Migration to Europe Explained in Seven Charts," BBC Europe (BBC News), March 4, 2016, http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34131911.

13. Michael Birnbaum and Griff Witte, "'People in Europe are full of fear' over Refugee Influx," Washington Post, September 3, 2015, https://www.washingtonpost.com/world/hungarys-leader-to-migrants-please-dont-come/2015/09/03/d5244c6d-53d8-4e82-b9d7-35ec-41ca2944_story.html.

14. Ann Leahy, Seán Healy, and Michelle Murphy, "The European Crisis and Its Human Cost: A Call for Fair Alternatives and Solutions," Caritas Europa, 2014, http://www.caritas.eu/sites/default/files/caritascrisisreport_2014_en.pdf.

15. Leahy et al., "The European Crisis."

16. Global Overview 2015: People Internally Displaced by Conflict and Violence (Geneva: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2015), http://www.internal-displacement.org/assets/library/Media/201505-Global-Overview-2015/20150506-global-overview-2015-en.pdf.

17. Ibid.

18. Ibid.

19. "EU/Greece: First Turkey Deportations Riddled with Abuse," April 19, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, https://www.hrw.org/news/2016/04/19/eu/greece-first-turkey-deportations-riddled-abuse.

20. Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2016: Enhancing Regional Ties (France:

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2015).

21. Situation Report on International Migration in East and South-East Asia (Bangkok: International Organization for Migration, Regional Office for Southeast Asia, 2008), http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/situation_report.pdf.

22. Sugiyarto, Guntur, and Dovelyn Rannveig Agunias, "A 'freer' Flow of Skilled Labour Within ASEAN: Aspirations, Opportunities, and Challenges in 2015 and Beyond," September 1, 2015, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/freer-flow-skilled-labour-within-asean-aspirations-opportunities-and-challenges-2015.

23. Ibid.

24. Barack Obama, "Remarks by the President on the Economy in Osawatomie, Kansas," The White House, December 06, 2011, https://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2011/12/06/remarks-president-economy-osawatomie-kansas.; Joseph E Stiglitz, The Price of Inequality: How Today's Divided Society Endangers Our Future (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2013).; Richard Wilkinson and Kate Pickett, The Spirit Level: Why Greater Equality Makes Societies Stronger (New York: Bloomsbury, 2011).; Tyler Cowan, Average Is Over: Powering America Beyond the Age of the Great Stagnation (New York: Plume, 2014).; Robert Putnam, Our Kids: The American Dream in Crisis (New York: Simon & Schuster, 2015).; Robert Reich, Saving Capitalism: For the Many, Not the Few (New York: Knopf, 2015).

25. Era Dabla-Norris, Kalpana Kochhar, Nujin Suphaphiphat, Frantisek Ricka, and Evridiki Tsounta, "Causes and Consequences of Income Inequality: A Global Perspective," International Monetary Fund, June 2015, https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/sdn/2015/sdn1513.pdf, 11.

26. Facundo Alvaredo, Anthony B. Atkinson, Thomas Piketty, and Emmanuel Saez, "The Top 1 Percent in International and Historical Perspective," Journal of Economic Perspectives 27, no. 3 (2013): 320, http://eml.berkeley.edu/~saez/alvaredo-atkinson-piketty-saezJEP13top1percent.pdf.; Emmanuel Saez, "Striking It Richer: The Evolution of Top Incomes in the United States (Updated with 2013 Preliminary Estimates)," Econometrics Laboratory, UC Berkeley, January 25, 2015, http://eml.berkeley.edu/~saez/saez-UStopincomes-2013.pdf.

27. Nora Lustig, Luis F. Lopez-Calva, and Eduardo Ortiz-Juarez, "Deconstructing the Decline in Inequality in Latin America," The World Bank, July 2013, http://econ.tulane.edu/RePEc/pdf/tul1314.pdf.

