Viewpoint

The blueprint of disaster: COVID-19, the Flint water crisis, and unequal ecological impacts

Jerel M Ezell, Delilah Griswold, Elizabeth C Chase, Evan Carver

COVID-19 is unique in the scope of its effects on morbidity and mortality. However, the factors contributing to its disparate racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic effects are part of an expansive and continuous history of oppressive social policy and marginalising geopolitics. This history is characterised by institutionally generated spatial inequalities forged through processes of residential segregation and neglectful urban planning. In the USA, aspects of COVID-19's manifestation closely mirror elements of the build-up and response to the Flint crisis, Michigan's racially and class-contoured water crisis that began in 2014, and to other prominent environmental injustice cases, such as the 1995 Chicago (IL, USA) heatwave that severely affected the city's south and west sides, predominantly inhabited by Black people. Each case shares common macrosocial and spatial characteristics and is instructive in showing how civic trust suffers in the aftermath of public health disasters, becoming especially degenerative among historically and spatially marginalised populations. Offering a commentary on the sociogeographical dynamics that gave rise to these crises and this institutional distrust, we discuss how COVID-19 has both inherited and augmented patterns of spatial inequality. We conclude by outlining particular steps that can be taken to prevent and reduce spatial inequalities generated by COVID-19, and by discussing the preliminary steps to restore trust between historically disenfranchised communities and the public officials and institutions tasked with responding to COVID-19.

The blueprint of disaster: unequal ecological effects

Information slowly trickled in: data passively hinting at an emergent public health crisis and at a rupture in civic governance. Government and health officials were furtive as they became increasingly assured of the scope of the crisis. However, in public they remained silent and demurring. The signals then became undeniable: various facets of the population's morbidity were growing well beyond conventional epidemiological surveillance estimates. What was forthcoming was an unavoidable surge in adverse health outcomes, far beyond what the average US citizen would reasonably imagine, or accept, in their country. This event took place in Flint, Michigan, in 2015, less than 1 year after the city's water source was switched, from Lake Huron to the Flint River. This fateful transition was part of a broad austerity movement spearheaded by an unelected emergency manager, installed by Michigan's then-governor to manage finances in the segregated, socioeconomically disadvantaged city.

More than 1 year since the emergence of COVID-19, an uncanny geopolitical enlargement of the racial, ethnic, economic, and spatial inequities seen in the Flint water crisis is taking place because public health disasters that wield disproportionate effects on historically disadvantaged populations share the same macrosocial and ecological blueprint. In this context, the enormity of the current global health catastrophe is impossible to ignore, even for those most insulated from the effects of the pandemic.^{1,2} In addition to a more generalised recognition of the gravity of COVID-19, as a seminal crosscultural event, there is an increasingly broad awareness of the striking racial, ethnic, and spatial inequities that the pandemic acts upon and exacerbates.3 For marginalised communities that have long endured dysfunction both in the health-care system and in their built environment,4 the ongoing pandemic is another situation where a seemingly natural calamity is exacerbated by historically embedded systems of sociospatial inequity. In this Viewpoint, we present the Flint water crisis as a salient and instructive case study and forewarning of how COVID-19 further entrenches existing social inequalities but is lived as bodily and ecological erasure as a result of politicised, unsystematic institutional responses to its broader causes and consequences.

In the immediate aftermath of the city's water source switch to the Flint River, lead, an invisible, odourless, and tasteless neurotoxin, was released from the city's antiquated and undertreated water delivery infrastructure into the water supply.5 The surge in the concentration of lead occurred alongside increases in the concentrations of other heavy metals, carcinogenic trihalomethane compounds, and pneumonia-inducing legionella bacteria.6 Well before the contamination was publicly acknowledged by government officials, the broader Flint public, roused by a nascent citizen science movement, discovered that the water supply was contaminated.7 Still, officials and clinicians in the city deflected and negletected their responsibilities, presenting the water quality woes as transient consequences of the water source switch, and residents' emergent health issues as aberrations or casually indeterminate.8

Mona Hanna-Attisha, a paediatrician in Flint, provides a telling account in her book, *What the Eyes Don't See*,⁹ describing an epidemic of clinical neglect as resident reports of water contamination-related symptomatology began to pour in: "I don't know if I'd ever felt so stunned and disillusioned and sad all at once. What had I done? Where had I been? Baby after baby had come into our clinic. We gave the same advice. 'It's fine. Yes, it's fine. Drink the water. Of course it's okay.' Flint had low breastfeeding rates for a number of reasons. Powdered





