

"A. ŠTAMPAR" SCHOOL OF PUBLIC HEALTH,
MEDICAL SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB
ZAGREB

INSTITUTE FOR ORGANIZATION
AND ECONOMICS OF HEALTH
ZAGREB

as members of

CENTRE FOR HEALTH COOPERATION WITH
NON-ALIGNED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
Z A G R E B

Project: Continuing education for primary health care

SCIENTIFIC ASPECTS OF THE PROJECT

Zagreb, January 1985

SCIENTIFIC ASPECTS OF THE PROJECTS

"CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR PRIMARY HEALTH CARE"

In the project: "Continuing education for primary health care" being implemented by the Medical School, through its "Andrija Štampar" School of Public Health, and the Institute for Organization and Economics of Health in collaboration with the Japanese Agency for International Cooperation, a very important part refers to scientific-research aspects, for the following main reasons:

1. The Project enters into a field which is completely new for our health system due to the restricted possibilities for applying modern technology. That is why the application of this technology is to be subjected to scientific evaluation.

2. It is a field which is not sufficiently explored, concerning the main tasks of the conception of the primary health care system as well as practical and technical aspects of its application.

3. It is an entirely new Project in continuing education and there is no positive experience which might be applied. That is why scientific analyses are required of all aspects which might contribute to the development and/or the revision of the system.

In a wider sense, scientific aspects of the Project are important also for the following reasons:

4. Since the Project has the international importance it is indispensable to develop its scientific aspects in order to insure not only the transfer of the present technology but also its further improvement, realized by proper resources and forces.

5. The Project supports the intentions of our scientific policy tending to build up such technical and scientific capacities that will enable us to follow very fast development of the new scientific fields, such as information of communication and expert systems in medical, social and other activities.

In this field our general underdevelopment is obvious, while at the same time technical development is going on fastly. Consequently,

scientific evaluation of the new aspects of social (selfmanaging) and other conditions for implementation of the new system becomes very important.

6. Social system and other conditions (tradition of the work in primary health care) offer objective possibilities for the realization of creative, scientific contribution to the improvement of the continuous education in the field that the Project referes to.

That is why the research project is suggested to be made, the summary of which is enclosed herewith.

S U M M A R Y
OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

"RESEARCH OF THE NEW TECHNOLOGIES OF MEDICAL EVALUATION AND
DECISION MAKING IN PRIMARY HEALTH CARE"

Goals of the research

With the development of new technologies in communication and information with its application in medical decision making some critical points appeared, which requires further research actions, since they could offer no reliable scientific facts, and the experience gained so far cannot satisfy new needs and possibilities.

Therefore, the goals of research can be defined as follows:

1. To establish the social interest and motivative aspects of application of the new technology in communication information handling.
2. To estimate the importance of various media (audio-visual, computer and others) for communication in primary health care.
3. To estimate the importance and possibilities for applying the expert systems for medical decision making in primary health care.

Main tasks of the research

The Project will develop the system of feed back information in primary health care. It is foreseen that a dynamic technical background to the health system is created, that can be qualified as an "intelligent" (in the sense of expert systems) technological support to practice. This support, which is to be based on real (not supposed) technical problems met in everyday practice, will enable deep and efficient analyses of these problems, applying the knowledge and experience of the most developed scientific institutions. The results of these analyses will be transferred to practice by the most efficient and stimulating media, and their effects will be continuously controlled, what will result in further development of the system.

The system of continuing education must not be considered as a system for distribution of the existing knowledge but it makes an active part of

the cybernetic control. Actually, the main task of the research is to introduce a system of continuing education which is completely different from the existing practice and the extended attitudes.

According to the studies done in this field one can identify four main elements (subsystems) in the continuing education subsystem:

A. Subsystem of the active participants in the health system, which are at the same time main subjects and users of the system of continuing education;

B. Subsystem of communications (interphase) between the center for continuing education and the users;

C. Subsystem of medical decision making, comprising specific expert systems applied in primary health care, and formation of knowledge bases required in continuing education;

D. Subsystem evaluating the performance of the Project.

Each of the subsystem is subject to changes, which result in new prospects and enable to reach new synthesis and solutions of the existing problems. Still, they have also to be treated as a unique system if we wish these solutions to be original and creative.

For example, all below stated problems require new solutions:

- In the subsystem of users the conception of the primary health care is changing, subjects which are outside of the system of medicine play more and more active part in the system, there are differences in ways of providing primary health care, our system of joint companies on social-economic and interest basis is a very specific one. These problems directly influence not only the implementation of the continuing education Project, but also its main goals, concerning technical solutions, forms, etc.

- Very little is known about the subsystem of communications in public health, although there are many papers dealing with spreading of innovations, specially new drugs and other technology. Still, it is well known that various new methods of communication becomes more and more actual in health care practice. Modern technology enables the replacement of some methods of interpersonal communication, traditionally dominating in our health system. For example, modern video techniques are probably very important for the improvement of medical diagnostics. Still, we know only a little about the range of these changes and their importance.

- In the subsystem of medical decision making the attempts trying to define specificities of primary health care, which becomes more and more dominated by specialized, so called high medical technology which are considered very actual and important. Although, when this problem is in question primary health care is only an example for the same situation in many other social activities. The problem might arise till the statement saying that this is only a period of evolution, when actual practice is being neglected because of domination of specialized teoretical patterns. For example, the integration of pshyhological, somatic and social aspects of health and illness, which is of prime importance in primary health care, nowadays is in a great degree broken due to psychiatric, social-medical and a great number of other paradigmas of specialized disciplines in medicine.

Methods of scientific research:

The requirements for a new knowledge and experience will be analysed on the sample of about 200 primary health units. Differences of interests, needs and reactions will be observed in different groups, with regard to the type of the applied primary health care /for example: regions, village-town, local community, working organizations etc.).

Upon these analyses the problems will be worked out and solutions will try to be found, which will then be transferred by different media back to the operating units.

The influence of the different communication media to the transfer of knowledge will be analysed, trying to find out the most efficient solutions of the established problems.

Through the analyses of the described process, the most suitable expet systems will try to be defined, which would then be corrected and improved in further development of the system of continuing education.

It is expected that this new education system will required formation of experimental knowledge bases, organized in a completely new way.

Finally, when estimating the extent to which the Project has been applied and analysing factors influencing this application and models of system implementation, and when estimating its economic and organization characteristics contraints including the relation between technology and organization, it will be necessary to analyse the realization of the Project plans and to evaluate the results achieved.

The Project is planned to be realized in five years, but the most significant creative scientific contribution will be required in the first half of its implementation.

| Nos. | Description of Goods | Quantity |
|------|---|----------|
| 1. | Portable Overhead Projector 220V, Model: 615 | 1 unit |
| 2. | TP Art Kit for OHP | 1 set |
| 3. | Blank Sheet for OHP Size: A4, 100 sheets/set | 1 set |
| 4. | Spare Lamp for OHP, 24V-250W | 10 pcs. |
| 5. | Water Pen for OHP, 6 colors/set | 5 sets |
| 6. | Oil Pen for OHP, 6 colors/set | 5 sets |
| 7. | Teaching Materials for OHP (TP) | 1 set |
| 8. | Plug Set (Table Tap & Plug) | 1 set |
| 9. | Screen for OHP, Size: 1,500x1,500mm Model: HW-3 | 1 pc. |
| 10. | VHS Video Tape Recorder PAL/SECOM/NTSC, Model: BR-6400TR | 1 unit |
| 11. | 14-inch Color Monitor PAL/SECOM/NTSC, Model: VM-14PSN | 1 unit |
| 12. | Color Camera(PAL), Model: GX-N7E | 1 unit |
| 13. | Portable VHS Video Tape Recorder(PAL) Model: BR-6200EG | 1 unit |
| 14. | AC Adapter(220V), Model: AA-P26EG | 1 pc. |
| 15. | Battery Pack, Model: NB-P1 | 3 pcs. |
| 16. | Connector Cable | 1 set |
| 17. | VHS Video Tape, Model: T-60HG | 10 pcs. |

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Project: CONTINUING EDUCATION
FOR PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

ELECTRONIC (VIDEO AND COMPUTER) ASSISTED
CONTINUING EDUCATION IN HEALTH CARE

S U M M A R Y

OF THE GENESIS, RECENT AND FUTURE ACTIVITIES OF
THE PROJECT

Zagreb, July 1985

I. Genesis of the project, main goals and tasks

The health care of every nation is considered as the integral part of its development and needs.

For the implementation of health care it is necessary to have a qualified and well trained health personnel (manpower). For the education of this personnel undergraduate training does not suffice but of greater importance is the so-called continuing postgraduate education.

That is why continuing education of health workers is considered as the key instrument for a better quality of health care as well as for the improvement of the health status as the prerequisite of every economic and social development of any country.

Those were motivating factors according to which the Agreement between the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Japan for cooperation in the field of scientific technology was signed in Tokyo on 22 May 1981 and which included the implementation of the first programme on bilateral scientific-technical cooperation in the field of health devoted to this theme.

During the preparation phase from 1981-1984, after several visits of the Japanese delegations organized by JICA and one visit of Yugoslav experts, all details of the project were worked out, including its education of professional components, organizational, technical and financial elements, etc.

The corresponding partner from the Yugoslav side is the Federal Administration for international, scientific, cultural-educational and technical cooperation which, through the Republic Administration for Technical Cooperation, has carried out all legal-organizational and technical issues so that during November 1984 the Record of discussion was signed between the Japanese implementation survey team and the authorities concerned of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia on the Japanese cooperation for the project of continuing education for primary health care.

The executive institutions from the Yugoslav side are members of the Centre for cooperation with non-aligned and developing countries in the field of health and primarily the Medical School, University of Zagreb, through its A. Štampar School of Public Health and the Institute for organization and economics of health. The other members of the Centre are also joining the project gradually.

The principal investigator of the project is Professor Želimir Jakšić and the Director of the project is Dr Berislav Skupnjak. For the implementation of the project a joint Yugoslav-Japanese committee has been formed as well as several technical groups and commissions (boards) from the Yugoslav side.

II. Goals and tasks of the project and way of implementation

The main goal of the project has been jointly defined: "set up and apply in practice a system of continuing education of health workers especially in primary health care by applying electronic (video and computer) technology. It is expected that the continuing education of health workers will improve the quality of health care. It is further expected that this will contribute to the development of educational technology and exchange of experiences in this field between the two countries".

This joint work is considered as very significant for the cooperation between the two countries and as a condition for international friendship and understanding.

That is why within the general and professional cooperation between Japan and Yugoslavia in the field of health the focus was placed on the exchange of experiences and achievements in the health care system of both countries.

Furthermore, a permanent professional and technical cooperation between the two health systems will be established as well as the exchange of experiences in audio-visual and computer assisted educational systems between the two countries, transferring it further on.

One of the immediate goals is to form a Centre for production and distribution of educational material for continuing education, to start with the production of these educational materials and to organize groups of users according to certain prerequisites.

Full attention will be given to elaboration and ap-

plication of a model for the follow-up and evaluation of such a form of continuing education using scientific methods of work.

The users of the project will be all health workers on different levels of health care but also certain groups of population in the community.

Primary users are, however, health workers in primary health care.

That is why a system has been worked out to set up the so-called network of units for continuing health care from certain locations (educational units) where production materials will be installed so that the entire area of the Socialist Republic of Croatia will be covered.

Besides, this network is worked out in such a way that it will cover all types of institutions, all kinds of health care, all profiles of health workers, urban and rural areas, etc.

All this is foreseen in the so-called Master Plan and Plan of implementation.

It has been agreed that every year an annual plan of work is submitted, which has already been done for the first of the 5 years of the project implementation.

The educational material will be worked out in accordance with defined goals of education which are subordinated to priority needs and demands of users.

As media video tapes will be used as well as computer-programme packages. An audio-visual journal and an electronic library are also foreseen.

It was especially pointed out that a scientific evaluation programme of the whole undertaking will be elaborated.

Evaluation will be performed not only on explicitly scientific methods but it will also be based on (ensuring) the so-called feed back from users.

That is why in the implementation of the project will be included not only members of the working team of the project but also all health workers in the health system of our Republic, several administrative bodies and several scientific institutions. Technical, legal and organizational coordination is executed by the Administration for Technical Cooperation of the SR of Croatia while the coordination for the health sector in the administrative sense is conducted by the Republic Committee for health and social welfare, and in the institutional sense by the Association of health work organizations of the SR of Croatia.

III. Implementation of the project - summary of recent activities

1. The involvement of partners

The main task in the preparation for the implementation of the project was the involvement of future users of continuous educational services as partners in the organization of the system. Three strategies have been applied:

- to get formal political support
- to involve future users in organization of the project structure
- to involve future users and other contributors to the system (experts, research and other institutions, etc.) in designing the functions and contents of the

system.

To achieve this the following activities have been accomplished:

- the four Republic committees (equivalent to Ministry) have been informed about the project and asked to consider its importance. All of them have been contacted personally and the essential documentation was supplied. In several occasions additional information was given in meetings with highest officials. All of them have responded, analysed the main implications of the project and issued formal statements underlining the great importance of the project. These have been the:

- Committee for health and social welfare
- Committee for education, culture and physical culture
- Committee for science, technology and informatics
- Administration for technical cooperation

- Besides that, the Chairman of the Executive Committee (the Prime Minister of the Government) was informed about the project and gave his support,

- The socio-political organizations have been informed, including responsible individuals and groups in the republic authorities of the Trade Unions, Socialist Alliance of the Working People and Alliance of Communists,

- The main partner, the Association of the health work organizations was involved in building the network in the field and organizing the first contribution in financial and material support for the project. Besides, the contribution in identification of needs for continuous educations was achieved. In two meetings of the Presidency of the Association the project

was discussed as well as in several regional meetings. A "Self-managing contract" for participation of users was conceived and is now under discussion in the field. The formal acceptance of that contract is time-consuming and connected with some administrative difficulties (it has to be discussed and accepted by more than 300 individual subjects). However, the initial acceptance of the project by the work organizations is encouraging.

During the exhibition "Medicine and Technology" (May 1985) a special symposium was organized to inform participants and collect their opinions and suggestions. The Project's scientific and research aspects were formulated and a proposal was submitted to the Self-managing Community of Interest for science of the SR of Croatia. Supported by the recommendation of the Republic Committee for Science, Technology and Informatics this proposal was accepted and a financial contribution has been granted opening the possibilities for future support from this side.

Many other organizations have been contacted and a partnership was considered (e.g. Radio-television, the educational television programme, the Film producing enterprises, the film educational unit, different units of the University). Besides that, a number of health institutions and the main research and scientific institutions have been involved as well.

- Regularly scheduled scientific and technical meetings of professional and other organizations have been used to propagate the project, involve interested, and get advice and suggestions for the organization of the project. Among others, the Congress of General Practitioners of Yugoslavia (Bled, May 1985) was important.

2. Technical preparations

The technical preparations of the team was considered to be one of the most important activities, although it was slowed down by financial, organizational and managerial problems.

The following was accomplished:

- a symbol, format (in principle) and way of application were developed by the working group;
- the script for videospot on the project was proposed, discussed and agreed upon in general terms;
- several tentative scenarios on the most frequent problems of health workers in primary health care have been written and discussed;
- an international symposium on the training of teachers in general medical practice (Inter-University Centre, Dubrovnik) has been used to gain experience in developing skills in using video-system in training;
- further opportunities for extension of technical aspects of the project have been considered.

3. Organization of work and preparation of facilities

The organization of the working group started as it was envisaged by the Plan of Action. This includes:

- contracts among the participating institutions,
- staff planning, job description and recruitment (one computer expert and video manager - unsuccessfully so far),

- preparation of space for the future central studio, including:

- construction works on the building
- moving present tenants
- elaboration of construction and other plans in order to start works on 1 August as was planned.

4. Future activities

The future activities are foreseen in the Plan of Action on which Japanese and Yugoslav working group agreed upon. As the main activities the following will be included:

- training of two experts in Japan starting 1 August;
- another additional training of an expert in Japan later during the year;
- starting with construction work of the premises for the TV studio;
- further activities in propagating the system among the users;
- further financial arrangements;
- the joint work with a group of Japanese experts in the methodology of education, as well as the sampling and evaluation techniques for the purpose of the project.

5. Estimate situation, problems and difficulties

So far the foreseen plans have been successfully fulfilled. A stimulating permanent interest from the Japanese side is very much appreciated, as well as direct help in solving many technical problems. The support of the governmental organizations in the SR of Croatia and the expressed and active interest of the future users (health services in Croatia) was rewarding and helped the fulfilment of the Project Plan of Action.

The main difficulties experienced so far are:

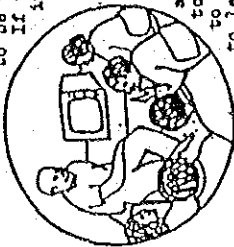
- slow mobilization of financial resources;
- experts in several fields of project, technical activities i.e. computer sciences, some special aspects of video production - in short supply in the country;
- insufficient support by information on similar projects already working in other countries.

stead by computer technology. Regional educational units will be able to use this programme on their microprocessors, as well as any other institution possessing a microprocessor.

WHO CAN USE EDUCATIONAL MATERIAL AND HOW?

Educational material is expected to be used by all members of educational teams in primary health care and in other health organizations.

If some material is made specially for doctors, or nurses, or population it will be explicitly stated in the enclosed form. The material can be used individually, but it is suggested to be worked out in small groups.



If there is a problem set up in educational material the group is expected to solve it. Consequently, every working organization (included in the network) which want to be actively included into the system will have its own problems and experience, will have to find a person qualified to handle the equipment and to lead the groups.

The required equipment will be distributed to the educational units according to the distribution scheme made by the Association of the Health Work Organizations Socialist Republic Croatia (in the name of its members - health working organizations).

HOW TO JOIN THE SYSTEM?

Health working organizations of the Socialist Republic of Croatia, through Health Work Organizations Set the right and take the obligation to join the new system of continuing education.

It is foreseen that the equipment will be received and distributed in the course of 1985, while the system will start functioning in the first half of 1986. Full capacity is expected to be reached in a year and a half from starting.

The Health Work Organizations of the Socialist Republic Croatia is authorised to carry out all actions in connection with the inclusion of health working organizations into the system.

ADVANTAGES OF THE NEW SYSTEM

According to professional and social opinion the new system offers significant advantages and will surely contribute to better information and communication and to more efficient work in primary health care and then gradually in the health system in general.

It will help us to overcome the enormous technical backwardness in our health education and will bring us closer to the new technology.

The system remains in the hands of users, its main principle being to achieve a balance in spreading technical informations, keeping always to the method "from practice to practice".

The experience of some other countries confirm that the proposed system might overcome almost all defects of the present system of continuing education: inadequate subjects, communication methods and the organization of work.

FURTHER INFORMATIONS AND COLLABORATION

The executive institutions of the Project:

Andrija Stampar School of Public Health, Medical School, University of Zagreb, and

Institute for Organization Economics of Health, Zagreb as members of

Centre for Health Cooperation with Non-aligned and Developing Countries, Zagreb

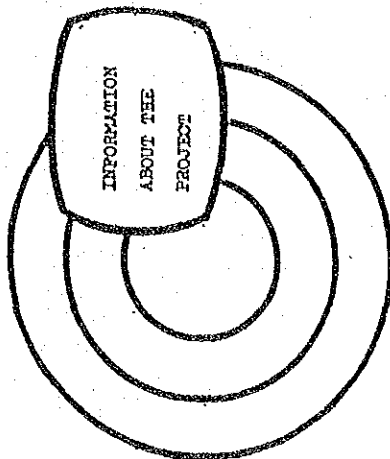
Address: Educational Media Center

41000 ZAGREB

Ročekofallerova 4

THIS IS YOUR SYSTEM.
SO PLEASE JOIN IT SOONEST
POSSIBLE AND HELP ITS
REALIZATION.

CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR PRIMARY HEALTH CARE ASSISTED BY ELECTRONIC TECHNOLOGY



A new possibility appeared for health to be included into the broad system of modern communications, based on its own needs and experience, which will greatly improve the information and the quality of work in primary health care and in the health system in general.

Zagreb, May 1985

CONTINUING EDUCATION IS INDISPENSABLE IF WE WISH TO HAVE HIGHLY PROFESSIONAL AND EFFICIENT HEALTH WORKERS

There are well known statements about importance of continuing education ("medicine is a lifelong study"). Nobody tries to deny them, these statements being supported by public, legal and professional opinion. Still, in the last decades new theories appeared, stating that the existing system is not very efficient, the obtained results being very often worse than expected. In spite of significant interest shown in advance, some lectures and professional meetings remain unattended while only a small number of health workers regularly provide technical literature.

POSSIBLE CAUSES FOR RELATIVE FAILURE OF THE FORMER SYSTEMS

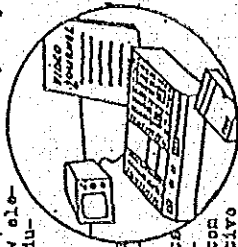
- In numerous background materials and symposia they tried to find out possible reasons for relative failure of the present system of continuing education (for example, Symposium of the Academy of Doctors Association, Professional Associations, Medical School, Trade Union of Health Workers, Association of the Health Work Organizations, etc.).
- Mostly, the following reasons were mentioned:
 - Subjects are in great part unsuitable, because they do not treat the problems important for everyday practice.
 - Educational methods are nothing else but passive listening or reading.
 - Mostly theoretical and verbal teaching is applied and very often those who speak about some problems have no experience at all in the problems which the attendees meet in their everyday practice.

- The existing organization offers no possibility for regular training and does not stimulate active participation of the attendants.

Using all these analyses and the experience of those who have well organized system of continuing education, Medical School in Zagreb and the Institute for Organization and Economics of Health Zagreb, in collaboration with the Association of Health Work Organization of the Socialist Republic Croatia, supported by collaboration with Japan, have started the project of continuing education for primary health care. Owing to the agreement between the Government of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the Government of Japan there is a possibility to provide from Japan the equipment necessary for development of the regular system of continuing education, assisted by electronic technology. Japanese Government will deliver the equipment for Educational Media Center (EMC) where educational material will be worked out as well as 50 reproduction units to be installed in local institutions, included in so called network of units in primary health care covering the entire territory of the Socialist Republic of Croatia.

HOW DOES THE NEW SYSTEM WORK?

The educational units for reproduction of the educational video materia (recorder, monitor and portable stand) will be delivered to the health working organization in the Socialist Republic of Croatia, which is ready to join the system of a new electronic assisted education. In that way



Medical Centers, Primary Health Care Centres, Public Health Institutions and other organizations will set up the network of units for continuing education. The new system is based on the active part of all participants and on their own experience, examples and problems they meet in everyday practice. Therefore, four regional reproduction units are planned to be set up. Machines being equipped not only with equipment for reproduction but also with the equipment for shooting in the field (camera, etc.) for shooting in examinations or in homes of the users of health care.

Central studio will be placed in Educational Media Center (EMC) of Medical School, in the Andrija Stampar School of Public Health, where educational materials will be worked out. The Center will provide information about the users needs and requirements, about the experience gained with this system in our country and abroad and about new ideas and innovations. It will also organize a team of collaborators and consultants, ensuring at the same time the feedback information from users and evaluation of the new system of continuing education.

Once a month video tapes of duration 30 minutes will be produced in the Center. This set of educational material is called video-journal and like all journals it will be divided into columns, dealing with various contents.

| COLUMNS OF THE VIDEO-JOURNAL | |
|---|--|
| - Standard and new working methods in primary health care | |
| - Actual problems in practice | |
| - Actual experience from practice | |
| - Experience from other countries | |
| - News | |
| - Health educational models | |

These main subjects are treated in video-journal. Problems and experiences met in everyday practice, explanation of standard working methods and introduction of the new methods and models. Columns which are expected to increase its actuality for a longer time can be easily taken out and a sort of library can be made from this columns, intended for education of young and new workers and others. That means, they have for permanent use thematic tapes, showing emergency, diagnostic and therapeutic methods etc.

Video-journal can be kept in an institution for one month (until the next number is received), while thematic tape remains there for permanent use. For each educational unit there is a possibility to borrow again any educational material and even to order filming of its own video tape, at the lowest possible costs. For regional units are expected to be equipped with computer technology for continuing education twice a year they will have at their disposal the programme for medical decision making at

ASSOCIATION OF HEALTH WORK
ORGANIZATIONS OF THE SOCIALIST
REPUBLIC OF CROATIA

CONCLUSIONS FROM THE 9th MEETING HELD
ON 12 MARCH 1985

ZAGREB, MARCH 1985

A G E N D A

1. Information about possibilities for realization of the Project of continuing education for health workers;
2. Acceptance of the record from the 8th meeting of Chairmanship, held on 21 January 1985;
3. Report on the implementation of the Working programme for 1984;
4. Report on the financial results in 1984 and the report of Supervising committee about the examination of the financial results of the Association in 1984;
5. Determination of the working programme for the Association for 1985, and discussion about financial plans;
6. Decision about daily wages for business trips;
7. Discussion and suggestions about organization of the working process in health organizations, and
8. Other subjects.