28. Nora Lustig, Luis F. Lopez-Calva, and Eduardo Ortiz-Juarez, "The Decline in Inequality in Latin America: How Much, since When and Why," ECINE: Society for the Study of Economic Inequality, August 2011, http://www.ecineq.org/milano/WP/ECINEQ2011-211.pdf.

29. Lustig et al., "Deconstructing the Decline in Inequality in Latin America."

30. Lustig et al., "The Decline in Inequality in Latin America."

31. Chris Johnston et al., "Ireland Becomes First Country to Legalise Same-Sex Marriage by Popular Vote - as It Happened," The Guardian, May 23, 2015, http://www.theguardian.com/global/live/2015/may/23/counting-underway-for-irelands-referendum-on-marriage-equality.

32. Max Bearak and Darla Cameron, "Here Are the 10 Countries Where Homosexuality May Be Punished by Death," Washington Post, June 16, 2016, https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/worldviews/wp/2014/02/24/here-are-the-10-countries-where-homosexuality-may-be-punished-by-death.

33. Slovenia's parliament voted to allow same-sex marriage, but a national referendum in December subsequently overturned that decision. See Barbara Surk and Sewell Chan, "Slovenians Deliver Major Setback to Same-Sex Marriage in Referendum," The New York Times, December 22, 2015, http://www.nytimes.com/2015/12/22/world/europe/slovenians-deliver-major-setback-to-same-sex-marriage-in-vote.html.

34. Olivia Waxman, "Here Are Other Countries Where Same-Sex Marriage Is Legal," June 26, 2015, accessed July 19, 2016, http://time.com/3937766/us-supreme-court-countries-same-sex-gay-marriage-legal.

35. Ian Lee and Sarah Sirgany, "Living in Fear: Egypt's Gay Community," CNN, January 2, 2015, http://www.cnn.com/2014/12/09/world/africa/egypts-gay-community-living-in-fear; "In a Time of Torture: The Assault on Justice In Egypt's Crackdown on Homosexual Conduct" Human Rights Watch. March 2004. Accessed August 17, 2016. https://www.hrw.org/reports/2004/egypt0304/egypt0304.pdf.

36. "Gender Data Portal," The World Bank, accessed March 06, 2016, http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/home.

37. "Census 2011," The Registrar General & Census Commissioner, India, New Delhi, accessed March 06, 2016, http://www.censusin-

dia.gov.in/2011-common/census_2011.html.

38. T. Hesketh, L. Lu, and Z. W. Xing, "The Consequences of Son Preference and Sex-selective Abortion in China and Other Asian Countries," Canadian Medical Association Journal 183, no. 12 (March 14, 2011): 1374-377.

39. Amartya Sen, "Many Faces of Gender Inequality," Frontline: India's National Magazine 18, no. 22 (2001): 1–17.

40. "Gender Data Portal," The World Bank, accessed March 06, 2016, http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/home.

41. Dominique Mosbergen, "Delhi Bus Gang Rape Victim Has Intestines Removed As Shocking Details Of Assault Emerge," The Huffington Post, December 26, 2012, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2012/12/20/delhi-bus-gang-rape-victim-intestines-shocking-details_n_2340721.html.

42. Samuel Huntington, The Clash of Civilizations and the Making of World Order (Touchstone, New York, 1996).

43. Sam Harris, The End of Faith: Religion, Terror, and the Future of Reason (W.W. Norton and Company, New York, 2005).

44. Jeremy Diamond, "Donald Trump: Ban All Muslim Travel to U.S," CNN, December 8, 2015, http://www.cnn.com/2015/12/07/politics/donald-trump-muslim-ban-immigration.

45. Council on American-Islamic Relaitons (CAIR), Legislating Fear: Islamophobia and Its Impact in the United States (2015), https://www.cair.com/images/islamophobia/Legislating-Fear.pdf.

