

Publisher: Taylor & Francis

Journal: *Human Vaccines & Immunotherapeutics*

DOI: 10.1080/21645515.2018.1532257

The impact of Measles-Rubella vaccination on the morbidity and mortality from Congenital Rubella Syndrome in 92 countries

Emilia Vynnycky^{1,2,3*}, Timoleon Papadopoulos^{1,2,3}, Konstantinos Angelis^{2,3}

* Corresponding author. Email: Emilia.vynnycky@phe.gov.uk. Postal address:

Modelling and Economics Unit, Public Health England, 61 Colindale Avenue,
Colindale, NW9 5HT, London, UK.

Affiliations:

1. Modelling and Economics Unit, Public Health England, 61 Colindale Avenue,
Colindale, NW9 5HT, London, UK

2. TB Modelling Group and TB Centre, London School of Hygiene & Tropical
Medicine, London, UK.

3. Centre for Mathematical Modelling of Infectious Diseases, Faculty of Epidemiology
and Population Health, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK.

Abstract

Since 2011, GAVI, The Vaccine Alliance, has funded eligible countries to introduce rubella-containing vaccination (RCV) into their national schedule. Two key indicators used to monitor the impact – the future deaths and DALYs (Disability Adjusted Life Years) averted through vaccination conducted in specific periods – are poorly understood for rubella and Congenital Rubella Syndrome (CRS). We calculate these indicators using an age-structured dynamic transmission model for rubella with historical vaccination coverage projections during 2001-30 in 92 low and middle-income countries considered most likely to require global support to achieve the Global Vaccine Action Plan's objectives. 131000 CRS deaths and 12.5 million DALYs may be prevented with immunization campaigns at best-estimate coverage during 2001-30, relative to those without additional support. The impact depended on the time period considered and the method for attributing deaths averted to vaccination in specific periods. The analyses support ongoing activities to reduce CRS-related morbidity and mortality.

Keywords:

GAVI, measles-rubella vaccination, campaigns, mathematical modelling, Congenital Rubella Syndrome

Abbreviations:

CRS – Congenital Rubella Syndrome

DALY – Disability Adjusted Life Years

MR – Measles-Rubella

RCV – rubella-containing vaccine

Accepted Manuscript

Introduction

Approximately 105,000 children are born annually with Congenital Rubella Syndrome (CRS)(1), a preventable cause of infant mortality, associated with lifelong disability, including cardiac defects, deafness, cataracts and mental retardation(2). Rubella vaccination is the primary method used to prevent CRS(2). The preferred strategy is to vaccinate a wide age-range (9 months to at least 15 years) in a campaign and then introduce routine infant rubella vaccination(2). Since 2012, GAVI, the Vaccine Alliance has funded eligible countries to conduct Measles-Rubella (MR) vaccination with this approach(3, 4), which reduces rubella virus transmission in the population, and ensures that vaccinated girls are immune by child-bearing age(2). GAVI presently measures its progress in delivering strategic goals using the number of future deaths and Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) averted through vaccination conducted in a given period with externally-supported vaccines(5, 6).

Although such indicators are helpful for contrasting the impact of vaccines for different diseases and vaccination in different periods, they are not straightforward to calculate and interpret for CRS. This follows from the facts that CRS-related disability and deaths are prevented many years after vaccination usually occurs, given that CRS may follow in a child if his/her non-immunised mother was infected with rubella when pregnant(2). When calculating the indicators, two factors then need to be accounted for when attributing disability and death averted due to vaccines administered during a given period. The first is whether a woman was vaccinated as a child. The second is the population-level immunity. This is influenced by the vaccination coverage in the population and it determines the amount of ongoing rubella transmission and therefore the risk of non-immunized

mothers becoming infected when pregnant(2). Consequently, both the vaccination coverage among pregnant women during their childhood and the population-level coverage thereafter influence the disability and death averted due to vaccines administered in a specific period.

To date, no studies have either estimated the reduction in the burden of CRS that is attributable to vaccines administered in specific periods, accounting for these complications, or presented methods for calculating those reductions. Instead, modelling studies have considered the minimum level of coverage required to prevent increases in the burden of CRS(7) and its sensitivity to the population birth rate and other factors(8), the impact of vaccination in the private sector on the burden of CRS(9), and the relative merits of introducing routine immunization compared to vaccinating teenage girls (7). This paper uses mathematical modelling to calculate the number of future deaths and DALYs averted until 2081 because of vaccination conducted in different periods during 2001-30, and contrasts different approaches for attributing the burden reduction to vaccination conducted in those periods. The estimates account for the long-term impact of vaccination and the amount of transmission when vaccinees reach adulthood.

Results

Deaths and DALYs averted

Table 2 summarises the estimated number of deaths and DALYs averted by each vaccination scenario, using different statistics for calculating the number of deaths among cases whose mothers would have been affected by vaccination in given

periods. Supplementary Figures S.1 and S.2 show the annual and cumulative numbers of cases.

Using the base-case statistic, approximately 15, 75,000, 131,000, 41,000, 40,000 deaths were prevented with best-estimate SIA coverage alone compared to that without additional support, during 2001-10, 2001-20, 2001-30, 2011-15 and 2016-20 respectively (Table 2). These were similar to those calculated using statistics A and B, except for 2011-15 and 2016-20, for which they differed by approximately 50% and 25% respectively. Using statistic C led to increased predicted numbers of deaths because of SIAs conducted during 2001-20 and 2016-20. Compared to zero coverage, the deaths prevented by best-estimate SIA coverage alone ranged between 29,000 and 850,000 for 2001-10 and 2001-30 respectively, and the estimates obtained using different statistics generally differed only by up to 20%.

Introducing routine vaccination without additional support during 2001-30 was predicted to prevent 9,000 additional deaths compared to SIAs alone conducted at best-estimate coverage, increasing to 60,000 if routine vaccination was conducted with best-estimate coverage. These estimates varied by vaccination period, decreasing to approximately 1000 and 4000 deaths respectively prevented when considering the period 2011-15, but were generally insensitive to the statistic used.

For each scenario and period, patterns in the number of DALYs prevented were similar to those for the number of deaths prevented. For the base-case statistic, best-estimate SIAs alone during 2001-30 were predicted to avert 12.5 million DALYs, compared to those without additional support, increasing to 80 million DALYs

averted when comparing best-estimate SIAs against zero vaccination. For the same period, just under 1 million and 5 million DALYs were predicted to be averted through best-estimate coverage for both SIAs and routine vaccination, compared to best-estimate SIAs with routine vaccination without additional support or zero levels respectively. Considering 2011-15 and 2016-20, SIA vaccination alone at best-estimate coverage was predicted to prevent 4 million DALYs, compared to SIA vaccination alone conducted at the coverage expected without additional support.

Sensitivity analyses

Comparing SIAs alone against no vaccination for 2001-30, the number of deaths prevented was relatively insensitive to the assumed variation in vaccine efficacy and coverage (Figure 2). The 95% range from varying the CRS risk following maternal infection was 600,000-1.2 million deaths prevented, increasing to 300,000-1.4 million deaths prevented when varying either the CRS mortality rate or pre-vaccination force of infection. When varying all parameters simultaneously, the 95% range became 182,000-1.8 million deaths prevented. Low and high fertility assumptions led to 20% lower and higher average numbers of deaths prevented respectively than those estimated for base-case parameter values (Figure 2). The estimated number and 95% range of deaths prevented resulting from basing the force of infection on GBD grouping for countries lacking seroprevalence data were similar to the base-case estimates.

When comparing best-estimate SIAs alone against zero vaccination, the “reduced outside, best-estimate inside” approach led to 20-100% higher estimated numbers of deaths prevented, than for the “best-estimate outside, reduced inside” approach for

all periods except 2001-30 (Figure 3). It led to similar values for the other vaccination scenario comparisons, except when comparing best-estimate SIA and routine vaccination against best-estimate SIA coverage with no routine coverage, when increased numbers of deaths were predicted for several vaccination periods. For these, increasing the coverage to best-estimate levels from zero or that without additional support just for the vaccination period considered led to an increased predicted incidence and a negative predicted impact (Figures S.3 and S.4, Supplement).

Discussion

We estimate that approximately 131000 CRS deaths and 12.5 million DALYs may be prevented by increasing the coverage in SIAs from those expected without additional support to best-estimate levels in 92 countries during 2001-30, with 60,000 additional deaths and 5 million DALYs prevented by introducing routine vaccination. The morbidity and mortality prevented depended on the period considered, with approximately 40,000 deaths and 4 million DALYs prevented through SIAs conducted during 2011-15 and 2016-20. Approximately 850,000 CRS deaths and 80 million DALYs are predicted to be prevented through SIAs at best-estimate coverage, compared to zero vaccination.

Our analyses appear to be the first to estimate the reduction in the burden of CRS that may be attributable to vaccines administered in specific periods, also accounting for the complication that the outcome prevented (CRS) occurs many years after the vaccine is administered. As such, the reduction in the CRS burden that is attributable to vaccination in a given period is influenced both by the vaccination

coverage among pregnant women during their childhood and the population-level coverage thereafter. Whilst our analyses focussed on rubella and CRS, analogous issues also apply to other infections for which the outcome prevented occurs many years after the vaccination is administered, such as hepatitis and HPV, for which vaccination may prevent liver and cervical cancers respectively. GAVI presently provides funding for eligible countries to introduce vaccines for both infections and so also measures its progress using the number of future deaths and DALYs averted through vaccination conducted in given periods for these infections.

We calculated the numbers of deaths among those born to mothers affected by vaccination in given periods using four statistics. The base-case and statistic A used the average number of deaths during given periods and statistics B and C used the total number of deaths since the period starts until 44 or 49 years after it finishes. The first two statistics have the advantage over the other two of being less sensitive to predictions of outbreaks. For example, statistic C predicted more deaths with best-estimate coverage for two periods than with coverage at levels which might be seen without additional support. This followed from predictions of many cases occurring towards the end of the period used in calculating the number of deaths, which outweighed the reduced number of deaths which had been predicted until then if the coverage was at levels expected without additional support during the periods of interest (Figure S.1, Supplement).

We used two approaches for estimating the impact of vaccination conducted during a period. The impact estimated from the “best-estimate outside, reduced inside” approach is interpretable as the contribution of vaccination conducted during that

period to the impact of vaccination conducted from 2001 onwards. The “reduced outside, best-estimate inside” approach provides the literal definition of the impact of vaccination conducted during given periods, but has the disadvantage of comparing one scenario against one that could lead to increases in CRS incidence, such as best-estimate coverage within 2011-15 which decreases thereafter. This scenario reduces transmission during the vaccination period, leading to increases in the average age at infection for unvaccinated people, which, combined with increased transmission predicted once vaccination stops, leads to an increased CRS incidence and an apparently negative predicted impact of vaccination conducted during 2011-15.

Our analyses suggest that very few deaths from CRS (15) were prevented because of SIAs conducted at best-estimate coverage, compared to that with coverage which would have occurred without additional support. The reason for this low number is that the period 2001-10 predates the year when increased funding became available for countries to introduce Measles-Rubella vaccination. Consequently, for that period, the best-estimate coverage for SIAs is similar to the vaccination coverage which would have been seen without additional support.

Our analyses include several limitations. First, our estimates depend on the assumed pre-vaccination epidemiology of rubella, with datasets available for 30 of the 92 countries considered. These data, in turn, have several limitations(1), for example, being convenience samples from antenatal clinics, which may not represent the general population, and from cross-sectional surveys. For countries lacking serological data, data according to WHO or GBD region were used instead.

