

SIXTH EDITION

PUBLIC HEALTH

What It Is and How It Works

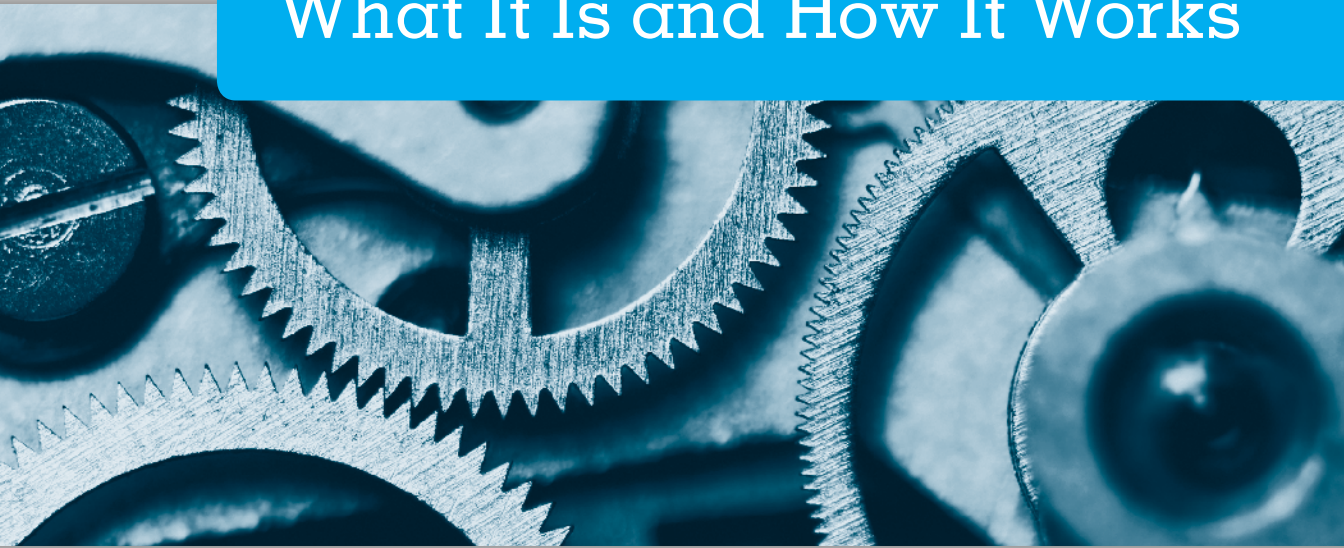


Bernard J. Turnock

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What It Is and How It Works



Bernard J. Turnock, MD, MPH

Clinical Professor of Community Health Sciences
School of Public Health
University of Illinois at Chicago
Chicago, Illinois



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World Headquarters
Jones & Bartlett Learning
5 Wall Street
Burlington, MA 01803
978-443-5000
info@jblearning.com
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Dedication

To Terry, Scott, and Linda—my dearly missed siblings.

Table of Contents

Preface	vii
New to This Edition	x
Acknowledgments	xi
About the Author	xii
PART I: PUBLIC HEALTH: WHAT IT IS AND HOW IT WORKS	1
Chapter 1: What Is Public Health?	3
A Brief History of Public Health in the United States5
Images and Definitions of Public Health10
Public Health as a System13
Unique Features of Public Health18
Value of Public Health26
Conclusion28
References29
Chapter 2: Measuring Population Health	31
Health in the United States32
Health, Illness, and Disease36
Measuring Health37
Influences on Health41
Analyzing Health Problems for Causative Factors50
Economic Dimensions of Health Outcomes52
Healthy People 202054
Conclusion61
References61
Chapter 3: Public Health and the Health System	63
Prevention and Health Services65
The Health System in the United States76
Changing Roles, Themes, and Paradigms in the Health System87

