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Norwegian data legislation and research.

Implications for data access, data collection and data archiving.

by Thore Gaard Olaussen

Introduction

The Norwegian Personal Data Registers Act took effect on January 1, 1980, following a period of clarification, reports, hearings, and consultations. Almost a decade earlier, the first committee had been established to review the use of personal information in modern society. This committee, working from 1971 to

1 This article is based on a paper presented at the IASSIST '84 conference, Ottawa, May 14-18, 1984.

1974, dealt with information handling, especially credit reporting, in private enterprise. A second committee was established in 1972 to study the uses and possible misuses of personal-level registers in the public sector. In 1975, this latter committee reported to the Ministry of Justice, recommending the introduction of legislation similar to the Swedish Data Law introduced two years earlier.

The subsequent process of hearings and consultations took more than two years and resulted in a joint bill covering both the private and public sectors. The bill was submitted to Parliament in the fall of 1977, and the final Personal Data Registers Act was passed by the Storting in June 1978.

The main features of the Act can be summarized as follows:

1. A Data Inspectorate handles all applications for concession to establish registers of personal data, and also controls the use


For more details see Jon Bing & Knut S. Selmer (eds.), A decade of computers and law. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget, 1980. See especially the chapter by Knut S. Selmer "Norwegian privacy legislation."
of such registers.

2. In addition to covering all registers set up for electronic processing, the law requires application for concession also for manually operated registers, if these are to incorporate sensitive information (such as information on political or religious beliefs, criminal records, state of health, abuse of intoxicants, sexual habits, etc.).

3. An application for concession must specify what information the register will include. The letter of concession specifies the allowable uses of the register and, if necessary, specifies which types of data, mentioned in the application, are not included in the concession.

4. All citizens have the right to request and receive information about the data concerning themselves stored in such registers. This right does not, however, apply to data registers "which are only used for statistical, research, or general planning purposes".

5. The law also requires specific concessions be obtained for conducting opinion and market surveys, and stipulates that any identifying data, such as personal identification number or name, must be destroyed after six months, unless explicit permission to keep such information has been obtained from the persons concerned.

6. And, finally, the law stipulates that registers of personal data cannot be transferred abroad without the explicit permission of the Data Inspectorate.

The decisive point in the definition of 'person register' is whether or not the information identifies individuals directly or indirectly, regardless of whether the data are stored in a computer file or a manual file. Compared to legislation in other countries, such as Sweden, this is a unique feature of the Norwegian Data Law. The Swedish Data Law regulates only computerized data.

Another important feature of the Norwegian data law is that it applies the concept of 'person' in the legal sense. This includes not only physical persons, but also enterprises, organizations, foundations, etc.

Consequences for research activity

Submission of an application for concession may delay the research process. Due to lack of resources, the Data Inspectorate had not managed to deal with the great number of applications for existing registers in the public and private sectors, before the arrival of the first applications for establishing new registers. Consequently, a

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5Section 7, paragraph 1 in the Data Law.
bottleneck exists in the system. In some cases, applications from research programs may take only a couple of weeks to process. In other cases, it may take up to half a year before the researcher receives the letter of concession. Before s/he receives this letter, the researcher is not permitted to establish the register.

Many of the registers being established in medical, psychological, or sociological research programs, for example, contain the kind of sensitive information specifically mentioned in the law. Normally, researchers require quick access to such information. According to the law, however, the Data Inspectorate can impose special restrictions on the collection of such information. When information is sensitive, the Data Inspectorate may want to impose more than normally restrictive conditions, out of concern for privacy protection. These restrictions may make it very difficult to collect data and make them available on time.

The law makes no distinction between the use of data for research purposes and the administrative use of data. This means that the Data Inspectorate is not obliged to take the purpose of the data collection into account when considering applications for concession.

The Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) has repeatedly emphasized the difference between data for research use and the administrative use of data. The research community has identified and stressed the important characteristics of the research process and statistical production which distinguish research use of data from administrative management.

1. trends only will be analyzed by means of techniques such as cross-tabulations, correlations and other summary statistics; these are techniques which prevent the identification of individuals;

2. personal data may be collected and analyzed either continually or repeatedly at irregular intervals;

3. each phase of analysis will be comparatively short as compared to an established administrative register), i.e. often no longer than a year;

4. the number of researchers and institutions involved in handling individually identifiable data is limited, because it is not the individual per se, but the attributes of the individual that are of
interest. 6

Usually a research project will last for a predetermined period of time. So too does the validity of the concession. The Data Inspectorate has made it clear that data concessions granted a specific project will be in force only for the duration of the project. After the expiry of the concession period, the Data Inspectorate can instruct the researcher to destroy the data. Obviously, the imposition of such restrictions makes the use of such research methods as follow-up studies and panel studies impossible.

