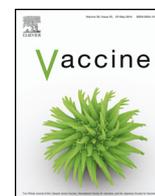




Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Vaccine

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/vaccine



The impact of introducing new vaccines on the health system: Case studies from six low- and middle-income countries

Helen E.D. Burchett^{a,*}, Sandra Mounier-Jack^a, Sergio Torres-Rueda^a, Ulla K. Griffiths^a, Pierre Ongolo-Zogo^b, Stephen Rulisa^c, Jean-Marie Edengue^d, Enrique Chavez^e, Yayehirad Kitaw^f, Mitike Molla^g, Mamadou Konate^h, Larry Gelmonⁱ, Onyango Oumaⁱ, Mylene Lagarde^a, Anne Mills^a

^a London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK

^b Centre for Development of Best Practices in Health, Yaounde Central Hospital, Yaounde, Cameroon

^c University of Rwanda, Kigali, Rwanda

^d Ministry of Health, Yaounde, Cameroon

^e Independent Consultant, Guatemala City, Guatemala

^f Independent Consultant, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

^g University of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

^h Independent Consultant, Bamako, Mali

ⁱ University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 23 June 2014

Received in revised form 8 September 2014

Accepted 11 September 2014

Available online xxx

Keywords:

New vaccines

Introductions

Immunisation programmes

Health systems

ABSTRACT

Objective: We aimed to explore the impacts of new vaccine introductions on immunization programmes and health systems in low- and middle-income countries.

Methods: We conducted case studies of seven vaccine introductions in six countries (Cameroon, PCV; Ethiopia, PCV; Guatemala, rotavirus; Kenya, PCV; Mali, Meningitis A; Mali, PCV; Rwanda, HPV). Interviews were conducted with 261 national, regional and district key informants and questionnaires were completed with staff from 196 health facilities. Routine data from districts and health facilities were gathered on vaccination and antenatal service use. Data collection and analysis were structured around the World Health Organisation health system building blocks.

Findings: The new vaccines were viewed positively and seemed to integrate well into existing health systems. The introductions were found to have had no impact on many elements within the building blocks framework. Despite many key informants and facility respondents perceiving that the new vaccine introductions had increased coverage of other vaccines, the routine data showed no change. Positive effects perceived included enhanced credibility of the immunisation programme and strengthened health workers' skills through training. Negative effects reported included an increase in workload and stock outs of the new vaccine creating a perception in the community that all vaccines were out of stock in a facility. Most effects were found within the vaccination programme; very few were reported on the broader health system. Effects were primarily reported to be temporary, around the time of introduction only.

Conclusion: Although the new vaccine introductions were viewed as intrinsically positive, on the whole there was no evidence that they had any major impact, positive or negative, on the broader health system.

© 2014 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

1. Introduction

The pace of new vaccine introductions in low- and middle-income countries has been accelerating in the past decade and will continue [1]. This has led to increased attention on their broader impact, with the possibility that they may either stress or strengthen health systems in these countries. In 2010, the World

* Corresponding author at: 15-17 Tavistock Place, London, WC1H 9SH, UK.
Tel.: +44 17666352093.
E-mail address: helen.burchett@lshtm.ac.uk (H.E.D. Burchett).

Table 1
Details of the vaccine introductions studied: data collection period, introduction process and other contextual information.

Country	Vaccine studied	Date of introduction	Data collection period	Vaccine introduction process
Cameroon	PCV13	July 2011	May–June 2012	GAVI funded Planned for PCV7 in 2010 Switched to PCV13 when it became available, but supply issues delayed its introduction
Ethiopia	PCV10	November 2011	December 2012–January 2013	GAVI funded Catch up for <1 year olds
Guatemala	Rotavirus	February 2010	July 2011	Government funded Only limited introduction preparations; no introduction plan prepared Initially introduced Rotateq (two doses), then switched to Rotarix (three doses), then back to Rotateq Rotateq not purchased through PAHO revolving fund No national social mobilisation
Kenya	PCV10	February 2011	July–August 2011 and March–April 2012	GAVI funded. First sub-Saharan African GAVI country to introduce PCV Catch up for <1 year olds
Mali	Men A	September 2010–December 2011	July–August 2011 and January 2012	GAVI funded Introduction over three phases 10 days campaign, targeting 1–29 year olds Key role of WHO MSF implemented in a few districts
Mali	PCV13	March–December 2011	March–June 2011 and January 2012	GAVI funded Nationwide introduction phased over 10+ months
Rwanda	HPV	April 2011	August 2012	3 years donation from Merck First African country to introduce HPV Vaccination through school-based 2-day campaign for girls in 6th year of primary school. Some catch up in other grades during second and third year of campaigns. For girls not at school, 12 year olds were targeted at the nearest health centres Campaign ran three times per year

Health Organization (WHO) set up an ad-hoc working group to explore the issue for their Strategic Advisory Group of Experts on Immunisation [1]. Members of the team for the present study participated in this group and our preliminary results informed the group's findings and recommendations [2].

