



Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

Journal:	<i>BMJ</i>
Manuscript ID	BMJ-2022-074052
Article Type:	Analysis
Date Submitted by the Author:	04-Apr-2023
Complete List of Authors:	Idler, Ellen; Emory University, Sociology Jalloh, Mohamed; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Global Immunization Division Cochrane, James; University of Cape Town Blevins, John; Emory University
Keywords:	Public health, Quality of health care, Social medicine, Socioeconomic Factors

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

Ellen Idler¹

Mohamed F. Jalloh²

James Cochrane³

John Blevins¹

¹Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

²U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Cameroon

³University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa

Correspondence to:

Ellen Idler

Emory University

Atlanta, Georgia, USA

Email: eidler@emory.edu

Disclaimer:

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.

Word count: 1827

References: 25

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 organizations often partner successfully with public health agencies to prevent disease and promote health

- 1
2
3 34 • Religious groups may also foster adverse public health outcomes by promoting stigma,
4 35 asserting religious liberties of individuals over the collective, and influencing policies that
5 36 are not shared in religiously diverse societies
6
7
8 37

9 38 **Contributors and sources**

10 39 The four authors have long commitments to research and practice in the intersection between
11 40 religion and public health. Ellen Idler and John Blevins work at Emory University on the Religion
12 41 and Public Health Collaborative and the Interfaith Health Program, which originated at The
13 42 Carter Center. James Cochrane is a founder of the African Religious Health Assets
14 43 Programme. John Blevins and James Cochrane were contributors to *Religion as a Social*
15 44 *Determinant of Public Health* (Idler, Editor; Oxford; 2014), the product of a two-year, 25-person
16 45 faculty seminar at Emory. Mohamed Jalloh is CDC Country Director for Cameroon; with John
17 46 Blevins he was a contributor to the March 2019 Special Section of the *American Journal of*
18 47 *Public Health* on “Faith-Based Organizations and Public Health”. Ellen Idler drafted an initial
19 48 version of the paper but all authors contributed text and references to the document.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 50 **Conflicts of Interest**

29 51 We have no conflicts of interest to declare.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

53 Religion as a Social Force in Health: Complexities and Contradictions

54

55 **Standfirst**

56 Religion's role in public health can be both harmful and protective, but should not be ignored, as

57 Ellen Idler and colleagues argue

58

59 **Introduction**

60 Headlines on religion and public health have appeared frequently since 2020: "Battling COVID:

61 When Religion, Public Health Collide",¹ "Theocratic influence in state policy has been to

62 detriment of people's well-being",² "Launch of Global Multi-Religious Faith-in-Action COVID-19

63 Initiative."³ In some cases, religious institutions protect and support public health; in other cases,

64 the opposite occurs. How can we address these contradictions?

65

66 In previous work, we have framed religion as a social determinant of health, arguing that it

67 should be considered – alongside education, income, race, and gender – as having a

68 quantifiable, demonstrable impact on population health.⁴ Although socioeconomic status

69 determinants tend to have more well-understood associations with health, religion has unique

70 complexities, with both harmful and protective demonstrated health impacts. Unlike the interval,

71 scaled measures of income and education, religion is multifaceted, exhibiting variable

72 associations with health. Religion is a social determinant of health, but because of its multi-

73 layered manifestations and dependence on social context, it warrants a different

74 conceptualization, both to prevent its harmful effects and to realize its protective and generative

75 impact.

76

77 COVID-19 (and other) vaccine hesitancies among religious groups in the U.S. and around the

78 world are well-known examples of the public health harm caused by religious influence.

79 However, a more comprehensive view was taken by a major systematic review and meta-

80 analysis of religion's effects on health that was published in July 2022.⁵ In the review, one

81 Delphi panel considered prior studies of patients with serious illness; a second assessed

82 research on a wide range of population-based health indicators including mortality. The first

83 panel identified strong evidence for including spiritual care alongside clinical care for seriously ill

84 patients. The second concluded that there was strong evidence that attendance at religious

85 services had a dose-response protective effect for all-cause mortality. On balance, the review

1
2
3 86 showed that evidence from studies at the individual level falls strongly on the protective side,
4 87 including for patients with all types of serious illness, and for all causes of mortality.

