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Characteristics of Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, 1992 – 2012

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An abstract of

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Abstract

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By Larisa Fedarushchanka

Background: Public Health Surveillance (PHS) evaluations are triggered by various events or circumstances that can affect the evaluation scope, objectives, methods, and cost. However little is known about what triggers them and how this information might be used prospectively to enhance evaluation efficiency and effectiveness. We performed a systematic literature review that identified and defined triggers initiating PHS evaluations.

Methods: Articles published about PHS evaluations in English between January 1, 1992 and December 31, 2012 were collected from MEDLINE/PubMed, Google Scholar, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and World Health Organization (WHO) web sites.

Results: A total of 2,705 publications were identified through MEDLINE/PubMed, Google Scholar, CDC and WHO web sites. Nine were identified through a review of the primary articles' references. Fourteen duplicates were excluded, and after applying the exclusion criteria, 217 publications remained in the final dataset. Most PHS evaluations were published between 2007 and 2012 (115 [53%]); 50 (23%) from 2002 to 2006; 36 (17%) from 1997 to 2000; and 16 (7%) from 1992 to 1996. Fifteen triggers were identified and placed into six categories: general, economic change, technical, new component, emergency, and public health measure. The most frequently reported trigger of a PHS evaluation was data quality monitoring 59 (27%), followed by new technology or innovation 25 (12%), comparison of systems 23 (11%), initial evaluation 20 (9%), formal request 13 (6%), new standards 13 (6%), syndromic surveillance 12 (6%), change in public health policy 11 (5%), occurrence of a public health event 11 (5%), change in definitions 9 (4%), introduction of new control measures 8 (3%), determination of cost six (3%), mass gathering 3 (1%), preparedness 2 (1%), and structural changes 2 (1%).

Conclusion: The number of evaluations of PHS increased several-fold over the past 20 years, with the most common trigger being data quality monitoring. Trigger identification during the planning stage of PHS evaluation can guide strategy and budget cost. This new concept should assist public health officials conduct the evaluation process more effectively and efficiently.

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|

Acronyms

CDC- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

CDSS - communicable disease surveillance systems

HAI - hospital acquired infections

ISS – injury surveillance system

MMWR - Morbidity and Mortality Monthly Report

NCDD – noncommunicable disease surveillance systems

NGO - non-governmental organizations

NPV – predictive value negative

PHS - Public health surveillance

PHSS - public health surveillance system

PPV – predictive value positive

TESSy - The European Surveillance System

TB – tuberculosis

WHO - World Health Organization

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background

Public health surveillance (PHS) is defined as, “an ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, interpretation and dissemination of data regarding a health-related event for use in public health action to reduce morbidity and mortality and to improve health”⁷⁸. PHS is an integral part of a healthcare system with the basic function to monitor priority health outcomes. PHS is an essential tool to detect outbreaks by establishing an early warning system. Its function is to detect and clarify the magnitude of the health outcome, monitor changes, determine geographic distribution, and guide development of rapid responses and inform policy. It assesses the health status of the population to determine public health policy priorities, reduce the burden of disease and injuries by targeting prevention and control programs, and stimulate public health research.

According to the WHO Health Systems Strengthening Glossary, “evaluation is the systematic and objective assessment of the relevance, adequacy, progress, efficiency, effectiveness and impact of a course of actions in relation to objectives and taking into account the resources and facilities that have been deployed”²³⁶. Evaluation of public health surveillance system (PHSS) is necessary to: prioritize the events under surveillance; identify the elements of the system that are weak and need improvement; qualify the epidemiological information; determine if the current system can detect and report health events and provide a timely response; and present baseline information for surveillance policy and control.

PHS should be evaluated periodically to provide recommendations for improving efficiency, quality, and usefulness. PHS evaluations are initiated by recommendations

from Ministries of Health, donor organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGO), and research institutions. The purpose of a PHS evaluation is to:

- obtain information about whether the PHS is meeting objectives;
- identify strengths and weaknesses;
- determine country needs regarding communicable disease prevention and control;
- understand if the surveillance supports and benefits stakeholders; and
- find gaps and opportunities for improving the performance and efficiency.

Two review articles related to evaluation of surveillance systems were published between 2004 and 2012. Drewe J.A., *et al.* discussed the existing framework for the evaluation of animal and PHS systems, performance indicators, methods and attributes used in the main CDC and the generic guidelines to assess the framework's strengths and weaknesses⁵⁹. They also discussed how to analyze a PHS applied to animal health. They reported a lack of standardization in human and animal health surveillance and suggested creating a generic framework that would consist of a limited number of primary and secondary attributes, depending on the purpose of the surveillance and the health outcome under survey. They recommend including economic evaluation as an integral part of the surveillance evaluation process to assist decision-makers in cases of limited or diminishing resources.

Sahal N., *et al.* compared the evaluation of communicable disease surveillance systems (CDSS) in developed and developing countries to ensure that CDSS are monitored efficiently and effectively, to learn lessons from both developing and developed countries' experience, and to improve systems quality everywhere¹⁹⁴.

Several studies reviewed published literature that related to evaluation, not of the whole PHS, but of single attributes. Doyle T.J., *et al.* studied the completeness of notifiable infectious disease reporting in the United States with the aim of identifying factors associated with reporting completeness⁵⁸. Jajosky R.A., *et al.* looked at the timeliness of PHSS for infectious diseases to determine if the National Notifiable Diseases Surveillance System in the United States could support a timely response to multistate outbreaks on the state level¹⁰⁸. E. Lopez-Gonzalez examined the influence of personal and professional characteristics of healthcare workers on reporting of adverse drug reaction¹³⁶.

However, none analyzed what initiated the evaluation. Evaluations are triggered by various events or circumstances that affect the scope, objectives, methods, and cost. We identified and classified the triggers of PHS evaluations performed between 1992 and 2012 and how the evaluation processes differed, by trigger.

Research Question

The aim of this systematic review was to identify and define triggers that initiated evaluation of PHS from 1992 to 2012 and how those triggers influenced the evaluation purpose and its attributes. The secondary questions were to determine if triggers vary by date, geographic distribution, and condition of interest (health outcome).

Potential Study Implications

The new concept of trigger identification during the planning stage for PHS evaluation includes identifying or developing an initial strategic framework, methods and attributes to be assessed, cost, potential input and output measures, and stakeholders

involved. This concept can be used in developing a new framework for PHS evaluation to make it more effective and efficient.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Historical aspects of PHS

The history of disease surveillance began in the 14th century in the Venetian Republic when quarantine measures were applied to control the spread of pneumonic plague⁷⁷. The first “Bills of Mortality” were created in London in 1532 by an unknown person but were not used for public health research⁵⁶. In the 17th century, early plague surveillance was established in London, where the information about the number of plague deaths was collected by the Clerk of the Hall and reported weekly in a “Bill of Mortality.”⁸² John Graunt, who was the first to analyze the data from the weekly “Bill of Mortality,” estimated the size of the population of London and the number of deaths from specific causes and suggested that numerical data could be used to study the etiology of diseases^{82,116}. During the 18th century, public health surveillance became an integral part of population health. In Germany, Johann Peter Frank formulated comprehensive and detailed health policy in relationship to school health, maternal and child health, injury prevention, and public water and sewage treatment²²⁰. His ideas were accepted in Hungary, Italy, Denmark and Russia⁵⁶.

In the 19th century, the concept of data collection, interpretation and implementation was fully developed. In England, Sir Edwin Chadwick was the first person to demonstrate the connection between the level of poverty and health²¹⁴. The importance of complete mortality data in the United Kingdom (U.K.) led to the establishment in 1836 of the General Register Office⁵⁶, the medical certification of death, and universal death registration in 1837⁵⁶. William Farr became the first medical statistician to create a modern surveillance system and developed the modern concept of

surveillance⁶⁶. In 1885, the International Statistical Institute was founded in London and it published the international list of causes of death. In 1888, the mandatory reporting of eleven communicable diseases and death certificates was established in Italy⁵⁶.

In the United States, the history of reporting of notifiable disease started in two states: Massachusetts and Michigan. In Massachusetts in 1874, the Board of Health asked physicians to notify them by postcard about the prevalence of 14 infectious diseases¹²⁷. In 1883, the state of Michigan passed a law about notification requirements to the Board of Health of four infectious diseases: smallpox, cholera, diphtheria and scarlet fever, as well as any infectious diseases that could be dangerous to the public health¹²⁷.

The 20th century saw the development of many different surveillance systems²²¹. In 1911, the data from the National Health Insurance started to be used for surveillance purpose in the U.K.⁵⁶ In the U.S., in 1912 at the 10th annual conference of state and territorial health officers, the importance of gathering information about dangerous infectious diseases not only within the state but between states was discussed⁵⁶. The territorial health officers agreed with the Public Health Service that five diseases (cholera, plague, Rocky Mountain spotted fever, typhus fever and yellow fever) would be immediately notifiable by telegraph to the Surgeon General and there would be monthly reporting by letter of 15 diseases (diphtheria, dysentery, leprosy, measles, meningitis, poliomyelitis, scarlet fever, smallpox, typhoid fever and Rocky Mountain spotted fever)¹²⁷. The First National Health Survey in the U.S. was performed in 1935²³⁴. In 1961, the responsibilities for the collection and publication of information about notifiable diseases was assign to the CDC, which started to published the Morbidity and Mortality Monthly Report (MMWR) report from January 6, 1961²²⁴. In 1963, Alexander D.

Langmuir, Chief of the Bureau of Epidemiology at CDC, stated, "Surveillance, when applied to a disease, means the continued watchfulness over the distribution and trends of incidence through the systematic collection, consolidation and evaluation of morbidity and mortality reports and other relevant data. Intrinsic in the concept is the regular dissemination of the basic data and interpretations to all who have contributed and to all others who need to know"¹²⁷. The Epidemiological Surveillance Unit in the Division of Communicable Diseases at the WHO headquarters was established in 1965 in Geneva, and the following year the first Communicable Disease Surveillance Report by the WHO was published⁵⁶. In 1967 in the Netherlands and the U.K., the General Practitioners' Sentinel Surveillance System was developed⁵⁶.

Bernard C. K. Choi and Anita W. R. Pak in a 2001 review of the 5,000 years of history of major epidemics derived 12 lessons for PHS for the 21st century⁴⁴. They suggested that PHS needs to be converted into an ongoing, comprehensive, systematic, population-based system containing data on health outcomes as well as risk factors; use effective data collection and analysis strategies; provide information for early warning of emerging health risks and deliver the information for evaluation and intervention programs; stimulate research; and equally and effectively distribute the information to all participants.

PHS Description

PHS is defined as "an ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, interpretation and dissemination of data regarding a health-related event for use in public health action to reduce morbidity and mortality and to improve health."⁷⁸ The first health condition that was put under survey was communicable disease⁵⁶. Over time, the health events under

surveillance changed and increased and now include: non-communicable diseases; injuries; occupational disease and injuries; adverse drug events; hospital acquired infections (HAI); behavioral risk factors and mental disorders; growth, development and nutritional status; environmental hazards; and animal health.

PHS vary from country to country and may be managed by different institutions and control programs. Vertical control is potentially good for specific notifiable diseases, but at the same time it may cause the overall PHS to be disjointed and inefficient because of the multiple methods used, the multiple reports forms, and the terminology that overwhelms and causes a lack of motivation in health workers. On the other hand, when PHSS is not well controlled, data may be underreported and there may be a delay in reporting, resulting in poorly analyzed data that is not helpful to decision makers¹⁶⁷.

In a 1994 review, Declich and Carter A.O. described the three major objectives of PHS: “To describe the ongoing pattern of disease occurrence and to link with public health action; to study the natural history and epidemiology of the disease and to provide information and baseline data”⁵⁶. Through the primary objective of PHH of describing the ongoing disease occurrence, it can measure the disease incidence and distribution; identify trends and patterns of disease; observe changes in the relationship of the infectious agent and the host to assess the potential risk of reoccurrence of the disease; and detect changes in medical practice (e.g., the increasing number of organ transplantation, cardio-surgery interventions)^{56,78}. For prevention purposes, PHS can investigate the source of a communicable disease and the way of its spread, stimulate action (e.g., warning the public about a possible threat, prevent the food product from being distributed on the market) and evaluate the effectiveness of control measures

(vaccination)^{56, 78}. While providing baseline data, PHS can help the government and health care providers to assess prevention and control measures before and after implementation^{56, 78}.

PHS data can be collected routinely or actively through investigations, or accumulated for other purposes but used for surveillance. Sources of data differ from country to country and depend on the stage of development and technical characteristics of a PHS, the quality of laboratory facilities, and available funding. The traditional sources of PHS data are: morbidity/mortality data; epidemic reporting; laboratory reporting; individual case reports; epidemic field investigation; surveys; animal reservoir and vector distribution studies; and demographic and environmental data⁵⁶. Additional data sources that are usually collected for non-surveillance purposes could be used as a supplemental resource or for the evaluation of a special disease situation (e.g., absenteeism from school or work due to an influenza epidemic). These sources could be hospital and medical care statistics; general practitioners' network, public health laboratory reports, disease registries, drug and biologics utilization and sales data, health and general population surveys, and newspaper and news broadcasting reports⁵⁶. According to the updated 2001 CDC guidelines for evaluating public health surveillance systems, PHSS data can be used to: guide immediate response to public health threats; describe the clinical pictures of the diseases, measure its public health burden and monitor trends of a disease or health related event (outbreak/epidemic/pandemic detection); direct the planning, implementation and assessment of PHS to prevent and control the disease (or other health-related event); detect changes in health care systems

and measure the effect of those changes; highlight the allocation of health resources; and provide a basis for research⁷⁸.

PHS should collect the information that is required to achieve its objectives. The data may differ from disease to disease, but many elements are similar and could be obtained from the same data source. There are five traditional methods of data collection for PHS: passive PHS (ongoing, routine data collection); active PHS (actively searching for cases during an outbreak, expensive and limited in time); sentinel PHS (relies on a pre-arranged sample of reporting sources after preliminary agreement); PHS based on secondary data analysis (for chronic disease or for infectious disease not under routine surveillance) and special PHS surveys and investigations. PHS data have to be analyzed in terms of time, place and person, as well as interpreted and distributed among all participants and those who need to know for further action⁵⁶.

European PHS

In the section on PHS of communicable diseases in the European Union's (EU) long-term strategy (2008-2013), PHS is defined as “the ongoing collection, validation, analysis and interpretation of health and disease data that are needed to inform key stakeholders (in Member States and elsewhere) in order to permit them to take action by planning and implementing more effective, evidence-based public health policies and strategies relevant to the prevention and control of disease or disease outbreaks.”⁶⁰

The long-term vision and strategy for infectious disease PHS in Europe was developed and approved by the European Center for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC) Management Board in October 2005 and extends to 2013. The strategy attempts to define the terms and scope of surveillance, its aims and objectives, and its

organizational requirements, with the goal of reducing the incidence and prevalence of communicable diseases in the European Union by providing valid and comparable public health data, information and reports to all PHS system participants (i.e., decision makers, public health specialists and health care professionals).

The strategic plan describes the new concept of a two PHS approach: indicator-based and event-based. Indicator-based is the traditional approach for CDSS and consists of routinely collecting data from health care providers about the occurrence of predefined diseases or conditions. From the viewpoint of traditional PHS, it could be active, passive, sentinel or syndromic surveillance. The ECDC developed a system for infectious disease indicator-based PHS: The European Surveillance System (TESSy). TESSy was launched in 2008 and aims to provide the basis for data analysis and interpretation for further public health actions. The 27 EU Member States and the European Economic Area countries report data on communicable diseases to the system. Each Member State identifies an individual who serves as the main contact point for two-sided communication with the ECDC to ensure a solid working relationship. TESSy incorporates all data collection systems that were in place for the Dedicated Surveillance Network projects. The reduced common set of variables is defined for routine surveillance and applied to all communicable diseases. An additional set of variables was created for selected diseases that require enhanced surveillance.