Lancet Planet Health 2021; 5: e309–15

Africana Studies and Research Center (J M Ezell PhD), Cornell Center for Health Equity (J M Ezell), and Development Sociology (D Griswold MS), Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA; Department of Biostatistics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA (E C Chase MS); Program on the Global Environment, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA (E Carver PhD)

Correspondence to: Dr Jerel M Ezell, Africana Studies and Research Center, Cornell University, Ithaca 14850, NY, UISA

jme246@cornell.edu

formula is the norm. To make formula from the powder, you have to mix it with tap water. Meanwhile, for older kids, because of our emphasis on healthy living and lowering sugar in their diets, we are always recommending fewer juices and soda. And more water."

Abundant media and academic comments on the Flint water crisis have acknowledged the structural and strategic racism and associated environmental injustice in action in the crisis.^{8,10-13} Similarly, as the COVID-19 pandemic continues, data are quickly emerging about the gross disparities between historically marginalised populations and their neighbourhoods: people from racial and minority ethnic groups face a heightened risk of exposure to COVID-19 because of social factors rooted in structural inequality and overt discrimination that feed directly into social determinants of health. This reality is illustrated by the fact that a disproportionate number of people from racial and minority ethnic groups have been infected and killed by COVID-19.^{14,15}

Specific factors that contribute to this morbidity and mortality trend include the higher likelihood that people from racial and minority ethnic groups have inadequate access to housing,16.17 predisposing health conditions, make up a higher relative proportion of essential workers, or have jobs that cannot be done remotely.18 Moreover, and directly related to the points we stress here, long-standing distrust in both the government and public health institutions further limits their engagement with healthcare deployment strategies.¹⁹ We describe these factors as a process of reproducing marginalisation, as illustrated by the connections between the distrust that resulted from the Flint water crisis and the scepticism around COVID-19 mitigation measures and vaccination. The prospective consequences of these factors are shown by the outsized devastation of COVID-19 in Black communities; a study in selected US states and cities found that 34% of COVID-19 deaths were among non-Hispanic Black people, although they compose only 12% of the total population of the USA.20 Spatial epidemiology shows how a common genealogy of oppression and distrust consistently reproduces these inequities.

Overlapping and embedded crises

The blueprint of disaster is fundamentally mediated by fluid and historical processes of social and economic stratification, which are connected to, and frequently motivated by, attitudes to race.²¹ For the past 4 years, we have conducted community-based, mixed-methods research with lifelong residents and local professional stakeholders in Flint, including government officials and clinicians, to understand the causes, consequences, and recovery needs of the crisis. This research, part of the Flint Engagement Community Project, has focused on identifying and contextualising the attitudes, beliefs, and health outcomes of Flint residents living in the city during, and in the years after, the water crisis. Lessons on national, state, and local government ineptitude derived from the Flint Engagement Community Project foretell many of the public health weaknesses that typify the COVID-19 response. That Flint was unprepared to deal with its water crisis and bore the consequences in population morbidity is obvious. That the city could have been prepared to address what lay ahead, however, is a more fertile debate, pertinent also to COVID-19 as social and health sciences researchers look for so-called best practices from the communities and countries that were more successful in protecting their citizens from the dire extremes of the pandemic.

COVID-19's most vivid parallel with the Flint water crisis is its accentuation of exceptional inadequacy of morbidity prevention and management in the US healthcare system—especially when compared with countries with similar financial means-which ignored warning signs, was underprepared in terms of resources and public communication (ie, across and between federal, state, and local government, and to the communities), and buckled under the pressure of multiple infection surges. Shortcomings in epidemiological oversight and public health reporting will invariably lead to population health crises, which will almost always exact their most serious effects on the most socioeconomically vulnerable individuals in the population, who are unable to access health promotion resources. What is most deplorable is that this chasm is not natural, but the result of a specific form of moral and technical disinvestment in public health for racially minoritised communities. As COVID-19 spread, WHO issued clear directives to countries on how to confront the pandemic.22 These measures, such as closing schools and workplaces, were easier to implement in wealthier nations, but were also based on an assumption that the areas that heeded this advice would ultimately be able to deploy a functioning health-care system to manage the reduced number of cases-namely, one in which the entire population had adequate access to screening and health care. Although the specific structures of health-care systems worldwide vary, the general lesson of COVID-19 is that mitigation of the crisis will be more effective in areas where public instead of private provisioning is the norm.^{23,24} The recurrent failure of the USA to provide such a system limits the remedial capacity of any present or near-future turn towards purposeful investment in approaches to reducing health disparities. This limitation exists, in part, because trust in the US health-care system has been vigorously eroded,²⁵⁻²⁷ in racial and minority ethnic groups more than in any other populations.^{28,29}