Conclusion.....	94
References	95
Chapter 4: Law, Government, and Public Health.....	97
American Government and Public Health	98
Public Health Law	101
Governmental Public Health	105
Intergovernmental Relationships	126
Conclusion	129
References	130
Chapter 5: Twenty-First Century Community Public Health Practice.....	131
Public Health Functions and Practice Before 1990	132
Public Health Functions and Practice After 1990	137
Community Health Assessment and Improvement Tools	143
Strategic Planning, Standards, and Accreditation	156
Conclusion	159
References	160
Chapter 6: Public Health Workforce.....	163
Public Health Work and Public Health Workers.....	164
Size and Distribution of the Public Health Workforce	165
Composition of the Public Health Workforce.....	170
Public Health Worker Ethics and Education	173
Characteristics of Public Health Occupations.....	175
Public Health Workforce Growth Prospects	187
Public Health Practitioner Competencies	191
Conclusion.....	191
References	195
Chapter 7: Managing Public Health Infrastructure.....	197
Public Health Infrastructure Components	199
Human Resources Management in Public Health	199
Organizational Management in Public Health	201
Information Management in Public Health	207
Fiscal Management in Public Health.....	215
Performance Management in Public Health	224
Healthy People 2020 Public Health Infrastructure Objectives	227
Conclusion	229
References	230
Chapter 8: Managing Public Health Interventions	233
Interventions, Programs, and Services	234
Program Management in Public Health	253

Conclusion	268
References	269
Chapter 9: Public Health Emergency Preparedness and Response	271
Public Health Roles in Emergency Preparedness and Response	271
National Public Health Preparedness and Response Coordination	279
State and Local Public Health Preparedness and Response Coordination	285
Conclusion	299
References	300
Chapter 10: Public Health Practice: Future Challenges.	301
Lessons from a Century of Progress in Public Health	302
Limitations of 21st-Century Public Health	311
The Future of Public Health in 1988 and a Quarter Century Later	312
Conclusion: The Need for a More Effective Public Health System	318
References	321
PART II: CASE STUDIES.	323
Case Study 1: History of Public Health in Chicago.	325
Case Study 2: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention	335
Case Study 3: Mandatory Premarital Screening for Antibody to the Human Immunodeficiency Virus	345
Case Study 4: Massive Outbreak of Antimicrobial-Resistant Salmonellosis Traced to Contaminated Milk.	353
Case Study 5: Ragsdale U.S. Supreme Court Case	361
Case Study 6: Outcome Oriented Perinatal Surveillance	365
Case Study 7: University of Illinois Hospital.	369
Case Study 8: Gulf Oil Spill Aftermath	373
Case Study 9: Bioterrorist Attack on Food: A Tabletop Exercise	385
Case Study 10: Early 21st-Century Public Health Achievements	397
Case Study 11: Developing a Program Intervention	407
Glossary	411
Index	437

Preface

The early decades of a new century provide a unique opportunity to reflect on where we have been and what we have accomplished as a nation and as a society. For public health, it is truly an opportunity to examine what we might call, for lack of a better phrase, a century of progress. What a spectacular century it has been!

My grandparents were children at the turn of the previous century. At that time, they lived in a young and rapidly developing nation whose 75 million people held not unreasonable hopes of a long and healthy life. They also faced an alarmingly large number of health hazards and risks that, when taken together, offered them the prospect of an average life expectancy of only approximately 47 years. Smallpox, tuberculosis, pneumonia, diphtheria, and a variety of diarrheal diseases were frequent, although unwelcome, visitors. It was not uncommon for families to bury several of their children before they reached adulthood.

By the time my parents were children in the 1920s and 1930s, a variety of economic, social, and scientific advances offered more than one additional decade of average life expectancy, even despite the massive social and economic disruption of the Great Depression. Still, tuberculosis, scarlet fever, whooping cough, measles, and other diseases were common. Fewer childhood deaths occurred, but many families still experienced one or more deaths among their children.

Members of the post–World War II Baby Boom Generation, like me and my four siblings, enjoyed the prospect of living to and even beyond the age of 65 and the so-called Golden Years. When I was a child, polio was one of the few remaining childhood infectious disease threats. Some of my most vivid childhood memories are of the mass immunization programs that took place in my hometown. Childhood deaths were an uncommon experience and more likely the result of causes other than infectious diseases.

As the 21st century unfolds, more than 310 million Americans, my children and yours, now look forward to an average life expectancy of about 80 years. Today, there are no fewer than two dozen different conditions for which immunizations are available—more than a dozen of which are recommended for use in all children—to prevent virtually all of the conditions that threatened previous generations.

Today, our children are even being immunized against cervical and liver cancers! Overall, childhood deaths have declined more than 95% from their levels a century earlier. That means that 19 of the 20 deaths that used to occur to children in this country no longer take place!

To many of us, a century seems like a long time. In the grand scheme of things, however, it is not, and it seems even shorter when we consider how lifetimes and

generations are so interconnected. Just look at the connections linking each of us with our grandparents and our children and even our children's children, each of whom held, hold, or will hold quite different expectations for their lives and health. These links and connections play critical roles when it comes to understanding the value and benefits of the work of public health. At the turn of the next century, an estimated 570 million Americans will be enjoying the fruits of public health's labors over the preceding centuries. The vast majority of the people who will benefit from what public health does are yet to be born!

