



HAL
open science

Meningococcal disease and control in China: Findings and updates from the Global Meningococcal Initiative (GMI).

Junhong Li, Zhujun Shao, Gang Liu, Xilian Bai, Ray Borrow, Min Chen, Qinglan Guo, Yue Han, Yixing Li, Muhamed-Kheir Taha, et al.

► To cite this version:

Junhong Li, Zhujun Shao, Gang Liu, Xilian Bai, Ray Borrow, et al.. Meningococcal disease and control in China: Findings and updates from the Global Meningococcal Initiative (GMI).. Journal of Infection, 2018, 76 (5), pp.429-437. 10.1016/j.jinf.2018.01.007 . pasteur-02095234

HAL Id: pasteur-02095234

<https://pasteur.hal.science/pasteur-02095234>

Submitted on 10 Apr 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial - NoDerivatives 4.0 International License



ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Infection

journal homepage: www.elsevierhealth.com/journals/jinf

British Infection Association

Review

Meningococcal disease and control in China: Findings and updates from the Global Meningococcal Initiative (GMI)



Junhong Li ^{a,1}, Zhujun Shao ^{b,1}, Gang Liu ^c, Xilian Bai ^d, Ray Borrow ^{d,*}, Min Chen ^e, Qinglan Guo ^f, Yue Han ^g, Yixing Li ^a, Muhamed-Kheir Taha ^h, Xihai Xu ⁱ, Xin Xu ^j, Huizhen Zheng ^j

^a National Immunisation Programme Department, Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Beijing, China

^b State Key Laboratory of Infectious Disease Prevention and Control, National Institute for Communicable Disease Control and Prevention, Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Beijing, China

^c Department of Infectious Disease, Beijing Children's Hospital, Beijing, China

^d Meningococcal Reference Unit, Public Health England, Manchester Royal Infirmary, Manchester, UK

^e Department of Microbiology, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Shanghai, China

^f Institute of Antibiotics, Huashan Hospital, Fudan University, Shanghai, China

^g Department of Immunology, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Liaoning, China

^h National Reference Centre for Meningococci, Institute Pasteur, Paris, France

ⁱ Department of Infectious Diseases, the First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical University, China

^j Department of Immunization Programme, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Guangdong, China

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Accepted 3 January 2018

Available online 12 February 2018

Keywords:

Meningococcal disease
China
Vaccination
Polysaccharide vaccine
Conjugate vaccine
Surveillance
Epidemiology
Immunization program
Neisseria meningitidis
Bacterial meningitis

ABSTRACT

The Global Meningococcal Initiative (GMI) is a global expert group, including scientists, clinicians and public health officials from a wide range of specialities. The goal of the GMI is to prevent meningococcal disease worldwide through education, research, and co-operation. The Chinese GMI roundtable meeting was held in June 2017. The GMI met with local experts to gain insight into the meningococcal disease burden in China and current prevention and vaccination strategies in place. China experienced five epidemics of serogroup A meningococcal disease (MenA) between 1938 and 1977, with peak incidence of 403/100,000 recorded in 1967. MenA incidence rates have significantly declined following the universal introduction of the MenA polysaccharide vaccine in China in the 1980s. Further, surveillance data indicates changing meningococcal epidemiology in China with the emergence of new clones of serogroup B from serogroup C clonal complex (cc) 4821 due to capsular switching, and the international spread of serogroup W cc11. The importance of carriage and herd protection for controlling meningococcal disease was highlighted with the view to introduce conjugate vaccines and serogroup B vaccines into the national immunization schedule. Improved disease surveillance and standardized laboratory techniques across and within provinces will ensure optimal epidemiological monitoring.

Crown Copyright © 2018 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of The British Infection Association. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Introduction

Neisseria meningitidis (Nm) is an obligate human pathogen, and is the cause of invasive meningococcal disease (MD).¹ Nm strains

can be classified into 12 serogroups (A, B, C, E, H, I, K, L, W, X, Y, Z) based on the immunochemistry of its capsular polysaccharides. Six serogroups (A, B, C, W, X and Y) account for the majority of all cases of MD worldwide.^{2,3} The remaining serogroups (E, H, I, J, L and Z) are usually only found in carriage, but can cause invasive disease in immuno-compromised individuals, such as patients with complement deficiencies.⁴

The Global Meningococcal Initiative (GMI) was established in 2009 and is a multidisciplinary group of over 50 scientists and clinicians dedicated to the prevention of MD worldwide through education, research and international co-operation. A number of global and regional GMI meetings have been held since its inception,⁵ including this regional meeting in Chengdu, Sichuan province, China in June 2017. Experts were not available to attend the GMI meeting

* Corresponding author. Meningococcal Reference Unit, Public Health England, Manchester Royal Infirmary, Manchester, M13 9WZ, United Kingdom.

