

# THE LANCET

## Public Health

### **Supplementary appendix**

This appendix formed part of the original submission and has been peer reviewed.  
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Supplement to: Cromer D, van Hoek AJ, Newall AT, Pollard AJ, Jit M. Burden of paediatric respiratory syncytial virus disease and potential effect of different immunisation strategies: a modelling and cost-effectiveness analysis for England. *Lancet Public Health* 2017; **2**: e367-74.

# 1 **The potential health and economic impact of future vaccines and** 2 **prophylactic antibodies to prevent paediatric respiratory** 3 **syncytial virus disease**

## 4 **Supplementary Materials**

### 5 **Disease Burden Estimation**

#### 6 *Data sources*

7 Most people who present to health care services with respiratory symptoms are not routinely  
8 tested for RSV. Hence primary care or hospital databases are not on their own a reliable  
9 estimate of RSV disease incidence. However, England collects data on both clinical  
10 attendances for acute respiratory infection, and separately, data on the organisms detected in  
11 microbiological testing for routine clinical purposes. Since the two databases are unlinked, we  
12 used statistical modeling to associate positive laboratory tests of numerous respiratory  
13 pathogens with general practice (GP) and hospital data on acute respiratory symptoms, based  
14 on the temporal trends in both datasets.

15  
16 This approach has been used previously to estimate the burden of RSV and other seasonal  
17 infections(1-5). We adapted the method used to estimate influenza burden in England to  
18 inform the introduction of paediatric influenza vaccine in 2014; data and methods are  
19 described in more detail in our previous publication(1). For simplicity, we used data from the  
20 pre-2009 influenza pandemic era covering eight years (by week) from 2000/1 to 2007/8.  
21 Results of microbiological testing was obtained from Public Health England's LabBase2  
22 database for children under five years of age and included positive tests for influenza A,  
23 influenza B, respiratory syncytial virus, parainfluenza, adenovirus, rhinovirus, *Streptococcus*  
24 *pneumoniae*, *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae*(6). Weekly GP  
25 consultations for acute respiratory disease consultations were obtained from the Royal  
26 College of General Practitioners Weekly Returns Service (RCGP), a national sentinel  
27 surveillance system, and scaled by the size of the population covered by the Royal College of  
28 General Practitioners practices to give weekly consultation rates per 100,000 people. We used  
29 all consultations reported in RCGP as either upper respiratory tract infection or lower  
30 respiratory tract infection. Corresponding weekly inpatient admissions to National Service  
31 Hospitals in England for acute respiratory disease were obtained from the Hospital Episode

32 Statistics (HES) database(7). Patients were included in the analysis if they had an acute  
 33 respiratory illness code (ICD-10 codes J0\*, J1\*, J2\*, J3\*, J40\*, J41\*, J42\*, J43\*, J44\*, J47\*) in any  
 34 diagnosis field, however they were not double counted if they had one of these codes in more  
 35 than one field. The number of deaths in hospital by age and clinical risk group was estimated  
 36 by counting inpatient admissions with an acute respiratory illness code extracted from the  
 37 HES database with death recorded as the discharge method. Only deaths within 30 days of  
 38 admission were included in the analysis.

### 39 *Statistical Modeling*

40 Weekly counts in laboratory reports for pathogens potentially responsible for acute  
 41 respiratory illness were used as explanatory variables to estimate the proportion of health  
 42 care outcomes (GP consultations, hospital admissions and deaths in hospital coded as acute  
 43 respiratory illness) attributable to RSV. We used the same model, dataset and age-groups that  
 44 were previously used in(1). Briefly, this was a generalized linear model for negative binomial  
 45 outcome distributions with an identity link function. The model incorporated both a moving  
 46 average to smooth fluctuations in laboratory reports and a linear term to account for secular  
 47 trends in reporting and laboratory methods. The model equation is given in equation 1.

$$48 \quad H_w^j = B_0^j + B_1^j w + \sum_p B_p^j r_{p,w}^j \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