46. Brenda Parkes et al., Racism in Europe: ENAR Shadow Report 2011-2012, 2013, accessed July 19, 2016, http://cms.horus.be/files/99935/MediaArchive/publications/shadow%20report%20 2011-12/shadowReport_EN_ LR%20(3).pdf.

47. "N° 2520 - Projet de Loi Interdisant la Dissimulation Du Visage Dans l'Espace Public," October 4, 1958, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.assemblee-nationale.fr/13/projets/pl2520.asp.

48. Leahy et al., "The European Crisis."

49. Stephen Moore and Richard Vedder, "The Blue-State Path to Inequality," The Wall Street Journal, June 4, 2014, http://www.wsj.com/articles/stephen-moore-and-richard-vedder-liberal-blue-states-have-greater-income-inequality-than-conservative-red-states-1401923793.

50. Richard Florida, "Is Life Better in America's Red States?," The New York Times, January 03, 2015, http://www.nytimes.com/2015/01/04/opinion/sunday/is-life-better-in-americas-red-states.html?_r=0.

51. Ibid.

52. Ta-Nehisi Coates, "The Black Family in the Age of Mass Incarceration," The Atlantic, October 2015, http://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2015/10/the-black-family-in-the-age-of-mass-incarceration/403246.

53. Ibid.

54. Ibid.

55. The Editorial Board, "The Great 'Sanctuary City' Slander," The New York Times, November 24, 2015, http://www.nytimes.com/2015/10/17/opinion/the-great-sanctuary-city-slander.html?_r=0.

56. Ibid.

57. Detainers are orders issued by the Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) requesting local authorities to detain undocumented immigrants up to forty-eight hours longer than otherwise permitted, in order to enable an ICE official to arrive and take custody of the undocumented arrestee.

58. Stephen Menendian et al., We Too Belong: A Resource Guide of Inclusive Practices in Immigration and Incarceration Law and Policy (Berkeley: Haas Institute for a Fair and Inclusive Society, 2016), http://haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/haasinstitute_wetoobelong_immigrationincarceration_release_may19.pdf.

59. "DC Code - § 24–211.07. District Compliance with Federal Immigration Detainers," accessed July 19, 2016, https://beta.code.dccouncil.us/dc/council/code/sections/24-211.07.html.

60. Jamin B. Raskin, "Legal Aliens, Local Citizens: The Historical, Constitutional, and Theoretical Meanings of Alien Suffrage," University of Pennsylvania Law Review 141, no. 4 (April 1993), doi:10.2307/3312345.

61. "Domestic Workers' Bill of Rights," March 31, 2015, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.mass.gov/ago/doing-business-in-massachusetts/labor-laws-and-public-construction/domestic-workers.

62. "Today's Law as Amended," California Legislative Information, accessed July 19, 2016, http://leginfo.legislature.ca.gov/faces/billCompareClient.xhtml?bill_id=201320140AB241; Labor Rights and Protections for Domestic Workers in New York (New York State Department of Labor, 2015), http://www.labor.ny.gov/formsdocs/factsheets/pdfs/P712.pdf; "New Hawaii Law Protects Domestic Workers Against Employment Discrimi-

nation," State of Hawaii Office of Community Services, March 31, 2014, accessed July 19, 2016, http://labor.hawaii.gov/ocs/main/new-hawaii-law-protects-domestic-workers-against-employment-discrimination; "What Domestic Workers Needs to Know About Minimum Wage & Overtime," Hawaii Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, October 2013, accessed July 19, 2016, http://labor.hawaii.gov/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/WhatDomesticWorkers ShouldKnow-RevOct2013.pdf; SB 522: An Act (Salem: Oregon Legislature, 2015), https://www.oregonlegislature.gov/bills_laws/lawsstatutes/2015orLaw0457.pdf; SB 446 (New Haven: State of Connecticut, 2015), https://www.cga.ct.gov/2015/ACT/pa/pdf/2015PA-00249-R00SB-00446-PA.pdf.

