

1 **A Strategy to Address Systemic Racism and Violence as Public Health Priorities: Training and**  
2 **Supporting Community Health Workers to Advance Equity and Violence Prevention**

3  
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6  
7 Abstract

8 An ongoing barrier to achieving health equity is the persistence of structural racism and violence, which  
9 are root causes of adverse social determinants of health, especially among historically oppressed and  
10 other peoples experiencing inequities. APHA has recognized racism and violence as public health  
11 priorities in its policies. Amid the widespread failure of our society to adequately respond to systemic  
12 racism and prevent interpersonal violence, training and supporting community health workers (CHWs) to  
13 play a full range of roles offers a vital opportunity to address racism and violence at their core. To  
14 leverage this opportunity, deliberate efforts to mitigate the harms of institutional racism and classism that  
15 affect the CHW workforce will be essential. CHWs have been highlighted in the Patient Protection and  
16 Affordable Care Act of 2010 and recognized by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security as essential  
17 critical infrastructure workers in all states, territories, and tribal nations during the COVID-19 pandemic.  
18 Despite this recognition, significant challenges prevent optimization of the expertise CHWs possess and  
19 the critical support they provide to public health and health care infrastructure. This workforce requires  
20 support in order to realize its full potential to address racism and violence as critical public health  
21 priorities. This policy calls for providing training, support, and programming for CHWs so that they can  
22 build health equity by responding to racial inequities and preventing violence within historically  
23 oppressed populations.

24  
25 Relationship to Existing APHA Policy Statements

26 The following APHA policy statements relate directly to racism, violence, and CHWs.

- 27
- 28 ● APHA Policy Statement 20189: Achieving Health Equity in the United States
  - 29 ● APHA Policy Statement 20185: Violence is a Public Health Issue: Public Health is Essential to  
Understanding and Treating Violence in the U.S.
  - 30 ● APHA Policy Statement 201414: Support for Community Health Worker Leadership in  
31 Determining Workforce Standards for Training and Credentialing

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- 32 ● APHA Policy Statement 20091: Support for Community Health Workers to Increase Health  
33 Access and to Reduce Health Inequities
- 34 ● APHA Policy Statement 200115: Recognition and Support for Community Health Workers’  
35 Contribution to Meeting our Nation’s Health Care Needs

36 Problem Statement

37 The social determinants of health (SDoH) are understood to be conditioned by larger structural forces that  
38 include societal and cultural norms such as systemic racism and structural violence.[1–4] Furthermore,  
39 these structural forms of oppression can be identified as key drivers of inequities that lead to interpersonal  
40 violence. Interpersonal violence has been identified as one of the primary social determinants  
41 compromising the health of historically oppressed communities in America.[1,5–8] This section identifies  
42 two central problems and discusses how these problems create additional barriers for historically  
43 disparaged communities. The subsequent section explains how these problems can be substantially  
44 ameliorated through training, support, and program development for community health workers (CHWs)  
45 to address racial inequities and prevent interpersonal violence.

46

47 Problem 1—Systemic racism and violence are public health emergencies, and we lack interventions that  
48 address the underlying causes of these problems: Systemic racism is one form of structural violence.  
49 Structural violence is defined as a form of oppression in which a given social structure harms people by  
50 preventing them from meeting their basic needs and being valued.[1–3,5,6] In America, the “legacy of  
51 racial oppression has resulted in pervasive social inequalities and health inequities across the life course,”  
52 creating public health crises.[2–5,9,10] This is the case when racism is a motivator for systemic  
53 oppression. Structural violence leads to disproportionate exposure to adverse structural and social  
54 determinants of health (SSDoH). SSDoH are defined as both the social factors promoting and  
55 undermining the health of individuals and populations and the social processes underlying the unequal  
56 distribution of these factors among groups.[2–4] Structural determinants exacerbate insecurities within  
57 existing unfavorable social conditions among historically oppressed populations such as increased  
58 exposure to interpersonal violence. Interpersonal violence and other adverse social determinants,  
59 including poor housing, poverty, and overincarceration, are the principal drivers of chronic disease,  
60 inadequate mental health, poor quality of life, and high morbidity rates.[1–4] In an article exploring  
61 strategies related to trauma as a root cause of violence, Dicker et al.[7] make the connection between  
62 structural and social inequities and the causes of interpersonal violence. According to the authors, “Low  
63 neighborhood life expectancy and endemic inequity lead to a sense of hopelessness.” They argue that