Event-based PHS uses advance information technology (i.e., mass media, internet) to detect information that may help in the recognition of emerging threats. This is complementary to the indicator-based approach and not well studied or verified yet. The Threat Tracking Tool is an information system for event-based surveillance at the

European level, developed by the ECDC. The Threat Tracking Tool allows access to data related to public health threats, and verifies and distributes it to Member States' representatives through a daily update bulletin and weekly threat bulletin (the Communicable Disease Threat Report).

Evaluation of PHS

Saqib S. (2009) found that the number of specific frameworks to guide evaluation of PHS has increased¹⁹⁷. The CDC framework is the one most often cited, but the Public Health Agency of Canada recommends its own framework for evaluation of PHSS in Canada.

CDC Guidelines for Evaluation of Surveillance Systems

The CDC Guidelines for Evaluating Surveillance Systems was published in 1988, and states that an evaluation of PHSS needs to be performed regularly in order to detect if the system is working efficiently and meeting its objectives⁸⁷. PHS vary by scope, objectives and methodology, and an attribute that is important for one system may be less important to another, so the guidelines describe many potential measures, but the evaluation process should be flexible and adapted to the field according to the PHS evaluation objectives.

The Guidelines consists of: a description of the public health importance of the health condition under surveillance; a framework for describing the components of a surveillance system; definitions of the surveillance system attributes (simplicity, flexibility, acceptability, sensitivity, predictive value positive, representativeness, and

timeliness) that potentially affect the usefulness and cost of a system; a description of the necessary resources for PHSS operation; and conclusions and recommendations.

In 2001, the CDC Guidelines for Evaluating Surveillance Systems was updated to measure the integration of PHS and health information systems and electronic health data bases, assess the implementation of new data standards, and address new objectives for PHS to manage the emerging health threats (outbreaks, epidemic/pandemic)⁷⁸. Two attributes were recommended, in addition to seven suggested in 1988: data quality that reflects the completeness and validity of PHSS data and stability, which refers to the ability to “collect, manage, and provide data properly without failure” and availability of PHS⁷⁸.

The Guidelines describe the tasks for evaluation and standards for effective evaluation (i.e., utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy) that were adapted from the Framework for Program Evaluation in Public Health and based on the original 1988 CDC guidelines^{70, 87}. The following tasks and activities were recommended⁷⁸:

- Task A. Engage the stakeholders in the evaluation
- Task B. Describe the surveillance system to be evaluated:
 - B.1. Public health importance of the health-related event under surveillance
 - B.2. Purpose and operation of the system
 - B.3. Resources used to operate the system (funding source(s); personnel requirements; other resources)
- Task C. Focus the evaluation design to ensure that time and resources are used as efficiently as possible.

- Task D. Gather credible evidence regarding the performance of the surveillance system
 - D.1. Indicate the level of usefulness
 - D.2. Describe each system attribute (simplicity; flexibility; data quality; acceptability; sensitivity; PPV; representativeness; timeliness and stability)
- Task E. Justify and state conclusions, and make recommendations
- Task F. Ensure use of evaluation findings and share lessons learned

In 2004, the CDC published the Framework for Evaluating Public Health Surveillance Systems for Early Detection of Outbreaks as a supplement to the 2001 guidelines with enhanced attention to the assessment of timeliness and validity for outbreak detection²⁹. The framework was designed to address the threat of terrorism and support assessment of early outbreak detection. The measurement of the performance of PHSS for outbreak detection is necessary to assess the relative value of different surveillance approaches and to provide information for improvement of PHS efficacy. The framework is organized into four categories: system description (purpose, stakeholders, operation); outbreak detection (timeliness, validity), system experience (usefulness, flexibility, acceptability, portability, stability and cost); and conclusions and recommendations for use and improvement of systems for early outbreak detection. It also suggests evaluating timeliness and the balance among sensitivity, predictive value positive (PVP) and predictive value negative (PVN) compared with alternative surveillance systems to determine the best approach for outbreak detection. The framework encourages the evaluation team to describe the design and performance of the

system in a real setting, so it is more applicable for a PHS that experiences the detection of an outbreak and has the data, but can also be used by the new systems at their early stage of development or planning.

Framework and Tools for Evaluating Health Surveillance Systems, Canada

The Canadian framework was published in 2004 and was designed to assist managers of PHSS in identifying and reporting issues related to the performance and effectiveness of the systems³². It is based on the government of Canada's Results-Based Management and Accountability Framework that includes five major components: program profile, logic model, performance measurement, evaluation and reporting.

The framework outlines six steps in evaluating health surveillance: 1) establishing the context of the surveillance system (purpose, roles and responsibilities, design and scope); 2) developing evaluation questions by using SMART (specific, measurable, actionable, relevant and timely) strategies; 3) measuring surveillance system characteristics – such as acceptability, simplicity, flexibility, data quality, PPV, sensitivity, representativeness, timeliness, stability and compliance – and system performance characteristics – such as effectiveness, efficiency and usefulness; 4) designing the process for data collection and management, and collating and presenting the findings; 5) reviewing an evaluation report; and 6) following up on the use of findings.

WHO Protocol for the Assessment of National Communicable Disease Surveillance and Response Systems, 2001

The WHO Protocol for the Assessment of National Communicable Disease Surveillance and Response Systems was published in 2001 as a generic document for

evaluation of CDSS¹⁶⁷. The evaluation protocol recommended: prioritizing the disease for surveillance within the country; assessing the organization of the surveillance and response systems and relationship within the level of PHS (i.e., central, intermediate, district, health facility, and community level); assessing the main task for CDSS at each level (i.e., case detection, confirmation, reporting, analysis, investigation, response, feedback and monitoring); supporting functions (i.e., training, supervision, communication systems, providing resources); assessing output and providing information about the effectiveness and efficiency of CDSS by considering the system attributes (simplicity, flexibility, completeness, sensitivity, timeliness, representativeness); evaluating the level of the national surveillance system's potential integration/synergy that can affect sustainability, as well as the direct and indirect costs and performance of the CDSS; and assessing the laboratory capacity and communication systems.

Chapter 3: Methods

An exhaustive literature review was conducted of all published articles on PHSS evaluations. These documents included peer-reviewed and grey-literature publications that evaluated PHS published in English between January 1, 1992 and December 31, 2012. These articles were collected from four sources: MEDLINE/PubMed, Google Scholar, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) for Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Reports (MMWR), and World Health Organization (WHO) for the Weekly Epidemiological Records (WER). PubMed literature was gathered that contained Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms “population surveillance” in different combinations with “program evaluation,” “quality assurance,” “health care,” “systems analysis,” “comparison,” “compare,” “validation,” “validity,” “validate,” “program,” and “system.” Similar search terminologies in Google Scholar were used to find grey-literature theses, conferences abstracts, and reports. MMWR and WER reports were gathered manually. Secondary searches were conducted by reviewing references quoted in key articles. EndNote® Web was used to concatenate references. Duplicates were identified and removed from the final dataset of articles (Figure 1).

Studies were included if the title and abstract were deemed relevant to the project scope. A two-step selection process was used in the retrieval process. Data were extracted including the source of the publication; reference; title; author(s); publication year; country; type of PHS (e.g., indicator-based, event-based, syndromic); health outcome, such as communicable diseases, non-communicable diseases, injury, hospital-acquired infections (HAI), adverse events (the descriptions of health outcomes are presented in Table 1); purpose; trigger category; trigger; evaluation method; system

attributes and guidelines. The definitions of surveillance system attributes are presented in the Table 2.

We stratified four groups of articles according to the publication date (1992-96; 1997-01; 2002-06; and 2007-12). The six categories of triggers – general, economic change, technical, new component, emergency, and public health measure – and the fifteen triggers – initial evaluation, compare systems, formal request, determine cost, data quality monitoring, new technology or innovation, new standards, change in definitions, syndromic surveillance, mass gathering, occurrence of a public health event, preparedness, change in public health policy, introduction of new control measure(s) and structural changes – were identified during the literature retrieval (Table 3).

The present research project did not require Institutional Review Board approval, because it does not meet the definition of research involving “human subjects.”

Chapter 4: Results

A total of 2,700 publications were screened during this systematic review: 2,705 publications were identified through searching MEDLINE/PubMed, Google Scholar, CDC and WHO official web sites; nine publications were added after reviewing the references of the primary articles; and fourteen duplicate articles were excluded. After applying the exclusion criteria (Figure 1), 217 publications remained in the final dataset (Annex 1). Of these, 185 were published in peer-reviewed journals, three in WRE, eleven in MMWR, nine were official reports and six were materials from scientific conferences. One hundred and four publications were open source and 113 not open source. Data from these publications were extracted and included in this review.

The majority of PHS evaluations were included in the review and published between 2007 and 2012 (115 or 53%); 50 (23%) articles were published between 2002 and 2006; 36 (17%) between 1997 and 2000; and 16 (7%) between 1992 and 1996.

Geographic Locations of PHS Evaluation

The 217 evaluations included in this review occurred in 55 countries (Table 4). The majority were conducted in the United States (82 [38%]); Australia 17 (8%); Canada 13 (6%); the U.K. eight (3%); Italy and the Netherlands six (3%); South Africa five (2%); Germany and Pakistan four each (2%). Nine articles (4%) described the evaluation of surveillance systems occurring in more than one country.

Guidelines and PHS Attributes in the Evaluation

The CDC guidelines for evaluation of PHS were used in 45 (21%) publications, while 31% were performed in the United States, 20% in Australia, 7% in Canada, 4% in

the U.K. and 38% in the others countries. The most recently updated (2001) version of the CDC guidelines was used in 28 studies published from 2007 to 2012 and in ten studies published from 2002 to 2006. The previous 1988 version of the CDC guidelines was used in seven studies published in 2001 or earlier. The WHO guidelines were used in three studies published from 2007 to 2012 and in two studies published in 2006 or earlier. The WHO/CDC guidelines were used in studies published in 2000 and 2002. The WHO guidelines were used in five (2%) articles in China, Mexico, Iraq, and Mozambique and Saudi Arabia. Both the WHO and CDC guidelines were modified and used in Australia and Uganda. Authors of 165 publications did not mention any guidelines used during the evaluation of PHS.

Only 15 studies reported nine evaluation attributes recommended by CDC guidelines such as simplicity, flexibility, data quality, acceptability, sensitivity, PPV, representativeness, timeliness and stability and were initiated by various triggers: compare systems (2/14), data quality monitoring (4/14), formal request (2/14), initial evaluation (2/14), new standards (1/14), new technology or innovation (2/14), occurrence of public health event (1/14) and syndromic surveillance (1/14). Two studies evaluated usefulness in addition to nine recommended attributes, but none of those 14 studies evaluated cost of PHS.

Effectiveness, usefulness, accuracy, negative predictive value, completeness, cost of surveillance, validity and value were evaluated in addition to those nine attributes in 172 articles included in the present review (Figure 2). Single, paired or group of more than two but less than nine attributes can be evaluated in the study if the authors

addressed the CDC guidelines. Sensitivity (84/217), timeliness (68/217), data quality (57/217), and completeness (52/217) reported on a single attribute.

Health Outcomes Evaluated

The 217 articles were grouped by health outcome: communicable diseases (CD), non-communicable diseases (NCD), HAI, injuries, adverse event, and demographical data. The guidelines (CDC, WHO, CDC/WHO) were most used in evaluating CD 37 (71%) and injury surveillance eight (15%). CDS were the most frequently evaluated (149/217), followed by injury (35/217), HAI (15/217), NCD (9/217), adverse events (6/217) and demographics (1/217) (Figure 3).

Triggers and Trigger Categories Identified During Systematic Literature Review

As a result of the systematic review, six categories of triggers: general, economic change, technical, new component, emergency, and public health measure plus fifteen triggers: initial evaluation, compare systems, formal request, determine cost, data quality monitoring, new technology or innovation, new standards, change in definitions, syndromic surveillance, mass gathering, occurrence of a public health event, preparedness, change in public health policy, introduction of new control measure(s) and structural changes were defined.

CDC, WHO, and generic CDC/WHO were used in studies initiated by triggers from the trigger category: general (21/52), technical (13/52) and new component (10/52) (Figure 4). CDS were evaluated more frequently than any other PHS. We found there were trigger categories identified more often than others: technical 52 (35%), general 34 (23%), new component 27 (18%), emergence (11%), public health measure 15 (10%), and economic (3%) (Figure 5). The range of trigger categories for PHS evaluation for the

entire period of the search was technical 84 (38%), general 56 (26%), new component 34 (16%), public health measure 21 (10%), emergency 16 (7%) and economic changes six (3%). From 1992 to 1996, the technical category was found in 69% of the total number of publications; new component in 13%, and economic change, emergency, and public health measure in 6% each (Figure 6). In groups of articles published between 1997 and 2001, technical category was 39%; new component 31%, general 19%, emergency, and public health measure in 6% each. In groups of articles published between 2002 and 2006, technical category was 34%; general 32%, public health measure 16%, new component, and emergency 8% each, and economic change in 2%. In groups of articles published from 2007 to 2012, technical category was 37%, general was 29%, new component was 15%, public health measure was 9%, emergency was 8%, and economic change was 3%.

We compared the trigger categories' frequencies found in studies performed in the U.S. with groups of countries where only one article or more but fewer than 82 articles were published. (Figure 7) The number of articles by country and trigger is shown in Table 5.

The range of triggers for PHS evaluation for the entire period was data quality monitoring 59 (27%), new technology or innovation 25 (12%), compare systems 23 (11%), initial evaluation 20 (9%), formal request 13 (6%), new standards 13 (6%), syndromic surveillance 12 (6%), change in public health policy 11 (5%), occurrence of a public health event 11 (5%), change in definitions 9 (4%), introduction of new control measures 8 (3%), determine cost six (3%), mass gathering 3 (1%), preparedness 2 (1%), and structural changes 2 (1%) (Table 6).

Four triggers were unique for communicable disease PHS evaluation – occurrence of a public health event (11/217), change in definitions (9/217), mass gathering (3/217) and preparedness (2/217). Data quality monitoring was the most frequent trigger for CDS (35/149), HAI (7/15), adverse events (4/8) and injury surveillance system (ISS) (11/35). The initial evaluation trigger was most frequent among NCDS (3/9) (Table 7).

Guidelines (CDC, WHO, or CDC/WHO) were used in studies initiated by an initial evaluation trigger (10/52), followed by data quality monitoring and formal request triggers (8/52). (Figure 8)

Data quality monitoring was the most frequent trigger for PHS evaluation for all years of publication and was included in 69% of the total number of articles published from 1992 to 1996; 35% of the total number of articles published from 1997 to 2001; 20% of the total number of articles published from 2002 to 2006, and 25% of the total number of articles published from 2007 to 2012. In a group of articles published between 1997 and 2001, initial evaluation, new standards and new technology or innovation were the second most frequent triggers (14% of all studies). In a group of articles published between 2002 and 2006, new technology and compare systems, followed the data quality monitoring triggers were 14% of all studies. In a group of articles published between 2007 and 2012, compare systems (14%) was the second most frequent trigger, followed by new technology or innovation (11%). Initial evaluation and syndromic surveillance were 9% each of the total (Figure 9).

