

1 **Preserving Public Health Capacity by Protecting the Workforce and Authority**

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4

5 Abstract

6 While the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has exacerbated known and long-standing challenges to the nation’s  
7 public health system, including a neglected infrastructure and inadequate funding, new actions to limit the  
8 authority of public health in an environment of mistrust and disregard for public health science, public  
9 health measures, and public health officials add to the complexity of the challenges we are facing. The  
10 ability to determine whether public health measures are needed to address issues that pose significant  
11 risks to the health and well-being of communities has been dramatically limited or reassigned to elected  
12 officials without any requisite knowledge of science or public health. Public health professionals who  
13 have promoted and worked to implement evidence-informed public health measures have been  
14 contradicted or ignored by elected officials and others while being harassed or threatened for doing their  
15 work. A substantial number of professionals have been fired, have retired early, or have terminated their  
16 employment due to fear for themselves and their families, an inability to protect the communities they  
17 have served, exhaustion, and a bleak forward-looking picture. The mission of public health to ensure  
18 conditions in which all people can be healthy has been eclipsed by assorted national, state, and local  
19 policymakers and community residents. Public health’s future rests on our work to understand and  
20 address these challenges, to strengthen systems that are lacking, and to be innovative in looking forward  
21 and implementing what is needed to carry out our mission to protect the health of the public we serve.

22

23 Relationship to Existing APHA Policy Statements

- 24 • APHA Policy Statement 202118: Preparing Public Schools in the United States for the Next  
25 Public Health Emergency: Lessons Learned from COVID-19
- 26 • APHA Policy Statement 20171: Supporting Research and Evidence-Based Public Health Practice  
27 in State and Local Health Agencies
- 28 • APHA Policy Statement 201511: Impact of Preemptive Laws on Public Health
- 29 • APHA Policy Statement 201015: Securing the Long-Term Sustainability of State and Local  
30 Health Departments
- 31 • APHA Policy Statement 200911: Public Health’s Critical Role in Health Reform in the United  
32 States

- 33 • APHA Policy Statement 200609: Responding to Disasters: Protection of Rescue and Recovery  
34 Workers, Volunteers, and Residents Responding to Disasters
- 35 • APHA Policy Statement 20063: Preparing for Pandemic Influenza
- 36 • APHA Policy Statement 20034: Protecting Essential Public Health Functions Amidst State  
37 Economic Downturns
- 38 • APHA Policy Statement 200023: The Need for Continued and Strengthened Support for  
39 Immunization Programs

40

41 Problem Statement

42 While the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has exacerbated known and long-lasting challenges facing the  
43 country’s public health system, such as neglected infrastructure and stagnant or declining funding[1] that  
44 periodically receives a temporary boost based on emerging needs,[2] new actions to limit the authority of  
45 public health in an environment of mistrust and disregard for public health science, public health actions,  
46 and public health officials add further concerns and complexity.[3] Laws that limit or prohibit public  
47 health interventions or shift authority to the legislative branch impede quick and effective action, lessen  
48 access to expertise, reduce helpful redundancy in the ability to act, violate separation of powers, and place  
49 the nation’s health at risk. As defined in 45 CFR 46.102(k), “Public health authority means an agency or  
50 authority of the United States, a state, a territory, a political subdivision of a state or territory, an Indian  
51 tribe, or a foreign government, or a person or entity acting under a grant of authority from or contract with  
52 such public agency, including the employees or agents of such public agency or its contractors or persons  
53 or entities to whom it has granted authority, that is responsible for public health matters as part of its  
54 official mandate.”[4]

55

56 Recent dramatic increases in legislative actions to limit the power of public health have been reported by  
57 the Network for Public Health Law and the National Association of County and City Health Officials  
58 (NACCHO).[5] As of mid-September 2021, more than half of states had passed legislation that limits  
59 public health authority, and additional bills limiting public health authority were introduced in the  
60 remainder of states in late 2021 and 2022.[6] Idaho now allows county commissioners to override  
61 countywide public health orders.[7] At least 10 states now have laws that ban or limit mask mandates  
62 (Florida, Texas, Arkansas, Arizona, Iowa, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Utah, Montana, Georgia), and five  
63 states have executive orders or court rulings that limit mask requirements.[8] In at least 16 states, the  
64 power of public health officials to order mask mandates, quarantines, or isolation has been limited. A  
65 number of governors have opted not to implement mask mandates and are relying on local public health  
66 agencies to determine whether mandates are needed and to implement them. Seventeen states have passed