There is a lack of research focusing on the impact of new vaccine introductions on countries' expanded programme of immunisation (EPI) or health systems as a whole, particularly in low-income countries [3,4]. Previous research has typically focused either on the impact of vaccination campaigns on the routine immunisation service [5–8], or on the impact of new vaccine introductions on specific elements of the health system, such as cold chain [9], logistics and supply [10,11] or coverage [12].

The EPI is traditionally a relatively vertical programme, although routine immunisation is arguably more integrated than vaccination campaigns. Research on the health system impact of other vertical health programmes, including vaccination campaigns, have identified both positive and negative effects [6,13–16]. It has also been noted that these impacts varied depending on the strength of the health system [6,15].

This study aimed to explore impact of new vaccine introductions on immunisation programmes and the broader health system. It did not aim to estimate the costs of new vaccine introductions as this would require a different type of methodology and has been the focus of another multi-country research project.

2. Methods

We conducted mixed-method case studies of seven vaccine introductions in six low- and middle-income countries (see Table 1 for details). The study team comprised staff from The London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (LSHTM), as well as at least one

collaborator per case study country. Data collection was conducted by both the country collaborators and LSHTM staff.

2.1. Case studies sampling frame

Countries were selected to include a range of vaccines, presentations, delivery strategies and financing mechanisms. Countries were eligible for inclusion if they planned to introduce a new vaccine in 2010 or 2011, in order for this introduction to be sufficiently recent at the time of data collection. Five of the seven vaccine introductions were funded by the GAVI Alliance; rotavirus in Guatemala and human papilloma virus (HPV) in Rwanda were the exceptions. In Mali and Rwanda, Meningitis A (Men A) and HPV vaccines were introduced respectively using a campaign-based approach. In Mali, the introduction was through a mass catch-up campaign organised in three separate phases and in Rwanda through a school-based delivery model that was part of the national immunisation schedule. In the remaining countries the new vaccines, pneumococcal vaccine (PCV) and rotavirus, were introduced into the routine, infant immunisation programme.

2.2. Within-country sampling

Within countries, two to four regions were selected based on their vaccination coverage (high, average and low compared to national figures). Two to three districts were selected purposively within each region, representing different vaccination coverage rates as well as both urban and rural areas.

One to five health facilities were selected per district, based on an increasing distance from the main urban centre and to include a range of provider types (Table 2).

Table 2
Number of regions, districts and facilities included in study, per country.

Country	Regions	Total districts (Districts per region)	Total facilities (Facilities per district)
Cameroon	3	9 (3)	28 (3–4)
Ethiopia	4	10 (1–3)	26 (1–3)
Guatemala	3	9 (3)	27 (3)
Kenya	3	9 (3)	43 (4–5)
Mali (Men A)	2	6 (3)	18 (3)
Mali (PCV)	3	9 (3)	27 (3)
Rwanda	3	9 (3)	27 (3)

2.3. Data collection

Three methods of data collection were used:

1. Semi-structured interviews with key informants selected at national, regional and district levels.
2. Structured questionnaire with health facility staff.
3. Collection of routine vaccination and antenatal care (ANC) service use data.

The qualitative data collection and analysis were framed by an adapted version of the WHO health system building blocks (see [Table 3](#)) [17].

Semi-structured interviews at the national level were conducted with key informants from the Ministry of Health and stakeholders from other relevant organisations (e.g. WHO, UNICEF, Inter-agency Coordinating Committee members and, in Rwanda, teachers). Regional- and district-level health service managers and staff specialised in immunisation or logistics management were also interviewed. The interviews included questions on the health system building block components detailed in [Table 3](#); where interviewees' roles were more specialised, questions focused on their areas of expertise. Interviews were recorded when permitted and possible. All those recorded were transcribed and, when necessary, translated. Notes were made of interviews not recorded.

Table 3
Study analysis framework.

Health system building block	Vaccination-specific components
Service delivery	<input type="checkbox"/> Access and utilisation <input type="checkbox"/> Delivery modalities <input type="checkbox"/> Demand and acceptance
Health workforce	<input type="checkbox"/> Availability and distribution of staff <input type="checkbox"/> Training and capacity of staff <input type="checkbox"/> Remuneration and satisfaction <input type="checkbox"/> Performance and supervision
Health information system	<input type="checkbox"/> Routine data collection and reporting <input type="checkbox"/> Disease surveillance
Medical products, vaccines and technologies	<input type="checkbox"/> Forecasting and procurement of vaccines and injection supplies <input type="checkbox"/> Stock management <input type="checkbox"/> Cold chain management and waste disposal
Financing and sustainability	<input type="checkbox"/> Affordability <input type="checkbox"/> Domestic financing <input type="checkbox"/> External financing
Leadership/governance	<input type="checkbox"/> Regulatory policy <input type="checkbox"/> Political commitment <input type="checkbox"/> Organisation, structure, reform, negotiation, stewardship

A researcher-administered questionnaire was completed with one staff member in each facility. Questions were adapted from the WHO's post-introduction evaluation (PIE) tool and were structured around the study framework ([Table 3](#)) [18].

