



The Case for Improved Racial and Ethnic Public Health Data Collection Practices to Reduce Racial Disparities in Health

Policy Date: October 29, 2024

Policy Number: 20244

Note: Line numbers are included along the left to help quickly identify specific text within the policy brief.

Abstract

Racial disparities in health in the United States are largely the result of long-standing structural determinants that are deeply embedded into our nation’s institutions, policies, and social norms. Race as a social construct influences people’s prospects for well-being before they are even born, with racial disparities in health persisting for centuries. Domestically, race is a bigger predictor of someone’s health outcomes than socioeconomic status, zip code, creed, or political leaning. The COVID-19 pandemic elucidated the existing barriers to health and how deleterious the consequences of unmitigated inequities were in populations with certain racial and/or ethnic identities. As such, data collection for public health resource allocation and intervention design should seek to uncover opportunities to tailor programming efforts that meet the needs of groups who have long been structurally underserved, neglected, and mismanaged. In a nation as diverse as the United States, collecting racial and ethnic demographic data without granularity can contribute to masking existing inequities and erasing the experiences of various subpopulations. While the Office of Management and Budget’s recent move to update the federal standards for collecting information on race and ethnicity has improved data collection for a few groups, this policy statement seeks to explore opportunities to enhance public health racial and ethnic data collection efforts for more meaningful and sustainable interventions that forge a path toward health equity.



25 Keywords: data collection; racial and ethnic identity data; health equity, and health disparities.

26

Relationship to Existing APHA Policy Statements

- 27 ● APHA Policy Statement 20227: A Strategy to Address Systemic Racism and Violence as
28 Public Health Priorities: Training and Supporting Community Health Workers to
29 Advance Equity and Violence Prevention
- 30 ● APHA Policy Statement 20218: Call for Urgent Actions to Address Health Inequities in
31 the U.S. Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pandemic and Response
- 32 ● APHA Policy Statement 202116: Ensuring Equity in Transportation and Land Use
33 Decisions to Promote Health and Well-Being in Metropolitan Areas
- 34 ● APHA Policy Statement LB20-04: Structural Racism is a Public Health Crisis: Impact on
35 the Black Community
- 36 ● APHA Policy Statement 20189: Achieving Health Equity in the United States
- 37 ● APHA Policy Statement 200311: Opposition to Eliminating or Compromising the
38 Collection of Racial and Ethnic Data by State and Local Public Institutions
- 39 ● APHA Policy Statement 20017: Research and Intervention on Racism as a Fundamental
40 Cause of Ethnic Disparities in Health
- 41 ● APHA Policy Statement 20005: Effective Interventions for Reducing Racial and Ethnic
42 Disparities in Health

Problem Statement

43 The primary focus of the field of public health is to promote health and prevent disease. To
44 mitigate health disparities, a particular type of health difference linked with social, economic,
45 and/or environmental disadvantage, public health data sets must have comprehensive and
46 consistent information related to race and ethnicity.[1] Health disparities in the United States are
47 largely the result of cumulative disadvantages people with minoritized racial and ethnic identities
48 experience as a result of structural racism.[2] It is well understood in the field of public health



49 that chronic disease morbidity and mortality rates vary by race and ethnicity; even when the
50 incidence of disease is lower, the prognosis is worse for certain subpopulations.[3] This is largely
51 due to social and political determinants of health that are mediated by structural racism, the
52 macro-level factors that restrict the opportunities, resources, power, and overall well-being of
53 individuals, communities, and entire populations as a result of their race and/or ethnicity.[4–6]

54

55 In the United States, public institutions collect racial and ethnic data to better understand the
56 demographics of the nation; the United States remains one of the few wealthy countries to
57 prioritize this practice. Globally, there are not consistent practices for collecting racial and ethnic
58 data because of reasons such as legality, different social constructs for race and ethnicity, and
59 regional differences in the composition of the population.[7] Context-specific comprehensive
60 data sets allow for a more refined assessment of the public health effects of structural racism.[4–
61 6] For example, structural factors such as residential segregation and redlining have been
62 associated with racial disparities in health related to adverse birth outcomes, asthma, diabetes,
63 and food insecurity.[8] While the concepts of race and ethnicity are not unique to the United
64 States, how the country collects data on a concept socially constructed and operationalized
65 domestically has to be right-sized to serve the public health needs of our nation. Currently, White
66 Americans constitute nearly 60% of the population.[9] However, projection tables released by
67 the U.S. Census Bureau in 2023 indicate that, by 2050, individuals with minoritized racial and/or
68 ethnic identities will represent the largest share of the population.[9] The absence of
69 comprehensive racial and ethnic data hinders the field of public health from adequately
70 addressing chronic and worsening racial disparities in health.[10]