As someone who has spent 15 years in public health practice and another 20 years in teaching and researching the field, I have been concerned about why those who work in the field and those who benefit from its work do not better understand something so important and useful. Throughout my career as a public health professional, I have developed a profound respect for the field, the work, and the workers. I must admit, however, that even while serving as director of a large state health department, I lacked a full understanding and appreciation of this unique enterprise.

What has become clear to me is that the story of public health is not simple to tell. There is no one official at the helm, guiding it through the turbulence that is constantly encountered. There is no clear view of its intended destination and of what work needs to be done, and by whom, to get there. We cannot turn to our family physicians, to elected officials, or even to distinguished public health officials, such as our Surgeon General, for vision and direction. Surely, these people play important roles, but public health is so broadly involved with the biologic, environmental, social, cultural, behavioral, and service utilization factors associated with health that no one is accountable for addressing everything. Still, we all share in the successes and failures of our collective decisions and actions, making us all accountable to one another for the results of these efforts. My hope is that this book presents a broad view of the public health system and deters current and future public health workers from narrowly defining public health in terms of only what they do. At its core, the purpose of this book is to describe public health simply and clearly in terms of what it is, what it does, how it works, and why it is important to all of us.

Although there is no dearth of fine books in this field, there is a shortage of understanding, appreciation, and support for public health and its various manifestations. Many of the current texts on public health attempt to be comprehensive in covering the field without the benefit of a conceptual framework understandable to insiders and outsiders alike. The dynamism and complexity of the field suggest that public health texts are likely to become even larger and more comprehensive as the field advances. In contrast, this book aims to present the basic concepts of public health practice with an emphasis on comprehensibility rather than comprehensiveness. It offers fundamental concepts but links those concepts to practice in the real world through a series of case studies that supplement and complement the main chapters.

Many of the core competencies established by the Association of Schools of Public Health for graduates of master's in public health degree programs are addressed in this book, especially those in the professionalism, leadership, systems thinking, health policy and management, and program planning categories.

Whatever wisdom might be found in this book has filtered through to me from my mentors, colleagues, coworkers, students, and friends. For those about to toil in this vineyard of challenge and opportunity, this is meant to be a primer on public health in the United States. It is a book that seeks to reduce the vast scope, endless complexities, and ever-expanding agenda to a format simple enough to be understood by first-year students and state health commissioners alike.

New to This Edition

The sixth edition of *Public Health: What It Is and How It Works* offers several new features and incorporates information on a variety of recent developments in public health practice and the health sector. Implementation of the Affordable Care Act, strategic planning, accreditation of public health organizations, and credentialing of public health workers are among the recent developments covered in this revision. Extensive information on state and local public health practice derived from national surveys conducted since 2012 is included throughout the book. Community public health practice and emergency preparedness topics have been expanded. New conceptual frameworks for the public health system, overall health system, and public health workforce have been added. Public health workforce topics have been expanded in a new chapter, and public health infrastructure topics are addressed from a management perspective. Most notably, a series of case studies constitutes the second part of the book. More than 60 new or revised charts and tables are incorporated into the new edition, and a series of “outside-the-book” thinking exercises appears in each chapter.

Acknowledgments

Many people have shaped the concepts and insights provided in this text. This book evolved from an introductory course on public health concepts and practice that I have been teaching at the University of Illinois at Chicago School of Public Health since 1991. During that time, more than 5,000 current and aspiring public health professionals have influenced the material included in this book. Their enthusiasm and expectations have challenged me to find ways to make this subject interesting and valuable to learners at all levels of their careers.

Many parts of this book rely heavily on the work of public health practitioners and public health practice organizations. Over the years, I have had the opportunity to work with public health practice leaders at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, several of whom deserve special acknowledgment for their encouragement and contributions, especially Ed Baker, Paul Halverson, and Bill Dyal. Other valuable contributions came from public health colleagues, including John Lumpkin, Chris Atchison, Laura Landrum, Judith Munson, and Patrick Lenihan. Arden Handler has long been my colleague and collaborator on many public health capacity-building projects. Emily Ahonen did a masterful job of developing the case study focusing on the aftermath of the Gulf oil spill. In several chapters, I have drawn on the work of two public health agencies at which I have worked during my career, the Illinois Department of Public Health and the Chicago Department of Public Health. The influence of some outstanding public health figures who have served as mentors and role models—Jean Pakter, Paul Peterson, Quentin Young, George Pickett, and C. Arden Miller—is also apparent in this book.