Ad. 1 - Information about possibilities for realization of the Project of continuing education for health workers. Introduction was given by Dr B.Skupnjak and Prof. Ž. Jakšić.

The discussion followed, in which took part: Dr. To.Vuković, Prof. Ž.Jakšić, Dr. B.Skupnjak, Dr. I.Eterović and Mr.J.Kuzminski. After detailed discussion and explanation of some vague points the chairmanship made the following

C O N C L U S I O N

1. The project of continuing education, assisted by modern audio-visual and computer technology is considered extremely important for development of health system in our Republic. Actually, it is expected to give a decisive contribution to the expansion and modernization of continuing education what is required by our legal provisions, being also a constant need and wish of our health workers : Health workers must be able to follow new and very fast development of medical and health technology. Besides, it would be the most significant step towards a systematic and programmed adoption of the new electronic technology that will help us to start overcoming the enormous difference between new technological possibilities and their application in our health care system.
2. For all said reasons the Chairmanship accepts the invitation of the Republic Committee for Health and Social Welfare of Croatia to be actively included in implementation of this Project. Association of Health Work organizations get the right and take the obligation to joint the new system.
3. Working community and all sections of the Association are charged with making a detailed programme for the engagement in implementation of the Project and the use of its results.
4. Working community and respective sections of the Association are specially charged with making a scheme for distribution of 60 reproduction kits for electronic equipment and for 4 regional centers, having in mind that the entire territory of SR Croatia is to be covered and that all health working organizations - members of the Association, are to be included in the use of this equipment.

Besides, it is necessary to work out plan and programme for subscriptions to audio-visual and computer materials (kits) and examine all formal and legal regulations, which are to be fulfilled when taking over the equipment, providing that required funds have been obtained for this purpose, through joined arrangements between working organizations.

5. Lovers of the Association Working community will make a document for the Association entering to the Agreement.
6. For the next meeting of the Chairmanship, Association Working Community will prepare a proposal of the Agreement about the acceptance of the new technology, to be distributed to health working organizations according to the agreed plan, and which will, upon completion of the Project, remain in this organizations for their use.
7. Secretary of the Association Assembly will be a member of the Coordination board of the Project, and he is authorised to make operative decisions in realization of the above conclusions.
8. The Chairmanship considers very important to use all possible means and methods in order to get all health working organizations - members of the Association, informed about prospective chances and possibilities offered by the Project through medical journal "Zdravstvo", the exhibition "Medicine and technique", through discussions about the Projects in sections of the Association, etc.

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Research Project: CONTINUING EDUCATION
FOR PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

FEED - BACK AND EVALUATION
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Zagreb, August 1985

FEED-BACK AND EVALUATION METHODS AND PROCEDURES:

INTRODUCTION

The main assumption of the Project is that the continuous education will be successful if the users will be involved as the main subject of the system. They should participate not only proposing subjects to be tackled, but also providing the experiences from practice and in that way building the appropriate structure of thoughts and paradigm in solving medical and health problems. The new knowledge and skills should not destroy, but support, enlarge and improve their own way of thinking and practical experiences. According with some of the results in research of adult education, it should reinterpret the experiences if they are not in accordance with the contemporary scientific interpretations, but it should not negate the fact or impose new ways of thinking, coming from experiences which are strange to the practice of primary health care. Because of that demonstration of good practices and explanations will be the most important educational methods.

Because of the described basic assumptions the role of feed-back mechanisms and evaluation methods build-in the Project makes essential part of it, guiding the whole educational process and not just measuring the achievement of the educational efforts based on preconceived educational objectives.

OBJECTIVES

The evaluation and feed-back mechanisms in the Project have to fulfill the following objectives:

1. to involve the users in the process;
2. to provide the subject areas for continuous education;
3. to provide the essential (core) problem-solving paradigm;
4. to help in discovering the main constraints in implementation of qualitative services;
5. to identify the communication problems in the system;
6. to measure overall achievements of the Project (coverage, attitudes, results in practice).

CRITERIA AND EXPECTED CHOOSING CONSTRAINTS

In discussing and choosing different evaluation and feed-back method the following criteria are proposed:

1. do the methods help the learning process;
2. do the methods help participation and involvement of users;
3. do the methods fulfill time limits and balance the time economy;
4. are the methods feasible under conditions of the Project (criterion of efficiency);
5. the method should be valid (dealing with important issues) and reliable (allowing comparability in time and among the the observed units);

In spite of all these criteria and, especially because of ones listed under number (3) and (4), the evaluation and feed-back methods have to be simple. A compromising trade-off has to be foreseen. The perfectionism in methodology should be avoided. The adaptivness and flexibility has to be stressed. Among other reasons the concept is important of the realistic estimates of environment in which the Project is operating (an open social system reflecting all kinds of historic, cultural, developmental characteristics and position and difficulties of existing health services, health economics, etc.).

Among the expected constraints one can list the following based on experiences and some research existing in the area:

- rather low and short lasting motivation in spite of initial interests;
- rather high sensitivity to failures of the system trying to blame "the system" for poor own performance;
- very wide range of individual experiences and attitudes as well as conditions of work so that not all can be satisfied in one time;
- preference for the "passive" educational methods and technical information in spite of understanding that it is mostly inappropriate and inefficient in comparison with proposed "active" methods, like problem solving, etc.

THREE AREAS IN APPLICATION OF EVALUATION AND FEED-BACK METHODS

In planning the educational programme of the Project there are three areas in which the evaluation and feed-back methods have to be further considered and elaborated:

1. feed-back methods built into the AV teaching materials;
2. formative evaluation during the production of AV materials;
3. evaluation of the Project as the whole (mostly described already in previous documents).

In the following part the ideas identified dilemmas are listed for purposes of stimulating more of new initiatives, considering the existing ones and solving the dilemmas. Overall purpose is to design realistically, especially based on experiences in different similar projects, the feed-back and evaluation system for the first year of the implementation of the Project.

FEED-BACK METHODS BUILT INTO THE AV TEACHING MATERIALS

The regular AV materials (the AV Journal) will represent a combination of different educational methods of which three will dominate:

- information (with different degrees of explanation);
- demonstration (how the problems are solved in practice and/or which difficulties are experienced);
- problem-solving exercises (with typical circles: real practical case-problem identification, alternative solutions, testing solutions in practice, comments and explanations).

In all forms there will be the opportunity for active participation of users what in itself is a kind of feed-back; e.g. an special effort should be to collect information from the field and not only from the scientific sources or teaching institutions. The demonstration method will be mostly based on positive experiences in the practice in application of different programmes and problems connected with implementation. Among the most difficult is the problem solving because it should involve "both sides": experts of different disciplines and the workers in practice.

A special opportunity for active and problem solving method is the application of the AV materials in the groups. The problem solving in that way is not only individual but a team approach and group dynamics are involved. The feasibility and effectiveness of that method has to be tested. In some occasions the "competitiveness" which is involved might be a destructive element, as in other occasions it might be extremely efficient.

The different types of subjects continuous education has to deal with are expected to have different relation to the described AV methods. The classification schematically should separate: clinical health problems (individual diagnostic and treatment problems), communication problems (especially between people and health workers), and health programmes implementation problems (mostly dealing with health promotion and prevention in groups and communities). So far the problem-solving approach is most developed for the first group (clinical health problems), and scarcely for other two. The AV method by its very nature is most effective for conveying messages about the second group (communication problems), but there are only general experiences, e.g. TV news, with the third group. Obviously the problems of feed-back are not simple and experimental application is needed of different techniques such as "role-playing in groups", panel discussions

based on demonstration of practical experiences, etc. For the third group (health programme implementation) the demonstration would be obviously the preferable methods, but again for feed-back different methods have to be developed such as a modified "critical incident" method, "competition" for best quality or efficiency, results reported of small projects, etc.

One of the problems connected with the problem-solving is the complexity of many problems and existence of multiple "correct" solutions. This situation is not educationally productive. An effort has to be made that not all the solutions are acceptable, what is often very difficult. Experiences are needed with criteria applicable to the real life situation and avoiding the black/white approach.

The ways of feed-back envisaged so far are several:

- tests and questionnaires (paper through post, AV summary);
- reports and descriptions (paper through post, AV by EMC);
- reports on group education effort (paper, AV by observers);
- comments and reaction to the problems (paper, AV by EMC or themselves);
- panel discussions (AV by EMC);
- project reports and demonstrations (AV by EMC).

For the time being there is not possibility to have it "on line" and the problem of time-lag and time coordination will be a considerable one. This is especially important for the "problem-solving circle" which has to involve users in several steps in a definitive order.

The organizational aspects for providing feed-back are considerable. It would be important to plan involvement of some health authorities so that the health programme and clinical method which are suggested through the system are followed by provision of adequate materials and economic support. This opens the whole new area of activities which are peculiar for the existing health system in the country. It is also connected with the rewarding aspects of the continuous education which has to be solved gradually. The balance between positive and negative approaches has to be in favour of positive.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION DURING THE PRODUCTION OF THE AV MATERIALS

The tentative schedule for the evaluation of the AV material during its production was considered in several previous materials. The list of participants (editorial board) and the flow-chart how the AV material has to be produced have been developed.

Along with experiences it would be necessary to revise and simplify the proposed scheme and also to clear some of the dilemmas which have not been solved:

- how much of authors' freedom is possible, and what should be the Project policy;
- relation of technical experts in different medical discipline and educational and AV experts;
- involvement of users during the formative evaluation.

So far it was experienced that it is a tendency to establish clumsy bodies of different representatives of experts, which are often destructive by "wise" comments and ideas of different kinds, resulting in paralysing the creative workers and favourising the ineffective bureaucratic and neutral materials.

The internal testing during the production is not yet solved. Should it be by students, practicing users, experts, a mixture, should it be individual or group (collective), how much formal should it be? Should it be done always in the same way? Should the group of evaluators be the same or changed?

A special problem is the hidden curriculum by which all the subjects during one year have to be combined.

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT AS THE WHOLE

As it was mentioned the major part of evaluation methodology for the Project as the whole was already discussed and defined.

From this it is clear it was accepted the evaluation should be more of the action-type research than formal evaluation by comparison before/after or even less of comparison involved/non-involved. Because this is not usual and because it is important to be cleared before the Project starts, a reconsideration might be necessary. The criteria mentioned at the beginning of this paper are very important for this part also. One additional criterion, however, appears here, i.e. the extrapolation of experiences of the Project to other situation. In that connection it was also realized that a considerable part of scientific research would be needed for the successful implementation of the Project and in that sense one should in addition consider the proposed scientific research approach as a part of the overall evaluation of the Project.



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I N T R O D U C T I O N

The members of the Centre for the cooperation with the developing countries - Institute for the organization and economics of health services, Zagreb, Medical Faculty with the School of Public Health "Andrija Štampar", Zagreb, Association of Health Organizations of the Socialist Republic of Croatia, have - after a few years' preparations - started together with JICA (Japanese International Cooperation Agency) a mutual project entitled "Project on Continuous Education of Primary Health Care Physicians by means of Electronic (Audiovisual and Computer) Devices".

This is - according to the first results - very successful and useful cooperation for both sides. It will significantly contribute to the fastening of the process of continuous education of physicians and its modernization, as well as to the better relations among Japanese and Yugoslav health professionals through learning about their health systems.

Regarding the geographical distance and the so far rare contacts, the systems of health in our countries are not so well known. The only exception was the World Hospital Congress in Zagreb and in Tokyo.

It is an assumption, and probably also a fact, that the mentioned project significantly reduces this somewhat not so good knowledge of mutual health systems. The carrying out of this project will provide prerequisites for closer cooperation among the health professionals in our two countries and for better mutual understanding and knowing each other.

Among other measures, this Centre would like to contribute through

publishing an "information booklet" on the Japanese health system within the already founded series "Country Health Systems". This systems is more and more known in the world out of a very simple reason -the Japanese health services are considered the best in the world at the moment. That is why there are more and more publications on Japanese health system. Numerous data are to be found in the official publications of the World Health Organization, as well as in some other publications of other UN agencies.

In order to enable issuing and publication of it, we are now having this collection of data on the Japanese health system and photo-copies of some more important study-summaries that have recently been issued regarding this topic.

This provisional booklet should therefore be treated as a wish to get to know as soon as possible and as complete as possible the health system of this friendly country.

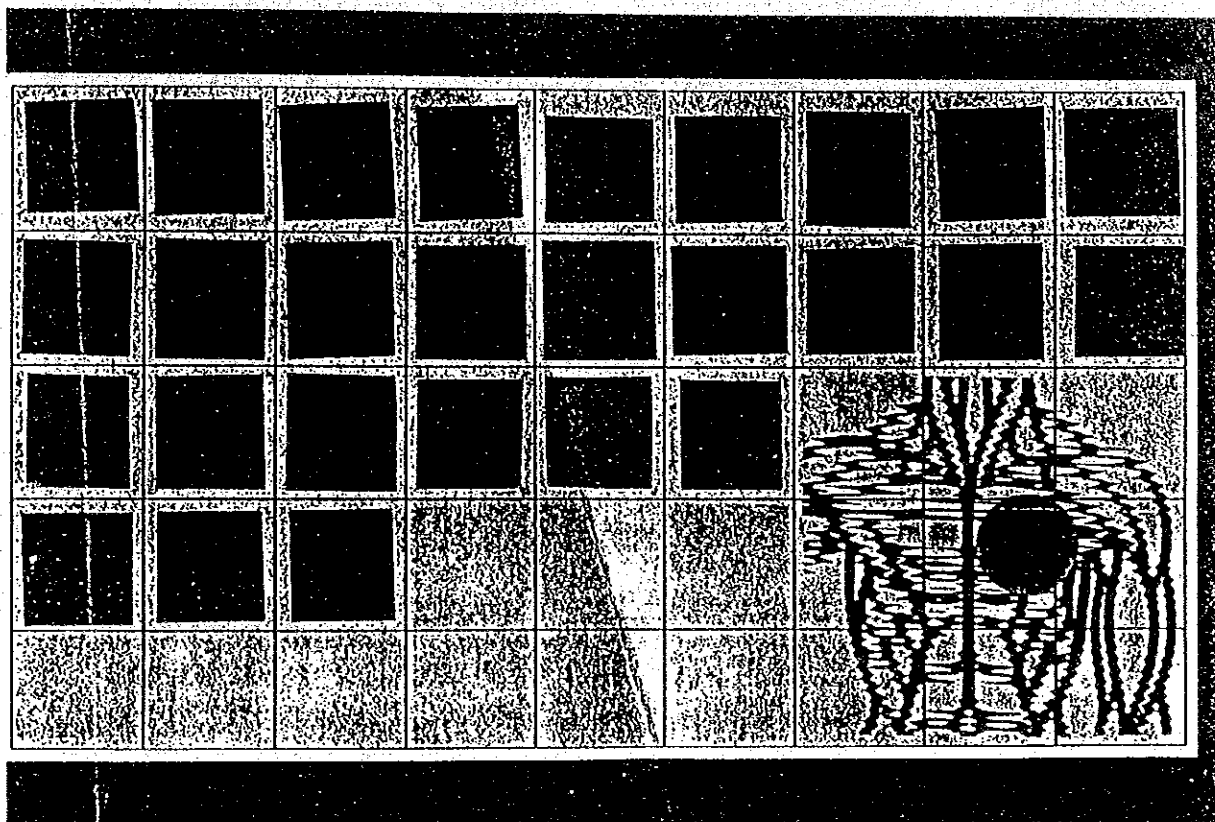
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**DISEASE PREVENTION
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**LUTTE CONTRE
LA MALADIE**



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HEALTH DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN: DETERMINANTS, IMPLICATIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

Yoshiyuki Ohno*

In 1980, the crude death rate from all causes in Japan was 6.2 per 1 000 population (1). The age-standardized mortality rate for the same year based on the age composition of the Japanese population in 1935 was 3.6 per 1 000 population (2). This age-adjusted mortality rate is slightly lower than the corresponding rates for the Netherlands (3.9) and Sweden (3.9), and considerably lower than those prevailing in Canada (4.5) and the United States (4.6) (3). In Japan, as in other developed countries, there has been a substantial decline in mortality during the course of this century. The age-adjusted mortality rate in Japan from all causes was 25.2 per 1 000 population in 1920, falling to 16.8 per 1 000 in 1935, and to 10.8 per 1 000 in 1950 (see Table 1). In other words, the death rate, after controlling for changes in population composition, has fallen by 85% over the last 60 years. This substantial decline in mortality from all causes in Japan has attracted considerable attention from a number of countries, not the least because of the sustained decline in death rates since 1950 when mortality reductions in other developed countries had slowed dramatically. This article will examine the changing pattern of Japanese mortality, and discuss its possible determinants and sociomedical implications.

Changing patterns of mortality and morbidity in Japan

A convenient summary index of mortality levels at all ages is the expectation of life at birth. The trend in this measure for Japan over the period 1921-1925 to 1983 is shown in Fig. 1 for both sexes separately. Life expectancy at birth was 42.1 years for males and 43.2 years for females in 1921-1925 increasing to 46.9 years and 49.6 years respectively in 1935-1936. By 1983, life expectancy at birth had reached 74.2 years for males and almost 80 years for females, a level considerably in advance of most European and other developed countries (3). By the year 2000, life expectancy at birth in Japan has been projected to reach 77.5 years for males and 82.9 years for females. A similar development is apparent from Table 1 which presents the trends in the age-adjusted mortality rate from all causes and the infant mortality rate over the period 1916 to 1981 (2, 4). Fig. 2 illustrates the trends in the age-adjusted mortality rates per 100 000 population from all causes of death as well as for major cause groupings between 1935 and 1980 (2). Death rates were not available for 3 years between 1944 and 1946 due to the social disruption caused by the Second World War. One may note the remarkable decline in the age-adjusted rate from all causes from 15.1 per 1 000 in 1947 to 3.4 per 1 000 in 1981 (Table 1).

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LES PROGRÈS DE LA SANTÉ AU JAPON: CAUSES, INCIDENCES ET PERSPECTIVES

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En 1980, le taux brut de mortalité, toutes causes confondues, était au Japon de 6,2 pour 1 000 habitants (1). Pour la même année, le taux de mortalité unifié selon l'âge, sur la base de la composition par âge de la population japonaise en 1935, atteignait 3,6 pour 1 000 (2). Ce taux de mortalité corrigé est légèrement inférieur aux taux correspondants des Pays-Bas (3,9) et de la Suède (3,9), et il est très nettement inférieur à ceux du Canada (4,5) et des Etats-Unis d'Amérique (4,6) (3). Au Japon, de même que dans d'autres pays développés, on a assisté pendant ce siècle à une diminution considérable de la mortalité. Le taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge, pour toutes les causes de décès, a passé au Japon de 25,2 pour 1 000 en 1920 à 16,8 pour 1 000 en 1935, et à 10,8 pour 1 000 en 1950 (voir Tableau 1). En d'autres termes, le taux de mortalité, après avoir été ajusté pour tenir compte des changements intervenus dans la composition de la population, a fléchi de 85% au cours des 60 dernières années. Cette régression considérable de la mortalité au Japon, toutes causes confondues, n'a pas manqué de retenir très largement l'attention d'un grand nombre de pays, et notamment la baisse constante de la mortalité à partir de 1950, car dans d'autres pays développés la tendance s'était très nettement ralentie à ce moment-là. Le présent article se propose d'étudier les changements intervenus dans le tableau de la mortalité au Japon, et d'étudier les causes possibles de ce phénomène ainsi que ses incidences socio-médicales.

Evolution du tableau de la mortalité et de la morbidité au Japon

L'espérance de vie à la naissance constitue un bon indicateur des taux de mortalité à tous les âges. On trouvera à la fig. 1, séparément pour les 2 sexes, une indication des tendances observées pour la période 1921-1925 à 1983. L'espérance de vie à la naissance était de 42,1 ans pour les hommes et 43,2 ans pour les femmes en 1921-1925, puis elle a passé à 46,9 ans et 49,6 ans, respectivement, en 1935-1936. En 1983, elle avait atteint 74,2 ans pour l'homme et près de 80 ans pour la femme, soit des chiffres nettement supérieurs à ceux de la plupart des pays européens et autres pays développés. (3). Les projections relatives à l'espérance de vie à la naissance au Japon donnent pour l'an 2000 un chiffre de 77,5 ans pour les hommes et 82,9 ans pour les femmes. (12). Une évolution analogue est illustrée dans le tableau 1 qui reproduit les tendances du taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge, toutes causes confondues, ainsi que des taux de mortalité infantile pour la période 1916 à 1981. (2, 4). La fig. 2 donne les tendances des taux de mortalité corrigés selon l'âge pour 100 000 habitants et pour toutes les causes de décès, de même que pour les principales classes de causes de décès entre 1935 et 1980. (2). Les taux de mortalité ne sont pas disponibles pour les 3 années comprises entre 1944 et 1946, en raison des bouleversements sociaux dus à la Seconde Guerre mondiale. On peut noter le fléchissement très net du taux de mortalité pour toutes les classes de décès, corrigé selon l'âge, qui est ainsi tombé de 15,1 pour 1 000 en 1947 à 3,4 pour 1 000 en 1981 (Tableau 1).

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Among the major causes of death, the mortality rate from tuberculosis, which had been a leading health problem in Japan for many years, decreased dramatically from 190.8 per 100 000 population in 1935 to 3.0 per 100 000 in 1980, a reduction of approximately 98% (Fig. 2). Significant declines in mortality were also observed for pneumonia and bronchitis (from 161.9 to 1.7 per 1 000), nephritis and nephrosis (from 80.9 to 4.8 per 1 000), and gastric and duodenal ulcer (from 16.3 to 2.5 per 1 000) (2). The age-adjusted mortality rate from cerebrovascular disease, which was the leading cause of death from 1951 to 1977, has declined significantly over the last 15 years after remaining practically unchanged between 1950 and 1965. Mortality rates from malignant neoplasms and heart diseases (mostly ischaemic heart disease) have been virtually stationary for the last 3 decades. The mortality rate from accidents has recently decreased from 38.8 per 100 000 in 1970 to 20.5 in 1980. In 1980, the 3 leading causes of death in Japan were malignant neoplasms (with an age-adjusted mortality rate of 82.7 per 100 000), cerebrovascular disease (69.7), and heart disease (54.6).

On the basis of these trends, one may conclude that the decline in mortality from all causes over the period 1950-1965 was mainly due to a reduction in mortality from tuberculosis and other infectious diseases such as pneumonia, bronchitis and diarrhoeal diseases, while thereafter the decline was largely a result of the more gradual decrease in mortality from cerebrovascular disease and, more recently, reduced mortality from accidents.

The trends in age-specific death rates from all causes for the period 1935-1980 are shown in Fig. 3 (1). Mortality has declined in every age group, but the rate of decrease has varied substantially among different age groups, particularly between those below and those above 50 years of age. The rate of mortality decline has been much more moderate for the latter compared with the former. It is also interesting to note that the rates of decline for various age groups below 50 years old is similar, as it is among those aged 50 years or more.

One may also observe the higher mortality rates at ages 20-24 years compared with the figures for those aged 30-34 prior to 1950. This was primarily due to the higher mortality rate from tuberculosis in the younger age group (1).

Undoubtedly, the largest decline in mortality has occurred among infants (see Table 1). Between 1920 and 1943, the infant mortality rate fell by almost 50% and by 1947 was just over 75 per 1 000 live births. Subsequently the rate declined dramatically to reach 7.5 per 1 000 live births in 1981, among the lowest in the world. The causes in infant death have also changed markedly over the years (1). In 1950, almost one-half of infant deaths were accounted for by infectious diseases such as pneumonia, bronchitis and other infectious respiratory diseases, whooping cough and measles. In 1980, on the other hand, roughly 70% of infant deaths arose from causes associated with or immediately preceding birth, such as birth injuries, asphyxia, hypoxia and other respiratory disorders, and congenital anomalies.

Similarly, there has been a dramatic decline in morbidity in Japan, especially since the Second World War (5). The trends for selected diseases are shown in Fig. 4a and 4b. Incidence rates for infectious diseases such as leprosy, tetanus, poliomyelitis, and Japanese encephalitis had decreased to below 0.1 per 100 000 population by 1975. In 1980, the morbidity rate per 100 000 population was 0.1 for diphtheria, 0.2 for typhoid fever, 0.8 for dysentery, and 2.4 for scarlet fever. Measles and whooping cough,

Parmi les causes essentielles de décès, la mortalité par tuberculose — alors que cette maladie a constitué pendant de nombreuses années un grave problème de santé au Japon — a chuté dans des proportions très considérables, passant de 190,8 pour 100 000 en 1935 à 3,0 pour 100 000 en 1980, soit une diminution d'environ 98% (Fig. 2). Une baisse importante de la mortalité a également été observée en ce qui concerne la pneumonie et la bronchite (de 161,9 à 1,7 pour 1 000), la néphrite et la néphrose (de 80,9 à 4,8 pour 1 000), ainsi que l'ulcère de l'estomac et du duodénum (de 16,3 à 2,5 pour 1 000) (2). Le taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge pour les maladies cérébrovasculaires, qui représentaient la principale cause de décès de 1951 à 1977, a nettement fléchi ces 15 dernières années, après être demeuré pratiquement inchangé entre 1950 et 1965. Les taux de mortalité due aux tumeurs malignes et aux cardiopathies (ischémiques dans la plupart des cas) sont restés à peu près stationnaires au cours des 3 dernières décennies. Le taux de mortalité par accidents a récemment diminué, passant de 38,8 pour 100 000 en 1970, à 20,5 en 1980. Cette même année, les 3 principales causes de décès au Japon étaient des tumeurs malignes (avec un taux de mortalité, corrigé selon l'âge, de 82,7 pour 100 000), les maladies cérébrovasculaires (69,7) et les cardiopathies (54,6).