The pandemic has shown that there are not only material barriers to care, but also racial, ethnic, and political difficulties in the uptake of mitigation protocols, associated with factors ranging from structural racism to health efficacy, or confidence in one's ability to pursue a healthy life, and health literacy.^{28,30} COVID-19 will stand as a particular flash point, as the ruptures of trust happen not just between the public and the government and health-care institutions (eg, local hospitals, public health officials,

For the Flint Engagement Community Project see https:// www.flintstudy.com/welcome the US National Institutes of Health, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention) but, crucially, within communities, as neighbours engage in fractious debates on the nature of the COVID-19 threat in public spaces and online.^{31,32} The ubiquity of this discord suggests that mixed adoption of COVID-19 mitigation strategies is reflective of other forms of social and bodily resistance related to political philosophy and stigma and blame. This observation builds on research emphasising the spatial dynamics of differentiation in this erosion of trust.^{33,34}

Such a situation has, of course, happened before. Over 20 years ago, much of the hypersegregated metropolitan Chicago (IL, USA) area was affected by a heatwave; roughly 750 people died, most of whom were individuals of low income and older than 65 years, living in underresourced communities in the city's economically despondent south and west sides, affected by commercial decline and neighbourhood disinvestment.35,36 During this time, public officials clashed with these community members on their neighbourhoods' poor resilience and dereliction in looking out for one another.^{37,38} COVID-19 has wielded similarly stark, disproportionate effects in these same Chicago communities^{39,40} while state and local politicians hesitated on shutdown restrictions and, at times, seemingly pivoted towards a focus on a concomitant increase in crime in the city.⁴¹⁻⁴³

Historically produced intersections of race, sustainability, and urban planning matter. In Chicago's sobering case of environmental health inequity during its mid-1990s heatwave, this intersection was that of the socalled heat islands, scarce tree shading, and commercial exodus (businesses had begun leaving the city's south and west sides in droves in the 1980s);³⁵ in New Orleans (LA, USA), it was a porous and overextended patchwork of levees that bore the brunt of Hurricane Katrina;44 and in Flint, it was a flagging, undertreated water infrastructure system and a dilapidated housing stock.6 With the COVID-19 pandemic, the amalgamation of such lapses in municipal and city planning and design have left parts of the global population to endure a range of unmitigated vulnerabilities produced through the built environment, thus exponentially more exposed to environmental health and infectious disease threats than others.45,46

Many of the comorbidities directly linked to increased hospitalisation and mortality due to COVID-19 (eg, asthma or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes, obesity, cardiac disease, and cancer) are closely associated with built environment factors such as air, water, and soil pollution, unavailability of green spaces and of walkable places, and diminished access to healthy food (so-called food deserts), all of which are traits found far more frequently in low-income, non-White neighbourhoods.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ This mosaic of environmental injustice is attributable to a history of racially motivated community disinvestment and residential segregation and redlining (discriminatory real estate practices engineered to preclude racially minoritised and minority ethnic communities from living in neighbourhoods predominantly inhabited by White people),⁵⁰ factors that the Flint residents we interviewed were implicitly familiar with. Other inherently unhealthy urban spaces are the shameful legacy of urban renewal, which disproportionately targeted and fragmented lowincome, minority ethnic neighbourhoods and that, ironically, replaced dense walkable districts and civic centres with features such as freeways, in the name of public health and economic progress.⁵¹⁻⁵³

According to the fundamental causes theory, the privilege of accumulated resources leads to the ability to avoid some harms.⁵⁴ As COVID-19 has shown, "key resources such as knowledge, money, power, prestige, and beneficial social connections can be used no matter what the risk and protective factors are in a given circumstance".⁵⁵ Much of this enactment of social and political capital is relational in nature—for example, the influx of tourists from high-income countries led to pronounced surges in COVID-19 cases in minority ethnic enclaves in Asia, Africa, and South America.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸

Arline Geronimus' work on the weathering hypothesis³⁹ provides a similar call to action, signalling the potential for COVID-19-related chronic mental illness and trauma for doubly disenfranchised groups, such as Black women and mothers who bear an unequal burden in domestic duties.^{59,60} When considering the effects on children, long-term reciprocal disadvantages emerging from COVID-19's sprawling effects on education (eg, remote learning requiring child care and technology that might be difficult to purchase or access) are also a cause for concern.^{61,62}