Chapter 5: Discussion

Conclusion

This systematic literature review of PHS evaluations published in English from 1992 to 2012 yielded six categories of triggers: general, economic changes, technical, new component, emergency, and public health measures. It also yielded fifteen triggers: initial evaluation, compare systems, formal request, determine cost, data quality monitoring, new technology or innovation, new standards, change in definitions, syndromic surveillance, mass gathering, occurrence of a public health event, preparedness, change in public health policy, introduction of new control measure(s), and structural changes. CDS and ISS were evaluated more often than HAI, adverse events or NCDSS. Most evaluation studies were initiated by the technical category triggers (i.e., when a public health practitioner suspects a problem with the PHS data quality or after implementing a new technology or other innovation). The attributes of completeness, data quality, timeliness, sensitivity, and validity should be evaluated to confirm if the PHS data are reliable. Sensitivity, specificity, timeliness, data quality and validity attributes were the basis for evaluation after the implementation of a new technology or other innovation. Not all nine surveillance system attributes recommended by the updated CDC guidelines for evaluating public health surveillance systems were applied in the evaluation process. The systematic assessment was undertaken if a formal requested was made by the government, NGO sponsoring organizations or PHS owners, or in the case of preparedness for a mass gathering event. The number and type of suggested attributes depended on the purpose of the study and trigger. We did not find a significant difference among the categories of PHS (CDS, NCDS, ISS, Adverse event

and HAI) and triggers; nor as well as among types and numbers of the evaluated attributes and triggers.

Guidelines Used and PHS Attributes Evaluated

CDC guidelines for evaluating PHS (1988) and its updated (2001) version were used by author's of 45 publications; but only 15 (33%) reported all nine suggested evaluation attributes (e.g., simplicity, flexibility, data quality, acceptability, sensitivity, PPV, representativeness, timeliness, and stability). Systematic assessments were initiated by the following triggers: data quality monitoring^{8, 152, 158,193}; new technology or innovation^{105, 185}; compare systems^{34, 104}; formal request^{84, 120}; initial evaluation^{69, 153}; new standards¹¹⁴; syndromic surveillance³⁶, and occurrence of public health events⁶¹. Thirty studies mentioned the CDC guidelines in the methods section. But they did not analyze all attributes because of the absence of data or logistic constraints; the adaptation of the CDC guidelines to the special context; or concerns about not requiring the whole system to be evaluated (Figure 2).

Drewe J.A., *et al.* found most studies measured single or paired attributes, even if the evaluation was a systematic assessment⁵⁹. They consider those evaluations could be biased and not provide true information for stockholders. So they suggested creating a generic framework with the number of attributes specified by the research purpose and health outcome. The purpose of our systematic review was to determine what attributes were appropriate to be evaluated by trigger.

We expected that evaluations performed for the first time would be a systematic evaluation. In case of formal evaluation, the fundamental assessment was preferred with the aim to discover if the current PHS achieved its objectives and purposes, and if it

fulfilled the CDC PHS evaluation criteria. But only two studies evaluated all nine attributes^{84,120}. Sekhobo J. P., *et al* did not report stability and data quality, but described the system structure in detail and analyzed its usefulness and cost-effectiveness²⁰¹. Hajdu A., *et al.* used attributes addressing implementation and compliance because of their importance to HAI PHS⁹¹. We can assume that three official reports assessed all of elements, but the authors used attributes that differed from the CDC (i.e., structure, process, response, core capacities, shortcomings, and limitations)^{10, 161, 164}.

Most initial evaluations of PHS in this review were performed one to three years after establishment. Two studies were published in 1998^{69, 129}, all other studies after 2000, and the number of publications doubled during the last six years in comparison with the prior years (2002 – 2006). Studies that mentioned the CDC or WHO guidelines were more complete than formal request evaluations, and 50% of them assessed nine or ten attributes; the others addressed at least four attributes related to their purpose.

We would recommend usefulness, data quality, and flexibility to describe the qualitative aspects of a PHS; acceptability, validity and usefulness to assess the utility of a PHS; simplicity, timeliness, data quality and representativeness to monitor the effectiveness of a PHS.

Economic Change Category

Cost evaluation of PHS is necessary to understand if the system performs effectively; its value for human, technical, and financial resources increases; and the efficiency of the resources allocation is maximized. We found six studies that evaluated the cost-effectiveness of the PHS by using different methods: the activity-based cost of tuberculosis (TB) surveillance and application of a new conceptual framework for PHS

and action on a country level¹⁴⁶; analysis of relevance of new technical and financial investments into the system¹⁵⁷; comparison of productivity funded and non-funded by the federal government viral hepatitis surveillance¹⁰⁵; analyzing the implementation costs of establishing and operating activities for the new PHS²¹⁰; evaluation of the cost-effectiveness of three alternative strategies of screening of antibiotic resistance¹²¹; and analysis of PHS effectiveness measured by the usefulness and application of surveillance data²²⁶. The data quality, completeness, timeliness, representativeness, usefulness, and cost effectiveness surveillance attributes were assessed in these studies. The number and type of attribute can differ by objective and secondary research question.

Communicable Disease Surveillance

Two kinds of PHS were evaluated more often than others: CDS and ISS. CDS was established earlier than any other, so there is no wonder that it had the greatest number of articles published between 1992 and 2012. From 2007 to 2012 the number of publications increased six fold in comparison to years 1992 – 1996, with the majority of the studies performed in the United States, Australia, Canada, the UK, and Italy. One hundred and forty-nine evaluations of CDS were initiated by each of the 15 triggers. Twenty-three evaluations mentioned using the CDC guidelines in the method section, but only nine performed a complete evaluation^{120,153}. The rest evaluated a single attribute, paired attributes, or a group of them. The number of assessed attributes depended on the purpose for the evaluation and triggers. If the CDS was formally evaluated, initially evaluated, or was aimed to determine if the existing system can manage the special circumstances of the mass gathering event, paired attributes, such as sensitivity and specificity, completeness and timeliness, simplicity and acceptability, were evaluated

more often than guidelines being used. If study was initiated by changes in the disease definition and the necessity of measuring the data quality, it was more likely that completeness would be assessed as a single attribute¹¹⁰; or completeness and timeliness as paired attributes^{125,201}. After the application of the new public health policy (e.g., introduction of a new vaccine, management of antimicrobial resistance) on the concerned population or introduction of a new control measure into the CDSS, sensitivity and completeness could be assessed separately^{166, 208}, or sensitivity, flexibility, and timeliness could be assessed together^{196,122}. While comparing several CDS, the authors evaluated sensitivity and specificity as part attributes¹⁸⁷ or in combination with timeliness or PPV^{72, 104, 156, 170}.

Emergency Trigger Category

The emergency trigger was unique for the evaluation of CDS and was initiated by the occurrence of various public health events (e.g., outbreak, mass gatherings, or requirements from the public health institution) to assess preparedness of PHS for emerging communicable disease threats. We included 11 studies that evaluated the capability of CDS to respond during outbreaks and were published from 1995 to 2012. Influenza, food-borne disease, malaria and hepatitis A surveillance studies assessed the current performance of early warning and reporting systems, characterized its complains to detect outbreaks, completeness^{18,235}, sensitivity and timeliness of data reporting^{130,135} and to describe experience of using the pandemic case register before and during the pandemic from the perspective of users³⁹, summarized PHS results after the CDS implementation and analyzed its usefulness and possible ways of improvement^{18,178}. Sensitivity, specificity, timeliness, data quality, acceptability, and usefulness were

predominantly evaluated. The number of publications increased three times during 2007 – 2012 in comparison to 2002 – 2006, that confirmed the attention of the public health specialists to this problem. We recommend a group of basic attributes (e.g., timeliness, flexibility and sensitivity) to be assessed if one wants to measure the suitability of PHS for dealing with public health threats.

Mass gatherings add CD health risks because of the increased population density, changes in provision supply with a potential risk for food-borne disease, migration of population and import/export of microorganisms with high pathogenicity. Three studies analyzed if the existing CDSS delivers appropriate, accurate and timely information to stakeholders in order to implement adequate prevention and control measures. Trinidad and Tobago 2007 described the development, implementation, major findings, and recommendations from the mass gathering surveillance that supported the International Cricket Council's Cricket World Cup West Indies²⁷. The second study of the new PHS system for undiagnosed serious infectious disease during the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games discussed the system establishment and pilot evaluation undertaken during the first six months⁹⁷. It is necessary to make sure that PHS is adequately ready for the mass gathering event, so all PHS needs to be evaluated. The German study performed a pre-event and post-event assessment of the enhanced PHS for the small-scale mass gathering in the example of the FIFA Women's World Cup, and suggested that conducting a needs assessment would be more effective if the stakeholders were involved at the early stage of planning; the following post-event evaluation was helpful for the future enhanced surveillance systems²¹⁶.

Early detection of the CD threat is important for the notification of public health authorities and mobilization of the resources for epidemiologic investigation preventing disease spread. In addition, mass prophylaxis and treatment are necessary. So the assessment of the CDS's ability to react effectively in the face of potential hazards needs to be performed regularly. It is not necessary to evaluate all PHS attributes in this situation. We included two studies in our review that evaluated the CDS preparedness for the influenza epidemic in the United States and Australia. The New York City study examined the potential bias involved in the emergency medical services ambulance dispatch-based syndromic surveillance versus the emergency department-based surveillance for the influenza-like illness to determine the sensitivity and predictive value positive for selected call types⁸³. The Australian study was initiated by the Australian Government Department of Health and Ageing to evaluate how the Australian sentinel practice research network, the national network of general practitioners, can contribute to the surveillance of emerging infectious disease, to assess its simplicity, flexibility, acceptability, timeliness, stability, data quality, and representativeness, and to use the findings for further CDS re-development as a part of the Biosecurity Surveillance System Project⁴⁶.

Technical Trigger Category

The most frequent reason for performing an evaluation of CDS from 1992 to 2012 was the assumption that there was a problem with some aspect of data quality that needed to be investigated further or the introduction of new technology. HIV/AIDS and TB under-reporting was the major concern for CDS, as well as rubella, meningococcal meningitis and poliomyelitis. HIV/AIDS PHSS were evaluated in five United States, one

U.K., and one Italian study to assess the completeness of AIDS case reports and assess whether it differs in various populations⁸¹; analyze the quality of the AIDS death certification to estimate the HIV/AIDS prevalence and mortality²³¹; and examine the quality of the HIV serosurveillance¹³⁷ plus gaps in data needed for a reliable estimation of HIV prevalence and size of populations-at-risk for infection^{99,189}. The TB Italian study was conducted to assess the quality of surveillance at the local hospital over the 10-year period because the country under-reporting of TB ranged from 12% to 37-54% in different areas¹⁴⁸. The aims of the U.S. TB studies were to assess the completeness and timeliness of TB reporting at a state level, inform the TB case report revision process, and evaluate the usefulness of the laboratory and hospital discharge data^{50,213,223}. We assume that in order to get the picture of the possible problem with the epidemiologic data quality monitoring, completeness, data quality, timeliness, sensitivity, and validity could be the basic attributes for evaluation.

In the 21st century we face rapid introduction of new technology, aimed to make our life and work more efficient and easier. PHS is not apart from this continuous development, but in order to be approved by the public health and scientific professionals, all innovations need to be assessed to find out if they are as efficient as or more efficient than the previous ones. Seventeen evaluations of the application of new technology in CDS were published from 1992 to 2012. The replacement of an old surveillance system for a new one (Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System instead of Monitoring System for Adverse Events Following Immunization and Food and Drug Administration system in the U.S.)²⁴⁰, integration between PHS (enhanced Lymphogranuloma Venereum with the routine internet-based sexually transmitted

infection in the Netherlands)¹²³, application of a new software (ICD-codes for syndromic surveillance in the electronic surveillance system for the early notification of community-based epidemics)²², transition from the paper-based to the eSurveillance (Computerized Network for the Surveillance of Communicable Diseases in Italy)³⁵ are examples of innovations that were evaluated. All nine attributes recommended by CDC were evaluated in different combinations. The most useful attributes would be sensitivity, specificity, timeliness, data quality, and validity.

New Component Trigger Category

The “change in definition” trigger occurred when CDS faced new challenges, such as HIV/AIDS or when the PHS needed to be reviewed after the implementation of a new opinion on a well-known disease (TB, Syphilis, Malaria) or after the discovery of a new discovery of the way of disease transmission or a new aspect pathogenesis. Five studies, published in 1999 – 2001 and included in the present review were related to HIV/AIDS surveillance after the 1993 change in the AIDS case definition. The main purpose of those studies was to assess the completeness, timeliness, and validity of PHS, and determine what was different in HIV and AIDS surveillance^{110, 209}. One Australian study evaluated the flexibility, sensitivity, representativeness, timeliness, and usefulness of Australian National Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease Registry after the discovery of a new form of transmission of Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease through consumption of the BSE-contaminated beef¹⁸⁶. The New Jersey Department of Health study addressed the question of how a new definition of congenital syphilis influenced the accuracy and completeness of reporting and of the cost associated with identifying and classifying new cases⁴¹. The Italian study aimed to assess the coverage and validity of the National

Compulsory Surveillance System, and it was triggered by changes in the reporting criteria and definition of tuberculosis¹⁵¹. One of the most important objectives for the evaluation influenced by a change in the disease definition is to determine how this new definition was accepted by public health and medical specialists and if there was no delay or over/under reporting of the health condition.

Syndromic surveillance was initially created and implemented in response to bioterrorist threats and for the timely detection of naturally occurring disease outbreaks (e.g., influenza, influenza-like illness). The majority of studies included in the present review assessed from one to four attributes (e.g., completeness, timeliness, accuracy, simplicity, usefulness, data quality, degree of adoption, and compliance of the surveillance system) with the purpose of assessing the capabilities of the system, identifying early signals of outbreaks, evaluating the role of the system in informing public health action, describing users' perceptions of the value of the syndromic surveillance within the context of other surveillance systems^{52, 57, 100, 112, 122, 171, 198, 243}.

In the publications included in the present review, the introduction of new PHSS standards, such as the list of reportable health outcomes (new nosology in injury surveillance)¹¹⁵, implementation of the existing system into a new area (the Navy surveillance system implemented into the Army, and the military surveillance implemented into the civilian)¹⁵⁰ and inclusion of new cases into the existing PHS (the general practitioner network for the influenza-like illness active surveillance)¹¹⁷.

Most evaluations were performed in the United States and published between 1997 – 2001 and 2007 – 2012. Initiated by WHO, evaluation of the epidemiologic surveillance in Ethiopia was performed as a part of implementation of a comprehensive

health sector development program and a new PHS that focused on 17 communicable diseases and syndromes with the further assessment of the baseline for action planning and strengthening, assessment of existing PHS resources (human, financial, material) and system performance¹⁷⁵.

Public Health Measure Trigger Category

Changes in public health policy, such as application of the new health care management by law, introduction of a new vaccine, treatment protocols, and diagnostic procedures, initiated the evaluation of PHSS mostly during the last ten years, and a number of publication was increasing from year to year. The evaluation of the dracunculiasis surveillance system was initiated after the implementation of a new educational program on a local level through the collaboration of volunteers and medical professionals in Ghana¹⁴⁴. The Mexican study evaluated the results of the implementation of a new malaria control program and usage of a quick diagnostic test (diagnostic strips) instead of the diagnosis through thick blood smears²³. The Netherlands study evaluated the completeness of the Dutch malaria notification system after the implementation of a new infectious disease law in 1999, when laboratories were obliged to report malaria cases to the Municipal Health Service¹²⁴. The studies related to the vaccine preventable disease were initiated to evaluate the existing CDSS before the introduction of a new vaccine to reveal whether the system had any limitation in the data management (completeness, timeliness), specimen collection and laboratory equipment to provide the appropriate data before the start of a vaccination program; to analyze the completeness and timeliness of PHSS and effectiveness of the vaccination company after the implementation of a new vaccine; and to provide the fundamental evaluation of the

National PHSS concerning the diseases targeting for elimination (diphtheria, mumps, tetanus, poliomyelitis, rubella, hepatitis B, measles, and pertussis in Georgia)¹⁵⁵.