E-mail addresses: ray.borrow@phe.gov.uk (R. Borrow), lijh@chinaccdc.cn (J. Li), shaozhujun@icdc.cn (Z. Shao), liugang10@hotmail.com (G. Liu), Xilian.Bai@phe.gov.uk (X. Bai), chenmin@scdc.sh.cn (M. Chen), qinglanguo@fudan.edu.cn (Q. Guo), 13998223202@163.com (Y. Han), liyix@chinaccdc.cn (Y. Li), muhamed-kheir.taha@pasteur.fr (M.-K. Taha), 2xhai@163.com (X. Xu), 787762507@qq.com (X. Xu), 1136506363@qq.com (H. Zheng).

¹ Contributed equally.

from all 34 provinces across China; however, attendees included several representatives from the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC; Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong and Liaoning), as well as scientists and clinicians from hospital-based departments relating to infectious disease. Members from Public Health England (United Kingdom [UK]), Institute Pasteur (France) and the World Health Organization also attended to share their experiences and the lessons learned from their vaccination and outbreak programs.

The specific meeting objectives were to: (i) review the global incidence and epidemiology of MD, including China; (ii) provide an update on MD surveillance, prevention and control strategies from both a provincial (Liaoning province and Guangdong province) and national perspective; (iii) discuss the issues faced regarding MD and bacterial meningitis (BM) surveillance, prevention and control strategies with a focus on current barriers to implementation; (iv) highlight the importance of conjugate vaccines and their impact on the prevention of MD; and (v) discuss key learning points from immunization programs used worldwide in outbreak control and preparedness. This paper summarizes the key discussion points and subsequent recommendations from the meeting to help inform global and regional recommendations for MD prevention.

Review of the global incidence and epidemiology of meningococcal disease

The global distribution and incidence of MD varies from 0.11 to 2 cases per 100,000 population in Europe and North America,^{6,7} to more than 100 cases per 100,000 population in the “meningitis belt” of sub-Saharan Africa.⁸ The incidence of MD in Africa subsequently fell to 0.02 cases per 100,000 between 2011 and 2013 after the introduction of the MenAfriVac® vaccine in 2010.⁸ In China, the MD incidence rate is 0.047 cases per 100,000 population based on data from 2006 to 2014 from the National Notifiable Disease Reporting System (NNDRS).⁹ However, recent subnational estimates indicate an incidence rate of 1.84 cases per 100,000 population, suggesting that the overall incidence rate for China is underestimated.¹⁰ Historically, China has experienced five epidemics of MD between 1938 and 1977.^{10,11} The peak incidence of MD was recorded in 1967 with 403 cases per 100,000 population, >3,040,000 recorded cases and >160,000 deaths with a case fatality rate of approximately 5.5%. Following the universal use of serogroup A MD (MenA) polysaccharide vaccines in China in the 1980s and the introduction of MenA polysaccharide vaccines in to the Expanded Programme for Immunization (EPI) in China in 2008, the reported incidence of MD has steadily declined to <0.52 cases per 100,000 population in 2009¹²; this decline has been particularly evident in the last five years owing to an increasing vaccination coverage rate.

The incidence and prevalence of Nm serogroups continually varies both geographically and temporally.^{10,13} Meningococcal epidemiology suggests an increased incidence and prevalence of MD during mass gatherings that involve migration and travel.^{14–16} Further, Nm is susceptible to frequent genetic transformations due to natural horizontal DNA exchanges between isolates.¹⁷

Currently, serogroup B MD (MenB) is the most prevalent globally.⁷ Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) of MenB isolates worldwide revealed three major hyperinvasive clonal complexes (ccs) (sequence type [ST]-32, ST-41/44 and ST-269) in Europe and the United States of America (USA).¹⁸ Further, cc ST-11 previously observed among serogroup C MD (MenC) and serogroup W MD (MenW) isolates has since occurred in cases of MenB due to capsular switching.^{19,20} MenA is the most common serogroup involved in MD pandemics and is predominantly found in China and Africa.²¹ The last major expansion of MenA observed in Africa and China was in the 1980s; however, both nations experienced the same clonal replacement of ST-5 with ST-7 in the 1990s.^{21,22} Serogroup X MD (MenX) emerged in Africa in the 1990s, reaching epidemic levels in Niger in 2006.²³ Cases of MenX isolates related to those responsible for meningococcal outbreaks in Niger, Togo and Burkina Faso have recently been recorded in Northern Italy among African and Bangladeshi migrants living in refugee camps.¹⁴ MenW has been known since the 1980s; however, its emergence as an epidemic serogroup was reported in 2000, in Hajj pilgrims returning to France and the UK.²⁴ Whole genome sequencing (WGS) data suggest a multifocal emergence of MenW isolates worldwide with the identification of two sub-lineages; one in individuals traveling to Mecca and in local South African residents, and the other in South America and the UK.¹⁵ Recently emerging MenC strains in sub-Saharan Africa were different isolates from those previously observed in 1980 and 2012. Following genomic analysis of the new clone of MenC identified in men who have sex with men (MSM), the strain was found to have evolved to acquire the capacity to spread via sexual transmission, as well as by respiratory droplets.²⁵