Preparing for future outbreaks in marginalised spaces

We now turn to observations from our work in Flint to provide some recommendations on how to prepare for further COVID-19-related disparities. Importantly, although access to screening was touted as a panacea for the mitigation for water contamination-related morbidity in Flint and is being prioritised globally for COVID-19 mitigation, screening does not fundamentally address built-in risks that racially minoritised communities frequently face. Although focusing on the reduction of individual-level barriers to screening is important including by addressing poor health literacy and restricted access to transportation—a fully realised assessment of disasters such as COVID-19, the Flint water crisis, and other similar potential public health calamities requires continuous attention to macrosocial forces.

Beyond the failure to consistently and clearly articulate and implement physical distancing guidelines and maintain medical equipment reserves during the incipient stages of the spread of COVID-19 in China,^{63,64} many other miscommunications took place during the virus' initial spread in the USA. The variety of misstatements and semantic lapses from governmental and public health leaders were most centrally around how severe COVID-19 was, or could be, and around who should access screening and whether insurance was needed to do so. As we learned in Flint, because of issues caused by little access to information, low health literacy, and low general literacy, many residents were unsure of the health risks posed by consumption of contaminated water, and whether and how to find out if their water was contaminated. Furthermore, residents were confused about the utility of blood lead screenings and whether they were free (which they were, at least for a certain period and at certain clinical outposts in the city), which deterred residents from getting medical screenings. Other residents whom we have engaged held deeply fatalistic perspectives about their health, believing that a positive blood lead screening was a deleterious and irreversible outcome, or were unsure of what to do because of contradictory information that suggested that continued water consumption was safe, but that it may need to be boiled or filtered first. Confusion and disinformation in Flint, like that regarding the origins and severity of COVID-19,65 require ongoing contestation, particularly from local trusted stakeholders-such as faithbased institutions, schools, and small businesses-to generate and sustain the community trust and adherence needed to implement effective mitigation strategies.

In Flint, we frequently observed inconsistencies in how the government and health-care providers described both risk and risk mitigation, as officials misrepresented and hesitated in disclosing the potential consequences of exposure to contaminated water, on who needed to get tested for blood lead concentrations and for contaminant sequelae, and on who needed to have their water infrastructure replaced by the city, the centrepiece of the government's response effort.7.66 Officials also commonly shifted and closed bottled water distribution sites, and altered their positions on issues such as whether or when it was necessary to boil tap water or to use tap water filters to remove contaminants. Therefore, unsurprisingly, many of the measures taken by the government in response to the Flint water crisis were rejected by residents, who were either consummately dubious about or unfamiliar with the potential benefits of these resources, unaware these resources existed, or simply did not have the means to access them.

The fact that this reality contributed to increased distrust of local government and of public health-care institutions among Flint residents relates to reproducing marginalisation. Even the most substantial and visible solution implemented by the government in response to Flint's crisis—replacing lead water lines throughout the city—has done little to assuage the internalised suspicions of Flint residents, as had the switch-back to Flint's precrisis water source and the citywide provisioning of tap water filters. Evidence suggests that residents continue to avoid consuming the city's tap water in favour of bottled water,⁶⁷ although by even the most rigorous accounts and those published by the US Environmental Protection Agency, Flint's water has been consistently safe to consume since

at least late 2017.⁶⁸ The residents' persistent avoidance of the city's tap water highlights how, in addition to the common social determinants of health, there is an additional psychological barrier of eroded trust that must be remediated in communities who have felt chronic and historic neglect from public health institutions, even if future investments are made at the level of services and resource provisioning.

This nuanced form of social vulnerability has clear historical antecedents. Little investment in public health infrastructures (in terms of services, resources, and the establishment of transparent, culturally sensitive public communication standards) reproduces racial and social inequities, contributing to the inability of these institutions to effectively mitigate bodily and psychological risk for individuals, or invest in the necessary work of cultivating community trust. In the case of COVID-19, existing social vulnerability and distrust is heightened by previous experiences of institutional and health-care disenfranchisement. For example, questions about the effectiveness of face masks and vaccines further contribute to an insufficient use of mitigation strategies, and to a general sense that political and public health officials are misguided or dubious about their own proposed strategies (eg, consider the high-profile cases of politicians not wearing masks or attending gatherings that are not physically distanced).^{69,70} As the Tuskegee syphilis study⁷¹ and the broader legacy of racialised medical experimentation in high-income countries poignantly affirm,^{71,72} breaches such as these have both short-term and longterm consequences.