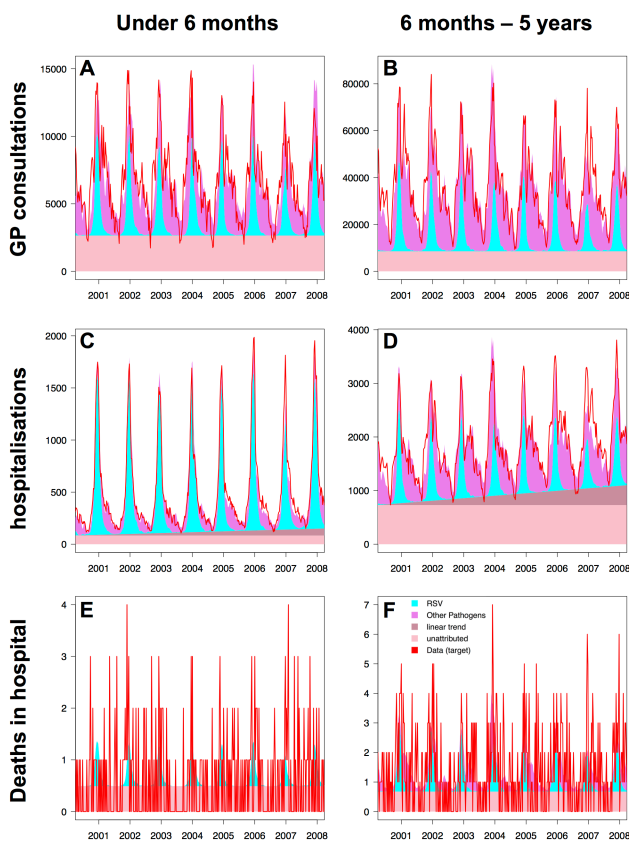
49 Here,  $H_w^j$  represents the number of reported outcomes (eg. hospitalisations) for age group  $j$  in  
 50 week  $w$ . The right hand side is made up of constant term ( $B_0^j$ ) representing outcomes  
 51 attributed to causes other than the pathogens recorded in microbiological surveillance, a  
 52 linear trend term that takes into account the change in outcomes over time (i.e. a coefficient,  
 53  $B_1^j$ , multiplied by the week number,  $w$ , which starts at 0 in the first week of the series), and the  
 54 sum of the product of the number of laboratory reports reported in microbiological  
 55 surveillance for each pathogen  $p$  in age group  $j$  in week  $i$  ( $r_{p,w}^j$ ) and their coefficient,  $B_p^j$ . The  
 56 coefficients are estimated by negative binomial regression using an identity link function. If  
 57 the coefficients  $B_p^j$  are estimated to be negative, the term for the corresponding pathogen is  
 58 removed for reasons of biological implausibility, and the model is re-run to obtain new  
 59 estimates for the other coefficients. Backwards stepwise regression is used, meaning that the  
 60 least significant pathogens is sequentially removed from the model provided it is deemed to  
 61 have a significance level above 0.05 and the model is re-run to obtain new estimates for the  
 62 other coefficients. The total non-pathogen related coefficient (sum of the baseline coefficient  
 63 and the linear trend term,  $B_0^j + B_1^j w$ ) is also required to be greater than zero for all values of  
 64  $w$  in the data series. We note that the inclusion of all respiratory pathogens in our regression

65 model differentiates this model from that of Taylor et al (5) who included only influenza and  
66 RSV. This means that we are able to accurately model the observed health care outcomes with  
67 only two non-pathogen related parameters, namely a constant term and a linear temporal  
68 term, and do not require any of the trigonometric or higher order polynomial terms included  
69 by Taylor et al.

70

71 Data were modeled in two groups – data from children under six months of age and data from  
72 children between six months and five years of age, resulting in the estimated weekly rate per  
73 100,000 children of RSV attributable GP consultations, hospitalisations and deaths in hospital.  
74 Weekly numbers were then summed to give monthly RSV incidence rates by age group.