67 laws banning COVID vaccine mandates or vaccine passports or have made it easier to get around vaccine  
68 requirements.[5,6]

69

70 Other state-level policies include limiting public health’s ability to close businesses to prevent the spread  
71 of disease (Kansas), restricting the use of quarantine (Montana), stripping authority from local health  
72 departments and local governments to respond to local emergency conditions (Texas), blocking state  
73 universities from requiring vaccinations for students and employees (Arizona, Georgia), prohibiting  
74 hospitals from requiring employees to be vaccinated (Arizona), setting arbitrary time limits for emergency  
75 orders (Florida), and shifting power from state and local public health to legislatures (Ohio, Indiana).

76 Lawsuits have been filed in a number of states including California, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Virginia  
77 claiming that state or local restrictions on religious gatherings are in violation of the First Amendment  
78 right to free exercise of religion. Some states have classified religious gatherings as “essential” to elude  
79 public health recommendations.[9]

80

81 The judicial branch has typically upheld delegations of authority to national, state, and local official  
82 public health entities. The U.S. Supreme Court, in the 1905 Jacobson v. Massachusetts case, ruled in  
83 favor of the state to require that Reverend Henning Jacobson be vaccinated for smallpox or pay the  
84 required \$5 fine, recognizing that public good outweighed the rights of the individual.[10] Over the years,  
85 the courts have continued to grant public health agencies substantial deference in imposing requirements  
86 to control preventable diseases, for example by requiring childhood vaccinations for school entrance. In  
87 using the power from the Jacobson court ruling, public health authorities should not merely be reasonable  
88 and transparent in their actions but should also “adopt the least restrictive alternative that will meet the  
89 public health goal.”[11]

90

91 Two legal challenges to national COVID-related protections were heard by the U.S. Supreme Court.  
92 Opponents of vaccination and masking mandates argued that the Occupational Safety and Health  
93 Administration (OSHA) and the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) do not have the  
94 authority to impose these mandates on employers. The court upheld the CMS rule and returned the OSHA  
95 case to the 6th Circuit Court of Appeals with a stay.[12–14] Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act  
96 provides for reasonable accommodations that do not pose undue hardship on an employer’s business. This  
97 may be due to a sincerely held religious belief, practice, or service. In addition, employees who are not  
98 vaccinated because of pregnancy may be entitled to exemptions under Title VII.[15]

99

100 Opposition to science-based public health measures that have been utilized during the pandemic has taken  
101 a number of forms. In some locales, public health agencies have gone to court to ensure enforcement of  
102 public health orders, as these agencies do not have other ways of enforcing compliance. For example, Dr.  
103 Dawn Comstock, executive director of Jefferson County Public Health (Colorado), issued a public health  
104 order to require masks in schools. Three private schools in the county did not comply with the order, nor  
105 did they allow Jefferson County Public Health to enter the school buildings unannounced to determine  
106 whether the order was being followed. A court hearing was held in September 2021. The judge decided to  
107 allow the order to stand temporarily. The cost of the court hearing was borne by Jefferson County. As the  
108 pandemic progressed, Comstock was openly and publicly criticized for implementing public health  
109 measures including mask mandates, and on February 7, 2022, she resigned during an executive session of  
110 the Jefferson County Board of Health. Details of the reason for her resignation were not made public, and  
111 she immediately was relieved of her executive director position and authority. This is but a single  
112 example of the types of actions that were taken because of public dissatisfaction with public health  
113 measures to mitigate the pandemic (personal communications between Dawn Comstock, PhD, and Linda  
114 Degutis, DrPH, September 2021 and February 2022).