We also note that several populous countries, including Afghanistan, Nigeria and Pakistan influence our estimated total number of CRS deaths prevented.

Second, for simplicity, we only included one dose of routine vaccination in our analyses, whereas two doses, including measles vaccine, are often provided. As we assumed that both the routine coverage was high and vaccine-derived immunity is lifelong, excluding the second dose would not have affected conclusions greatly: including it would just give the 5% of vaccinees without immunity after the first dose an opportunity to become immune.

Third, we may have overestimated the number of DALYS averted, as a country's World Bank income group in 2017 determined their assigned DALY, with low-income groups assigned higher DALYS than high-income groups (29.2 vs 22.9 respectively). Such differences result from assumptions that high-income countries may provide better treatment for several CRS-related disabilities (e.g. cataract and deafness) than low-income countries.

A final limitation is that for simplicity, we did not account for the possibility that CRS cases may die many years after birth. The estimated CRS-related mortality rate to date has been based on short follow-up periods after birth (up to a year) and so may be an underestimate.

In conclusion, our analyses suggest that ongoing immunization activities could prevent substantial numbers of CRS-related deaths and DALYs. With increasing

interest in measles elimination and introducing RCV, the number of deaths that are ultimately prevented through RCV may increase further. Further surveillance and serological studies are needed to improve the reliability of the estimated mortality prevented and monitor changes after introducing vaccination.

Materials and Methods

Demographic data

We considered 92 low and middle-income countries (Table S.1, Supplement) which the Decade of Vaccines (DoV)(13) collaboration considered to be most likely to require global support to achieve the Global Vaccine Action Plan's objectives(14). The following UN demographic country-specific data were used(15): a) Annual medium variant, sex-specific population size during 2001-2081, stratified by single-year age-groups; b) Age and sex-specific survival rates for 2010-15; c) Medium, high and low variants of the age-specific fertility rates in 5-year age groups projected until 2080; d) Crude birth rates for 2010-15.

Description of the transmission model

General structure and demography

We used an age and sex-structured, deterministic, compartmental model of the transmission dynamics of rubella, following previous work(1, 16). The population is stratified into those with maternal immunity (lasting 6 months), susceptible, pre-infectious (infected but not yet infectious), infectious and immune, using annual age bands and a "Realistic Age Structure"(17). Country-specific birth and age-specific death rates were fixed at 2010-15 levels and calculated from UN population survival

data for 2010-15 respectively(15). The supplement to (16) provides the model's differential equations.

The force of infection and pre-vaccination epidemiology of rubella

The force of infection (rate at which susceptibles are infected) changes over time and is calculated using the number of infectious individuals and the effective contact rate (rate at which infectious and susceptible individuals come into effective contact). Contact is described using the following matrix of “Who Acquires Infection From Whom”:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 & 0.7\beta_2 \\ 0.7\beta_2 & \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The effective contact rate differs between <13 and ≥13 year olds, with its relative size based on contact survey data(18). β_1 and β_2 are calculated from the average force of infection in <13 and ≥13 year olds, estimated from age-stratified rubella seroprevalence data, which had been collected before RCV was introduced(1). Seroprevalence data were available for 25 countries as described in(1), with additional data (Supplement - sections A and B) for Cambodia(19), Democratic Republic of the Congo(20), Burkina Faso(21), Kenya(22) and Tanzania(23) identified through a systematic review, and unpublished data from Indonesia (*S Reef, personal communication, March 2015*). For countries lacking seroprevalence data, we used data from countries in the same WHO region (Supplement - section B and (1)). Confidence intervals (CI) on the force of infection were calculated using 1000 bootstrap-derived-seroprevalence datasets ((1) and Supplement -section A).

Numbers of CRS cases, deaths and DALYs

Country-specific numbers of CRS cases in year y during 2001-2080 were calculated by summing the number of CRS cases born each day to women aged 15-44 years (Supplement - section C.). As assumed elsewhere(1, 9, 16), infection during the first 16 weeks of pregnancy carries a 65% risk of the newborn having CRS (Table 1). The number of CRS deaths in year y was calculated by multiplying the number of CRS cases born in year y by the assumed case fatality rate (30% - see Table 1). The number of DALYs for cases in year y was calculated by multiplying the number of CRS cases in year y by the corresponding DALY (from (24)), which was based on the country-specific World Bank Income group for 2017(25). Both the DALYs and the assigned World Bank income group remained fixed over time.

Deaths and DALYs averted

Vaccination coverage definitions and scenarios

In these analyses, we define the “best-estimate coverage” as the highest realistic vaccination coverage which might be attained in a country and the “Coverage without additional support” as the coverage that might be seen if a country receives no further external support. In practice, a country may attain best-estimate coverage if it receives additional external support. By definition, the best estimate coverage equals the coverage seen without additional support in countries which introduced RCV without having received additional external support.

We calculated the average number of CRS deaths and DALYs prevented by vaccination conducted during 2001-2010, 2001-2020, 2001-2030, 2011-2015, 2016-2030 for the following:

1. Special Immunization Activities (SIAs) at best-estimate coverage compared to SIAs conducted without additional support, both without routine immunization;
2. SIAs at best-estimate coverage, without routine vaccination compared to no vaccination;
3. Both routine and SIA vaccination at best-estimate coverage, compared to SIAs at best-estimate coverage without routine vaccination;
4. Both routine and SIA vaccination at best-estimate coverage compared to routine vaccination without additional support but with SIAs at best-estimate coverage.

The projected vaccination coverage was based on Gavi's Strategic Demand Forecast, version 12(26) and the historical coverage during SIAs and routine vaccination came from WHO and WUENIC estimates for measles-containing vaccine (MCV1) respectively(27, 28). To facilitate between-scenario comparisons, 2000 was the earliest year for introducing vaccination.

For simplicity, routine vaccination is provided as a single dose in the model. Comparisons 1 and 2 demonstrate the incremental impact of best-estimate coverage in campaigns (relative to that without additional support or no vaccination), and include hypothetical scenarios, as they consider campaigns in the absence of routine immunization. In reality, the latter would be necessary for introducing rubella vaccination. Comparisons 3 and 4 show the incremental effect of adding routine vaccination to vaccination in mass campaigns.

Attributing deaths and DALYs prevented to vaccination conducted in specific periods

In the base-case for each comparison we used a “best-estimate outside, reduced inside” approach (Figure 1A and B) to calculate the numbers of deaths and DALYs averted by vaccination administered during the period $y_s - y_e$, where y_s and y_e are the first and last years of the period. Considering deaths for comparisons 1 and 2, this number was calculated as the difference in the number of CRS deaths associated with the period (see definitions below) with SIAs at best-estimate coverage and the corresponding number of deaths for the same scenario but with SIA coverage at the alternative (reduced) level within the period ($y_s - y_e$). The calculation for comparisons 3 and 4 and DALYs is analogous.

We define the number of CRS deaths that are associated with a period $y_s - y_e$, (denoted $G_{y_s y_e}^c$) as the number of CRS deaths among those CRS cases whose mothers would have been affected by vaccination conducted during $y_s - y_e$. For a given coverage, c , during $y_s - y_e$, this was calculated as the average of the cumulative number of CRS deaths from the start of the period until 14-49 years after the period ends, as follows:

$$G_{y_s y_e}^c = \sum_{i=14}^{49} \frac{D_{y_s, y_e + i}}{36}$$

where $D_{y_s, y_e + i}$ is the total number of CRS deaths from years y_s to $y_e + i$. The summation covers the reproductive lifespan of people vaccinated during $y_s - y_e$. The number of deaths and DALYs averted were summed for all countries.

Sensitivity analyses

We also estimated the numbers of deaths (and similarly, DALYS) prevented by vaccination conducted in the periods of interest using alternative statistics for the

number of deaths among cases whose mothers would have been affected by vaccination administered during $y_s - y_e$:

- A. The average of the cumulative number of CRS deaths since the period starts (y_s) until 49 years from its end ($\sum_{i=0}^{49} \frac{D_{y_s, y_e+i}}{50}$).
- B. The total number of deaths since the period starts until 44 years from its end (D_{y_s, y_e+44}).
- C. The total number of deaths since the period starts until 49 years from its end (D_{y_s, y_e+49}).

We estimated the sensitivity of the base-case impact statistic to the input parameters by calculating the 95% range of its values after sampling each parameter in Table 1 1000 times individually and simultaneously. Point estimates and the 95% range of the outcomes were also calculated using:

1. UN population projections of high and low variants of the fertility rates.
2. Bootstrap-derived values for the force of infection compiled from seroprevalence data from countries in the same Global Burden of Disease (GBD) region instead of the same WHO region(29) (Table S.5, Supplement) for countries which had no seroprevalence data.

Finally, we explored the effect of the “reduced outside, best-estimate within” approach (Figure 1C and D) on the estimated number of deaths averted, i.e. using vaccination at zero/reduced coverage outside the period considered and best-estimate levels within it, using the base-case statistic to calculate the number of deaths among cases whose mothers were affected by vaccination during the period.

Accepted Manuscript

Captions to Figures

Figure 1: Schematic of the coverage used to calculate the number of deaths and DALYs averted from vaccination administered in a given period of interest (y_s - y_e), indicated by the double-headed arrow. Figures A and B show the two coverage assumptions used to estimate the impact of vaccination during a period of interest using the “best-estimate outside, reduced inside” approach. Figures C and D show the two coverage assumptions used to estimate the impact of vaccination using the “reduced outside, best-estimate inside” approach. For each scenario, the difference between the numbers of deaths associated with the period of interest with coverage set at that for the red line and that for the blue line gives the number of deaths averted. The numbers of deaths averted through best-estimate SIA vaccination conducted during 2011-15, for example, is calculated as the difference between the number of deaths among those born to mothers affected by vaccination during this period for the scenarios of no vaccination at all and zero coverage outside 2011-15 and best-estimate coverage during 2011-15.

Figure 2: Sensitivity of estimates of the average number of CRS deaths prevented through best-estimate SIAs carried out during 2001-30, compared against no vaccination. The light grey bars show the values obtained for the base-case (median variant) fertility, with the thin bars reflecting the 95% range obtained after varying the parameter indicated on the x-axis individually. The thin bars on the dark grey or white bars show the 95% range obtained after varying all the parameters simultaneously, using either the median (base-case), low or high fertility or the pre-vaccination force of infection bootstrap datasets based on the Global Burden of Disease grouping for countries for which no seroprevalence datasets were available.

Figure 3: Summary of the average number of CRS deaths prevented through vaccination carried out during 2001-10, 2001-20, 2001-30, 2011-15 and 2016-20, calculated using the average number of deaths among people who would have affected by the vaccination carried out during the period of interest. The blue bars show the estimates obtained by keeping the vaccination coverage at best-estimate levels outside the period of interest at zero or levels without additional support during the period of interest; the red bars show the estimates obtained by keeping the vaccination coverage zero or at levels without additional support outside the period of interest, but increasing it to best-estimate coverage during the period of interest. The thin black bars show the 95% range obtained by varying all the model input parameters simultaneously.

Accepted Manuscript

Funding

This work was supported by funding from GAVI, the Vaccine Alliance. This work was supported by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, OPP1157270.

Disclosure of interest

The authors report no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We thank Hope Johnson for helpful comments and Olivia Bullock for useful discussions. We are grateful to Susan Reef and Gavin Grant for helpful comments on the manuscript.