## 75 Results of Regression Burden Estimation



76

77 **Supplementary Figure 1 Results of regression fitting to (A-B) GP consultations, (C-D)**

78 **Hospitalisations and (E-F) Deaths in Hospital**

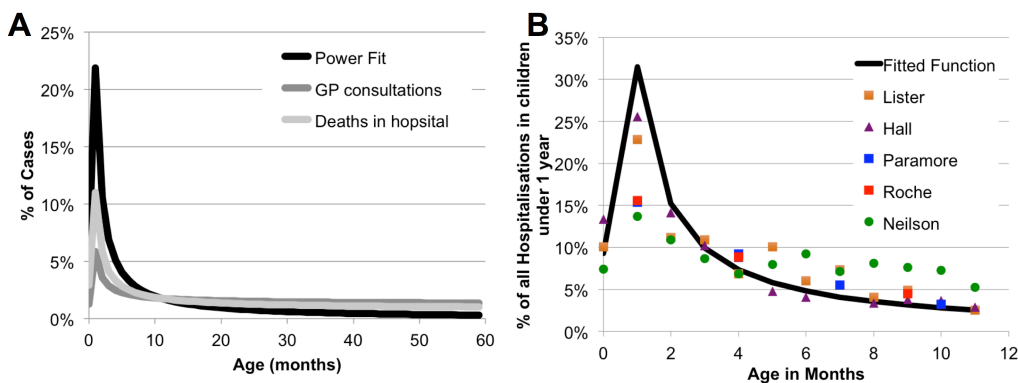
79 *(A,C and E) Show results of fitting to the under 6 month age group. (B,D and F) show results of*

80 *fitting to the 6 month – 5 year age group.*

81 **Age stratification of RSV disease**

82 To determine the age specific incidence of RSV attributable primary care outcomes,  
83 hospitalisations and deaths, we initially fit data in two age groups – those under six months of  
84 age, and those between six months and five years of age, as this was the age stratification  
85 most commonly used in public health data sources. However even within these age groups,  
86 studies suggest that RSV disease is concentrated in the very youngest children(8-12). As we  
87 did not have more finely stratified data on respiratory pathogens or outcomes in children as  
88 inputs for our regression analysis, we derived an estimate for the distribution of RSV  
89 hospitalisations by month of age based on existing studies. We fit a power function with an  
90 additional parameter for the first data point simultaneously to the proportion of  
91 hospitalisations by age group from 0 – 24 months of age using data from six studies in high  
92 income countries(8-14) . We used this function, shown in Supplementary Figure 2A and B to  
93 provide an estimate for the age distribution of cases. We then applied this function describing  
94 the distribution of cases by age to the estimated number of RSV hospitalisations obtained  
95 from the two broader age groups, to determine the actual number of cases for each month of  
96 age. To estimate the age distribution of GP consultations and deaths in hospital we used the  
97 same power function, however also applied a linear scaling factor to ensure that the  
98 proportion of cases in children under 6 months of age and between 6 months and 5 years  
99 matched our regression results. (Supplementary Figure 2). Uncertainty in the age  
100 distribution was not included in our modelling.

101



102

103 **Supplementary Figure 2 (A) Fitted Age distribution of cases in children under 5 years of age.**

104 **(B) Fitted results to proportion of hospitalisations in children under one year of age.**