Au vu de ces tendances, il est permis de conclure que la baisse de la mortalité, pour toutes les causes de décès, pendant la période 1950-1965, était due essentiellement à une régression dans les secteurs de la tuberculose et d'autres maladies infectieuses, telles que la pneumonie, la bronchite et les maladies diarrhéiques, alors que, par la suite, cette même baisse a été provoquée en grande partie par une réduction progressive des décès occasionnés par les maladies cardiovasculaires et, plus récemment, par les accidents.

On trouvera à la fig. 3 (1) l'indication des tendances des taux de décès par classe d'âge, toutes causes confondues, pour la période 1935-1980. La mortalité a diminué dans chaque classe d'âge, mais dans une proportion qui a varié considérablement selon les classes, et notamment entre celles inférieures et supérieures à 50 ans. La diminution du taux de mortalité a été beaucoup plus modérée dans les classes supérieures à 50 ans que dans les autres. Il est également intéressant de noter que le taux de baisse dans les différentes classes d'âge au-dessous de 50 ans demeure identique à celui observé chez les sujets âgés de 50 ans ou davantage.

On note également des taux de mortalité plus élevés entre 20 et 24 ans par rapport aux sujets âgés de 30-34 ans, avant 1950. Cette différence est essentiellement due à un taux de mortalité par tuberculose plus élevé dans la classe d'âge plus jeune (1).

Sans aucun doute, la plus forte baisse de mortalité s'est produite chez les très jeunes enfants (voir Tableau 1). Entre 1920 et 1943, la mortalité infantile a diminué de près de 50% et, en 1947, elle était à peine supérieure à 75 pour 1 000 naissances vivantes. Par la suite, ce taux a diminué très considérablement, pour tomber à 7,5 pour 1 000 naissances vivantes en 1981, ce qui est l'un des taux les plus faibles du monde. Les causes de la mortalité infantile ont également beaucoup changé au cours des années (1). En 1950, près de la moitié de ces décès étaient imputables à des maladies infectieuses telles que la pneumonie, la bronchite et d'autres maladies respiratoires, ainsi qu'à la coqueluche et à la rougeole. En 1980, en revanche près de 70% des décès infantiles étaient provoqués par des causes associées à la naissance ou la précédant immédiatement, telles que les lésions obstétricales, l'asphyxie, l'hypoxie et d'autres troubles respiratoires, ainsi que les anomalies congénitales.

De même, on a assisté à une forte baisse de la morbidité au Japon, notamment depuis la Seconde Guerre mondiale (5). Les tendances relatives à diverses maladies sélectionnées à cet effet sont indiquées aux fig. 4a et 4b. Les taux d'incidence de maladies infectieuses telles que la lèpre, le tétanos, la poliomyélite et l'encéphalite japonaise étaient tombés au-dessous de 0,1 pour 100 000 en 1975. En 1980, le taux de morbidité pour 100 000 habitants était de 0,1 pour la diphthérie, 0,2 pour la fièvre typhoïde, 0,8 pour la dysenterie et 2,4

which were leading causes of infant death in earlier years, showed, respectively, a morbidity rate of 6.1 and 2.1 per 100 000 population in 1980. The morbidity rate due to measles has decreased over the years with cyclic variation. Whooping cough, however, showed an unusual pattern of increase and decrease in recent years. The resurgence can be attributed to the temporary cessation of whooping cough vaccination in 1975, following 2 accidental deaths from vaccination. Subsequently, the programme was reinstated and the morbidity rates fell (3). This particular trend indicates that the whooping cough bacillus is still prevalent in Japan and that vaccination is an effective countermeasure to prevent infection.

Possible determinants of mortality decline in Japan

Changes in mortality are generally related, either directly or indirectly, to sociocultural, economic and biomedical developments. To delineate the relative contribution of each of the factors involved is therefore often very difficult, if not impossible. The rapid and substantial decline of mortality from all causes in Japan, particularly after the Second World War, has undoubtedly resulted from several factors including the expansion of medical services throughout the country, the introduction of new drugs, the development of new medical techniques, the application of antibiotics, and progress with immunization programmes (6). The ensuing discussion will focus mainly on the role of (i) immunization programmes and new drugs, (ii) environmental sanitation, (iii) education and nutrition, and (iv) medical service facilities and allied factors.

Immunization programmes and new drugs

As stated above, infectious diseases were the major cause of death before and shortly after the Second World War. Principal among these was tuberculosis. Tuberculosis control was accorded highest priority and various countermeasures were integrated into a single programme which included tuberculin testing, case-finding through mass screening at schools, factories and residential areas throughout the country, treatment and care of patients in tuberculosis sanatoria, and BCG inoculation. This strategy was vigorously implemented for many years by health centres and other institutions. These activities were supported (7) by the Tuberculosis Prevention Law enacted in 1919, the National Campaign for Tuberculosis Prevention which began in 1936, BCG inoculation of all primary school pupils since 1942, registration of tuberculosis patients since 1947, compulsory BCG inoculation of those aged under 30 years since 1948, widespread use of anti-tuberculosis drugs such as streptomycin since 1952, the introduction of free treatment and care in 1951, mass screening covering the whole population since 1955, and the introduction of a free screening programme for tuberculosis in 1957.

Many other infectious diseases were prevalent in Japan before and shortly after the Second World War, including diarrhoeal diseases such as dysentery, typhoid fever and gastroenteritis; pneumonia and bronchitis; and acute infectious diseases of childhood such as measles, whooping cough, diphtheria, tetanus, scarlet fever, and poliomyelitis. The virulence of most of these infectious diseases was drastically reduced in Japan after the inte-

pour la scarlatine. La rougeole et la coqueluche, qui étaient auparavant des causes majeures de mortalité infantile, ont accusé respectivement un taux de morbidité de 6,1 et 2,1 pour 100 000 en 1980. Le taux de morbidité par rougeole a diminué au cours des années avec des variations cycliques. La coqueluche toutefois a manifesté ces dernières années un profil inhabituel de recrudescence et de régression. Cette recrudescence peut être attribuée à l'interruption provisoire de la vaccination anticoquelucheuse en 1975, à la suite de 2 décès accidentels imputables à la vaccination. À la suite de quoi le programme de vaccination a repris et les taux de morbidité ont diminué (3). Cette tendance particulière indique que le bacille de la coqueluche demeure prévalent au Japon et que la vaccination constitue une contre-mesure efficace de prévention.

Causes possibles de la baisse de la mortalité au Japon

Les modifications du tableau de la mortalité sont habituellement liées, directement ou indirectement, à une évolution du contexte socio-culturel, économique et biomédical. Il est donc souvent très difficile, sinon impossible, de faire la part de l'influence relative de chacun de ces facteurs. Il ne fait pas de doute que la baisse rapide et importante de la mortalité au Japon, toutes causes confondues, notamment après la Seconde Guerre mondiale, résulte de l'action de plusieurs facteurs, tels que le développement des services médicaux, l'introduction de nouveaux médicaments, l'élaboration de techniques médicales modernes, l'utilisation des antibiotiques et l'extension des programmes de vaccination (6). L'exposé qui suit sera essentiellement axé sur le rôle i) des programmes de vaccination et des nouveaux médicaments, ii) de l'assainissement, iii) de l'éducation et de la nutrition, et iv) des prestations médicales offertes ainsi que d'autres facteurs apparentés.

Programmes de vaccination et nouveaux médicaments

Comme indiqué plus haut, les maladies infectieuses constituaient la principale cause de décès avant et peu après la Seconde Guerre mondiale. La tuberculose figurait au premier rang de ces maladies. La lutte antituberculeuse a donc bénéficié d'une très haute priorité et diverses mesures ont été intégrées dans un programme unique comportant les activités suivantes: épreuves tuberculiques, dépistage de masse dans les écoles, les usines et les zones résidentielles de l'ensemble du pays, traitement et cures dans les sanatoriums, et vaccination BCG. Cette stratégie a été appliquée sans faillir pendant de nombreuses années par les centres de santé et d'autres institutions. Les mesures suivantes ont contribué à renforcer cette action (7): Loi sur la prévention de la tuberculose promulguée en 1919, campagne nationale de prévention de la tuberculose, lancée en 1936, vaccination BCG de tous les élèves des écoles primaires à partir de 1942, déclaration obligatoire de tous les tuberculeux à partir de 1947, vaccination BCG obligatoire de tous les moins de 30 ans à partir de 1948, utilisation généralisée de médicaments antituberculeux tels que la streptomycine à partir de 1952, introduction de traitements et de soins gratuits en 1951, dépistage de masse au niveau de l'ensemble de la population à partir de 1955, et introduction d'un programme gratuit de dépistage de la tuberculose en 1957.

Beaucoup d'autres maladies infectieuses étaient largement répandues au Japon avant et peu après la Seconde Guerre mondiale: maladies diarrhéiques telles que la dysenterie, la fièvre typhoïde et la gastroentérite; pneumonie et bronchite; et maladies infectieuses aiguës de l'enfance, comme la rougeole, la coqueluche, la diphtérie, le tétanos, la scarlatine et la poliomyélite. La virulence de la plupart de ces maladies infectieuses a considérablement diminué dans le pays à la suite de

grated programme of vaccination, environmental sanitation and treatment by new drugs such as antibiotics, were implemented (3). In Japan, penicillin was first produced in 1946 (8) and began to be widely used in the early 1950s. The production of antibiotics increased almost 50-fold between 1960 and 1980. A rapid escalation in the production of a number of other drugs was also observed during this period, including drugs for circulatory diseases, drugs for diseases of the alimentary tract, and anti-neoplastic drugs.

Environmental sanitation

Good environmental sanitation is a prerequisite for the reduction of infectious diseases, including disorders of the alimentary tract such as dysentery, typhoid fever and other diarrhoeal diseases. In Japan, a modern piped water supply system was first provided in Yokohama City in 1887. Legislation for a piped water supply system was enacted in 1890, and that for sewerage disposal in 1900. However, the installation of a piped water supply system was limited to larger cities such as Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Nagasaki, Hakodate and Hiroshima.

After the Second World War, piped water became increasingly available in smaller cities, towns and villages as the importance of sanitary living conditions was recognized. In 1955, the coverage rate with a piped water supply system, calculated as the percentage of the population served, was 32.2% (Table 2). The coverage rate gradually increased to 91.5% in 1980, being 96.9% in the 4 major metropolitan areas and 87.2% in the remainder of the country. Adequate sewerage also became more widespread in Japan after the Second World War and was accelerated under the first national 5-year installation plan which started in 1963. The fifth such plan is now in progress. Nevertheless, the present coverage rate is still around 30% which is considerably lower than in other developed countries. An adequate waste processing service and flush toilets were gradually introduced, as shown in Table 2.

This gradual improvement in sanitary conditions was a major factor in the reduction of mortality and morbidity from gastrointestinal infections.

Education and nutrition

In Japan, the modernization of school education began in 1872 with the foundation of the Ministry of Education (9). Four years of compulsory education was introduced in 1880; this was extended to 6 years in 1908 and to 9 years in 1947, including 3 years of schooling for those aged 13-15 years at secondary or junior high schools. The enrolment rate of children in compulsory education was already 99.5% in 1927. Currently, the proportion is 99.9%. Moreover, enrolment in senior high schools has risen from 42.5% in 1950 to 94.2% in 1980. The proportion of students attending colleges or universities among senior high school graduates has also risen sharply—from 15.3% to 41.3% between 1954 and 1980 for males and from 4.6% to 33.3% for females. Among new employees in 1980 in Japan, 6% had completed compulsory education only, with 55% who were senior high school graduates and 39% who had graduated from a college or university (10).

This continuous enrolment of nearly 100% of children in compulsory education and the gradual attainment of higher educational levels has probably indirectly aided the

l'adoption d'un programme intégré de vaccination, assorti de mesures d'assainissement et de nouvelles formes de traitement, par exemple aux antibiotiques (3). Au Japon, la pénicilline a été produite pour la première fois en 1946 (8) et son utilisation a commencé à se développer au début des années 50. La production d'antibiotiques a augmenté de près de 50 fois entre 1960 et 1980. Un développement rapide de la production d'un certain nombre d'autres médicaments a également été observé pendant cette période, notamment en ce qui concerne les médicaments destinés au traitement des maladies de l'appareil circulatoire et de l'appareil digestif, ainsi que les médicaments antinéoplasiques.

Assainissement

Un assainissement satisfaisant est un préalable indispensable à toute régression des maladies infectieuses, et plus particulièrement de certaines affections de l'appareil digestif telles que la dysenterie, la fièvre typhoïde et d'autres maladies diarrhéiques. Au Japon, c'est en 1887 qu'a été installé pour la première fois, à Yokohama, un réseau d'adduction d'eau par canalisations. Une législation a été adoptée en 1890 pour ce type d'approvisionnement en eau, et en 1900 pour l'évacuation des eaux usées. Cependant, l'installation de canalisations d'adduction d'eau a été limitée à de grandes villes telles que Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Nagasaki, Hakodate et Hiroshima.

Après la Seconde Guerre mondiale, l'adduction d'eau par canalisations s'est étendue à des villes de moindre importance, ainsi qu'aux agglomérations et villages, à mesure que se faisait davantage sentir l'importance de créer des conditions de vie hygiéniques. En 1955, les réseaux de distribution d'eau par canalisations couvraient 32,2% de la population, sur la base du pourcentage de la population desservie (Tableau 2). Cette couverture s'est étendue progressivement, pour atteindre 91,5% en 1980, soit 96,9% dans 4 grandes zones métropolitaines et 87,2% dans le reste du pays. Les réseaux d'égouts se sont également développés au Japon après la Seconde Guerre mondiale et leur construction a été accélérée grâce à l'adoption d'un premier plan quinquennal lancé en 1963. Le cinquième plan quinquennal est en cours d'exécution. Cependant, la couverture actuelle ne dépasse guère 30%, chiffre beaucoup moins élevé que dans d'autres pays développés. Des services appropriés de traitement des déchets ont été progressivement mis en place, de même que l'installation de toilettes à chasse d'eau, comme indiqué au tableau 2.

Cette amélioration progressive des conditions d'hygiène a été un facteur essentiel de la baisse de la mortalité et de la morbidité par maladies gastrointestinales.

Education et nutrition

Au Japon, la modernisation de l'enseignement scolaire a commencé en 1872 avec la création du Ministère de l'éducation (9). Quatre années d'enseignement obligatoire ont été introduites en 1880; ce chiffre a été porté à 6 ans en 1890 et à 9 ans en 1947, dont 3 ans d'études dans des écoles secondaires, ou secondaires du premier cycle, pour les élèves âgés de 13 à 15 ans. Le taux d'inscription à l'enseignement obligatoire atteignait déjà 99,5% en 1927. Aujourd'hui, il est de 99,9%. En outre, le taux des inscriptions dans les établissements d'enseignement secondaire du deuxième cycle a passé de 42,5% en 1950 à 94,2% en 1980. La proportion de diplômés de l'enseignement secondaire inscrits dans des établissements d'enseignement supérieur ou universitaire a également considérablement augmenté — passant de 15,3% à 41,3% entre 1954 et 1980, pour les hommes, et de 4,6% à 33,3% pour les femmes. En 1980, 6% seulement des nouveaux salariés engagés au Japon avaient suivi la scolarité obligatoire, alors que 55% possédaient un diplôme de l'enseignement secondaire et 39% un diplôme de niveau universitaire (10).

L'inscription, depuis longtemps déjà, de la quasi totalité des enfants dans les établissements d'enseignement obligatoire et l'accès progressif à des études de plus haut niveau

reduction in mortality among the Japanese population. Since health education forms part of the regular curriculum at each educational level from primary school to university, schooling enhances the understanding of the health implications of better sanitation and nutrition, resulting in positive participation in immunization programmes, and better practice of personal hygiene.

Another aspect of importance related to education is the school lunch programme initiated under the School Lunch Law of 1954. Primary school pupils are served a complete lunch, including milk, bread and other foods. In junior high schools, almost half of the pupils qualify for a complete lunch, with the remainder receiving milk only. The implementation of this programme increased markedly in 1963, particularly in junior high schools, due to the start of the milk programme. The nationwide implementation of the school lunch programme has contributed to better physical development and health promotion among children, particularly since 1963.

Traditionally, the Japanese diet has been very high in carbohydrate and very low in fat and animal protein. However, with the rapid socioeconomic and industrial development after the Second World War, food preference became more westernized, though not to the extent common in the United States of America or Europe. Fig. 5 shows the changes in daily per capita intake of the 3 major nutritional components between 1950 and 1980 in Japan. Daily carbohydrate intake per capita decreased from 418 g in 1950 to 313 g in 1980. Meanwhile, daily fat intake increased from 18 g to 52 g total protein from 68 g to 78 g, and animal protein from 17 g to 39 g. At the same time, vegetable protein decreased from 51 g to 39 g. The changing composition of these components in total energy intake is shown in Fig. 6 (11). Total energy intake has remained virtually unchanged over the period. In 1950, the average daily per capita energy intake was 2 098 kcal. In 1960, the figure was 2 096 kcal, rising to 2 210 in 1970 and declining to 2 084 in 1980. Meanwhile, the proportion of fat in total energy intake increased from 7.7% in 1950 to 22.6% in 1980, whereas that of carbohydrate decreased from 79.3% to 62.4%.

Fat and animal protein have been relatively deficient in the Japanese diet for many years. The gradual increase in intake of these nutrients may have played a significant role in increasing resistance to infectious diseases in particular, and ultimately in reducing mortality in Japan.

Excessive salt consumption has been associated with the development of hypertension and gastric cancer in recent years. Estimated daily salt intake per capita in Japan (3) has declined steadily from 14.5 g in 1972 to 12.3 g in 1982. This decrease in salt intake may well have contributed to the reduced incidence of hypertension and thereby to the recent reduction of mortality from cerebrovascular accidents.

Medical service facilities and allied factors

In 1950, there were 5 119 hospitals, 51 349 clinics and 24 773 dental clinics in Japan. The corresponding figures in 1980 were 9 055, 77 611 and 38 834 (3). The numbers of hospitals, clinics and dental clinics per 100 000 population were 5.7, 57.5 and 27.7 in 1950 and 7.7, 66.4 and

ont probablement contribué indirectement à réduire la mortalité parmi la population japonaise. Etant donné que l'éducation pour la santé fait partie de tous les programmes d'études à tous les échelons de l'enseignement, de l'école primaire à l'université, l'enseignement ainsi dispensé dans les écoles contribue donc à mieux faire connaître les avantages d'une amélioration de la nutrition et de l'assainissement, ce qui se traduit par une participation plus large aux programmes de vaccination et par une meilleure pratique de l'hygiène personnelle.

Le programme de repas scolaire inauguré en 1954, aux termes d'une loi spéciale, représente un autre aspect positif du rôle important de l'éducation. Les élèves des écoles primaires reçoivent un déjeuner complet, comprenant du lait, du pain et d'autres aliments. Dans les écoles secondaires du premier cycle, près de la moitié des élèves ont droit à un déjeuner complet, alors que les autres ne bénéficient que d'une distribution de lait. Ce programme a connu un net regain d'activité en 1963, notamment dans les écoles secondaires du premier cycle, grâce au lancement du programme de distribution de lait. L'application à l'échelle nationale de ce programme de repas scolaires a contribué à améliorer le développement physique et à promouvoir la santé de l'enfant, notamment à partir de 1963.

Au Japon, l'alimentation traditionnelle est très riche en hydrates de carbone, et très pauvre en graisses et en protéines animales. Toutefois, en raison de la rapidité du développement socio-économique et industriel consécutif à la Seconde Guerre mondiale, les préférences en matière de nourriture se sont occidentalisées, sans devenir toutefois comparables à ce que l'on peut observer aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique ou en Europe. La fig. 5 montre les modifications intervenues au Japon entre 1950 et 1980 en ce qui concerne l'apport quotidien individuel des 3 substances nutritives essentielles. L'apport journalier en hydrate de carbone, par individu, est tombé de 418 g en 1950 à 313 g en 1980. Dans l'intervalle, l'apport quotidien en corps gras a passé de 18 g à 52 g, celui des protéines totales de 68 g à 78 g et des protéines animales de 17 g à 39 g. En même temps, l'apport de protéines végétales tombait de 51 g à 39 g. La fig 6 illustre les changements intervenus en ce qui concerne la proportion relative de ces substances dans l'apport énergétique total (11). Cet apport est resté pratiquement inchangé pendant la période considérée. En 1950, l'apport énergétique total était de 2 098 kcal en moyenne par jour et par individu. En 1960, le chiffre était de 2 096 kcal et il a atteint 2 210 en 1970, pour retomber à 2 084 en 1980. Dans l'intervalle, la proportion des graisses dans l'apport énergétique total a passé de 7.7% en 1950 à 22.6% en 1980, alors que la proportion des hydrates de carbone régressait de 79.3% à 62.4%.

Pendant de nombreuses années, le régime alimentaire japonais a été relativement pauvre en protéines animales et en graisses. L'augmentation progressive de l'apport de ces nutriments a sans doute joué un rôle important afin d'accroître la résistance aux maladies infectieuses notamment, et en dernier ressort dans la baisse de la mortalité au Japon.

Un rapprochement a été établi entre une consommation excessive de sel et la recrudescence, ces dernières années, de l'hypertension et du cancer de l'estomac. Selon les estimations, l'apport individuel quotidien en sel, au Japon (3), n'a cessé de diminuer, passant de 14,5 g en 1972 à 12,3 g en 1982. Cette diminution a sans doute contribué à restreindre l'incidence de l'hypertension et, par voie de conséquence, la mortalité due à des accidents cérébrovasculaires, comme on a pu le constater récemment.

Equipements médicaux et autres

En 1950, le Japon comptait 5 119 hôpitaux, 51 349 dispensaires et 24 773 cliniques dentaires. En 1980, les chiffres étaient respectivement de 9 055, 77 611 et 38 834 (3). Le nombre d'hôpitaux, de dispensaires et de cliniques dentaires pour 100 000 habitants était respectivement de 5,7, 57,5 et

33.2 in 1980, respectively. The number of hospital beds and clinic beds per 100 000 population also rose from 574.3 and 127.6 in 1950 to 1128.5 and 246.2 in 1980, respectively. In general, the number of all health professionals except midwives, increased. Among them, the number of nutritionists increased substantially from 21 per 100 000 population in 1950 to 290 per 100 000 in 1980. Physicians increased in number from 95 000 in 1950 to 168 000 in 1980. The corresponding numbers (in thousands) for dentists were 31 and 54, 52 and 116 for pharmacists, 12 and 18 for public health nurses, 55 and 26 for midwives, 130 and 487 for nurses, and 18 and 338 for nutritionists.

These increases in health care facilities and health professionals have led to a gradual improvement in health services delivery and health promotion, which is a basic prerequisite for mortality decline. Health services delivery was further enhanced by national health policies such as the prepaid health insurance system covering the entire Japanese population since 1961, and the free medical care system for the aged established in 1973, as well as for such diseases as tuberculosis and psychosis.

The gradual improvement of the medical service delivery system, along with the increasing numbers of health facilities and professionals, has been facilitated by the rapid socioeconomic development of the country after the Second World War and the ensuing rise in national income.

Implications of mortality changes

The remarkable decline of total and infant mortality rates and of the birth rate in recent decades has been accompanied by several important sociodemographic changes. Projections to the year 2000 (12) suggest that male life expectancy will reach 77.5 years while that for females will be as high as 83 years. The result will be an increase in the aged population and a change in the disease structure. Health and social policies have had to be adapted accordingly. In this section some of the more important sociomedical implications of these health and demographic developments will be discussed.