References

1. Vynnycky E, Adams EJ, Cutts FT, Reef SE, Navar AM, Simons E, et al. Using Seroprevalence and Immunisation Coverage Data to Estimate the Global Burden of Congenital Rubella Syndrome, 1996-2010: A Systematic Review. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(3):e0149160.
2. Rubella vaccines: WHO position paper. *Wkly Epidemiol Rec*. 2011;86(29):301-16.
3. Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance. GAVI offers new support for vaccines against cervical cancer and rubella 2012 [Available from: <https://www.gavi.org/library/news/press-releases/2012/new-vaccine-support-against-cervical-cancer-rubella/>].
4. Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance. Measles and measles-rubella vaccine support 2018 [Available from: <https://www.gavi.org/support/nvs/measles-rubella/>].
5. Gavi the Vaccine Alliance. 2016-2020 Strategy indicator definitions. 2015.
6. Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance. The Vaccine Alliance progress report, 2015. 2015.
7. Anderson RM, Grenfell BT. Quantitative investigations of different vaccination policies for the control of congenital rubella syndrome (CRS) in the United Kingdom. *J Hyg (Lond)*. 1986;96(2):305-33.
8. Metcalf CJ, Lessler J, Klepac P, Cutts F, Grenfell BT. Impact of birth rate, seasonality and transmission rate on minimum levels of coverage needed for rubella vaccination. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2012;140(12):2290-301.
9. Vynnycky E, Gay NJ, Cutts FT. The predicted impact of private sector MMR vaccination on the burden of Congenital Rubella Syndrome. *Vaccine*. 2003;21(21-22):2708-19.
10. Toizumi M, Motomura H, Vo HM, Takahashi K, Pham E, Nguyen HA, et al. Mortality associated with pulmonary hypertension in congenital rubella syndrome. *Pediatrics*. 2014;134(2):e519-26.
11. Panagiotopoulos T, Georgakopoulou T. Epidemiology of rubella and congenital rubella syndrome in Greece, 1994-2003. *Euro Surveill*. 2004;9(4):17-9.
12. Saad de Owens C, Tristan de Espino R. Rubella in Panama: still a problem. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1989;8(2):110-5.
13. Global health leaders launch decade of vaccines collaboration [press release]. 2010.

14. World Health Organization. Global Vaccine Action Plan. 2011-20. Geneva; 2013.
15. UN Statistics Division UNPD. World Population Prospects. 2015.
16. Vynnycky E, Yoshida LM, Huyen DT, Trung ND, Toda K, Cuong NV, et al. Modeling the impact of rubella vaccination in Vietnam. *Hum Vaccin Immunother.* 2016;12(1):150-8.
17. Schenzle D. An age-structured model of pre- and post-vaccination measles transmission. *IMA J Math Appl Med Biol.* 1984;1(2):169-91.
18. Mossong J, Hens N, Jit M, Beutels P, Auranen K, Mikolajczyk R, et al. Social contacts and mixing patterns relevant to the spread of infectious diseases. *PLoS Med.* 2008;5(3):e74.
19. Mao B, Cheng K, Wannemuehler K, Vynnycky E, Buth S, Soeung SC, et al. Immunity to polio, measles and rubella in women of child-bearing age and estimated congenital rubella syndrome incidence, Cambodia, 2012. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2014:1-10.
20. Alleman MM, Wannemuehler KA, Hao L, Perelygina L, Icenogle JP, Vynnycky E, et al. Estimating the burden of rubella virus infection and congenital rubella syndrome through a rubella immunity assessment among pregnant women in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: Potential impact on vaccination policy. *Vaccine.* 2016;34(51):6502-11.
21. Tahita MC, Hubschen JM, Tarnagda Z, Ernest D, Charpentier E, Kremer JR, et al. Rubella seroprevalence among pregnant women in Burkina Faso. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2013;13:164.
22. Kombich JM, PC; Borus, PK Seroprevalence of Natural Rubella Antibodies among Antenatal Attendees at Moi Teaching and Referral Hospital, Eldoret, Kenya. *Journal of Immunological Techniques in Infectious Diseases.* 2012;1(1).
23. Mwambe B, Mirambo MM, Mshana SE, Massinde AN, Kidenya BR, Michael D, et al. Sero-positivity rate of rubella and associated factors among pregnant women attending antenatal care in Mwanza, Tanzania. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2014;14:95.
24. Simons EA, Reef SE, Cooper LZ, Zimmerman L, Thompson KM. Systematic Review of the Manifestations of Congenital Rubella Syndrome in Infants and Characterization of Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs). *Risk Anal.* 2016;36(7):1332-56.
25. World Bank. World Development Indicators 2017 [Available from: <https://data.worldbank.org/data-catalogue/world-development-indicators>].
26. Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance. Strategic demand forecast (SDF) version 12.0. (October 2015). Geneva: GAVI, the Vaccine Alliance; 2015.
27. WHO/IVB. Measles Data on Supplementary Immunization Activities, 2000-2015 (WHO/IVB, http://apps.who.int/immunization_monitoring/data/data_subject/en/index.html, accessed 8 Feb 2013) [Available from: http://apps.who.int/immunization_monitoring/data/data_subject/en/index.html].
28. Burton A, Monasch R, Lautenbach B, Gacic-Dobo M, Neill M, Karimov R, et al. WHO and UNICEF estimates of national infant immunization coverage: methods and processes. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2009;87(7):535-41.
29. Harvard university, Institute for Health Metrics and evaluation at the university of Washington,, Johns Hopkins university,, University of Queensland,, World Health Organization,, GBD study operations manual. Harvard university; 2009 January 20, 2009.
30. Miller E, Craddock-Watson JE, Pollock TM. Consequences of confirmed maternal rubella at successive stages of pregnancy. *Lancet.* 1982;2(8302):781-4.
31. Grillner L, Forsgren M, Barr B, Bottiger M, Danielsson L, De Verdier C. Outcome of rubella during pregnancy with special reference to the 17th-24th weeks of gestation. *Scand J Infect Dis.* 1983;15(4):321-5.
32. Hahne S, Macey J, van Binnendijk R, Kohl R, Dolman S, van der Veen Y, et al. Rubella outbreak in the Netherlands, 2004-2005: high burden of congenital infection and spread to Canada. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 2009;28(9):795-800.
33. Thompson KM, Simons EA, Badizadegan K, Reef SE, Cooper LZ. Characterization of the Risks of Adverse Outcomes Following Rubella Infection in Pregnancy. *Risk Anal.* 2014.

The impact of Measles-Rubella vaccination on the morbidity and mortality from Congenital Rubella Syndrome in 92 countries

Supplementary Material

A: Countries analysed and sources of the bootstrap datasets

Confidence intervals (CI) on the force of infection estimated from each seroprevalence dataset were generated using 1000 bootstrap-derived seroprevalence datasets, as described in (1). Briefly, for countries with multiple seroprevalence datasets, CI were defined using 1000 bootstrap-derived-seroprevalence datasets compiled using equal numbers of bootstrap-derived values from each original dataset, or proportionately to the urban and rural population size, where possible. If no datasets were available, we defined the range using all bootstrap-derived values from the same WHO region (Section B, Supplement). If the force of infection was reproduced using multiple datasets, the point estimate was calculated using contact parameters associated with the median from 1000 bootstrap samples of the pre-vaccination unweighted CRS incidence/100,000 livebirths among 15-44 year olds.

Table S.1: Summary of the countries analysed and the bootstrap datasets used to define the pre-vaccination force of infection for each country, using either the WHO regional or GBD grouping to assign datasets for countries without serological datasets from before the introduction of RCV. See Table S.2 and Table S.3 for the datasets used to make up the bootstrap datasets. See (1), (64) and Table S.4, for the best-fitting estimates of the pre-vaccination force of infection and CRS incidence for each dataset.

Country	World Bank income group, 2017	DALY (GBD 2010 disability weights)	Seroprevalence data used to generate the bootstrap samples, based on:	
			WHO regional grouping	GBD regional grouping
Afghanistan	Low income	29.2	EMRO region	Asia, South
Albania	Upper middle income	22.9	EURO region	Europe, Central
Angola	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, Central
Armenia	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Asia, Central
Azerbaijan	Upper middle income	22.9	EURO region	Asia, Central
Bangladesh	Lower middle income	27.8	Bangladesh, 2004-5(56)	Bangladesh, 2004-5(56)
Belize	Upper middle income	22.9	Caribbean	Caribbean
Benin	Low income	29.2	Benin, 1993(2)	Benin, 1993(2)
Bhutan	Lower middle income	27.8	SEARO region	Asia, South
Bolivia	Lower middle income	27.8	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Andean
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Upper middle income	22.9	EURO region	Europe, Central
Burkina Faso	Low income	29.2	Burkina Faso, 2007-8(3)	Burkina Faso, 2007-8(3)
Burundi	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Cambodia	Lower middle income	27.8	Cambodia, 2012(64)	Cambodia, 2012(64)
Cameroon	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Cape Verde	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West

Country	World Bank income group, 2017	DALY (GBD 2010 disability weights)	Seroprevalence data used to generate the bootstrap samples, based on:	
			WHO regional grouping	GBD regional grouping
Central African Republic	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, Central
Chad	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Comoros	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Congo, Democratic Republic	Low income	29.2	Democratic Republic of the Congo (Kikwit, Mikalayi, Tshikapa, Vanga), 2008-9(7)	Democratic Republic of the Congo (Kikwit, Mikalayi, Tshikapa, Vanga), 2008-9(7)
Congo, Republic of	Lower middle income	27.8	Congo, <1991(4);	Congo, <1991(4);
Cote d'Ivoire	Lower middle income	27.8	Cote d'Ivoire, 1975(5) & 1985-6(6)	Cote d'Ivoire, 1975(5) & 1985-6(6)
Cuba	Upper middle income	22.9	Caribbean	Caribbean
Djibouti	Lower middle income	27.8	EMRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Egypt	Lower middle income	27.8	EMRO region	North Africa / Middle East
El Salvador	Lower middle income	27.8	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Central
Eritrea	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Ethiopia	Low income	29.2	Ethiopia, 1981(8) & 1994(9)	Ethiopia, 1981(8) & 1994(9)
Fiji	Upper middle income	22.9	Fiji, <1973(65)	Fiji, <1973(65)
Gambia	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Georgia	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Asia, Central
Ghana	Lower middle income	27.8	Ghana, 1997(11)	Ghana, 1997(11)
Guatemala	Lower middle income	27.8	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Central
Guinea	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Guinea-Bissau	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Guyana	Upper middle income	22.9	Caribbean	Caribbean

Country	World Bank income group, 2017	DALY (GBD 2010 disability weights)	Seroprevalence data used to generate the bootstrap samples, based on:	
			WHO regional grouping	GBD regional grouping
Haiti	Low income	29.2	Haiti, 2003(32)	Haiti, 2003(32)
Honduras	Lower middle income	27.8	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Central
India	Lower middle income	27.8	India, 1968 (urban & rural Delhi)(57), 1972-3 (Chandrigarh & Lucknow)(57), 1976 (Calcutta)(58), <1987 (Delhi)(59), <1990 (Delhi)(60), 1999-2000 (urban and rural Vellore)(61)	India, 1968 (urban & rural Delhi)(57), 1972-3 (Chandrigarh & Lucknow)(57), 1976 (Calcutta)(58), <1987 (Delhi)(59), <1990 (Delhi)(60), 1999-2000 (urban and rural Vellore)(61)
Indonesia	Lower middle income	27.8	Indonesia, 2007 (S Reef, personal communication, March 2015)	Indonesia, 2007 (S Reef, personal communication, March 2015))
Iraq	Upper middle income	22.9	EMRO region	North Africa / Middle East
Kenya	Lower middle income	27.8	Kenya, 1996-9 (Kilifi)(12, 13) and 2005 (Eldoret) (14);	Kenya, 1996-9 (Kilifi)(12, 13) and 2005 (Eldoret) (14);
Kiribati	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Korea, Democratic People's Republic	Low income	29.2	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Asia Pacific, high income
Kyrgyzstan	Lower middle income	27.8	Kyrgyzstan, 2001(51)	Kyrgyzstan, 2001(51)
Lao, People's Democratic Republic	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Asia, Southeast
Lesotho	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern
Liberia	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Madagascar	Low income	29.2	Madagascar, 1990-1995 (15)	Madagascar, 1990-1995 (15)
Malawi	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Mali	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West