We found only two articles related to the evaluation of PHSS due to structural changes in the health care system that were published in 1992-2012. In 1991 the Soviet Union was destroyed and the previously centrally planned infectious disease SS lost its effectiveness because of the economic crisis, under-budgeting public health system, and migration of well-trained specialists. Wuhib T. et al. performed a fundamental assessment of the infectious disease SS in Armenia after dissolution of the Former Soviet Union in 1991 by using the CDC guidelines to discover weaknesses of the system and to provide recommendations for its improvement²⁴¹. The evaluation of effectiveness of the nosocomial infections surveillance system in the U.S. was performed 20 years after the previous assessment had been done. The authors did not mention any particular changes in the health care system, but they assumed that the system had changed dramatically from 1974 till 1994, and this made them initiate the evaluation¹⁶². A lot of countries, especially those with an unstable political situation, re-imaging economic crisis, could face the same problem, and those examples can help in the initial planning of either establishing the new SS or modifying the existing one.

From eight evaluations of PHSS that were triggered by the introduction of a new control measure, such as national polio or measles eradication programs, controlling nosocomial infections, growth monitoring and promotion programs, two were published in 1992 and 1998, and other six were published during last six years. The study related to the national eradication programs was performed both in developed and developing countries. The study performed in India and published in 1992, assessed the sensitivity of

the acute flaccid paralysis surveillance by comparing the number of reporting polio cases with the number determined by the survey after the establishment of the national poliomyelitis eradication program in co-ordination with WHO in 1988²⁰⁶. Published in 2009 and performed in 2000-2005, the Australian study used the scenario tree model to assess the sensitivity of the acute flaccid paralysis surveillance among children of 15 years old and younger to see if the current system is sufficient and still economically effective²³². Four studies published after 2006 evaluated accuracy in the data coverage, representativeness, sensitivity, and validity of measles surveillance in Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Caribbean, and Mozambique^{6, 65, 107, 111}.

General Trigger Category

The formal request and initial evaluation triggers have been discussed above. The purpose of the majority of comparative studies has been to compare the performance of the different kinds of CDSS for the same disease within the country or between several countries to identify which one is more accurate and sensitive, to analyze the agreement between the data recorded electronically and the data extracted from the hardcopy medical documentation, which system is more valid and provides more useful data, and which system has less under-reporting and less delay in timeliness.

Among communicable diseases, such as measles, influenza and influenza-like illness, tuberculosis surveillance systems were evaluated more frequently, and the authors compared the sentinel surveillance with the mandatory notification and data from health insurance companies (measles), or sentinel with syndromic surveillance; school-based and national surveillance for influenza; active surveillance and national notifiable disease

surveillance system; paper-based and electronic data-based surveillance systems; community-based (door to door) and school-based surveillance.

Injury PHS

Improving the inquiry surveillance became a priority for public health specialists after the first World Conference on Injury Prevention and Control held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1989. The conference showed that there was a shortage of information, difference in classification between countries, and lack of standardization in the injury surveillance data. Only one article was published in 1996 by Davis Y et al.⁵⁴ in comparison to 16 articles published from 2007 to 2012. The data quality monitoring, systems of comparison and new standards were three most frequent triggers for the evaluation of ISS. Only four studies published from 1992 to 2012 evaluated all nine surveillance system attributes, according to the CDC guidelines^{69, 84, 106, 114}. The rest of the studies evaluated single, paired and multiple attributes.

The injury surveillance is younger and not so well structured as the communicable disease surveillance and the comparative studies of the acute lung injury, violent injury, traumatic firefighter's fatalities, occupational injury and sport injury surveillance. It has been initiated to create a basement for further improvement, and it has specified which data management is better, and how these national systems can integrate into the international network.

From 1992 to 2012, Canada followed by the U.S., South Africa and the U.K. was the leading country in the articles that evaluated both, local and international ISS, initiated by a problem of the underreporting of injury cases. The aim of evaluations was to estimate the underreporting of occupational injuries and illnesses in the national

surveillance system¹⁹⁰; to describe the accuracy of the death certificate surveillance¹⁸⁸; to assess the accuracy of the injury information database¹¹⁸; to estimate the surveillance system's ability to determine cases in the absence of a standard for the true number of cases⁵⁴; and to assess the sensitivity and timeliness of evaluation methods in order to provide recommendations for further ISS improvement^{139,237}.

Limitations

Our study had limitations: in order to make a judgment on what the trigger for the PHSS evaluation is, it is necessary to have a description of the pre-existing situation in the country, health care, public health system, or a general picture of condition of interest; also the study objectives need to be specified by the authors. Not all studies included in the present review stated their objectives clearly and used the standard attributes for evaluation. In such a situation, we have clarified the purpose of the study on our own after reviewing the entire document and then determining the trigger. We did not include the articles published in languages other than English into the study, so we did not have the whole picture of studies performed in non-English-speaking countries. That can limit the number of publications related to the emergency situation or specific for those countries' condition of interest.

Applications

The trigger identification during the planning stage for surveillance system assessment can be used in developing a new framework for PHSS evaluation. This new concept will assist public health specialists and will make the evaluation process more effective and efficient.

Table 1. Definition of Public Health Outcomes, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Health outcome | Definition |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Communicable disease | An illness due to a specific infectious agent or its toxic products that arises through transmission of that agent or its products from an infected person, animal, or reservoir to a susceptible host, either directly or indirectly through an intermediate plant or animal host, vector, or the inanimate environment |
| Noncommunicable diseases | Chronic diseases, are not passed from person to person |
| Injury | Physical damage that results when a human body is suddenly or briefly subjected to intolerable levels of energy |
| Adverse events | Any unfavorable and unintended sign (including an abnormal laboratory finding), symptom, or disease temporally associated with the use of a medical treatment or procedure that may or may not be considered related to the medical treatment or procedure |
| Hospital-acquired infections | Infections that patients acquire during the course of receiving healthcare treatment for other conditions |

Table 2. Definition of Attributes, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012^{32, 78, 167}

| Attribute | Definition |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Acceptability | The willingness of persons and organizations to participate in the surveillance system |
| Simplicity | The system's structure and ease of operation |
| Flexibility | The ability of the surveillance system to accommodate changes in operating conditions or information needs |
| Data Quality | The completeness and validity of the system data |
| Positive Predictive Value | The proportion of cases reported to the system that actually have the health event |
| Sensitivity | The proportion of cases of a health event detected by the surveillance system; and the system's ability to detect outbreaks, including the ability to monitor changes in the number of cases over time. |
| Representativeness | The extent to which a surveillance system accurately portrays the incidence of the health event in the population by person, time and place. |
| Timeliness | The interval between the occurrence of an adverse health event and the report of the event to the appropriate health agency, the identification by that agency of trends or outbreaks, or the implementation of control measures |
| Stability | The reliability and availability of the system. Stability can be measured by the amount of time required to manage and disseminate the information to decision makers. |
| Compliance | Before a surveillance system can become operational, it must first satisfy a Privacy Impact Assessment. |
| Effectiveness | The measure of how well a surveillance system can achieve its intended results. In order to measure this, the specifications and functioning of the surveillance system must be documented and well known among the contributors and stakeholders |
| Efficiency | Inputs (resources), activities and outputs largely under the control of the organization; assessments of efficiency (cost-benefit, cost-effectiveness) provide a frame of reference and a discipline for relating costs to program results. |
| Usefulness | An assessment of the usefulness of a surveillance system with |

| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| | respect to program objectives |
| Accuracy | Degree to which a measurement or an estimate based on measurements represents the true value of the attribute that is being measured |
| Cost | Indirect and direct costs, measured in relation to the benefits obtained. |
| Validity | Degree to which statistical information correctly describes the phenomena it was designed to measure. |
| Negative predictive value | The proportion of cases reported to the system that actually have no the health event |
| Completeness | Proportion of all expected data reports that were actually submitted to the public health surveillance system. |

Table 3. Triggers and Reasons for Evaluations of Public Health Surveillance, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Category | Trigger | Reason |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| General | Initial evaluation | First attempt to evaluate the PHSS after establishment |
| | Compare systems | Comparison of different PHSS (e.g., paper-based, laboratory, electronic) of the same health outcome |
| | Formal request | Assessment of PHSS at request of owner or external stakeholder |
| Economic | Determine costs | Determine cost of PHSS because of need to prioritize (e.g., downsize) |
| Technical | Data quality monitoring | Undercover problems with data quality (e.g., underreporting) |
| | New technology or innovation | New software, technology, or innovation that may enhance PHSS effectiveness or efficiency (e.g., mobile phones, e-surveillance) |
| New component | New standards | Need to know if new PHSS standards (e.g., list of reportable health outcomes, determine if surveillance objectives are appropriate) |
| | Change in definitions | Change in case definition(s) may impact case classification |
| | Syndromic surveillance | Is syndromic surveillance system accepted by its users and effective for outbreak detection and trends assessments? |
| Emergency | Mass gathering | Determine if the existing PHSS can manage the special circumstances of the mass gathering event or if other components need to be added |
| | Occurrence of public health event | Can the current surveillance system handle early warning and response function in case of outbreaks, epidemic and pandemic? |
| | Preparedness | Assess how surveillance system can contribute to emerging communicable disease that can represent a global threat. |
| Public | Change in public | Capacity of the surveillance system to measure |

| | | |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| health measure | health policy | the impact of the change in a public health policy (e.g. introduction of a new vaccine, management of antimicrobial resistance) on the concerned population. |
| | Introduction of new control measure(s) | Can surveillance system collect the necessary information (e.g. disease incidence and prevalence) to monitor the national eradication programs? Is participation in surveillance programs decreases the incidence of disease in question (e.g. tuberculosis, nosocomial infections)? |
| | Structural changes | Change of health-care structure due to political situation (dissolution of Former soviet Union) or health-care reform (UK switch from secondary into primary care). |

Table 4. Geographic Locations of Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Location | No. | References |
|----------------------|------------|--|
| United States | 82 | 3, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 33, 36, 38, 40, 41, 48, 50, 51, 53, 54, 64, 69, 74, 80, 81, 83, 86, 92, 94, 95, 98, 104, 105, 106, 110, 113, 114, 115, 121, 125, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 137, 140, 143, 146, 152, 159, 161, 162, 168, 172, 175, 176, 177, 180, 184, 188, 189, 190, 191, 195, 200, 201, 202, 204, 205, 207, 209, 212, 213, 215, 223, 228, 229, 231, 233, 237, 238, 240, 243 |
| U.K. | 8 | 57, 68, 97, 99, 126, 157, 169, 203 |
| Australia | 17 | 46, 49, 67, 71, 76, 79, 85, 89, 100, 145, 153, 170, 171, 185, 186, 196, 232 |
| Canada | 13 | 25, 84, 118, 128, 138, 139, 141, 154, 174, 198, 199, 239, 245 |
| Multi country | 9 | 5, 21, 34, 42, 147, 156, 163, 210, 222 |
| Italy | 6 | 17, 19, 35, 148, 151, 173 |
| Netherlands | 6 | 123, 124, 142, 181, 226, 235 |
| South Africa | 5 | 30, 31, 47, 96, 247 |
| Germany | 4 | 62, 75, 216, 246 |
| Pakistan | 4 | 8, 39, 158, 193 |
| China | 3 | 61, 134, 135 |
| Korea | 3 | 4, 165, 244 |
| Peru | 3 | 101, 187, 211 |
| France | 2 | 119, 160 |
| Brazil | 2 | 73, 219 |
| French Guiana | 2 | 52, 112 |
| Jamaica | 2 | 9, 65 |
| Japan | 2 | 72, 218 |
| Mexico | 2 | 23, 227 |
| Mozambique | 2 | 11, 109 |
| Norway | 2 | 1, 91 |
| Sweden | 2 | 12, 183 |
| Taiwan | 2 | 102, 217 |
| Tanzania | 2 | 120, 192 |

| | | |
|----------------------------|-----|--------|
| Trinidad and Tobago | 2 | 27, 43 |
| Finland | 1 | 103 |
| Armenia | 1 | 241 |
| Botswana | 1 | 7 |
| Argentina | 1 | 242 |
| Cambodia | 1 | 230 |
| Colombia | 1 | 88 |
| Ethiopia | 1 | 13 |
| Georgia | 1 | 155 |
| Ghana | 1 | 166 |
| Honduras | 1 | 90 |
| Hungary | 1 | 149 |
| India | 1 | 206 |
| Iraq | 1 | 111 |
| Israel | 1 | 122 |
| Kosovo | 1 | 150 |
| Malawi | 1 | 107 |
| Nepal | 1 | 178 |
| New Zealand | 1 | 117 |
| Niger | 1 | 55 |
| Nigeria | 1 | 179 |
| Philippines | 1 | 164 |
| Poland | 1 | 144 |
| Saudi Arabia | 1 | 6 |
| Slovenia | 1 | 208 |
| Spain | 1 | 2 |
| Sri Lanka | 1 | 10 |
| Switzerland | 1 | 182 |
| Thailand | 1 | 45 |
| Uganda | 1 | 37 |
| Vietnam | 1 | 63 |
| Total | 217 | |

Table 5. Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Country | Triggers | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Total | |
|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------|------------------------|
| | Change in definition | Change in public health | Compare systems | Determine cost | Data quality monitoring | Formal request | Initial evaluation | Introduction of new | New standards | Mass gathering | New technology or | Occurrence of a public health event | Preparedness | Structural changes | | Syndromic surveillance |
| US | 5 | 1 | 11 | 3 | 24 | 4 | 5 | | 7 | | 14 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 82 |
| Australia | 1 | 1 | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | 1 | | | 2 | | 1 | | 2 | 17 |
| Canada | | | | | 8 | 1 | 1 | | | | 1 | | | | 2 | 13 |
| UK | | | | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | | | | | 1 | 8 |
| Italy | 1 | | | | 3 | | 1 | | | | 1 | | | | | 6 |
| The Netherlands | | 1 | | 1 | 2 | | | | | | 1 | 1 | | | | 6 |
| South Africa | | | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | | | 1 | | | | 5 |
| Multi country | 1 | 2 | 5 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 |
| Others | 1 | 6 | 5 | | 15 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 6 | 5 | | 1 | 5 | 71 |
| Total | 9 | 11 | 23 | 6 | 59 | 13 | 20 | 8 | 13 | 3 | 25 | 11 | 2 | 2 | 12 | 217 |

Table 6. Trigger Categories Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Trigger Category | Trigger | 1992-96 | 1997-01 | 2002-06 | 2007-12 | Total |
|------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| General | Compare systems | | | 7 | 16 | 23 |
| | Initial evaluation | | 5 | 5 | 10 | 20 |
| | Formal request | | 2 | 4 | 7 | 13 |
| Technical | Data quality monitoring | 11 | 9 | 10 | 29 | 59 |
| | New technology or innovation | | 5 | 7 | 13 | 25 |
| New component | New standards | | 5 | 1 | 7 | 13 |
| | Syndromic surveillance | | | 2 | 10 | 12 |
| | Change definitions | 2 | 6 | 1 | | 9 |
| Economic changes | Determine cost | 1 | | 1 | 4 | 6 |
| Emergency | Occurrence of public health event | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 11 |
| | Preparedness | | | 2 | | 2 |
| | Mass gathering | | | | 3 | 3 |
| Public health measure | Introduction of new control measure (s) | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 8 |
| | Structural changes | | 1 | 1 | | 2 |
| | Change in public health policy | | | 4 | 7 | 11 |
| Total | | | | | | 217 |