5
6 88

7
8 89 To reconcile this contradiction of help and harm, the relationship of religion to public health
9 90 should be conceptualized not only at the level of individual religiousness and health outcomes,
10 91 but also at the level of organizations – faith-based and secular – and of states and nations. This
11 92 is of particular importance for women, who are more religiously observant than men, and more
12 93 subjected to religious regulation of their rights and bodily autonomy.

13
14 94

15 95 **Not just individuals, but organizations**

16 96 There is substantial published research on the impacts of religion on individuals, patients, and
17 97 populations. Scholarship on the public health impact of religion has grown in recent years⁶⁻⁸,
18 98 influencing public health research and practice⁹, and public health policy.¹⁰ Faith-based health
19 99 facilities provide a substantial percentage of the health services in many low- and middle-
20 100 income countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, and have been a primary impetus for recent
21 101 public health and faith partnerships. The groundbreaking African Religious Health Assets
22 102 Programme,¹¹ a consortium of researchers and practitioners in public health and religious
23 103 studies, furthered this work by demonstrating the varied contributions of faith communities and
24 104 faith-based organizations (FBOs) to the health of local communities in both tangible and
25 105 intangible ways.

26 106

27 107 Organizational partnerships in religion and public health were the subject of a special section of
28 108 the *American Journal of Public Health* in March 2019. The COVID-19 pandemic invigorated
29 109 many such “trusted messenger” partnerships, particularly interfaith partnerships that mobilized
30 110 to promote vaccines, once available. A computational text analysis of COVID-19 statements on
31 111 religious groups’ own web sites showed messages that tracked closely with guidance for faith
32 112 communities from the World Health Organization and the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and
33 113 Prevention.¹²

34 114

35 115 Certainly, religious institutions and groups that promote vaccine refusal, or stigmatize and
36 116 discriminate against others based on gender, sexuality, religion, race, or other group
37 117 characteristics, are also present. Tetanus vaccine refusal has been linked to infertility fears in
38 118 segments of the population, a message that has been spread through various channels,
39 119 including religious ones.¹³ Another example is the 2003-2004 boycott and suspension of oral

1
2
3 120 polio vaccine (OPV) in five states in northern Nigeria because it was believed to cause sterility
4 121 in Muslim girls.¹⁴ Complex institutional struggles between the federal government and the
5 122 Supreme Council for Sharia in Nigeria coupled with historical sociocultural dynamics
6 123 precipitated the OPV boycott, leaving many children at greater risk of polio. This demonstrates
7 124 how the power of religious institutions can produce negative health effects that linger for years.
8 125 Beyond documented threats to immunization, religious institutions have also created
9 126 discriminatory environments that contribute to adverse mental health outcomes among sub-
10 127 populations in society, including among young people who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual,
11 128 transgender, and queer (LGBTQ). Despite religiosity being associated with positive mental
12 129 health outcomes among young people in general,¹⁵ those who identify as LGBTQ have
13 130 experienced religious discrimination with associated negative mental health outcomes.¹⁶

14 131
15 132 Religious beliefs can also affect individual level uptake barriers in myriad health areas, including
16 133 mortality surveillance efforts. For example, after the 2014-2015 Ebola epidemic, the
17 134 Government of Sierra Leone aimed to maintain reporting of all deaths through a central toll-free
18 135 number (the 1-1-7 line). Although death reporting to this line increased exponentially during the
19 136 epidemic,¹⁷ it quickly plummeted after the epidemic ended. A study investigating reasons for not
20 137 reporting deaths found that it was partly linked to people's religious belief that "death is God's
21 138 will." Many people viewed prompt religious burial as a higher priority than death reporting, which
22 139 could cause burial delays.¹⁸ Similar religious concerns led to under-reporting of deaths during
23 140 the early stages of the Ebola epidemic, which contributed to the community spread of Ebola. At
24 141 the same time, religious leaders demonstrated during the epidemic that they were willing and
25 142 able to reshape religious beliefs about burial rites to conform with protective public health
26 143 practices. The extrinsic engagement of religious institutions was a central pillar of the public
27 144 health response mounted to curb the Ebola epidemic.¹⁹ Religious institutions also have a
28 145 prominent role in supporting public health responses to health emergencies, including the
29 146 COVID-19 pandemic.²⁰ Similarly, efforts to improve child mortality surveillance in low- and
30 147 middle-income countries have benefited from the early and sustained engagement of religious
31 148 leaders and religious institutions.²¹