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Solutions

Even as the data law was being prepared, a number of researchers called attention to the implications that the data law would have for research. Their primary concern was that the new law would make it difficult to obtain micro data. The experience of Swedish researchers was not encouraging. The Swedish Data Inspectorate had, according to some reports, interfered unnecessarily with the research process and caused serious delays in the planning and execution of studies. 7

One of the concerned researchers was Stein Rokkan 8 who advised the Norwegian Research Council for Science and the Humanities (NAVF) to take action to protect the researcher's right to access to information as regulated under the new law. Social science researchers in particular began a series of discussions to find workable solutions to the various problems facing research activity requiring micro data. At the suggestion of NSD, among others, the Board of the Norwegian Research Council for Science and the Humanities decided to establish a Secretariat for Data Protection affairs. The Secretariat, which was established at the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) in Bergen, began negotiations with the Data Inspectorate during the early spring of 1981.

The Research Council felt that two major issues required clarification. The first was to ensure that the measures taken to protect the individual's right of privacy would not seriously prevent scientists from using individual-level data. The Research Council agreed to report regularly to the Data Inspectorate research

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6 Jarle Broseveet & Orjar Oyen, Norwegian Data Law and the Social sciences, paper prepared for the CESSDA/IFDO conference on 'Emerging data protection and the social sciences' need for access to data', Cologne, August 9-11, 1978.


projects that needed concession under the law. A letter of recommendation from the NSD should be enclosed with each application forwarded.

The other major issue stressed by the Research Council was the need to establish a system to archive data files upon termination of a research project. The Council suggested the establishment of a system whereby the Secretariat could store the data for possible later reanalysis. However, a number of questions had to be clarified before arriving at this solution. Initially, the Data Inspectorate was not sympathetic to the question of data archiving. According to the law, data containing personal identification was to be destroyed. In the end, an agreement was reached which allowed researchers to retain data when "there are reasons for presuming them useful in future research,...". This agreement was accepted with certain precautions. Firstly, a commission, appointed by the Research Council is empowered to decide which data are to be kept in archives and which are to be destroyed. Secondly, data files must be transferred to special archival institutions recognized by the Data Inspectorate. And thirdly, no data may be transferred if the transfer is inconsistent with the ethics of secrecy.

How such transfer might be inconsistent with secrecy norms was not specified, and has been a matter of discussion ever since. A report from a

committee appointed by the Research Council has now made it clear that data transfer to a data archiving institution usually will not imply conflict with the provisions of ethical secrecy. The Data Inspectorate was represented on the committee and accepted this interpretation as valid.

Other data access regulations

Access to administrative data

Data handling in public administration is regulated by a special law governing procedures in public management. The same law regulates accessibility of data files or information primarily used for administrative purposes in public agencies to researchers. If a researcher needs access to micro-level information, and if this information is subject to ethical secrecy, he must obtain permission from the Ministry, unless such permission can be obtained from the individuals concerned. The researcher must convince the Department of the usefulness and seriousness of the research program, and that it will be difficult to achieve the research goal by other means.

In such cases, the researcher must go through at least two steps to get permission to obtain data. First, an application must be submitted to the Department. A special advisory committee is appointed to judge the application. Then a new application must be sent to the

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9The general concession for research projects financed by NAVF, Oslo, April 24, 1981, paragraph 4.9.
Data Inspectorate for concession to establish the data register. The system is bureaucratic but does allow some possibility of data access.

Access to data from the Statistical Agency

The Central Bureau of Statistics has, according to the Statistics Law, the right to obtain data from citizens (such as census data). The Bureau also conducts surveys. These surveys are based on a representative sample of the Norwegian population. In accordance with the data law, the Data Inspectorate has outlined some general rules concerning researchers' access to these data. Census data may be used for research outside the Bureau. This applies as well to survey data, if respondents have consented to the data being used for research purposes. But before the data (either census or survey) may be distributed, further conditions must be satisfied:

1. The data should be anonymized, but not to such an extent as to make the proposed research impossible. (It is up to the researcher to decide the degree of anonymization.)