Data were gathered on coverage of the new vaccine and the diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis (DTP) as well as ANC service use, from routine service use records held in facilities and/or districts. Monthly data were collected for 1 year before and after the new vaccine was introduced in that facility/district (only 5 and 10 months afterwards in Kenya and Cameroon, respectively, due to the timing of data collection). In Rwanda and Mali (for Men A), data were collected 1 month before, during and after the campaign.

2.4. Analysis

Thematic content analysis was used to explore the interview data within Open Code software [19]. Two investigators led the cross-country analysis of the transcripts and findings were checked with other members of the LSHTM study team and the in-country researchers. The study's framework was used to structure this analysis (see [Table 3](#)). Questionnaire responses were cleaned and recorded to allow comparison across countries, where necessary and possible. They were then analysed using descriptive statistics in SPSS software. Routine data were plotted over time and if a small change in trend was visible, a segmented regression analysis was conducted to formally test its statistical significance [20].

2.5. Ethics

Ethical approval was gained from the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and from the study countries. The study was verbally described to participants, an information sheet was provided and signed consent gained from all prior to commencing data collection.

3. Results

3.1. Data collected

261 semi-structured interviews were conducted and 196 health facility questionnaires were completed (see [Table 4](#)). 245 interviews were recorded (94%) and 65 interviews were translated from Spanish, Amharic and Kinyarwanda into English.

3.2. Overall impact

The new vaccines generally seemed to integrate well into existing health systems. The introductions were considered to have had no impact on many of the elements within the building blocks framework (see [Table 5](#) for summary of findings). Of those effects that were identified, most were within the vaccination programme; very few effects on the broader health system were reported. Some effects (e.g. increased staff workload) were reported to be temporary, at the time of introduction only. Given space limitations, only key findings are discussed below.

3.3. No effect

3.3.1. Access and utilisation

Despite many key informants and facility respondents perceiving that the new vaccine introductions had increased coverage of other vaccines, especially in Kenya, Cameroon and Ethiopia, the routine data collected in all countries did not support these claims (see [Fig. 1](#)). The only exception was in the case of Mali (PCV), where uptake of the first pentavalent dose increased by about 40% ([Fig. 1](#)), although this effect was not sustained over time. However it should

Table 4
Data collected in each case study.

Country	National interviewees	Regional interviewees	District interviewees	Total number of interviewees	Number recorded	Number translated	Facility questionnaires
Cameroon	10	14	23	47	45	None. Interviews and analysis conducted by French and English speakers	28
Ethiopia	8	4	11	23	21	13 translated from Amharic, 10 conducted in English	26
Guatemala	11	15	16	42	42	All translated from Spanish	27
Kenya	14	11	26	51	49	None. All interviews conducted in English	43
Mali (Men A)	19	3	9	31	29	None. Interviews and analysis conducted by French speakers	18
Mali (PCV)	1*	8	28	37	31	None. Interview and analysis conducted by French speakers	27
Rwanda	12	n/a	11 (+7 school employees)	30	28	10 translated from Kinyarwanda into English	27
Total				261	245 (94%)	65	196

* 15 national interviews in Mali discussed both Men A and PCV13 introduction – these have been included under 'Mali Men A'.

also be noted that the analysis in Mali (PCV) was based on data from only 13 of the 27 included facilities, due to incomplete data being available in the remaining 14 facilities.

The high demand for new vaccines may have encouraged those who had previously defaulted on existing routine vaccinations. This created an opportunity to check the vaccine status of those attending and, when necessary, administer missed doses. Although study participants reported isolated efforts to use the new vaccine to trace defaulters in this manner, no country demonstrated a systemic approach to this.

No impact of the introduction on ANC service use was observed from routine data before and after the introductions.

3.4. Cold chain

Study participants generally felt that the new vaccine introductions had not affected cold chain capacity for other vaccines or products, for a number of reasons. Cold chain assessments had been conducted as part of the planning process (for GAVI countries, it is required as part of the application process). In some cases, such as in Rwanda, no expansion was deemed necessary. In other countries national-level interviewees reported that there had been an expansion or modernisation of the cold chain in preparation for the introduction, although this was generally at the national and sub-national levels, rather than in facilities.