Country	World Bank income group, 2017	DALY (GBD 2010 disability weights)	Seroprevalence data used to generate the bootstrap samples, based on:	
			WHO regional grouping	GBD regional grouping
Mauritania	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Micronesia	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Moldova	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Europe, Eastern
Mongolia	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Asia, Central
Morocco	Lower middle income	27.8	Morocco, 1969-1970(39)	Morocco, 1969-1970(39)
Mozambique	Low income	29.2	Mozambique, 2002(16)	Mozambique, 2002(16)
Myanmar	Lower middle income	27.8	SEARO region	Asia, Southeast
Nepal	Low income	29.2	Nepal, 2008(62)	Nepal, 2008(62)
Nicaragua	Lower middle income	27.8	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Central
Niger	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Nigeria	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Pakistan	Lower middle income	27.8	Pakistan, <1997(40) & 1999-2004(41)	Pakistan, <1997(40) & 1999-2004(41)
Papua New Guinea	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Paraguay	Upper middle income	22.9	AMRO region, excluding the Caribbean	Latin America, Tropical
Philippines	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Asia, Southeast
Rwanda	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Samoa	Upper middle income	22.9	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Sao Tome e Principe	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Senegal	Low income	29.2	Senegal, 1996-2001 (20)	Senegal, 1996-2001 (20)
Sierra Leone	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West

Country	World Bank income group, 2017	DALY (GBD 2010 disability weights)	Seroprevalence data used to generate the bootstrap samples, based on:	
			WHO regional grouping	GBD regional grouping
Solomon Islands	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Somalia	Low income	29.2	EMRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Sri Lanka	Lower middle income	27.8	SEARO region	Asia, Southeast
Sudan, North	Lower middle income	27.8	EMRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Sudan, South	Low income	29.2	EMRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Swaziland	Lower middle income	27.8	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern
Syria	Lower middle income	27.8	EMRO region	North Africa/Middle East
Tajikistan	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Asia, Central
Tanzania	Low income	29.2	Tanzania (Mwanza), 2012-13(22)	Tanzania (Mwanza), 2012-13(22)
Timor-Leste	Lower middle income	27.8	SEARO region	Asia, Southeast
Togo	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, West
Tonga	Upper middle income	22.9	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Turkmenistan	Upper middle income	22.9	EURO region	Asia, Central
Uganda	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, East
Ukraine	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Europe, Eastern
Uzbekistan	Lower middle income	27.8	EURO region	Asia, Central
Vanuatu	Lower middle income	27.8	WPRO region, excluding China & Australia	Oceania
Vietnam	Lower middle income	27.8	Central Vietnam, 2009-2010(70)	Central Vietnam, 2009-2010(70)
Yemen	Lower middle income	27.8	Yemen, 1985(45) & 2002-3(46)	Yemen, 1985(45) & 2002-3(46)
Zambia	Lower middle income	27.8	Zambia, 1979-80 (23)	Zambia, 1979-80 (23)
Zimbabwe	Low income	29.2	AFRO region	Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern

Table S.2: Datasets used to set up bootstrap files for the WHO Regions, updated from (1) with the additional datasets identified since then.

Region	Datasets
African (AFRO)	Benin, 1993(2); Burkina Faso, 2007-8(3); Congo, <1991(4); Cote d'Ivoire, 1975(5) & 1985-6(6); Democratic Republic of the Congo (Kikwit, Mikalayi, Tshikapa, Vanga), 2008-9(7); Ethiopia, 1981(8) & 1994(9); Gabon, 1985(10); Ghana, 1997(11); Kenya, 1996-9 (Kilifi)(12, 13) and 2005 (Eldoret) (14); Madagascar, 1990-1995(15); Mozambique, 2002(16); Nigeria, <1978(17), <2002(18) & 2007-8(19); Senegal, 1996-2001(20); South Africa, 2003(21); Tanzania (Mwanza), 2012-13(22); Zambia, 1979-80(23),
American, excluding Caribbean (AMRO, excl Caribbean)	Argentina, 1967-8 (urban & rural)(24), & 1981 (Mar de Plata)(25); Brazil, 1967-8(24), 1987(26) & 1996-8(27); Canada, <1967(28); Chile 1967-8 (Santiago & rural)(24); Mexico, 1987-88(29) & 1989(30); Panama 1967-8 (Panama City & rural)(24); Peru, 1967-8 (Lima & rural)(24) & 2003(31); Uruguay, 1967-7 (urban and rural)(24); USA <1967 (Atlanta & Houston)(28).
Caribbean	Haiti, 2003(32); Jamaica, 1967-8 (Kingston & rural)(24), Trinidad 1966-7(33), 1967-8 (Port au Spain & rural)(24)
Eastern Mediterranean (EMRO)	Bahrain, 1981(34); Iran, 1993-95(35); Jordan, 1982-3(36); Kuwait, <1978(37); Lebanon, 1980-1(38); Morocco, 1969-70(39); Pakistan, <1997(40) & 1999-2004(41); Saudi Arabia, 1989(42) & 1992-93(43), Tunisia, <1970(44); Yemen, 1985(45) & 2002-03(46)
European (EURO)	Czech Republic, <1967(28); Denmark, <1967(28) & 1983(47); East Germany, 1990(48); England, <1967(28) & 1986-7(49); Finland, 1979(50); France, <1967(28); Kyrgyzstan, 2001(51); Romania, <1989(52); Turkey, 1998(53), 2003-04(54) & 2005(55).
South East Asian (SEARO)	Bangladesh, 2004-5(56); India, 1968 (urban & rural Delhi)(57), 1972-3 (Chandrigarh & Lucknow)(57), 1976 (Calcutta)(58), <1987 (Delhi)(59), <1990 (Delhi)(60), 1999-2000 (urban and rural Vellore)(61); Indonesia, 2007 (<i>S Reef, personal communication, March 2015</i>); Nepal, 2008(62), Thailand, 1978(63)
Western Pacific, excluding China & Australia (WPRO, excluding China & Australia)	Cambodia, 2012(64); Fiji, <1973(65); Japan, <1967 (Sapporo & Ohtsu)(28); Malaysia, <1972(66); Singapore, 1975-79(67), Taiwan, 1984(68) & 1984-6(69); Central Vietnam, 2009-2010(70)

Table S.3: Datasets used to set up bootstrap files for the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) regions, updated from (1) with the additional datasets identified since then.

GBD Region	Setting from which dataset(s) were collected
Sub-Saharan Africa, Central	Congo, <1991(4); Democratic Republic of the Congo (Kikwit, Mikalayi, Tshikapa, Vanga), 2008-9(7); Gabon, 1985(10);
Sub-Saharan Africa, East	Ethiopia, 1981(8) & 1994(9); Kenya, 1996-9 (Kilifi)(12, 13) and 2005 (Eldoret) (14); Madagascar, 1990-1995(15); Mozambique, 2002(16); Tanzania (Mwanza), 2012-13(22); Zambia, 1979-80(23)
Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern	South Africa, 2003(21)
Sub-Saharan Africa, West	Benin, 1993(2); Burkina Faso, 2007-8(3); Cote d'Ivoire, 1975(5) & 1985-6(6); Ghana, 1997(11); Nigeria, <1978(17), <2002(18) & 2007-8(19); Senegal, 1996-2001(20)
Caribbean	Haiti, 2003(32), Jamaica, 1967-8 (Kingston & rural)(24), Trinidad 1966-7(33), 1967-8 (Port au Spain & rural)(24)
Latin America, Andean	Peru, 1967-8 (Lima & rural)(24) & 2003(31)
Latin America, Central	Mexico, 1987-88(29) & 1989(30), Panama 1967-8 (Panama City & rural)(24)
Latin America, Southern	Argentina, 1967-8 (urban & rural)(24), & 1981 (Mar de Plata)(25), Chile (Santiago & rural), 1967-8(24); Uruguay, 1967-7 (urban and rural)(24)
Latin America, Tropical	Brazil, 1967-8(24), 1987(26) & 1996-8(27)
North America, High Income	Canada, <1967(28), USA <1967 (Atlanta & Houston)(28)
Asia Central	Kyrgyzstan, 2001(51)
North Africa / Middle East	Bahrain, 1981(34); Iran, 1993-95(35); Jordan, 1982-3(36); Kuwait, <1978(37); Lebanon, 1980-81(38); Morocco, 1969-1970(39); Saudi Arabia, 1989(42) & 1992-93(43) Tunisia, <1970(44); Turkey, 1998(71), 2003-4(54) & 2005(55); Yemen, 1985(45) & 2002-03(46)
Europe, Eastern	Taken to be identical to those for Europe Central (Romania, <1989(52); Czech Republic, <1967(28)), as no datasets were available from the countries in this grouping
Europe Central	Romania, <1989(52); Czech Republic, <1967(28)
Europe, Western	Denmark, <1967(28) & 1983(47); England, 1986-87(49) & <1967(28); East Germany, 1990(48); Finland, 1979(50); France, <1967(28).
Asia East	China, 1979-80(72); Taiwan, 1984(68) & 1984-6(69)
Asia, South	Bangladesh 2004-5(56); India, 1968 (urban & rural Delhi)(57), 1972-3 (Chandrigarh & Lucknow)(57), 1976 (Calcutta)(58), <1987 (Delhi)(59), <1990 (Delhi)(60), 1999-2000 (urban & rural Vellore)(61); Nepal, 2008(62), Pakistan, <1997(40) & 1999-2004(41)
Asia Pacific, High Income	Japan, <1967 (Ohtsu & Sapporo)(28); Singapore, 1975-9(67)
Asia, Southeast	Cambodia, 2012(64); Indonesia, 2007 (<i>S. Reef, personal communication, March 2015</i>); Malaysia, <1972(66); Thailand, 1978(63); Central Vietnam, 2009-2010(70)
Australasia	Australia, <1967(28)
Oceania	Fiji, <1973(65)

B. Analyses of additional seroprevalence datasets

The methods used to estimate the force of infection for the seroprevalence datasets identified since the previous related analyses are described in (1). In brief, four catalytic models (A, B, C, D) were fitted to the age-stratified seroprevalence data to estimate the average annual “force of infection” among <13 and ≥ 13 year olds (i.e. the rate at which susceptible <13 and ≥ 13 year olds are infected), and the sensitivity of the antibody assay. The criteria for selecting the force of infection for further use are described in (1), with the added criterion for countries for which the sensitivity of the assay was known to be high that model B was selected in preference to model A if all the other criteria were satisfied and the estimated sensitivity of the assay was 100% for model A, and the lower limit of the 95% confidence interval was implausibly low (less than 95%)(7). Table S.4 summarises the best-fitting values for the force of infection for the additional datasets for which the analyses have not yet been published.