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64 factors related to mental health, “including sociodemographic and economic characteristics[, exhibit]  
65 similarities in the underpinnings of suicide and interpersonal violence.”[7] This article is consistent with  
66 the adverse community experience framework, which connects trauma (i.e., historical and persistent) to  
67 overexposure to interpersonal violence.[11] This phenomenon can be linked to structural determinants of  
68 poor economic conditions, a lack of educational investment, overpolicing, and other risk factors that  
69 contribute to already-existing social insecurity and crisis among historically oppressed people.[2,3,5–  
70 8,10,11]

71  
72 Interpersonal violence is both an endemic problem and a health inequity.[1,2,5–7,12,13] It is reported that  
73 between 2010 and 2018, more than 300,000 people in the United States died from firearm-related  
74 injuries.[7] In 2019, interpersonal violence was responsible for 19,141 deaths and more than 1.4 million  
75 injuries.[7] African American men are 14 times more likely than European American men to die as a  
76 result of gun-related homicides.[7] In the 20- to 29-year-old age group, firearm homicide rates among  
77 African American men are five times higher than among Latino men and 20 times higher than among  
78 European men living in the United States.[7]

79  
80 The United States has a history of creating and implementing racially discriminatory public policies  
81 affecting historically oppressed and other peoples experiencing inequities (HOPEIs). This policy defines  
82 HOPEIs as historically oppressed people who were brought from Africa and enslaved in America and  
83 members of indigenous First Nations groups (including descendants of those groups who trace their  
84 genealogy back to indigenous Mexicans, Aztecs, Mayans, Incas, etc.) whose land was colonized by  
85 Europeans.[14] In addition, HOPEIs include other populations experiencing inequities (e.g., women;  
86 Muslims; immigrants; lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, 2-spirit, and intersex [LGBTQ2I]  
87 individuals; people with disabilities). The term HOPEI is designed to shift efforts to define diverse  
88 ethnicities within racial groupings that often do not reflect how these communities consistently define  
89 themselves.[14–17]

90  
91 Inequitable distribution of resources and social status has been justified as resulting from unintentional  
92 policies and ideologies. This suggests that HOPEIs and European Americans have naturally separated  
93 themselves rather than correctly identifying the cause as policies that have intentionally created  
94 inequities.[10]

95

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96 Public health legislation has not prioritized advancing equitable policies that fund interventions to  
97 mitigate adverse SSDoH experienced among HOPEIs.[2,3,5,6,18,19] The lack of these policies will  
98 continue to contribute to structural violence (also leading to interpersonal violence at the community and  
99 individual levels) if we disregard the history of public policy and how it continues to manifest [17].  
100 Considering this, it is important to acknowledge that “what was done by public policy can be undone by  
101 public policy.”[11,20,21]

102

103 Failure to address systemic racism and violence at the policy level can result in the following problems at  
104 the institutional and organizational levels:

- 105 ● Lack of equitable partnerships between health care institutions and community-based  
106 organizations (CBOs), leading to mistrust and poor health care delivery for HOPEIs.[18,19,22]
- 107 ● Overemphasis on addressing the health issues of HOPEIs through medical care rather than  
108 preventive care and health promotion that address SSDoH as rooted in structural racism and  
109 disproportionate exposures to multiple forms of violence.[1,2,5,6,23–25]
- 110 ● Inequitable access to health care and upstream SSDoH interventions.[2,3,18,19]
- 111 ● Racial inequities in research and upstream evidence-based practices. Inequitable research results  
112 in a lack of funding opportunities, authorship, and intellectual property rights and tokenizes  
113 CHWs and CBOs. These inequitable research practices then perpetuate racial biases and  
114 inequities.[2,24,26,27]

115

116 Problem 2—CHWs have demonstrated the ability to address the underlying causes of systemic racism and  
117 interpersonal violence but lack resources and support as a result of their own marginalization in the health  
118 care system: CHWs are uniquely suited to support existing efforts to mitigate the harms of systemic  
119 racism and prevent interpersonal violence.[5,6,9,28,29] According to APHA, a CHW is a frontline public  
120 health worker who is a trusted member of and/or has an unusually close understanding of the community  
121 served. This trusting relationship enables the worker to serve as a liaison, link, or intermediary between  
122 health/social services and the community to facilitate access to services and improve the quality and  
123 cultural competence of service delivery.[23] CHWs build capacity across all levels of the social  
124 ecological model (SEM; i.e., individual, community, organizational, system/policy level),[1,12,23,24,30]  
125 as exhibited in the range of roles identified in the nationally recognized C3 Project: (1) providing cultural  
126 mediation among individuals, communities, and health and social service systems; (2) offering culturally