There was a discrepancy between some national- and facility-level responses, with the former reporting cold chain expansion whilst the latter reported none. It is not clear whether this discrepancy was because expected expansions had not occurred, or whether facility staff had not realised that new equipment received (sometimes up to a year earlier) was for a particular vaccine introduction.

In four countries, the presentation of other vaccines had changed (pentavalent in Cameroon, Kenya and Mali, and PCV in Rwanda), which reduced their cold chain requirement, making capacity available for the new vaccine. Finally, some districts and a minority of facilities reported using adaptive strategies, such as more frequent vaccine deliveries, in order to manage their cold chain space.

“There is a problem with the cold chain because the volume [of vaccines] is bigger and districts are struggling with the cold chain. . . there is no space. They [the health centres] have to take small quantities; we send them the remainder when there is an opportunity. This creates a risk of stock outs. . .”

C.05, regional-level interviewee, Cameroon

Guatemala was an exception in that no assessment was conducted before the introduction and there was no nationally-organised cold chain expansion. Some equipment was reported to have been procured at sub-national levels after the introduction.

3.5. Regulatory policy

Interviewees in most countries reported no effect on regulatory policies, with some exceptions. In Kenya, WHO worked to strengthen the country's Pharmacy and Poisons Board in order to register the new vaccine. It was felt that this would be beneficial for future vaccines. In Mali, the national regulatory process was bypassed for both Men A and PCV vaccines. In doing so, some interviewees argued that this weakened national ownership and domestic regulatory processes.

3.6. Organisation, structure, reform, negotiation and stewardship: Inter-agency Coordinating Committees (ICCs)

In most countries the new vaccines were not thought to have affected the functioning of their ICCs. However, in Mali (for Men A) and in Rwanda, membership of the committees was extended to additional stakeholders. In Ethiopia some interviewees felt that the ICC had been strengthened by the introduction, particularly because of highly active thematic sub-committees.

3.7. Demand/acceptance

Vaccination is, in general, well accepted and this was the case for the new vaccines too, with high acceptance and demand reported. Only a minority of facilities reported that they had experienced any resistance from the community regarding the new vaccine – this was most common in Rwanda for the HPV vaccine, or because of a fear of the effect of receiving two vaccinations at once (e.g. in Ethiopia, where PCV and pentavalent were given at the same time). Study participants did not feel that the new vaccines had affected the acceptance of other vaccines, perhaps due to the fact that they were already well accepted.

4. Positive effects

New vaccine introductions were seen as intrinsically positive, to such an extent that some study participants felt that their addition per se strengthened the health system in a general sense.

Table 5
Impact of new vaccine introductions by health system building block components.

Health system building block	Vaccination-specific components	No impact on:	Positive impact on:	Negative impact on:
Service delivery	Access and utilisation	Other vaccines' coverage rates		
	Delivery modalities	Health service use Delivery modalities Co-delivery of interventions alongside vaccination (except Rwanda, positive impact)		
	Demand and acceptance	Acceptance of other vaccines	Trust and credibility of EPI enhanced	
Health workforce	Availability and distribution of staff	Staffing numbers or distribution (except for campaign-based introductions)		Workload increased in the short term
	Training and capacity of staff		Skills strengthened through training Staff morale boosted	
	Remuneration and satisfaction Performance and supervision	Remuneration (except for campaign-based introductions) Supervision		
Health information system	Routine data collection and reporting	Information systems		
	Surveillance	Disease surveillance	Awareness of adverse events following immunisation (AEFIs) increased (although no effect on reporting) Strengthening of AEFI surveillance systems (Ethiopia, Mali)	
Medical products, vaccines and technologies	Forecasting and procurement of vaccines and injection supplies	Forecasting/procurement		
	Stock management	Stock management Wastage rates		Stock outs of new vaccine – creating a perception that all vaccines were out of stock in the facility
Financing and sustainability	Cold chain management and waste disposal	Cold chain (at facility level) Waste management		
	Affordability	Operational costs (although lack of monitoring)	Outbreak costs reduced (Mali Men A)	Reduced revenues at facility (Mali Men A)
	Domestic financing		Domestic financing increased	Sustainability concerns
Leadership/governance	External financing		External financing increased	
	Regulatory policy	Regulatory policy (all countries except in Mali and Kenya)	Pharmacy and Poisons Board (in Kenya only) Reinforced EPI support	Regulatory policy (in Mali only)
	Political commitment Organisation, structure, reform, negotiation, stewardship	Planning Inter-agency Coordinating Committees (except for Ethiopia and campaign-based introductions)	Collaboration enhanced (at national level)	

249 “I think any new antigen reinforces routine vaccination pro-
250 gramme because mothers know their children are better
251 protected.”