In China, the earliest serogroup A Nm was isolated in the 1950s (Fig. 1) and almost all isolated MenA strains since have been identified as cc1 or cc5. ST-5 and -7 are two major classifications of cc5 MenA, and ST-3 is a major classification of cc1 MenA. ST-5 (cc5 MenA) first emerged in the 1950s, however was gradually replaced by ST-3 (cc1 MenA) in the 1960s. Since 1980, MenA caused by ST-3 has continuously declined, and ST-7 has since been the predominant clone of MenA. In China, the incidence of MenB is increasing. Prior to 2000, invasive cc11, cc32 and cc8 strains were occasionally identified; however, more recently, MenB cc4821 has emerged. From 2003 to 2005, several MD epidemics occurred in the Anhui province, China; the MenC isolates attributed to such outbreaks were identified as the unique cc4821.²⁶ Genomic analysis

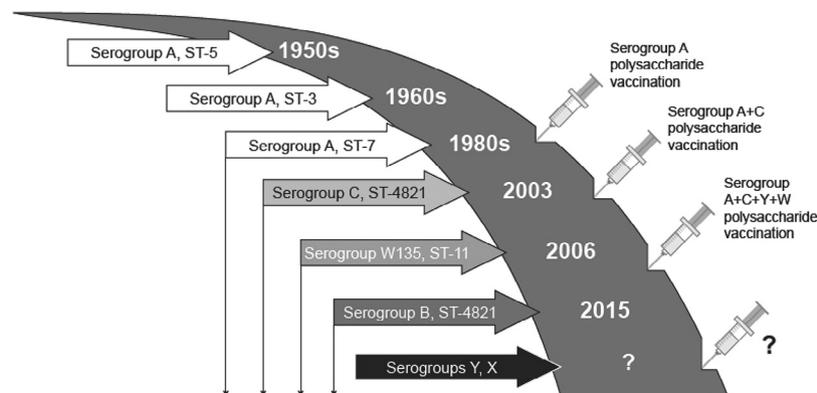
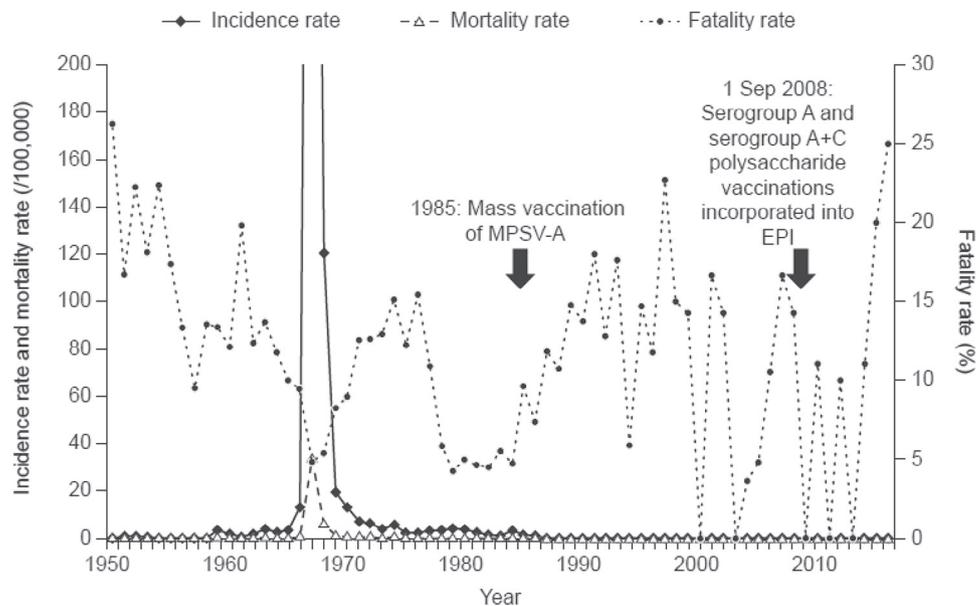


Fig. 1. Molecular epidemiology of *Neisseria meningitidis* in China.



EPI, Expanded Programme for Immunization; MPSV-A, Meningococcal polysaccharide vaccine – serogroup A

Fig. 3. The incidence of MD in the Guangdong province between 1950 and 2016.

of the MenA polysaccharide vaccine separated by three months, and subsequently receive a single dose of the MenA plus MenC polysaccharide vaccine at ages 3 and 6 years. If the child has not received the MenA polysaccharide vaccine between the ages of 2 and 4 years, they will receive the MenA plus MenC polysaccharide vaccine, with an interval of 3 years between the initial immunization and booster vaccine.

Liaoning province

Liaoning province is located in the northeast of China, with a population of approximately 43 million people.³⁹ Currently, the incidence rate of MD is <1 case per 100,000 population, with the majority of cases recorded during the springtime, and in the cities of Shenyang and Dalian, from 2004 to 2016. MD mainly affects individuals aged 0–15 years, while children, students and farmers (defined as laborers that travel from rural areas into cities for work) are the three main groups affected.