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127 appropriate health education and information; (3) offering care coordination, case management, and  
128 system navigation; (4) providing coaching and social support; (5) advocating for individuals and  
129 communities; (6) building individual and community capacity; (7) providing direct service; (8)  
130 implementing individual and community assessments; (9) conducting outreach; and (10) participating in  
131 evaluation and research.[1,23,26,31–34]

132

133 There is more than 60 years of research documenting the effectiveness of CHW interventions for  
134 HOPIEs.[4,7,12,18–20,27,30,32,35,36] Not only are CHWs predominantly members of HOPIEs, but  
135 literature reflects that the profession emerged in direct response to the needs of historically oppressed  
136 people experiencing health inequities.[12,17,18,31–33,35–38] Dating back to the 15th century during  
137 slavery and European colonization of the Americas, the roles that CHWs now play emerged as a natural  
138 response to failures of systems to provide equitable distribution of resources needed for health.[17]  
139 HOPIEs’ ability to naturally respond to inequities began to be understood in the United States in the  
140 1960s, when academic and health professionals began to observe initiatives such as the Black Panther  
141 Party’s free clinic and breakfast programs in addition to other social movements during this era.[35] Over  
142 the course of the next three decades, community health representatives and promotores/as (in addition to  
143 others) laid the foundation for the CHW workforce.[34,39,40]

144

145 Although CHWs have exhibited capacity to improve health equity, institutional racism and classism  
146 experienced by the workforce has resulted in a widespread lack of power, voice, agency, and funding.  
147 CHWs are themselves affected by racism and other forms of oppression because they are primarily from  
148 historically oppressed communities, which are also usually low-resource communities with minimal  
149 opportunities for education and living wage employment.[18,41] These barriers to economic stability are  
150 frequently not ameliorated when community members gain jobs as CHWs, because these positions are  
151 notoriously unstable and insufficiently paid.[41] CHWs also represent the intersectionality of  
152 marginalized social identities (e.g., women, LGBTQ2I individuals, immigrants) and social statuses  
153 affected by classism4,19] (e.g., low income, lack of formal education, former incarceration, substance  
154 use, immigrant status). Their intersectional social identities and statuses (particularly their lack of formal  
155 education) result in unjust treatment within the hierarchical systems of health and social services.  
156 Marginalization within the health system decreases CHWs’ ability to produce optimal outcomes and  
157 ultimately results in poor quality of life and early mortality among HOPIEs, as shown during COVID-  
158 19.[18,37]

159

160 Further causes and outcomes of marginalization of CHWs within the health system include the following:

- 161 ● Lack of recognition of the essential role CHWs play in addressing racial inequities and preventing  
162 violence.[1,16,22]
- 163 ● Overly medicalized CHW training rather than training based on grassroots models that emphasize  
164 community knowledge such as popular education.[34]
- 165 ● Evaluations of CHW interventions focusing on return on investment (ROI) and clinical measures  
166 rather than on process and outcome measures that protect the integrity of the profession, such as  
167 those developed collaboratively with CHW leaders by the CHW Common Indicators  
168 Project.[18,34,41]
- 169 ● Unsustainable and inequitable pay with an overdependency on cyclical grant funding or fee for  
170 service.[34,41]

171 Community-level issues: Adverse SSDoH are most threatening among HOPEIs living in residential areas  
172 where there are high levels of poverty, socioeconomic and political disenfranchisement, and  
173 marginalization.[22,36] Because of the belief that CHWs and CBOs lack the knowledge and skills to lead  
174 racial equity and violence prevention interventions for HOPEIs, minimal resources and funding have been  
175 dedicated to CHW programs in CBOs. However, evidence demonstrates that CHW programs within  
176 CBOs are best placed to understand and address racism and the disproportionate effects of multiple forms  
177 of violence.[1,5,6,12,13,38,39] CHWs within organizations emerging from the community who serve  
178 HOPEIs are often situated as liaisons between systems and communities.[23,39,40] Vital services  
179 designed to be delivered to those most in need are circumvented away from CHW programs within CBOs  
180 and placed in the trust of CHW programs within institutions and non-CBOs that lack proximity to the  
181 challenges faced by HOPEIs.[39] This produces competition for scarce resources and therefore maintains  
182 a perverse power structure wherein support for CBO interventions is needed but support instead is  
183 provided to larger institutions that already have funding for CHWs. This imbalanced dynamic breaks  
184 down the social cohesion of HOPEIs, rendering them vulnerable to racial inequities and disproportionate  
185 effects of multiple forms of violence.[1,5,6,12,13,26,38] The lack of social cohesion of CHWs placed  
186 within CBOs reduces community resiliency and the capacity to thrive in the face of racial inequities and  
187 structural violence.[1,2] Scarcity of resources within ethnic and demographic boundaries creates  
188 unhealthy competition that leads to distrust and a lack of organizational reciprocity and collaboration  
189 between CHW programs within health care systems/institutions and programs within CBOs.[22,39] This

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190 lack of collaboration with community-based CHWs fosters adverse power dynamics through which  
191 HOPEIs continue to be marginalized.