2. The researcher must have been granted concession by the Data Inspectorate before obtaining the data.

3. The data shall be used for statistical analysis only.

The regulations on access to survey data may have some negative effects. It is quite cumbersome to obtain consent for reanalysis from respondents. The outcome may be that no one wants to use the data. Further, obtaining consent may lead to a dramatic decline in the number of respondents. This may affect the representativeness of the sample. For the researcher, these conditions may be serious impediments to gaining access to survey data; and many feel that it is unreasonable to be forced to obtain the consent of respondents in order to use anonymized data.

However, the cooperation of the Central Bureau of Statistics is very important to the research community. The Bureau offers a number of services to researchers - from sampling the population to conducting the whole survey. For services such as these, however, payment is required, and for many researchers, may be too expensive.

Therefore, cooperation has been established between the Bureau and the

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The Concession for the Central Bureau of Statistics, Oslo, April 2, 1981, paragraph 4.3 first point.
NSD. NSD can acquire anonymized survey data and make them available for research purposes. This arrangement does not not imply departure from the regulations imposed by the Data Inspectorate. The data are totally anonymized before being transferred from the Bureau to the NSD. Nor may either the NSD nor the researcher, have input to the degree to which the data are anonymized (cf. condition no. 1 above). Access to anonymized data is not regulated by the Data Inspectorate.

Conclusions - future aspects

The agreements reached between the Data Inspectorate and the Research Council and the Bureau of Statistics have clarified 'the rules of the game'. In many respects the agreements follow the ordinary procedures as far as application for concession is concerned. But there are also some differences. The application form itself is more relevant for data processing in academic research and statistics.

Further, the agreement with the Research Council implies that the Secretariat for data protection affairs, established by the NAVF, is given a mediatorial role. In practice, this way of organizing the relationships with the Data Inspectorate gives the research community better means of communication with the Inspectorate than have applicants from other sectors.

At present the Data Inspectorate has an administrative staff of 8-9 persons, most of whom have a background in law. The Board of the Inspectorate is composed of a majority of high-ranking administrators from the public and private sectors, mainly with law and technical expertise. The chairman is Professor Knut S. Selmer of the Faculty of Law, University of Oslo. Professor Selmer was also chairman of the committee which prepared the report on the protection of personal data used for scientific research and statistics for the Council of Europe. This report recommends principles and guidelines that the governments of each member state may use as the basis for domestic law-making and practices concerning the use of personal data for scientific research. As a member state, Norway has accepted the recommendations of the report. These recommendations deal with a number of issues of considerable important for scientific research, as illustrated by the statements that follow.

The first of these statements declares that respect for privacy must be guaranteed in any research project, and continues:

'Whenever possible, research should be undertaken with anonymous data. Scientific and professional organizations, as well as public authorities, should promote the development of techniques and procedures securing
anonymity.'\(^1\)

The next statement focuses on the use of data and is of great importance to the research community:

'Personal data collected for the purpose of a given research project and with the consent of the persons concerned should not be used in connection with another research project substantially different in its nature or objects from the first, except with the consent of the data subject. However, where it would be impracticable to obtain such consent by reason of lapse of time or the large numbers of data subjects involved the previously collected data may be used in conformity with other safeguards laid down by domestic law.'\(^2\)

We will also refer to a third statement concerning conservation of data, of special interest to data archiving institutions:

'The consent of the persons concerned when required for carrying out a research project, or compliance with other safeguards laid down by domestic law, should also extend to the possibility of the personal data collected being kept after completion of the program.'\(^3\)

and further,

'If, on completion of the project, the personal data that have been used are not destroyed or rendered anonymous, their deposit with institutions entrusted with the task of keeping data and in which adequate security measures have been taken should be encouraged.'\(^4\)

Altogether, the report to the Council of Europe evinces a positive and professional attitude towards the needs of researchers, on such issues as access to data and conservation of same, on which scientific research activity now depends heavily. Now, it is up to the national inspectorates to show their willingness to adhere to these principles and deal with these questions as well. Data legislation should not be limited to the question of protection of personal integrity, but rather cover the whole spectrum of data protection including data archiving and data access.

\(^1\)Committee of Experts on Data Protection. "Protection of personal data used for scientific research and statistics." Final activity report from the European Committee on Legal Co-operation, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, July 22, 1983, paragraph 2.2.

\(^2\)Ibid. paragraph 4.2.

\(^3\)Ibid. paragraph 9.2.

\(^4\)Ibid. paragraph 9.4.
Confidentiality and access: legislative initiatives in the United States government.