252 M016, national-level interviewee, Mali (PCV)

253 Respondents felt that the new vaccines would lead to a reduc-
254 tion in disease and would increase the public's trust in the health
255 system.

256 4.1. Training

257 Staff training in preparation for the introductions was viewed
258 overwhelmingly positively. Some participants explained that it
259 acted as a refresher, allowing staff to update their vaccination skills,
260 e.g. cold chain management, as well as informing them about the
261 new vaccine.

262 4.2. Disease surveillance and AEFIs

263 There was generally no impact on disease surveillance systems
264 overall. However in some countries positive effects were reported,
265 namely Cameroon, Mali and Kenya, where surveillance staff capac-
266 ity had reportedly been enhanced. In addition, in Mali (Men A)
267 case-based surveillance of meningitis was introduced. This lack
268 of impact may be because the development and strengthening of
269 surveillance systems was part of broader developments within the
270 health system and as such, were not tied specifically to individual
271 vaccine introductions.

272 Study participants felt that the effect of the new vaccine
273 introductions on adverse events following immunisation (AEFI)
274 reporting was positive, though limited. In Ethiopia and Mali, the
275 AEFI surveillance systems had been strengthened, with training
276 and specific communication for health workers on how to identify

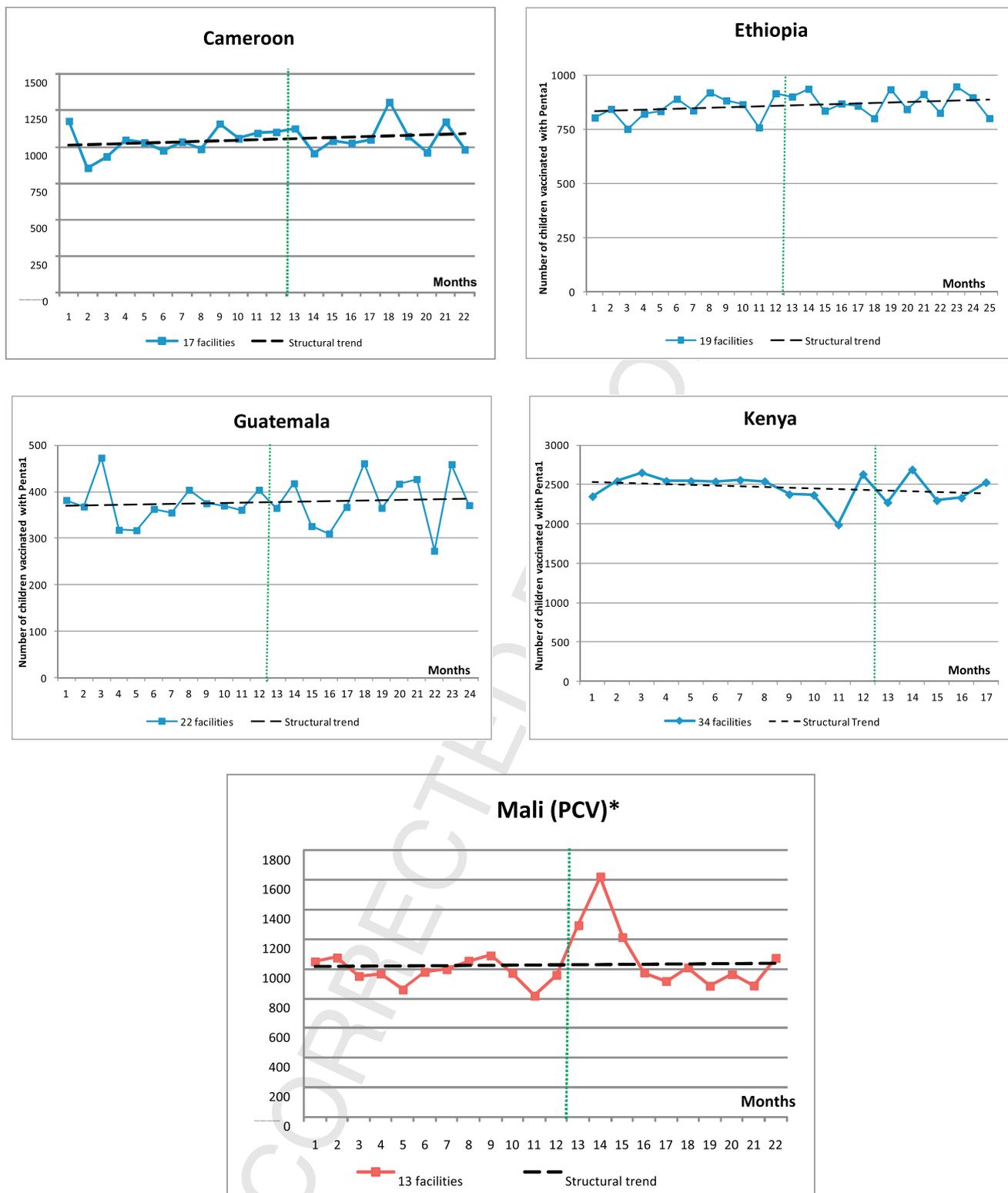


Fig. 1. Number of children vaccinated with Pentavalent 1 per month, before and after the introduction of a new routine vaccine*.
*Only countries introducing the new vaccine into their routine immunisation schedule i.e. Cameroon, Ethiopia, Guatemala, Kenya, Mali (PCV).
*Because of the phased introduction of the PCV13 in Mali, we could only collect data for 10 months post introduction in 13 health facilities.