Increase in aged population

Fewer total and infant deaths with fewer births have resulted in a remarkable increase in the aged population. This is clear from Fig. 7 which shows actual and projected trends in population aging and dependency indices. The old age dependency ratio, calculated as the ratio of the population aged 65 years and over to that aged 15-64 years multiplied by 100, was 9.0 in 1920 and only slightly higher (9.2) in 1965. By 1980, however, it had increased to 13.5 and is expected (13) to rise to 23.3 in the year 2000 and to 35.5 by 2020. As an index of aging, one may examine the aged-child ratio, calculated as the ratio of the population aged 65 years or more to the population aged 0-14 years multiplied by 100. In 1920, the value of this index was 14.4 and slightly less (13.9) in 1950. Since then, the index has risen rapidly, reaching 29.4 in 1970 and 38.7 in 1980. It is expected to be 88.6 in 2000 and 130.5 in 2020. In other words, whereas the aged population was only about 14% greater than the number of children in 1950, it was almost 40% larger in 1980 and by the end of the century there will be almost twice as many old age dependents as childhood dependents for the population of working age to support.

27,7 en 1950, et de 7,7, 66,4 et 33,2 en 1980. Le nombre de lits d'hôpitaux et de lits de dispensaires, pour 100 000 habitants, a également augmenté, passant respectivement de 574,3 et 127,6 en 1950, à 1128,5 et 246,2 en 1980. D'une manière générale, les effectifs de tous les personnels qualifiés de santé ont augmenté, à l'exception des sages-femmes. C'est ainsi que les nutritionnistes ont vu leurs effectifs s'accroître considérablement, de 21 pour 100 000 habitants en 1950 à 290 en 1980. Le nombre des médecins a passé de 95 000 en 1950 à 168 000 en 1980. Les chiffres correspondants (en milliers) étaient de 31 et 54 pour les dentistes, 52 et 116 pour les pharmaciens, 12 et 18 pour les infirmières de santé publique, 55 et 26 pour les sages-femmes, 130 et 487 pour les infirmières, et 18 et 338 pour les nutritionnistes.

Cette augmentation des équipements de soins médicaux et des effectifs de personnel de santé qualifié s'est traduite par une amélioration progressive des prestations sanitaires et de la promotion de la santé — ce qui est un préalable indispensable à la baisse de la mortalité. Les prestations sanitaires sont en outre renforcées par l'adoption de diverses dispositions au plan national, telles que le système de prépaiement de l'assurance maladie, qui couvre depuis 1961 la totalité de la population japonaise, et les soins médicaux gratuits pour les personnes âgées, institués en 1973, ainsi que la gratuité des soins pour des affections telles que la tuberculose et les troubles mentaux.

L'amélioration progressive du système de prestations médicales, de pair avec l'accroissement des effectifs de personnel qualifié et des équipements sanitaires, a été facilitée par le rapide développement socio-économique que le pays a connu après la Seconde Guerre mondiale et l'augmentation du revenu national qui a suivi.

Les effets de l'évolution de la mortalité

La baisse remarquable, pendant les dernières décennies, des taux de mortalité totale et de mortalité infantile, ainsi que du taux de natalité, a été accompagnée par d'importants changements sociodémographiques. Les projections jusqu'à l'an 2000 suggèrent que l'espérance de vie des hommes atteindra 77,5 ans, alors que pour les femmes elle sera aussi élevée que 83 ans. Il en résultera un accroissement des effectifs de population âgée et un changement structurel de la morbidité. Il a fallu adapter les politiques sanitaires et sociales à cette situation. Nous étudierons dans la présente section diverses incidences sociomédicales importantes de cette évolution de la situation sanitaire et démographique.

Accroissement des effectifs de la population âgée

La baisse de la mortalité totale et de la mortalité infantile, associée à une diminution des naissances, a entraîné un net accroissement de la population âgée. Ce phénomène ressort clairement de la fig. 7 qui indique les tendances actuelles et les projections concernant le vieillissement de la population et les indices de dépendance économique. L'indice de dépendance des personnes âgées — calculé sur la base du rapport entre la population âgée de 65 ans et plus et celle âgée de 15-64 ans, multiplié par 100, — atteignait 9,0 en 1920 et à peine plus (9,2) en 1965. En 1980, toutefois, il était de 13,5 et, selon les prévisions, (13) il atteindra 23,3 en l'an 2000 et 35,5 en 2020. Pour obtenir un indicateur du vieillissement de la population, on peut comparer la proportion des personnes âgées à celle des enfants, sur la base du rapport entre la population âgée de 65 ans et plus et celle âgée de 0-14 ans, multiplié par 100. En 1920, cet indicateur était de 14,4, et il était légèrement inférieur (13,9) en 1950. Depuis lors, il a rapidement augmenté, pour atteindre 29,4 en 1970 et 38,7 en 1980. Selon les prévisions, il devrait être de 88,6 en l'an 2000 et de 130,5 en 2020. En d'autres termes, alors que les effectifs de population âgée ne dépassaient que d'environ 14% ceux des enfants en 1950, ils ont atteint près de 40% en 1980 et, à la fin du siècle, il y aura près de 2 fois plus de personnes âgées que d'enfants à charge de la population d'âge actif.

Perhaps a more common indicator of aging is the proportion of the population aged 65 years and over in the total population. This proportion was 5.3% in 1920 and 4.9% in 1950, rising to 5.7% in 1960, 7.1% in 1970, and to 9.1% in 1980. It is projected to reach 15.6% in the year 2000, and 21.8% by 2020. In Japan, the increase in this proportion from 8% to 14% is expected to occur within a period of only 25 years (from 1975 to 2000), whereas the same increase (from 8% to 14%) took 46 years in England, 80 years in Sweden, and 125 years in France (14). An increase in the aged population is a common phenomenon among all the developed countries, but this very rapid shift in the proportion of the aged is especially marked in Japan.

The increase in the proportion of the aged has, of course, serious sociomedical consequences due to the increased number of aged couples or single aged living alone. These include housing difficulties, less satisfactory job opportunities, and increasing demands on pension and medical care expenditure (15).

Health and social services expenditure

Changes in expenditure on health and social services over the last 20 years or so can be seen from Table 3 (3). The proportion of the total budget allocated to the Ministry of Health and Welfare increased from 10.5% in 1960 to 19.1% in 1980. Of the total Ministry of Health and Welfare budget in 1960, 40%, 27% and 16% were allocated for social insurance, livelihood protection^b and public health activities, respectively. The allocation has shifted considerably over the years. Expenditure on social welfare services for the aged has increased almost 10-fold. Government subsidies for social insurance, pensions and national health insurance have accounted for about 60% of the total Ministry of Health and Welfare budget in recent years. These rising allocations reflect the demands associated with the increasing number of the aged in Japan. Also, changes in the disease spectrum referred to earlier have led to consultations for different conditions, namely adult diseases and mental disorders (16).

Expenditure for public health activities by prefectures and local governments is summarized in Table 4 (3). At prefectural level, money has been increasingly allocated for public health activities with the exception of prevention of infectious diseases. At local level, more than one-half of the public health budget has been allocated to the establishment of sanitary facilities such as the installation of a piped water supply system, and sewerage disposal system and human wastes processing services.

Between 1955 and 1980, the total monthly expenditure among wage earners increased from 26 786 yen to 282 263 yen per household (i.e. by a factor of 10.5). Meanwhile, monthly expenses for medical care rose from 506 yen to 5 771 yen, or by 11.4 times (17). The proportion of medical care expenses among total disbursements has, however, remained virtually unchanged, being 1.9% in 1955, 2.2% in 1965, 2.1% in 1975 and 2.0% in 1980. This invariability over the years confirms that subsidies from the social and health insurance schemes have increased at the personal level, since expenditures for medical care have increased dramatically over the period at the national, prefectural and local levels.

National health policy and disease control programmes

In accordance with socioeconomic and public health developments in Japan, the orientation of health pro-

^b Under the Daily Life Security Act, financial assistance is provided to indigent families in order to ensure their minimum needs.

Un indicateur sans doute plus courant du vieillissement de la population consiste à établir une comparaison entre la population totale et la proportion de personnes âgées de 65 ans et plus. Cette proportion était de 5,3% en 1920 et 4,9% en 1950, puis elle a passé à 5,7% en 1960, 7,1% en 1970 et 9,1% en 1980. Selon les projections, le pourcentage atteindra 15,6% en l'an 2000 et 21,8% en 2020. Au Japon, on s'attend à ce qu'une progression passant de 8% à 14% se réalise dans un délai de 25 ans seulement (entre 1975 et l'an 2000), alors que pour une progression identique, le délai sera de 46 ans en Angleterre, de 80 ans en Suède et de 125 ans en France (14). L'accroissement des effectifs de la population âgée est un phénomène commun à tous les pays développés, mais cet accroissement est particulièrement rapide au Japon.

Il a, bien entendu, de sérieuses incidences sociomédicales, étant donné la proportion plus élevée de ménages âgés ou de personnes âgées vivant seules. Il s'ensuit des difficultés de logement, une diminution des occasions d'emploi et une augmentation des prestations des caisses de pension et d'assurance maladie (15).

Dépenses des services sociaux et sanitaires

Le tableau 3 donne un aperçu de l'évolution des dépenses des services sociaux et sanitaires au cours des 20 dernières années (3). La proportion du budget total alloué au Ministère de la santé et des affaires sociales a passé de 10,5% en 1960 à 19,8% en 1980. En 1960, 40%, 27% et 16% de l'ensemble du budget de ce ministère ont été consacrés, respectivement, aux assurances sociales, à la garantie du minimum vital^b et aux activités de santé publique. La ventilation des crédits a considérablement varié au cours des années. Les dépenses de services de sécurité sociale pour les personnes âgées ont augmenté de près de 10 fois. Les subsides d'État pour les assurances sociales, les pensions et l'assurance nationale maladie représentaient ces dernières années environ 60% du budget total du Ministère de la santé et des affaires sociales. Cette augmentation illustre bien les besoins liés au vieillissement de la population au Japon. En outre, l'évolution de la pathologie évoquée plus haut a motivé des consultations pour des affections différentes, en l'occurrence des maladies de l'âge adulte et des troubles mentaux (16).

On trouvera au tableau 4 une récapitulation des dépenses consacrées par les préfectures et les autorités locales aux activités de santé publique (3). Au niveau préfectoral, les activités de santé publique, à l'exception de la prévention des maladies infectieuses, ont bénéficié d'une augmentation constante de crédits. Au niveau local, plus de la moitié du budget de santé publique est consacrée à des travaux de génie sanitaire tels que l'installation de systèmes d'adduction d'eau potable sous canalisations, ou encore de réseaux d'évacuation des eaux usées et de services de traitement des déchets humains.

Entre 1955 et 1980, l'ensemble des dépenses mensuelles des salariés a passé de 26 786 yens à 282 263 yens par ménage (soit un multiple de 10,5). Dans l'intervalle, les dépenses consacrées chaque mois aux frais médicaux ont passé de 506 yens à 5 771 yens, soit un multiple de 11,4 (17). Cependant, la proportion des frais médicaux par rapport aux dépenses totales est restée pratiquement inchangée, avec 1,9% en 1955, 2,2% en 1965, 2,1% en 1975 et 2,0% en 1980. Cette stabilité au cours des années confirme que les allocations consenties par les caisses d'assurance sociale et maladie ont augmenté au niveau de l'individu, car les frais médicaux ont énormément progressé pendant la période considérée sur les plans national, préfectoral et local.

Politique sanitaire nationale et programmes de lutte contre la maladie

Parallèlement aux développements intervenus au Japon dans le domaine socio-économique et en santé publique, les

^b En vertu d'une Loi sur la protection de l'existence quotidienne, une aide financière est offerte aux familles indigentes afin de leur garantir un minimum vital journalier.

grammés and policies has progressively shifted from infectious diseases to chronic diseases, from the single disease to the multiple disease approach, and from treatment to prevention and even further, to health promotion in recent years.

Before and immediately after the Second World War, disease control was targeted at conditions that were infectious in origin. Case finding by mass screening, treatment and care of patients, and immunization were the 3 major strategies for the control of tuberculosis. Effective vaccines and efficient immunization procedures were introduced to combat infectious diseases in childhood, and improvement in environmental sanitation were effective in lowering morbidity and death from diarrhoeal diseases.

Some infectious diseases such as cholera, plague, smallpox, typhus, and rabies have now been completely eradicated in Japan (5). For other infectious diseases which include paratyphoid fever, diphtheria, Japanese encephalitis, poliomyelitis, malaria, tetanus, anthrax, leprosy, epidemic diarrhoea, and parasitoses such as ascariasis, oxyuriasis, hookworm or tape worm disease and filariasis, the morbidity rate is now 0.1, or less, per 100 000 population. The control programmes undertaken against these infectious diseases were generally orientated towards eradicating a single disease at a time.

The emergence of chronic or degenerative diseases such as stroke, hypertension, heart disease and cancer has underlined the need not only for treatment and care programmes, but also for research and preventive action. To assess the extent of the problem, national surveys of morbidity due to malignant neoplasms were conducted in 1958, 1960, 1963 and 1979, and of circulatory diseases in 1961-1962, 1971-1972 and 1980 (3).

In 1965, a national cancer control programme was initiated with 5 major elements: education and information, mass screening, establishment of cancer centres, training of cancer specialists, and research promotion.

In 1969, a national stroke prevention programme was started, which included hypertension detection by mass screening, treatment and care of patients, and health education.

Along with the nationwide implementation of these programmes, the Ministry of Health and Welfare has allocated part of the budget specifically for cancer control since 1965, and for stroke prevention since 1973 (3). For the cancer control programme, the Ministry of Health and Welfare appropriated 1 330 million yen in 1965, 3 367 million yen in 1970, 10 046 million yen in 1975, 14 788 million yen in 1980, and 18 227 million yen in 1982. Of this annual expenditure, 91% was set aside for establishing medical institutions in 1965 but only 77% in 1980. Meanwhile the proportion allocated for research promotion rose from 9.0% to 10.6%, while that for preventive mass-screening activities increased from 0% to 7.2%. For the stroke prevention programmes, the Ministry of Health and Welfare appropriated 1 798 million yen in 1973, 2 946 million yen in 1975, 12 647 million yen in 1980, and 13 018 million yen in 1982. Of the expenditure for stroke prevention in 1982, 83% was allocated for the establishment of medical institutions, 15% to prevention by mass screening, and 2% to research.

The success of these programmes can be gauged from the rapid rise in population covered and the concomitant fall in mortality. In 1965, 567 000 people were screened for gastric cancer, rising to 2 165 000 in 1970 and 3 830 000 in 1980. Ninety-five thousand females were screened for cervical cancer in 1965, rising to 748 000 in 1970 and 2 444 000 in 1980. The age-adjusted mortality

politiques et les programmes de santé ont progressivement changé d'orientation: on est passé des maladies infectieuses aux maladies chroniques, de l'approche monopathologique à une approche pluripathologique, et du traitement de la maladie à sa prévention et même, ces dernières années, à la promotion de la santé.

Avant et immédiatement après la Seconde Guerre mondiale, la lutte contre la maladie avait pour cible des états pathologiques d'origine infectieuse. Le dépistage de masse, le traitement et les soins, ainsi que la vaccination constituaient les 3 stratégies essentielles de la lutte antituberculeuse. Des vaccins efficaces et des méthodes efficaces de vaccination ont été utilisées pour lutter contre les maladies infectieuses de l'enfance, et l'amélioration de l'assainissement a permis de réduire la mortalité et la morbidité dues aux maladies diarrhéiques.

Certaines maladies infectieuses telles que le choléra, la peste, la variole, le typhus et la rage sont aujourd'hui complètement éradiquées au Japon (5). Pour d'autres maladies infectieuses, le taux de morbidité est actuellement de 0,1 au maximum, pour 100 000 habitants. Parmi ces maladies figurent la fièvre paratyphoïde, la diphtérie, l'encéphalite japonaise, la poliomyélite, le paludisme, le tétanos, le charbon, la lèpre, la diarrhée épidémique et des parasitoses telles que l'ascaridiose, l'oxyurose, l'ankylostomiase ou le ver solitaire, et la filariose. Les programmes de lutte contre ces maladies infectieuses ont généralement été axés sur l'éradication d'une seule maladie à la fois.

L'apparition de maladies chroniques ou dégénératives telles que les accidents cérébrovasculaires, l'hypertension, les cardiopathies et le cancer a montré la nécessité de recourir non seulement à des programmes de traitement et de soins, mais également à l'action préventive et à la recherche. Pour évaluer l'étendue du problème, des enquêtes nationales relatives à la morbidité due aux tumeurs malignes ont été faites en 1958, 1960, 1963 et 1979, ainsi que sur les maladies de l'appareil circulatoire en 1961-1962, 1971-1972 et 1980 (3).

En 1965, un programme national de lutte anticancéreuse a été lancé, qui comprenait 5 éléments essentiels: éducation et information, dépistage de masse, création de centres anticancéreux, formation de spécialistes du cancer et promotion de la recherche.

En 1969, a débuté un programme national de prévention des accidents cérébrovasculaires, faisant appel au dépistage de masse de l'hypertension, au traitement et aux soins, ainsi qu'à l'éducation pour la santé.

Parallèlement à l'exécution de ces programmes à l'échelon national, le Ministère de la santé et des affaires sociales a affecté une partie de son budget plus particulièrement à la lutte anticancéreuse, à partir de 1965, et à la prévention des accidents cérébrovasculaires à partir de 1973 (3). Les crédits accordés par le ministère au programme de lutte anticancéreuse ont atteint 1 330 millions yens en 1965, 3 367 millions en 1970, 10 046 millions en 1975, 14 788 millions en 1980 et 18 227 millions en 1982. En 1965, 91% de ces dépenses annuelles ont été consacrées à la création d'établissements médicaux, contre 77% en 1980. Dans l'intervalle, la part des crédits alloués à la promotion de la recherche est passée de 9,0% à 10,6%, alors que la progression allait de 0% à 7,2% pour les travaux de dépistage de masse exécutés à titre préventif. Le Ministère de la santé et des affaires sociales a alloué aux programmes de prévention des accidents cérébrovasculaires 1 798 millions yens en 1973, 2 946 millions en 1975, 12 647 millions en 1980 et 13 018 millions en 1982. En 1982, 83% des crédits affectés à la prévention des accidents cérébrovasculaires ont été consacrés à la création d'établissements médicaux, 15% à la prévention par le dépistage de masse et 2% à la recherche.

Le succès de ces programmes peut se mesurer à la rapide extension de la couverture de la population et à la baisse de mortalité qui a suivi. En 1965, le dépistage du cancer de l'estomac a porté sur 567 000 personnes, contre 2 165 000 en 1970 et 3 830 000 en 1980. Le dépistage du cancer du col de l'utérus a été pratiqué sur 95 000 femmes en 1965, 748 000 en 1970 et 2 444 000 en 1980. En ce qui concerne le cancer

rate from gastric cancer decreased from 46.3 per 100 000 in 1965 to 31.4 in 1980 among males and from 28.5 to 19.2 for females (2). The age-adjusted mortality rate from uterine cancer also decreased, from 11.0 per 100 000 in 1965 to 5.5 per 100 000 in 1980.

Similarly, those screened by blood pressure measurement rose from 1 488 000 in 1965 to 2 371 000 in 1970, and to 7 160 000 in 1980. The number of electrocardiographic examinations also increased sharply from 255 000 in 1965 to 623 000 in 1970 and to 1 668 000 in 1980. Meanwhile, the age-adjusted mortality rate from stroke decreased from 111.1 per 100 000 in 1973 to 72.9 in 1980 among males and from 98.4 to 67.2 per 100 000 among females (3).

In addition to gastric and cervical cancer, cancers of other sites are included in the cancer control programme. In the stroke prevention programmes target diseases include not only stroke but also hypertension, heart disease, liver disease and diabetes mellitus. Thus, these control programmes are multiple-disease oriented and are preventive in as much as they focus on secondary prevention.

In 1982, the control programmes for stroke and cancer were integrated under new legislation (3). This legislation defines 65 major activities: (i) distribution of "health notebooks", (ii) health education, (iii) health consultation, (iv) medical checkups, (v) rehabilitation, and (vi) home visits to bedridden persons. These activities are offered to all persons aged 40 years or more (with the exception of cervical cancer screening which is offered to females over 30 years of age), and are now promoted in cities, towns and villages throughout the country.

According to the 1983 national health survey (18), of about 16 000 households randomly selected throughout the country, 68.2% of the 53 000 respondents aged 20 years and over had had one or more medical checkups during 1982. Of those examined, 54% had their blood pressure measured, 46.3% had urinalysis, 23.0% were given a gastric x-ray examination, 49.6% had a chest x-ray, and 13.8% of women were screened for cervical cancer. On the basis of these data on attendance for medical examination, it appears that there is a high degree of health consciousness among the Japanese population geared towards prevention of adulthood diseases and health promotion.

Perspectives

Japan now enjoys low total and infant mortality rates and economic prosperity, but it is faced with serious sociomedical problems inherent in the increasing aged population. As a result of the conquest of the infectious diseases, there is now a growing number of patients suffering from chronic ailments. At the same time expenditure for medical treatment and care, and for social insurance and welfare is increasing very rapidly.

The legislative framework to cope with these problems has already been established. Following the nationwide implementation of activities proposed under this policy, the framework should be evaluated in the near future from a legislative and sociomedical viewpoint. Other national health policies for coping with essential health problems should ensure the efficient development and distribution of the medical service delivery system, a balanced evolution and integration of medical technology, public health and welfare, the implementation of intensive health pro-

de l'estomac, le taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge, a régressé de 46,3 pour 100 000 en 1965, à 31,4 en 1980 chez les hommes, et de 28,5 à 19,2 chez les femmes (2). Le taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge a également diminué pour le cancer de l'utérus, passant de 11,0 pour 100 000 en 1965 à 5,5 en 1980.

De même, des mesures de tension artérielle ont été pratiquées en 1965 sur 1 488 000 personnes, contre 2 371 000 en 1970 et 7 160 000 en 1980. Le nombre d'électrocardiogrammes a également fortement augmenté, passant de 255 000 en 1965 à 623 000 en 1970 et 1 668 000 en 1980. Dans l'intervalle, le taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge, pour les accidents cérébrovasculaires, a régressé de 111,1 pour 100 000 en 1973 à 72,9 en 1980 chez les hommes, et de 98,4 à 67,2 chez les femmes (3).

D'autres cancers sont englobés dans le programme de lutte anticancéreuse, en plus des cancers de l'estomac et du col de l'utérus. Dans les programmes de prévention des accidents cérébrovasculaires, ce sont non seulement ceux-ci qui sont visés, mais encore l'hypertension, les cardiopathies, les hépatites et le diabète sucré. Ces programmes de lutte ont donc un caractère pluri-pathologique et également préventif, dans la mesure où ils sont axés sur la prévention secondaire.

En 1982, une législation nouvelle est entrée en vigueur, englobant les programmes de lutte contre le cancer et les accidents cérébrovasculaires (3). Ces dispositions visent 6 activités essentielles: i) distribution de « carnets de santé », ii) éducation pour la santé, iii) consultations médicales, iv) contrôles médicaux, v) réadaptation et vi) visites à domicile aux personnes alitées. Ces prestations sont offertes à toutes les personnes âgées de 40 ans ou plus (à l'exception du dépistage du cancer du col de l'utérus, dont bénéficient les femmes de plus de 30 ans), et une large publicité leur est actuellement faite dans les villes, agglomérations et villages sur l'ensemble du territoire national.

D'après l'enquête nationale de santé de 1983 (18) portant sur environ 16 000 ménages sélectionnés au hasard dans l'ensemble du pays, 60,2% des 53 000 personnes âgées de 20 ans et plus qui ont répondu aux enquêteurs avaient subi un ou plusieurs contrôles médicaux en 1982. Elles s'étaient soumises aux examens suivants: mesure de la tension artérielle, 54%, analyses d'urine, 46,3%; radiographie de l'estomac, 23,0%; radiographie thoracique, 49,6%; et dépistage du cancer du col de l'utérus chez la femme, 13,8%. Ces données sur la pratique des examens médicaux tendent à démontrer que la population japonaise a hautement conscience des problèmes de santé, et qu'elle se préoccupe surtout de la prévention des maladies de l'âge adulte et de la promotion de la santé.

Perspectives

Le Japon connaît aujourd'hui, avec la prospérité économique, des taux peu élevés de mortalité totale et de mortalité infantile, mais il doit faire face à de graves problèmes médico-sociaux liés au vieillissement de la population. Après que les maladies infectieuses ont été maîtrisées, on observe aujourd'hui un nombre croissant de malades atteints de troubles chroniques en même temps que les frais occasionnés par les traitements et les soins médicaux, ainsi que le coût des assurances sociales, augmentent très rapidement.

Les structures législatives nécessaires pour faire face à ces difficultés ont déjà été mises en place. Après l'exécution, à l'échelle nationale, des activités proposées au titre de cette politique, il conviendra de procéder dans un proche avenir à une évaluation de ces structures, sur le plan législatif comme sur le plan médico-social. D'autres directives sanitaires nationales destinées à résoudre des problèmes majeurs de santé doivent garantir l'extension et une répartition efficaces des prestations médicales, ainsi qu'une évolution et une intégration équilibrées des techniques médicales, de la santé publi-

motion activities including primary prevention, and promotion of appropriate research. As for the national health insurance system, its present and future functions in the context of national medical care and health promotion policies should be evaluated with respect to various facets of the system and, if necessary, the system should be partly, largely or wholly improved.