Surveillance data has demonstrated that serogroup A represents the highest number of meningococcal strains isolated from patient cases and close contacts of individuals with MD. From 2004 to 2016, serogroup A accounted for 75% of patient cases among 20 isolated strains of Nm, while serogroups B and C were detected less frequently. Further, 52 strains of Nm were observed among 922 close contacts of individuals with MD sampled by pharyngeal swab detection from 2004 to 2016, representing a 5.64% detection rate. Serogroup A accounted for 69.23% of close contacts, and serogroups B, C, W and Y were detected less often. In healthy carriers of meningococci, serogroup B and non-serogroupable represents the majority of recorded strains.

In accordance with national policy, the MenA polysaccharide vaccine and the MenA plus MenC polysaccharide vaccine have been freely available in Liaoning since 1985 and 2008, respectively, and conjugate vaccines are available only for private purchase. Vaccines are administered via the EPI as previously described (Fig. 2). Due to the expansion of the national immunization program, there is a continuing decrease in the incidence of MD in Liaoning; however, meningococcal vaccines for serogroups B, X, W and Y are not li-

censed, or incorporated into the EPI schedule, in China. Therefore, continued disease surveillance and close monitoring, as well as ensuring high rates of immunization coverage, are important for continuing disease control.

Guangdong province

Guangdong is a province located on the South China Sea coast. Guangdong has a permanent population of approximately 108,490,000 accounting for 7.9% of the total population of China.⁴⁰ The peak prevalence of MD cases in Guangdong was reported in 1967 with 705.04 cases per 100,000 population (Fig. 3). In 2016, Guangdong had an MD incidence rate of 0.0037 cases per 100,000 persons, with a case fatality rate of 25% (i.e. one reported death).

From 2012 to 2016, 32 sporadic cases of MD and four fatalities were reported in 11 cities across the Guangdong province. MenB accounted for the majority of reported isolates. Although MD cases were reported year round, disease incidence was highest in the winter and spring with 25% of cases reported in January. Patients' age ranged from 10 days to 56 years: 46.9% of patients were <6 months old and not yet eligible for immunization, and 68.8% of patients were <14 years old. The remainder of patients were adults in whom meningococcal vaccinations were not routinely offered.

The MenA polysaccharide vaccine was introduced into the Guangdong province immunization policy from 2000. In 2008, the MenA polysaccharide vaccine and the MenA plus MenC polysaccharide vaccine were made freely available to patients via the EPI. The MenA plus MenC conjugate vaccine and the serogroup ACWY meningococcal polysaccharide vaccine became available for private purchase in 2007 and 2008, respectively. Meningococcal vaccines in the Guangdong province are administered via the Chinese immunization schedule for children (Fig. 2).

MD prevention measures in Guangdong province include immunization, surveillance, raising awareness among the general public, and physician training, along with routine reporting, sentinel surveillance and the management of epidemics. From 2005 to 2013, sentinel surveillance was carried out in Guangdong to determine

meningococcal carriage rates, antibody prevalence and antibiotic resistance among healthy participants across several age groups (<1, 1–2, 3–4, 5–6, 7–14, 15–19 and ≥20 years). Data demonstrated that positive and protection rates of antibody levels against MenC were low in children <1 year, yet increased in children aged ≥3 years.⁴¹ For the prophylaxis and treatment of MD, resistance tests are conducted annually to determine the effectiveness of antibiotics; however, there is a need for national guidelines advising on which antibiotics should be used in control of the disease. Again, continued disease surveillance alongside high rates of immunization coverage are imperative for the continued control and future prevention of MD.

Overall, the prevalence rates of MD in China continue to decrease annually due to the increasing coverage of vaccination and immunization. In order to decrease the incidence of MD further, China may benefit from the integration of conjugate vaccines in to the EPI and from increased immunization among high-risk groups and target populations in specific areas known to suffer from frequent meningococcal epidemics.

Addressing surveillance/diagnostic challenges of meningococcal disease in China

Microbiological laboratory analyses play a critical role in the diagnosis of MD and the identification of causative strains of the disease. Laboratory analyses help in the detection of outbreaks: both in establishing the local or regional spread of infective strains and subsequent guidance of appropriate therapy, and in the identification of emerging pathogenic or virulent variants of the disease. Common laboratory techniques used in the isolation, identification and characterization of Nm include both blood and CSF cultures, serogrouping (using antisera and polymerase chain reaction [PCR]) and the creation of stock for future analysis. In China, the main methods used for confirming a diagnosis of Nm are by blood culture, CSF culture and real-time PCR (rtPCR).