and respond to AEFIs for the new vaccine and the strengthening of national and regional committees for surveillance of AEFIs. In several countries (particularly Kenya, Ethiopia and Mali for Men A) a lot of attention was placed on creating awareness of potential

AEFIs. These countries introduced vaccines with particular safety concerns; Kenya was the first GAVI-eligible country to introduce the preservative-free PCV vaccine, shortly followed by Ethiopia, whilst Mali introduced a completely new Men A vaccine [21].

281
282
283
284

285 However despite overwhelming reports of enhanced awareness
286 of AEFIs, this did not lead to a change in the number of AEFIs
287 reported by health facilities, for any vaccine.

288 4.3. Financing

289 The impact of the new vaccines on domestic and external finan-
290 cing was viewed positively. Domestic funding for vaccines was
291 increased, albeit only for GAVI co-financing in most cases; opera-
292 tional funds were generally reported to have remained unchanged.
293 Some interviewees believed that GAVI co-financing encouraged a
294 sense of national ownership although concerns were also expressed
295 regarding financial sustainability. It was also felt that the new vac-
296 cines provided access to additional external financing; some key
297 informants explained that the GAVI funding spurred others to offer
298 additional support (e.g. for cold chain expansion).

299 4.4. Organisation, structure, reform, negotiation and 300 stewardship: collaboration

301 There were only changes in collaborations in a few specific cases,
302 where the new vaccine introduction led to new or strengthened col-
303 laborations. For example, in Rwanda new collaborative links were
304 made with the Ministry of Education due to the school-based deliv-
305 ery strategy. In Kenya, multi-sector working had been established
306 for previous vaccine introductions and had continued for this lat-
307 est one, but there were also reports of new or improved links with
308 the departments of health promotion and HIV. In Mali the prepara-
309 tory work for Men A increased collaboration between the agency
310 for social mobilisation, the Ministry of Health and the National
311 Institute for Infectious Diseases.

312 5. Negative effects

313 There were few negative impacts reported and these were often
314 only felt to occur in the short term, immediately after the introduc-
315 tion.

316 5.1. Availability and distribution of staff: workload

317 The majority of health facility respondents (61%) reported that
318 workload had increased at the time of, or just after, the new vac-
319 cine introduction. The effect on workload seemed to vary between
320 countries; a perceived increase in workload was most common
321 in Kenya than Guatemala or Ethiopia. Some explained that the
322 increase was only temporary, perhaps caused by catch-up strategi-
323 es, returning to normal levels after a few months.

324 5.2. Stock management: stock outs

325 Stock outs of the new vaccine were experienced in all the 'rou-
326 tine introduction' case studies (i.e. where the new vaccine was
327 integrated into routine infant immunisation services, as opposed
328 to case studies where the new vaccine was delivered via cam-
329 paigns), although they were more common in some than others
330 (e.g. in Kenya, 51% of facilities reported stock outs compared to 8%
331 in Ethiopia). In many cases stock outs were reported to be partic-
332 ularly notable in the first few months after introductions, when
333 either demand exceeded expectations or a catch-up strategy had
334 not been incorporated into forecasting predictions.

335 Stock outs of other vaccines were also reported, but were rarely
336 associated with the new vaccine because they had occurred before
337 the introduction as well. Stock outs had broader implications than
338 just access to the new vaccine; interviewees and facility staff
339 explained that when one vaccine was out of stock, the public
340 perceived there to be a generic vaccine stock out and so stayed

away from immunisation services even if the specific vaccine that
they required was available.

“So when it [the new PCV vaccine] is out of stock, it will affect
the other vaccines which are available because the common per-
son will just say, ‘The vaccine is not there.’ Then even the other
[person] who was supposed to get the other [vaccine] which is
available will not come.”

K022, regional-level interviewee, Kenya

349 5.3. Differences between routine EPI and campaign-based 350 introductions

351 Unlike the other case studies, no stock-outs of the new vaccines
352 were reported in either country. This may be because their deliv-
353 ery and logistics systems were separate from routine services, or
354 because they were required only for a limited period of time.