192

193 Research shows that systematic racism inhibits the process of achieving solutions on behalf of HOPEIs in  
194 the areas below.

195 • Adverse SSDoH: Adverse SSDoH in HOPEIs include mass incarceration, residential segregation,  
196 food apartheid, underdevelopment of the built environment (e.g., parks, recreation,  
197 transportation), poor quality of education, scarcity of health providers, and disproportionate  
198 effects of multiple forms of violence, including police violence.[1–3,5,6,24,25]

199 • Intentional marginalization of CBOs: As noted, services designed for those most in need are often  
200 circumvented away from CBOs,[42,43] producing competition for scarce resources, inducing  
201 CBOs to limit their full capacity, and thereby maintaining a perverse power structure.

202 • Compromised social cohesion: As mentioned, lack of social cohesion reduces community  
203 resiliency and capacity to thrive.[1–3,5,6,24,25] Scarcity of resources creates unhealthy  
204 competition that leads to a lack of organizational reciprocity and collaboration.[11,22,42]

205

206 Individual-level issues: Intrapersonal and interpersonal factors are deeply rooted in individualistic  
207 attitudes and behaviors. These factors directly govern the formal and informal social networks and  
208 support systems where CHWs work and serve. Internalized and interpersonal racism and violence are  
209 expressed in a variety of attitudes and behaviors.[2–5] Interpersonal racism includes stereotyped and  
210 direct threats, overt discrimination, harassment, microaggressions, implicit bias, exclusion, social  
211 distancing, and stigmatization. These behaviors negatively affect the ability of CHWs to serve as liaisons  
212 among health care systems, social services, and the community to promote health and deliver quality and  
213 culturally competent care in HOPEI households.

214

215 When CHWs are inhibited by interpersonal racism, their ability to mitigate the harm of adverse SSDoH  
216 and prevent interpersonal violence is hindered.[1–6,12,13,24] Interpersonal violence, including gang  
217 violence, sexual violence, domestic violence, and self-abuse, exacerbates existing adverse social  
218 conditions that are caused by inequitable distribution of resources and other forms of systemic racism.

219

220 Significant challenges exist across all levels of the SEM to realize the full potential of CHWs in terms of  
221 the expertise and critical support they provide to the public health and health care infrastructure. This

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222 workforce requires even more support to effectively address racism and violence as critical public health  
223 priorities.

224

225 Evidence-Based Strategies to Address the Problem

226 CHWs have been recognized by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security as essential critical  
227 infrastructure workers in all states, territories, and tribal nations during the COVID-19 pandemic.[37]  
228 During COVID-19, “\$250 million has been allocated to aid CBOs and public health departments in hiring  
229 CHWs for COVID-19 vaccination efforts, as well as \$3 billion for health departments to hire and retain  
230 CHWs [by the American Rescue Plan]. This financial commitment reflects mainstream acknowledgment  
231 that incorporating CHWs into the fabric of [the] social, medical, and public health care system is essential  
232 for strengthening national public health infrastructure.”[37] Below evidence-based programs are  
233 described that exhibit various ways in which CHWs have demonstrated the capacity to address systemic  
234 racism and prevent interpersonal violence.[1,5,6,9,12,13,26,28,29,38,42–53].

235

236 CHW programs addressing systemic racism: During the years 2007–2012, the Centers for Disease  
237 Control and Prevention (CDC) funded 40 Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health (REACH)  
238 programs around the country; the examples below demonstrate evidence of CHW contributions in  
239 supporting racial equity interventions in REACH programs.[33]

- 240 ● Policy level: REACH CHWs developed, advocated for, and implemented diabetes-specific  
241 chronic disease guidelines in South Carolina for members of racial and ethnic groups with health  
242 care system providers. As a result of this initiative, diabetes-related hospitalizations and  
243 emergency department visits decreased by 50%.[33] Other CHW interventions were associated  
244 with improved access to medications and immunizations.
- 245 ● Organizational and community level: CHWs helped to integrate social determinants into health  
246 services, developing and disseminating resources to families and providers focused on access to  
247 and navigation of housing resources. This program resulted in an ROI of \$1.46 for each \$1.00  
248 invested.[33]
- 249 ● Individual level: REACH CHWs provided interventions at an after-school program called Kids  
250 with a Positive Attitude where students used photovoice to demonstrate their perspectives of the  
251 needs and barriers in their communities. Another REACH program in Arizona included an after-  
252 school program addressing health disparities and cervical cancer prevention interventions for  
253 youth leaders.[33]