To resolve these problems and to rationalize the health care and promotion system in Japan, education is of utmost importance since an understanding of the present sociomedical situation is the key to the changes required, and since a well-educated individual is usually an important catalyst of social evolution and changes. The exchange of knowledge and of the results of research on such problems between countries with similar sociomedical problems is critical to this goal.

que et de la sécurité sociale, et encore l'application de mesures énergiques de promotion de la santé, dont la prévention primaire, et d'encouragement de travaux appropriés de recherche. Pour ce qui est du système national d'assurance maladie, il conviendrait de procéder à une évaluation de ses attributions présentes et futures, dans le contexte des politiques nationales de prestations médicales et de promotion de la santé, afin d'explorer les différents aspects du système et, si nécessaire, de le modifier partiellement, largement ou totalement.

L'éducation joue un rôle d'une extrême importance dans la solution de ces problèmes et dans la rationalisation du système de soins et de promotion de la santé au Japon, car une certaine connaissance de l'actuelle situation médico-sociale est indispensable pour que les changements nécessaires puissent être apportés, et une bonne instruction personnelle constitue habituellement un important catalyseur de l'évolution sociale. Pour atteindre cet objectif, il est nécessaire aussi de procéder à des échanges de connaissances et de résultats de travaux de recherche sur ces problèmes entre les pays qui se trouvent dans la même situation médico-sociale.

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TABLE 1. AGE-ADJUSTED DEATH RATES FROM ALL CAUSES PER 1 000 POPULATION, AND INFANT MORTALITY RATES PER 1 000 LIVE BIRTHS, JAPAN, 1916-1981

TABEAU 1. TAUX DE MORTALITÉ CORRIGÉ SELON L'ÂGE, TOUTES CAUSES CONFONDUES, POUR 1 000 HABITANTS, ET TAUX DE MORTALITÉ INFANTILE POUR 1 000 NAISSANCES VIVANTES, JAPON, 1916-1981

| Year Année | AADR* Taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge* | IMR ^b Taux de mortalité infantile ^b | Year Année | AADR Taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge | IMR Taux de mortalité infantile | Year Année | AADR Taux de mortalité corrigé selon l'âge | IMR Taux de mortalité infantile |
|---------------|---|--|---------------|---|------------------------------------|---------------|---|------------------------------------|
| 1916 | 21.1 | — | 1938 | 17.6 | 114.4 | 1960 | 6.9 | 30.7 |
| 1917 | 21.4 | — | 1939 | 18.1 | 106.2 | 1961 | 6.6 | 28.6 |
| 1918 | 26.8 | — | 1940 | 16.7 | 90.0 | 1962 | 6.5 | 26.4 |
| 1919 | 23.0 | — | 1941 | 16.1 | 84.1 | 1963 | 6.0 | 23.2 |
| 1920 | 25.2 | 165.7 | 1942 | 16.1 | 85.5 | 1964 | 5.8 | 20.4 |
| 1921 | 22.5 | 168.3 | 1943 | 16.7 | 86.6 | 1965 | 5.9 | 18.5 |
| 1922 | 22.1 | 166.4 | 1944 | — | — | 1966 | 5.5 | 19.3 |
| 1923 | 22.5 | 163.4 | 1945 | — | — | 1967 | 5.4 | 14.9 |
| 1924 | 20.8 | 156.2 | 1946 | — | — | 1968 | 5.3 | 15.3 |
| 1925 | 19.9 | 142.4 | 1947 | 15.1 | 76.7 | 1969 | 5.2 | 14.2 |
| 1926 | 18.7 | 137.5 | 1948 | 12.1 | 61.7 | 1970 | 5.1 | 13.1 |
| 1927 | 19.3 | 141.3 | 1949 | 11.7 | 62.5 | 1971 | 4.8 | 12.4 |
| 1928 | 19.3 | 137.6 | 1950 | 10.8 | 60.1 | 1972 | 4.6 | 11.7 |
| 1929 | 19.4 | 142.1 | 1951 | 9.7 | 57.5 | 1973 | 4.6 | 11.3 |
| 1930 | 17.8 | 124.1 | 1952 | 8.7 | 49.4 | 1974 | 4.4 | 10.8 |
| 1931 | 18.8 | 131.5 | 1953 | 8.7 | 48.9 | 1975 | 4.2 | 10.0 |
| 1932 | 17.6 | 117.5 | 1954 | 8.0 | 44.6 | 1976 | 4.0 | 9.3 |
| 1933 | 17.7 | 121.3 | 1955 | 7.6 | 39.8 | 1977 | 3.8 | 8.9 |
| 1934 | 18.0 | 124.8 | 1956 | 7.7 | 40.6 | 1978 | 3.7 | 8.4 |
| 1935 | 16.8 | 106.7 | 1957 | 7.9 | 40.0 | 1979 | 3.5 | 7.9 |
| 1936 | 17.6 | 116.7 | 1958 | 7.0 | 34.5 | 1980 | 3.6 | 7.5 |
| 1937 | 17.0 | 105.8 | 1959 | 6.9 | 33.7 | 1981 | 3.4 | 7.1 |

1939: Beginning of the Second World War. — 1939: Commencement de la Seconde Guerre mondiale.

1941: Beginning of the Pacific Ocean War. — 1941: Commencement de la Guerre du Pacifique.

1945: End of the Second World War. — 1945: Fin de la Seconde Guerre mondiale.

* AADR: Age-adjusted death rate (standard population: Japanese population in 1935) — (Population standard: Population japonaise en 1935)

^b IMR: Infant mortality rate

TABLE 2. DIFFUSION RATE OF INDEX FOR SANITARY ENVIRONMENT, JAPAN, 1955, 1960-1982
TABLEAU 2. INDICATEUR D'ASSAINISSEMENT ET TAUX DE COUVERTURE, JAPON, 1955, 1960-1982

| Year — Année | Percentage of the population served by: — Pourcentage de la population desservie par: | | | |
|--------------|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | Piped water supply Eau courante (concessions) | Sewerage system Système d'égouts | Waste processing service Service de traitement des déchets | Flush toilet Toilettes à chasse d'eau |
| 1955 | 32.2 | — | — | — |
| 1960 | 53.4 | — | — | — |
| 1961 | 57.2 | — | — | — |
| 1962 | 60.4 | — | — | — |
| 1963 | 63.7 | — | — | — |
| 1964 | 66.7 | 7.1 | 60.9 | 9.2 |
| 1965 | 69.4 | 7.9 | 62.3 | 10.4 |
| 1966 | 72.2 | 8.3 | 65.4 | 12.6 |
| 1967 | 74.7 | 10.1 | 68.6 | 14.6 |
| 1968 | 76.9 | 11.1 | 71.5 | 16.8 |
| 1969 | 79.0 | 12.7 | 75.0 | 17.7 |
| 1970 | 80.8 | 14.0 | 78.6 | 19.1 |
| 1971 | 82.7 | 15.6 | 81.6 | 21.1 |
| 1972 | 84.3 | 16.6 | 85.0 | 21.1 |
| 1973 | 85.4 | 16.5 | 85.6 | 23.6 |
| 1974 | 86.7 | 19.5 | 86.6 | 26.1 |
| 1975 | 87.8 | 20.5 | 88.7 | 29.1 |
| 1976 | 88.6 | 22.8 | 89.3 | 32.4 |
| 1977 | 84.9 | 24.6 | 88.9 | 34.7 |
| 1978 | 84.9 | 26.7 | 89.1 | 37.9 |
| 1979 | 90.3 | 26.7 | 89.3 | 41.2 |
| 1979 | 91.0 | 28.0 | 89.4 | 43.2 |
| 1980 | 91.5 | 29.5 | 89.6 | 45.5 |
| 1981 | 91.9 | 30.7 | 89.7 | 47.5 |
| 1982 | 92.2 | 32.0 | — | — |

TABLE 3. TRENDS IN NATIONAL BUDGET FOR MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND WELFARE AND ITS ALLOCATION, JAPAN
TABLEAU 3. TENDANCES: PART DU BUDGET NATIONAL ALLOUÉE AU MINISTÈRE DE LA SANTÉ ET DES AFFAIRES SOCIALES ET VENTILATIONS DES CRÉDITS, JAPON

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1983 |
|---|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Total budget (million yen) — Budget total (en millions yen) | | | | | | |
| Budget for MHW — Budget du Ministère de la Santé et des Affaires sociales | 1 589 875 184 034 (10.5%) | 3 658 090 478 741 (13.1%) | 7 946 784 1 103 473 (13.9%) | 21 288 800 3 908 729 (18.4%) | 42 588 843 6 149 475 (19.1%) | 50 379 803 9 061 468 (18.0%) |
| Expenditure items — Postes de dépenses | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Livelihood protection — Garantie du minimum vital | 27.2 | 22.1 | 19.7 | 13.7 | 11.7 | 12.0 |
| Social welfare — Assistance sociale: | 8.0 | 9.0 | 10.1 | 15.8 | 16.8 | 21.2 |
| children — enfants | 5.2 | 6.0 | 6.9 | 7.9 | 7.3 | 9.2 |
| the elderly — personnes âgées | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 9.8 |
| the handicapped — handicapés | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.6 |
| other categories — autres catégories | 12.6 | 5.4 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| Social insurance — Assurances sociales: | 39.6 | 43.8 | 52.9 | 59.3 | 62.1 | 58.0 |
| government subsidy for social insurance — subvention du gouvernement pour les assurances sociales | 4.7 | 5.4 | 7.8 | 10.8 | 7.0 | 7.6 |
| government subsidy for national pension — subvention du gouvernement pour pensions nationales | 17.6 | 13.2 | 12.4 | 19.6 | 20.7 | 17.1 |
| government subsidy for national insurance — subvention du gouvernement pour l'assurance nationale | 16.9 | 25.0 | 32.4 | 27.2 | 26.1 | 25.5 |
| others — autres | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 8.3 | 7.8 |
| Public health — Santé publique: | 16.4 | 19.4 | 12.7 | 7.0 | 4.9 | 4.7 |
| treatment of tuberculosis — traitement de la tuberculose | 1.6 | 6.8 | 3.9 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| treatment of psychiatric disorders — traitement des troubles psychiatriques | 0.6 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 |
| A-bomb impalments — séquelles de la bombe A | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.1 |
| other public health activities — autres activités de santé publique | 2.4 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.9 |
| public health institutions — établissements de santé publique | 10.5 | 6.8 | 3.1 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.2 |
| quarantine — quarantaine | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.05 | 0.05 |
| others — autres | 1.1 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 6.3 | 0.4 |
| Promotion of scientific technology — Promotion de la technologie scientifique | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Sanitation — Assainissement | 1.5 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 1.7 |
| Others — Autres | 6.8 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.1 |

TABLE 4. EXPENDITURE FOR PUBLIC HEALTH IN PREFECTURAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS, AND ITS ALLOCATION, JAPAN
 TABLEAU 4. VENTILATION DES DÉPENSES DE SANTÉ PUBLIQUE DES AUTORITÉS PRÉFECTORALES ET LOCALES, JAPON

| Prefectural governments Autorités préfectorales | 1955 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1982 |
|---|--------|--------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Total expenditure (million yen) -- Dépenses totales (millions de yens) | 12 319 | 21 760 | 140 647 | 280 097 | 720 228 | 1 033 795 | 1 114 804 |
| | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Expenditure items -- Postes de dépenses | | | | | | | |
| Prevention of tuberculosis -- Prévention de la tuberculose | 35.0% | 27.3% | 28.0% | 10.4% | 8.5% | 5.0% | 4.0% |
| Prevention of other infectious diseases -- Prévention d'autres maladies infectieuses | 13.0 | 10.3 | | | | | |
| Other public health activities -- Autres activités de santé publique | | 28.2 | 40.4 | 55.8 | 59.1 | 68.0 | 69.5 |
| Health centres -- Centres de santé | 52.0 | 12.0 | 13.8 | 14.9 | 12.0 | 11.7 | 11.4 |
| Establishment of sanitary environment -- Création d'un environnement sain | | 22.2 | 19.2 | 13.0 | 20.5 | 15.3 | 15.1 |
| Local (city town, village) governments Autorités locales (villes agglomérations, villages) | | | | | | | |
| Total expenditure (in yen) -- Dépenses totales (en yen) | 18 419 | 26 112 | 148 574 | 308 134 | 1 058 647 | 1 857 636 | 2 090 958 |
| | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Expenditure items -- Postes de dépenses | | | | | | | |
| Prevention of tuberculosis -- Prévention de la tuberculose | 7.7 | 8.9 | 7.8 | 6.3 | 3.2 | 1.8 | 1.6 |
| Prevention of other infectious diseases -- Prévention d'autres maladies infectieuses | 11.6 | 14.0 | 29.3 | 35.5 | 34.7 | 40.6 | 41.4 |
| Other public health activities -- Autres activités de santé publique | 41.0 | | | | | | |
| Health centres -- Centres de santé | | 3.5 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 3.1 |
| Sanitation -- Assainissement | 39.7 | 55.7 | 58.8 | 55.4 | 58.3 | 54.4 | 53.9 |

FIG. 1
 TRENDS IN LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH, IN JAPAN, BY SEX, 1921-1925 TO 1983
 LES TENDANCES DE L'ESPÉRANCE DE VIE À LA NAISSANCE, PAR SEXE, AU JAPON 1921-1925 À 1983

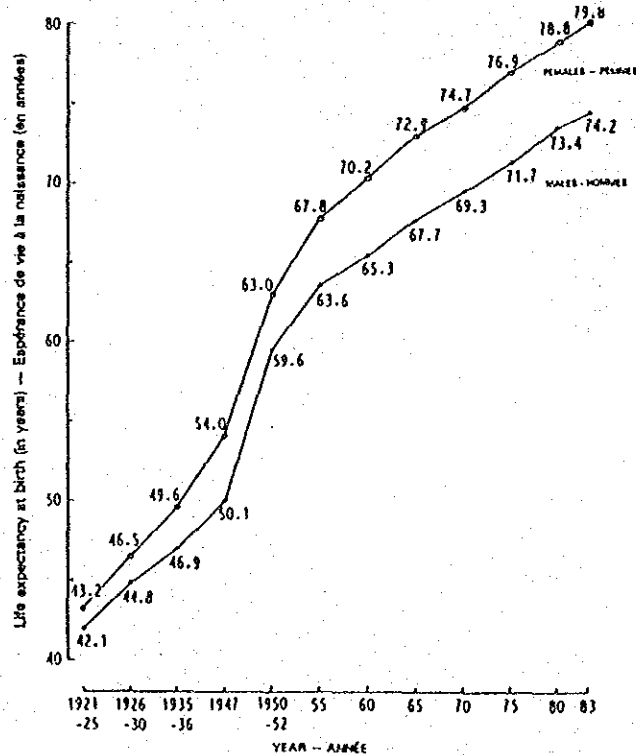


FIG. 2
 TRENDS IN AGE-ADJUSTED MORTALITY RATES BY CAUSE, JAPAN 1938-1980
 TENDANCES DES TAUX DE MORTALITÉ CORRIGÉS SELON L'ÂGE
 PAR CAUSE DE DÉCÈS, JAPON, 1938-1980

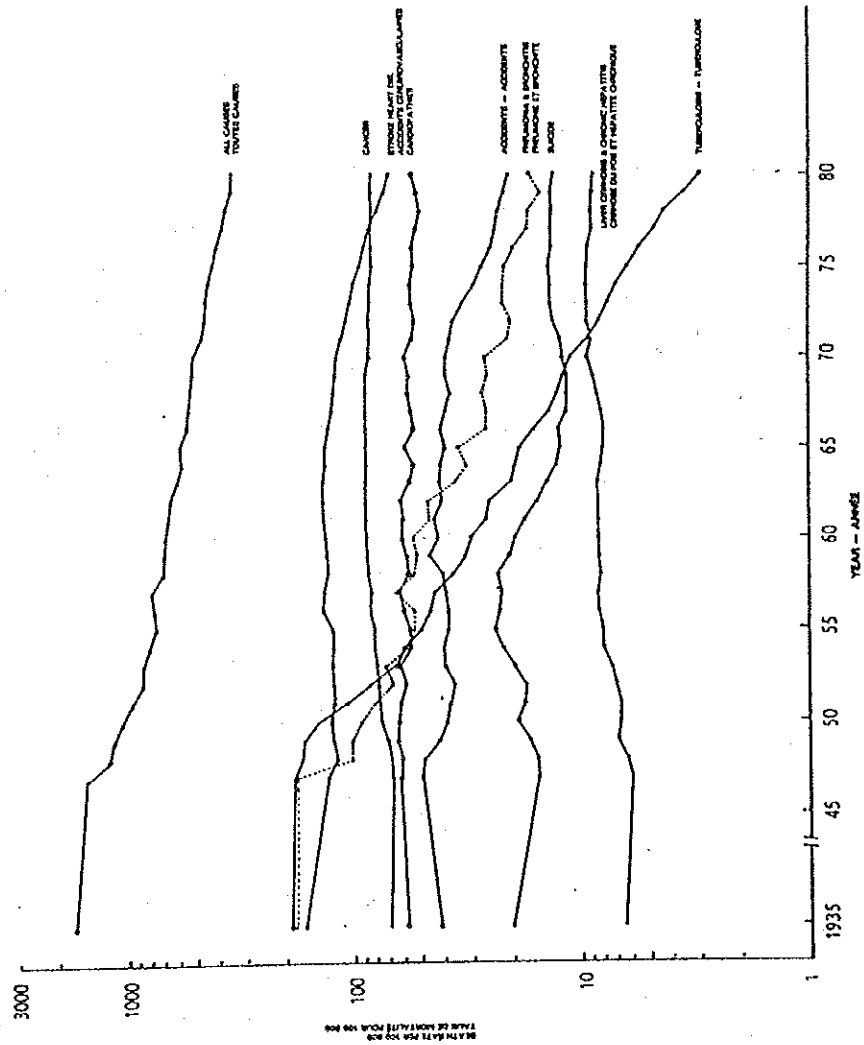


FIG. 3
 TRENDS IN AGE-SPECIFIC DEATH RATE
 FROM ALL CAUSES OF DEATH, JAPAN, 1938-1980
 TENDANCES DES TAUX SPÉCIFIQUES DE MORTALITÉ PAR ÂGE
 TOUTES CAUSES CONFONDUES, JAPON, 1938-1980

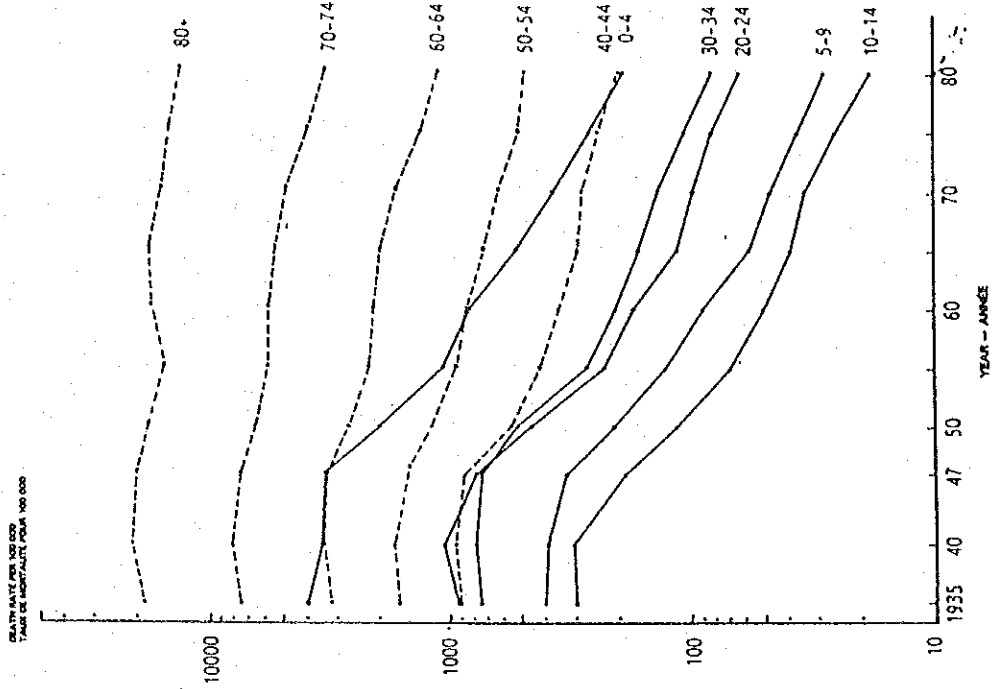


FIG. 4b
 TRENDS IN INCIDENCE OF SELECTED INFECTIOUS DISEASES,
 JAPAN, 1945-1983
 LES TENDANCES DE L'INCIDENCE DE CERTAINES MALADIES INFECTIEUSES,
 JAPON, 1945-1983

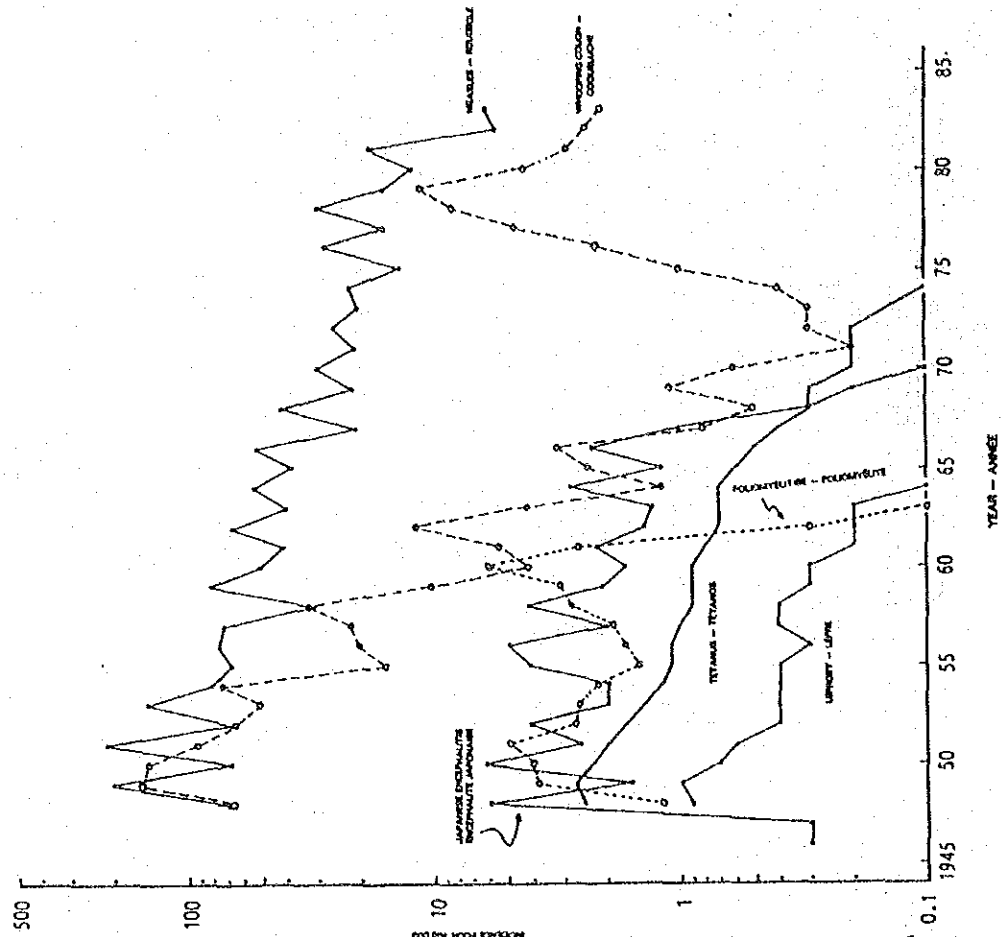
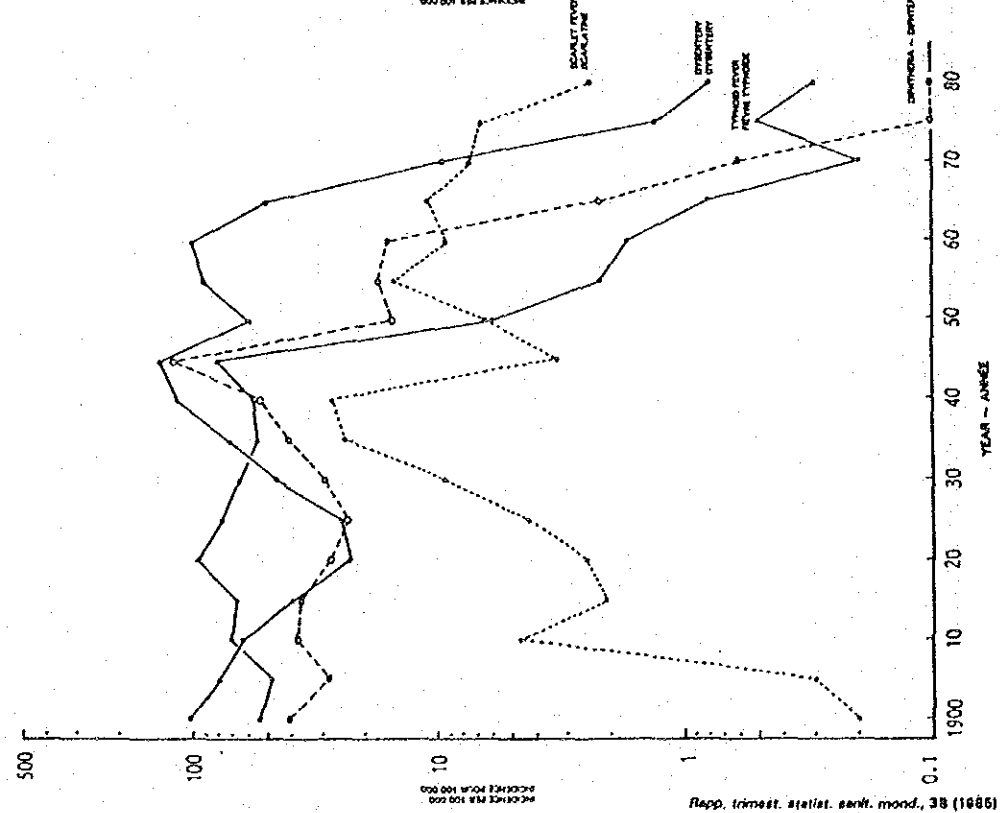


