



Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

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Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

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The findings and conclusions in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. There was no patient or public involvement in the writing of this Analysis piece; it represents only the views of the authors.

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KEY MESSAGES

- Research shows that, at the individual level, religious participation is a protective social factor for multiple outcomes in health, including all-cause mortality
- Faith-based institutions often partner successfully with public health agencies to prevent disease and promote health

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3 34 • Religious groups may also foster adverse public health outcomes by promoting stigma,
4 asserting religious liberties of individuals over the collective, and influencing policies that
5 35 are not shared in religiously diverse societies
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10 38 **Contributors and sources**

11 39 The four authors have long commitments to research and practice in the intersection between
12 40 religion and public health. Ellen Idler and John Blevins work at Emory University on the Religion
13 41 and Public Health Collaborative and the Interfaith Health Program, which originated at The
14 42 Carter Center. James Cochrane is a founder of the African Religious Health Assets Programme
15 43 (ARHAP) and convenor of the Leading Causes of Life Initiative. John Blevins and James
16 44 Cochrane were contributors to *Religion as a Social Determinant of Public Health* (Idler, Editor;
17 45 Oxford; 2014), the product of a two-year, 25-person faculty seminar at Emory. Mohamed Jalloh
18 46 is the CDC Country Director for Cameroon; with John Blevins and Ellen Idler he was a
19 47 contributor to the March 2019 Special Section of the *American Journal of Public Health* on
20 48 “Faith-Based Organizations and Public Health”. Ellen Idler drafted an initial version of the paper
21 49 but all authors contributed text and references to the document.
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40 58 We have no conflicts of interest to declare.
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60 Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

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62 **Standfirst**

63 Because religion's influence on public health can be both harmful and protective, it cannot be
64 universally vilified, championed, or ignored. Rather, as Ellen Idler and colleagues argue, public
65 health must critically assess religion's varied effects to establish more effective and durable
66 partnerships with religious actors that can contribute to better population health outcomes.

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68 **Introduction**

69 Headlines on religion and public health appear regularly in the press, with both conflict and
70 cooperation as themes: "Battling COVID: When Religion, Public Health Collide",¹ "Churches and
71 Mosques Educate on Ebola",² "Uganda: HIV Positive Teens Choose Religion over ARV."³ In
72 some cases, religious institutions protect and support public health; in others, the opposite
73 occurs. In this paper we argue that engagement with religion is imperative for medicine and
74 public health -- not to promote religion or to grant it special status, but because the health
75 effects are real, contradictory, and complex.

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77 In previous work, we have framed religion as a social determinant of health, arguing that –
78 alongside education, income, race, and gender – it has a quantifiable, demonstrable impact on
79 population health.⁴ Although socioeconomic status determinants have more well-understood
80 associations with health, religion is a different social force with unique complexities that can
81 dually produce harmful and protective health effects. Unlike the interval, scaled measures of
82 income and education where advantage clearly accrues to health, religion is multifaceted,
83 exhibiting conflicting associations. Religion, a set of spiritual beliefs and practices manifested at
84 both the individual and institutional level, warrants a different conceptualization as a social
85 determinant, both to mitigate its harmful effects and to realize its protective and generative
86 impact. Some tensions between public health and religion may be reconcilable, and some not,
87 but the efficacy and durability of public health requires taking religious institutions seriously.
88 While attempting engagement and partnership may not always be successful, without the
89 attempt no lessons will be learned.

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91 **Five Lessons**

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3 92 The following observations have evolved from our collective decades working across social
4 93 sciences, public health, religion, and theology, seeing firsthand that religions are frequently
5 94 active in the public health space – for good or ill – and cannot be ignored.
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9 96 *First, people around the world regularly see their health through a religious or spiritual lens,*
10 97 *even in supposedly ‘secular’ contexts.* Health behaviors are thus informed by norms and values
11 98 beyond those set by medical or clinical interventions. Public health practitioners often fail to
12 99 perceive these complex influences, which remain powerful in many communities and should be
13 100 taken into account.
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18 102 *Second, public health institutions can successfully engage with religious actors to realize public*
19 103 *health outcomes.* There is no health issue for which partnerships with faith-based organizations
20 104 is irrelevant. Finding common ground for action for the public good may take vision and
21 105 patience, but it can lead to mutually beneficial relationships and engender working partnerships,
22 106 as trust is built iteratively over time. Public health actors must recognize that achieving certain
23 107 population health outcomes may require negotiation and engagement with religious institutions
24 108 in varying contexts. We further argue that non-engagement with religious institutions is a form of
25 109 intervention that can produce negative health effects or slow down progress in achieving
26 110 desired health outcomes.
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34 112 *Third, at times religion may facilitate public health initiatives, and even serve as a check on their*
35 113 *(unintended) negative consequences.* Religious leaders and communities have periodically
36 114 critiqued public health recommendations that discount religious beliefs and practices, and
37 115 offered compromises that promoted better health outcomes. At the same time, there are notable
38 116 examples of the harms of religion on health, and some longstanding tensions between public
39 117 health and religion may be irreconcilable.
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45 119 *Fourth, public health workers ought to enhance the humility and respect they feel for local*
46 120 *communities, including faith communities.* “We know the science”, taken narrowly, creates a
47 121 hierarchical power relationship with respect to knowledge. The growth of social science
48 122 methods in public health builds understanding of how to respect communities’ knowledge and
49 123 priorities. This goes beyond human and religious rights – it includes respect of each party for the
50 124 other, their different forms of power, and their own relevant insights about health.
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3 126 Fifth and finally, *religion or spirituality is a resource during times of crisis and vulnerability, even*
4 127 *for many ostensibly secular people.* Respect of public health practitioners for communities'
5 128 religious beliefs and practices is particularly crucial in acute emergencies and crises.
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9 130 To illustrate these lessons, we share examples that are organized in a social-ecological frame,
10 131 with evidence at the individual, organizational, and nation-state level.
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14 133 **Religion and health at the individual level**