Shanghai is a region of China with a traditionally high incidence of MD due to Nm. In Shanghai, laboratory methodologies currently available for confirming a diagnosis of Nm are blood cultures, CSF, latex agglutination and rtPCR. Isolates collected from patients with Nm, close contacts of individuals with Nm and carriers of Nm can undergo serogrouping, MLST and pulse-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) to investigate serogroup prevalence, cc prevalence and genetic relationships. Antibiogram and *gyrA* sequencing were used to investigate the changes in Nm quinolone susceptibility from 1965 to 2013 that were associated with the introduction and expanding use of quinolones in Shanghai. Quinolones have been widely used in China since the end of the 1980s, and have been recommended for Nm prophylaxis since 2005. The use of antibiogram and *gyrA* sequencing demonstrated a high prevalence of Nm quinolone non-susceptibility in Shanghai, which was associated with hyper-virulent MD lineages cc4821 and cc5 in turn due to two quinolone-resistant clones; China^{cc4821-R1-C/B} and China^{cc5-R14-A}.⁴² In Shanghai, the average incidence rate of MD decreased from 43 cases per 100,000 population between 1965 and 1985, to 0.08 cases per 100,000 population between 2005 and 2013. Conversely, the case fatality rate has increased from 3% between 1961 and 1970 to 10% between 2001 and 2013.⁴²

When culture results are negative, rtPCR can be used in the diagnosis of Nm and identification of causative serogroups.⁴³ For further strain characterization beyond the serogroup, nested MLST can then be used to identify the strain cc and ST.⁴⁴

Laboratory methods in Shanghai are very robust and ongoing methods for comprehensive MD strain characterization throughout China involve the continuous analysis of WGS data, including characterizing the aforementioned quinolone-resistant clones.

Pediatric bacterial meningitis in China

Globally, BM is a major cause of illness among infants and children and is among the top ten causes of death in children <5 years.⁴⁵ Between 2007 and 2016, Beijing Children's Hospital saw high numbers of BM, with incidence peaking in 2014 and 2016.⁴⁵ There are many cases of BM recorded in Northern China with unknown causative pathogens, and atypical clinical manifestations; of 148 BM patients admitted to Beijing Children's Hospital between 2007 and 2008, the most commonly reported clinical characteristics were fever, lethargy and convulsion.⁴⁵ Neurological sequelae commonly associated with BM include hearing loss, mental retardation, delayed language acquisition, visual impairment and behavioral problems.⁴⁵

A recent study reported that the estimated incidence of BM was 1.84–2.93 cases per 100,000 within the entire population and 6.95–22.30 for children <5 years from 2006 to 2009, with half of all patients aged <15 years.⁴⁶ The causative pathogens identified within these cases were Nm (35.1%), Hib (12.2%) and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (52.7%), with BM caused by *S. pneumoniae* most prevalent in children <2 years and adults >45 years accounting for 30.8% and 20.5% of cases, respectively.⁴⁶ Further, all confirmed cases of Hib were in children <2 years.⁴⁶ Similarly, in Hefei, China the estimated incidence of BM was 9.3 cases per 100,000 for children aged 1 month–15 years, and 19.2 cases per 100,000 for children aged 1 month–5 years between 1990 and 1992.⁴⁷ In the same study, the predominant causative pathogens of BM observed were Hib, Nm and *S. pneumoniae*, which accounted for 51.7%, 38.3% and 8.3% of cases, respectively.⁴⁷ Other common BM-causing isolates in China are coagulase negative *Staphylococcus*, *Enterococcus*, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) and *Acinetobacter baumannii*.^{48,49}

As discussed in the case of Shanghai, China with prophylaxis for Nm, high levels of antibiotic resistance have also been reported in cases of BM. From 2010 to 2014, the main causative pathogens among 507 children with BM in Beijing were identified as *S. pneumoniae* (33.2%), *E. coli* (10.9%), *Enterococcus* (10.0%) and group B *Streptococcus* (8.2%).⁴⁸ Following penicillin susceptibility testing, high levels of antibiotic resistance rates were reported, and the total non-susceptibility rate of *S. pneumoniae* to penicillin was 47.6%. The resistance rates of *S. pneumoniae* isolates to ceftriaxone, cefepime and ceftazidime antibiotics were 75%, 55.6% and 40%, respectively.⁴⁸ Further, the five most common BM isolates were coagulase negative *Staphylococcus* (58.9%), *Micrococcus* (5.5%), *S. pneumoniae* (5.1%), *E. coli* (4.8%) and *Enterococcus faecium* (3.9%) were reported between 2007 and 2014. *S. pneumoniae* had a 77.7% resistance rate to penicillin and 100% sensitivity rates to vancomycin and *E. coli* to piperacillin, tazobactam and meropenem.⁵⁰

Sentinel surveillance and etiological analysis in Shandong from 2006 to 2012 confirmed 309 cases of BM.⁵¹ Of 61 patients with laboratory-confirmed BM, 32 cases were due to serogroups B, C, W and unspecified Nm, and 29 cases were due to *S. pneumoniae*. Up to 87% of BM cases were successfully treated or had a positive disease prognosis.⁵¹

The continued presence of BM among the Chinese population is attributed to a number of risk factors, including lack of immunity to specific pathogens, close contact with patients, absence of breastfeeding among infants aged 2–5 months and crowding. In a follow-up study of 33 patients with recurrent purulent meningitis, the risk factor responsible for the greatest proportion of cases was congenital abnormal anatomic structure (75%), followed by trauma in cephalic or vertebral region or operation (15%), and congenital immunodeficiency (9%).⁵² Further, PCR-based sequencing used to analyze blood samples taken from 218 child patients with confirmed BM and 330 healthy adult controls indicated that polymorphisms in toll-like receptor 2 and toll-like receptor 9 are associated with BM severity and poor prognosis in Chinese children.⁵³