71

72 As our nation’s diversity increases, public health data collection practices must be dynamic to
73 capture the changing demographics of our nation and ensure that disparities are not masked by
74 larger racial and/or ethnic groupings. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) initially
75 created Statistical Policy Directive No. 15 (SPD 15): Standards for Maintaining, Collecting, and



76 Presenting Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity in 1977 to ensure consistent data on race and
77 ethnicity across the federal government by establishing minimum reporting categories.[11] Since
78 1977, SPD 15 has been revised to include a separate ethnicity question (in 1997), to allow the
79 selection of multiple categories (in 2000), and to adjust language, include the Middle Eastern or
80 North African category, and combine the questions for race and ethnicity (in 2024).[11]

81
82 While the recent federal revisions were long overdue, public health practitioners must take action
83 alongside the federal government to ensure that our race and ethnicity data collection practices
84 inform action to reduce racial disparities in health. As indicated by the Robert Wood Johnson
85 Foundation, without disaggregated public health data sets, it is challenging to identify or address
86 the needs of racial and ethnic subpopulations experiencing health inequities.[12] Localities with
87 larger populations of diverse communities have recently demonstrated the need for this
88 disaggregation: New York City released a series of reports documenting health differences
89 within Latine, Black, and Asian populations.[13–15]

90
91 Public health practitioners are well positioned to forge a path toward improved racial and ethnic
92 data collection practices. As major funders, including the U.S. government, move toward data-
93 driven resource allocation, the effects of data genocide and underrepresentation of racial/ethnic
94 groups within the country’s data infrastructure will continue to have short- and long-term
95 consequences. The current approaches to capturing race and ethnicity data do not take into
96 account the differences within subgroups of populations, and it is time for public health to move
97 beyond the minimum and set a standard for collecting race and ethnicity data that seeks to
98 achieve health equity and advance social justice for all.



Evidence-Based Strategies to Address the Problem

99 There are several strategies that can improve the collection of race and ethnicity data.

100

101 *Establish public health racial and ethnic data collection standards*

102 The most immediate opportunity resides in establishing consistent public health data collection
103 standards. Although the recently updated OMB race and ethnicity data standards are a sign of
104 progress for some racial and ethnic subgroups at the federal level, concerns remain. For example,
105 the addition of Middle Eastern or North African as a new minimum category distinct from the
106 White racial category is an improvement across broader racial groups: The lack of a racial
107 identifier for this has masked disparities in COVID-19 cases, gestational diabetes, and preterm
108 births in this population.[16] However, implementation of the new category will take time for
109 updated data infrastructure and improved understanding of included populations. Also, the
110 controversial decision to merge race and ethnicity into a single question to encourage more
111 complete data collection among the U.S. Latine population does little to rectify how members of
112 this population view themselves in the data: Data from the 2020 census indicate that 43.6% of
113 the Latine population either skipped the race question or selected “some other race,” suggesting
114 that a more nuanced data collection issue exists beyond instrument design.[17,18]

115

116 Aside from these two significant updates, language adjustments in the OMB revision will likely
117 do little to improve data collection for the groups most at risk for racial disparities in health. For
118 example, the revised proposal makes a recommendation to remove Negro from the expanded
119 description of the Black or African American racial category but does not provide additional
120 recommendations on how to better capture the diversity of this racial group beyond that
121 change.[11] Within the context of public health, Black Americans who are descendants of chattel
122 slavery have poorer health outcomes than Black immigrants or their descendants.[19] In an
123 examination of cardiovascular disease risk factors among Black immigrants and African



124 Americans, the American Heart Association asserted that data on the Black population in the
125 United States should be, at minimum, disaggregated by ethnicity and country of origin to inform
126 public health strategies to reduce health disparities.[20]

127

128 There are also stark intragroup differences within the Asian American population that will
129 continue to be masked if more granular public health data collection methods are not deployed.
130 The Asian American population currently represents dozens of ethnic groups with major wealth,
131 education, and health gaps by region and country of origin.[21] A New York City examination of
132 the health burden of COVID-19 revealed that Chinese Americans had the highest mortality of all
133 racial and ethnic groups assessed and that South Asians had the highest infection rate within the
134 Asian American population.[22] Had more granular data collection practices been deployed
135 earlier in the pandemic, these disparities across subgroups may have been mitigated by more
136 tailored messaging and interventions.