15 134 A recent major systematic review of research on religion's effects on individual health
16 135 considered prior studies of patients with serious illness and a wide range of population-based
17 136 health indicators.⁵ It concluded there was strong evidence for including spiritual care alongside
18 137 clinical care for seriously ill patients, and that attendance at religious services had a dose-
19 138 response protective effect for all-cause mortality. The evidence of this summary of hundreds of
20 139 well-conducted studies falls strongly on the protective side, including for patients with all types
21 140 of serious illness, and for all causes of mortality.⁵ This body of work provides many examples of
22 141 Lessons 1 and 5, uncovering hidden influences of religion in daily health lifestyles and in crises
23 142 of serious illness.
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31 144 Yet, there undoubtedly also exist many instances of harms to health, as we detail below. To
32 145 reconcile this contradiction of help and harm we need a wider, social-ecological view that
33 146 conceptualizes not only the level of individual religiousness and health outcomes, but also the
34 147 levels of organizations (faith-based and secular), and of nation-states.
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39 149 **Not just individuals, but organizations**

40 150 Religion is more than a set of private practices and beliefs related to individual health outcomes
41 151 such as those studied in the systematic review noted above. Lessons 2, 3, and 4 are well-
42 152 represented in scholarship on the public health impact of religious institutions, which has grown
43 153 in recent years⁶⁻⁸, influencing public health research, practice⁹, and policy.¹⁰ Faith-based health
44 154 facilities provide a substantial percentage of the health services in many low- and middle-
45 155 income countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. The African Religious Health Assets
46 156 Programme,¹¹ a consortium of researchers and practitioners in public health and religious
47 157 studies, demonstrated the varied contributions of faith-based organizations (FBOs) to the
48 158 "healthworlds"¹² of local communities in both tangible and intangible ways. Similarly, efforts to
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3 159 improve child mortality surveillance in low- and middle-income countries have benefited from the
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5 160 early and sustained engagement of religious leaders and institutions.¹³

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8 162 Organizational partnerships in religion and public health were the subject of a special section of
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10 163 the *American Journal of Public Health* in March 2019; the papers provide examples of U.S.
11 164 faith-based organizations' food programs and vaccination drives. The COVID-19 pandemic
12 165 invigorated many such "trusted messenger" partnerships around the world, particularly interfaith
13 166 partnerships that mobilized to promote vaccines. Despite the media narratives of religious
14 167 obstruction to public health guidance, a computational text analysis of COVID-19 statements on
15 168 global religious groups' own web sites showed messages that tracked closely with guidance for
16 169 faith communities from the World Health Organization and the U.S. Centers for Disease Control
17 170 and Prevention.¹⁴

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20 172 Certainly, religious institutions and groups that promote vaccine refusal, or stigmatize and
21 173 discriminate against others based on gender, gender identity, sexuality, religion, race, or other
22 174 group characteristics, are also present. Tetanus vaccine refusal has been linked to infertility
23 175 fears in segments of the population, a message spread through various channels, including
24 176 religious ones.¹⁵ Similarly, the 2003-2004 boycott and suspension of oral polio vaccine (OPV) in
25 177 five states in northern Nigeria occurred because it was believed to cause sterility in Muslim
26 178 girls.¹⁶ Complex institutional struggles between the federal government and the Supreme
27 179 Council for Sharia in Nigeria coupled with historical sociocultural dynamics precipitated the OPV
28 180 boycott, leaving many children at greater risk of polio, showing that religious institutions can
29 181 engender negative health effects that linger for years.