355 In Rwanda, since the vaccine brought the immunisation
356 service to a completely new target population and delivery mode
357 (school-based), the opportunity was taken to co-deliver various
358 interventions alongside the HPV vaccine, such as health promotion
359 sessions and de-worming treatment.

360 In Mali it was reported that there had been no more Men
361 A outbreaks since the new vaccine introduction. This meant
362 that expensive reactive campaigns were avoided. However, the
363 campaign disrupted routine services, which had the perceived
364 knock-on effect of reducing facilities' revenues from those services.
365 Although the new vaccine campaigns ran for a limited time only, in
366 the Malian context where there are frequent short-term campaigns,
367 these routine service interruptions could add up to considerable
368 regular disruption [22].

369 Overall, both benefits and drawbacks of campaign-delivered
370 introductions seemed to be limited to the duration of the cam-
371 paigns.

372 6. Discussion

373 As far as the authors are aware, this is the first study to focus
374 specifically on the impact of new vaccine introductions on the
375 broader health system in low- and middle-income countries. Our
376 study found that the new vaccines generally integrated well and as
377 such, had little or no impact on most aspects of the EPI and even
378 less on the broader health system. Effects outside of EPI were min-
379 imal or limited to a few cases where a deliberate effort was made
380 to combine activities.

381 Our findings showed that there were limited inter-departmental
382 collaborations during introduction planning and this may explain
383 why the impacts were more narrowly circumscribed to immunisa-
384 tion.

385 Perhaps the most surprising findings were the lack of impact
386 on coverage rates for other vaccines (apart from a transient effect
387 for PCV13 in Mali) and the discord between this finding (from the
388 routine data) and the perceived increase reported by interviewees
389 and facility respondents. Some studies have reported a perceived
390 increase in health service use following the introduction of services
391 or new vaccines [3,16], however, others found no change [6,12].
392 Our results suggest that findings based on *perceptions* of increased
393 service use should be treated with caution.

394 The finding that the introduction of an additional vaccine did
395 not have many negative impacts, particularly for components such
396 as the cold chain capacity (except in Guatemala, where planning
397 was minimal), is a testament to the value of introduction prepara-
398 tions. It has been shown elsewhere that vial size affects supply chain
399 requirements and vaccine availability [23] and there is recognition
400 of the general need for additional cold chain for new vaccine intro-
401 ductions [11,24,25]. It should not be forgotten that health systems

are dynamic; fortuitous changes in the presentation of other vaccines as well as other concurrent initiatives (e.g. increasing staffing) as reported in this study, cannot be relied upon for future vaccine introductions.

6.1. Limitations

This study was conducted in seven countries only and focused on five new vaccines. The effect of introductions will vary depending on the nature of the new vaccine and its delivery, the degree of preparation undertaken and the context of the EPI and broader health system [4]. These findings may therefore not be generalisable to all introductions in all settings. Nevertheless, they highlight key issues that may be relevant to those introducing new vaccines in low- and middle-income countries.

The inherently positive perception of new vaccines may have made it difficult for respondents to report negative. The vertical nature of EPI meant that many interviewees found it difficult to respond to questions about the broader health system; conversely those outside of EPI often had little knowledge about new vaccine introductions. In some case studies the planned introduction was delayed, resulting in fewer months of post-introduction data being available to the study team. Finally, in some cases, particularly in Mali (PCV), routine health service use data were not available in all facilities.

7. Conclusion

Although the new vaccine introductions studied were viewed as intrinsically positive, there was no evidence that they had any major impact, positive or negative, on the broader health system.

Acknowledgements

Funding was received from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (Grant number OPP51822). The authors would also like to thank all those who participated in the study.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.09.031>.

References

- [1] Wang SA, Hyde TB, Mounier-Jack S, Brenzel L, Favin M, Gordon SB, et al. New Vaccine Introductions: assessing the impact and the opportunities for immunization and health systems strengthening. *Vaccine* 2013;31(S2):B122–8.
- [2] World Health Organization. Impact of introduction of new vaccines on immunization and health systems. *Wkly Epidemiol Rec* 2012;21(87):208–10.
- [3] Maternal Child Health Integrated Program (MCHIP). Impact of new vaccine introduction on developing country immunization programs: a review

