

## Monitoring health in central and eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union

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Since the political transition in central and eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, much has been written about the health situation in this region. There is now a much better understanding of the factors underlying the stagnation in mortality that occurred in central Europe in the 1980s (Chenet et al. 1996) as well as the reasons for its improvement in the 1990s (Dolea et al. 2002). Similarly, there is a much clearer appreciation of the immediate causes of the continuing mortality crisis in many of the countries of the former Soviet Union, and in particular the key role played by alcohol (Shkolnikov et al. 2001). Rather less is, however, known about measures other than mortality. For example, while it has been shown that older Russian women experience high levels of poor self-reported health, so that despite living longer than their male counterparts, they have almost the same expectation of healthy life (Andreev et al. 2003), we know very little about why this is the case. And while it is straightforward to track trends in individual causes of death, where appropriate using sophisticated analytic methods to disentangle age, period and cohort effects (Varasovszky et al. 1997), in many countries little is known about what has happened to the risk factors that might explain these changes. This lack of information poses a major problem. Life expectancy in the eight central European countries that joined the European Union in 2004 still lags far behind that in their western European neighbours. On present trends it will take twenty or more years for the gap to close (McKee et al. 2004). If this process is to be accelerated, it will be essential to implement policies that tackle the underlying causes of the diseases that are killing people prematurely. The problem is even greater in many parts of the former Soviet Union, where life expectancy continues to decline (McMichael et al. 2004). In many cases there is clear evidence about what is likely to work. Yet without good information on levels of exposure, how will we know if we are succeeding? Further-

more, experience from western countries shows how, when health promoting policies are introduced, it is often those who are already advantaged who benefit most (Mackenbach et al. 2003). Without adequate information on the distribution of risk factors, and how it is changing, there is a danger that health inequalities that have already grown since transition will widen further (Leinsalu et al. 2003).

Compared with many parts of the world, this region has many advantages, although on closer inspection, there are also some problems. There are functioning systems for recording births and deaths and for monitoring population through censuses. Many work well but some have major weaknesses, especially in areas afflicted by conflict (Bozicevic et al. 2001), and there is evidence of a deterioration in some places, especially in central Asia (Rechel et al. 2005). This region has inherited a network of sanitary-epidemiological facilities that should, in theory, be able to provide the basis for an effective surveillance system. Yet in many countries these facilities have suffered from a long period of under-investment, with outdated equipment and few people trained in modern epidemiological methods. As a consequence, in many places the service has become essentially corrupt.

What needs to happen? To begin with, it is important to recognise that there is enormous diversity in this region. Some countries, such as Hungary, have invested substantially in developing a modern public system (McKee 2005). Elsewhere, it has not been seen as a priority. As a consequence, even if a decision was taken today to develop an effective surveillance system, some countries would not be in a position to do so. It is, however, straightforward to identify what is needed.

The elements of a comprehensive health surveillance system flow from a consideration of the pathways from health to disease. One element looks at trends in disease, assessed both

through fatalities, from mortality records, and the occurrence of disease, with sentinel surveillance and systems for notifying events such as infections or congenital malformations. Another looks at the determinants of disease, assessed by, for example, regular health and lifestyle surveys. Then there is monitoring of the course of disease, utilising disease and cancer registers.

There are many examples where individual elements have been put in place. Many countries have participated in a series of international monitoring activities, such as the World Health Organization's MONICA and CINDI programmes and the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children surveys (HBSC). The three Baltic States have benefited from the series of FINNBALT surveys that have tracked changing lifestyles during the transition (Kasmel et al. 2004). The Lifestyles, Living Conditions and Health surveys, conducted in eight former Soviet republics, also provide valuable comparative information on a range of health-related behaviours (Gilmore et al. 2004), as illustrated by the paper by Cockerham et al. in the precedent issue of SPM (2005). While its main purpose was not to monitor health, the successive waves of the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey have provided a valuable means of tracking health and lifestyles during the transition (Cockerham 2000). In Hungary, an imaginative collaboration between the School of Public Health and the national Public Health Service has created a system of sentinel surveillance, making it possible to assess the ex-

tent of previously unrecorded illness in the population using explicit case definitions (Szeles et al. 2005). Also in Hungary, important findings from the 2002 health behaviour survey are now being reported, with two examples reported in this and a following issue of SPM (Szanto et al. 2005; Konerding et al. 2005). A report in a former issue of SPM describes one of the many innovations that are being developed in the region, a telephone-based risk factor surveillance programme (Schmid et al. 2005).

Unfortunately, among these achievements, there have been some setbacks, most notably the ill-conceived application of data protection legislation that has damaged the operation of some long-standing cancer registries (Rahu & McKee 2003) and which has limited the scope to examine, for example, the health needs of minorities, such as the already disadvantaged Roma population (Koupilová et al. 2001).

Over the past 15 years, many countries in this region have made a successful transition to modern market economies. However, economic growth will not be sufficient on its own to improve health (McKee & Suhrcke 2005). Elsewhere, the situation is much less hopeful. Yet almost everywhere there is a need for a renewed effort to build the systems that will make it possible for countries to monitor and enhance the health of their populations.

**Martin McKee**

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