Table 7. Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Health Outcome, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Trigger | Health Outcome | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------|------------|
| | Communicable disease | Non-communicable disease | HAI | Injuries | Demographic surveillance | Adverse events | Total |
| Change in case definition | 9 | | | | | | 9 |
| Change in public health policy | 8 | | | 2 | | 1 | 11 |
| Compare systems | 12 | 2 | | 8 | | 1 | 23 |
| Determine cost | 5 | | 1 | | | | 6 |
| Data quality monitoring | 35 | 2 | 7 | 11 | | 4 | 59 |
| Formal request | 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | 13 |
| Initial evaluation | 12 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | | 20 |
| Introduction of new control measures | 6 | 1 | 1 | | | | 8 |
| New standards | 7 | | 1 | 5 | | | 13 |
| Mass gathering | 3 | | | | | | 3 |
| New technology or innovation | 17 | | 2 | 4 | | 2 | 25 |
| Occurrence of a public health event | 11 | | | | | | 11 |
| Preparedness | 2 | | | | | | 2 |
| Structural changes | 1 | | | | | | 2 |
| Syndromic surveillance | 11 | | | 1 | | | 12 |
| Total | 149 | 9 | 15 | 35 | 1 | 8 | 217 |

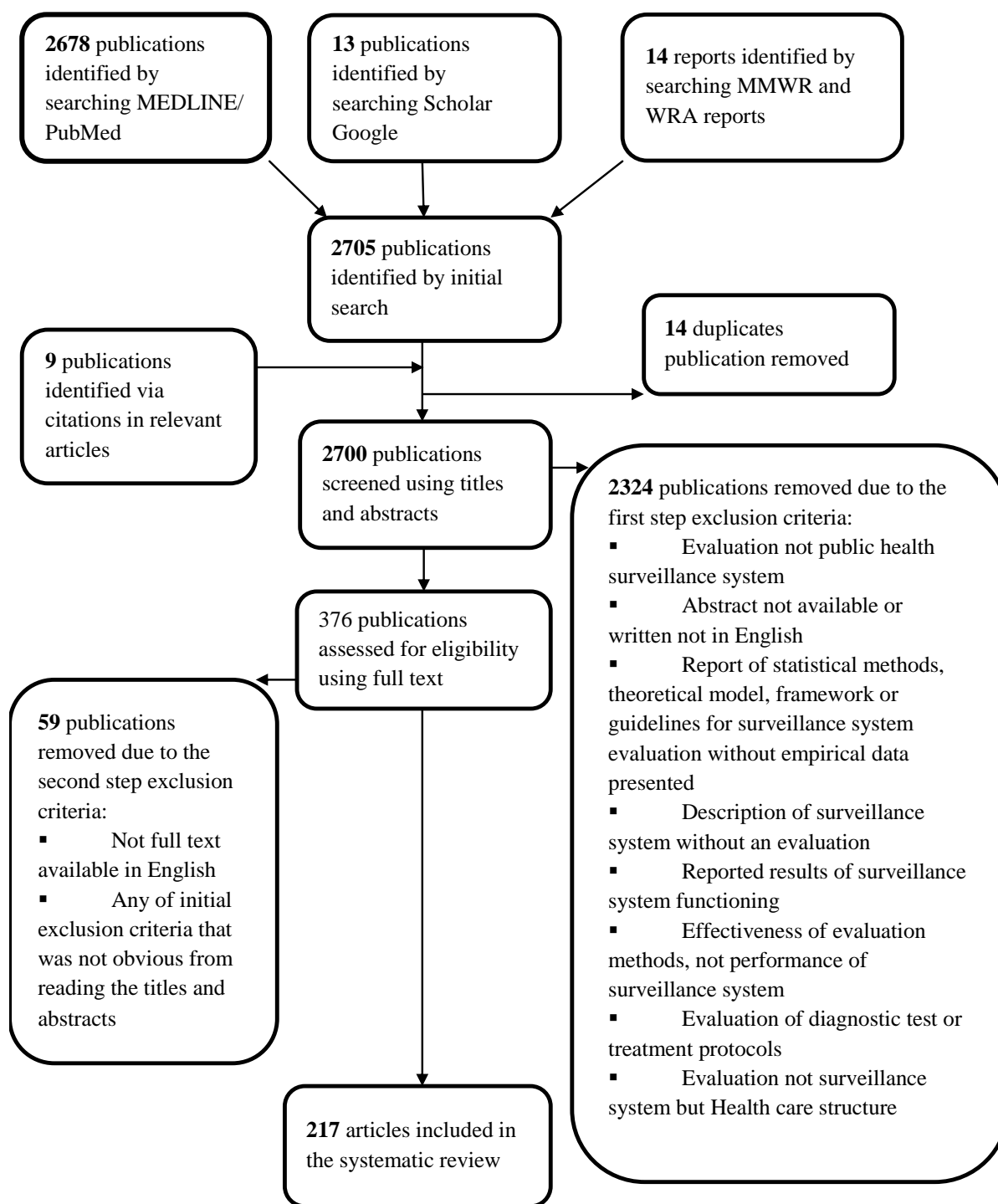


Figure 1. Flowchart of Literature Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

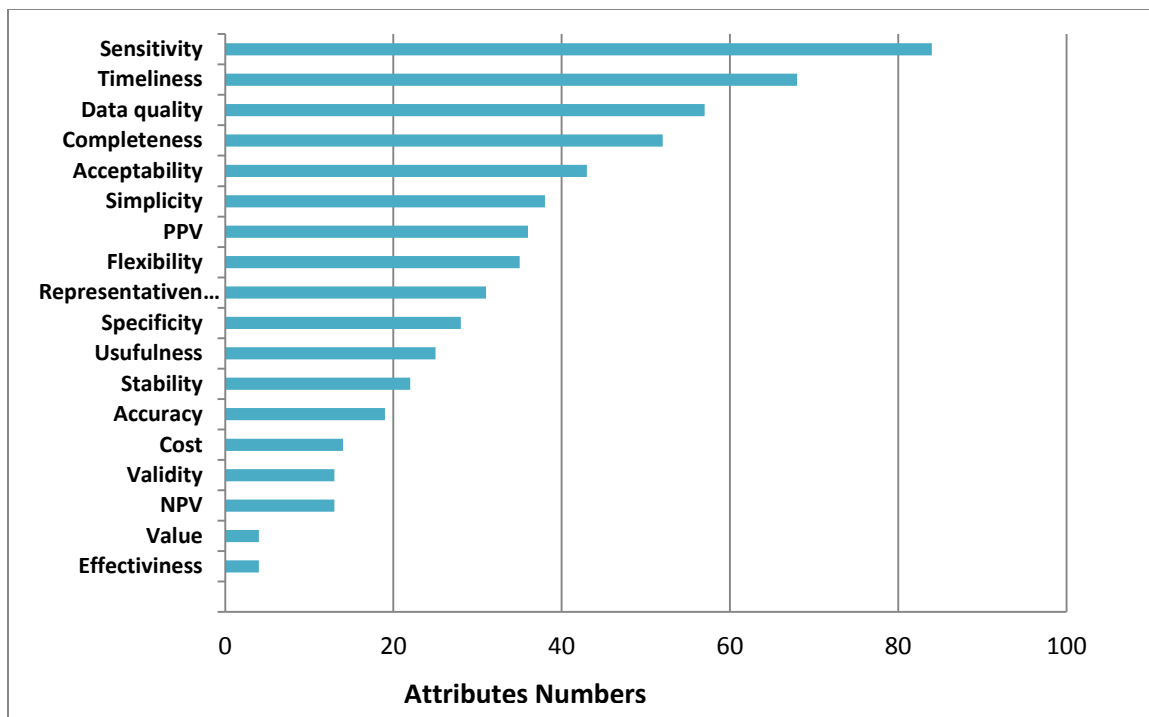


Figure 2. Surveillance Attributes Examined during Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

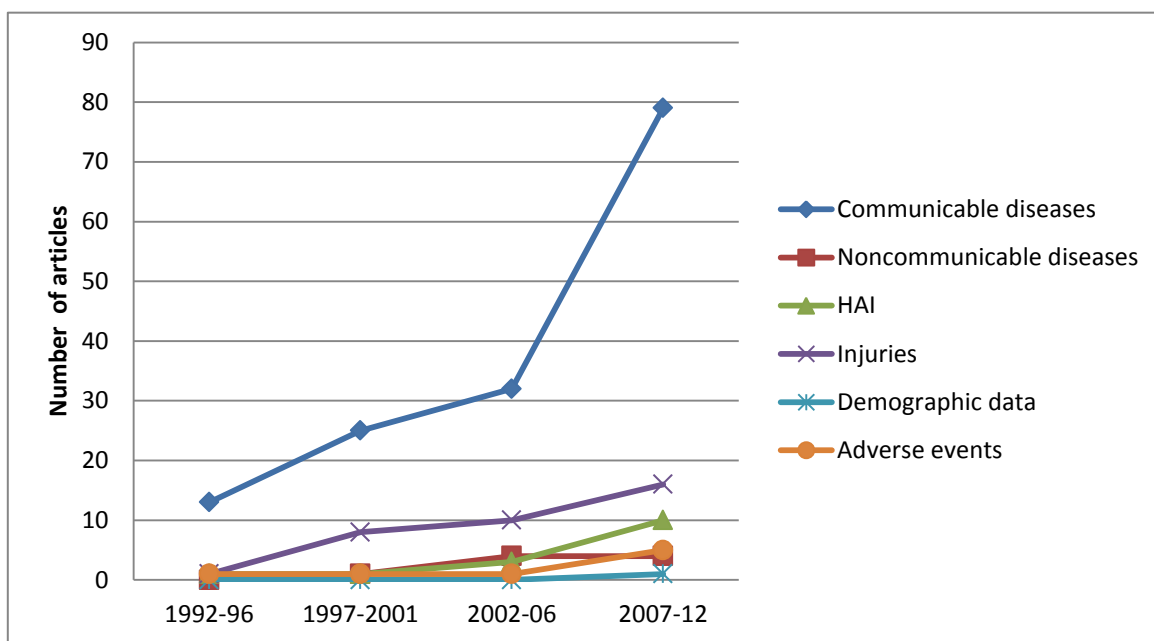


Figure 3. Public Health Outcomes Assessed, Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

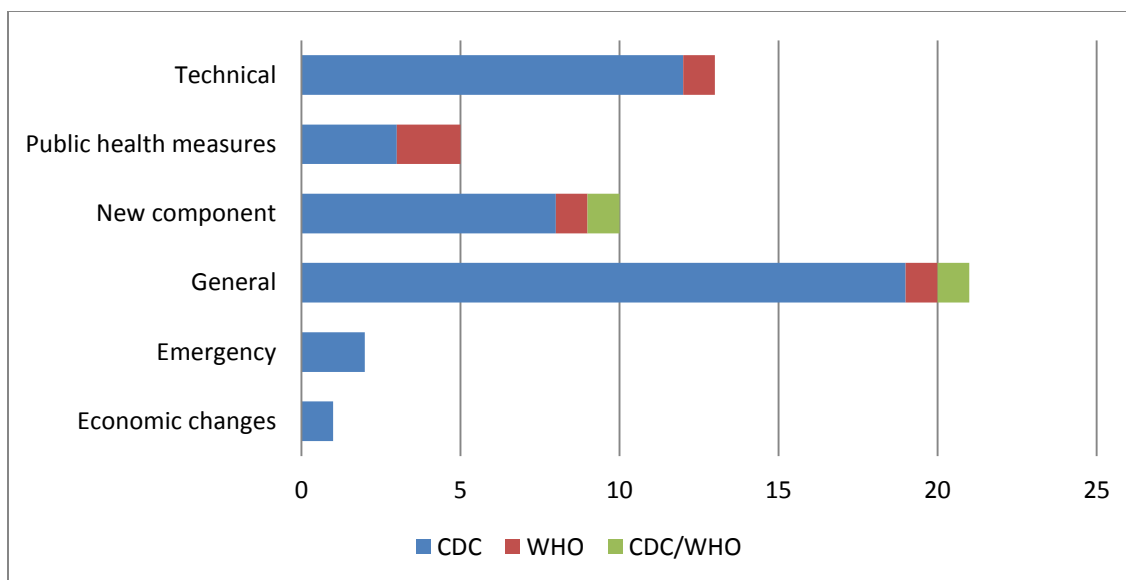


Figure 4. Trigger Categories Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Guideline, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

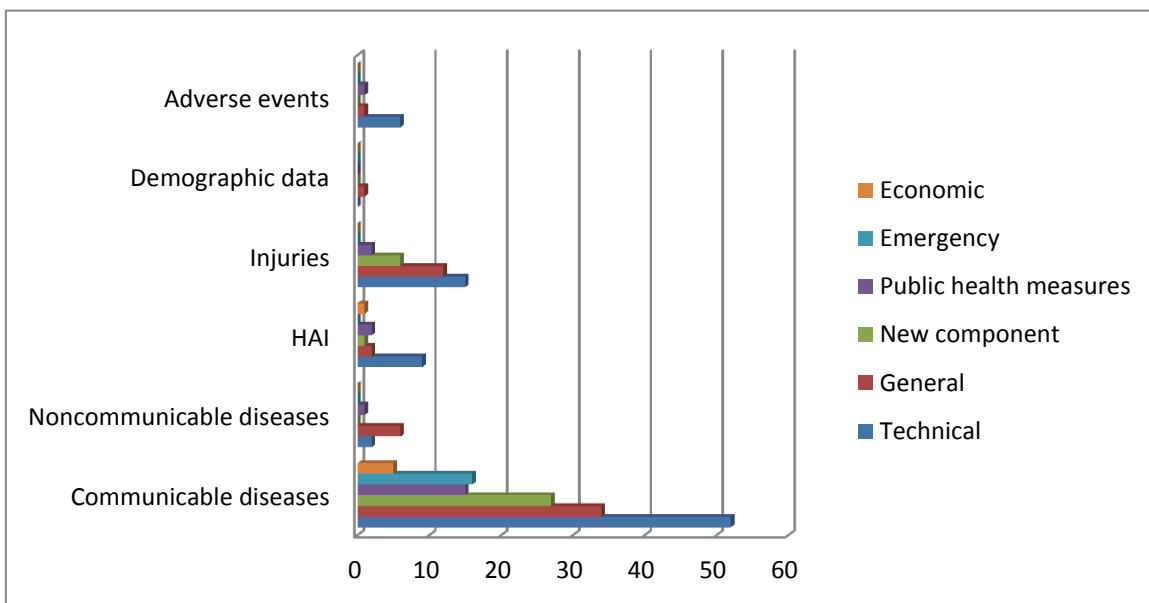


Figure 5. Trigger Categories and Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