115  
116 Another difficulty that health departments face with respect to public health orders is that, in their efforts  
117 to enforce a COVID-related order, departments may have a single option for action if the order is  
118 violated. For example, if there is a mandate for mask wearing in schools, and there is a report to the health  
119 department that a school is violating the public health order, the health department will investigate to  
120 document compliance or noncompliance. If the school is found to be noncompliant, the only choice that  
121 may be available to the health department is to shut the school down, thereby preventing the children  
122 attending that school from participating in in-person learning. This differs from the types of actions that  
123 might be undertaken in a situation such as a restaurant inspection, in which the department inspects a  
124 restaurant and identifies levels of compliance with food safety regulations. The restaurant will receive a  
125 score, and if the score is below a specified level, the restaurant will be given a warning and will be  
126 reinspected within a short time frame. If its score remains low, the restaurant may be fined, and continued  
127 noncompliance may result in closure. This stepwise process provides an opportunity to take corrective  
128 measures that help to ensure that restaurant patrons are not at risk of foodborne illness, an illustration of  
129 an ethical problem-solving approach not available in the either-or decision to shut down the noncompliant  
130 school.[16,17]

131  
132 NACCHO has tracked more than 250 public health officials who have left their positions.[11]  
133 Contributing to an environment of mistrust among those most hurt by ineffective responses to COVID is

134 our history of unethical public health practices, including the coercive treatment in 1900 of San Francisco  
135 Chinese immigrants in response to a bubonic plague outbreak. Whites were evacuated while immigrants  
136 were required to stay quarantined in rat-infested neighborhoods and to be inoculated with an experimental  
137 vaccine.[18] The Tuskegee Syphilis Study is commonly cited as a reason for mistrust due to the extent  
138 and duration of the deception and mistreatment of African Americans; others include the stolen cell line  
139 of Henrietta Lacks for biomedical research and the disproportionate sterilization of Latinx individuals  
140 under California’s 1920–1945 Eugenic Sterilization Program.[19,20] Actions to strip public health of its  
141 ability to take measures to protect the public have included harassing and threatening public health  
142 officials and limiting or restricting the release of data related to the pandemic by public health  
143 officials.[21]

144  
145 News accounts report on a substantial number of personnel who have voluntarily left their positions or  
146 been fired at local and state levels. In May 2021, NACCHO tracked more than 250 public health officials  
147 who left their positions,[22] and in October 2021 a New York Times review of health departments  
148 identified more than 500 top health officials as having exited.[23]

149  
150 Attacks have come not just from elected officials but also from the public in the form of physical threats  
151 directed at public health workers and their families. Vitriolic postings on social media, radio attack ads,  
152 armed protesters, suspicious packages left on doorsteps, vandalized cars, and demonstrations at clinic  
153 sites have exacted a toll as documented by a Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) summer  
154 2021 survey of mental health among state, tribal, local, and territorial public health workers. The results  
155 document self-reported symptoms of depression, anxiety, posttraumatic stress disorder, and suicidal  
156 ideation.[24] In addition, a systematic review and meta-analysis linked psychological stress at work to  
157 mental health symptoms and increased absenteeism, high turnover, lower productivity, and lower  
158 morale.[25] A Boots on the Ground post[26] suggests that public health borrow the concept of “moral  
159 injury” from combat medicine to describe the psychological, behavioral, social, and/or spiritual distress  
160 experienced by an overworked and undervalued public health workforce.

161  
162 Attacks have also come from within. The Tennessee Department of Health’s deputy medical director, a  
163 pediatrician overseeing vaccine-preventable diseases and immunizations programs, encountered fierce  
164 resistance to her response to a question regarding making health departments aware of Tennessee’s 1987  
165 Mature Minor Doctrine, which allows children older than 14 years to be vaccinated without parental  
166 consent. Assuring that the doctrine is legal and used sparingly, the state health commissioner initially

167 stood with her deputy director but later fired her amid pressure from “outraged and uninformed  
168 legislators.”[27,28]