Lloyd Novick provided early encouragement and support for this undertaking, as well as useful suggestions on the scope and focus of this text. Mike Brown, Lindsey Mawhiney, and Tracey McCrea at Jones & Bartlett Learning have consistently provided valuable suggestions and guidance throughout the editing and production stages. I am grateful for the many and varied contributions from all of these sources.

About the Author

Bernard J. (Barney) Turnock, MD, MPH, is currently clinical professor of community health sciences in the School of Public Health at the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC). Since joining the UIC School of Public Health in 1990, he has also served as acting dean and associate dean for public health practice, as well as director of the Division of Community Health Sciences, director of the Center for Public Health Practice, and founder of the Illinois Public Health Preparedness Center. His major areas of interest include performance measurement, capacity building, and workforce development within the public health system. He is board certified in preventive medicine and public health and has extensive practice experience, having served as director of the Illinois Department of Public Health from 1985 to 1990, deputy commissioner and acting commissioner of the Chicago Department of Health, and state program director for Maternal and Child Health and Emergency Medical Services during his distinguished career. He has played major roles in a wide variety of public policy and public health issues in Illinois since 1978. He frequently consults on a range of public health and healthcare issues and has served as a member of the Illinois State Board of Health and as president of the Illinois Public Health Association. He is also the author of two other recently published works: *Public Health: Career Choices That Make a Difference* and *Essentials of Public Health, Third Edition*. He has received two prestigious awards from the American Public Health Association: one for excellence in health planning and practice and another for excellence in health administration. He is also a recipient of the UIC School of Public Health's "Golden Apple" award for excellence in teaching, and he was the developer and instructor for UIC's first completely online course (based on this book): Public Health Concepts and Practice—CHSC 400.

Public Health: What It Is and How It Works

The 10 chapters in Part I of this book aim to present the essentials of public health from a public health system perspective. These chapters introduce fundamental concepts and link those concepts to practice. The case studies in Part II offer a different perspective on public health practice through the lens of real-world events and challenges.

The Part I topics are essential for public health students early in their academic careers, and they have become increasingly important for students in the social and political sciences and other health professions as well. This book is intended as much for public health practitioners as it is for students. It represents the belief that public health cannot be adequately taught through a text and that it is best learned through exploration and practice of its concepts and methods. In that light, this book should be viewed as a framework for learning and understanding public health rather than the definitive catalog of its principles and practices. Its real value will be its ability to encourage thinking “outside the book.”

The first four chapters cover topics of interest to general audiences. Basic concepts underlying public health systems are presented in Chapter 1, including definitions, historical highlights, and unique features of public health. This and subsequent chapters focus largely on public health in the United States, although information on global public health and comparisons among nations appear in Chapters 2 and 3. Health and illness and the various factors that influence health and quality of life are presented from an ecological perspective in Chapter 2. This chapter also presents data and information on health status and risk factors in the United States and introduces a method for analyzing health problems to identify their precursors. Chapter 3 addresses the overall health system and its intervention strategies, with a special emphasis on trends and developments, including implementation of the Affordable Care Act, that are important to public health. This chapter highlights interfaces between public health and a rapidly changing health system. Chapter 4 examines the organization of public health responsibilities in the United States by reviewing its legal basis and the current structure of public health agencies at the federal, state, and local levels. Together, these first four chapters serve as a primer on what public health is and how it relates to health interests in modern America.

The next five chapters flesh out the skeleton of public health introduced in the first half of the book. They examine how public health does what it does, exploring issues of the inner workings of public health that are critical for the more serious students of the field. Chapter 5 reviews the core functions and essential services of public health and how these concepts organize 21st-century community public

health practice. This chapter identifies key processes or practices that operationalize public health's core functions and tools that have been developed to improve public health practice. Chapter 6 offers a comprehensive examination of the public health system's most important asset, its workforce. Chapter 7 builds on the governmental structure of American public health (from Chapter 4) and the public health workforce (from Chapter 6) and examines how the basic building blocks of the public health system, including human, informational, organizational, and fiscal resources, can be managed to improve performance. Outputs of the public health system and intervention strategies in the form of programs and services are the focus of Chapter 8. Evidence-based public health practice is examined in terms of its population-based community prevention services and clinical preventive services, and an approach to program planning and evaluation for public health interventions is presented. Chapter 9 describes the emergency preparedness and response roles of public health, including the opportunities afforded by increased public health expectations and a substantial influx of federal funding. The final chapter looks to the future of public health in the second decade of a new century and beyond, building on the lessons learned from the preceding century. Emerging problems, opportunities afforded by the expansion of collaborations and partnerships, and obstacles impeding public health responses are also examined in the concluding chapter.