The treatment of BM in China depends on the pathogen, disease severity, complications and antibiotic treatment response. For

example, antibiotics are discontinued when associated symptoms are no longer observed, normal temperature has been achieved for >1 week, normal CSF levels are present and protein/glucose and pathogenic tests are negative. In China, pediatric BM incidence data indicates that cases attributable to Nm are declining, whereas *S. pneumoniae* cases are increasing despite the availability of conjugate vaccines. China still faces many challenges in the treatment of acute BM, such as the notifiable diseases reporting system, etiology and surveillance, antibiotic resistance, societal and governmental awareness and vaccination status.^{10,54}

Importance of conjugate vaccines in the prevention of meningococcal disease

In 1999, the UK became the first country to implement the meningococcal serogroup C conjugate vaccine into the national vaccination schedule.⁵⁵ Unlike polysaccharide vaccines, conjugate vaccinations have the ability to impart herd protection via the prevention of the acquisition of carriage among the healthy population⁵⁶ and have been shown to reduce the acquisition of nasopharyngeal carriage of Hib,⁵⁷ *S. pneumoniae*,⁵⁸ MenC,⁵⁶ MenA⁵⁹ and MenY.⁶⁰ Conjugate vaccines are currently available for MenA and MenC, Hib and Nm. Mono- and multi-valent conjugate vaccines are recommended in UK national immunization programs for infants, adolescents and “at risk” groups.

The MenC conjugate vaccine was introduced in the UK as the primary vaccine for all infants aged 2, 3 and 4 months, and as a single dose “catch-up” program for all adolescents up to 18 years.⁵⁵ From 1999 to 2015, the incidence of MD declined significantly. Indeed, epidemiological surveillance revealed that ≥ 1 year after primary infant immunization the efficacy of the MenC vaccine (estimated as direct protection afforded to vaccinated rather than unvaccinated individuals in the same population) significantly declined from 97% to 68%.⁶¹ Data from infants who received three doses of the MenC conjugate vaccine, at ages 2, 3 and 4 months, indicated that serum bactericidal antibody (SBA) titers significantly increased over three doses in early infancy, before falling to pre-vaccination levels by 4 years of age.⁶² Although the MenC conjugate vaccine was priming for immune memory, the booster response was too slow to prevent disease, confirming that immunological memory alone was insufficient to provide long-term disease protection.⁶³ The UK immunization schedule subsequently evolved in 2006, to include a booster dose at age 12 months in addition to two primary doses at ages 3 and 4 months (2 + 1 schedule).⁶⁴

As antibody levels still rapidly declined following a 2 + 1 dosing schedule, the immunization schedule was altered to include adolescent vaccination in an effort to maintain the herd protection.⁵⁵ The effect of both direct and indirect immunization provided a marked reduction in MD carriage rates in the UK (71% reduction from 1999 to 2000, further reducing to 81% by 2001 in a cohort of 15,000 immunized teenagers aged 15–19).⁵⁶ A 67% reduction in the incidence rate of MenC in an unvaccinated UK cohort demonstrated an immunoprotective effect of the MenC vaccination program, and successful herd protection.⁶⁵

The success of the MenC conjugate vaccine in the UK in reducing the incidence of MD can be attributed to the combined efficacy of the vaccine against disease and carriage, and the nature of the vaccine introduction strategy. Indirect protection is a significant component of disease control in the UK. In UK students, the Nm carriage rate increases dramatically within the first week of university due to an increase in the number of “high-risk” behaviors, such as attending bars, night clubs and places with overcrowding, and smoking.^{66,67} The use of a “catch-up” campaign among adolescents was paramount to the successes of the MenC conjugate vaccine in reducing the prevalence of the disease in the UK, providing both direct and indirect protection to immunized and unimmunized in-

dividuals, respectively. The vaccination policy in China is currently under review, and the introduction of conjugate vaccinations into the EPI schedule is being considered to increase the proportion of the population protected against MD.

Outbreak control

Learnings from routine MenB immunization in the UK

Bexsero®, a multicomponent MenB vaccine (4CMenB),⁶⁸ was introduced into the UK national immunization schedule in 2015 in infants aged 2, 4 and 12 months. Following the implementation of this vaccine, the number of recorded cases of MD dropped in the vaccination eligible cohort and vaccine effectiveness was reported at 83%.⁶⁹ While the MenB vaccine does not provide protection against all strains of MenB, it is estimated to protect against 88% of MenB strains in the UK and, as such, provide vaccine effectiveness of 94%. To date, there have been no reported safety concerns associated with the use of the vaccine. Current published data suggested that the MenB vaccine does not show a significant effect on the carriage of MenB; however, surveillance efforts are ongoing to accurately assess the impact of the vaccine on meningococcal carriage rates.⁶⁰

Trumenba® is a bivalent MenB vaccine that contains two fHbp variants.^{70,71} Trumenba® has been licensed in the USA since 2014, and is given to adolescents aged 10–25 years; as such, the vaccine is predominantly used in outbreaks.⁷⁰ In the European Union (EU), Trumenba® has been licensed since 2017 for individuals aged >10 years, and it is likely, in the USA, that the vaccine will be used in outbreak settings.^{70–72}

Conjugate vaccines against serogroups A, C, Y and W are highly effective in the prevention of MD, especially via the interruption of the acquisition of carriage.^{56,59,60} Broad coverage vaccines for serogroup B disease are now licensed in the USA, EU and elsewhere. As MenB is a highly prevalent MD serogroup worldwide, and incidence rates are increasing in China¹⁰ would be advantageous for there to be a licensed serogroup B vaccine in China that could be considered for future use in the Chinese National Immunization Programme.