169  
170 The disappearance of experienced public health professionals through resignation or dismissal results in  
171 the loss of institutional memory, expertise, and experience. The Association of State and Territorial  
172 Health Officers (ASTHO) determined that one third of the state health officer turnover as of August 2020  
173 could be attributed to conflicts with elected officials and/or threats of physical harm and harassment from  
174 the public. The already short tenure of state health officers has been exacerbated by COVID-19 and  
175 warrants earnest consideration as the country emerges from the pandemic.[29] In the past decade, public  
176 health positions at the state and local levels have declined 15% from before the onset of the  
177 pandemic.[30] Historically, health care workforce shortages have been addressed through workforce  
178 programs of the Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA). In 2021, the U.S. Department of  
179 Health and Human Services reported that 22,700 health care providers are now practicing in underserved  
180 communities.[31] HRSA could take a similar approach to efforts to rebuild the public health workforce.

181  
182 While these issues affect public health authority and the public health workforce, there is also a  
183 downstream impact on the population served by public health agencies. Public health has a broad impact  
184 on the community it serves, and the impact includes health promotion strategies and initiatives, food  
185 safety, water and air quality monitoring, immunizations, prenatal health, nutrition, disaster and pandemic  
186 preparedness and mitigation, and epidemiological surveillance. As social justice is a foundational  
187 principle of public health, ensuring equity in access to services and strategies is also a crucial component  
188 of the public health system.

189  
190 Assuming that new leaders can be found, having to replace leadership is an unwanted, unnecessary  
191 detraction. Recruitment of new personnel is a daunting task when the last office holder’s home was the  
192 staging ground for gun-toting protesters, as was the case for one state health commissioner.[32] There are  
193 particular challenges to recruitment of new leaders and personnel in rural and remote areas.

194  
195 Collaborators have lost valued colleagues from other public health jurisdictions. The community’s  
196 confidence in public health and public administrators has eroded.[33] Udow-Phillips and Lantz[34]  
197 suggest that public health leaders acknowledge the importance of transparency and share known and  
198 unknown risks. When made, errors should be acknowledged.[34] Further politicization of the pandemic  
199 occurred when new scientific information necessitated that federal, state, and local public health leaders  
200 modify recommendations. A portion of the public viewed inconsistent messaging as inaccurate

201 information. Disrupters used this to sow seeds of distrust and disdain and to portray public health leaders  
202 as incompetent. Malinformation, the deliberate use of fake information to make a position more  
203 believable, thrived.[35]

204

205 People's view of public health, public health leaders, and the pandemic was also shaped by the data they  
206 received. Initial data terms were confusing[36] and left the public unsure of data's value. Policymakers  
207 needed public health data. Jurisdictions across the country had data gaps and inadequate and inconsistent  
208 data definitions. Reporting timetables varied, as did access to data, and in some jurisdictions data were  
209 underreported or not reported at all.[37]

210

211 Disparate systems at state and local levels continue to challenge data's usability and accuracy. During the  
212 pandemic, data systems struggled with disaggregation by key characteristics. COVID laid bare the  
213 patchwork of U.S. mortality tracking systems, including issues related to accuracy, completeness, and  
214 timeliness.[38] Challenges with data exchange between hospitals and public health agencies included  
215 both technology and workforce shortfalls.[39] The public health system, out of necessity, engaged  
216 academics as well as private sector consultants in assisting with data analysis and visualization, but  
217 valuable time was lost and lack of coordination across states led to varying case definitions and methods  
218 of measuring COVID-19-related deaths.[40] International comparisons were hampered by inconsistencies  
219 across countries. The pandemic has provided an incentive to develop a dynamic data system, a system  
220 called for in a 1995 report in Science.[41]

221

222 The need to better understand the complexities of human, animal, plant, and environment interactions that  
223 will give rise to future pandemics calls for data systems to include global early warning surveillance that  
224 takes advantage of metagenomic sequencing and incorporates a One Health perspective in a worldwide  
225 security approach.[42]

226

227 The pandemic has also elevated the need to rethink public health services and systems at all levels, to  
228 take a critical look at current activities and priorities, and to examine what can be done better, done  
229 differently, or not done. While public health continues its mission of protecting the health of the public,  
230 the system might benefit from a reexamination of structure and function and apply lessons learned during  
231 the pandemic. Organizations that serve to support state, regional, tribal, and local health departments and  
232 their leaders and staff can collaborate to identify model structures and functions that will contribute to the  
233 redesign and evolution of the public health system.