- of the grey literature; 2011 [http://www.mchip.net/sites/default/files/Impact%20of%20NVI%20on%20Developing%20Country%20Imm%20Programs-%20Grey%20Lit%20Review%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.mchip.net/sites/default/files/Impact%20of%20NVI%20on%20Developing%20Country%20Imm%20Programs-%20Grey%20Lit%20Review%20(2).pdf) [accessed 31st August 2014].
- [4] Hyde TB, Dentz H, Wang SA, Burchett HE, Mounier-Jack S, Mantel CF, et al. The impact of new vaccine introduction on immunization and health systems: a review of the published literature. *Vaccine* 2012;30(45):6347–58.
- [5] Fields R, Dabbagh A, Jain M, Sagar KS. Moving forward with strengthening routine immunization delivery as part of measles and rubella elimination activities. *Vaccine* 2013;31(Suppl. 2):B115–21.
- [6] Hanvoravongchai P, Mounier-Jack S, Oliveira Cruz V, Balabanova D, Biellik R, Kitaw Y, et al. Impact of measles elimination activities on immunization services and health systems: findings from six countries. *J Infect Dis* 2011;204(Suppl. 1):S82–9.
- [7] Mallik S, Mandal PK, Ghosh P, Manna N, Chatterjee C, Chakrabarty D, et al. Mass measles vaccination campaign in Aila Cyclone-affected areas of West Bengal India: an in-depth analysis and experiences. *Iran J Med Sci* 2011;36(4):300–5.
- [8] Verguet S, Jassat W, Bertram MY, Tollman SM, Murray CJ, Jamison DT, et al. Impact of supplemental immunisation activity (SIA) campaigns on health systems: findings from South Africa. *J Epidemiol Commun Health* 2013;67(11):947–52.
- [9] Haidari LA, Connor DL, Wateska AR, Brown ST, Mueller LE, Norman BA, et al. Augmenting transport versus increasing cold storage to improve vaccine supply chains. *PLoS One* 2013;8(5):e64303.
- [10] Lee BY, Assi TM, Rookkapan K, Wateska AR, Rajgopal J, Sornsrivichai V, et al. Maintaining vaccine delivery following the introduction of the rotavirus and pneumococcal vaccines in Thailand. *PLoS One* 2011;6(9):e24673.
- [11] Zaffran M, Vandelaer J, Kristensen D, Melgaard B, Yadav P, Antwi-Agyei KO, et al. The imperative for stronger vaccine supply and logistics systems. *Vaccine* 2013;31(Suppl. 2):B73–80.
- [12] Shearer JC, Walker DG, Risko N, Levine OS. The impact of new vaccine introduction on the coverage of existing vaccines: a cross-national, multivariable analysis. *Vaccine* 2012;30(52):7582–7.
- [13] Taylor CE, Cutts F, Taylor ME. Ethical dilemmas in current planning for polio eradication. *Am J Public Health* 1997;87(6):922–5.
- [14] Bonu S, Rani M, Razum O. Global public health mandates in a diverse world: the polio eradication initiative and the expanded programme on immunization in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. *Health Policy* 2004;70(3):327–45.
- [15] Cavalli A, Bamba SI, Traore MN, Boelaert M, Coulibaly Y, Polman K, et al. Interactions between global health initiatives and country health systems: the case of a neglected tropical diseases control program in Mali. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2010;4(8):e798.
- [16] Rao KD, Ramani S, Hazarika I, George S. When do vertical programmes strengthen health systems? A comparative assessment of disease-specific interventions in India. *Health Policy Plan* 2013;29(4):495–505.
- [17] World Health Organization. Everybody's business: strengthening health systems to improve health outcomes WHO's framework for action. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2007.
- [18] World Health Organization. New vaccine post-introduction evaluation (PIE) tool; 2010 http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2010/WHO_IVB_10.03_eng.pdf [accessed 31st August] 2014.
- [19] Umea University. Open code [online]. Umea, Sweden: Umea University; 2011 <http://www.phmed.umu.se/english/divisions/epidemiology/research/open-code/> [accessed 8th March 2012].
- [20] Lagarde M. How to do (or not to do)... Assessing the impact of a policy change with routine longitudinal data. *Health Policy Plan* 2011;27(1):76–83.
- [21] Greenwood B, Stuart JM. A vaccine to prevent epidemic meningitis in Africa. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2012;12(10):738–89.
- [22] Mounier-Jack S, Burchett HED, Griffiths UK, Konate M, Diarra KS. Meningococcal vaccine introduction in Mali through mass campaigns and the impact on the health system. *Global Health: Sci Prac* 2014;2(1):117–29.
- [23] Assi TM, Brown ST, Djibo A, Norman BA, Rajgopal J, Welling JS, et al. Impact of changing the measles vaccine vial size on Niger's vaccine supply chain: a computational model. *BMC Public Health* 2011;11:425.
- [24] Kaufman JR, Miller R, Cheyne J. Vaccine supply chains need to be better funded and strengthened, or lives will be at risk. *Health Aff* 2011;30(6):1113–21.
- [25] Lee BY, Assi TM, Rajgopal J, Norman BA, Chen SI, Brown ST, et al. Impact of introducing the pneumococcal and rotavirus vaccines into the routine immunization program in Niger. *Am J Pub Health* 2012;102(2):269–76.