In conclusion, the interchangeability of the very notion of crisis should be recognised; scale and impact are relative and, thus, subjective. Now, more than 7 years after the start of the Flint water crisis, the episode has largely faded from the public's, and from scholars', gaze. Nevertheless, with the benefit of hindsight, there are many lessons to be taken from the situation. Rectifying the wrongs of institutionally generated environmental trauma, to the extent that can be done, requires a reorganisation of systems and structures that have helped to generate and sustain frequent racial and other forms of social inequity in the USA. A complete description of acts necessary to do so is beyond the scope of this Viewpoint. However, a focus on where this effort can begin might be instructive. First and foremost, public health officials should make dense and spatially vulnerable communities-often racially minoritised communitiesexplicit priorities in terms of allocation of mitigation resources, including masks, screenings, treatment, and other forms of material and social support. Recognising that the effects of COVID-19 have followed classic lines of social and economic stratification, the most intuitive approach to prevent, disrupt, and ultimately undo the pattern of disaster is concentrating resources in communities where stratification is most pronounced. Simultaneously, public health officials should strive for consistency in communicating the utility and means of

Although much attention has been paid to the physical consequences of COVID-19, commensurate attention must be paid also to the potential impact of COVID-19 on mental health and trauma. Evidence has consistently shown that, after large-scale crises, survivors are prone to have severe depression, anxiety, and trauma.73,74 Because socioenvironmental distress is already pronounced in many racially minoritised and minority ethnic populations.75 COVID-19 will probably intensify embedded existing mental health disparities. As we found by speaking with Flint residents, the effect of COVID-19 will not just be on the surface, manifesting on the body of individuals, but will come to reshape their mental health profiles.76 Indeed, the effects will remain fixed in the psyches of many of those who were directly affected and felt that they were targeted or preyed upon, through symptomatology that they observe in themselves and their loved ones; and for those who are more indirectly affected through ongoing social isolation, job and education loss, and other factors. In addition to buffering local economic and educational opportunities (an upstream approach), officials should work to ensure that mental health resources are broadly accessible in these communities as part of the recovery efforts.

Furthermore, there is also a pivotal and perhaps timelimited opportunity to tend to previous environmental injustices and show concern for the overall wellness of specific populations and the health of their environments. Engaging racially minoritised and minority ethnic communities in the environmental remediation process, greening, and other measures to improve local ecosystem services and neighbourhood liveability-without immediately triggering gentrification and displacementwill be crucial to promote a public health preparedness ethos, to rebuild trust, and to combat the underlying health factors that predispose many people in these communities to deleterious contacts with infectious diseases and with public and environmental health crises more broadly. A reckoning with the low uptake of preventive public health measures and sentiments of social and bodily vulnerability is likely to be most effectively achieved through efforts that empower individuals and restore a sense and possibility of individual agency, community ownership and capacity, and institutional earnestness and goodwill.

Contributors

All authors contributed to the conception, writing, and editing of this Viewpoint. JME did the data collection and community outreach for the underlying research in Flint that is discussed here.

Declaration of interests We declare no competi

We declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgments

We thank the participants of the Flint Community Engagement Project for their intentionality and vast intellectual contributions to the research underlying this Viewpoint.