63. World Vision Staff, "Syria Refugee Crisis FAQ: How the War Is Affecting Children." June 13, 2016. Accessed July 19, 2016. https://www.worldvision.org/wv/news/Syria-war-refugee-crisis-FAQ; Quick facts: What you need to know about the Syrian Crisis retrieved on June 16, 2016, Mercy Corps, "Quick Facts: What You Need to Know about the Syria Crisis," June 16, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, https://www.mercycorps.org/articles/iraq-jordan-lebanon-syria-turkey/quick-facts-what-you-need-know-about-syria-crisis.

64. The UN Refugee Agency, "Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2015," June 20, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.unhcr.org/576408cd7; "Total Number of Syrian Refugees Exceeds Four Million for First Time," July 2015, accessed July 19, 2016, http://www.unhcr.org/559d67d46.html.

65. The UN Refugee Agency, "Syria Regional Refugee Response," March 3, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, http://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/regional.php; "Total Number of Syrian Refugees Exceeds Four Million for First Time," July 9, 2015, accessed July 19, 2015, http://www.unhcr.org/559d67d46.html.

66. Ashley Fantz and Ben Brumfield, "Syrian Refugees Not Welcome in 31 U.S. States," CNN, November 19, 2015, http://www.cnn.com/2015/11/16/world/paris-attacks-syrian-refugees-backlash.

67. Fantz and Brumfield, "Syrian Refugees."

68. "A Timeline of Same-Sex Marriage in the US," The Boston Globe, January 9, 2016, accessed July 19, 2016. https://www.bostonglobe.com/2016/01/09/same-sex-marriage-over-time/mbVFMQPyxZCpM2e SQMUsZK/story.html.

69. "History and Timeline of Marriage," Freedom to Marry, accessed March 06, 2016, http://archive-freedomtomarry.org/get_informed/marriage_basics/history.php.

70. "Same-Sex Marriage, State by State," Pew Research Centers Religion Public Life Project, June 26, 2015, accessed July 19, 2015. http://www.pewforum.org/2015/06/26/same-sex-marriage-state-by-state.

71. "Loving V. Virginia 388 U.S. 1 (1967)," 2016, accessed July 19, 2016, https://supreme.justia.com/cases/federal/us/388/1/case.html.
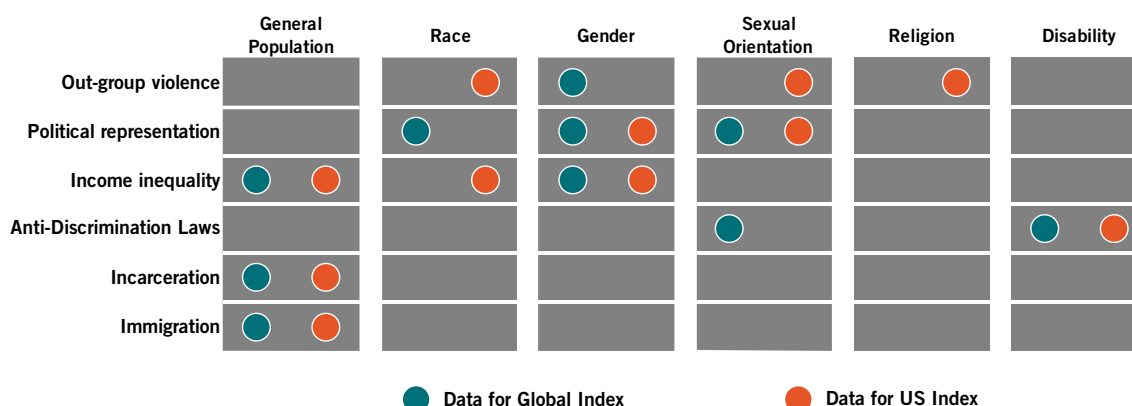
Appendix A: Methodology