105

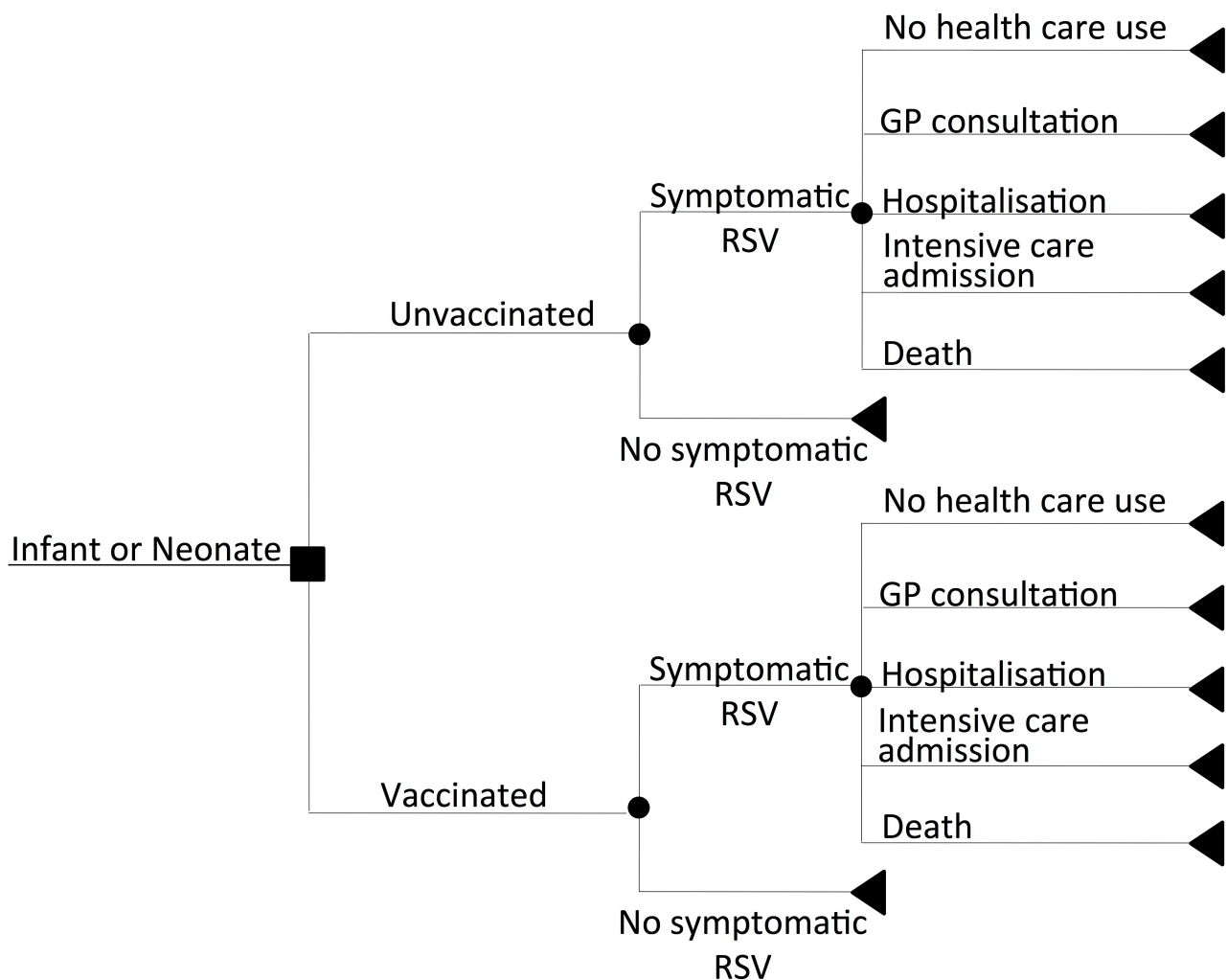
106 **Description of the cost effectiveness model**

107 Our static cohort model tracked monthly cohorts of children from birth to five years of age,  
108 differentiating them by their month of birth to capture the differences in RSV disease burden  
109 in children born at different times of the year. We then compared disease incidence in the  
110 presence of paediatric or maternal interventions, with the counterfactual of no such  
111 interventions, which was assumed to retain the current burden of disease.

112

113 The net cost of each intervention was calculated as the cost of vaccinating eligible individuals,  
114 minus the cost saving as a result of prevented disease. To allow comparability with other  
115 disease areas, we converted the health gains in children from each intervention into quality  
116 adjusted life years (QALYs) as a generic measure of health utility. We then estimated the  
117 potential cost-effectiveness of an intervention as the incremental cost of that intervention  
118 divided by the incremental QALYs gained by the intervention. For these calculations, we used  
119 the economic reference case prescribed by England's National Institute for Health and Care  
120 Excellence(15) for our economic methodology. In particular, we discounted costs and QALYs  
121 by 3.5% per year (and 1.5% in sensitivity analysis) and used a health care provider  
122 perspective.