Patricia Aronsson
Director, Documentation Standards Division
National Archives and Records Service

Introduction

Information specialists recognize the implications of our increased reliance upon automation. The conflicting demands for privacy protection and access clash repeatedly. But, this conflict will not be readily resolved. Recent initiatives in the United States government reflect the competing demands of enhancing privacy protection and broadening access to information. At the same time that the United States Senate has proposed restricting access under the Freedom of Information Act, we are seeing more computer matching programs than ever before. While the government implemented a strong Privacy Act, we failed to recognize the international implications of that effort.

Privacy legislation, Freedom of Information Act revisions, and hearings about transborder data flow and computer matching represent the key areas where privacy and access considerations are evident. Congressional concern about personal privacy has existed for several years; in 1974, the United States Congress passed the Privacy Act. The House of Representatives, through hearings in 1983, demonstrated its concern about the oversight of the Act. And during this past Congress (the 98th, 1983-1984), Representative Glenn English proposed the creation of a privacy protection commission to strengthen the implementation of the Act.

The Freedom of Information Act continues to generate interest and activity. In 1974, Congress substantially revised the Act. During the 98th Congress, the Senate passed the Freedom of Information Reform Act which significantly modifies several provisions of the 1974 Act. The House of Representatives held

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1 The opinions expressed in this article are those of the author alone and do not reflect the official position of the National Archives and Records Service, nor of any other federal agency.
hearings on the proposed reforms but took no final action.

In recent years, the United States Congress has demonstrated its concern about the impact of automation on access and confidentiality through several hearings it has held. There have been a few different Congressional hearings concerning transborder data flow. And, in 1982, the Senate held hearings on the subject of computer matching.

Without question, the United States Congress is interested in privacy related issues, but it has yet to focus on access to and confidentiality of automated information. By highlighting and explaining congressional activity in the areas of privacy and confidentiality, it is the author's hope that the strengths and weaknesses of recent United States initiatives will become apparent.

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Privacy Act

The Privacy Act of 1974 (5 USC 552a) represented the first attempt by the United States Congress to legislate general government-wide standards for the protection of individual privacy. But, the passage of this Act was not motivated by a concern about the implications of automation for privacy. It is more likely that Congress passed the Privacy Act in reaction to the Watergate episode which had heightened national concern about executive secrecy.

Congress recognized the need for access to personal information about individuals, and specified exceptions to the Privacy Act requirement that an individual must authorize access to personally identifiable records. These several exceptions indicate that Congress was aware of the need to provide access to information. It is less clear that they foresaw the need to take steps to ensure full privacy protection for individuals. The legislation did not designate a central authority for the administration and oversight of Privacy Act implementation. This has proven to be a significant shortcoming and has been the focus of recent congressional inquiries.

In 1982, a subcommittee on Government Information in the House of Representatives held hearings and issued a report entitled, "Who cares about privacy? Oversight of the Privacy Act of 1974 by the Office of Management and Budget and by the Congress". While the hearings focused on oversight, the subcommittee also heard from several people concerned about the international implications of the U.S. Privacy Act.

As an outgrowth of these hearings, Representative Glenn English, the chairman of the subcommittee, and an advocate of privacy protection, proposed the creation of a Privacy Protection Commission which would be a permanent and independent commission responsible for both domestic and international privacy issues. Representative English described the proposed commission as follows:
Domestically, the Commission would be assigned an oversight role under the Privacy Act of 1974. The Commission would develop guidelines and model regulations, investigate compliance with the Act, and generally oversee agency Private Act activities. For international privacy issues, the Commission would assist U.S. companies doing business abroad to comply with foreign data protection laws, assist in the coordination of U.S. privacy policies with those of foreign nations, accept complaints and otherwise consult with foreign data protection agencies.  

While this legislation certainly would centralize Privacy Act oversight, it does not seem likely that any action on its creation will be taken in the near future. In the meantime, the courts offer the only recourse for private citizens who feel their privacy has been violated by the federal government.

As is probably apparent, the federal government offers only limited privacy protection. A few categories of non-governmental records are the subject of federal privacy laws; personally identifiable records gathered by credit bureaus and by colleges and universities are protected. State and local government records are, for the most part, excluded from coverage. It is important to note, though, that in the United States, each state develops its own privacy legislation for state and local records.