234

235 Evidence-Based Strategies to Address the Problem

236 The best means of communicating public health messages is an area of research across the country.  
237 Recently, Cornell researchers evaluated strategies to increase source credibility through strategic message  
238 design in the context of vaccine hesitancy.[43] Research has established that there are three core  
239 components of source credibility: expertise, trustworthiness, and caring/goodwill. The authors found that  
240 messages designed to convey source expertise produced greater perceived trustworthiness and reduced  
241 vaccine hesitancy. Observing that perceptions of credibility of sources differed, they called for more  
242 research on how strategic messaging might serve to increase the credibility of a specific source. The  
243 researchers noted that while perceptions of caring/goodwill may be of particular importance for those who  
244 distrust institutional science, this is an underresearched area.[43] Only relatively late in the pandemic was  
245 there a focus on seeking recommendations from one’s trusted health care provider.

246  
247 An initial step to investigate how to better incorporate the public in discussions of acceptable risk is found  
248 in the work of Porat et al.[44] on strategies to assist with cutting through what the authors call the  
249 pandemic’s “infodemic.” Their review of the literature on and application of self-determination theory to  
250 understand human behaviors and motivations offers guidance to public health agencies in providing  
251 choice within limitations, creating messages that are actionable and can be integrated into people’s  
252 circumstances, communicating the social norm to avoid the “us versus them” mentality, and being  
253 transparent while acknowledging uncertainty.[44]

254  
255 The APHA Code of Ethics provides a framework for analyzing public health actions and speaks to,  
256 among other points, the need to enforce public health laws” “While coercive legal measures limiting  
257 behavior can be ethically justified in certain circumstances, overall the effective and ethical practice of  
258 public health depends upon social and cultural conditions of respect for personal autonomy, self-  
259 determination, privacy, and the absence of domination in its many interpersonal and institutional forms.  
260 Contemporary public health respects and helps sustain those social and cultural conditions.”[45] This  
261 code provides a foundation for engaging in public health actions, including policymaking, to work toward  
262 creating and sustaining healthy communities and for designing the future of public health. An  
263 international ethics council notes that democratic legitimacy requires public health policy not to be solely  
264 based on science but also to take values into account.[46] Policymakers during the pandemic have  
265 focused on the ethics of liberty restrictions rather than more broadly addressing values such as  
266 beneficence and distributive justice.[47]

267



268 In public health, evidence has a number of different audiences: practitioners; local, state, regional, tribal,  
269 national, and international policymakers; nongovernmental stakeholders whose mission is to improve  
270 health; researchers/academics; and the public.[48] Evidence should inform our policies, programs, and  
271 systems. The systematic development and synthesis of evidence for these audiences has been ongoing, but  
272 there is much yet to learn coming out of this pandemic, particularly about the interface of evidence with  
273 policymakers and the public. The public’s lack of understanding or recognition of the progression of  
274 science regarding the SARS-CoV-2 virus has interfered with acceptance of changing “facts.” Some  
275 policymakers and members of the public are dismissive of accumulating science and evidence. Strategies  
276 to use with those with hardened positions warrant careful study. McKinlay and Marceau[49] maintain that  
277 “public health workers, motivated by humanism and utilitarianism, deserve to get somewhere by design,  
278 not just by perseverance.” Just what is that design?

279

280 Machado and Goldenberg[50] speak to the need for policymakers and public health practitioners to place  
281 greater emphasis on equity-focused and antiracist health research, interventions, and training. Ethical and  
282 respectful engagement, commitment, and collaboration with accompanying accountability are, the authors  
283 note, part of sharpening our public health lens and doing better in dealing with a pandemic.[50]

284

#### 285 Opposing Arguments/Evidence

286 Opposing arguments have focused on prioritization of individual rights over collective good, reliance on  
287 readily available misinformation and malinformation, concern regarding locus of control of promulgation  
288 of public health measures, a pattern of distrust in government, the right to freedom to choose whether to  
289 comply with public health orders, politicization of a public health issue, and perceptions of overreach in  
290 the implementation of public health measures.