123



124

125 **Supplementary Figure 3 Decision tree for immunisation against RSV**

126 *The probability of each branch depends on the immunisation strategy being considered, the*  
 127 *month of birth of the child and the incidence of RSV at a given time of year. Note that it is*  
 128 *possible for a patient to use more than one healthcare outcome, though this is not shown.*

129

130 **Cost and health-related quality of life parameters**

131 The cost of treating RSV disease was estimated from English health care costs in 2014,  
 132 including standard English reference costs for GP consultations(16) and hospitalisation  
 133 admissions for Paediatric Acute Bronchiolitis (Reference-code PD15)(17). QALY loss for RSV  
 134 disease leading to a GP consultation or hospitalisation was set on 0.01 and 0.04 respectively  
 135 based on a previous cost-effectiveness analysis for the Netherlands(18). For patients admitted  
 136 to intensive care, the QALY loss was set to 0.08(18). Life years lost were weighted according  
 137 to QALYs from population norms(19) and discounted appropriately. A complete list of  
 138 parameters used in the cost effectiveness model can be found in Table 1 of the manuscript

## 139 **Life years lost**

140 The risk of mortality from RSV is very low, and linked to severe co-morbidities. Thus, in  
141 addition to a scenario that incorporated RSV mortality, we also considered a scenario where  
142 mortality due to RSV was negligible. We calculated the number of life years lost as a result of  
143 RSV using the life expectancy of a child at the age of the RSV-associated death, based on data  
144 from England 2012-2014(20). These life years lost were converted into QALYs lost by  
145 multiplying each year of life lost with the average quality of life of English people at that  
146 age(19).

## 147 **Intervention Strategies**

### 148 **Infant vaccination program (“infant strategy”)**

149 For this vaccination program, we assumed that vaccinated infants were protected from 3  
150 months of age. To capture the most optimistic possibility, we assumed that for the infant  
151 strategy, once initiated vaccine induced immunity did not wane over the first five years of life.

### 152 **Maternal / newborn strategies**

153 An alternative strategy, is to protect infants from birth either through antibody transfer via a  
154 maternal vaccine (maternal strategy) or a birth dose of a long-lasting antibody (newborn  
155 strategy). The disadvantage of this may be that protection via such interventions is unlikely to  
156 last as long. For these strategies, we assumed that a fixed proportion of infants receiving the  
157 intervention were protected from RSV disease from birth until its effect completely  
158 disappeared at six months of age. This is consistent with the duration of protection previously  
159 reported from naturally acquired maternal antibodies(21), with maternal and birth dose  
160 vaccines and antibodies in current development(22, 23) and with targeted protection  
161 reported from long-lived next-generation antibodies(24). We conservatively considered only  
162 protection to the infant and not the mother.

### 163 **Combined Strategies**

164 A combined strategy combines the infant strategy with either a maternal or newborn strategy.  
165 This may be considered to allow protection directly from birth and for a longer period within  
166 childhood. For this modification, we assumed that the level of protection afforded by the  
167 vaccine was the stronger of the protection induced by either strategy.

### 168 **Switching on and off a newborn strategy**

169 We assessed the cost effectiveness of a newborn strategy that was administered only to  
170 protect children born in certain months of the year. For this we considered 122 different



171 vaccination strategies that included 121 options in which women were vaccinated starting in  
172 each of 12 months of the year and ending between 1 and 11 months after that, as well as one  
173 strategy involving offering vaccination throughout the year.