Transborder flow

The proposal for the Privacy Protection Commission is the most recent legislative initiative which addresses the issue of transborder data flow. As is apparent from Representative English's statement, though, his legislation grows out of a concern for privacy. Many people in the United States contend that the major issue surrounding transborder data flow is one of economics, not privacy. Both the House of Representatives and the Senate addressed economic concerns during the past Congress. Each house received legislation to create an entity to oversee international telecommunications and information; the Senate bill proposed a White House office and the House bill proposed an interagency committee. The recent initiatives in the area of transborder data flow stem, in large measure, from a recognition that the United States government does not have an agency which focuses on the international exchange of information.

Several reasons make it unlikely that, in the near future, the United States Congress will pass legislation...
to increase the government's role in transborder data flow. In the United States, there is a clear separation between the public and private sectors and, in addition, the first amendment to our Constitution explicitly limits the government's intrusion into the flow of information. Additionally, the United States government views international regulation of data as restrictive. A Senate report written in 1980 states:

While other nations believe that a new regulatory framework may be necessary to ensure equitable opportunities and to protect all parties, the United States has been reluctant to advocate creation of legal structures which may prove restrictive in light of rapid technological developments and changing market dynamics.³

Until United States businesses are significantly hampered by transborder data flow, Congress probably will not act.

Computer matching

Computer matching programs present significant threats to personal privacy and yet they have proliferated in recent years, even though the Privacy Act seems to prohibit them. Computer matching is defined as the use of a computer to compare data in a Privacy Act system of records with other data for purposes of identifying individuals whose records appear in more than one set of records. Computer matching programs are intended to detect and curtail fraud or abuse in federal assistance, loan, or benefit programs.

The Inspector General Act of 1978 authorized the Inspectors General to request and obtain information from other federal agencies and state and local governments.⁴ As a result, in 1979, the Office of Management and Budget issued guidelines for agencies acquiring computerized data files for use in computer matching programs. These guidelines, which were revised in 1982, require that

...the source agency should require the matching entity to agree in writing to certain conditions governing the use of the matching file.⁵

Some of these conditions may state that the matching file will remain the property of the source agency, that the file will be destroyed or returned at the end of the project, that the file will be used only for the purposes stated in the agreement, and the file will

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⁴P.L. 97-252, sections 6 (a) (3) and (b) (1).

⁵David A. Stockman, Memorandum for the Executive Departments and establishments, May 11, 1982; published in the Federal Register, May 19, 1982.
not be duplicated either within or outside the receiving agency. In addition, matching agencies are required to publish in the Federal Register a notice describing the matching programs and to provide a copy of this notice to the Congress and to the Office of Management and Budget. These procedures are designed to alleviate the potential abuse of personal privacy that is magnified by the increasing use of computers for the collection and maintenance of personal information.

Computer matching programs are becoming more widespread in government. In 1982, the President's Council on Integrity and Efficiency initiated the Long Term Computer Matching Project to encourage and facilitate computer matching. In July 1982, the project, which involves all Inspectors General, published its first newsletter and reported that the inspectors general of ten departments and agencies were engaged in computer matching efforts of sufficient significance to merit reporting. It is likely that the newsletter did not mention all the computer matching programs underway, and it is just as likely that new matching programs have been started since then. While computer matching remains a controversial practice, it seems to be gaining wider acceptance.

Interestingly, while computer matching has become more acceptable, statistical research has been severely curtailed since the passage in 1976 of the Tax Reform Act which places strict restrictions on the use of individual tax returns.

Freedom of Information Act

The Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) affects privacy and access issues in a number of ways; some of them only tangentially. Recent congressional initiatives to reform the FOIA reflect a growing concern about access to government information. One revision prohibits foreign nationals from acquiring information under the Freedom of Information Act. Another proposal suggests charging a fair value fee for commercially valuable information. Yet another modification tightens access to informant information. As mentioned earlier, the Senate passed these reforms but since the house of Representatives did not act, the bill expired and will have to be re-introduced during the next Congress. One change to the Freedom of Information Act did, however, become law this year; Central Intelligence Agency files on intelligence sources and methods have been exempted from the provisions of the FOIA.

The impact of various definitions on privacy and access

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6 5 USC 552
7 S. 774, 98th Congress.
Certainly a major problem we face in the United States government is determining which materials are covered by which legislation. The multiple definitions of "record" complicate the protection of privacy in the U.S. government. Both the Federal Records Act and the Privacy Act contain different definitions of what constitutes record material. While the Freedom of Information Act does not contain an explicit definition of records, it uses phrases defined in each of the other two laws.