137

138 There are numerous public health data issues when it comes to Indigenous communities,
139 including poor data quality due to aggregation, a lack of clarity regarding definitions of who is
140 American Indian or Alaska Native, exclusion from data collection altogether, and confusion
141 about the political status held by citizens of tribal nations separate from race or ethnicity.[23,24]
142 Described by Native American communities as “data genocide,” the elimination, erasure,
143 misclassification, and concealment of populations from public health data perpetuate structural
144 racism and impact progress toward health equity.[25] Data genocide has also been named as a
145 threat to health equity for people currently categorized under the Native Hawaiian or Pacific
146 Islander group. On the island of Hawaii, there are data collection challenges with respect to
147 aggregating Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders. In a 2021 survey, 71% of Native Hawaiians
148 identified with at least one other race, rendering more than half of the Native Hawaiian
149 population invisible when single multiracial categories were used.[26] Furthermore, an



150 examination showed that any health disparities that are present between Pacific Islanders and
151 Native Hawaiians are masked when their groups are combined.[26]

152

153 Collecting data for public health planning, programming, and prevention efforts requires more
154 nuanced efforts than what is currently mandated by the OMB. In addition, according to a report
155 on data completeness and standards conducted by Grantmakers in Health and the National
156 Committee for Quality Assurance, only four of the 10 programs reviewed used the same
157 standards.[27] The standards most commonly used for collecting race and ethnicity data are the
158 OMB standards; even more discouraging, only four programs provided complete race and
159 ethnicity data, with two of those programs using OMB's standards.[27] As such, an evidence-
160 based strategy to improve the public health collection of race and ethnicity data must focus on
161 improving the completeness of racial and ethnic data collection practices and establishing
162 standards for consistency beyond the existing minimum standards.

163

164 The Council for State and Territorial Epidemiologists recently released recommendations for
165 addressing racial/ethnic COVID-19 data gaps that can be extended to public health data at
166 large.[28] These recommendations include (1) mitigating patient hesitancy in providing data; (2)
167 encouraging providers to collect data; (3) improving information system capacity to collect,
168 manage, process, and transmit data; and (4) improving public health agency resources and
169 staffing.[28] Prior to the release of these recommendations, localities had demonstrated success
170 in improving the completeness of this information. During the COVID-19 pandemic, the New
171 York City health department made meaningful improvements with respect to inclusion of
172 racial/ethnic information in health data.[29] Although unable to ensure that providers adhered to
173 the standards in the way they collected data, this approach did demonstrate the feasibility of
174 health systems improving the completeness of their data using existing data infrastructure, even
175 in emergency conditions.[29] In addition, New York City publicly reported the percentage of
176 missing racial/ethnic data on their online COVID data portal, providing the general public with



177 information on how the data are used. Ensuring that people understand how and why their data
178 are being used and providing the data back to them are critical steps in earning the trust required
179 for people to provide data.

180

181 ***Prioritize self-reported data as the gold standard and improve completion of racial and/or***
182 ***ethnic data sets***

183 To improve the completeness of race and ethnicity data in federal health programs, self-reported
184 data must be prioritized in data collection practices. While administrative reporting has been
185 used to create efficiency in data collection, reliance on this type of reporting as opposed to self-
186 reporting has had inconsistent validity across racial groups with dangerous implications in terms
187 of racial disparities in health.[30] For example, a 2020 examination revealed that Medicare
188 administrative data sources such as observational data models and causal modeling methods had
189 high validity for the African American/Black population and low validity for the Indigenous
190 population.[30] Given the changing demographics of our nation, such as a 276% increase in the
191 size of the multiracial population since 2010, prioritizing self-reported data is the most accurate
192 approach to collecting racial and ethnic data.[31] In addition, misclassification of race and
193 ethnicity can mischaracterize the burden of health disparities. One examination showed that the
194 number of Asian American and Pacific Islanders with dementia and diabetes was
195 underestimated, while there was overattribution in the Latine population when race variables
196 rather than self-reported data were used.[30] Failure to use self-reported data can affect the
197 precision of resource allocations and public health programming designed to reduce racial
198 disparities in health.