Each chapter uses a variety of figures and tables to illustrate the concepts and provide useful resources for public health practitioners. A glossary of public health terminology is provided for the benefit of those unfamiliar with some of the commonly used terms, as well as to convey the intended meaning for terms that may have several different connotations in practice. Each chapter includes discussion questions and exercises, which require "outside-the-book thinking" to complement the topics presented and provide a framework for thought and discussion. These allow the text to be used more flexibly in public health courses at various levels, using different formats for learners at different levels of their training and careers.

Together, the 10 chapters in Part I offer a systems perspective to public health, grounded in a conceptual model that characterizes public health by its mission, functions, capacity, processes, and outcomes. This model is the unifying construct for this text. It provides a framework for examining and questioning the wisdom of our current investment strategy that directs 20 times more resources toward medical services than it spends for public health and prevention strategies—even though treatment strategies contributed only 5 of the 30 years of increased life expectancy at birth that have been achieved in the United States since 1900.

What Is Public Health?

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Given the historical phenomena that have shaped the development of public health responses, formulate a working definition and logic model for public health in the 21st century. Key aspects of this competency expectation include being able to

- Articulate several different definitions of public health
- Describe the origins and content of public health responses over history
- Trace the development of the public health responses system in the United States
- Broadly characterize the contributions and value of public health
- Identify three or more distinguishing features of public health
- Describe public health as a system using a logic model with inputs, processes, outputs, and results, emphasizing the role of core functions and essential public health services
- Identify five or more Internet web sites that provide useful information on the public health system in the United States

The passing of one century and the early decades of the next afford a rare opportunity to look back at where public health has been and forward to the challenges that lie ahead. Imagine a world 100 years from now where life expectancy is 30 years more and infant mortality rates are 95% lower than they are today. The average human life span would be more than 107 years, and less than one of every 2,000 infants would die before their first birthday. These seem like unrealistic expectations and unlikely achievements; yet, they are no greater than the gains realized during the 20th century in the United States. In 1900, few envisioned the century of progress in public health that lay ahead. Yet by 1925 public health leaders such as C.E.A. Winslow were noting a nearly 50% increase in life expectancy (from 36 years to 53 years) for residents of New York City between the years 1880 and 1920.¹ Accomplishments such as these caused Winslow to speculate what might be possible through widespread application of scientific knowledge. With the even more

spectacular achievements over the rest of the 20th century, we all should wonder what is possible in the century that has just begun.

This year may be remembered for many things, but it is unlikely that many people will remember it as a spectacular year for public health in the United States. No major discoveries, innovations, or triumphs set this year apart from other years in recent memory. Yet, on closer examination, maybe there were! Like the story of the wise man who invented the game of chess for his king and asked for payment by having the king place one grain of wheat on the first square of the chessboard, two on the second, four on the third, eight on the fourth, and so on, the small victories of public health over the past century have resulted in cumulative gains so vast in scope that they are difficult to comprehend.

This year, there will be nearly 900,000 fewer cases of measles reported than in 1941, 200,000 fewer cases of diphtheria than in 1921, more than 250,000 fewer cases of whooping cough than in 1934, and 21,000 fewer cases of polio than in 1951.² The early decades of the new century witnessed 50 million fewer smokers than would have been expected, given trends in tobacco use through 1965. More than 2 million Americans were alive who otherwise would have died from heart disease and stroke, and nearly 100,000 Americans were alive as a result of automobile seat belt use. Protection of the U.S. blood supply had prevented more than 1.5 million hepatitis B and hepatitis C infections and more than 50,000 human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infections, as well as more than \$5 billion in medical costs associated with these three diseases.³ Today, average blood lead levels in children are less than one-third of what they were a quarter century ago. This catalog of accomplishments could be expanded many times over. Figure 1-1 summarizes this progress, including two of the most widely followed measures of a population's health status—life expectancy and infant mortality.