291

292 Much of the legal basis for public health measures, orders, and emergency orders resides within the  
293 authority of states. As definitions and assignments of authority lack uniformity across states, policies and  
294 practice also differ from one state to another, leading to questions regarding what best practices and  
295 actions are based on evidence.

296

297 Decisions about what strategies are appropriate to prevent or mitigate a public health emergency are  
298 dependent upon the designated decision maker’s knowledge and understanding of the issue at hand. If the  
299 decision maker lacks the requisite public health background or knowledge and does not have a  
300 knowledgeable and reliable set of advisors (or does not heed their advice), decisions may be contrary to  
301 established public health evidence. The decision maker may prioritize economic, social, or community

302 outcomes. When public health experts are prohibited from exercising authority to construct science-based  
303 public health orders and initiatives, the health of the community may be threatened and undervalued as  
304 other aspects of society are prioritized at the expense of the health of the public.

305

306 Economists studying the health (infections, deaths, and hospitalizations) versus wealth trade-off with  
307 COVID-19 point out that it is more than an economic calculation that has driven responses to public  
308 health actions. Political party, economic sector of concern, and age have also been found to be  
309 important.[51,52]

310

311 A prime example of the denigration of public health, as well as the inadequate response by some public  
312 health leaders, occurred at the beginning of the pandemic, when the White House set the stage for an  
313 unprecedented circumvention of public health agencies. Politicians rather than public health officials  
314 communicated with the public about the pandemic and the associated health risks. There were repeated  
315 denials of the potential severity of illness and risk of death as politicians continued their communications.  
316 Heads of federal agencies that focus on public health and health research—the Centers for Disease  
317 Control and Prevention and the National Institutes of Health—were not called upon to present the  
318 evidence for effective mitigation measures. Politicians promoted “cures” and treatments that were not  
319 only unproven but dangerous (e.g., hydroxychloroquine, bleach).

320

321 Early criticism from the White House of the CDC’s guidance made it appear politicized, eroding public  
322 trust in both the organization and its messages. Four former CDC heads penned an editorial appearing in  
323 the Washington Post titled “We Ran the CDC. No President Ever Politicized Its Science the Way Trump  
324 Has.” They noted that over their collective tenure at the CDC, spanning both Democratic and Republican  
325 administrations, they could not recall a single instance when political pressure resulted in a change in the  
326 interpretation of scientific evidence.[53] The secretary of the Department of Education described CDC  
327 guidelines for reopening schools as an impediment rather than characterizing them as actions to protect  
328 the safety of children and staff.[54]

329

330 According to Brown, “public health interventions often stir controversies about the legitimate role of the  
331 state vis-à-vis individual autonomy and liberty and about the scope of personal versus social  
332 responsibility.”[55] Public health measures implemented during the pandemic have relied on collective  
333 action to derive the most benefit, but a portion of society has a deep-seated belief that individual freedom  
334 trumps such actions. The breadth of the government’s action angered this population, as evidenced by  
335 their behavior toward public health officials and policymakers.[8,56–58]

336

337 During the pandemic, some political leaders decided to trust that their constituents would make the best  
338 decisions about protecting their health and the health of their community, regardless of their  
339 understanding of the evolving science of the pandemic and the efforts being made to end it. In addition,  
340 various sectors, including political groups, the media, and social networks, promulgated statements and  
341 theories that reinforced opposition to evidence-based public health measures and the continued erosion of  
342 public health authorities.