FIG. 4a
 TRENDS IN INCIDENCE OF SELECTED INFECTIOUS DISEASES,
 JAPAN, 1900-1980
 LES TENDANCES DE L'INCIDENCE DE CERTAINES MALADIES INFECTIEUSES,
 JAPON 1900-1980



Rapp. trimest. statist. sanlt. mond., 38 (1985)

FIG. 5
NUTRITIONAL INTAKE, JAPAN, 1950-1980
APPORT NUTRITIONNEL, JAPON, 1950-1980

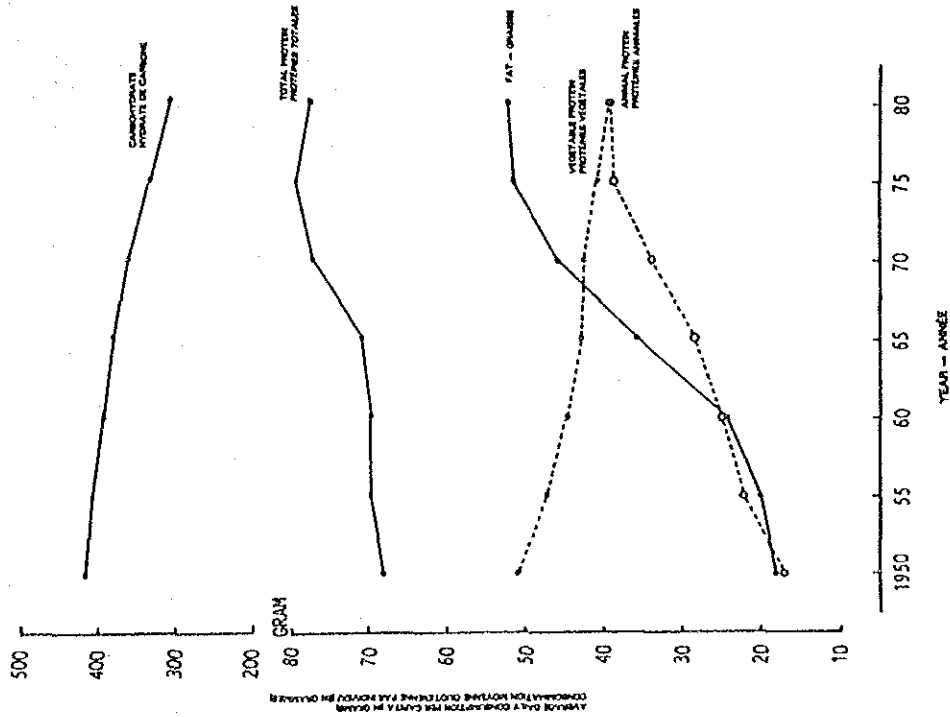


FIG. 6
CHANGING COMPOSITION OF NUTRIENTS IN TOTAL ENERGY INTAKE,
JAPAN, 1950-1980
MODIFICATIONS DE LA COMPOSITION EN NUTRIMENTS DE L'APPORT ÉNERGÉTIQUE TOTAL,
JAPON, 1950-1980

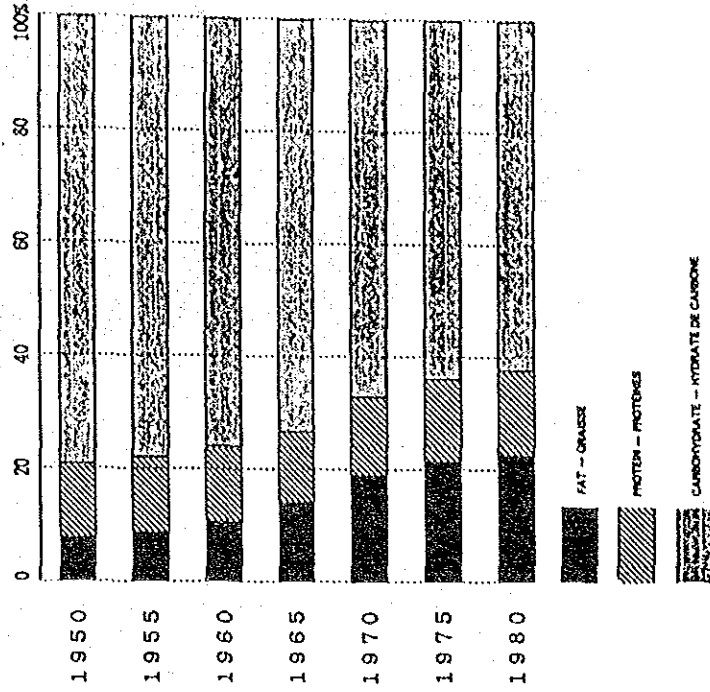
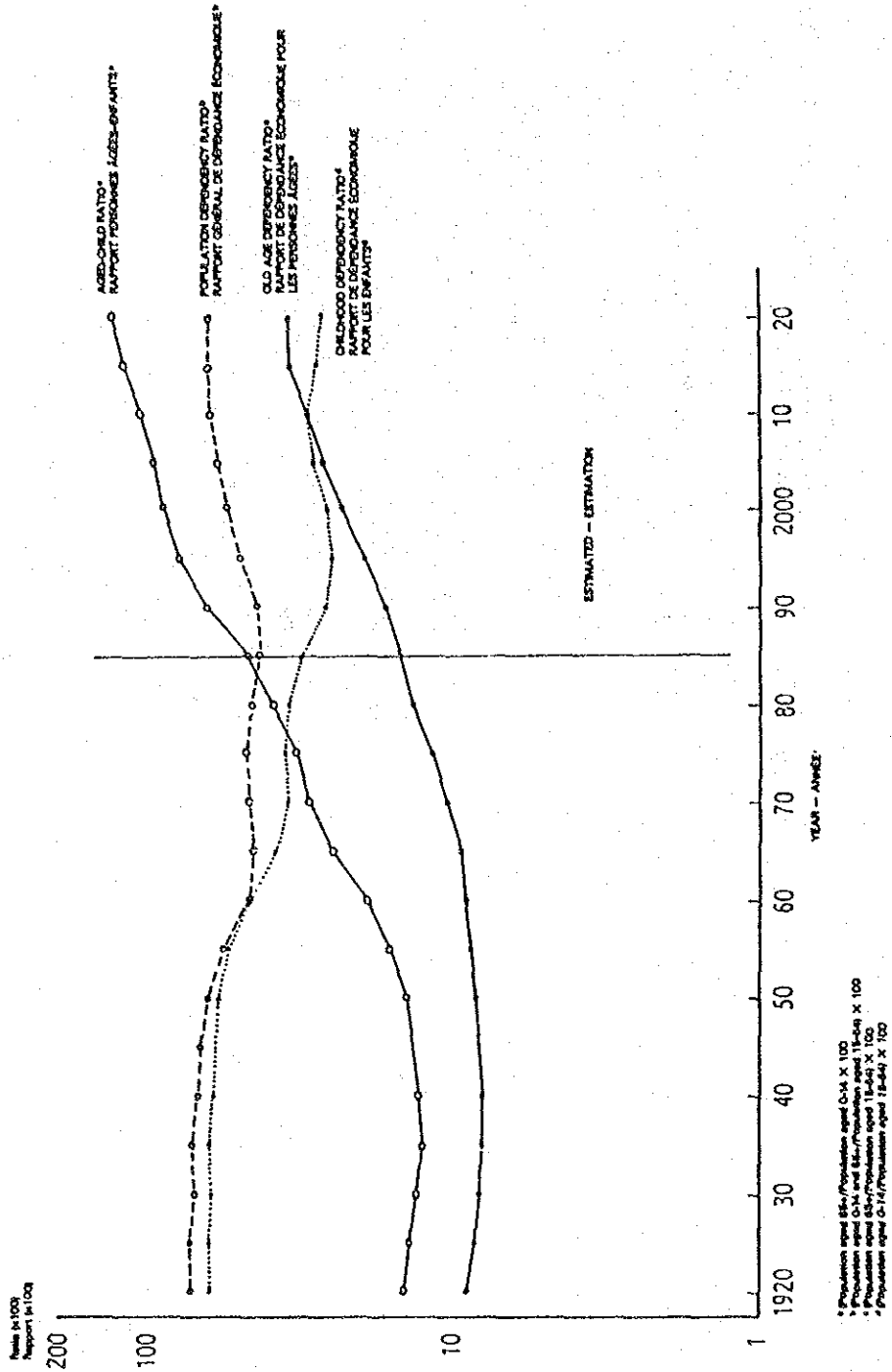


FIG. 7
 TRENDS AND PROJECTIONS OF SELECTED AGE-COMPOSITION INDICES, JAPAN, 1920-2020
 TENDANCES ET PROJECTIONS CONCERNANT QUELQUES INDICATEURS DE LA COMPOSITION PAR AGE DE LA
 POPULATION, JAPON, 1920-2020



WORLD HEALTH STATISTICS
ANNUAL
ANNUAIRE
DE STATISTIQUES SANITAIRES
MONDIALES

1984



WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
ORGANISATION MONDIALE DE LA SANTÉ

GENÈVE

1984

1. POPULATION, NATALITE, MORTALITE GENERALE ET ACCROISSEMENT NATUREL

(SEE NOTES AND SYMBOLS FOLLOWING THE INTRODUCTION)

(VOIR LES NOTES ET SYMBOLES A LA SUITE DE L'INTRODUCTION)

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | POPULATION ^{1,2,3} | | | | | | VITAL EVENTS ^{1,2,3} | | | |
|--|---|------------------|---|------|-------|--|-------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| | LATEST OFFICIAL ESTIMATE (IN THOUSANDS) DERNIERE ESTIMATION OFFICIELLE (EN MILLEERS) | | PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE IN YEARS ⁴ STRACTION PAR GROUPE D'AGE (ANNES) ⁴ | | | RATE PER 1000 POPULATION ⁵ TAUX P. 1000 HABITANTS ⁵ | | | | |
| | YEAR ANNEE | NUMBER NOMBRE | YEAR ANNEE | 0-14 | 15-64 | 65+ | YEAR(S) ANNEE(S) | LYVE BIRTHS LITS | DEATHS MORTA- LITS | NATURAL INCREASE ACCROIS- SEMENT NATUREL |
| ASIA - ASIE | | | | | | | | | | |
| AFGHANISTAN | 1983 | 17 222* | 1979 | 44.6 | 53.0 | 2.6 | 1979* | 48.1 | 22.3 | 25.8 |
| BAHRAIN - BAHRÉIN | 1982 | 371 | 1980* | 34.7 | 63.3 | 1.1 | 1980-83* | 32.3 | 6.3 | 27.0 |
| BANGLADESH | 1983 | 84 851* | 1981 | 41.2 | 56.0 | 2.0 | 1982 | 26.1 | 12.0 | 23.1 |
| BHUTAN - BHOUTAN | 1984 | 1 388* | 1980* | 40.4 | 56.4 | 3.2 | 1980-83* | 38.4 | 10.1 | 20.3 |
| BRUNEI | 1982 | 200 | 1982 | 38.0 | 56.0 | 2.0 | 1982 | 26.8 | 3.8 | 23.0 |
| BURMA - BIRMANIE | 1983 | 36 314* | 1982 | 38.3 | 50.7 | 4.0 | 1980-83* | 37.0 | 12.7 | 24.3 |
| CHINA - CHINE | 1982 | 1 031 883 | 1980* | 38.9 | 55.4 | 4.7 | 1980-83* | 16.8 | 8.8 | 11.7 |
| CYPRUS - CHYPRE | 1983 | 656* | 1982 | 24.7 | 65.3 | 10.0 | 1983 | 22.3 | 6.5 | 15.8 |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | 1984 | 7 149* | 1980* | 32.8 | 54.6 | 2.6 | 1980-83* | 45.5 | 19.6 | 25.9 |
| DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF KOREA - REPUBLIQUE POPULAIRE DEMOCRATIQUE DE COREE | 1984 | 18 810* | 1980* | 40.0 | 50.3 | 2.7 | 1980-83* | 30.6 | 7.4 | 23.1 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN YEMEN DEMOCRATIQUE | 1983 | 2 138* | 1977 | 49.4 | 47.0 | 3.6 | 1980-83* | 47.8 | 18.9 | 28.9 |
| EAST TIMOR - TIMOR ORIENTAL | 1980 | 865 | | | | | 1980-83* | 48.0 | 23.0 | 25.0 |
| HONG KONG | 1983 | 6 319* | 1982 | 24.3 | 68.8 | 6.9 | 1982 | 16.6 | 4.6 | 11.0 |
| INDIA - INDE | 1981 | 878 218* | 1981 | 39.1 | 57.4 | 3.9 | 1980-83* | 33.2 | 13.3 | 19.9 |
| INDONESIA - INDONESIE | 1983 | 166 442* | 1980 | 40.9 | 55.8 | 3.2 | 1980-83* | 30.7 | 13.0 | 17.7 |
| IRAN (ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN (REPUBLIQUE ISLAMIQUE D')) | 1983 | 40 820* | 1978 | 44.8 | 52.0 | 3.6 | 1982 | 31.5 | 4.9 | 40.6 |
| IRAQ | 1979 | 12 707* | 1977 | 48.9 | 45.8 | 4.0 | 1980-83* | 44.9 | 10.7 | 34.2 |
| ISRAEL | 1983 | 4 128* | 1981 | 33.2 | 58.2 | 8.6 | 1982 | 24.0 | 5.8 | 18.2 |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 1983 | 119 789* | 1981 | 23.8 | 67.2 | 8.2 | 1982 | 12.8 | 9.0 | 3.8 |
| JORDAN - JORDANIE | 1976 | 2 779* | 1979 | 50.6 | 49.8 | 2.6 | 1980-83* | 44.0 | 8.4 | 25.6 |
| KUWAIT - KOWEÏT | 1983 | 1 872 | 1978 | 44.4 | 54.1 | 1.5 | 1982 | 34.7 | 3.2 | 31.5 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 1977 | 3 427 | 1980* | 43.4 | 53.7 | 2.9 | 1980-83* | 40.6 | 16.5 | 24.1 |
| LEBANON - LIBAN | 1984 | 2 844* | 1980* | 40.1 | 54.5 | 5.4 | 1980-83* | 28.3 | 8.8 | 20.5 |
| MACAO | 1982 | 350* | | | | | 1982 | 18.0 | 4.1 | 10.9 |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 1980 | 13 363 | 1979 | 38.0 | 57.4 | 3.6 | 1979 | 30.2 | 6.7 | 24.5 |
| MALDIVES | 1982 | 166 | 1977 | 44.6 | 52.6 | 2.3 | 1982 | 44.5 | 13.3 | 31.2 |
| MONGOLIA - MONGOLIE | 1982 | 1 732* | 1980* | 43.0 | 53.8 | 3.2 | 1981 | 36.7 | 9.2 | 27.5 |
| NETHERLANDS PAYS-BAS | 1981 | 18 023 | 1980* | 43.8 | 53.8 | 3.0 | 1980-83* | 41.7 | 18.4 | 23.3 |
| OMAN | 1984 | 1 181* | 1980* | 44.0 | 53.4 | 2.6 | 1980-83* | 47.3 | 16.9 | 31.4 |
| PAKISTAN | 1983 | 89 729* | 1981 | 46.2 | 50.7 | 4.1 | 1980-83* | 42.8 | 18.2 | 27.4 |
| PHILIPPINES | 1983 | 51 360* | 1980 | 43.0 | 53.6 | 3.4 | 1979 | 30.9 | 6.5 | 24.3 |
| QATAR | 1982 | 287 | 1981 | 32.3 | 66.6 | 1.1 | 1980-83* | 30.1 | 4.6 | 25.5 |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE COREE | 1983 | 39 861* | 1981 | 33.3 | 62.6 | 3.9 | 1983* | 29.2 | 6.3 | 22.9 |
| SAUDI ARABIA - ARABIE SAOUDITE | 1984 | 10 824* | 1980* | 43.3 | 53.8 | 2.8 | 1980-83* | 43.0 | 12.1 | 30.9 |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | 1983 | 2 817* | 1983 | 26.1 | 69.9 | 6.0 | 1982* | 17.3 | 6.2 | 12.1 |
| SRI LANKA | 1983 | 16 416* | 1981 | 38.3 | 60.4 | 4.3 | 1981 | 28.0 | 6.0 | 22.0 |
| SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC REPUBLIQUE ARABE SYRIENNE | 1983 | 9 806* | 1981 | 47.0 | 49.1 | 3.0 | 1982 | 45.7 | 8.9 | 36.8 |
| THAILAND - THAILANDE | 1983 | 49 459* | 1982 | 38.6 | 56.2 | 3.2 | 1982 | 21.7 | 5.0 | 16.7 |
| TURKEY - TURQUIE | 1983 | 47 278* | 1980 | 38.6 | 59.7 | 4.6 | 1980-83* | 32.8 | 8.0 | 23.8 |
| UNITED ARAB EMIRATES EMIRATS ARABES UNIS | 1983 | 1 208* | 1977 | 28.3 | 78.1 | 1.6 | 1980-83* | 27.0 | 4.0 | 23.0 |
| VIET NAM | 1979 | 52 742 | 1980* | 41.8 | 54.6 | 3.6 | 1980-83* | 31.2 | 10.1 | 21.1 |
| YEMEN | 1976 | 5 230* | 1980* | 45.7 | 51.0 | 3.3 | 1980-83* | 49.5 | 21.8 | 20.9 |
| EUROPE | | | | | | | | | | |
| ALBANIA - ALBANIE | 1982 | 2 841* | 1980* | 37.3 | 57.9 | 4.8 | 1982 | 27.6 | 8.9 | 21.7 |
| ANDORRA - ANDORRE | 1982 | 40 | 1981 | 22.0 | 70.9 | 7.1 | 1981 | 14.8 | 4.1 | 10.7 |
| AUSTRIA - AUTRICHE | 1983 | 7 851* | 1981 | 20.1 | 64.7 | 15.2 | 1983* | 11.9 | 12.3 | -0.4 |
| BELGIUM - BELGIQUE | 1983 | 9 858* | 1981 | 20.0 | 65.6 | 14.4 | 1983* | 11.9 | 11.3 | 0.6 |
| BULGARIA - BULGARIE | 1983 | 8 939* | 1981 | 22.1 | 60.0 | 11.9 | 1983* | 13.6 | 11.4 | 2.2 |
| DANISH ISLANDS ILES ANGLONORMANDES | 1983 | 128 | 1981 | 18.0 | 66.6 | 15.4 | 1982* | 10.8 | 10.9 | -0.1 |
| CZECHOSLOVAKIA REPUBLIQUE TCHOSLOVAQUIE | 1983 | 16 436* | 1981 | 24.3 | 63.8 | 12.2 | 1983* | 14.8 | 12.0 | 2.8 |
| DENMARK - DANEMARK | 1983 | 5 114* | 1981 | 20.3 | 68.2 | 14.5 | 1983* | 9.8 | 11.2 | -1.3 |
| FAROE ISLANDS - ILES FEROE | 1983 | 48* | 1981 | 27.6 | 61.6 | 10.8 | 1983* | 15.7 | 7.2 | 8.5 |

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | TAUX DE MORTALITE INFANTILE P. 1000 NAISSANCES VIVANTES | | | ESPERANCE DE VIE A LA NAISSANCE (EN ANNEES) | | |
|---|--|---------|--|--|---------|--|
| | 1970-78 | 1980-88 | CHANGE BETWEEN 1970-78 AND 1980-88 VARIATION ENTRE 1970-78 ET 1980-88 | 1970-78 | 1980-88 | CHANGE BETWEEN 1970-78 AND 1980-88 VARIATION ENTRE 1970-78 ET 1980-88 |
| AMERICA - AMERIQUE | | | | | | |
| COLOMBIA - COLOMBIE | 87 | 89 | -14 | 60.4 | 63.8 | 3.2 |
| COSTA RICA | 81 | 80 | -31 | 68.1 | 73.0 | 4.9 |
| CUBA | 34 | 30 | -14 | 70.9 | 73.4 | 2.5 |
| DOMINICAN REPUBLIC REPUBLIQUE DOMINICAINE | 84 | 84 | -20 | 67.9 | 63.0 | 4.7 |
| EQUADOR - EQUATEUR | 100 | 97 | -38 | 57.1 | 62.6 | 5.5 |
| EL SALVADOR | 101 | 71 | -30 | 59.1 | 64.5 | 5.7 |
| GUADALUPE | 42 | 28 | -18 | 67.8 | 70.4 | 2.6 |
| GUATEMALA | 90 | 89 | -32 | 54.6 | 60.7 | 6.1 |
| GUYANA | 88 | 88 | -25 | 64.3 | 68.2 | 3.9 |
| HAITI | 198 | 108 | -37 | 48.8 | 62.7 | 13.9 |
| HONDURAS | 111 | 82 | -26 | 54.1 | 60.8 | 6.7 |
| JAMAICA - JAMAIQUE | 42 | 28 | -14 | 67.8 | 70.9 | 3.1 |
| MARTINIQUE | 35 | 20 | -15 | 68.1 | 70.9 | 2.8 |
| MEXICO - MEXIQUE | 69 | 63 | -16 | 62.2 | 65.7 | 3.5 |
| NICARAGUA | 109 | 86 | -24 | 64.7 | 69.8 | 5.1 |
| PANAMA | 44 | 26 | -18 | 66.4 | 71.0 | 4.6 |
| PARAGUAY | 63 | 46 | -8 | 63.1 | 65.1 | 2.0 |
| PERU - PEROU | 110 | 99 | -11 | 66.5 | 69.6 | 3.1 |
| PUERTO RICO - PORTO RICO | 28 | 17 | -8 | 72.5 | 73.9 | 1.4 |
| SURINAME | 47 | 31 | -16 | 65.8 | 69.4 | 3.6 |
| TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO TRINITE-ET-TOBAGO | 40 | 26 | -12 | 67.0 | 70.1 | 3.1 |
| UNITED STATES OF AMERICA ETATS-UNIS D'AMERIQUE | 18 | 12 | -6 | 71.3 | 74.0 | 2.7 |
| URUGUAY | 46 | 38 | -8 | 68.8 | 70.3 | 1.5 |
| VENEZUELA | 62 | 39 | -13 | 64.5 | 67.8 | 3.3 |
| ASIA - ASIE | | | | | | |
| AFGHANISTAN | 208 | 208 | 0 | 37.0 | 37.0 | 0.0 |
| BAHRAIN - BAHREIN | 66 | 37 | -29 | 63.5 | 68.2 | 4.7 |
| BANGLADESH | 160 | 133 | -17 | 44.9 | 47.8 | 2.9 |
| BHUTAN - BHOUTAN | 187 | 144 | -23 | 42.3 | 45.9 | 3.6 |
| BURMA - BURMESE | 121 | 94 | -27 | 50.0 | 56.0 | 6.0 |
| CHINA - CHINE | 66 | 38 | -28 | 59.1 | 67.4 | 8.3 |
| CYPRUS - CHYPRE | 28 | 17 | -11 | 71.4 | 74.3 | 2.9 |
| DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF KOREA - REPUBLIQUE POPULAIRE DEMOCRATIQUE DE COREE | 181 | 160 | -21 | 40.3 | 43.4 | 3.1 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN YEMEN DEMOCRATIQUE | 169 | 138 | -31 | 41.5 | 46.5 | 5.0 |
| EAST TIMOR - TIMOR ORIENTAL | 183 | 183 | 0 | 40.0 | 39.9 | -0.1 |
| HONG KONG | 17 | 12 | -5 | 70.0 | 73.8 | 3.8 |
| INDIA - INDE | 133 | 118 | -15 | 48.4 | 52.5 | 4.1 |
| INDONESIA - INDONESIE | 112 | 87 | -25 | 47.8 | 52.8 | 5.0 |
| IRAN (ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF) IRAN (REPUBLIQUE ISLAMIQUE D') | 129 | 101 | -28 | 58.9 | 60.3 | 1.4 |
| IRAQ | 98 | 72 | -24 | 58.0 | 59.0 | 1.0 |
| ISRAEL | 23 | 16 | -7 | 71.0 | 74.0 | 3.0 |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 12 | 8 | -4 | 73.3 | 76.8 | 3.5 |
| JORDAN - JORDANIE | 87 | 63 | -24 | 58.6 | 64.2 | 5.6 |
| KUWAIT - KOWEIT | 43 | 30 | -13 | 67.3 | 71.2 | 3.9 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 148 | 122 | -23 | 48.8 | 49.7 | 0.9 |
| LEBANON - LIBAN | 48 | 48 | 0 | 66.0 | 66.0 | 0.0 |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 40 | 29 | -11 | 63.0 | 66.8 | 3.8 |
| MONGOLIA - MONGOLIE | 87 | 50 | -17 | 60.7 | 64.8 | 4.1 |
| OMAN | 107 | 144 | -23 | 42.3 | 48.9 | 6.6 |
| OMAN | 180 | 122 | -28 | 44.8 | 40.7 | 4.1 |
| PAKISTAN | 140 | 120 | -20 | 48.5 | 60.0 | 11.5 |
| PHILIPPINES | 86 | 60 | -16 | 60.4 | 64.8 | 4.4 |
| QATAR | 66 | 45 | -21 | 67.2 | 70.6 | 3.4 |

NOTE: NAMES APPEARING IN BOLD PRINT ARE THOSE OF COUNTRIES OR AREAS FOR WHICH THE ESTIMATED INFANT MORTALITY RATE AND/OR THE ESTIMATED LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH IN 1980-1988 HAD NOT YET REACHED THE VALUES OF LESS THAN 50 INFANT DEATHS PER 1000 LIVE BIRTHS AND OVER 60 YEARS, RESPECTIVELY, AS SPECIFIED IN THE WHO GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR HEALTH FOR ALL BY THE YEAR 2000 (SEE INTRODUCTION).