199

200 As a social construct, racial and ethnic identity is a complicated domain. For example, the
201 minimum national standards for racial/ethnic data collection include combinations of race,
202 ethnicity, national origin, sociopolitical identity, and more. Because of this fluctuating social
203 construction, individuals have the potential to change the way they disclose their racial/ethnic

204 identity over time, which can depend on the way the data are collected, the entity collecting the
205 data, and the way the individuals providing information are perceived.[32] In situations in which
206 individuals are able to provide more detailed racial and ethnic data, the data are often aggregated
207 by the data collector in ways that mask health inequities or in ways that are incompatible with
208 communities themselves.[33] As technology advances, there are ample opportunities for data
209 scientists to leverage newly developed data management efficiencies to reduce the reliance on
210 collecting aggregated data at the individual level. For example, by providing an option for
211 individuals to self-identify in an open-answer question, data scientists can process the
212 information on the back end to allow numerous ways to categorize it.[34]

213

214 To prioritize self-reported data, public health institutions must move from passive to more active
215 approaches, including establishing data collection completeness targets (e.g., improving racial
216 and ethnic data completeness to 90%), creating organizational policies around data collection,
217 and equipping data collectors with the necessary training and scripts to reduce hesitancy. The
218 American Hospital Association has developed a toolkit for eliminating health care disparities; in
219 this toolkit, a response matrix is provided that offers a script for data collectors that is culturally
220 competent and respectful.[35] The American Medical Association also encourages the use of
221 scripts and procedures that empower patients by telling them how the information will be used
222 and why it is meaningful to ensure that they receive the best care available.[36]

223

224 ***Use participatory action research (PAR) to adapt to and maintain dynamic definitions of***
225 ***race and ethnicity***

226 While federal definitions and standards for the collection of data on race and ethnicity may
227 remain unchanged for decades, this does not necessarily align with the way people experience
228 and self-define their racial/ethnic group membership or the way our nation's racial and ethnic
229 composition evolves. Race, as a social construct, is nuanced and dynamic; languages and
230 experiences will differ across generations and geographies and within groups. To ensure cultural



231 sensitivity and validity, public health racial and ethnic data collectors should review existing
232 instruments.[37] Although the established minimum standards set by the OMB are a good
233 baseline to build from, there are additional approaches that are more adaptable to the dynamic
234 definitions of race and ethnicity.

235

236 PAR is a partnership approach to research that involves community members, organizational
237 representatives, and researchers in all aspects of the research process, including leadership and decision
238 making.[38,39] All partners contribute their expertise and share responsibilities and ownership of
239 projects designed to enhance understanding of a topic as well as integrate the knowledge gained with
240 action to improve the health and well-being of community members. PAR is a highly feasible and
241 powerful approach that leverages a variety of modalities, such as quantitative research, photovoice, and
242 storytelling, that can contribute to filling gaps in public health knowledge, direct the focus of research
243 to community priorities, identify barriers communities face that impact their ability to achieve wellness,
244 bring forward community-specific solutions to ongoing health challenges, and offer benefits to the
245 participants themselves.[38,40–42]

246

247 Data scientists, researchers, and public health practitioners can leverage PAR to investigate
248 community-relevant research questions, develop community-meaningful racial/ethnic
249 subgroups, and more. If open-answer data collection is unfeasible, PAR can be used to create
250 the data collection instrument and a racial/ethnic data collection tool that is acceptable to the
251 community. Creating a more inclusive data collection approach can improve future
252 opportunities to compare data over time as social constructs change and particularly as
253 multiracial/ethnic communities grow.