Learnings from routine MenB immunization in Seine-Maritime, Northern France

MLST and phenotyping determined that MenB isolates from Seine-Maritime were B:14:P1.7,16 and cc32; B:14:P1.7,16 accounted for approximately 50% of the total MenB strains observed in Seine-Maritime, but only 5% of the total MenB cases in France, indicating varying global and temporal incidence with a specific localization of this strain in Seine-Maritime. The case fatality rate for this strain was significantly higher than that of other serogroup B cases at 19% compared with 8%; as such, urgent action was required to reduce the spread of MenB.⁷³

Due to similarities in the PorA protein between the B:14:P1.7,16 Seine-Maritime strain and the Norwegian B:15:P1.7,16/ST32 isolate used to develop the outer membrane vesicles (OMV)-based vaccine, the MenB vaccine (MenBvac®) developed in Norway, was determined as effective against the French isolate.⁷⁴ The vaccine was therefore able to eradicate the Seine-Maritime strain at a level not significantly different from that of the original vaccine strain.⁷⁴

More than 26,014 individuals were identified as eligible for vaccination with the MenB vaccine; however, due to a shortage of the vaccine, individuals aged 1–5 years were initially targeted (as this age group showed the highest incidence of B:14:P1.7,16 cases).⁷³ Individuals living in Seine-Maritime aged 1–19 years were vaccinated from June 2006 onwards. The vaccine campaign was halted in 2013, as the incidence of the strain reverted to pre-vaccination levels. It was confirmed that the MenB vaccine produced short-lived responses (showed by a similar percentage of patients with an SBA titer of ≥ 4 before and five years after the vaccination).^{75,76}

Approximately 200 isolates were obtained in a carriage study of volunteers between 1 and 25 years; however, only five had the outbreak strain (B:14:P1.7,16/ST-32). As the carriage rate is 0.31% among vaccinated children versus 2.10% in non-vaccinated children, this suggested that the vaccine may impact carriage regardless of serogroup. Subsequently, there were no cases of B:14:P1.7,16 in the Seine-Maritime between 2014 and 2015 and only one reported case in 2016; however, the strain is still present in France. Further, since the outbreak of MenB in Seine-Maritime, France Bexsero® has become widely available and Trumenba® is expected shortly.

Learnings from routine MenA immunization in Africa

China and Africa differ in many senses; however, both have regions that are overcrowded. Further, both countries have reported inexplicable similarities in the 10-yearly cycles of MD epidemics.^{10,77} The “meningitis belt” of sub-Saharan Africa consists of 26 countries with extremely high prevalence rates of Nm: from 1986 to 2015, there were approximately 1.3 million cases of MD, accounting for approximately 80% of the global burden of the disease. In the “meningitis belt”, epidemics occur periodically every 3–4 years. The high incidence of MD is thought to be due to the windy sub-Saharan climate, which favors colonization and transmission of Nm in the nasopharynx. Historically, >80% of Nm outbreaks in the “meningitis belt” were caused by serogroup A compared with serogroups C, W or X.

Licensed in 2009, the monovalent MenA conjugate vaccine MenAfriVac® initiative was designed to eliminate MenA epidemics from Africa and provide long-term efficacy against the disease at an affordable price.⁷⁸ The introduction strategy of the monovalent MenA conjugate vaccine was to provide indirect disease protection via the induction of herd protection by immunizing the population aged 1–29 years with a 10 µg dose of the vaccine. A 5 µg dose of the vaccine was then introduced into the EPI in order to provide direct protection of the new birth cohort. The highest priority for vaccination was given to countries with the highest incidence of MenA, and a multi-phase approach was used in order to target as much of the population as quickly as possible. To date, over 270 million people have been vaccinated across the majority of countries in the “meningitis belt” and enhanced surveillance is in place in order to detect potential outbreaks and monitor the impact of the MenA vaccine on incidence levels.

The introduction of the MenAfriVac® campaign has successfully reduced the incidence of meningitis and carriage due to Nm serogroup A; overall, enhanced surveillance indicates a 60% decline in the incidence of Nm and a 90% decline in MenA.^{79,80} The monovalent MenA conjugate vaccine has a number of properties that contribute to its success. The vaccine is thermostable and can be kept in a controlled temperature chain at temperatures of less than 40 °C for up to four days. The vaccine is well tolerated, with few adverse events seen following immunization, and inexpensive at around \$0.50 per dose. Finally, the national campaigns had 95% coverage rates on average; although the vaccination program easily captured infants, adolescents were less well covered and as such, “mop-up” campaigns were launched in countries with low coverage rates.