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32 183 Beyond resistance to immunization, religious institutions have also created discriminatory
33 184 environments that contribute to adverse mental health outcomes among sub-populations in
34 185 society, including among people who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer
35 186 (LGBTQ). Despite religiosity generally being associated with numerous positive mental health
36 187 outcomes,⁵ those who identify as LGBTQ have experienced religious discrimination with
37 188 associated negative mental health outcomes.¹⁷

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40 190 The Ebola epidemic provides an example of an initial non-alignment of faith communities'
41 191 practices with public health practices, and efforts that brought them successfully together. Many
42 192 community members refused to report household deaths during the early stages of the epidemic

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3 193 because such reporting led to a prohibition of traditional religious rituals to prepare the body for
4 194 burial.¹⁸ In response, leaders from Muslim, Christian, and indigenous spiritual traditions
5 195 demonstrated that they were willing and able to reshape religious beliefs and rituals about burial
6 196 to conform with protective public health practices; working with faith-based organizations, the
7 197 World Health Organization modified its “safe” burial guidance to become the “safe and dignified”
8 198 protocol.¹⁹ The religious response to Ebola, which featured prominently in the CDC Museum’s
9 199 exhibit on the epidemic,²⁰ was successful in large part because the faith leaders had pre-existing
10 200 networks of trust and communication with each other and with public health officials. It
11 201 exemplifies every single one of the five lessons: a faith-based and public health relationship that
12 202 began with conflict and harm transformed to cooperation and protection, with both sides shifting
13 203 from their original positions to find common ground.

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205 **Not just organizations, but nation states**

206 The biggest threat to public health from religious institutions comes not at the individual or the
207 organizational level, but at the level of the nation-state, when policies advocated by a single
208 religious community are enacted and enforced for an entire population. This is particularly
209 important for women, who are more religiously observant than men, and more subjected to
210 religious regulation of their rights and bodily autonomy. The recent conservative shift in the U.S.
211 Supreme Court, motivated by the “religious right”, has resulted in the abolition of women’s rights
212 to control their bodies in an increasing number of states, perhaps nationally if the ban on
213 medication abortion is upheld. This restriction of the rights of all women is especially
214 problematic in an increasingly secular U.S. society where banning abortions is a view held by a
215 small minority of the population, even among the religiously observant.²¹

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217 Lesson 4, about policies at nation-state level, is also reflected in the HIV pandemic response.
218 Nation-states -- including the United States through the President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS
219 Relief (PEPFAR) -- working with religious institutions have been key to global efforts to end the
220 AIDS epidemic.²² The capacities of faith-based health facilities in providing HIV clinical care are
221 substantial and have been an essential part of progress made to date. For example, the
222 PEPFAR-UNAIDS Faith Initiative conducted a secondary data analysis of HIV treatment visits in
223 Kenya, calculating that 21% of all HIV clinical care was provided by faith-based health
224 facilities.²³ In another example from Brazil, FBOs singled out aspects of the HIV epidemic to
225 which they could contribute without violating their religious beliefs, as in the use of condoms.²⁴

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3 227 At the same time, religion generates complex inter-related influences in the global HIV
4 228 response. If advocacy from Evangelical Protestant leaders was influential in building political
5 229 support for the passage of PEPFAR, their support was secured in part by championing HIV
6 230 prevention programs that prioritized abstinence-only messages over comprehensive HIV
7 231 prevention grounded in evidence-based practice.²⁶ Funding for abstinence-only approaches
8 232 had the unintended consequence of providing financial support to some faith-based
9 233 organizations in countries such as Uganda, Tanzania, and Nigeria whose leaders later worked
10 234 to pass strict legal prohibitions on homosexuality that contributed to violence against LGBTQ
11 235 communities.²⁶ In short, disentangling the varied influences of religion in relation to HIV— both
12 236 positive and negative—is challenging but necessary.
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21 238 **Conclusions**

22 239 Does religion have a positive or a detrimental effect on population health? In any society,
23 240 religion is embedded in the context of the full range of factors that impact health at individual,
24 241 organizational, and nation-state levels. Whether religion is a positive or negative contributor to
25 242 health depends upon its expressions. Initiatives such as PEPFAR and The Global Fund¹⁰, or the
26 243 *Thriving Together* response to COVID-19 now adopted by several US federal agencies²⁷, have
27 244 recognized that religious actors or faith communities embark on activities that contribute to the
28 245 health of individuals and populations, often filling gaps in health systems, from delivery,
29 246 prevention, and support to medical or clinical intervention.
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36 248 The formal role and influence of religious communities may be stronger in some societies than
37 249 others, but in much of the world religion in some form nonetheless remains important in daily
38 250 public and private life. It shapes people's "healthworlds"¹²—their complex ways of understanding
39 251 health or illness that incorporate but also extend beyond biomedical science and clinical
40 252 procedures. "Healthworlds" are constructed by individuals and populations from positive norms
41 253 and values, and not simply from an "ignorance of science."
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47 255 Public health interventions can work alongside religious institutions to support positive health
48 256 outcomes within and across social contexts, we argue, despite our first-hand knowledge that the
49 257 conflicts between religion and public health can seem – or even be – intractable.

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52 258 Notwithstanding high-stakes tensions as in vaccine resistance or religious minorities enforcing
53 259 their beliefs through the power of the state, partnership and engagement are critical to reducing
54 260 tension and to forging win-win scenarios where possible. The public health research community
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3 261 can also help religious communities address the negative manifestations of stigma and abuse
4 262 and support efforts in promoting positive well-being. The multivalent effects of religion on health
5 263 can be harmful or protective, but religion will likely remain an enduring, if complex and
6 264 contradictory, social determinant of health for most people around the world. A nuanced
7 265 approach to understanding, shaping, and responding to its effects on health and wellbeing,
8 266 especially in supporting its positive effects, is essential for global public health.

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