The **Inclusiveness Index** is a comparative analysis, thus the index values are relative to other countries in global context, and to other states in the US context. The data described in this report is collected, cleaned, and prepared for analysis. Each data value for any indicator is analyzed relative to other data values for the indicator based on how far each value is from the mean value. The outcome of this "standardization" of data is known as z-score. A z-score is a statistical measure that quantifies the distance (measured in standard deviations) a data point is from the mean of a data set. The use of z scores allows data to be measured based on the relative distance of the data value from the data average for the entire dataset for one indicator. Z-score is calculated for all indicators in each domain, and adjusted where higher values of indicators meant lack of inclusion (e.g. higher percentage of ethnic minority groups that

do not have political representation). The domain z-score is the average of z-scores of each indicator within the domain e.g. Z-score (Income Inequality) = Average (Gini Index z-score, Female/male med. inc. ratio z-score)

The **Inclusiveness Index** value is the average of all domain z-scores. The level of inclusiveness (high to low) is determined by sorting the data in descending order and broken into quintiles. Thus, the countries or US states identified with "high" inclusiveness represent the top 20% of scores among respective geographies. Conversely, countries or US states identified with "low" inclusiveness represent the lowest scoring 20% of respective geographies.

Data Matrix

This matrix shows availability of data on various dimensions of inclusiveness for global and US communities.

	General Population	Race	Gender	Sexual Orientation	Religion	Disability
Out-group violence		US	Global	US	US	
Political representation		Global	Global / US	Global / US		
Income inequality	Global / US	US	Global / US			
Anti-Discrimination Laws				Global		Global / US
Incarceration	Global / US					
Immigration	Global / US					

● Data for Global Index   ● Data for US Index

Appendix B: Datasets and Indicators

This Appendix highlights the specific datasets and indicators used to calculate the index as well as explains the methodology used in the calculations. The narrative below provides details of the domains, datasets and indicators used for global as well as US indices. Complete datasets can be downloaded from haasinstitute.berkeley.edu/inclusivenessindex.

Exposure to Group-Specific Violence

Data on group-based violence is hard to get at the global level, and there are challenges to gather this data for US states as well. A higher percentage of race-based, gender-based, religion-based and sexual orientation-based violence against these specific groups is a reflection of level of inclusion of these groups within our society.

Violence Against Women

Measuring violence against women has been the focus of policy makers, researchers and advocates who work in this area. There are a number of programmatic initiatives to reduce gender-based violence, some dealing with violence by intimate partners, while some work towards empowering women and girls. Some of these initiatives include reducing FGM (female genital mutilation) and female child marriages as practiced in some cultures. There are agencies working on standardizing data collection and reporting.

Global data: The complexity of this issue, and violence and intimidation by intimate partners which goes unreported in many cultures, makes it very hard to get consistent data. WHO has presented regional and global estimates of gender-based violence by intimate partners and sexual violence by non-partners. Prevalence of intimate partner violence has been included in calculating the index. Regional estimates have been assigned to respective countries in each region as outlined in Global Burden of Disease report. Data for 185 countries is used for index calculation.

US data: Unavailable

Violence Against LGBTQ community

The LGBTQ movement has made tremendous strides. However, hate crimes against the LGBTQ community have continued, suggesting that members of this community are considered outsiders. Data on these hate crimes could help assess the level of inclusiveness of the LGBTQ community in our society. Higher proportion of these crimes reflects low level of inclusion whereas relatively low proportions of these crimes reflect relatively higher levels of inclusion.

Global data: Unavailable.

US data: FBI's hate crime statistics dataset records the number of incidents per bias motivation. Num ber of incidents per 100,000 people is used as the measure for this indicator. ACS 1-yr estimates for 2011 are used for state populations.

Violence Against Religious Groups

Similar to sexual orientation-based crime data, data on religion-based hate crimes could help assess the level of inclusiveness of religious minorities within our society. Higher proportion of these crimes reflects low level of inclusion whereas relatively low proportions of these crimes reflect relatively higher levels of inclusion.