Accepted Manuscript

Table S.4: Summary of the additional datasets that were identified since the previous systematic review, best-fitting values for the force of infection and (where appropriate) the sensitivity of the antibody assay, and the CRS incidence per 100,000 live births for each catalytic model before the introduction of RCV. The values in parentheses reflect the 95% confidence intervals, obtained by bootstrapping. To facilitate comparisons, the CRS incidence is not weighted by the number of live births. Analyses for the data from Cambodia are published elsewhere and for brevity are not included here(64).

Country, year of study	Study population	Sample size (no. of age groups)	Lab test (cut-off)	Catalytic model	Force of infection (/1000/year)		Sensitivity (%)	CRS/ 100,000 live births	Loglikelihood deviance (deg of freedom)	Selected model
					<13 yr olds	≥13 yr olds				
Burkina Faso, 2007-8(3)	Pregnant F	341 (4)	ELISA	A	0 (0,915)	828 (0,1000)	96 (94,100)	116 (0,220)	2(1)	B
				B	242 (135,282)	3 (0,128)	-	3 (0,97)	2(2)	
				C	235 (139,990)	235 (139,990)	96 (93,99)	22 (0,89)	2(2)	
				D	126 (108,154)	126 (108,154)	-	106 (71,136)	10(3)	
Democratic Republic of the Congo (Kikwit), 2008-9(7)	Pregnant F	254 (5)	ELISA, ≥10IU	A	145 (103,632)	27 (0,75)	100 (89,100)	57 (0,135)	5(2)	B
				B	145 (105,189)	27 (0,69)	-	57 (0,135)	5(3)	
				C	999 (83,999)	999 (83,999)	89 (85,100)	0 (0,185)	6(3)	
				D	86 (74,103)	86 (74,103)	-	179 (145,207)	10(4)	
Democratic Republic of the Congo (Mikalayi), 2008-9(7)	Pregnant F	206 (5)	ELISA, ≥10IU	A	0 (0,466)	557 (0,992)	82 (77,100)	208 (0,331)	0(2)	B
				B	103 (66,138)	23 (0,68)	-	87 (0,219)	1(3)	
				C	125 (67,969)	125 (67,969)	84 (76,99)	108 (0,220)	1(3)	
				D	63 (54,77)	63 (54,77)	-	229 (198,248)	6(4)	
Democratic Republic of the Congo (Tshikapa), 2008-9 (7)	Pregnant F	182 (5)	ELISA, ≥10IU	A	128 (75,913)	20 (0,248)	100 (82,100)	58 (0,187)	4(2)	B
				B	128 (84,169)	20 (0,73)	-	58 (0,180)	4(3)	
				C	168 (77,999)	168 (77,999)	86 (80,100)	58 (0,200)	4(3)	
				D	76 (62,94)	76 (62,94)	-	202 (163,232)	9(4)	

Table S.4 continued

Country, year of study	Study population	Sample size (no. of age groups)	Lab test (cut-off)	Catalytic model	Force of infection (/1000/year)		Sensitivity (%)	CRS/ 100,000 live births	Loglikelihood deviance (deg of freedom)	Selected model
					<13 yr olds	≥13 yr olds				
Democratic Republic of the Congo (Vanga), 2008-9 (7),	Pregnant F	255 (5)	ELISA, ≥10IU	A	132 (90,252)	32 (0,75)	100 (91,100)	75 (0,165)	5(2)	B
				B	132 (91,178)	32 (0,72)	-	75 (0,164)	5(3)	
				C	968 (77,999)	968 (77,999)	87 (84,100)	0 (0,200)	7(3)	
				D	83 (71,97)	83 (71,97)	-	187 (157,211)	9(4)	
Indonesia, 2007 (S Reef, personal communication, March 2015)	General population	11320 (10)	?	A	135 (119,148)	62 (32,97)	93 (91,97)	93 (68,118)	3(7)	B
				B	127 (120,135)	22 (18,26)	-	64 (51,77)	12(8)	
				C	115 (106,126)	115 (106,126)	91 (90,92)	124 (106,140)	12(8)	
				D	61 (60,63)	61 (60,63)	-	234 (230,237)	462(9)	
Kenya (Eldoret), 2005(14)	Pregnant F	437(4)	EIA, ≥10IU	A	140 (0,219)	147 (24,875)	97 (93,100)	86 (24,239)	0(1)	B
				B	154 (91,223)	66 (1,152)	-	75 (1,163)	1(2)	
				C	142 (107,950)	142 (107,950)	97 (93,100)	85 (0,137)	0(2)	
				D	113 (100,131)	113 (100,131)	-	127 (99,151)	2(3)	
Tanzania (Mwanza), 2012-13(22)	Pregnant F	342 (3)	EIA, ≥10IU	A	0 (0,226)	544 (20,760)	96 (93,100)	214 (19,280)	0(0)	B
				B	142 (74,216)	79 (6,190)	-	88 (9,181)	1(1)	
				C	135 (105,265)	135 (105,265)	98 (93,100)	93 (14,141)	0(1)	
				D	115 (99,137)	115 (99,137)	-	123 (91,153)	1(2)	

C. Expression for the number of CRS cases.

Country-specific numbers of CRS cases in year y during 2001-2080 were calculated by summing the number of CRS cases born each day to women aged 15-44 years, as follows:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{365} \sum_{a=15}^{44} \frac{0.65s_w(a, t)f(a, y)N_w(a, y)(1 - e^{-112\lambda_o(t)})}{365}$$

$s_w(a, t)$ is the modelled proportion of women aged a on day t that are susceptible, $f(a, y)$ and $N_w(a, y)$ are the fertility rate and population size respectively among women aged a in year y in the UN population data, and $\lambda_o(t)$ is the daily model-generated force of infection among women on day t .

Accepted Manuscript

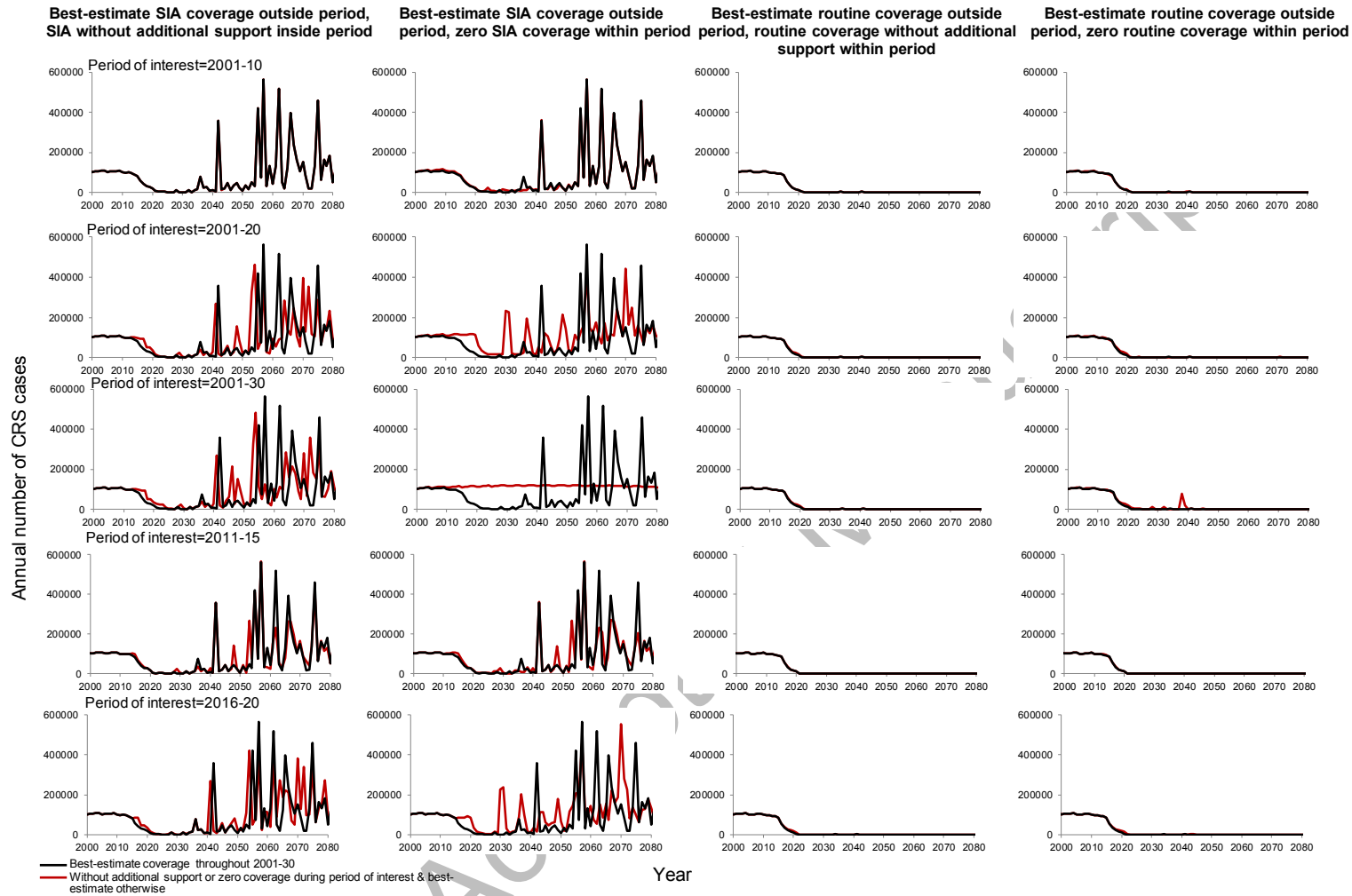


Figure S.1: Predicted annual number of CRS cases since 2000, if SIA or routine RCV vaccination coverage is at best-estimate level throughout 2001-30 (black line) except for the stated vaccination period of interest, when it is zero or at levels likely to be seen without additional support (red line) (“best-estimate outside, reduced inside”).