149 150 **Not just organizations, but nation states**

151 The global HIV response has taken place at all levels. Nation states, including the United States
152 through the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), have played a critical role
153 in global HIV response. Working with religious institutions has been a key component in global

1
2
3 154 efforts to end the AIDS epidemic. For example, the contributions of faith-based health facilities
4
5 155 in providing HIV clinical care are substantial and the capacities these facilities provide has been
6
7 156 an essential part of progress made to date. For example, the PEPFAR-UNAIDS Faith Initiative
8
9 157 conducted a secondary data analysis of HIV treatment visits in Kenya, calculating that 21% of
10
11 158 all HIV clinical care was provided by faith-based health facilities.²²
12
13 159 However, religion presents complex inter-related influences in the global HIV response.
14
15 160 Advocacy from Evangelical Protestant leaders (ordained and lay) was influential in building
16
17 161 political support for the passage of PEPFAR but their support was secured in part by
18
19 162 championing HIV prevention programs that prioritized abstinence-only messages over
20
21 163 comprehensive HIV prevention grounded in evidence-based practice.²³ Funding for abstinence-
22
23 164 only approaches had an unintended consequence of providing financial support to faith-based
24
25 165 organizations in various countries such as Uganda, Tanzania, and Nigeria whose leaders later
26
27 166 worked to pass strict legal prohibitions on homosexuality that contributed to violence against
28
29 167 LGBTQ communities.²⁴ In short, disentangling the varied influences of religion in relation to
30
31 168 HIV— both positive and negative—across the social field is challenging but worth the effort.
32
33 169

34 170 **Reflections on lessons learned**

35 171 Five key lessons summarize our experiences and observations from our collective several
36
37 172 decades working across social sciences, public health, religion, and theology.
38
39 173

40 174 First, people around the world often see their health through a religious or spiritual lens, even in
41
42 175 'secular' contexts. They adapt their behavior informed by norms and values beyond those set
43
44 176 by medical or clinical interventions even as those norms impact such interventions. Public
45
46 177 health practitioners often fail to perceive these complex behaviors, which remain present and
47
48 178 powerful in many communities.
49
50 179

51 180 Second, public health institutions can engage with religious actors. There is no health issue for
52
53 181 which partnerships with faith-based organizations is irrelevant. It takes vision and patience,
54
55 182 sometimes, to find common ground for action for the public good. But doing so can lead to
56
57 183 mutually beneficial relationships and provoke more working partnerships, as trust is built.
58
59 184

60 185 Third, simultaneously, religion can be conceptualized as both benefit and corrective – as both
61
62 186 facilitator of public health initiatives, and as a check on them. Religious leaders and

1
2
3 187 communities have sometimes critiqued public health recommendations that discount religious
4 188 beliefs and practices, and offered compromises.

5 189
6
7
8 190 Fourth, public health workers can enhance the humility and respect they feel for local
9 191 communities, including faith communities. “We know the science”, taken narrowly, sets up a
10 192 hierarchical power relationship with respect to knowledge. The growth of the *social* sciences in
11 193 public health helps understand what it takes to work with communities to implement public
12 194 health practices. Respect means recognizing more than human and religious rights – it includes
13 195 respect of each party for the other.

14 196
15
16 197 Finally, religion or spirituality is a place where many -- even ostensibly secular people -- turn in
17 198 crisis. The respect of public health practitioners for community beliefs and practices is crucially
18 199 important in times of crisis and vulnerability.

19 200

20 201 **Conclusions**

21 202 Does religion have a positive or a detrimental effect on population health? In any society,
22 203 religion is embedded in the context of the full range of factors that impact health, including the
23 204 better-known social determinants. Whether religion is a positive or negative contributor to
24 205 health depends upon its expressions. Initiatives such as PEPFAR and The Global Fund, or the
25 206 *Thriving Together* response to COVID-19 now adopted by several US federal agencies, have
26 207 recognized that religious actors or faith communities everywhere embark on activities that
27 208 contribute to the health of individuals and populations, and fill many gaps in health systems,
28 209 from provision, delivery, prevention, and support to medical or clinical intervention.