These results did not occur by themselves. They came about through decisions and actions that represent the essence of what is public health. It is the story of public health and its immense value and importance in our lives that is the focus of this text. With this impressive litany of accomplishments, it would seem that public health's story would be easily told. For many reasons, however, it is not. As a result, public health remains poorly understood by its prime beneficiary—the public—as well as many of its dedicated practitioners. Although public health's results, as measured in terms of improved health status, diseases prevented, scarce resources saved, and improved quality of life, are more apparent today than ever before, society seldom links the activities of public health with its results. This suggests that the public health community must more effectively communicate what public health is and what it does, so that its results can be readily traced to their source.

This chapter is an introduction to public health that links basic concepts to practice. It considers three questions:

- What is public health?
- Where did it come from?
- Why is it important in the United States today?

To address these questions, this chapter begins with a sketch of the historical development of public health activities in the United States. It then examines

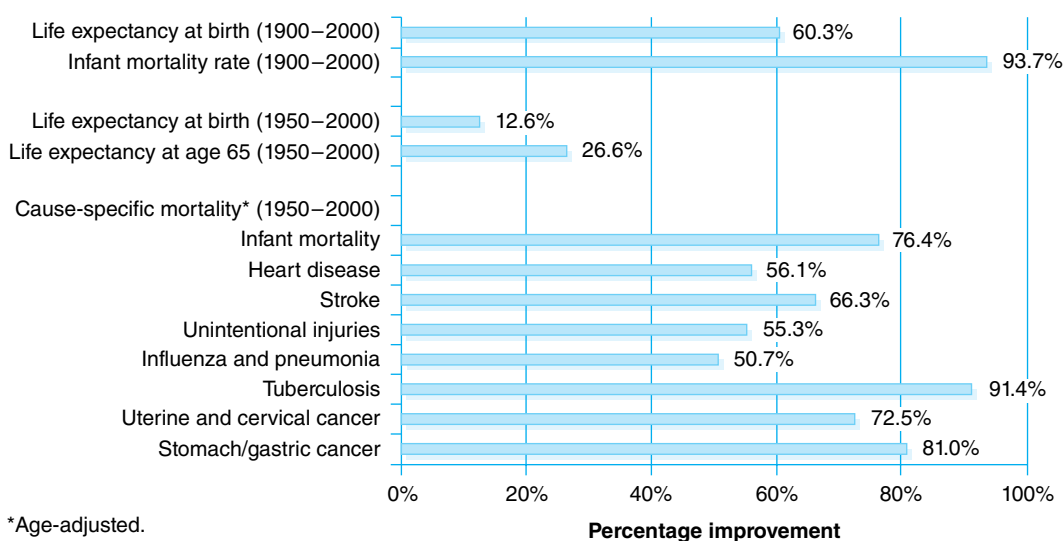


Figure 1-1 Percentage improvement in selected measures of life expectancy and age-adjusted, cause-specific mortality for the time periods 1900–2000 and 1950–2000, United States.

Data from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States 2009*. Hyattsville, MD: NCHS; 2009 and Rust G, Satcher D, Fryer GE, Levine RS, Blumenthal DS. Triangulating on success: innovation, public health, medical care, and cause-specific US mortality over a half century (1950–2000). *Am J Public Health*. 2010;100:S95–S104.

several definitions and characterizations of what public health is and explores some of its unique features. Finally, it offers insight into the value of public health in biological, economic, and human terms.

Taken together, these topics provide a foundation for understanding what public health is and why it is important. A conceptual framework that approaches public health from a systems perspective is introduced to identify the dimensions of the public health system and facilitate an understanding of the various images of public health that coexist in the United States today. We will see that, as in the story of the blind men examining the elephant, various sectors of our society have mistaken separate components of public health for the entire system.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PUBLIC HEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES

Early Influences on American Public Health

Although the complete history of public health is a fascinating saga in its own right, this section presents only selected highlights. When ancient cultures perceived illness as the manifestation of supernatural forces, they felt that little in the way of either personal or collective action was possible. For many centuries, disease was

synonymous with epidemic. Diseases, including horrific epidemics of infectious diseases such as the Black Death (plague), leprosy, and cholera, were phenomena to be accepted. It was not until the so-called Age of Reason and the Enlightenment that scholarly inquiry began to challenge the “givens” or accepted realities of the time. Eventually expansion of the science and knowledge base would reap substantial rewards.