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254 Additional evidence-based programs and strategies in which CHWs have addressed racial equity are  
255 described below:

- 256 ● The Children’s Partnership in California “promote[s] equity and anti-racist values.”[54] CHWs  
257 enrolled 75% of historically oppressed families in Medi-Cal during the course of the program.
- 258 ● The Northern Manhattan Community Voices Collaborative hired CHWs as a “central strategy to  
259 reduce health disparities.”[45] CHWs were able to help 40,654 people improve their health and  
260 assisted 29,732 adults and children in obtaining health insurance. CHWs also closed the gap in  
261 immunization enrollment by 80% relative compared to the national immunization rate.[45]
- 262 ● Rhode Island General Law 23-64 focuses on health workforce diversity and development through  
263 a health in all policies approach.[46,47] The Rhode Island Commission made recommendations  
264 for the coordination of state, local, and private sector efforts to develop a more racially and  
265 ethnically diverse health care system workforce, highlighting CHWs. The law makes  
266 recommendations for the recruitment, assignment, training, and employment of CHWs by  
267 “community-based health and wellness organizations, community-based health agencies, and  
268 other appropriate organizations.”[46,47]

269 CHW programs addressing violence: Striving To Reduce Youth Violence Everywhere (STRYVE) was a  
270 CDC-funded national initiative that supported four demonstration sites in Boston, Massachusetts; Salinas  
271 Valley, California; Houston, Texas; and Portland, Oregon. In Portland, from 2011–2016, the Multnomah  
272 County Health Department (MCHD) integrated CHWs as co-designers and co-leaders of the development  
273 and implementation of the department’s comprehensive strategy, which included five nationally  
274 recognized evidence-based programs. The initiative’s primary objective was to prevent youth violence  
275 and promote public health professionals as essential partners in existing efforts to prevent multiple forms  
276 of violence.[1,24] The MCHD STRYVE is one of 20 CHW violence prevention programs identified in a  
277 comprehensive CDC-led literature review titled “Community Health Worker Activities in Public Health  
278 Programs to Prevent Violence: Coding Roles and Scope.”[1] This project analyzed “recent examples of  
279 CHW activities in violence prevention public health programs with a goal of informing future programs  
280 and research.”[1] The literature review “collected more than 300 documents published between 2010 and  
281 2020 to identify public health programs to prevent violence including CHW activities.”[1] Below  
282 examples from the MCHD STRYVE are used to describe various ways CHWs can address violence  
283 across the SEM when they are appropriately trained and supported.

- 284 ● Policy level: CHW “contributions included CHW involvement in countywide strategic planning  
285 for comprehensive gang assessment, and policy review and modification, the Local Public Safety

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286 Coordinating Council Youth and Gang Violence Sub-Committee, and the City of Portland’s Office of  
287 Equity and Human Rights Black Male Achievement Steering Committee.”[1,24] CHWs’ involvement  
288 in these high-level planning and organizing sessions contributed important community insights and  
289 introduced upstream public health thinking to county and city initiatives designed to prevent violence.

290 ● Organizational level: CHWs led the adaptation and implementation of a 90-hour CHW  
291 certification curriculum approved by the Oregon Health Authority. This adaptation integrated  
292 violence prevention within the existing curriculum. Training participants included 27 community  
293 professionals selected from across Multnomah County.[24] The training was designed to build  
294 capacity within existing organizations and lead to enhanced violence prevention efforts. Results  
295 showed that “92% of participants increased their health knowledge from baseline to follow-up” and  
296 revealed “substantial increases in confidence in ability to promote health and share health  
297 information.”[24] The training also introduced violence prevention professionals to public health  
298 thinking and methodology. These CHWs were integrated into an existing network of community  
299 health professionals whose scope of work included SSDoH. The bringing together of various  
300 professionals and organizations increased opportunities for collaboration, coordination, and building  
301 of community cohesion and collective efficacy.