29 210

30 211 If the formal role and influence of religious communities is stronger in some societies than in
31 212 others, in much of the world religion in some form remains important in daily public and private
32 213 life, shaping people’s “healthworlds”²⁵—their complex ways of understanding and responding to
33 214 health or illness that incorporate but also extend beyond biomedical science and clinical
34 215 procedures. “Healthworlds” are constructed by individuals and populations from positive
35 216 subjective norms and values, and not simply from an “ignorance of science.”

36 217

37 218 Public health interventions working alongside religious institutions can engage religion’s effects
38 219 to support positive health outcomes within and across social contexts. While the multivalent
39 220 effects of religion on health can be harmful or protective, it will thus likely remain an enduring, if

1
2
3 221 complex and contradictory, social determinant of health for most people around the world. A
4 222 nuanced approach to understanding, shaping, and responding to its effects on health and
5 223 wellbeing outcomes is essential for global public health.
6
7
8 224
9

10 225

11 226 **References**

12 227 1. Global Press Journal. Battling the virus when religion and public health collide, 2022.

13 228 Available from: <https://globalpressjournal.com/africa/zimbabwe/religion-public-health-collide/>14 229 [accessed December 22 2022].
15
16
17 230

18 231 2. Khan A. Theocratic influence in state policy has been to detriment of people's well-being,

19 232 2022. Available from: [https://globalpressjournal.com/africa/zimbabwe/religion-public-health-](https://globalpressjournal.com/africa/zimbabwe/religion-public-health-collide/)20 233 [collide/](https://globalpressjournal.com/africa/zimbabwe/religion-public-health-collide/) [accessed December 20 2022].
21
22
23 234

24 235 3. UNICEF. Launch of Global Multi-Religious Faith-in-Action Covid-19 Initiative, 2020. Available

25 236 from: [https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/launch-global-multi-religious-faith-action-covid-19-](https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/launch-global-multi-religious-faith-action-covid-19-initiative)26 237 [initiative](https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/launch-global-multi-religious-faith-action-covid-19-initiative) [accessed December 20 2022].
27
28
29 23830 239 4. Idler E., Editor. *Religion as a social determinant of public health*. New York: Oxford University31 240 Press; 2014.
32
33
34 241

35 242 5. Balboni TA, VanderWeele TJ, Doane-Soares SD, et al. Spirituality in serious illness and

36 243 health. *JAMA* 2022;328(2):184-97. doi: 10.1001/jama.2022.11086
37
38
39 24440 245 6. Gunderson GR, Cochrane JR. *Religion and the health of the public: shifting the paradigm*.41 246 New York: Palgrave MacMillan; 2012.
42
43
44 24745 248 7. Blevins, J. *Christianity's role in United States global health and development policy: To*46 249 *transfer the empire of the world*. New York: Routledge; 2019.
47
48
49 250

50 251 8. Winiger F, Peng-Keller S. Religion and the World Health Organization: an evolving

51 252 relationship. *BMJ Glob Health* 2021;6(4) doi: 10.1136/bmjgh-2020-004073
52
53
54 253