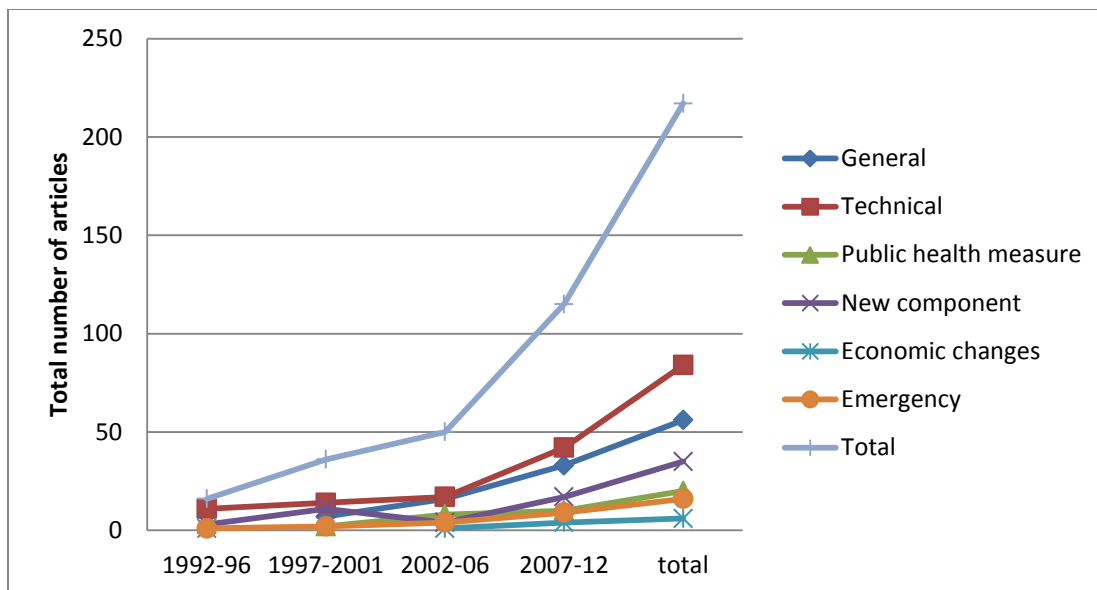


Figure 6. Number of Articles, Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Time and Trigger, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

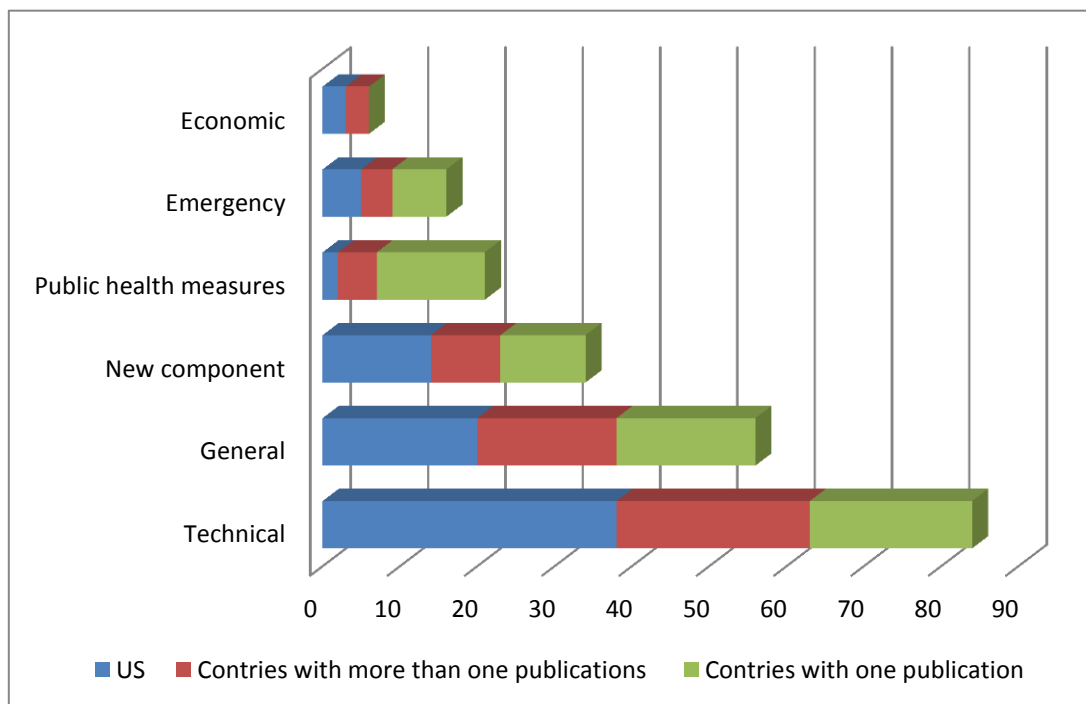


Figure 7. Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Region, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

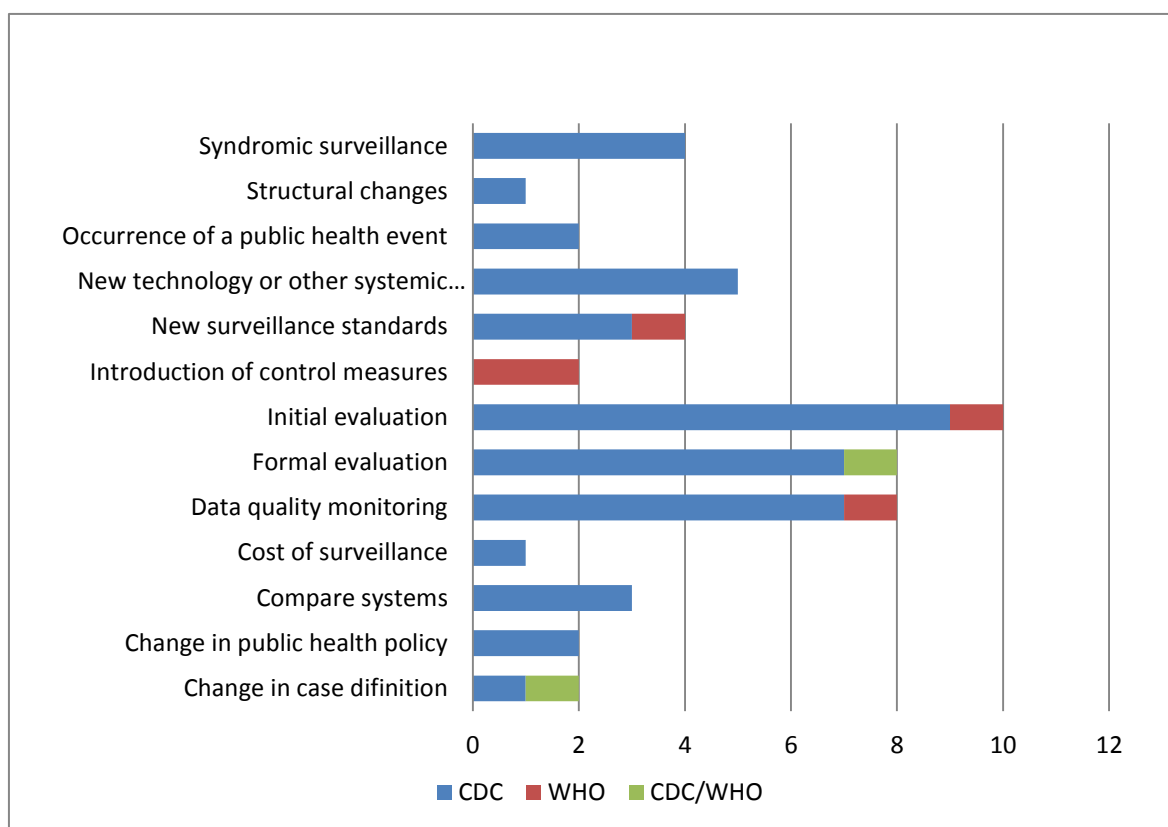


Figure 8. Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Guideline, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

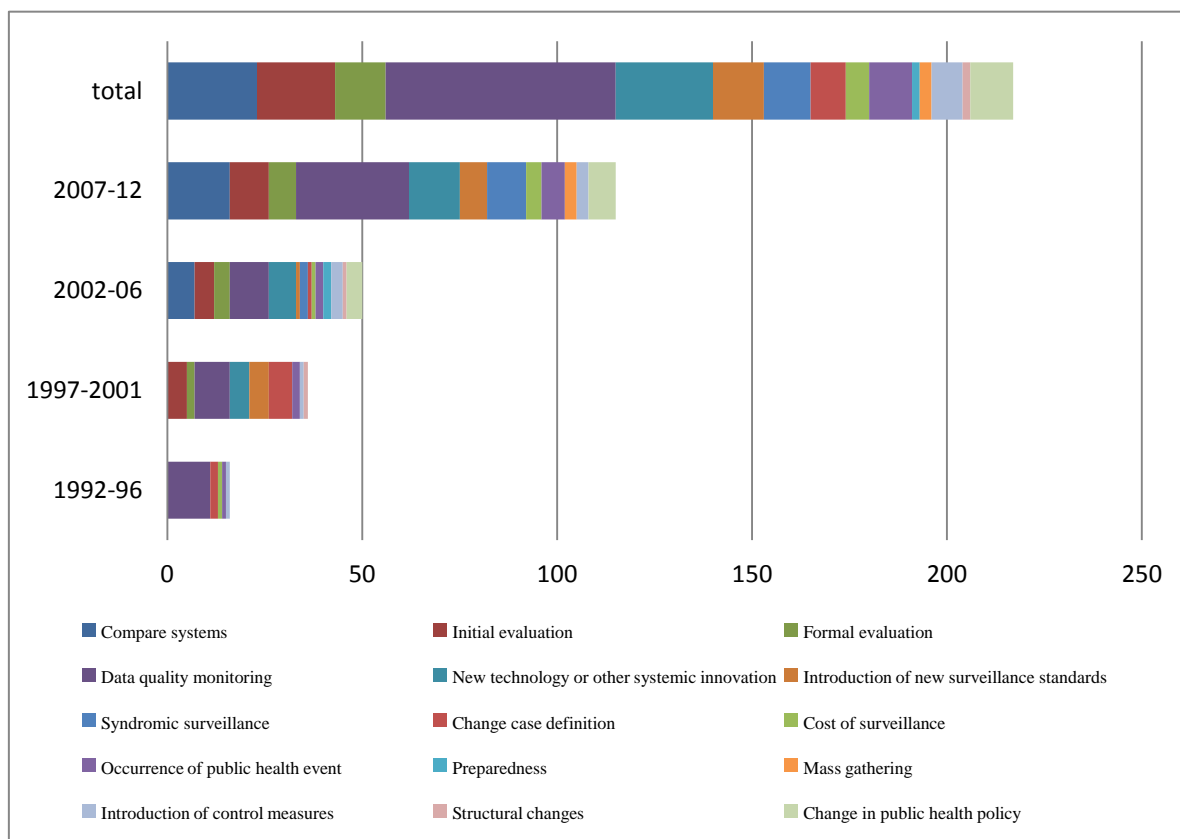


Figure 9. Triggers Stimulating Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, by Time Period, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

Annex 1. Summary of Publications of Public Health Surveillance Evaluations, Systematic Literature Review, 2002 – 2012

| Authors | Country | Health Outcome | Purpose | Trigger Category | Trigger |
|----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1992 | Jamaica | Communicable disease | To get an accurate picture of existing surveillance system | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Rosenblum L et al. 1992 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the completeness of AIDS case reporting. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Hickman M et al. 1993 | UK | Communicable disease | To assess directly the extent of under-reporting of AIDS cases to the National AIDS surveillance system. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Cardo DM et al. 1993 | USA | HAI | To determine the sensitivity and specificity of standard infection control surveillance techniques for the identification of surgical wound infections. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Webster LA et al. 1993 | USA | Communicable disease | To summarize and to review the chlamydia surveillance data received by CDC from 1987 through 1991 | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Greenberg AE et al., 1993 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the completeness of AIDS case reporting in New York City and to determine whether the completeness of reporting differs in various populations | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Prevots DR et al., 1994 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the completeness of the national poliomyelitis surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Barchielli A et al. 1995 | Italy | Communicable disease | To evaluate the completeness of AIDS cases reported and the quality of AIDS death certification | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

| | | | | | |
|--|--------|----------------------|---|------------------|--|
| Migliori GB et al., 1995 | Italy | Communicable disease | To assess the coverage and validity of data collected by the national Compulsory Surveillance System; validity of diagnosis and risk factors for tuberculosis and tuberculosis incidence. | New component | Change case definition |
| Trepka MJ et al., 1995 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the completeness of tuberculosis disease reporting in Wisconsin and evaluates the usefulness of laboratory and hospital discharge data as supplemental case ascertainment sources | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Lenaway DD, Ambler A., 1995 | USA | Communicable disease | To compare school-based influenza surveillance system with a preexisting sentinel communicable disease surveillance system | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| CDC, 1995 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the accuracy and completeness of reporting using the new case definition and to determine the personnel costs associated with identifying and classifying congenital syphilis cases | New component | Change case definition |
| Rosenthal S, Chen R., 1995 | USA | Adverse events | To assess the reporting sensitivities of two passive vaccine adverse event reporting systems | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Morris S et al., 1996 | UK | Communicable disease | To assess the costs and cost-effectiveness of the PHLS AIDS Centre's epidemiological surveillance mechanisms for HIV and AIDS in England and Wales | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Davis Y et al., 1996 | USA | Injuries | To assess the accuracy and completeness of National Electronic Injury Surveillance System for detecting gunshot wounds sustained as a result of the discharge of a firearm | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Ackman DM, Birkhead G, Flynn M., 1996 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess completeness of reporting of meningococcal disease in 1991 | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Macarthur C, Dougherty G, Pless IB., 1997 | Canada | Injuries | To assess the reliability and validity of proxy respondent information in the Canadian Hospitals Injury Reporting and Prevention Program surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|----------------------|--|-----------------------|--|
| Singh J, Foster SO, 1998 | India | Communicable disease | To estimate the sensitivity of poliomyelitis surveillance in India | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Hedegaard H, Wake M, Hoffman R., 1998 | USA | Injuries | Implementation and evaluation of a surveillance system for fatal and hospitalized nonfatal firearm-related injuries | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Wiersema B et al., 1998 | USA | Injuries | To evaluate the surveillance system's ability to ascertain cases in the absence of a standard for the true number of cases. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Fox J et al., 1998 | USA | Injuries | To evaluate the attributes of the Wisconsin Firearm-Related Injury Surveillance System | General | Initial evaluation |
| LeMier M et al., 1998 | USA | Injuries | Develop and evaluate a system for surveillance of fatal and nonfatal gunshot injuries | General | Initial evaluation |
| Gazarian M et al, 1999 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess whether system fulfilled its objectives and satisfied criteria established by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention for evaluating surveillance systems | General | Initial evaluation |
| Macarthur C, Pless IB., 1999 | Canada | Injuries | To evaluate the quality of Canadian Hospitals Injury Reporting and Prevention Program | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Abraira GL, Martinez-Navarro JF., 1999 | Spain | Communicable disease | To evaluate the National Disease Surveillance System for brucellosis in Galicia, Spain | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Reintjes R, Termorshuizen F, van de Laar MJ., 1999 | The Netherlands | Communicable disease | To assess the sensitivity of two national sexual transmitted disease surveillance systems by applying the capture-recapture method | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

| | | | | | |
|---|----------|----------------------|---|---------------|---|
| Singleton JA et al., 1999 | USA | Adverse events | To evaluate the Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Barat LM et al., 1999 | USA | Communicable disease | To determine the sensitivity of malaria surveillance in several large metropolitan areas | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Johnson RL et al., 1999 | USA | Injuries | To evaluate the sources reporting hospitalized spinal cord injury cases to the statewide, population-based surveillance system | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Solomon L et al., 1999 | USA | Communicable disease | To decide whether an HIV surveillance system should be based on reports of the names of infected individuals or employ non-name-based data codes | New component | Change case definition |
| MacDonald JK et al., 1997 | USA | Communicable disease | To develop and evaluate models for public health surveillance of illnesses among children in out-of-home child care facilities. | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Schwarcz SK et al., 1999 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the impact of the 1993 change in the AIDS case definition on the completeness and timeframe of AIDS case reporting in San Francisco | New component | Change case definition |
| Alpers L et al., 2000 | Botswana | Communicable disease | To assess the validity of the data in the Electronic TB Register with respect to missing pre-treatment sputum smear results in these two cities in order to improve the overall performance of the BNTP | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Perron L, De Wals P, Milord F., 2000 | Canada | Communicable disease | To evaluate the validity of information in the rubella surveillance system in Quebec | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Carrieri MP et al., 2000 | Italy | Communicable disease | To evaluate the performance of SIMI after its first three years of activity | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |