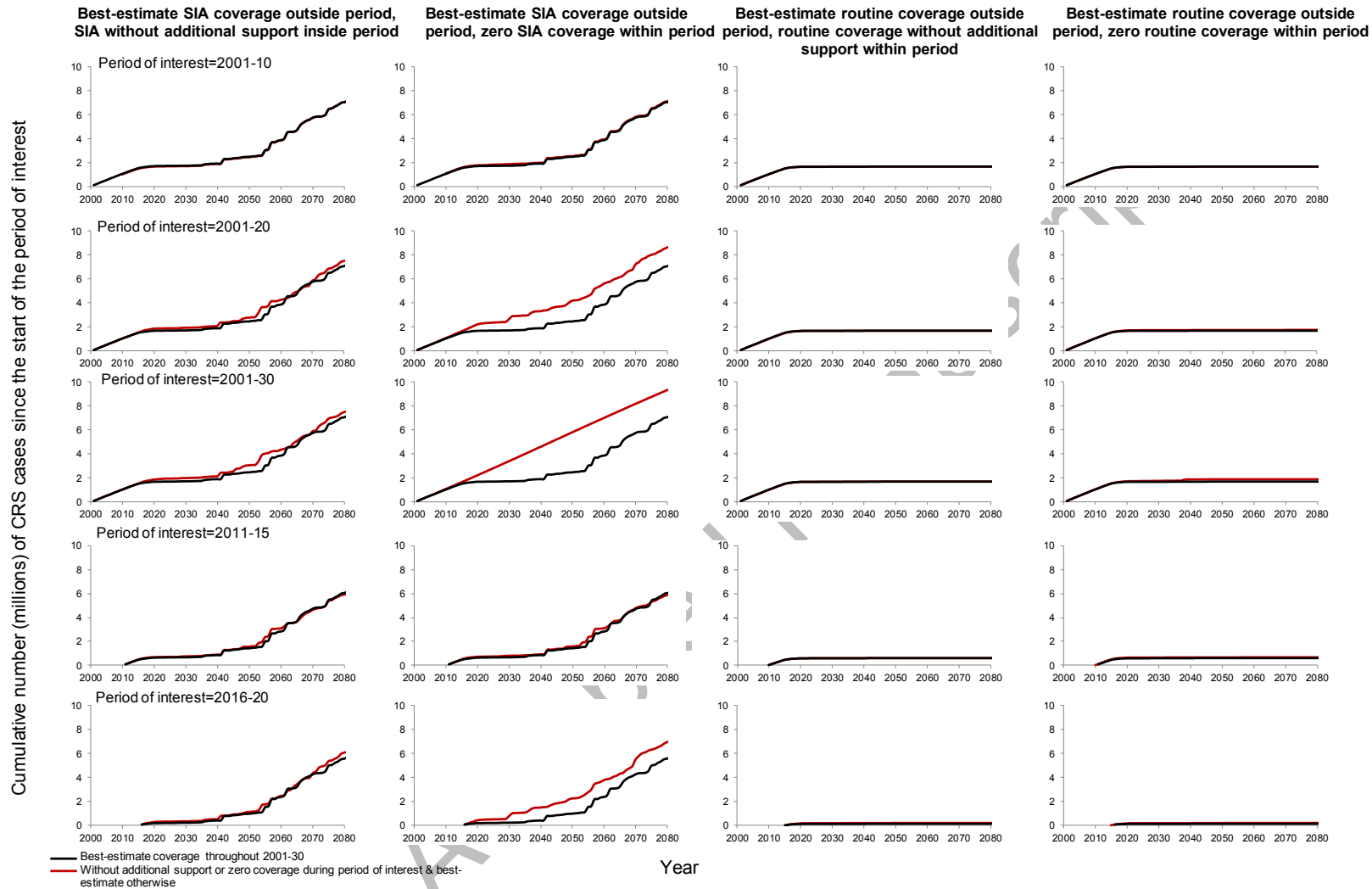


Figure S.2: Predicted cumulative number of CRS cases since the start of each period of interest, if SIA or routine RCV vaccination coverage is at best-estimate level throughout 2001-30 (black line) except for the stated vaccination period of interest, when it is at zero or at levels likely to be seen without additional support (red line) (“best-estimate outside, reduced inside”).

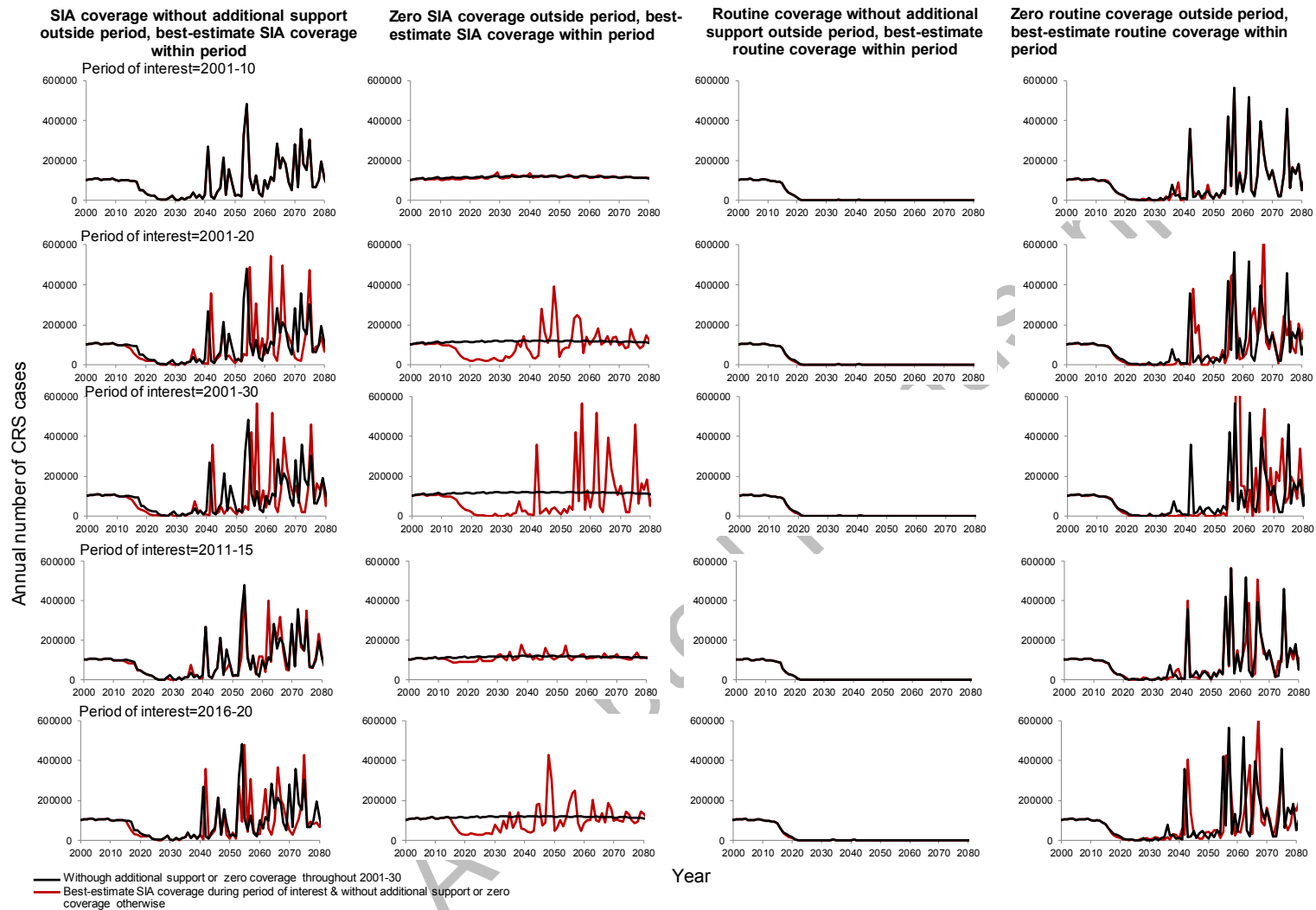


Figure S.3: Predicted annual number of CRS cases since 2000, if SIA or RCV vaccination coverage are either at zero or at levels likely to be seen without additional support throughout 2001-30 (black line), except for the stated vaccination period of interest (red line), when they are at best-estimate levels (“reduced outside, best-estimate within”).

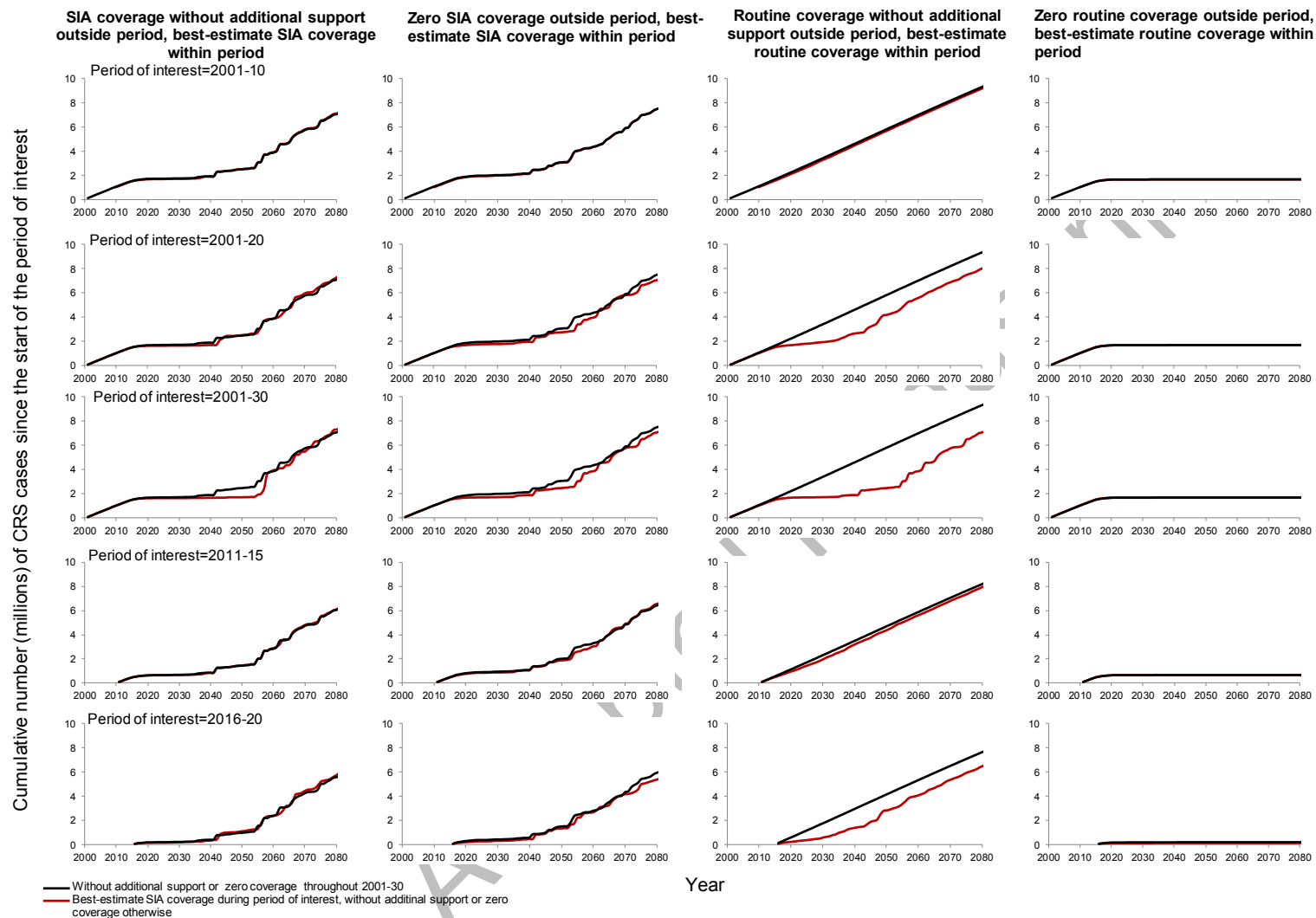


Figure S.4: Predicted cumulative number of CRS cases since the start of each vaccination period of interest, if SIA or RCV vaccination coverage are either at zero or at levels likely to be seen without additional support throughout 2001-30 (black line), except for the stated period of interest, when they are at best-estimate levels (red line) (“reduced outside, best-estimate within”).