- 1
2
3 254 9. Olivier, J, Tsimpo C, Gemignani R, Shojo M, Coulombe H, Dimmock F, Cong Nguyen M, et
4 255 al. 2015. Understanding the roles of faith-based health-care providers in Africa: Review of the
5 256 Evidence with a focus on magnitude, reach, cost, and satisfaction." *The Lancet* 2015; 386:
6 257 1765–1775. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60251-3
7
8 258
9
10 259 10. For example, see The Faith-Based Coalition for The Global Fund To Fight AIDS, Malaria,
11 260 and TB. <https://www.2030collaborative.com/faith-based-coalition-for-the-global-fund>
12
13 261
14 262 11. World Health Organization. African Religious Health Assets Programme. Appreciating
15 263 assets: The contribution of religion to universal access in Africa. Cape Town: World Health
16 264 Organization; 2006.
17
18 265
19 266 12. Idler E, Bernau JA, Zaras D. Narratives and counter-narratives in religious responses to
20 267 COVID-19: A computational text analysis. *PLoS One* 2022;17(2):e0262905. doi:
21 268 10.1371/journal.pone.0262905
22
23 269
24 270 13. Kiyuka PK, Moindi RO, Murunga N, et al. Assessing risk perceptions that contribute to
25 271 tetanus toxoid maternal vaccine hesitancy in Kilifi County, Kenya. *medRxiv*
26 272 2021:2021.04.11.21255279. doi: 10.1101/2021.04.11.21255279
27
28 273
29 274 14. Ghinai I, Willott C, Dadari I, et al. Listening to the rumours: What the northern Nigeria polio
30 275 vaccine boycott can tell us ten years on. *Global public health* 2013;8(10):1138-50. doi:
31 276 10.1080/17441692.2013.859720
32
33 277
34 278 15. Wong YJ, Rew L, Slaikeu KD. A systematic review of recent research on adolescent
35 279 religiosity/spirituality and mental health. *Issues Ment Health Nurs* 2006;27(2):161-83. doi:
36 280 10.1080/01612840500436941
37
38 281
39 282 16. Gibbs JJ, Goldbach J. Religious conflict, sexual identity, and suicidal behaviors among
40 283 LGBT young adults. *Arch Suicide Res* 2015;19(4):472-88. doi:
41 284 10.1080/13811118.2015.1004476
42
43 285
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 286 17. Alpren C, Jalloh MF, Kaiser R, et al. The 117 call alert system in Sierra Leone: from rapid
4 287 Ebola notification to routine death reporting. *BMJ Glob Health* 2017;2(3):e000392. doi:
5 288 10.1136/bmjgh-2017-000392
6
7
8 289
9
10 290 18. Jalloh MF, Kinsman J, Conteh J, et al. Barriers and facilitators to reporting deaths following
11 291 Ebola surveillance in Sierra Leone: implications for sustainable mortality surveillance based on
12 292 an exploratory qualitative assessment. *BMJ Open* 2021;11(5):e042976. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-
13 293 2020-042976
14
15
16 294
17 295 19. Blevins JB, Jalloh MF, Robinson DA. Faith and global health practice in Ebola and HIV
18 296 emergencies. *Am J Public Health* 2019;109(3):379-84. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2018.304870
19 297 [published Online First: 2019/01/25]
20
21 298
22
23 299 20. World Health Organization. Collaboration in health emergencies: WHO strategy for
24 300 engaging faith partners & Kenya case study. YouTube: World Health Organization; 2021.
25
26 301
27
28 302 21. Degefa K, Tadesse A, Ackley C, et al. Using traditional healers to treat child malnutrition: a
29 303 qualitative study of health-seeking behaviour in eastern Ethiopia. *BMC Public Health*
30 304 2022;22(1):873. doi: 10.1186/s12889-022-13323-5
31
32 305
33
34 306 22. UNAIDS. *A Common Vision: Faith-Based Partnerships to Sustain Progress Against HIV*.
35 307 Geneva: UNAIDS, 2019. Available from [https://ihpemory.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/A-](https://ihpemory.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/A-Common-Vision-Report_FINAL_2019.pdf)
36 308 [Common-Vision-Report_FINAL_2019.pdf](https://ihpemory.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/A-Common-Vision-Report_FINAL_2019.pdf) [Accessed 31 March 2023].
37
38 309
39
40 310 23. Epstein H. *The invisible cure: Why we are losing the fight against AIDS in Africa*: Macmillan
41 311 Publishers; 2007.
42
43 312
44
45 313 24. Evertz, S. 2010. *How ideology trumped science: Why PEPFAR failed to meet its potential*.
46 314 Washington, DC: The Center for American Progress and the Council for Global Equality.
47 315 Available from <https://www.americanprogress.org/article/how-ideology-trumped-science/>
48 316 [Accessed 6 February 2023].
49
50 317
51
52 318 25. Germond P, Cochrane JR. Healthworlds: Conceptualizing landscapes of health and healing.
53 319 *Sociology* 2010;44(2):307-24. doi: 10.1177/0038038509357202
54
55
56
57
58
59
60