Global data: Unavailable

US data: FBI's hate crime statistics dataset records the number of incidents per bias motivation. Number of incidents per 100,000 people is used as the measure for this indicator. ACS 1-yr estimates for 2011 are used for state population.

Political Representation

Data on political representation would reflect on inclusion of marginalized groups in the political process. A higher percentage of representation in parliament would mean better integration of various groups in the society. Conversely, discriminating some groups from political representation hinders their ability to be

Data Sources: Global

This matrix shows the measure and data source for the global indicators for this study.

INDICATOR		DOMAIN					
		Country	Race	Gender	Sexual Orientation	Religion	Disability
Exposure to out-group violence	Measure	Not available	Not available	Regional estimates of gender-based violence - 2011	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source			WHO gender violence estimates http://tinyurl.com/zlvwljn			
Political representation	Measure	Not available	Ethnic minorities political representation - 2013	Women in parliament - 2014	LGBT representatives in lower house - 2011	Not available	Not available
	Source		Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zurich http://tinyurl.com/grp79tk	World Bank http://tinyurl.com/je47vl5	UNC Global (1998 - 2011) http://tinyurl.com/ht2h7gd		
Income inequality	Measure	Gini index	Not available	Female to male GNI per capita (PPP) - 2013	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	CIA World Factbook http://tinyurl.com/mn8how		UNDP http://tinyurl.com/kpadflz; http://tinyurl.com/n933egm			
Anti-Discrimination Laws	Measure	Not available	Not available	Not available	LGB equality index - 2011	Not available	Rank countries based on existing disability laws and signing of international treaties
	Source				UNC Global (1998 - 2011) http://tinyurl.com/ht2h7gd		Disability Rights Education and Defense Fund http://tinyurl.com/jvcpa2q
Incarceration	Measure	Incarceration per 100,000 people - 2013	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	International Centre for Prison Studies http://tinyurl.com/mdckn2q					
Immigration	Measure	Refugees and asylees per 100,000 people - 2013	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	UNHCR, World Bank http://tinyurl.com/hkq6thz; http://tinyurl.com/hreae4f					

part of the political process, and hence the society.

WOMEN IN PARLIAMENT

Percentage of elected representatives who are women is the measure of this indicator. The focus of this indicator is on elected representatives rather than nominated.

Global data: World Bank reports multi-year data on proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments as a percentage. Data is available for 188 countries. Thus data on women in lower house of parliament as a percentage of total available seats has been used in these calculations.

US data: Percentage of women senators, representatives and state legislatures for each state is avail-able at Center for American Women and Politics at Rutgers University, and is used as a measure for this indicator.

LGBTQ MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT

Percentage of elected representatives who self-identify as belonging to the LGBTQ community is the measure of this indicator.

Global data: Curriculum in Global Studies, UNC LGBT Representation and Rights Research Initia-tive's 2013 policy paper reports LGBT members in lower house of parliament for 27 countries, mostly in North America, Europe and Oceana, but also includes Brazil and Nepal. Their research is quite extensive so it is safe to assume that other coun-tries do not have political representation for LGBT

Data Sources: United States

This matrix shows the measure and data source for the US indicators for this study.