References

- 1 Rouf K, Wainwright T. Linking health justice, social justice, and climate justice. *Lancet Planet Health* 2020; 4: e131–32.
- 2 Ruger JP. The injustice of COVID-19: we need a moral constitution for our planet's health. *Lancet Planet Health* 2020; 4: e264–65.
- 3 Blundell R, Costa Dias M, Joyce R, Xu X. COVID-19 and inequalities. *Fisc Stud* 2020; 41: 291–319.
- 4 Frumkin H. Health, equity, and the built environment. Environ Health Perspect 2005; 113: A290–91.
- 5 Pieper KJ, Tang M, Edwards MA. Flint water crisis caused by interrupted corrosion control: investigating "ground zero" home. *Environ Sci Technol* 2017; 51: 2007–14.
- 6 Masten SJ, Davies SH, Mcelmurry SP. Flint water crisis: what happened and why? J Am Water Works Assoc 2016; 108: 22–34.
- 7 Peplow M. The Flint water crisis: how citizen scientists exposed poisonous politics. *Nature* 2018; 559: 180–81.
- 8 Ahlness E. Flint fights back: environmental justice and democracy in the Flint water crisis. *Electron Green J* 2019; 1: 1–3.
- 9 Hanna-Attisha M. What the eyes don't see: a story of crisis, resistance, and hope in an American city. New York, NY: One World, 2019.
- 10 Butler LJ, Scammell MK, Benson EB. The Flint, Michigan, water crisis: a case study in regulatory failure and environmental injustice. *Environ Justice* 2016; 9: 93–97.
- 11 Campbell C, Greenberg R, Mankikar D, Ross RD. A case study of environmental injustice: the failure in Flint. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2016; **13**: 951.
- 12 Hammer PJ. The Flint water crisis, the Karegnondi water authority and strategic–structural racism. *Crit Sociol* 2019; 45: 103–19.
- 3 Pulido L. Flint, environmental racism, and racial capitalism. Capital Nat Social 2016; 24: 1–16.
- 14 Lewis NM, Friedrichs M, Wagstaff S, et al. Disparities in COVID-19 incidence, hospitalizations, and testing, by area-level deprivation— Utah, March 3–July 9, 2020. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2020; 69: 1369–73.
- 15 Millett GA, Jones AT, Benkeser D, et al. Assessing differential impacts of COVID-19 on black communities. *Ann Epidemiol* 2020; 47: 37–44.
- 16 Okoh AK, Sossou C, Dangayach NS, et al. Coronavirus disease 19 in minority populations of Newark, New Jersey. Int J Equity Health 2020; 19: 93.
- 17 Rodriguez-Lonebear D, Barceló NE, Akee R, Carroll SR. American Indian reservations and COVID-19: correlates of early infection rates in the pandemic. J Public Health Manag Pract 2020; 26: 371–77.
- 18 Hawkins D. Differential occupational risk for COVID-19 and other infection exposure according to race and ethnicity. Am J Ind Med 2020; 63: 817–20.
- 19 Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Assuring the Health of the Public in the 21st Century. The future of the public's health in the 21st century. Washington DC: National Academy Press, 2003.
- 20 Holmes L Jr, Enwere M, Williams J, et al. Black–White risk differentials in COVID-19 (SARS-COV-2) transmission, mortality and case fatality in the United States: translational epidemiologic perspective and challenges. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2020; 17: 4322.
- 21 Neely B, Samura M. Social geographies of race: connecting race and space. *Ethn Racial Stud* 2011; 34: 1933–52.
- 22 Sohrabi C, Alsafi Z, O'Neill N, et al. World Health Organization declares global emergency: a review of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19). *Int J Surg* 2020; **76**: 71–76.
- 23 Armocida B, Formenti B, Palestra F, Ussai S, Missoni E. COVID-19: universal health coverage now more than ever. J Glob Health 2020, 10: 010350.
- 24 Blumenthal D, Fowler EJ, Abrams M, Collins SR. Covid-19 implications for the health care system. N Engl J Med 2020; 383: 1483–88.
- 25 Han Q, Zheng B, Cristea M, et al. Trust in government and its associations with health behaviour and prosocial behaviour during the COVID-19 pandemic. *PsyArXiv* 2020; published online June 29. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/p5gns (preprint).
- 26 Jaiswal J, LoSchiavo C, Perlman DC. Disinformation, misinformation and inequality-driven mistrust in the time of COVID-19: lessons unlearned from AIDS denialism. *AIDS Behav* 2020; 24: 2776–80.