302 ● Community and individual level: Youth Empowerment Solutions (YES) was one of the five  
303 evidence-based programs used in the MCHD STRYVE. CHWs led the recruitment and training of  
304 facilitators and youth participants. CHWs and the STRYVE team also created a report on adaptations  
305 of the YES curriculum in partnership with the CDC. These adaptations made the YES curriculum  
306 specific to diverse populations in Multnomah County, ensuring that the curriculum content engaged  
307 participants in a meaningful way. YES pre-post surveys and other instruments showed that  
308 “awareness on most variables increased to 100%.”[24] Via advocacy with local public officials, youth  
309 in the YES program were able to shut down a strip club operating in their neighborhood that attracted  
310 strangers, drugs, violence, and other forms of social risk.[24] After a school shooting at one of the  
311 YES sites, CHWs led the development and facilitation of a yearlong training program focused on  
312 building resiliency through relationships in educational settings[24]; the program was designed to  
313 support staff, students, and administrators in healing and restoring cohesion after the traumatic events.  
314 An adaptation of the MCHD STRYVE model, Community-Based Public Health Response to Violence, is  
315 currently being piloted in Wilmington, North Carolina.[1,13,45]

316  
317 Additional CHW programs that have addressed violence include the following:

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- 318       ● In Acción para la Salud, five health agencies and academic-community partners provided training  
319       and technical assistance to CHWs in order to leverage change in the social environment and  
320       improve health systems. During this program, “CHWs documented community advocacy  
321       activities through encounter forms in which they identified problems, formulated solutions, and  
322       described systems and policy change efforts.”[49] In addition, “CHWs used local associations to  
323       strengthen practices of participation,” and 70% of engagement with their clients included  
324       “conversations about the wellbeing of their community and what might improve it.”[49] Acción  
325       para la Salud engaged CHWs, who in turn sought to empower the communities they served to  
326       improve social conditions (i.e., social determinants). CHWs encouraged their communities to  
327       think holistically and to identify problems and develop solutions. “In three organizations, Acción  
328       CHWs initiated activities in the political stream, in several cases directly involving community  
329       members.”[49]
- 330       ● The Southcentral Foundation’s Family Wellness Warriors Initiative (FWWI), a program created  
331       by Alaska Native people, “addresses traumatic experiences as the root cause of family  
332       violence...and builds on cultural strengths.”[40] An FWWI-associated study sought to build a  
333       conceptual model for the program and had more than 11,000 participants. During focus groups,  
334       respondents stated that activities in the training consisted of “receiving affirming responses,  
335       connecting to others with similar experiences, and actively practicing interpersonal skills, goal  
336       setting, and observing and accepting emotions.”[40] In addition, respondents noted that  
337       participating in a strengths-based Alaska Native–led process was healing and increased self-  
338       esteem.[40] This initiative shows how, based on their unique relationships, CHWs are able to  
339       support communities they serve to heal trauma, empower each other, and build cohesion, which is  
340       key to preventing violence.
- 341       ● Cure Violence Global trains and activates credible messengers who exhibit the roles of CHWs  
342       primarily because they are community professionals who have experienced violence and have  
343       close relations to the communities they serve. A South Baltimore Cure Violence program was  
344       associated with a 56% reduction in homicides, a 34% reduction in nonfatal shootings, and a 48%  
345       reduction in homicides in nearby communities.[13]
- 346       ● The Health Alliance for Violence Intervention integrates CHW roles into hospital-based  
347       programs, resulting in an estimated ROI of \$69 million in national savings to the Medicaid  
348       program.[12]

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349 This policy emphasizes the importance of organized CHWs being in control of policy creation regarding  
350 their profession, which can lead to experientially informed strategies to prevent violence and disrupt the  
351 persistence of racial inequities.[20,33–35] In addition, CHWs, CBOs, and dedicated allies within health  
352 care systems can train, support, certify, and reimburse CHWs in such a way that skilled and experienced  
353 professionals are not barred from contributing to building health equity in our society.[20,32] We have  
354 highlighted the above evidence-based strategies as a way forward.

355

### 356 Opposing Arguments/Evidence

357 The authors of this policy proposal believe that we need all effective strategies to reduce racism and  
358 violence and increase equity. No one profession or intervention alone can succeed in the massive task of  
359 redressing and undoing centuries of systemic racism and other structural inequities in order to eliminate  
360 health inequities. However, the structure of this policy proposal requires that we explicate and counter  
361 potential opposing arguments. We undertake this task below.