References

1. Vynnycky E, Adams EJ, Cutts FT, Reef SE, Navar AM, Simons E, et al. Using Seroprevalence and Immunisation Coverage Data to Estimate the Global Burden of Congenital Rubella Syndrome, 1996-2010: A Systematic Review. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(3):e0149160.
2. Rodier MH, Berthonneau J, Bourgoin A, Giraudeau G, Agius G, Burucoa C, et al. Seroprevalences of Toxoplasma, malaria, rubella, cytomegalovirus, HIV and treponemal infections among pregnant women in Cotonou, Republic of Benin. *Acta tropica*. 1995;59(4):271-7.
3. Tahita MC, Hubschen JM, Tarnagda Z, Ernest D, Charpentier E, Kremer JR, et al. Rubella seroprevalence among pregnant women in Burkina Faso. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2013;13:164.
4. Yala F, Biendo M, Odongo I, Kounkou R. [Virological and bacteriological study of materno-fetal infections in Brazzaville]. *Bulletin de la Societe de pathologie exotique* (1990). 1991;84(5 Pt 5):627-34.
5. Vrinat M, Dutertre J, Helies H, Ropero P. [A serological survey of rubella among pregnant women in Abidjan (author's transl)]. *Medecine tropicale : revue du Corps de sante colonial*. 1978;38(1):53-7.
6. Ouattara SA, Brettes JP, Kodjo R, Penali K, Gershy-Damet G, Sangare A, et al. [Seroepidemiology of rubella in the Ivory Coast. Geographic distribution]. *Bulletin de la Societe de pathologie exotique et de ses filiales*. 1987;80(4):655-64.
7. Alleman MM, Wannemuehler KA, Hao L, Perelygina L, Icenogle JP, Vynnycky E, et al. Estimating the burden of rubella virus infection and congenital rubella syndrome through a rubella immunity assessment among pregnant women in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: Potential impact on vaccination policy. *Vaccine*. 2016;34(51):6502-11.
8. Sandow D, Okubagzhi GS, Arnold U, Denkmann N. Seroepidemiological study in rubella in pregnant women in Gondar Region, northern Ethiopia. *Ethiopian medical journal*. 1982;20(4):173-8.
9. Cutts FT, Abebe A, Messele T, Dejene A, Enquselassie F, Nigatu W, et al. Seroepidemiology of rubella in the urban population of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2000;124(3):467-79.
10. Mefane C. Rubella antibodies in 1737 girls and women in Gabon. *Afrique Medicale*. 1985;24(226):29-32.
11. Lawn JE, Reef S, Baffoe-Bonnie B, Adadevoh S, Caul EO, Griffin GE. Unseen blindness, unheard deafness, and unrecorded death and disability: congenital rubella in Kumasi, Ghana. *American journal of public health*. 2000;90(10):1555-61.
12. Cumberland P, Shulman CE, Maple PA, Bulmer JN, Dorman EK, Kawuondo K, et al. Maternal HIV infection and placental malaria reduce transplacental antibody transfer and tetanus antibody levels in newborns in Kenya. *J Infect Dis*. 2007;196(4):550-7.
13. Scott S, Cumberland P, Shulman CE, Cousens S, Cohen BJ, Brown DW, et al. Neonatal measles immunity in rural Kenya: the influence of HIV and placental malaria infections on placental transfer of antibodies and levels of antibody in maternal and cord serum samples. *J Infect Dis*. 2005;191(11):1854-60.
14. Kombich JM, PC; Borus, PK Seroprevalence of Natural Rubella Antibodies among Antenatal Attendees at Moi Teaching and Referral Hospital, Eldoret, Kenya. *Journal of Immunological Techniques in Infectious Diseases*. 2012;1(1).
15. Dromigny JA, Pecarrere JL, Ollivier G, Leroy F, Zeller HG. [Seroprevalence of rubella in pregnant women at Antananarivo. Study of 853 sera at the Pasteur Institute in Madagascar]. *Archives de l'Institut Pasteur de Madagascar*. 1996;63(1-2):53-5.
16. Barreto J, Sacramento I, Robertson SE, Langa J, de Gourville E, Wolfson L, et al. Antenatal rubella serosurvey in Maputo, Mozambique. *Trop Med Int Health*. 2006;11(4):559-64.

17. Odelola HA. Rubella haemagglutination inhibiting antibodies in females of child-bearing age in western Nigeria. *Journal of hygiene, epidemiology, microbiology, and immunology*. 1978;22(2):190-4.
18. Bukbuk DN, el Nafaty AU, Obed JY. Prevalence of rubella-specific IgG antibody in non-immunized pregnant women in Maiduguri, north eastern Nigeria. *Central European journal of public health*. 2002;10(1-2):21-3.
19. Amina MD, Oladapo S, Habib S, Adebola O, Bimbo K, Daniel A. Prevalence of rubella IgG antibodies among pregnant women in Zaria, Nigeria. *International Health*. 2010;2(2):156-9.
20. Dromigny JA, Nabeth P, Perrier Gros Claude JD. Evaluation of the seroprevalence of rubella in the region of Dakar (Senegal). *Trop Med Int Health*. 2003;8(8):740-3.
21. Corcoran C, Hardie DR. Seroprevalence of rubella antibodies among antenatal patients in the Western Cape. *South African medical journal = Suid-Afrikaanse tydskrif vir geneeskunde*. 2005;95(9):688-90.
22. Mwambe B, Mirambo MM, Mshana SE, Massinde AN, Kidenya BR, Michael D, et al. Sero-positivity rate of rubella and associated factors among pregnant women attending antenatal care in Mwanza, Tanzania. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2014;14:95.
23. Watts T. Rubella antibodies in a sample of Lusaka mothers. *Medical journal of Zambia*. 1983;17(4):109-10.
24. Dowdle WR, Ferrera W, De Salles Gomes LF, King D, Kourany M, Madalengoitia J, et al. WHO collaborative study on the sero-epidemiology of rubella in Caribbean and Middle and South American populations in 1968. *Bull World Health Organ*. 1970;42(3):419-22.
25. Pereira F, Uez O. Rubella antibodies in female applicants for premarital health certificates in Mar del Plata, Argentina. *Bull Pan Am Health Organ*. 1986;20(2):179-85.
26. Souza VA, Moraes JC, Sumita LM, Camargo MC, Fink MC, Hidalgo NT, et al. Prevalence of rubella antibodies in a non-immunized urban population, Sao Paulo, Brazil. The Division of Immunization, CVE. *Revista do Instituto de Medicina Tropical de Sao Paulo*. 1994;36(4):373-6.
27. Reiche EM, Morimoto HK, Farias GN, Hisatsugu KR, Geller L, Gomes AC, et al. [Prevalence of American trypanosomiasis, syphilis, toxoplasmosis, rubella, hepatitis B, hepatitis C, human immunodeficiency virus infection, assayed through serological tests among pregnant patients, from 1996 to 1998, at the Regional University Hospital Norte do Parana]. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop*. 2000;33(6):519-27.
28. Rawls WE, Melnick JL, Bradstreet CM, Bailey M, Ferris AA, Lehmann NI, et al. WHO collaborative study on the sero-epidemiology of rubella. *Bull World Health Organ*. 1967;37(1):79-88.
29. Gutierrez Trujillo G, Munoz O, Tapia Conyer R, Bustamante Calvillo ME, Alvarez y Munoz MT, Guiscafre Gallardo JP, et al. [The seroepidemiology of rubella in Mexican women. A national probability survey]. *Salud publica de Mexico*. 1990;32(6):623-31.
30. Yamamoto L, Mejia E, Lopez RM, Gallardo E, Gomez B. Susceptibility to rubella infection in females at high risk. Immune protection associated to population density. *Tropical and geographical medicine*. 1995;47(6):235-8.
31. Suarez-Ognio L, Adrianzen A, Ortiz A, Martinez C, Whittembury A, Cabezudo E, et al. A rubella serosurvey in postpartum women in the three regions of Peru. *Rev Panam Salud Publica*. 2007;22(2):110-7.
32. Desinor OY, Anselme RJ, Laender F, Saint-Louis C, Bien-Aime JE. Seroprevalence of antibodies against rubella virus in pregnant women in Haiti. *Rev Panam Salud Publica*. 2004;15(3):147-50.
33. Pitts OM, Ravenel JM, Finklea JF. Rubella immunity in Trinidad. *American journal of epidemiology*. 1969;89(3):271-6.
34. Dutta SR, Atrash HK, Mathew L, Mathew PP, Mahmood RA. Seroepidemiology of rubella in Bahrain. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1985;14(4):618-23.
35. Modarres S, Modarres S, Oskoi NN. The immunity of children and adult females to rubella virus infection in Tehran. *Iranian journal of medical sciences*. 1996;21:69-73.

36. El-Khateeb MS, Tarawneh MS, Hijazi S, Kahwaji L. Seroimmunity to rubella virus in Jordanians. *Public Health*. 1983;97(4):204-7.
37. Hathout H, Al-Nakib W, Lilley H, Abo-Ahmed HS, Nosseir AF. Seroepidemiology of rubella in Kuwait: an alternative vaccination policy. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1978;7(1):49-53.
38. Bedrossian NK, Matossian R. Is there a rubella problem in Lebanon? *Lebanese Medical Journal*. 1985;35(1):31-8.
39. Nejmi S. [Immunologic survey of rubella in Moroccan women in the Rabat region (study of antibodies inhibiting hemagglutination in 548 serums)]. *Maroc medical*. 1972;52(559):420-5.
40. Iqbal A, Bokhari S. Occurrence of rubella antibody IgG in the general population. *Mother and Child*. 1997;35(1):17-22.
41. Ahmed R, Hashmi K, Ullah SE, Khanum T, Rafia A. Study of Prevalence of Immune Status in Adult Females For Rubella Virus Infection. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences*. 2006;9(5):816.
42. Hossain A. Seroepidemiology of rubella in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of tropical pediatrics*. 1989;35(4):169-70.
43. Saeed A, Abu-Shagra S, Al-Rasheed R. Congenital Rubella Syndrome - revisited (letter). *Saudi Med J*. 1993;14(25-26).
44. Nabli B. [Seroepidemiology of rubella in Tunisia]. *Bull World Health Organ*. 1970;42(6):891-6.
45. Strauss J, Dobahi SS, Danes L, Kopecky K, Svandova E. Serological survey of rubella in Yemen in 1985. *Journal of hygiene, epidemiology, microbiology, and immunology*. 1989;33(2):163-7.
46. Sallam TA, Al-Jaufy AY, Al-Shaibany KS, Ghauth AB, Best JM. Prevalence of antibodies to measles and rubella in Sana'a, Yemen. *Vaccine*. 2006;24(37-39):6304-8.
47. Glikmann G, Petersen I, Mordhorst CH. Prevalence of IgG-antibodies to mumps and measles virus in non-vaccinated children. *Dan Med Bull*. 1988;35(2):185-7.
48. Edmunds WJ, Gay NJ, Kretzschmar M, Pebody RG, Wachmann H. The pre-vaccination epidemiology of measles, mumps and rubella in Europe: implications for modelling studies. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2000;125(3):635-50.
49. Morgan-Capner P, Wright J, Miller CL, Miller E. Surveillance of antibody to measles, mumps, and rubella by age. *BMJ*. 1988;297(6651):770-2.
50. Ukkonen P. Rubella immunity and morbidity: impact of different vaccination programs in Finland 1979-1992. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 1996;28(1):31-5.
51. Malakmadze N, Zimmerman LA, Uzicanin A, Shteinke L, Caceres VM, Kasymbekova K, et al. Development of a rubella vaccination strategy: contribution of a rubella susceptibility study of women of childbearing age in Kyrgyzstan, 2001. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. 2004;38(12):1780-3.
52. Dumitrescu R, Mateescu M, Gaicu N, Comanescu D. Evaluation of the anti-rubella immunity levels on a lot of 5,000 sera from women at procreative age, tested by HAI, in Romania. *Archives roumaines de pathologie experimentales et de microbiologie*. 1989;48(3):253-63.
53. Aksakal FN, Maral I, Cirak MY, Aygun R. Rubella seroprevalence among women of childbearing age residing in a rural region: is there a need for rubella vaccination in Turkey? *Jpn J Infect Dis*. 2007;60(4):157-60.
54. Pehlivan E, Karaoglu L, Ozen M, Gunes G, Tekerekoglu MS, Genc MF, et al. Rubella seroprevalence in an unvaccinated pregnant population in Malatya, Turkey. *Public Health*. 2007;121(6):462-8.
55. Sasmaz T, Kurt AO, Ozturk C, Bugdayci R, Oner S. Rubella seroprevalence in women in the reproductive period, Mersin, Turkey. *Vaccine*. 2007;25(5):912-7.
56. Nessa A, Islam MN, Tabassum S, Munshi SU, Ahmed M, Karim R. Seroprevalence of rubella among urban and rural Bangladeshi women emphasises the need for rubella vaccination of pre-pubertal girls. *Indian journal of medical microbiology*. 2008;26(1):94-5.
57. Seth P, Manjunath N, Balaya S. Rubella infection: the Indian scene. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1985;7 Suppl 1:S64-7.