- 27 Sibley CG, Greaves LM, Satherley N, et al. Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and nationwide lockdown on trust, attitudes toward government, and well-being. *Am Psychol* 2020; 75: 618–30.
- 28 Phiri P, Delanerolle G, Al-Sudani A, Rathod S. COVID-19 and Black, Asian, and Minority Ethnic communities: a complex relationship without just cause. *JMIR Public Health Surveill* 2021; 7: e22581.
- 29 Smith Jervelund S, Eikemo TA. The double burden of COVID-19. *Scand J Public Health* 2021; **49**: 1–4.
- 30 Davlantes E, Tippins A, Espinosa C, et al. Mitigating SARS-CoV-2 transmission in Hispanic and Latino communities-Prince William Health District, Virginia, June 2020. J Racial Ethn Health Disparities 2021; published online Feb 4. https://doi.org/10.1007/ S40615-021-00968-Y.
- 31 May T. Anti-vaxxers, politicization of science, and the need for trust in pandemic response. *J Health Commun* 2020; **25**: 761–63.
- 32 Rothgerber H, Wilson T, Whaley D, et al. Politicizing the COVID-19 pandemic: ideological differences in adherence to social distancing. *PsyArXiv* 2020; published online April 22. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/k23cv (preprint).
- 33 Elgar FJ, Stefaniak A, Wohl MJA. The trouble with trust: time-series analysis of social capital, income inequality, and COVID-19 deaths in 84 countries. *Soc Sci Med* 2020; 263: 113365.
- 34 Krishnan L, Michelle Ogunwole S, Cooper LA. Historical insights on coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), the 1918 influenza pandemic, and racial disparities: illuminating a path forward. *Ann Intern Med* 2020; **173**: 474–81.
- 35 Browning CR, Wallace D, Feinberg SL, Cagney KA. Neighborhood social processes, physical conditions, and disaster-related mortality: the case of the 1995 Chicago heat wave. *Am Sociol Rev* 2006; 71: 661–78.
- 36 Klinenberg E. Heat wave: a social autopsy of disaster in Chicago. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 2015.
- 37 Klinenberg E. Denaturalizing disaster: a social autopsy of the 1995 Chicago heat wave. *Theory Soc* 1999; 28: 239–95.
- 38 Klinenberg E. Blaming the victims: hearsay, labeling, and the hazards of quick-hit disaster ethnography. Am Sociol Rev 2006; 71: 689–98.
- 39 Kim SJ, Bostwick W. Social vulnerability and racial inequality in COVID-19 deaths in Chicago. *Health Educ Behav* 2020; 47: 509–13.
- 40 Maroko AR, Nash D, Pavilonis BT. COVID-19 and inequity: a comparative spatial analysis of New York City and Chicago hot spots. J Urban Health 2020; 97: 461–70.
- 41 Campedelli GM, Favarin S, Aziani A, Piquero AR. Disentangling community-level changes in crime trends during the COVID-19 pandemic in Chicago. *Crime Sci* 2020; 9: 21.
- 42 Husain N, Reyes C. Before data showed Chicago blacks dying at higher rates, communities of color knew recovery from COVID-19 would be slow. April 21, 2020. https://www.chicagotribune.com/ coronavirus/ct-coronavirus-chicago-health-disparities-data-20200410-tr/Immvgurfwxpxiatebsozwsu-story.html (accessed April 17, 2021).
- 43 Taylor K-Y. The black plague. April 16, 2020. https://www. newyorker.com/news/our-columnists/the-black-plague (accessed April 16, 2021).
- 44 Leavitt WM, Kiefer JJ. Infrastructure interdependency and the creation of a normal disaster: the case of hurricane Katrina and the city of New Orleans. *Public Works Manag Policy* 2006; 10: 306–14.
- 45 Dietz L, Horve PF, Coil DA, Fretz M, Eisen JA, Van Den Wymelenberg K. 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic: built environment considerations to reduce transmission. *mSystems* 2020; 5: e00245–20.
- 46 Fears R, Gillett W, Haines A, Norton M, Ter Meulen V. Post-pandemic recovery: use of scientific advice to achieve social equity, planetary health, and economic benefits. *Lancet Planet Health* 2020; 4: e383–84.
- 47 Cutts BB, Darby KJ, Boone CG, Brewis A. City structure, obesity, and environmental justice: an integrated analysis of physical and social barriers to walkable streets and park access. *Soc Sci Med* 2009; 69: 1314–22.
- 48 Wolch JR, Byrne J, Newell JP. Urban green space, public health, and environmental justice: the challenge of making cities 'just green enough'. *Landsc Urban Plan* 2014; 125: 234–44.
- 49 Rundle A, Neckerman KM, Freeman L, et al. Neighborhood food environment and walkability predict obesity in New York City. *Environ Health Perspect* 2009; 117: 442–47.