INDICATOR		States	Race	Gender	Sexual Orientation	Religion	Disability
Exposure to out-group violence	Measure	Not available	Crime rate per 100,000 - 2011	Not available	Crime rate per 100,000 - 2011	Crime rate per 100,000 - 2011	Not available
	Source		FBI Hate Crime Statistics http://tinyurl.com/hjjgyys		FBI Hate Crime Statistics http://tinyurl.com/hjjgyys	FBI Hate Crime Statistics http://tinyurl.com/hjjgyys	
Political representation	Measure	Not available	Not available	Proportion of female US senators, representatives and state legislatures	Proportion of state legislatures who belong to LGBT community - 2013	Not available	Not available
	Source			Center for American Women and Politics 2013 http://tinyurl.com/gktenn8	Victory Institute http://tinyurl.com/hgfkbxm		
Income inequality	Measure	Gini index	Non-Whites to non-Hispanic Whites per capita income ratio	Female to male median income ratio	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	ACS 1-yr estimates 2014 www.census.gov	ACS 5-yr estimates 2007-2011 www.census.gov	ACS 5-yr estimates 2007-2011 www.census.gov			
Anti-Discrimination Laws	Measure	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Ranking of states by how well they serve Americans with disabilities
	Source						United Cerebral Palsy's research "The Case for Inclusion" http://cfi.ucp.org/
Incarceration	Measure	Incarceration per 100,000 people - 2013	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	International Centre for Prison Studies http://tinyurl.com/ob5zdpa					
Immigration	Measure	Refugees per 100,000 people - 2013	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
	Source	Refugee Processing Center http://tinyurl.com/hhjntsw; www.census.gov					

community. Using IPU data for number of available seats in lower house of parliament for 163 countries, proportion of LGBT MPs is calculated to include in the index.

US data: Victory Institute reports all the elected officials by state who belong to the LGBT community. Percentage of senators, representatives and state legislatures who identify themselves with the LGBT community is used as the measure for this indicator.

POLITICAL REPRESENTATION BY RACE/ETHNICITY

Data on political participation or representation by marginalized groups—racial or ethnic—could shed light on how inclusive a society is of its citizens. It would show if the power rests with some exclusive groups or has a level-playing field among all its population sub-groups. A higher percentage of elected representatives for these marginalized groups would contribute to higher inclusion of these groups in the society.

Global data: International Conflict Research (ICR) Group at Swiss Federal Institute of Technology at Zurich provides Ethnic Power Relations Core Dataset 2014 "identifies all politically relevant ethnic groups and their access to state power in every country of

the world from 1946 to 2013. It includes annual data on over 800 groups and codes the degree to which their representatives held executive-level state power—from total control of the government to overt political discrimination." The countries included in this dataset are the ones which had a population of 500,000 or above in 1990. The measure for this indicator is the proportion of population of groups which are categorized as "Powerless", "Discriminated" or "Self-excluded." For more information on ICR's data and methodology, please refer to their website http://www.icr.ethz.ch/data/epr

US data: Unavailable

Income Inequality

One of the manifestations of lack of inclusion is income inequality. Disaggregated data on income inequality by gender, race, religion, and LGBT community could inform us about the level of inclusion, or lack thereof, of all these groups within our society.

GINI INDEX

Income inequality is measured by Gini Index which compares the distribution of individual or household income to an equal distribution. A value of "0" signifies absolute equality whereas a value of "100" signifies absolute inequality.

Global data: Gini index is available for 154 countries only, and the coefficient for each country has been assessed at different point in time e.g. Gini for Sierra Leone is for the year 2011 whereas Belgium is for 2000. Data for the most recent year has been used in this project.

US data: Gini index estimates are available for all states through ACS and Census. 2014 ACS 1-yr estimates are used for this project

FEMALE TO MALE GNI RATIO

As a measure of income inequality, gender based income difference is a reflection of group-based marginality along gender lines. A higher value of the ratio means less income gap by gender, indicating more inclusive society for women.

Global data: UNDP estimated GNI per capita at PPP for each gender deriving "from the ratio of female to male wage, female and male shares of economically active population and GNI (in 2011 purchasing power parity terms)." UNDP, in its technical

notes, informs that "Because disaggregated income data are not available, data are crudely estimated." However, due to unavailability of any other dataset, this data has been used to calculate female to male ratio. Data is available for 175 countries only, and has been used in the analysis

US data: ACS 5-yr estimates on median income by gender is used to calculate the ratio for each state within conterminous US, Alaska and Hawaii.