58. Chakravarty MS, Gupta B, Das BC, Mukherjee MK, Mitra AC, Sarkar JK. Seroepidemiological study of rubella in Calcutta. *The Indian journal of medical research.* 1976;64(1):87-92.
59. Khare S, Banerjee K, Padubidri V, Rai A, Kumari S, Kumari S. Lowered immunity status of rubella virus infection in pregnant women. *The Journal of communicable diseases.* 1987;19(4):391-5.
60. Khare S, Gupta HL, Banerjee K, Kumari S, Kumari S, Gupta HL. Seroimmunity to rubella virus infection in young adult females in Delhi. *The Journal of communicable diseases.* 1990;22(4):279-80.
61. Brown DWJ, Cutts FT, Joseph A. An evaluation of complementary epidemiological methods in a defined population in Southern India for estimating the burden of Congenital Rubella Syndrome. 2004.
62. Upreti SR, Thapa K, Pradhan YV, Shakya G, Sapkota YD, Anand A, et al. Developing rubella vaccination policy in Nepal--results from rubella surveillance and seroprevalence and congenital rubella syndrome studies. *J Infect Dis.* 2011;204 Suppl 1:S433-8.
63. Desudchit P, Chatyanonda K, Bhamornsathit S. Rubella antibody among Thai women of childbearing age. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health.* 1978;9(3):312-6.
64. Mao B, Chheng K, Wannemuehler K, Vynnycky E, Buth S, Soeung SC, et al. Immunity to polio, measles and rubella in women of child-bearing age and estimated congenital rubella syndrome incidence, Cambodia, 2012. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2014:1-10.
65. Macnamara FN, Mitchell R, Miles JA. A study of immunity to rubella in villages in the Fiji islands using the haemagglutination inhibition test. *J Hyg (Lond).* 1973;71(4):825-31.
66. Lam SK. The seroepidemiology of rubella in Kuala Lumpur, West Malaysia. *Bull World Health Organ.* 1972;47(1):127-9.
67. Doraisingam S, Goh KT. The rubella immunity of women of child-bearing age in Singapore. *Annals of the Academy of Medicine, Singapore.* 1981;10(2):238-41.
68. Black FL. Measles active and passive immunity in a worldwide perspective. *Prog Med Virol.* 1989;36:1-33.
69. Yuan CF, Ng HT. Seroepidemiologic study of rubella in Taiwan's female population. *American journal of public health.* 1988;78(10):1366-7.
70. Miyakawa M, Yoshino H, Yoshida LM, Vynnycky E, Motomura H, Tho le H, et al. Seroprevalence of rubella in the cord blood of pregnant women and congenital rubella incidence in Nha Trang, Vietnam. *Vaccine.* 2014;32(10):1192-8.
71. Aksit S, Timocin A, Turpculu A. Rubella immunity in pregnant Turkish women. *International journal of gynaecology and obstetrics: the official organ of the International Federation of Gynaecology and Obstetrics.* 1999;66(1):33-4.
72. Wannian S. Rubella in the People's Republic of China. *Reviews of Infectious Diseases.* 1985;7(Supp 1):S72.

Table 1: Summary of the basecase and ranges of the parameters used in the model.

	Base-case value	Values used in sensitivity analyses	Basis
Pre-vaccination force of infection (used to calculate contact parameters)	Based on pre-vaccination seroprevalence data from the country (if available) or from the same WHO region otherwise.	1000 bootstrap-derived values	See (1).
Vaccine efficacy	95%	85% to 99%, sampled from the truncated Beta distribution with parameters $\alpha=33$ and $\beta=2$.	Plausible values
CRS-related mortality rate	30%	Sampled from the uniform distribution in the range 10-50%.	3 studies in Vietnam, Greece and Panama in which the 95% confidence intervals were 20-51%, 12-50% and 15-40% respectively (10-12).
Vaccination coverage	From historical projections(26)	10% higher or lower each year than historical projections.	Plausible
Risk of a child being born with CRS if the mother is infected during the first 16 weeks of pregnancy	65%	Sampled from the Gamma distribution with shape and scale parameters 37 and 56 respectively.	Lead to a median and 95% range of 65% and 47-88% respectively consistent with those from several studies(30-32) which, as found in a recent review(33) were likely to have been more reliable than those in other studies.

Table 2: Estimates of the average number of CRS deaths and DALYs prevented through SIAs, with or without routine RCV vaccination carried out during 2001-10, 2001-20, 2001-30, 2011-15 and 2016-20 using different statistics for the number of cases among mothers affected by vaccination during a given period. See the main text for a description of the statistics.

Comparison	Statistic	Deaths averted					DALYs averted				
		2001-10	2001-20	2001-30	2011-15	2016-20	2001-10	2001-20	2001-30	2011-15	2016-20
1. Best-estimate SIA alone vs SIA without additional support	Base-case	15	74728	130701	40772	39523	1362	7139512	12509331	3851097	3798699
	A.	19	70721	116217	33491	40098	1733	6725936	11087188	3161694	3837194
	B.	94	63490	189638	87951	55946	8669	5816900	18261846	8387707	5257221
	C	26	-45299	108614	6554	-27674	2427	-4285580	10626905	467943	-2595230
2. Best-estimate SIA alone vs no vaccination	Base-case	29223	430497	851435	53655	328790	2584411	40043759	79877605	5040269	30653439
	A.	26920	375495	805343	45893	273475	2382642	34891178	75501986	4306514	25502913
	B.	22381	436325	779153	94624	322712	1987139	40262952	72874068	9001766	29761100
	C	22527	351463	649738	60410	256315	2000410	32358531	60782296	5455182	23645429
3. Best-estimate routine and SIA vs best estimate SIA and routine vaccination without additional support	Base-case	0	8837	8724	1167	9358	0	825997	814591	108333	873833
	A.	0	8905	8994	1136	9383	0	832654	840880	105423	876527
	B.	0	8809	8704	1167	9330	0	823264	812602	108333	871100
	C	0	8806	8704	1167	9327	0	823057	812602	108333	870893
4. Best-estimate routine vaccination and SIA vs best-estimate SIA and no routine vaccination	Base-case	3984	18498	57912	4107	11946	359440	1705313	4957446	367880	1107205
	A.	3813	18236	52741	3761	11782	344760	1682343	4542776	339174	1093868
	B.	4488	19373	58198	4700	12861	405581	1785642	4982807	421517	1187713
	C	4570	19095	58198	4686	12507	413122	1759933	4982816	420312	1155045

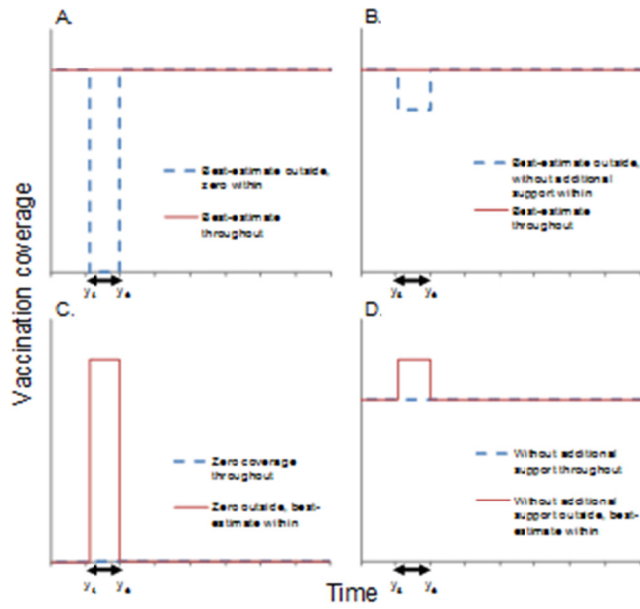


Figure 1

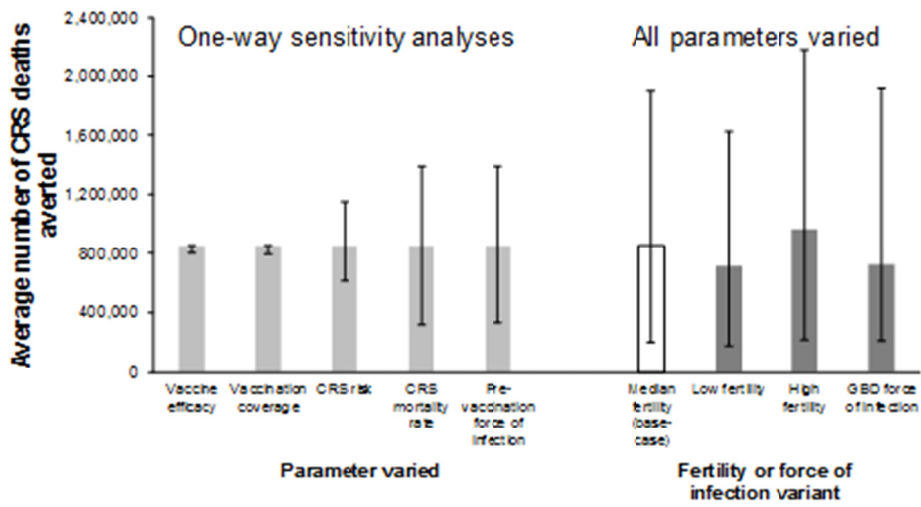


Figure 2

Accepted Manuscript

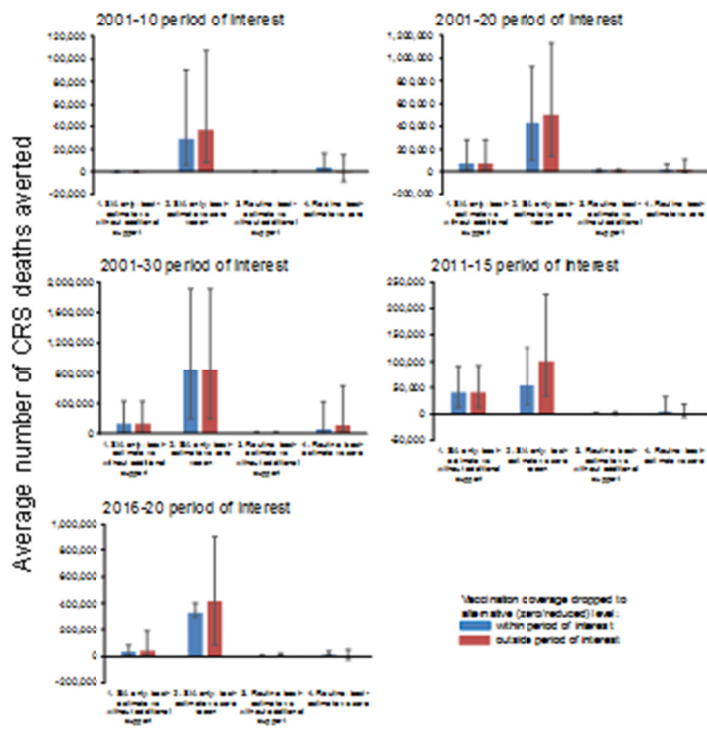


Figure 3