With the advent of industrialism and imperialism, the stage was set for epidemic diseases to increase their terrible toll. As populations shifted to urban centers for the purpose of commerce and industry, public health conditions worsened. The mixing of dense populations living in unsanitary conditions and working long hours in unsafe and exploitative industries with wave after wave of cholera, smallpox, typhoid, tuberculosis, yellow fever, and other diseases was a formula for disaster. Such disaster struck again and again across the globe, but most seriously and most often at the industrialized seaport cities that provided the portal of entry for diseases transported as stowaways alongside commercial cargo. The experience, and subsequent susceptibility, of different cultures to these diseases partly explains how relatively small bands of Europeans were able to overcome and subjugate vast Native American cultures. Seeing the Europeans unaffected by scourges such as smallpox served to reinforce beliefs that these light-skinned visitors were supernatural figures, unaffected by natural forces.⁴

The British colonies in North America and the new American republic certainly bore their share of the burden. American diaries of the 17th and 18th centuries chronicle one infectious disease onslaught after another. These epidemics left their mark on families, communities, and even history. For example, the national capital had to be moved out of Philadelphia because of a devastating yellow fever epidemic in 1793. This epidemic also prompted the city to develop its first board of health in that same year.

The formation of local boards of distinguished citizens, the first boards of health, was one of the earliest organized responses to epidemics. This response was revealing in that it represented an attempt to confront disease collectively. Because science had not yet determined that specific microorganisms were the causes of epidemics, avoidance had long been the primary tactic used. Avoidance meant evacuating the general location of the epidemic until it subsided or isolating diseased individuals or those recently exposed to diseases on the basis of a mix of fear, tradition, and scientific speculation. Several developments, however, were swinging the pendulum ever closer to more effective counteractions.

The work of public health pioneers such as Edward Jenner, John Snow, and Edwin Chadwick illustrates the value of public health, even when its methods are applied amidst scientific uncertainty. Well before Koch's postulates established scientific methods for linking bacteria with specific diseases and before Pasteur's experiments helped to establish the germ theory, both Jenner and Snow used deductive logic and common sense to do battle with smallpox and cholera, respectively. In 1796, Jenner successfully used vaccination for a disease that ran rampant through communities across the globe. This was the initial shot in a long and arduous campaign that, by the year 1977, had totally eradicated smallpox from all of its human hiding places in every country in the world. The potential for its reemergence

through the actions of terrorists is a topic left to a fuller discussion of public health emergency preparedness and response.

Snow's accomplishments even further advanced the art and science of public health. In 1854, Snow traced an outbreak of cholera to the well water drawn from the pump at Broad Street and helped to prevent hundreds, perhaps thousands, of cholera cases. In that same year, he demonstrated that another large outbreak could be traced to one particular water company that drew its water from the Thames River, downstream from London, and that another company that drew its water upstream from London was not linked with cholera cases. In both efforts, Snow's ability to collect and analyze data allowed him to determine causation, which, in turn, allowed him to implement corrective actions that prevented additional cases. All of this occurred without benefit of the knowledge that there was an odd-shaped little bacterium that was carried in water and spread from person to person by hand-to-mouth contact!

England's General Board of Health conducted its own investigations of these outbreaks and concluded that air, rather than contaminated water, was the cause.⁵ Its approach, however, was one of collecting a vast amount of information and accepting only that which supported its view of disease causation. Snow, on the other hand, systematically tested his hypothesis by exploring evidence that ran contrary to his initial expectations.

Chadwick was a more official leader of what has become known as the sanitary movement of the latter half of the 19th century. In a variety of official capacities, he played a major part in structuring government's role and responsibilities for protecting the public's health. Because of the growing concern over the social and sanitary conditions in England, a National Vaccination Board was established in 1837. Shortly thereafter, Chadwick's *Report on an Inquiry into the Sanitary Conditions of the Laboring Population of Great Britain* articulated a framework for broad public actions that served as a blueprint for the growing sanitary movement. One result was the establishment in 1848 of a General Board of Health. Interestingly, Chadwick's interest in public health had its roots in Jeremy Bentham's utilitarian movement. For Chadwick, disease was viewed as causing poverty, and poverty was responsible for the great social ills of the time, including societal disorder and high taxation to provide for the general welfare.⁶ Public health efforts were necessary to reduce poverty and its wider social effects. This view recognizes a link between poverty and health, although in an opposite direction to current thinking as to the social determinants of health and role of fundamental causes of societal ills. Today, it is more common to consider poor health as a result of poverty, rather than as its cause.

Chadwick was also a key participant in the partly scientific, partly political debate that took place in British government as to whether deaths should be attributed to pathological conditions or to their underlying factors, such as hunger and poverty. It was Chadwick's view that pathologic, as opposed to less proximal social and behavioral, factors should be the basis for classifying deaths.⁶ Chadwick's arguments prevailed, although aspects of this debate continue to the present day. William Farr, sometimes called the father of modern vital statistics, championed the opposing view.