362

363 First argument in opposition—Other public health, health care, and social service professionals are better  
364 suited than CHWs to address health inequities: It is sometimes argued that professionals such as  
365 physicians, nurses, and social workers, who are currently more recognized within institutions, are well  
366 suited to address health and racial inequities. Unquestionably, these professionals provide a significant  
367 contribution to addressing entrenched inequities and improving health equity. However, we also need the  
368 unique skills, perspectives, and level of community trust that CHWs bring on the basis of their lived  
369 experience within communities most affected by inequities (i.e., HOPEI communities). Other health care,  
370 social services, and public health professionals are not as frequently in close proximity to social,  
371 economic, and political conditions. Furthermore, these professionals have exhibited practices influenced  
372 by institutional policies that perpetuate inequities and oppression.[1,13,9,28,29,33,55]

373

374 Physicians, who can often wield power based on their position within the medical hierarchy, are well  
375 placed to work at both the individual level, where they interact with their patients, and the structural level,  
376 where they can influence policies and systems. Groups such as Physicians for Social Responsibility[56]  
377 and Physicians for a National Health Program[57] have effectively harnessed physicians' power to bring  
378 about meaningful change. However, at least two factors limit physicians' ability to, alone and without  
379 others, create health equity. One is their proximity to power. Physicians' power is based, to some degree,  
380 on the exact structures that maintain inequities. A desire to maintain their place within the hierarchy can

381 discourage them from working to promote change. Another factor limiting physicians' ability is the  
382 growing power of health care administrators, who curtail physicians' interactions with patients in order to  
383 protect and increase the economic bottom line. CHWs, who are less tied to systems and who do not  
384 benefit from the current structure of the medical hierarchy, are often more able to oppose it. They also  
385 generally have more time than physicians to work with individuals and communities to identify and  
386 address underlying causes.

387

388 Community health nurses (also referred to as public health nurses) work in the community to promote and  
389 maintain the health of all residents. They may provide direct medical care or work with other  
390 professionals to ensure that residents have access to needed services. The goal of community health  
391 nursing is to promote and protect the health of vulnerable populations. Community health nurses develop  
392 and implement prevention and wellness educational programs and advocate for equitable access to health  
393 care.[58] An important characteristic that sets CHWs apart from community health nurses is that they are  
394 known and trusted members of the community they serve. While this is also true for some community  
395 health nurses, it is not an essential characteristic of the profession as it is for CHWs. By uniting the  
396 unique skills and characteristics of each profession, CHWs and community health nurses are able to work  
397 together to promote equity in communities.

398

399 Social workers who focus on community practice also may be well equipped to address inequities based  
400 on their work in "social, economic, and environmental justice, and [their eagerness] to collaborate and  
401 create solutions on a community level." [59] Social work literature and policy emphasize community  
402 engagement and working in partnership. However, it is common knowledge that communities are at risk  
403 of being harmed by practices within the profession and the institutions that govern it. These dynamics  
404 foster distrust and inhibit social workers from implementing the goals and principles referenced in the  
405 literature.[59,60] CHWs, conversely, have historically maintained trusted relationships with their  
406 communities based on their lived experience and have historically exhibited capacity to navigate with an  
407 efficient level of cultural awareness. These qualities give CHWs an added advantage relative to social  
408 workers in addressing the root causes of inequities and multiple forms of violence.

409

410 As another frontline workforce, community organizers can also effectively address health inequities;  
411 however, this is a role within the CHW profession, and CHWs often work as organizers. As community  
412 organizers and capacity builders, CHWs can promote community action and garner support and resources

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413 from community organizations to implement new activities.[61] CHWs can also use techniques to  
414 motivate individuals and communities to seek specific policy and social changes. In effect, CHWs  
415 encompass a range of roles that can comprehensively address health inequities and multiple forms of  
416 violence affecting HOPEIs.

417

418 Although the aforementioned public health, health care, and social service workers cannot, alone, address  
419 health inequities, CHWs should collaborate with them to more holistically and comprehensively address  
420 inequities and multiple forms of violence. CHWs have a unique positionality that sets them apart from  
421 other professionals because they have been able to navigate the harms of oppressive systems from their  
422 inception. The public narrative needs to be shifted as to who needs to be part of the solution for social  
423 change and transformation. CHWs have historically struggled with these issues, are in closest proximity  
424 to their communities, and were birthed from their communities. Therefore, CHWs are naturally equipped  
425 to address health inequities and multiple forms of violence.

426

427 Second argument in opposition—CHWs are, at best, stopgaps to structural barriers to achieving health  
428 equity. The only viable way to truly address racism and other structural inequities is through policy and  
429 system change. There can be no doubt that conditions that were brought about through structural,  
430 systemic oppression need structural, systemic solutions to be reversed. However, two important facts can  
431 be noted as counterpoints: first, CHWs have historically been deeply involved in working at the  
432 community and policy levels to bring about system change, and, second, only recently have CHWs been  
433 mischaracterized as working primarily at the individual level.