- 50 Rothstein R. The color of law: a forgotten history of how our government segregated America. New York, NY: Liveright Publishing, 2017.
- 51 Highsmith AR. Demolition means progress: Flint, Michigan, and the fate of the American metropolis. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press; 2015.
- 52 Rast J. Regime building, institution building: urban renewal policy in Chicago, 1946–1962. J Urban Aff 2009; 31: 173–94.
- 53 Teaford JC. Urban renewal and its aftermath. *Hous Policy Debate* 2000; 11: 443–65.
- 54 Link BG, Phelan J. Social conditions as fundamental causes of disease. J Health Soc Behav 1995; **35**: 80–94.
- 55 Phelan JC, Link BG, Tehranifar P. Social conditions as fundamental causes of health inequalities: theory, evidence, and policy implications. J Health Soc Behav 2010; 51 (suppl): S28–40.
- 56 Gilbert M, Pullano G, Pinotti F, et al. Preparedness and vulnerability of African countries against importations of COVID-19: a modelling study. *Lancet* 2020; 395: 871–77.
- 57 Marinelli NP, Albuquerque LPA, Sousa IDB, Batista FMA, Mascarenhas MDM, Rodrigues MTP. Evolution of indicators and service capacity at the beginning of the COVID-19 epidemic in Northeast Brazil, 2020. *Epidemiol Serv Saude* 2020; 29: e2020226.
- 58 Tremblay-Huet S. COVID-19 leads to a new context for the "right to tourism": a reset of tourists' perspectives on space appropriation is needed. *Tour Geogr* 2020; 22: 720–23.
- 59 Geronimus AT. The weathering hypothesis and the health of African-American women and infants: evidence and speculations. *Ethn Dis* 1992; 2: 207–21.
- 60 Simons RL, Lei M-K, Klopack E, Beach SRH, Gibbons FX, Philibert RA. The effects of social adversity, discrimination, and health risk behaviors on the accelerated aging of African Americans: further support for the weathering hypothesis. *Soc Sci Med* 2020; published online July 7. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.socscimed.2020.113169.
- 61 Azevedo JP, Hasan A, Goldemberg D, Iqbal SA, Geven K. Simulating the potential impacts of covid-19 school closures on schooling and learning outcomes: a set of global estimates. The World Bank, 2020. https://pubdocs.worldbank.org/ en/798061592482682799/covid-and-education-June17-r6.pdf (accessed Dec 19, 2020).
- 62 Van Lancker W, Parolin Z. COVID-19, school closures, and child poverty: a social crisis in the making. *Lancet Public Health* 2020; 5: e243–44.
- 63 Alvarez FE, Argente D, Lippi F. A simple planning problem for COVID-19 lockdown. National Bureau of Economic Research, April, 2020. https://www.nber.org/papers/w26981 (accessed Jan 8, 2021).
- 54 Sharifi A, Khavarian-Garmsir AR. The COVID-19 pandemic: impacts on cities and major lessons for urban planning, design, and management. *Sci Total Environ* 2020; 749: 142391.
- 65 Brzezinski A, Kecht V, Van Dijcke D, Wright AL. Belief in science influences physical distancing in response to COVID-19 lockdown policies. Working paper 2020–56. University of Chicago Becker Friedman Institute for Economics, April, 2020. https://repec.bfi. uchicago.edu/RePEc/pdfs/BFI_WP_202056.pdf (accessed Feb 26, 2021).
- 66 Carey MC, Lichtenwalter J. "Flint can't get in the hearing": the language of urban pathology in coverage of an American public health crisis. J Commun Inq 2020; 44: 26–47.
- 67 Kruger DJ, Cupal S, Franzen SP, et al. Toxic trauma: household water quality experiences predict posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms during the Flint, Michigan, water crisis. J Community Psychol 2017; 45: 957–62.
- 68 Hughes S. Flint, Michigan, and the politics of safe drinking water in the United States. *Perspect Polit* 2020; published online July 13. DOI:10.1017/S153759272000136X.
- 69 Peeples L. What the data say about wearing face masks. *Nature* 2020; **586**: 186–89.
- 70 Plohl N, Musil B. Modeling compliance with COVID-19 prevention guidelines: the critical role of trust in science. *Psychol Health Med* 2021; 26: 1–12.
- 71 Washington HA. Medical apartheid: the dark history of medical experimentation on Black Americans from colonial times to the present. New York, NY: Doubleday Books, 2006.

- 72 Davis D-A. Obstetric racism: the racial politics of pregnancy, labor, and birthing. *Med Anthropol* 2019; **38**: 560–73.
- 73 Bromet EJ. Mental health consequences of the Chernobyl disaster. J Radiol Prot 2012; 32: N71–75.
- 74 Gill DA. Secondary trauma or secondary disaster? Insights from Hurricane Katrina. *Sociol Spectr* 2007; **27**: 613–32.
- 75 Matthews SA, Yang T-C. Exploring the role of the built and social neighborhood environment in moderating stress and health. *Ann Behav Med* 2010; **39**: 170–83.
- 76 Ezell JM, Chase EC. A population-based assessment of physical symptoms and mental health outcomes among adults following the Flint water crisis. *J Urban Health* 2021; published online March 31. https://doi.org/10.1007/S11524-021-00525-2.

Copyright O 2021 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an Open Access article under the CC BY-NC-ND 4.0 license.