343

344 The pandemic catapulted public health experts to the forefront of what was viewed as political decision-  
345 making with polarizing reactions. Little is known about what citizens think of expert involvement in  
346 political decision-making. A study conducted in Europe showed that citizens prefer independent experts  
347 over national elected representatives in the policy change and implementation stages but that such  
348 acceptance is linked to specific issues.[59]

349

350 Opposition has also been built on the massive amounts of misinformation and malinformation available  
351 on social media platforms and discussions with others with similar views. Messaging about the pandemic  
352 changed in real time as more was learned about SARS-CoV-2. Acknowledgment of uncertainty related to  
353 lack of available data was viewed as a negative rather than an understanding of the legitimacy of evolving  
354 science.[35,60]

355

356 Action Steps

357 System

358 APHA calls for Congress, governors, mayors, tribal leaders, local leaders, and boards of health to form  
359 and support a comprehensive, nonpartisan, multisector commission to assess public health actions taken  
360 at the federal, state, tribal, regional, and local levels during the pandemic to control the spread of COVID-  
361 19.

362

363 APHA calls on policymakers at all levels to:

- 364 • Defend existing statutes that allow public health officials to implement public health measures that  
365 will aid in protecting the community from the impact of public health emergencies.
- 366 • Reinstate authority to public health officials to control outbreaks and manage other emergent and  
367 ongoing threats to the public's health.
- 368 • Take an approach to policymaking that is mindful of equity.

369 Funding

370 APHA calls for Congress and state, tribal, and local governments to fund:

- 371 • Transformation of the nation’s public health infrastructure at a level that allows the system to provide  
372 essential public health services to all and to address the inequities highlighted during the pandemic.
- 373 • Local, state, and tribal health departments in a sustained, committed fashion to avoid a slow slide  
374 back into the complacency that comes with an ebb in media attention and loss of public interest and  
375 political will.
- 376 • Development of dynamic data systems that are timely, accurate, and relevant; involve analyses that  
377 can be configured for distribution to stakeholders and members of the community in a range of  
378 formats; and include interoperability for monitoring public health issues, emerging issues, and public  
379 health actions. System development should recognize legal limitations on data sharing and legal  
380 strategies to enable data sharing.
- 381 • A distinct, parallel public health HRSA education and training program that includes basic core  
382 public health training in all health professional programs and emphasizes that public health issues are  
383 shaped and amplified by social, biological, and political factors.
- 384 • Efforts to monitor implementation of the recommendations articulated in the United States Health  
385 Security National Action Plan framework,[61] including study of risk communication, strengthened  
386 real-time surveillance, and expanded public health emergency response capacity.

387 Workforce Threats

388 APHA calls on Congress to require a reporting system of threats and harassment against public health  
389 workers in the performance of their official duties to the CDC and the CDC to build a database to better  
390 understand these occurrences.

391

392 APHA calls on groups such as the National Council of State Legislators, the National Governors  
393 Association, ASTHO, and NACCHO to develop model legislation and advocate for all state governors  
394 and legislative bodies to endorse a policy condemning harassment of or threats against public health  
395 officials (e.g., Colorado’s governor signed a law making it a misdemeanor to threaten public health  
396 officials or their families and California’s governor instituted an executive order protecting the privacy of  
397 public health officials) and implement legislation to protect public health officials.

398

399 Research

400 APHA calls on the National Institutes of Health, the CDC, the Department of Defense, the Department of  
401 Homeland Security, and foundations to increase funding for research addressing public health crisis

402 interventions with options for just-in-time funding to prospectively study actions during public health  
403 emergencies, including those designed to ameliorate health inequities.

404

405 Education

406 APHA calls on the Council on Education for Public Health to:

- 407 • Consider a mandatory requirement for inclusion of public health communication coursework to  
408 ensure that people who complete public health degrees are familiar with means to counteract  
409 misinformation and malinformation, communication technology options and limitations,  
410 evidence-based communication strategies, crisis communication, communication with population  
411 subgroups, and communication with policymakers so that they can better understand and use  
412 evidence-based public health measures.
- 413 • Encourage public health schools and programs to provide communication coursework through  
414 continuing education to practicing public health professionals.
- 415 • Collaborate with public health schools and programs to recruit and educate students of diverse  
416 backgrounds in sufficient numbers to allow agencies to hire a workforce that reflects the  
417 community.

418

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