Anti-Discrimination Laws

Laws and protections against discrimination of marginalized communities are constitutional and the data can shed light on the extent marginalized communities are protected. Globally, these laws might vary in the extent of protection accorded and/or to specific marginalized communities. Strength of these laws and effective implementation are key indicators of level of inclusion of these marginalized communities in a society. Analyzing strength of these laws can be time and labor intensive but there are researchers and agencies who analyze these laws for a living. The Haas Institute's project on inclusiveness will greatly benefit from their work.

LAWS AGAINST DISCRIMINATION FOR LGBTQ COMMUNITY

Global data: Researchers at Curriculum in Global Studies at UNC in their 2013 policy paper on LGBT representation and rights developed an equality index for LGB and T communities "based on existing laws in each country that do not discriminate or incite violence against LGBT communities." LGB index is available for 191 countries where as Transgender index is available for 117 countries only. Thus only LGB index is used in these calculations.

US data: Unavailable

LAWS AGAINST DISCRIMINATION FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES:

Global data: UN Convention on Rights of Persons with Disability (CRPD) proposed a treaty for all member countries to sign "to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity." Disability Rights Education and Defense Fund, a non-profit organization, provides a list of countries which have signed CRPD and/or have exist-

ing laws protecting the rights of disable people, was used. The data was coded as following:

- Countries which have signed CRPD and have more than two laws protecting the rights of people with disability: 3
- Countries which have signed CRPD and have two or fewer laws protecting the rights of people with disability: 2
- Countries which have signed CRPD but have no reported laws on disability: 1
- Countries that have not signed CRPD and have no reported laws on disability: -1

US data: United Cerebral Palsy's research provides data that "ranks all 50 states and the District of Columbia (DC) on outcomes for Americans with intellectual and developmental disabilities (ID/DD). " This data is an index based on five major categories that impact the quality of life for people with disabilities. For more detail on this data, please review UCP's report "The Case for Inclusion."

Incarceration

International Centre for Prison Studies publishes prison related data for each year based on reported and survey data for nation-states and US states. Data for the most recent year (2013) on rate of incarceration, prison population per 100,000 people, has been included in the calculations for Inclusiveness Index. Higher the value, worse is the level of inclusion.

Immigration (or Migration)

There are many facets of immigration or migration. This project focused on rate of refugees and asylees accepted by the receiving nations. Premise of this analysis is that a higher number of refugees and asylum-seekers per 100,000 people would suggest

that the receiving nation is more inclusive of global community. Researchers at the Haas Institute realize that this measure of immigration addresses the issue of inclusiveness with respect to immigration only partially, but this is a good start. Considering that calculating and analyzing the Inclusiveness Index is an annual task, the Haas Institute is committed to the search for datasets and indicators that better address this important domain on inclusiveness.

Global data: United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) collects data on number of refugees from the country of origin and the receiving country. It also provides data on asylum-seekers, people who have applied for refugee status which has not yet been determined. In order to implement the use of these indicators as contributors to the Inclusiveness Index, data has to be transformed to a rate or a percentage to make it comparable between countries. World Bank data on each country's population is used to convert absolute numbers to rate of average refugee and asylum-seeker per 100,000 population of the receiving nation. Refugee and asylum-seeker data is available for multiple years. Five-year averages are calculated from number of affected people annually from 2009 to 2013.

US data: Bureau of population, Refugees and Migrants at the Department of State provides data on monthly and annual number of refugees received by the nation and by each state. The most recent data (2014) on number of refugees received by each state and ACS 1-yr estimates of population by state in 2014 transforms the data to number of refugees per 100,000 people to render the data comparable across all states.

The **Inclusiveness Index** is a multi-factor index. Multi-factor indices paint a vivid portrait of underlying structural conditions and forms of advantage and disadvantage because they rely on more information than single indicators.