254



255 ***Train public health researchers and practitioners to responsibly and respectfully collect***
256 ***racial and ethnic data***

257 Race and ethnicity data should be collected while accommodating any concerns of
258 communities who are participating. Many communities have historically been harmed or
259 severely mistreated by health researchers.[43] As a result, these communities may mistrust
260 health researchers or public health practitioners and require accommodations for the
261 management and storage of their data. In 2019, the National Institutes of Health (NIH) held a
262 national tribal consultation on the NIH draft Data Management and Sharing Policy.[44] One
263 important theme that emerged was the responsibility of NIH to train researchers it supports in
264 the appropriate management and sharing of American Indian/Alaska Native health data.[44]
265 This strategy involves strengthening transparency and accountability by making data
266 management and sharing plans publicly available and accessible.[44] Using data in a
267 responsible manner is critical given that the cause of racial disparities in health is structural
268 racism and not an individual's actual race and/or ethnicity.

269
270 In a 2021 equity report released by Blue Cross Blue Shield, it was recommended that all staff who
271 collect data on race and ethnicity be trained on how to ask people for their personal information.[45]
272 Training for staff who collect this information will need to be tailored to organizational policies and
273 goals around race and ethnicity data collection but should center cultural humility, respect, and
274 accuracy in the approach.[45] Centering cultural humility, the practice of improving rapport through
275 respect and curiosity, can establish trust and improve the accuracy of data collection.[45] Although
276 maintaining ongoing training involves additional organizational resources, improving the accuracy of
277 public health data sets yields a greater return as institutions will be able to better scale their projects for
278 maximum impact in reducing racial disparities in health.

279
280 Prioritize additional research inquiries into best practices for collecting racial and ethnic data on
281 foreign-born, child and adolescent, and disenfranchised populations: The strategies outlined up to this



282 point are broad and intended to be applicable across a range of public health settings. However, there
283 are special considerations for populations with circumstances that may affect data collection.
284 According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, foreign-born workers accounted for 18.6% of the U.S.
285 civilian labor force in 2023.[46] These workers are more likely than native-born workers to be
286 employed in service occupations and less likely to have completed high school; also, they earn lower
287 wages.[46] Given the growing number of foreign-born U.S. residents, additional research on how best
288 to capture racial and ethnic data on this population is needed beyond the existing OMB categories.
289 Currently, we know broadly that nearly one half of the foreign-born workforce is Latine and that one
290 quarter is Asian; however, more granularity would greatly improve public health’s ability to respond to
291 and promote health in this population.[46] When collecting these data for public health programming,
292 inquiring about country of origin in combination with open-ended questions can enhance the accuracy
293 of data on this population.

294
295 Another area in need of additional research is collection of racial and ethnic data within
296 populations of children and adolescents. Currently, standard practice for collecting these data in
297 public health settings largely involves caregivers providing this information on behalf of their
298 children. However, how caregivers view the racial and ethnic identity of children may be
299 misaligned with how the child or adolescent identifies. The growing number of transracial
300 adoptees and multiracial/multiethnic individuals in the United States, particularly among
301 younger generations, supports the need for additional research into best practices for collecting
302 racial and ethnic data among these populations.[47]

303
304 Lastly, there are additional groups of people who may be disenfranchised due to various social
305 and economic inequities associated with their group membership. This includes but is not
306 exclusive to people who are experiencing homelessness or are receiving inpatient services for
307 various conditions. Self-identification should still be prioritized, but additional research to
308 identify safeguards and approaches that cause the least amount of harm is needed.

Action Steps to Implement Evidence-Based Strategies

309

	Evidence-Based Strategy		Action Steps
1	Prioritize self-reported data and improve completion of racial/ethnic data sets.	1a	Health-determining systems and entities, including health departments, should require providers and public health more broadly to collect the data and include data completion reports and targets in quality assurance reviews.
		1b	Health-determining systems and entities, including health departments, should improve information system capacity to collect, manage, process, and transmit data at different levels, such as expanded categories and open-answer fields.
		1c	Federal, state, tribal, and local governments should improve public health agency resources and staffing.
2	Use participatory action research to adapt to and maintain dynamic definitions of race and ethnicity.	2a	Health-determining systems and entities, including health departments, should integrate community expertise through multiple modalities to improve inclusive design, collection, analysis, and reporting of racial/ethnic data.
		2b	Through community leadership models, health-determining systems and entities, including health departments, should establish relationships to ensure continuous and ongoing improvement in efforts as social constructs and community dynamics evolve over time.