NOTE: LES PAYS OU TERRITOIRES DONT LES NOMS SONT IMPRIMES EN CARACTERES GRAS SONT CEUX OU LE TAUX ESTIME DE MORTALITE INFANTILE ET/OU L'ESPERANCE DE VIE ESTIMATIVE A LA NAISSANCE EN 1980-1988 N'AVAIENT PAS ENCORE ATTEINT LES VALEURS SPECIFIEES DANS LA STRATEGIE MONDIALE DE LA SANTE POUR TOUS D'ICI L'AN 2000 (VOIR INTRODUCTION), SOIT, RESPECTIVEMENT, MOINS DE 50 DECES POUR 1000 NAISSANCES VIVANTES ET PLUS DE 60 ANS.

11 CAS DES MALADIES CIBLES DU PROGRAMME REGIONAL DE COOPERATION ECONOMIQUE A L'EST 1974-1983
 WHO WESTERN PACIFIC REGION
 REGION DU PACIFIQUE OCCIDENTAL DE L'OMS

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS DU ZONE | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---------|--------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| DIPHTHERIA - DIPHTERIE | | | | | | | | | | |
| INITIAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 4 070 | 821 | 5 736 | 5 875 | 24 224 | 19 401 | 14 912 | 8 240 | 17 803 | 6 774 |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 14 | 24 | 29 | 29 | 31 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 29 | 2 |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 44 | 76 | 91 | 91 | 97 | 91 | 94 | 97 | 91 | 6 |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMERICAINES | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIE | 32 | 22 | 3 | 7 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 1 | |
| BRUNEI | | | 0 | | 1 | | | 0 | 0 | |
| CHINA - CHINE | | | | | 20 084 | 16 921 | 9 767 | 3 481 | 6 502 | 6 770 |
| COOK ISLANDS - ILES COOK | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 0 | 0 | |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | | | | | | | 1 684 | 1 279 | 7 094 | |
| FIJI - FIDJI | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNEsie FRANCAISE | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| GUAM | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| HONG KONG | | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 173 | 139 | 145 | 122 | 69 | 104 | 66 | 47 | 29 | |
| KIRIBATI | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 24 | 2 | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 13 | 9 | 48 | 16 | 12 | | 11 | | 813 | |
| MACAO | | 18 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 248 | 164 | 222 | 113 | 85 | 94 | 131 | 16 | 10 | |
| NAURU | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DEPENDANCES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | 21 | 8 | 6 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 | |
| NIUE - NIIOUE | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS, TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | 14 | 11 | 88 | 65 | 14 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 0 | |
| PHILIPPINES | 2 084 | 450 | 2 905 | 2 808 | 1 389 | 1 723 | 1 920 | 1 658 | 1 275 | |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | 283 | | 493 | 185 | 120 | 80 | 51 | 43 | | |
| SAMOA | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 4 |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | | | 1 740 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| TOKELAU | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| TONGA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| TUVALU | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| VANUATU | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| VIET NAM | 418 | | 0 | 2 476 | 2 446 | 533 | 1 276 | 1 674 | 2 085 | |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| MEASLES - ROUGEOLE | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 104 278 | 28 061 | 185 993 | 200 878 | 1 316 260 | 1 037 898 | 807 842 | 699 942 | 644 170 | 726 997 |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 16 | 24 | 26 | 29 | 28 | 27 | 30 | 29 | 27 | 2 |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 50 | 76 | 88 | 91 | 88 | 84 | 94 | 91 | 84 | 6 |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMERICAINES | 34 | 445 | 11 | 66 | 31 | 3 | 16 | 3 | 2 | |
| AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIE | 597 | 632 | | 0 | | | 170 | | | |
| BRUNEI | | | 133 | | 2 138 | 249 | 485 | 775 | 155 | |
| CHINA - CHINE | | | | | 1 112 000 | 900 075 | 570 037 | 485 934 | 451 045 | 726 320 |
| COOK ISLANDS - ILES COOK | | 58 | 93 | 31 | 9 | 8 | 363 | 57 | 0 | |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | | | | | | | 106 791 | 93 144 | 73 031 | |
| FIJI - FIDJI | 1 911 | 1 036 | 212 | 2 384 | 441 | 1 621 | 913 | 1 003 | 902 | |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNEsie FRANCAISE | | 17 | 40 | 3 478 | 293 | 311 | 379 | 1 281 | 1 187 | |
| GUAM | | 33 | 18 | 6 | 28 | 13 | 7 | 6 | 9 | |
| HONG KONG | | 138 | 1 463 | 1 537 | 240 | 1 929 | 1 669 | 249 | 1 863 | |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 24 002 | 15 217 | 31 647 | 18 061 | 34 365 | 18 666 | 13 219 | 21 471 | 6 716 | |
| KIRIBATI | 9 212 | 0 | 3 | 78 | 2 683 | 0 | 170 | 70 | 31 | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 22 | 169 | 186 | 153 | 208 | | 1 380 | | 383 | |
| MACAO | | 5 | 274 | 0 | 135 | 41 | 73 | 9 | | |

11. CASES OF THE TARGET DISEASES OF THE EXPANDED PROGRAMME ON IMMUNIZATION REPORTED TO WHO, 1974 - 1981
 11. CAS DES MALADIES CIBLES DU PROGRAMME ELARGI DE VACCINATION OMBRAGEES A L'OMS, 1974 - 1981

WHO WESTERN PACIFIC REGION
 REGION DU PACIFIQUE OCCIDENTAL S.E.A. OMS

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---------|-------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| MEASLES (CONTINUED) - ROUGEOLE (SUITE) | | | | | | | | | | |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 7 860 | 1 377 | 4 786 | 6 072 | 7 217 | 6 278 | 8 727 | 8 890 | 8 628 | ... |
| NAURU | ... | ... | ... | 80 | 33 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 1 | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DÉPENDANCES | 947 | 222 | 864 | 982 | 268 | 784 | 800 | 77 | 1 398 | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| NIUE - NIIOUE | ... | 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 22 | 2 | 0 | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS, TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 8 | 0 | 2 487 | 803 | 648 | 10 | 12 | 3 | 1 | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | 4 141 | 4 172 | 6 136 | 7 121 | 6 089 | 6 384 | 12 126 | 16 619 | 12 771 | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | 22 099 | 4 096 | 26 408 | 27 034 | 27 642 | 26 181 | 23 470 | 30 866 | 23 678 | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA RÉPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | 4 887 | ... | 7 328 | 8 084 | 6 149 | 2 533 | 8 097 | 2 207 | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | 636 | 314 | 1 203 | 240 | 1 026 | 68 | 378 | 72 | 27 | ... |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | 2 | 7 | 0 | 255 | ... | ... | ... | 771 | 1 066 | 677 |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | 98 362 | 2 636 | 2 986 | 1 | 318 | 1 460 | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | 0 | 1 841 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TONGA | 34 | 0 | 2 487 | 84 | 17 | 76 | 2 336 | 187 | 18 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 94 | 509 | 3 | 0 | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | 129 | 0 | 376 | 10 | 7 | 39 | 48 | 0 | ... |
| VIET NAM | 26 876 | ... | 86 | 122 558 | 108 808 | 69 369 | 67 691 | 38 130 | 69 300 | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | 0 | 185 | 49 | 7 | 0 | 342 | 18 | 67 | ... |
| PERTUSSIS - COQUELUCHE | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 121 617 | 7 160 | 81 060 | 146 380 | 699 264 | 608 167 | 669 666 | 447 260 | 335 781 | 305 602 |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIÉ | 14 | 23 | 27 | 26 | 26 | 27 | 30 | 29 | 29 | 1 |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIÉ | 44 | 72 | 64 | 61 | 68 | 64 | 64 | 61 | 61 | 3 |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMÉRICAINES | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ... |
| AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIE | ... | ... | ... | 0 | ... | 174 | 124 | 170 | 196 | ... |
| BRUNEI | ... | ... | 0 | ... | 0 | ... | 1 | 3 | 0 | ... |
| CHINA - CHINE | ... | ... | ... | ... | 586 174 | 401 372 | 316 208 | 289 671 | 222 603 | 305 602 |
| COOK ISLANDS - ILES COOK | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | 8 | 0 | ... |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DÉMOCRATIQUE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 186 266 | 108 866 | 41 040 | ... |
| FIJI - FIDJI | 41 | 7 | 28 | 16 | 23 | 10 | 13 | 8 | 18 | ... |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNÉSIE FRANÇAISE | ... | 8 | 1 | 32 | 16 | 280 | 7 | 6 | 8 | ... |
| GUAM | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| HONG KONG | ... | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 2 | 1 | ... |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 393 | 1 064 | 2 608 | 5 470 | 9 626 | 13 036 | 6 033 | 3 368 | 2 632 | ... |
| KIRIBATI | 369 | 138 | 28 | 181 | 178 | 68 | 181 | 101 | 17 | ... |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - RÉPUBLIQUE DÉMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 402 | 798 | 182 | 12 | 864 | ... | 2 718 | ... | 886 | ... |
| MACAO | ... | 3 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | ... |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 198 | 61 | 189 | 123 | 78 | 106 | 97 | 106 | 128 | ... |
| NAURU | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DÉPENDANCES | 60 | 33 | 0 | 1 | 189 | 64 | 48 | 8 | 0 | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | ... | ... | 0 | ... | 0 | ... |
| NIUE - NIIOUE | ... | 0 | 9 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS, TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 160 | 67 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 121 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | 829 | 1 243 | 1 704 | 1 102 | 800 | 1 942 | 2 093 | 2 884 | 1 422 | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | 22 042 | 3 637 | 24 641 | 21 403 | 16 243 | 21 243 | 17 066 | 10 701 | 8 206 | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA RÉPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | 3 077 | ... | 1 177 | 3 182 | 712 | 789 | 1 844 | 1 922 | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | 12 | 65 | 88 | 91 | 28 | 40 | 113 | 8 | 66 | ... |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | 1 | 0 | ... | 3 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0 | ... |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | 0 | 1 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 0 | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 22 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TONGA | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 210 | 147 | 2 | 0 | 828 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | 40 | 28 | 10 | 193 | 40 | 231 | 7 | 2 | ... |
| VIET NAM | 94 031 | ... | 60 623 | 113 779 | 78 310 | 69 732 | 67 318 | 48 388 | 48 624 | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 120 | 0 | ... |

11. USAGES DE L'INNE LANCHE VACCINUM ET DE L'INNE PROGRAMME DE VACCINATION REPORTING IN 1974-1983
 11. CAS DES MALADIES CIBLES DU PROGRAMME ELARGI DE VACCINATION COMMUNIQUE A L'OMS, 1974 - 1983

WHO WESTERN PACIFIC REGION
 REGION DU PACIFIQUE OCCIDENTAL DE L'OMS

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| POLIOMYELITIS -- POLIOMYELITIS | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 1 144 | 1 001 | 1 421 | 2 620 | 12 566 | 6 776 | 10 407 | 6 414 | 6 660 | 2 993 |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING -- NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 14 | 27 | 28 | 28 | 31 | 28 | 28 | 30 | 27 | 2 |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING -- POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 44 | 84 | 88 | 88 | 97 | 88 | 78 | 94 | 84 | 6 |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMERICAINES | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| AUSTRALIA -- AUSTRALIE | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| BRUNEI | ... | ... | 1 | 0 | 1 | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | ... |
| CHINA -- CHINE | ... | ... | ... | ... | 10 408 | 5 472 | 7 442 | 4 834 | 7 741 | 2 891 |
| COOK ISLANDS -- ILES COOK | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | 0 | ... |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | 87 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| FIJI -- FIDJI | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNESIE FRANCAISE | ... | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ... |
| GUAM | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| HONG KONG | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 0 | ... |
| JAPAN -- JAPON | 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | ... |
| KIRIBATI | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC -- REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 4 | 8 | 1 | ... | 62 | ... | 1 166 | ... | 46 | ... |
| MACAO | ... | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | ... | ... |
| MALAYSIA -- MALAISIE | 26 | 25 | 32 | 121 | 18 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 6 | ... |
| NAURU | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DEPENDANCES | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | 5 | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND -- NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | ... | ... |
| NIUE -- NIIOUE | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA -- ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | 32 | 26 | 68 | 102 | 48 | 68 | 22 | 9 | 18 | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | 918 | 731 | 616 | 1 464 | 835 | 960 | 790 | 353 | 268 | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | 22 | 23 | 77 | 38 | 2 | ... | 14 | 2 | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | ... | 0 | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| SINGAPORE -- SINGAPOUR | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS -- ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TONGA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | 1 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | ... |
| VIET NAM | 62 | 178 | 617 | 903 | 1 190 | 253 | 461 | 408 | 892 | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TETANUS -- TETANOS * | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 898 | 940 | 4 806 | 7 967 | 6 789 | 3 314 | 7 619 | 4 920 | 3 006 | ... |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING -- NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 6 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 26 | 26 | 26 | 26 | 26 | ... |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING -- POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 10 | 69 | 76 | 81 | 88 | 81 | 88 | 91 | 89 | ... |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMERICAINES | ... | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| AUSTRALIA -- AUSTRALIE | 12 | 11 | 3 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 9 | 12 | 11 | ... |
| BRUNEI | ... | ... | 2 | ... | 2 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | ... |
| CHINA -- CHINE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| COOK ISLANDS -- ILES COOK | ... | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2 449 | 1 676 | 3 684 | ... |
| FIJI -- FIDJI | ... | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | ... |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNESIE FRANCAISE | ... | 5 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 1 | ... |
| GUAM | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ... |
| HONG KONG | ... | 39 | 23 | 24 | 22 | 20 | 15 | 14 | 22 | ... |
| JAPAN -- JAPON | ... | 85 | 90 | 72 | 74 | 59 | 80 | 41 | 36 | ... |
| KIRIBATI | ... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | ... |

* INCLUDING NEONATAL TETANUS -- Y COMPRIS TETANOS NEONATAL

11. CASES OF THE TARGET DISEASES OF THE EXPANDED PROGRAMME ON IMMUNIZATION REPORTED TO WHO, 1974 - 1993
 11. CAS DES MALADIES CIBLES DU PROGRAMME Élargi DE VACCINATION COMMUNIQUÉES À L'OMS, 1974 - 1993

WHO WESTERN PACIFIC REGION
 RÉGION DU PACIFIQUE OCCIDENTAL DE L'OMS

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1993 |
|--|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| TETANUS (CONTINUED) - TÉTANOS (SUITE) ^a | | | | | | | | | | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | ... | ... | 0 | ... | 31 | ... | 1 016 | ... | 484 | ... |
| MACAO | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 0 | 8 | ... | 4 | ... | ... |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | ... | 283 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 60 | 36 | 38 | ... |
| NAURU | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DÉPENDANCES | 2 | 8 | 8 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | ... | 4 | 7 | 8 | 10 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 5 | ... |
| NIUE - NIIOUE | ... | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | 124 | 40 | 39 | 34 | 44 | 47 | 88 | 80 | 40 | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | ... | 419 | 3 088 | 5 839 | 4 238 | 2 522 | 2 800 | 1 853 | 1 427 | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 1 | ... | 1 | 8 | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | ... | 11 | 11 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | ... | 8 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0 | ... |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | 13 | 20 | 13 | 0 | 2 | 6 | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TONGA | 5 | 16 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 2 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | ... |
| VIET NAM | 788 | ... | 1 621 | 2 231 | 2 323 | 619 | 1 334 | 1 080 | 872 | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | ... |
| NEONATAL TETANUS - TÉTANOS NEONATAL | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 60 | 38 | 47 | ... |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIÉ | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | ... |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIÉ | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 6 | ... |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMÉRICAINES | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| BRUNEI | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| CHINA - CHINE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| COOK ISLANDS - ILES COOK | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DÉMOCRATIQUE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| FIJI - FIJI | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNÉSIE FRANÇAISE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| GUAM | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| HONG KONG | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| JAPAN - JAPON | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| KIRIBATI | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| MACAO | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 60 | 36 | 47 | ... |
| NAURU | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DÉPENDANCES | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| NIUE - NIIOUE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |

^a INCLUDING NEONATAL TETANUS -- Y COMPRIS TÉTANOS NEONATAL

WHO WESTERN PACIFIC REGION
REGION DU PACIFIQUE OCCIDENTAL DE L'OMS

| COUNTRY OR AREA PAYS OU ZONE | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-------|
| NEONATAL TETANUS (CONTINUED) - TETANOS NEONATAL (SUITE) | | | | | | | | | | |
| TONGA | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| VIET NAM | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| TUBERCULOSIS - TUBERCULOSE | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES NOMBRE TOTAL DE CAS | 377 100 | 189 676 | 319 131 | 639 978 | 287 242 | 328 061 | 277 609 | 363 267 | 178 309 | 1 688 |
| NUMBER OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - NOMBRE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 18 | 24 | 28 | 28 | 30 | 27 | 30 | 29 | 27 | 1 |
| PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES/AREAS REPORTING - POURCENTAGE DE PAYS/ZONES AYANT NOTIFIE | 47 | 76 | 88 | 86 | 94 | 84 | 84 | 81 | 84 | 3 |
| AMERICAN SAMOA SAMOA AMERICAINES | 19 | 13 | 12 | 7 | 8 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 4 | ... |
| AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIE | 1 408 | 1 608 | 1 387 | 1 301 | 1 292 | 1 687 | 1 849 | 1 400 | 1 189 | ... |
| BRUNEI | ... | ... | 336 | ... | 368 | 213 | 217 | 311 | 286 | ... |
| CHINA - CHINE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| COOK ISLANDS - ILES COOK | ... | 2 | 16 | 3 | 10 | 12 | 20 | 879 | 0 | ... |
| DEMOCRATIC KAMPUCHEA KAMPUCHEA DEMOCRATIQUE | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 38 089 | 22 448 | 16 611 | ... |
| FIJI - FIJI | 294 | 270 | 258 | 184 | 183 | 204 | 210 | 180 | 163 | ... |
| FRENCH POLYNESIA POLYNESE FRANCAISE | ... | 112 | 116 | 61 | 63 | 43 | 68 | 66 | 67 | ... |
| GUAM | ... | 64 | 46 | 68 | 67 | 70 | 86 | 41 | 44 | ... |
| HONG KONG | ... | 6 192 | 7 028 | 7 191 | 6 623 | 7 907 | 8 066 | 7 739 | 7 627 | ... |
| JAPAN - JAPON | 117 126 | 110 118 | 100 378 | 92 219 | 84 260 | 78 966 | 73 230 | 68 316 | 66 800 | ... |
| KIRIBATI | 162 | 171 | 116 | 46 | 48 | 7 | 143 | 129 | 62 | ... |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC - REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE POPULAIRE LAO | 17 | 1 806 | 1 132 | 999 | 1 028 | ... | 7 361 | ... | 4 708 | ... |
| MACAO | ... | 1 383 | 1 088 | 120 | 1 017 | 442 | 1 101 | 1 121 | ... | ... |
| MALAYSIA - MALAISIE | 10 207 | 10 483 | 7 816 | ... | 6 918 | ... | 7 026 | 7 080 | 6 066 | ... |
| MAURU | ... | ... | ... | 7 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 8 | ... |
| NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES NOUVELLE-CALÉDONIE ET DÉPENDANCES | 370 | 183 | 188 | 166 | 108 | 68 | 108 | 128 | 74 | ... |
| NEW ZEALAND - NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE | 613 | 684 | 611 | 606 | 696 | 679 | 474 | 486 | 434 | ... |
| NIUE - NIUE | ... | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | ... |
| PACIFIC ISLANDS TRUST TERRITORY OF THE USA - ILES DU PACIFIQUE (TERR. SOUS TUTELLE DES ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE) | 122 | 80 | 62 | 68 | 62 | 44 | 68 | 72 | 122 | ... |
| PAPUA NEW GUINEA PAPOUASIE-NOUVELLE-GUINÉE | ... | 1 866 | 1 801 | 2 244 | 2 708 | 2 289 | 2 841 | 2 608 | 4 342 | ... |
| PHILIPPINES | 142 260 | 19 438 | 138 767 | 107 108 | 116 687 | 126 493 | 92 704 | 82 646 | 61 829 | ... |
| REPUBLIC OF KOREA REPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE | 103 398 | ... | 782 | 163 334 | 893 | 103 834 | ... | 184 377 | ... | ... |
| SAMOA | 44 | 32 | 46 | 44 | 62 | 77 | 48 | 20 | 28 | ... |
| SINGAPORE - SINGAPOUR | 472 | 3 036 | 2 816 | 2 760 | 2 984 | 2 978 | 2 784 | 2 618 | 2 179 | 1 989 |
| SOLOMON ISLANDS - ILES SALOMON | ... | ... | 296 | 382 | 468 | 43 | 62 | 311 | ... | ... |
| TOKELAU | ... | 0 | ... | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 0 | ... |
| TONGA | 88 | 84 | 66 | 79 | 89 | 70 | 88 | 40 | 46 | ... |
| TUVALU | ... | ... | 17 | 6 | 16 | 7 | 33 | 18 | 12 | ... |
| VANUATU | ... | 81 | 91 | 69 | 69 | 123 | 90 | 199 | 36 | ... |
| VIET NAM | ... | ... | 66 272 | 170 878 | 66 669 | ... | 43 062 | ... | ... | ... |
| WALLIS AND FUTUNA ISLANDS ILES WALLIS-ET-FUTUNA | ... | 4 | 34 | 44 | 8 | 1 | 23 | 24 | 6 | ... |