| | | | | | |
|---|---------------------|----------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| Velasco-Mondragón HE, Martin J, Chacón-Sosa F., 2000 | Mexico | Communicable disease | To assess the feasibility of binational migrant health data exchange for epidemiological surveillance of migrant populations | Technical | Change in demography |
| de Chabaliér F, Hassane A, Chippaux JP., 2000 | Niger | Communicable disease | To assess the effectiveness of the method in the field | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Mazurek J et al., 2000 | Poland | Communicable disease | To evaluate hepatitis C surveillance in Poland during 1998 | General | Initial evaluation |
| Chadee DD., 2000 | Trinidad and Tobago | Communicable disease | To determine the sensitivity of the malaria surveillance system in Trinidad | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| CDC, 2000 | Uganda | Communicable disease | To assess IDS of the Uganda Ministry of Health | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Nguyêñ GT et al., 2000 | USA | HAI | To establish the current status of ISCPs in United States health care facilities | Public health measure | Structural changes |
| Jara MM, Gallagher KM, Schieman S., 2000 | USA | Communicable disease | To determine the impact of the 1993 AIDS case definition on the completeness of AIDS case reporting to the state registry and to compare reported and unreported cases with regard to sex, race, and mode of transmission of the virus | New component | Change case definition |
| Yadon ZE et al., 2001 | Argentina | Communicable disease | To estimate the number of new CL cases that occurred in four districts of the province Santiago del Estero, Argentina, during the period 1990– 1993, and to provide an indication of the completeness of reporting to the leishmaniasis surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

| | | | | | |
|--|---------------|---------------------------|--|---------------|--|
| 2001 | Ethiopia | Communicable disease | To assess the number of syndromes of public health importance | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Ajdacic-Gross V et al., 2001 | Multi country | Communicable disease | To get an accurate picture of existing surveillance system | New component | Change case definition |
| Aavitsland P, Nilsen O, Lystad A., 2001 | Norway | Communicable disease | To describe of the system, evidence of system attributes, estimation of resources for system operations, and documentation of the system's usefulness | New component | Change case definition |
| Butchart A et al., 2001 | South Africa | Injuries | To evaluate the NMSS and illustrate its utility from sample findings | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Curtis AB et al., 2001 | USA | Communicable disease | Multistate evaluation of completeness and timeliness of reporting of TB cases in the United States during 1993 and 1994 | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Sekhobo JP, Druschel CM., 2001 | USA | Non communicable diseases | To evaluate the surveillance of congenital malformations in New York State using the CDC guidelines | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Walker N et al., 2001 | USA | Communicable disease | To analyze the quality of HIV/AIDS sentinel surveillance systems resulting quality of the data used to make estimates of HIV/AIDS prevalence and mortality | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Perz JF et al., 2001 | USA | Communicable disease | To measure the alternative county-sponsored surveillance strategy against recognized standards | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Klevens RM et al., 2001 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the completeness, validity, and timeliness of the AIDS surveillance system after the 1993 change in the surveillance case definition | New component | Change case definition |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|----------------------|--|-----------------------|---|
| Wuhib T et al., 2002 | Armenia | Communicable disease | To assess of the Armenian infectious diseases surveillance system | Public health measure | Structural changes |
| Finch CF, Mitchell DJ., 2002 | Australia | Injuries | To identify of appropriateness of data collection methodologies in sports medicine clinics | General | Compare systems |
| Robotin M., 2002 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess the ability of the Registry to detect all cases of CJD in Australia, and in particular, to identify cases that may have public health importance | New component | Change case definition |
| 2002 | Georgia | Adverse events | To identify the ways to improve the VPD surveillance system in Georgia | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| Mester J et al., 2002 | Hungary | Communicable disease | To summarize the results of the first year of the revised National Tuberculosis Surveillance System | General | Initial evaluation |
| Arscott-Mills S, Holder Y, Gordon G., 2002 | Jamaica | Injuries | To conduct a comparative evaluation of two injury surveillance systems in operation in the Accident and Emergency departments of public hospitals in Jamaica | General | compare systems |
| Fujii H et al., 2002 | Japan | Communicable disease | To compare school health surveillance system with national sentinel surveillance system | General | Compare systems |
| Biddle EA, Marsh SM., 2002 | USA | Injuries | To compare two national surveillance system | General | Compare systems |
| Schwarcz S et al., 2002 | USA | Communicable disease | To develop and evaluate a non-name-based HIV reporting system | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|---|------------------|-----------------------------|
| Spicer RS et al., 2002 | USA | Injuries | To evaluate the Utah experience in developing and administering the Student Injury Reporting System | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Zoutman DE et al., 2003 | Canada | HAI | To assess the resources and activities directed toward the prevention and control of nosocomial infections in acute care hospitals across Canada | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Nardone A et al., 2003 | France | Communicable disease | To estimate the total number of cases of Legionnaires' disease diagnosed in France in 1998 and thus the sensitivity of the mandatory notification surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Benavides FG et al., 2003 | Multi country | Injuries | To describe fatal work injury surveillance system characteristics, and to compare basic statistics between the U.S. and the E.U. | General | Compare systems |
| Foot B et al., 2003 | UK | Non communicable diseases | To investigate whether this method of case ascertainment is appropriate and productive in an ophthalmological setting | General | Initial evaluation |
| Greenko J et al., 2003 | USA | Communicable disease | To examine potential biases associated with ambulance dispatch-based surveillance | Emergency | Preparedness |
| 2004 | Sri Lanka | Communicable disease | To review the existing surveillance systems, in order To identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for integrated disease surveillance | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Miller M et al., 2004 | Australia | Communicable disease | To systematically and objectively evaluate the attributes of NNDSS and highlight areas for improvement | General | Initial evaluation |
| Grenier D et al., 2004 | Canada | Injuries | To assess whether it fulfilled its objectives and satisfied the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's surveillance evaluation criteria | General | Requirements. Told to. |

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------|---------------------------|---|------------------|---|
| Pyle DF et al., 2004 | Nepal | Communicable disease | To examine the current performance of the Early Warning and Reporting System in the eight pilot districts, focusing attention on the reporting and response functions | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Jones NF, Marshall R., 2004 | New Zealand | Communicable disease | To distinguish initial from follow-up visits, the definition of denominators, and the external validity of measured influenza-like illness trends | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Graham PL 3rd et al., 2004 | USA | HAI | To validate the New York Antimicrobial Resistance Project's data | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| McNabb SJ et al., 2004 | USA | Communicable disease | To better evaluate the performance and measure the costs of TB surveillance | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Takahashi T et al., 2004 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the timeliness of the Salmonella surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Clothier HJ, Fielding JE, Kelly HA, 2005 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess the utility of ILI surveillance conducted by ASPREN, in the context of the Biosecurity Surveillance System requirements | Emergency | Preparedness |
| Samaan G et al., 2005 | Australia | Communicable disease | To reviews the process of gonococcal antimicrobial resistance surveillance in Australia and utility of WHO questionnaire | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Cretikos M, Telfer B, McAnulty J., 2005 | Australia | Communicable disease | To evaluate the NSW enteric disease outbreak surveillance system | General | Initial evaluation |
| Bingle CL et al., 2005 | Canada | Non communicable diseases | To examined the process effectiveness, collaboration, utility and cost-effectiveness of RRFSS during its first year of operation | General | Initial evaluation |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|----------------------|--|-----------------------|---|
| Edmond M, Wong C, Chuang SK., 2005 | China | Communicable disease | To identify areas for improvement | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Josseran L et al., 2005 [] | France | Injuries | To evaluate the quality and utility of systems | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| 2005 | Ghana | Communicable disease | To conduct semi-structured interviews with program staff from national, regional and district level and, where possible, the local zonal coordinators | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| 2005 | Philippines | Communicable disease | To assess the Philippines National HIV/AIDS Sentinel Surveillance System | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Jansson A, Arneborn M, Ekdahl K., 2005 | Sweden | Communicable disease | To evaluate the sensitivity of the Swedish system for statutory surveillance of communicable diseases and to form the basis for future comparisons | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Klein S, Bosman A., 2005 | The Netherlands | Communicable disease | To estimate completeness of malaria notification in the Netherlands from 1995-2003 | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| Doroshenko A et al., 2005 | UK | Communicable disease | To evaluate NHS Direct syndromic surveillance using the "Framework for Evaluating Public Health Surveillance Systems for Early Detection of Outbreaks", published by CDC | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Comstock RD, Mallonee S, Jordan F., 2005 | USA | Injuries | To compare violent injury death reporting by the statewide Medical Examiner and Vital Statistics Office surveillance systems in Oklahoma | General | compare systems |
| Wright MO, et al., 2005 | USA | Communicable disease | To identify and evaluate of available systems | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |

| | | | | | |
|---|------------|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| Ritzwoller DP et al., 2005 | USA | Communicable disease | To identify an early and severe influenza A outbreak in Denver in 2003 | General | Compare systems |
| Wilson JL, Carew MT, Strauss BA., 2006 | Canada | Communicable disease | To determine the effectiveness of EPINATO as a Canadian Force deployment health surveillance system | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Gastmeier P et al., 2006 | Germany | HAI | To investigate whether participation in the German national NI surveillance system (Krankenhaus Infektions Surveillance System) resulted in reduced rates of NIs | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Oh HS et al., 2006 | Korea | Communicable disease | To assess the status of infection surveillance and control programs and to analyze the trends associated with ISCP implementation since the first program | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| 2006 | Mozambique | Communicable disease | To assess the country's surveillance system and review the status of functions essential for IDSR implementation in regard to human resources, training, supervision and coordination | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Jani JV et al., 2006 | Mozambique | Communicable disease | To assess the quality of the measles reporting system during two outbreaks | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Chotivichien S, Tharmaphornpilas P, Sinawat S., 2006 | Thailand | Non communicable diseases | To describe the current practice on growth monitoring and promotion system in Thailand, identify its constraints and recommend appropriate solutions | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Averhoff F et al., 2006 | USA | Communicable disease | To validate that the observed absence of rubella is due to the disappearance of disease rather than a failure of rubella surveillance | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

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|---|-----------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|---|
| Rodriguez SR et al., 2006 | USA | Injuries | To describe the accuracy of death certificate surveillance for TBI mortality in 2002 in Oklahoma | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Sprinson JE et al., 2006 | USA | Communicable disease | To systematically assess the validity and completeness of reported TB case surveillance data in California and to inform TB case report revision process | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Hall HI et al., 2006 | USA | Communicable disease | To determine the completeness of reporting of HIV diagnoses to state surveillance systems | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Miller E., 2006 | USA | Non communicable diseases | To assess the overall quality of data collection and to examine variations across regions of the state | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Vogt RL et al., 2006 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the completeness and timeliness of the Colorado statewide Web-based system for reporting notifiable diseases | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Rosenman KD et al., 2006 | USA | Injuries | To estimate the undercount in the existing national surveillance system of occupational injuries and illnesses | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Friedman ND et al., 2007 | Australia | HAI | To measure the accuracy and determine the positive predictive value and negative predictive value of data submitted to a statewide surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Gillam C et al., 2007 | Australia | Injuries | To assess the validity of data collected by a new injury surveillance system in metropolitan public hospital ED in Western Australia | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Gutierrez-Martinez MI et al., 2007 | Colombia | Injuries | The methodology employed and lessons learned that may be applicable to similar settings | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |

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|---|--------------|--------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| Huotari K, Agthe N, Lyytikäinen O., 2007 | Finland | HAI | To compare of Surgical site infection rates as a measure of the quality of patient care | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Zuschneid I et al., 2007 | Germany | HAI | To assess the accuracy of the data on primary bloodstream infections reported to the German nosocomial infections surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Kaufman Z et al., 2007 | Israel | Communicable disease | To assess the capabilities of a syndromic surveillance system in identifying early signals of a localized unusual influenza outbreak | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Jahn A et al., 2007 | Malawi | Demographic surveillance | Describes and evaluates the first demographic surveillance system in Malawi | Technical | Change in demography |
| Betanzos-Reyes AF et al., 2007 | Mexico | Communicable disease | To compare the costs and operative loads of the current surveillance program (malaria diagnosis through thick blood smears) with those of an alternative surveillance model | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| Tozzi AE et al., 2007 | Multi contry | Communicable disease | To compare the characteristics and the performance of pertussis surveillance systems in 16 European countries | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| Weber IB., 2007 | South Africa | Communicable disease | To describe the qualitative aspects of the notifiable diseases surveillance system of the Gauteng Province, South Africa | General | Initial evaluation |
| Burrows S, Laflamme L., 2007 | South Africa | Injuries | To assess the accuracy of suicide data as recorded in the system | Technical | Change in demography |
| Tan HF et al., 2007 | Taiwan | Communicable disease | To investigate the completeness of varicella reporting in Taiwan | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| Rumisha SF et al., 2007 | Tanzania | Communicable disease | To gather specific information on the performance of IDSR systems in each of the districts selected | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |

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|---|-----------------|----------------------|--|---------------|---|
| Manniën J et al., 2007 | The Netherlands | HAI | To describe how continuous validation of data on surgical site infection is being performed in the Dutch National Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System to assess the quality and accuracy of the data, and to present the corresponding outcomes of the assessment | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Betancourt JA et al., 2007 | USA | Communicable disease | To determine the accuracy of data in ESSENCE | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Payne DC et al., 2007 | USA | Adverse events | To analyze the agreement between electronically recorded anthrax vaccination data versus anthrax vaccination data abstracted from hardcopy medical charts | General | compare systems |
| Jhung MA et al., 2007 | USA | Injuries | To describe and evaluate a new system for surveillance of outpatient adverse drug events treated in hospital emergency departments | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Erhart A et al., 2007 | Vietnam | Communicable disease | To assess the quality of the health information system in estimating malaria morbidity I mortality | General | Initial evaluation |
| Roberts-Witteveen AR, Patel MS, Roche PW, 2008 | Australia | Communicable disease | To evaluate the program for its utility and capacity to monitor effectiveness of the rotavirus vaccines recently introduced into the Australian National Immunization Program | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Galvão PR et al., 2008 | Brasil | Communicable disease | To evaluate the SINAN software, quality of data input, the transfer of the computerized data from the municipality to state levels, human resources and other factors associated with the health information system infrastructure | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Macpherson AK et al., 2008 | Canada | Injuries | To assess the sensitivity and representativeness of an injury surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

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|--|---------------|----------------------|--|---------------|-------------------------|
| Laberge K, Galanis E., 2008 | Canada | Injuries | To assess the sensitivity and timeliness of reporting methods in order to guide recommendations around reportability and surveillance of this syndrome in BC | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Daudens E et al., 2008 | French Guiana | Communicable disease | To evaluate the knowledge, attitudes and practical experience of users concerning syndromic surveillance | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Jefferson H et al., 2008 | French Guiana | Communicable disease | To evaluate a new military syndromic surveillance system (2SE FAG) set up in French Guiana | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Hahn S et al., 2008 | Honduras | Injuries | To determine the major causes and outcomes of injuries presenting for emergency care and assesses the validity of the surveillance system | General | Initial evaluation |
| Mor Z et al., 2008 | Multi country | Communicable disease | To compare surveillance system function across industrialized countries with low TB incidence and lays the collaborative groundwork for advanced and additional analyses | General | Compare systems |
| Safdar RM, Khan SA, Asghar RJ, 2008 | Pakistan | Communicable disease | To identify key strengths and weaknesses to develop recommendations | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Ansari JA et al., 2008 | Pakistan | Communicable disease | To evaluate the surveillance systems to determine strengths & weaknesses and analyze their roles in meeting public health objectives. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Murad N, Zaheen M, Asghar RJ, 2008 | Pakistan | Communicable disease | To assess the performance of the existing diarrhea surveillance system to identify strengths and weakness to make recommendation for improvement | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