3	Train public health researchers and practitioners to responsibly and respectfully collect racial and ethnic data.	3a	Academic institutions, funding agencies, health care systems, local health departments, nongovernmental organizations, professional associations, state health departments, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, and other health-determining entities should require the implementation of cultural sensitivity and humility training, create scripts, and provide ongoing education for all race and ethnicity data collectors.
		3b	Health-determining systems and entities should make organizational data management and sharing plans publicly available to increase trust of and support for data collectors.
4	Prioritize additional research inquiries into best practices for collecting racial and ethnic data on immigrant, child and adolescent, and disenfranchised populations.	4a	Model organizational policies for how to collect racial and ethnic data on immigrant, child and adolescent, and disenfranchised populations should be established and/or reviewed as the evidence base is being built.
		4b	Health-determining systems and entities should prioritize self-reported data in immigrant, child and adolescent, and disenfranchised populations over existing administrative data to improve accuracy and support respondents' agency to self-identify.



Opposing Arguments/Evidence

311 This policy statement has highlighted the benefits of collecting disaggregated racial and ethnic
312 data. However, there are several concerns and issues that have to be considered.

313

314 *Unintended consequences of data collection methods*

315 Certain data collection methods should be changed to improve public health through better
316 interventions, policies, and programs; however, some of these methods could have unintended
317 harms, including further contributing to systemic racism and its impacts. As practitioners
318 implement recommendations, care should be taken to consider how data are shared and how they
319 could intentionally or unintentionally cause harm to different populations.[48]

320

321 *Patient privacy and confidentiality challenges*

322 When discussing privacy and confidentiality concerns, patients and consumers may view
323 collecting information about an individual’s race and ethnicity as intrusive and a potential
324 invasion of privacy for various reasons. In addition, disaggregation of race and ethnicity data can
325 increase the risk of “reidentification” for some groups when this information is made publicly
326 available.[49] Reidentification refers to the ability to use data from a deidentified data set to
327 identify individuals, and it is one of the biggest risks associated with disseminating disaggregated
328 data on race and ethnicity. The risk of reidentification varies from one state or locality to another
329 due to demographic differences because race and ethnicity can be “quasi-identifiers.”[49] A
330 strategy to combat this challenge is to selectively suppress race and ethnicity data in areas where
331 there are too few individuals and privacy concerns are present.[49] As such, suppression
332 guidelines and criteria should be a part of state, local, and/or institutional racial and ethnic data
333 collection plans. Some states already have more broad privacy protections relating to public
334 dissemination of data; California, Nebraska, New York, Tennessee, and Texas all have laws in
335 place to protect privacy and/or explicitly reduce the risk of reidentification.[50] While



336 reidentification is a valid risk that public health data collectors should be mindful of, the risk
337 does not outweigh the benefit or utility of more detailed race and ethnicity data. There are
338 resources such as the Network for Public Health Law’s Disaggregation of Public Health Data by
339 Race and Ethnicity: A Legal Handbook, which was created specifically to address the role of law
340 in collecting and disseminating these important data to reduce racial disparities in health.[50]

341

342 ***Lack of resources and increased burden on data collectors***

343 While additional training for data collectors, revised instruments, and more time on the front end
344 do require resources, the potential fiscal and health returns from improved public health data sets
345 outweigh the investment. According to an analysis by Deloitte of several high-cost chronic
346 diseases (diabetes, asthma, and cardiovascular disease), health disparities account for \$320
347 billion in annual health care spending.[51] If health disparities continue to go unmitigated, this
348 figure is anticipated to grow to \$1 trillion or more by 2040.[51] This projected increase in health
349 care spending could cost the average U.S. resident at least \$3,000 annually, which is triple the
350 current cost.[51] Hence, while there is an ethical case to mitigate racial disparities in health, there
351 are economic and social justifications as well.

352

353 To do our part to support the mitigation of racial disparities in health, it is time for public health
354 to lead at the local, state, and institutional levels by providing more robust and complete data
355 sets. With robust, accurate, and complete data, we can better allocate resources to support
356 populations on the journey to dismantling long-standing barriers to health, equity, and justice.



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