12. CAUSES OF DEATH (ICD-9), BY SEX AND AGE
JAPAN 1982

| CAUSES OF DEATH ICD-9 BASIC TABULATION LIST | | ALL AGES | 0 | 1-4 | 5-14 | 15-24 | 25-34 | 35-44 | 45-54 | 55-64 | 65-74 | 75 & + | N.SP. |
|---|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| ALL | CAUSES | T 711 863 M 308 494 F 326 369 | 9 060 8 085 4 264 | 1 037 2 090 1 547 | 4 043 2 638 1 808 | 8 720 6 370 2 353 | 14 125 9 047 8 078 | 28 874 18 467 9 217 | 50 830 40 110 19 720 | 87 782 53 670 34 112 | 100 084 66 700 33 384 | 331 844 182 918 148 926 | 368 308 60 |
| 01-07 | INFECTIOUS AND PARASITIC DISEASES | T 11 039 M 8 782 F 4 267 | 203 110 84 | 114 84 60 | 103 88 48 | 108 89 49 | 261 133 118 | 481 311 170 | 1 120 778 348 | 1 808 1 218 593 | 2 942 1 981 961 | 3 906 2 094 1 812 | 3 3 -- |
| 011 | TYPHOID FEVER | T 2 M 1 F 1 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 2 1 1 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 010,019 | OTHER INTESTINAL INFECTIOUS DISEASES | T 1 268 M 812 F 743 | 80 30 20 | 24 14 10 | 7 4 4 | 8 4 8 | 10 11 8 | 21 12 9 | 34 23 11 | 66 36 30 | 153 78 75 | 973 301 672 | -- |
| 020-021 | TUBERCULOSIS OF RESPIRATORY SYSTEM | T 5 070 M 3 782 F 1 288 | 1 1 -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 1 5 3 | 1 27 18 | 43 134 62 | 106 428 180 | 678 784 136 | 891 1 011 1 206 | 1 041 1 188 1 478 | 2 2 -- |
| 022-028 | TUBERCULOSIS, OTHER FORMS | T 273 M 148 F 128 | 1 1 -- | 3 2 -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 13 7 6 | 22 8 14 | 38 24 11 | 46 26 21 | 80 47 33 | 71 34 37 | 1 -- -- |
| 034 | WHOOPING COUGH | T 14 M 7 F 7 | 8 3 3 | 8 2 3 | 1 1 -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 036 | MENINGOCOCCAL INFECTION | T 3 M 2 F 1 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 1 1 -- | -- | 1 1 -- | -- | -- |
| 037 | TETANUS | T 28 M 9 F 17 | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | -- | 2 1 -- | -- | 2 2 -- | 8 3 -- | 3 2 -- | 13 1 -- | -- |
| 038 | SEPTICAEMIA | T 1 718 M 780 F 938 | 79 41 38 | 28 10 16 | 10 7 3 | 18 10 8 | 30 10 14 | 80 27 23 | 126 83 43 | 207 103 104 | 444 204 240 | 726 279 447 | -- |
| 030-033 | OTHER BACTERIAL DISEASES | T 108 M 92 F 44 | -- | 2 1 -- | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 2 1 -- | 9 14 2 | 20 14 6 | 32 14 14 | 40 18 20 | -- |
| 042 | MEASLES | T 24 M 8 F 16 | 6 2 3 | 18 8 8 | 6 4 -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | -- | -- |
| 040,041 | OTHER VIRAL DISEASES | T 1 481 M 786 F 868 | 53 34 10 | 37 20 17 | 70 43 27 | 89 38 31 | 111 50 61 | 148 100 48 | 224 138 86 | 267 141 126 | 279 140 139 | 203 84 109 | -- |
| 052 | MALARIA | T 4 M 4 F 4 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 2 -- -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 1 1 -- | -- |
| 050,051 | 053 OTHER ARTHROPOD-BORNE DISEASES | T -- M -- F -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 06 | VENEREAL DISEASES | T 121 M 70 F 48 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 4 3 1 | 10 8 2 | 29 22 7 | 54 33 21 | 23 9 14 | -- |
| 07 | OTHER INFECTIOUS AND PARASITIC DISEASES | T 965 M 996 F 369 | 6 8 1 | 5 1 4 | 8 2 6 | 4 2 2 | 29 17 12 | 37 25 12 | 101 88 38 | 177 118 69 | 283 173 110 | 316 188 127 | -- |
| 08-14 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS | T 170 130 M 99 114 F 71 016 | 69 39 31 | 326 186 140 | 751 420 331 | 860 610 370 | 2 948 1 384 1 864 | 7 858 3 884 3 904 | 21 292 12 888 8 707 | 34 981 20 832 14 149 | 52 460 32 186 20 314 | 48 840 27 389 21 484 | 6 4 2 |
| 08 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF LIP, ORAL CAVITY AND PHARYNX | T 1 878 M 1 283 F 693 | -- | -- | 4 2 2 | 13 9 4 | 32 16 14 | 100 71 29 | 316 237 79 | 469 334 135 | 804 562 242 | 438 280 158 | -- |
| 090 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF OESOPHAGUS | T 8 864 M 4 048 F 1 208 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 4 80 3 | 89 680 92 | 662 580 82 | 1 952 1 117 398 | 1 832 1 877 398 | 1 832 1 311 521 | -- |
| 091 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF STOMACH | T 49 013 M 39 039 F 16 977 | -- | -- | -- | 68 30 38 | 929 382 648 | 2 849 1 245 1 304 | 8 917 3 723 2 184 | 9 838 4 367 3 471 | 18 034 9 207 6 227 | 14 877 8 482 6 395 | 1 1 -- |
| 093 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF COLON | T 9 223 M 4 484 F 4 728 | -- | -- | 2 1 1 | 23 13 10 | 171 98 83 | 449 244 206 | 1 088 870 618 | 1 782 1 088 693 | 2 861 1 321 1 350 | 3 087 1 387 1 699 | -- |
| 094 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF RECTUM, RECTOSIGMOID JUNCTION AND ANUS | T 7 284 M 4 131 F 3 183 | -- | -- | -- | 11 7 4 | 84 47 171 | 334 183 378 | 984 603 689 | 1 394 808 582 | 2 083 1 191 892 | 2 384 1 279 1 108 | -- |
| 095 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF LIVER, SPECIFIED AS PRIMARY | T 10 821 M 7 807 F 2 714 | 3 2 3 | 18 8 7 | 10 8 2 | 12 7 8 | 93 72 21 | 376 311 87 | 2 182 1 891 271 | 2 870 2 287 613 | 3 023 2 128 898 | 1 984 1 124 830 | 1 1 -- |
| 100 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF LARYNX | T 842 M 738 F 106 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 2 7 1 | 8 47 37 | 184 136 47 | 286 136 150 | 286 281 57 | 331 284 47 | -- |
| 101 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF TRACHEA, BRONCHUS AND LUNG | T 24 218 M 17 866 F 6 861 | -- | -- | 1 1 -- | 18 11 8 | 134 83 81 | 649 310 239 | 2 062 1 428 634 | 4 642 3 402 1 250 | 8 189 5 868 2 304 | 7 703 5 484 2 239 | -- |
| 113 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF FEMALE BREAST | F 4 311 | -- | -- | -- | 4 | 174 | 604 | 1 124 | 1 167 | 780 | 468 | -- |
| 120 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF CERVIX UTERI | F 1 731 | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 38 | 113 | 379 | 443 | 488 | 301 | 1 |
| 122 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF UTERUS, OTHER AND UNSPEC. | F 3 398 | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 38 | 136 | 488 | 782 | 980 | 1 032 | 1 |
| 124 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF PROSTATE | M 2 083 | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 3 | 6 | 26 | 170 | 668 | 1 188 | 1 |
| 126 | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF BLADDER | T 2 421 M 1 971 F 760 | -- | 2 2 -- | 3 3 -- | 1 1 -- | 10 8 -- | 23 17 6 | 132 108 24 | 298 221 77 | 789 682 217 | 1 183 760 423 | -- |
| REST | MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF OTHER SITES | T 37 248 M 18 817 F 18 431 | 31 19 13 | 168 81 77 | 232 109 123 | 202 174 128 | 882 336 318 | 1 420 717 703 | 4 899 2 808 2 093 | 7 746 4 094 3 694 | 11 848 6 996 4 852 | 10 487 4 818 5 642 | 1 1 -- |
| 141 | LEUKAEMIA | T 4 863 M 2 789 F 2 074 | 26 13 12 | 126 81 48 | 402 220 182 | 323 188 128 | 417 217 200 | 638 313 228 | 716 442 274 | 793 450 343 | 898 521 374 | 628 337 291 | -- |
| 140,149 | OTHER MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS OF LYMPHATIC AND HAEMOPOIETIC TISSUE | T 8 279 M 2 098 F 2 183 | 10 7 3 | 24 13 11 | 97 78 21 | 104 82 42 | 180 108 82 | 262 170 92 | 888 437 281 | 1 108 631 478 | 1 811 927 884 | 1 217 668 552 | -- |
| 16-17 | BENIGN NEOPLASM, OTHER AND UNSPECIFIED NEOPLASM | T 8 087 M 3 379 F 3 678 | 28 11 14 | 88 51 24 | 173 92 81 | 88 67 32 | 171 98 76 | 278 188 113 | 648 388 287 | 862 578 403 | 1 676 910 668 | 2 063 1 031 1 022 | 1 1 1 |

18. CAUSES OF DEATH (COD-8), BY SEX AND AGE
JAPAN 1982

| CAUSES OF DEATH COD-8 BASED ON ICD-9 | NUMBER OF DEATHS AT AGE (IN YEARS) NUMBER OF DEATHS BY SEX (IN THOUSANDS) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----|-----|
| | ALL AGES | 0-4 | 5-9 | 10-14 | 15-24 | 25-34 | 35-44 | 45-54 | 55-64 | 65-74 | 75 & + | M. | F. |
| 33,340,349 OTHER DISEASES OF THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM | 13 321 | 37 | 13 | 24 | 89 | 181 | 422 | 984 | 1 348 | 2 920 | 7 314 | 3 | 2 |
| 350 NEPHRITIS, NEPHROTIC SYNDROME AND NEPHROSIS | 11 389 | 85 | 18 | 36 | 73 | 181 | 344 | 788 | 1 303 | 3 028 | 9 832 | 1 | 1 |
| 361 IMPROVISIONS OF KIDNEY | 1 180 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 360 HYPERTENSIVE HEART DISEASE | 416 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 362,363,369 OTHER DISEASES OF THE GENITOURINARY SYSTEM | 1 184 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 36 | 28 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 390 HAEMORRHAGE OF PREGNANCY AND CHILDBIRTH | 76 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 391 TOXAEMIA OF PREGNANCY | 83 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 394 COMPLICATIONS OF THE PUERPERIUM | 43 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 392,393 OTHER DIRECT OBSTETRIC CAUSES | 40 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 40,41 ALL OTHER INDIRECT OBSTETRIC CAUSES | 36 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 42 DISEASES OF SKIN AND SUBCUTANEOUS TISSUE | 677 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 11 | 17 | 42 | 68 | 609 | 1 | 1 | |
| 43 DISEASES OF THE MUSCULO-SKELETAL SYSTEM AND CONNECTIVE TISSUE | 3 821 | 1 | 4 | 23 | 88 | 143 | 176 | 286 | 499 | 892 | 1 713 | 1 | 1 |
| 440 SPINA BIFIDA AND HYDROCEPHALUS | 177 | 121 | 31 | 18 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 442 CONGENITAL ANOMALIES OF HEART AND CIRCULATORY SYSTEM | 2 721 | 1 872 | 377 | 183 | 96 | 51 | 28 | 112 | 55 | 78 | 93 | 1 | 1 |
| 441,443-447 OTHER CONGENITAL ANOMALIES | 1 818 | 1 071 | 193 | 99 | 25 | 21 | 19 | 26 | 36 | 42 | 26 | 1 | 1 |
| 483 BIRTH TRAUMA | 488 | 461 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 480-484 OTHER CONDITIONS ORIGINATING IN THE PERINATAL PERIOD | 4 283 | 4 271 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 466 SENILITY WITHOUT MENTION OF PSYCHOSIS | 27 801 | 17 934 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 480-484 OTHER CONDITIONS ORIGINATING IN THE PERINATAL PERIOD | 1 710 | 1 016 | 193 | 64 | 18 | 38 | 50 | 98 | 143 | 260 | 581 | 44 | 33 |
| E47-E63 ACCIDENTS AND ADVERSE EFFECTS | 29 197 | 826 | 1 370 | 1 401 | 3 719 | 2 848 | 2 855 | 4 031 | 3 481 | 4 071 | 8 388 | 17 | 17 |
| E471 MOTOR VEHICLE TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS | 12 138 | 30 | 383 | 897 | 2 878 | 1 284 | 1 186 | 1 856 | 1 394 | 1 591 | 1 178 | 6 | 6 |
| E470, E472-E474 OTHER TRANSPORT ACCIDENTS | 1 810 | 1 308 | 60 | 80 | 118 | 188 | 199 | 237 | 239 | 210 | 177 | 3 | 3 |
| E48 ACCIDENTAL POISONING | 784 | 2 | 17 | 18 | 84 | 110 | 122 | 133 | 120 | 97 | 91 | 1 | 1 |
| E50 ACCIDENTAL FALLS | 4 127 | 29 | 73 | 48 | 113 | 212 | 288 | 611 | 822 | 827 | 1 801 | 2 | 2 |
| E61 ACCIDENTS CAUSED BY FIRE AND FLAMES | 1 221 | 13 | 47 | 70 | 88 | 108 | 87 | 121 | 109 | 218 | 296 | 1 | 1 |
| E621 ACCIDENTAL DROWNING AND SUBMERSION | 3 283 | 46 | 864 | 438 | 230 | 248 | 211 | 288 | 288 | 421 | 887 | 2 | 2 |
| E623 ACCIDENTS CAUSED BY MACHINERY AND BY CUTTING AND PIERCING INSTRUMENTS | 987 | 14 | 18 | 60 | 120 | 168 | 283 | 181 | 89 | 37 | 118 | 1 | 1 |
| E624 ACCIDENTS CAUSED BY FIREARM MISSILE | 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| E49, E50 ALL OTHER ACCIDENTS INCLUDING LATE EFFECTS | 8 134 | 404 | 182 | 143 | 207 | 312 | 387 | 878 | 644 | 869 | 1 304 | 8 | 8 |
| E63 DRUGS, MEDICAMENTS CAUSING ADVERSE EFFECTS IN THERAPEUTIC USE | 38 | 22 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| E64 SUICIDE AND SELF-INFLICTED INJURY | 20 868 | 12 202 | 7 488 | 18 | 1 721 | 3 388 | 3 588 | 4 232 | 2 866 | 2 398 | 2 404 | 133 | 118 |
| E66 HOMICIDE AND INJURY PURPOSELY INFLICTED BY OTHER PERSONS | 1 093 | 80 | 104 | 189 | 88 | 140 | 188 | 188 | 84 | 64 | 40 | 11 | 11 |
| E68 OTHER VIOLENCE | 2 080 | 48 | 81 | 81 | 177 | 288 | 336 | 382 | 237 | 214 | 218 | 82 | 82 |
| POPULATION (IN THOUSANDS - IN MILLIONS) | 118 893 | 1 819 | 8 482 | 19 284 | 18 288 | 19 147 | 17 834 | 18 848 | 18 864 | 17 346 | 4 008 | 1 | 1 |

16. AGE-STANDARDIZED DEATH RATES, SELECTED CAUSES, BY SEX

| COUNTRY OR AREA | YEAR | STD. SEX POP. | AGE-STANDARDIZED DEATH RATE PER 100 000 OF THE STANDARD POPULATION | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------|---------------|--|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------|
| | | | INFECTIONIOUS AND PARASITIC DISEASES | MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS | MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS OF STOMACH | MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS OF TRACHEA, BRONCHUS, AND LUNG | MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS OF FEMALE BREAST | DISEASES OF THE CIRCULATORY SYSTEM | ISCHAEMIC HEART DISEASE | OTHER VASCULAR DISEASES | |
| | | | MALADIES INFECTIONIEUSES ET PARASITAIRES (01-07) | TUMEURS MALIGNES (08-14) | TUMEUR MALIGNES DE L'ESTOMAC (09) | TUMEUR MALIGNES DE LA TRACHEE, DES BRONCHES ET DU PULMON (10) | TUMEUR MALIGNES DU SEIN (11) | MALADIES DU CIRCULATOIRES (28-30) | MYOCARDIO-PATHIES ISCHEMIQUES (37) | MALADIES CARDIQUES VASCULAIRES (38) | |
| AFRICA | | | | | | | | | | | |
| MAURITIUS | 1901 WORLD | T | 47.6 | 83.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | | 472.1 | 134.6 | 170.1 | |
| | | M | 51.4 | 127.7 | 18.1 | 10.0 | | 359.0 | 223.1 | 259.1 | |
| | F | 38.3 | 65.9 | 7.3 | 4.4 | 7.3 | 347.6 | 68.7 | 98.0 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 48.6 | 124.5 | 18.2 | 18.2 | | 783.4 | 210.4 | 209.2 | |
| | | F | 37.4 | 207.1 | 28.6 | 60.8 | 10.2 | 1286.6 | 369.7 | 338.2 | |
| | F | | 99.8 | 11.0 | 8.9 | | 668.2 | 142.2 | 159.8 | | |
| AMERICA | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CANADA | 1979 WORLD | T | 2.8 | 132.6 | 7.8 | 30.5 | | 247.1 | 184.0 | 48.4 | |
| | | M | 3.6 | 184.2 | 11.8 | 81.9 | | 310.9 | 220.1 | 60.8 | |
| | F | 2.1 | 108.8 | 4.7 | 12.7 | 23.1 | 176.9 | 98.1 | 40.6 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 3.8 | 198.9 | 12.1 | 44.5 | | 404.7 | 247.8 | 78.9 | |
| | | F | 2.6 | 248.4 | 18.4 | 78.9 | | 530.8 | 348.3 | 88.1 | |
| | 1980 WORLD | T | 2.8 | 132.4 | 7.0 | 31.4 | | 242.1 | 181.0 | 42.5 | |
| | | M | 3.4 | 185.2 | 10.3 | 83.4 | | 322.0 | 214.7 | 47.3 | |
| | F | 2.3 | 107.1 | 4.4 | 13.2 | 23.0 | 176.8 | 97.6 | 38.7 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 3.8 | 198.7 | 10.8 | 48.8 | | 397.8 | 243.3 | 72.8 | |
| | | F | 3.1 | 249.6 | 16.9 | 78.2 | | 518.7 | 338.6 | 80.4 | |
| | 1981 WORLD | T | 2.9 | 130.9 | 7.1 | 31.2 | | 230.7 | 144.3 | 41.2 | |
| | | M | 3.8 | 182.2 | 9.9 | 62.2 | | 308.0 | 208.4 | 48.6 | |
| F | 2.4 | 107.4 | 4.8 | 14.0 | 23.0 | 188.6 | 92.6 | 37.7 | | | |
| EURO-PEAN | T | 4.0 | 194.8 | 11.0 | 45.5 | | 379.7 | 233.2 | 70.4 | | |
| | F | 3.2 | 246.0 | 16.8 | 77.7 | | 497.4 | 328.7 | 77.8 | | |
| 1982 WORLD | T | 3.1 | 138.0 | 6.9 | 33.9 | | 233.1 | 148.1 | 40.2 | | |
| | M | 3.7 | 182.4 | 9.8 | 68.5 | | 307.7 | 205.2 | 43.6 | | |
| F | 2.6 | 110.8 | 4.5 | 18.4 | 23.4 | 170.6 | 94.7 | 37.2 | | | |
| EURO-PEAN | T | 4.3 | 202.4 | 10.6 | 49.8 | | 384.9 | 235.3 | 69.0 | | |
| | F | 3.6 | 268.8 | 15.2 | 84.0 | | 497.2 | 325.3 | 74.0 | | |
| PUERTO RICO | 1981 WORLD | T | 7.8 | 98.3 | 9.2 | 10.6 | | 221.1 | 88.6 | 43.1 | |
| | | M | 9.8 | 118.9 | 13.3 | 18.0 | | 284.5 | 111.5 | 48.4 | |
| | F | 6.8 | 78.3 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 10.6 | 180.3 | 67.4 | 40.0 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 10.4 | 145.0 | 14.3 | 18.1 | | 357.5 | 142.1 | 71.7 | |
| | | F | 9.1 | 180.0 | 20.4 | 22.8 | | 399.9 | 174.0 | 76.3 | |
| | 1982 WORLD | T | 10.9 | 78.7 | 7.6 | 9.8 | | 190.1 | 75.1 | 27.1 | |
| | | M | 13.7 | 86.2 | 10.1 | 14.8 | | 220.8 | 92.4 | 28.8 | |
| | F | 6.3 | 63.1 | 6.4 | 6.3 | 9.1 | 181.8 | 69.4 | 24.8 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 18.5 | 118.1 | 12.0 | 14.5 | | 309.4 | 121.0 | 48.4 | |
| | | F | 12.0 | 146.0 | 18.4 | 21.8 | | 356.9 | 146.1 | 49.2 | |
| | UNITED STATES OF AMERICA | 1980 WORLD | T | 6.6 | 131.0 | 4.3 | 34.2 | | 287.8 | 154.6 | 43.1 |
| | | | M | 6.9 | 184.7 | 6.1 | 68.1 | | 356.4 | 219.7 | 49.2 |
| F | | 4.8 | 102.1 | 2.8 | 17.2 | 22.0 | 200.1 | 104.1 | 40.0 | | |
| EURO-PEAN | | T | 7.8 | 192.4 | 6.8 | 49.2 | | 436.7 | 249.7 | 78.0 | |
| | | F | 6.3 | 248.4 | 4.4 | 9.3 | 31.0 | 688.1 | 347.8 | 78.3 | |
| F | | | 182.4 | 4.4 | 24.5 | | 338.7 | 176.1 | 68.3 | | |
| ASIA | | | | | | | | | | | |
| HONG KONG | | 1982 WORLD | T | 18.6 | 133.3 | 9.1 | 38.3 | | 148.4 | 44.1 | 62.1 |
| | | | M | 22.4 | 178.8 | 12.8 | 83.9 | | 177.8 | 68.3 | 70.8 |
| | | F | 9.6 | 95.4 | 6.1 | 25.1 | 7.7 | 120.4 | 33.3 | 56.1 | |
| | | EURO-PEAN | T | 22.1 | 190.2 | 13.3 | 66.1 | | 232.2 | 71.5 | 89.4 |
| | | | F | 13.6 | 136.6 | 9.1 | 38.9 | 10.8 | 184.6 | 55.4 | 69.0 |
| | JAPAN | 1982 WORLD | T | 7.4 | 109.7 | 31.2 | 15.2 | | 180.7 | 29.6 | 89.2 |
| M | | | 10.3 | 148.6 | 44.2 | 28.7 | | 220.8 | 39.3 | 108.2 | |
| F | | 5.1 | 82.0 | 21.6 | 7.4 | 8.4 | 160.0 | 22.0 | 74.9 | | |
| EURO-PEAN | | T | 10.8 | 182.7 | 48.9 | 23.2 | | 308.9 | 49.2 | 161.3 | |
| | | F | 7.4 | 120.5 | 32.1 | 11.3 | 7.4 | 268.8 | 38.0 | 129.4 | |
| KUWAIT | | 1982 WORLD | T | 28.7 | 102.2 | 8.4 | 20.0 | | 292.3 | 99.9 | 26.7 |
| | M | | 37.0 | 111.7 | 8.6 | 29.0 | | 337.1 | 128.0 | 24.7 | |
| | F | 20.2 | 93.7 | 7.7 | 9.0 | 10.3 | 230.0 | 81.5 | 27.1 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 38.2 | 180.4 | 12.2 | 29.8 | | 489.3 | 149.0 | 41.8 | |
| | | F | 24.0 | 134.5 | 11.2 | 13.8 | 14.0 | 370.8 | 86.2 | 43.3 | |
| | EUROPE | | | | | | | | | | |
| AUSTRIA | 1982 WORLD | T | 3.9 | 139.9 | 18.0 | 23.3 | | 292.6 | 100.8 | 80.8 | |
| | | M | 6.3 | 180.8 | 23.1 | 48.9 | | 377.2 | 167.3 | 90.7 | |
| | F | 2.2 | 118.9 | 11.6 | 8.2 | 20.1 | 236.0 | 63.1 | 73.3 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 5.3 | 209.4 | 25.4 | 34.7 | | 494.8 | 181.1 | 140.3 | |
| | | F | 2.9 | 172.1 | 18.7 | 12.2 | 29.0 | 412.1 | 106.8 | 134.1 | |
| | BELGIUM | 1979 WORLD | T | 5.0 | 164.6 | 11.9 | 38.8 | | 248.6 | 85.1 | 89.8 |
| M | | | 6.6 | 211.2 | 16.8 | 78.8 | | 328.2 | 128.0 | 88.8 | |
| F | | 3.6 | 113.9 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 24.4 | 188.6 | 49.8 | 88.8 | | |
| EURO-PEAN | | T | 5.5 | 231.2 | 18.4 | 63.7 | | 408.7 | 131.7 | 101.8 | |
| | | F | 4.7 | 180.1 | 13.0 | 11.8 | 34.8 | 323.2 | 106.0 | 86.7 | |
| BULGARIA | | 1982 WORLD | T | 7.8 | 108.4 | 19.0 | 20.9 | | 397.1 | 123.6 | 148.8 |
| | M | | 9.3 | 130.5 | 26.4 | 38.1 | | 488.3 | 184.9 | 184.8 | |
| | F | 6.8 | 83.4 | 13.3 | 5.3 | 14.2 | 348.7 | 84.7 | 138.3 | | |
| | EURO-PEAN | T | 8.1 | 148.9 | 28.2 | 28.8 | | 654.4 | 202.1 | 244.7 | |
| | | F | 6.8 | 116.3 | 18.9 | 7.8 | 19.6 | 680.8 | 182.2 | 230.7 | |