OUTSIDE-THE-BOOK THINKING 1-1

Access the website of the national honorary society for public health (www.deltaomega.org) and select one of the classic documents available there. Then describe the significance of this classic in the history of public health and its relevance for public health practitioners today.

In the latter half of the 19th century, as sanitation and environmental engineering methods evolved, more effective interventions became available against epidemic diseases. Further, the scientific advances of this period paved the way for modern disease control efforts targeting specific microorganisms.

Growth of Local and State Public Health Activities in the United States

Lemuel Shattuck's *Report of the Sanitary Commission of Massachusetts* in 1850 outlined existing and future public health needs for that state and became America's roadmap for development of a public health system. Shattuck called for the establishment of state and local health departments to organize public efforts aimed at sanitary inspections, communicable disease control, food sanitation, vital statistics, and services for infants and children. Although Shattuck's report closely paralleled Chadwick's efforts in Great Britain, acceptance of his recommendations did not occur for several decades. In the latter part of the century, his farsighted and far-reaching recommendations came to be widely implemented. With greater understanding of the value of environmental controls for water and sewage and of the role of specific control measures for specific diseases (including quarantine, isolation, and vaccination), the creation of local health agencies to carry out these activities supplemented—and, in some cases, supplanted—local boards of health. These local health departments developed rapidly in the seaports and other industrial urban centers, beginning with a health department in Baltimore in 1798, because these were the settings where the problems were reaching unacceptable levels.

Because infectious and environmental hazards are no respecters of local jurisdictional boundaries, states began to develop their own boards and agencies after 1870. These agencies often had very broad powers to protect the health and lives of state residents, although the clear intent at the time was that these powers be used to battle epidemics of infectious diseases. In examining how law impacts governmental public health roles, we will revisit these powers and duties because they serve as both a stimulus and a limitation for what can be done to address many contemporary public health issues and problems.

Federal Public Health Activities in the United States

This sketch of the development of public health in the United States would be incomplete without a brief introduction to the roles and powers of the federal government. Federal health powers, at least as enumerated in the U.S. Constitution, are minimal. It is surprising to some to learn that the word "health" does not even

appear in the Constitution. As a result of not being a power explicitly granted to the federal government (such as defense, foreign diplomacy, international and interstate commerce, or printing money), health was a power to be exercised by states or reserved to the people themselves.

Two sections of the Constitution have been interpreted over time to allow for federal roles in health, in concert with the concept of the so-called implied powers necessary to carry out explicit powers. These are the ability to tax in order to provide for the “general welfare” (a phrase appearing in both the preamble and body of the Constitution) and the specific power to regulate commerce, both international and interstate. These provisions allowed the federal government to establish a beachhead in health, initially through the Marine Hospital Service (eventually to become the Public Health Service). After the ratification of the 16th Amendment in 1916, authorizing a national income tax, the federal government acquired the ability to raise substantial sums of money, which could then be directed toward promoting the general welfare. The specific means to this end were a variety of grants-in-aid to state and local governments. Beginning in the 1960s, federal grant-in-aid programs designed to fill gaps in the medical care system nudged state and local governments further and further into the business of medical service provision. Federal grant programs for other social, substance abuse, mental health, and community prevention services soon followed. The expansion of federal involvement into these areas, however, was not accomplished by these means alone.

Prior to 1900, and perhaps not until the Great Depression, Americans did not believe that the federal government should intervene in their social circumstances. Social values shifted dramatically during the Depression, a period of such great social insecurity and need that the federal government was now permitted—indeed, expected—to intercede. Other chapters will expand on the growth of the federal government’s influence on public health activities and its impact on the activities of state and local governments.

OUTSIDE-THE-BOOK THINKING 1-2

Research the history of public health in your state or locality and then describe how public health strategies and responses have changed over time. What influences were most responsible for these changes? Does this suggest that public health roles and functions have changed over time, as well?

To explain more easily the broad trends of public health in the United States, it is useful to delineate distinct eras in its history. One simple scheme, outlined in Table 1-1, uses the years 1850, 1950, and 2000 as approximate dividers. Prior to 1850, the system was characterized by recurrent epidemics of infectious diseases, with little in the way of collective response possible. During the sanitary movement in the second half of the 19th and first half of the 20th century, science-based control measures were organized and deployed through a public health infrastructure that was developing in the form of local and state health departments. After 1950, gaps in the medical care system and federal grant dollars acted together to increase