## 174 **Comparison with other studies**

175 Our RSV-attributable burden of disease are similar to estimates provided in earlier studies.

### 176 **RSV attributable hospitalisations**

177 A study of RSV disease in Shropshire, England concluded that there were 3.6 hospital cases  
178 per 100 children under 6 months of age and 1.4 cases per child under one year of age(25).  
179 This is similar to our estimates of 4.4/100 and 2.9/100 for children under 6 months and one  
180 year respectively. Similarly, previous regression analyses by Taylor et. al.(5), Mueller et.  
181 al.(26) and Reeves et. al.(27) relating hospitalisations to laboratory reports estimated 4/100  
182 children under 6 months(5), 2.8/100(26) or 3.5/100(27) in children under one and 0.4/100  
183 children between 6 months and 5 years(5) (or 0.5/100 in children between 1 and 4  
184 years(27)) which are almost identical to our estimates despite the use of either older(26) or  
185 newer(27) data or a restricted regression model(5). We observe that both our estimates and  
186 those of Taylor et al and Reeves et al for RSV attributable hospitalisations in children aged  
187 between 1 and 5 years of age are lower than Mueller et al. (0.38/100 children vs 1.3/100  
188 children us vs Mueller et al). Our case fatality estimates are also lower than those reported by  
189 Mueller et al (0.94 vs 2.8 deaths per 1000 hospitalisations in children under 5 years of  
190 age)(26), though our case fatality estimates are in broad agreement with those of Hardelid et.  
191 al.(28) This may be due to the fact that treatment of RSV has improved in the 10 years  
192 between the study periods, or that the population is generally healthier. Our estimates of RSV  
193 attributable hospitalisations in children under 1, 2 and 5 years (2.9/100, 1.8/100 and 0.9/100  
194 respectively) are in agreement with rates reported for severe RSV associated respiratory  
195 infections in Western Europe in a recent meta-analysis(29) and with rates reported in  
196 individual countries in Western Europe(30). We observe that they are significantly lower than  
197 rates reported in Spain, and thus a vaccine introduced in Spain may be even more cost  
198 effective than our estimates show.

199

### 200 **RSV attributable GP consultations**

201 Our estimates for RSV attributable GP consultations are also similar to estimates in a recent  
202 study of UK based data(5) (22/100 vs 14/100 RSV attributable GP visits in children under 6

203 months and 10.9/100 vs 9/100 in children between 6 months and 5 years, us vs the previous  
 204 study).

205 **Supplementary Tables**

Parameter	Value	Source
Life expectancy at birth	81.62 years	(20)
Quality-adjusted life expectancy, undiscounted*	65.81	(19, 20)
Quality-adjusted life expectancy, discounted at 1.5% a year	38.91	(19, 20)
Quality-adjusted life expectancy, discounted at 3.5% a year	23.29	(19, 20)
<i>Parameters applicable to preterm infants</i>		
Proportion of cases occurring in pre-term infants	16.2%	(25)
Proportion of hospitalisations requiring intensive care admission or ventilation among non pre-term infants or infants over 1 year	1.76%	(25)
Proportion of hospitalisations requiring intensive care admission or ventilation among pre-term infants under 1 year	8.96%	(25)
<i>Costs assumptions</i>		
Cost of a GP visit	£46 (normal, SD= 1)	(16), SD chosen to be 2% of the mean, as for ICU admission.
Cost of a hospital admission	£1283 (normal, SD=£3.39 )	(17) Paediatric Acute Bronchiolitis (Reference-code PD15)
Extra cost of ventilation or intensive care admission	£6637.50 (normal, SD=£157.50 ) (£1475 per day, normal SD=£35)	(17) Paediatric advance critical care 5 with an average duration of 4.5 days. (25)
<i>QALYs lost per RSV disease episode</i>		

Disease requiring GP consultation	0.01 (gamma, SD=.001)	(18)
Disease requiring hospital admission	0.04 (gamma, SD=.004)	(18)
Disease requiring intensive care admission or ventilation	0.08 (gamma, SD=.007)	(18, 31)

206 \* Children under 10 were assumed to have an average QALY weight of 0.9

207 **Supplementary Table 1 Parameters used in the cost effectiveness model**

208

Immunisation Strategy	Efficacy					
	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Maternal	£27	£32	£37	£43	£48	£54
Newborn	£40	£48	£56	£64	£72	£81
Infant	£96	£115	£135	£154	£173	£192
Newborn+Infant	£123	£148	£172	£197	£221	£246

209 **Supplementary Table 2 Maximum cost effective price payable per fully vaccinated person for**  
210 **a range of different immunisation strategies and vaccine efficacies.**

211

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