These multiple definitions of record present problems to those people concerned with privacy protection and access. It is difficult to properly protect information or to monitor compliance with privacy protection requirements if it is not clear what information is covered.

An additional complication is that these definitions apply only to the federal government. Each state is responsible for establishing its own definition of what constitutes a record. Therefore, to ensure full privacy protection, one would need to know the laws in every state in which records may be located.

Conclusion

Federal law plays a significant, albeit limited, role in the protection of privacy in the United States. Our increased reliance on automated information makes such protection more important than ever. The United States Congress is beginning to recognize the need to address the problems surrounding the confidentiality of automated information. And it is likely that, in the coming years, we will see a great deal of congressional activity in the area of privacy and access. But, we can also expect that such action will come only in reaction to particular problems. We are likely to see a series of discrete pieces of legislation, each designed to address a specific problem. It would be unduly optimistic to expect the United States Congress to develop a comprehensive and coherent policy concerning the increased use of automation for the collection of information.
Announcing third ISSC Stein Rokkan Prize in Comparative Research.

The International Social Science Council, in conjunction with the Conjunto Universitario Candido Mendes (Rio de Janeiro) announces that the STEIN ROKKAN PRIZE will be awarded for the third time in the Fall of 1986.

The Prize is intended to crown a seminal contribution in comparative social science research written in English, French or German, by a scholar under forty years of age on 31st December 1986. It can be a manuscript or a printed book or collected works in each case published after 1984.

Four copies of manuscripts typed double space or of printed works shall be delivered to the International Social Science Council before 1st February 1986, together with a formal letter of application with evidence of the candidate's age attached.

The AWARD shall be made by the ISSC General Assembly meeting in the Fall of 1986 on the recommendation of the ISSC Executive Committee. Its decision shall be final and not subject to appeal or revision.

The Prize is in the amount of U.S.$2000.00. It may be divided between two or more applicants, should it be found difficult to adjudicate between equally valuable works submitted.

For further enquiries, please write to:

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ANNOUNCEMENT and CALL FOR PAPERS

The 1985 Public Health Conference on Records and Statistics
Washington, D.C.

August 13-15, 1985

Theme: Health Statistics: They Make a Difference

Purpose: The National Center for Health Statistics is pleased to announce the twentieth biennial conference on public health statistics. Over the years this Conference has grown to where it is recognized as a major national forum for presenting and discussing the latest advances in public health statistics. The 1983 Conference had over 100 speakers and an attendance in excess of 1,000 participants. The papers that were presented at the Conference were distributed widely in the published proceedings.

This year's meeting which marks the 25th anniversary of NCHS will focus on the contributions health statistics make to the maintenance and improvement of the nation's health. This includes such diverse areas as epidemiological research, program management, provision of health services, planning health care systems, monitoring health status, and all other areas where health statistics are a major tool. Papers will be accepted that deal with projected future activities in these areas. However, papers submitted describing past activities should show their clear relevance to present and future events.

Papers will be grouped according to four major broad tracks that will run through the 3-day Conference. These are: data access and availability; data analysis; statistical organizations and programs; and methodology and technology. Examples of each track are as follows, however, they are not inclusive.

- **Data access and availability** includes sources of data, distribution, media access, confidentiality, electronic dissemination, on-line computer techniques.

- **Data analysis** includes epidemiological studies; uses of data; impact on legislation, regulations, and budgets; health planning.

- **Statistical organizations and programs** include the planning, implementation, and operation of large statistical systems by public and private agencies such as State Centers for Health Statistics, Professional Review Organizations, professional associations, Medicaid agencies, Health Care Financing Administration, and other Federal agencies.

- **Methodology and Technology** includes new methods and the application of new technology to statistical analysis, survey design, data collection, data processing, epidemiological studies and disease classification.

**Call for Papers:** Contributed papers will be accepted for any session of the Conference except for the plenary sessions. Acceptable papers must relate to the theme of the Conference and to one of the four tracks. In addition papers may be invited on specific topics.

Contributors should send an abstract of not more than 300 words to Gail F. Fisher, Ph.D., Room 2-28, Center Building, 3700 East-West Highway, Hyattsville, Maryland, 20782 (phone 301-436-7050) by February 28, 1985.

The authors of abstracts selected for presentation will be notified by April 15, 1985 and informed of all technical requirements for submission of the final draft which will be required prior to the meeting. Although the National Center for Health Statistics cannot pay an honorarium to authors of either invited or contributed papers, the Center will pay the travel and per diem expenses for one speaker per paper to attend the Conference.
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