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|---|-----------------|----------------------|--|------------------|---|
| Soto G et al., 2008 | Peru | Communicable disease | To identify and discuss challenges of implementation of new electronic surveillance system and the best methods to address them | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Coleman M et al., 2008 | South Africa | Communicable disease | To evaluate the performance of a novel malaria outbreak identification system in the epidemic prone rural area of Mpumalanga Province, South Africa, for timely identification of malaria outbreaks and guiding integrated public health responses | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Richard JL, Vidondo B, Mausezahl M, 2008 | Switzerland | Communicable disease | To review the 1999-2003 measles surveillance data to compare the performance of the sentinel and the mandatory surveillance systems, and in particular to evaluate if the SSSN still provides reliable information for public health | General | compare systems |
| Kivi M et al., 2008 | The Netherlands | Communicable disease | To evaluate the acceptability of the enhanced LGV surveillance in the Netherlands in 2004-2005 to provide recommendations for future surveillance | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| van Benthem BH, van Vliet JA, 2008 | The Netherlands | Communicable disease | The most important results of a recent evaluation of the system | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance changes |
| Shipton D, Stone DH, 2008 | UK | Injuries | To describe the processes involved in the running of Y-CHIRPP; to identify changes made; to determine the strengths and weaknesses of Y-CHIRPP | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Wilkins K et al., 2008 | USA | Communicable disease | The Data for Decision Making project developed a conceptual model for a data-driven health system | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Hebden JN et al., 2008 | USA | HAI | To identify and evaluate of available systems | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |

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|---|---------------|----------------------|---|------------------|--|
| Lyerla R, Gouws E, Garcia-Calleja JM, 2008 | USA | Communicable disease | To examine the quality of HIV serosurveillance systems and the gaps in data needed for reliable estimates of HIV prevalence and size of populations at risk for infection | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Davila JC et al., 2008 | USA | Adverse events | To assess the nonanthrax vaccination data quality in the Defense Medical Surveillance System | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| McBryde ES et al., 2009 | Australia | HAI | To measure the interobserver agreement, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, and negative predictive value of data submitted to a statewide surveillance system for identifying central line-associated bloodstream infection | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Watkins RE et al., 2009 | Australia | Communicable disease | To evaluate the sensitivity of AFP surveillance for poliovirus infection in Australia | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Parrella A et al., 2009 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess the utility of ILI surveillance | General | Compare systems |
| Somda ZC et al., 2009 | Multi country | Communicable disease | To analyze the incremental costs of establishing and subsequently operating activities for detection and response to the priority diseases under the IDSR | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Joseph KS, Fahey J, 2009 | Canada | Injuries | To assess the accuracy of the Canadian Institute for Health Information data base | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Liu X, Li L, Cui H, Jackson VW, 2009 | China | Injuries | To assess an emergency department-based injury surveillance project (S-EDISP) in China using WHO evaluation guidelines. To identify problems and make suggestions for improvement | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |

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|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|---|-----------|---|
| Yoo HS et al., 2009 | Korea | Communicable disease | To identify the timeliness of notifiable infectious disease surveillance in Korea | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Arana C, 2009 | Multi country | Non communicable diseases | To assess and analyze the behavior surveillance systems of U.S., Canada and Italy, compare their strengths and weaknesses and provide recommendations that can be used as a guide for the design of new BRFSS systems or the assessment of existing systems | General | compare systems |
| Huaman MA et al., 2009 | Peru | Communicable disease | To assess the effect of two interventions on such attributes in Alerta, an electronic disease surveillance system in the Peruvian Navy | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Rocha C et al., 2009 | Peru | Communicable disease | To compare the efficacy of distinct community-based (door to door) and school absenteeism-based febrile surveillance strategies in detecting active cases of dengue | General | Compare systems |
| Kadigi DM, 2009 | Tanzania | Communicable disease | To determine whether the surveillance system is achieving its objectives, purposes and to assess its attributes | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Paranthaman K et al., 2009 | UK | Communicable disease | To assess the completeness and timeliness of reporting of invasive meningococcal disease in Thames Valley in 2006-2007 | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Jennings JM et al., 2009 | USA | Communicable disease | To identify the major challenges for information integration across the primary computer-based infectious disease surveillance information systems during a 10-year period | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Hwang J et al., 2009 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the existing systems for state-level reporting of malaria data to the CDC | General | Compare systems |
| Leshner L et al., 2009 | USA | Communicable disease | To compare passive surveillance and International Classification of Diseases, 9th Revision, codes for completeness of staphylococcal toxic shock syndrome | General | Compare systems |

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|--|--------------|----------------------|---|-----------------------|--|
| CDC, CSTE, 2009 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the National Assessment of HIV Surveillance Capacity | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Herasevich V et al., 2009 | USA | Injuries | To determine the accuracy of computerized syndrome surveillance for detection of acute lung injury in hospitalized patients and compare it with routine clinical assessment | General | Compare systems |
| Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess the surveillance system and make recommendations to its improvement | General | Initial evaluation |
| Hope KG Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess usefulness of surveillance system | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Grills NJ Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Australia | Communicable disease | To assess performance against evaluation system objectives, identify areas requiring improvement and inform a decision of whether Campylobacter infection should remain a notifiable infectious disease | Public health measure | Structural changes |
| Ahn S Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Korea | Communicable disease | To compare the data from the emergency department in detection and reporting of acute diarrheal syndrome with the data from the Korea Food and Drug Administration | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Meynard JB Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Kosovo | Communicable disease | To assess the feasibility of DSS functioning within a multinational task force in the field. | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Meerding WJ Guy RJ et al., 2010 | Multi contry | Injuries | To assess whether the emergency department (ED) injury surveillance systems in Europe are suitable for cross-country comparisons. | General | Compare systems |
| Socan M, 2010 | Slovenia | Communicable disease | To explore the completeness of mandatory varicella reporting in Slovenia. | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |
| CDC, 2010 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the national acute hepatitis C surveillance system | Technical | Data quality monitoring |

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|---------------------------------------|--------|---------------------------|---|---------------|---|
| Li J Guy RJ et al., 2010 | USA | Communicable disease | To characterize the complaint surveillance system in Minnesota and to evaluate its use for detecting outbreaks | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Iqbal S et al., 2010 | USA | Injuries | To generate the first national estimates of CO-related hospitalizations and to evaluate the use of a Web-based query system for public health surveillance | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Grota PG et al., 2010 | USA | Communicable disease | To examine the utilization of Electronic SSs in acute care hospitals in California | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Yih WK et al., 2010 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate a real-time ambulatory care-based syndromic surveillance system | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Garcia Calleja JM et al., 2010 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess the quality of HIV surveillance systems in low- and middle-income countries in 2009 compared with 2007 | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Savage R et al., 2011 | Canada | Communicable disease | To evaluate the role of syndromic surveillance in informing public health action | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Liu XQ et al., 2011 | China | Communicable disease | To evaluate the quality and timeliness of hepatitis A surveillance data from Yunnan Province, China, and to evaluate the sensitivity of the system for reporting outbreaks | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Peragallo MS et al., 2011 | Italy | Non communicable diseases | To assess completeness of cancer surveillance and incidence estimates for all malignancies, Hodgkin's lymphoma and thyroid cancer in the Italian army, for the years 2001-2007 | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Baldissera S et al., 2011 | Italy | HAI | To assess two years of activity | General | Initial evaluation |
| Tanihara S et al., 2011 | Japan | Communicable disease | To evaluate underreporting in the measles surveillance system and to quantify the proportion of measles patients who undergo laboratory tests in order to confirm their measles diagnosis | General | Compare systems |

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|---|--------------|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| 2011 | Nigeria | Communicable disease | To assess the sensitivity of the existing AFP surveillance network, situation in the structures outside the network and within the migratory population and to make recommendations | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Hajdu A et al., 2011 | Norway | HAI | To gain knowledge primarily about the system's performance in practice and, if necessary, improve its utility and efficiency | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Al-Arabi Al-Ghamdi AM et al., 2011 | Saudi Arabia | Communicable disease | To identify the epidemiology of notified measles cases and to review the surveillance system | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Heidebrecht CL et al., 2011 | South Africa | Communicable disease | To evaluate the current system of tuberculosis surveillance in the Cape Metro region | General | Regular periodic evaluation |
| Riera-Montes M, Velicko I, 2011 | Sweden | Communicable disease | To determine whether the current Ct surveillance system delivers relevant, accurate and timely information to those who need it in order to enable adequate prevention and control measures | General | Initial evaluation |
| Boehmer TK et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate the sensitivity, timeliness, and data quality of reporting eight notifiable diseases to the Colorado Electronic Disease Reporting System | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Avchen RN et al., 2011 | USA | Non communicable diseases | To conduct the first evaluation of a population-based autism spectrum disorders surveillance system | General | Initial evaluation |
| Matheny ME et al., 2011 | USA | Injuries | To compare risk-adjusted sequential probability ratio testing implemented in an automated tool to Massachusetts public reports | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Barr C et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate a newly established active influenza surveillance program that utilized 6 sentinel hospitals to collect epidemiologic information for influenza-like illness admissions | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |

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|--|---------------|----------------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| Vidi VD et al., 2011 | USA | Adverse events | To review the design of the Data Extraction and Longitudinal Trend Analysis network study of the medical device safety surveillance. | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Short VL et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To evaluate this monitoring system | Emergency | Preparedness |
| CDC, 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess of ESSENCE performance for influenza-like illness surveillance after an influenza outbreak | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Sickbert-Bennett EE et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To estimate disease-specific reporting proportions, describe changes to reporting over time, and examine the variability of reporting completeness between health care facilities. | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Nair HP et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | To discuss the usefulness of HIV incidence surveillance in the ongoing effort to reduce HIV transmission in NYC | Technical | New technology or other systemic innovation |
| Reeder B et al., 2011 | USA | Communicable disease | A pilot utility evaluation and information needs assessment of the Distribute Project | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Estes CR, Marsh SM, Castillo DN, 2011 | USA | Injuries | To assess four surveillance systems for their utility in characterizing firefighter fatalities and informing prevention measures. | General | Compare systems |
| Paterson BJ et al., 2012 | Australia | Communicable disease | To identify strengths and weaknesses of the system, ease of use and possible points for improvement | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |
| Teixeira MG et al., 2012 | Brazil | Communicable disease | To evaluate Brazil's public health surveillance system, identifying its core capacities, shortcomings, and limitations in dealing with public health emergencies, within the context of the International Health Regulations 2005 | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| CDC, 2012 | Multi country | Communicable disease | Meningitis surveillance data were analyzed, stakeholders were consulted, and surveillance databases, reports, and registers were examined | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |

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|--|---------------|----------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Vong S et al., 2012 [1] | Cambodia | Communicable disease | To determine disease under-recognition to the National Dengue Surveillance System | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Tadrous M, 2012 | Canada | Adverse events | To assess the sensitivity of the Canadian Adverse Event Following Immunization Surveillance System | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Savage R et al., 2012 | Canada | Communicable disease | To describe the use of syndromic surveillance systems in Ontario and users' perceptions of the value of these systems within the context of other surveillance systems | New component | Syndromic surveillance |
| Takla A, Velasco E, Benzler J, 2012 | Germany | Communicable disease | To develop a strategy to tailor an event-specific enhanced surveillance for this smaller-scale mass gathering. | Emergency | Mass gathering |
| Englund H, Hautmann W, 2012 | Germany | Communicable disease | To describe the <i>E. coli</i> cases (both EHEC and non-EHEC) notified when the notification rate peaked and compare them to the cases notified before and after the HUS/EHEC-outbreak to assess the sensitivity of the surveillance system in order to guide interventions for improvements | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Jasem J et al., 2012 | Iraq | Communicable disease | To identify the risk factors for measles and low vaccination rates, to evaluate the performance of surveillance, and to calculate vaccine effectiveness and failure in Iraq for the years 2005 to 2010 | Public health measure | Introduction of control measures |
| Melosini L et al., 2012 | Italy | Communicable disease | To assess the quality of surveillance at the University Hospital in Pisa, Italy, and TB incidence rates over a ten year period | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| O'Brien SF et al., 2012 | Multi country | Communicable disease | To compare examples of surveillance programs in five developed countries to describe the similarities and differences in approach, function, and application | General | Compare systems |
| CDC, 2012 | Pakistan | Communicable disease | This report summarizes surveillance results early after implementation, describes system usefulness, and identifies areas for strengthening | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |

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|---|---------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Huang WT et al., 2012 | Taiwan | Adverse events | To evaluate the completeness of spontaneous reporting, cases of death, Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS), convulsion, Bell's palsy, and idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) after 2009 H1N1 vaccination | Technical | Data quality monitoring |
| Whelan J et al., 2012 | The Netherlands | Communicable disease | To describe – from the perspective of the system user – experiences of using pandemic case register systems developed before and during the pandemic, whether the systems were used as intended during the pandemic and what problems, if any, were encountered | Emergency | Occurrence of public health event |
| Boisson EV, Imana M, Roberts P, 2012 | Trinidad and Tobago | Communicable disease | To describe the development and implementation of, and major findings and recommendations from, a regional mass gathering surveillance system (MGSS) in support of the International Cricket Council Cricket World Cup West Indies 2007 | Emergency | Mass gathering |
| Knowles RL et al., 2012 | UK | Communicable disease | Formal evaluation to examine system effectiveness commenced. | General | Requirements. Told to. |
| Heinsbroek E et al., 2012 | UK | Communicable disease | To discuss the establishment of the new USII surveillance system and the results from a pilot study undertaken during the first six months of surveillance | Emergency | Mass gathering |
| Salemi JL et al., 2012 | USA | Non communicable diseases | The purpose of this study was to evaluate the capacity of the Florida Birth Defects Registry (FBDR) to identify infants with birth defects by comparing and contrasting the two birth defects surveillance approaches | General | Compare systems |
| Iqbal K, Klevens RM, Jiles R, 2012 | USA | Communicable disease | To assess and compare CDCEIP-funded and non-funded surveillance mechanisms, with a focus on three core attributes of viral hepatitis surveillance: completeness of demographic data (i.e., sex, age, and race/ethnicity) and risk behavior/ exposure information; adherence to the CDC; timeliness of reporting to the health department | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Dailey NJ et al., 2012 | USA | Injuries | To describe and evaluate the quality, timeliness, and usefulness of the system | Public health measure | Change in public health policy |

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|---------------------------------|-----|----------------------|---|------------------|--|
| Lindsey NP et al., 2012 | USA | Communicable disease | We assessed the perceived utility of data collected through ArboNET, the national arboviral surveillance system, and evaluated state health department user satisfaction with system function | General | Initial evaluation |
| Peterson KE et al., 2012 | USA | Communicable disease | To validate electronic tools for MRSA healthcare-associated infection trending that can replace manual medical record review | General | compare systems |
| CDC, 2012 | USA | Communicable disease | To determine whether ABCs estimates of the number of cases of meningococcal disease were far lower than NNDSS counts and the contribution of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to that difference | General | Compare systems |
| Kang J et al., 2012 | USA | HAI | To evaluate the cost-effectiveness of three alternative active screening strategies for methicillin-resistant <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> : universal surveillance screening for all hospital admissions, targeted surveillance screening for intensive care unit admissions, and no surveillance screening. | Economic changes | Cost of surveillance |
| Palumbo AJ et al., 2012 | USA | HAI | To evaluate the usefulness of these systems in reducing HAIs. | New component | Introduction of new surveillance standards |

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