434

435 This policy statement proposes that CHWs have historically played and should play a wide variety of  
436 roles across the SEM. According to a view that has become increasingly widespread since the passage of  
437 the Affordable Care Act and increasing integration of CHWs into health care systems, CHWs work  
438 primarily at the individual level, rather than the community level, to address the SSDoH by connecting  
439 people to predominantly medical and social services. While this is an important role for CHWs, it is far  
440 from being the only role. Nonetheless, because it is perhaps the easiest role to monetize, it has become  
441 pervasive in many systems and locations. This characterization is extremely deleterious to the potential of  
442 the CHW profession and runs counter to the historic role of CHWs, who as shown here have historically  
443 been engaged in creating health equity by addressing underlying causes of inequities. As trusted  
444 community members, CHWs are uniquely placed to bring communities together to identify pressing

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445 health issues, identify the underlying causes of those issues, and organize communities to bring about  
446 change through a variety of mechanisms. Thus, it can be seen that, far from being stopgaps, CHWs are in  
447 fact crucial players in creating systemic solutions to address health inequities.

448

449 Action Steps

450 APHA encourages external constituencies to take the comprehensive actions described below to train,  
451 support, and measure the impact of CHWs as a means of addressing systemic racism and preventing  
452 interpersonal violence among HOPIE communities most affected by inequities.

453 1) APHA calls on Congress to pass and the president to sign legislation that allocates funding to federal  
454 agencies including the Health Resources and Services Administration, Office of Rural Health, Office  
455 of Minority Health, Area Health Education Center, and CDC to do the following:

- 456 • Make funding available to community-based organizations (especially those led by HOPEI  
457 communities) and selected public agencies (e.g., local health departments) with experience in  
458 training CHWs through effective strategies such as popular education to provide training that  
459 builds CHWs' skills to address systemic racism and violence as public health priorities.
- 460 • Make funding available to community-based organizations (especially those led HOPEI  
461 communities) and selected public agencies (e.g., local health departments) with experience in  
462 recruiting, hiring, and retaining CHWs to create programs that support CHWs in playing a wide  
463 range of roles, including roles focused on addressing violence and promoting health equity across  
464 all levels of the SEM.
- 465 • Make funding available to researchers and evaluators with experience working as or with CHWs  
466 and using community-based and community-engaged strategies (especially those led by HOPEI  
467 communities) to develop and conduct studies that incorporate consistent measures to assess the  
468 impact of CHWs (in concert with other strategies) on reductions in interpersonal violence and  
469 health inequities.
- 470 • Provide funding that allows sufficient time for program and evaluation planning and that is  
471 sustainable over the long term. Historically, CHW programs have depended almost exclusively  
472 on short-term grants, and average federal grant duration has actually decreased during the  
473 COVID-19 pandemic.
- 474 • Collect consistent data about both the process and outcomes of CHW programs, such as those  
475 developed by the CHW Common Indicators Project with funding from the CDC. Programs  
476 should also collect comprehensive and disaggregated sociodemographic data about both CHWs

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477 and the communities they serve using standards such as those developed in the 2015 National  
478 Content Test Report produced by the U.S. Census Bureau. Such data increase knowledge about  
479 the exact nature and extent of health inequities and the effectiveness of CHW efforts (in concert  
480 with other efforts) to address inequities.

481 2) APHA calls on state legislatures to pass legislation providing funding to state health departments to  
482 take actions consistent with the above priorities.

483 3) APHA calls on national and local CHW associations and CHW employers to endorse training of  
484 CHWs in interpersonal violence and systemic racism as stated in this policy proposal. External  
485 endorsements to date include CommUnity Healing through, Activism + Strategic Mobilization, North  
486 Carolina Area Health Education Center, North Carolina Community Health Worker Association, The  
487 University of Wisconsin Population Health Institute, Partners in Health, and CHW Common  
488 Indicators Project.

489 4) APHA calls on foundations and other funders to take actions consistent with the above priorities and  
490 provide funding for organizations (especially those led HOPEI communities) with experience in  
491 training, hiring, and retaining and conducting research and evaluations involving CHWs. This funding  
492 should strengthen the ability of the CHW workforce to address structural racism and violence as root  
493 causes of health inequity.

494 5) APHA calls on colleges and universities that train other public health professionals (e.g., physicians,  
495 nurses, public health educators, social workers, psychologists) to include in their curricula  
496 information about the historic role and potential of CHWs to contribute to eliminating health  
497 inequities by addressing structural racism and violence. These schools should build the capacity of  
498 their graduates to understand and address racism and violence as public health priorities, working in  
499 partnership with CHWs.

500

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