MenAfriVac® has been progressively introduced into the immunization schedules of countries in the “meningitis belt”; however, there is much work yet to be done. The monovalent MenA conjugate vaccine is not yet implemented into routine immunization schedules in all countries in the “meningitis belt”. Further, there remains a continued risk of a meningitis outbreak due to an alternative serogroup; serogroups X, W and C are still present in Africa and the re-emergence of MenC is a growing concern, particularly in Niger and Nigeria. The ideal vaccine would be a five-valent conjugate vaccine that protects against serogroups A, C, X, Y, and W and that is affordable, thermostable and well tolerated.

The MenA vaccine reduced carriage rates and invasive disease inducing herd protection and direct protection, respectively. The key characteristics responsible for the success of the vaccine initiative were its continued efficacy outside of the cold chain, the development of tailored doses for campaign or routine settings and the low manufacturing costs. It is tempting to speculate that a similar approach could be adopted in China for the production of conjugate vaccines against MenA, MenC and MenA/C plus Hib to improve cost-effectiveness and increase the likelihood of introduction into the EPI.

Outbreak preparedness

Key WHO recommendations for the outbreak response and preparedness are relevant to all countries, including China, and as such, universal standard operating procedures should be defined and implemented globally. Adequate MD surveillance is paramount to the detection of disease outbreak and aids with a timely and effective response. During an MD outbreak, the correct identification of the causative serogroup is important to identify the most appropriate antibiotic prophylaxis if needed. Further, epidemiological data are needed to estimate disease burden, geographical location and to identify “at-risk” populations. Once the vaccination response has occurred, epidemiological data collected via surveillance networks are required to determine vaccine effectiveness.

Although surveillance in China should cover the whole country, provinces may have different surveillance objectives and therefore sentinel surveillance may be sufficient. The aim of the Invasive Bacterial Vaccine-Preventable Disease (IBVPD) surveillance network is to assess the impact of vaccination. A laboratory component is essential (e.g. culturing or PCR) to disease surveillance, as rapid identification of the serogroup is critical in determining the response needed at a local and national level. Lumbar puncture for CSF is the most accurate way to confirm meningitis; however, future diagnostic methods may include the collection of other fluids (e.g. blood), as in many regions lumbar puncture kits may not be available, as is true in Africa. Furthermore, laboratory capacities vary at a local, provincial and national level and various aspects of surveillance require standardized, country-specific protocols in order for the provision of timely disease data to support case management and reactive vaccination and treatment strategies. Once in place, there is a need to define and continuously monitor surveillance indicators to ensure optimal quality. The use of a weekly national bulletin in which all laboratory data are provided to all provinces to monitor epidemiology, and a support network within and among neighboring countries may be beneficial in disease surveillance. This approach has worked well in Africa following the introduction of MenAfriVac®, and a similar approach may be effective in China.

The definitions for alert and epidemic thresholds will vary among countries and are directly related to the level of disease burden; for example, in Africa 3 per 100,000 persons per week trigger “alert” actions. Similar to Africa, China is hugely populated and this approach may prove effective. For example, an epidemic threshold level could be defined for each Chinese sub-county, at which neighboring counties would be alerted to a rising incidence of MD. This would lead to the reactive vaccination of the target population in response to epidemic threshold, which when complete would in turn lead to the cessation of the alert. It is tempting to speculate that this would be a very effective method in the prevention of future epidemics in China.

The most important aspect of reactive protocols for vaccination and antibiotic prophylaxis is speed. In Africa, vaccination should occur within 4 weeks after having reached the threshold, and similar time constraints could be developed in China. Polysaccharide vaccines are usually given due to a lower cost compared with conjugate vaccines; however, global supply is limited. Antibiotics should be given early (within 72 hours) in order to prevent death and complications; although, the antibiotic used is subject to antibiotic

resistance. The development of rapid bedside diagnostic tests may be useful for the global community to enable a better response to meningitis outbreaks and several prototypes are currently in development.^{81,82}

Standardized protocol for procedures to outline actions during an MD epidemic are needed within and among countries (including defined alert and epidemic thresholds), which emphasize the importance of disease surveillance. These could be developed for provinces across China in order to standardize outbreak response and disease control.

Conclusions and key recommendations

Based on the surveillance, diagnosis and confirmation data presented at this GMI meeting, it is clear that meningococcal epidemiology is changing in China with the decline of serogroup A disease, emergence of new clones of serogroup B and C, and as a consequence of the international spread, an increase in serogroup W cc11.^{16,26–29} As MenB is responsible for an increasing number of MD cases in China, an effective vaccination strategy should be in place should an outbreak occur; this further emphasizes the importance of standardized laboratory procedures across China. Indeed, there is a need for improved disease surveillance and standardized laboratory techniques across and within provinces to ensure optimal epidemiological monitoring. Further, incidence data relating to pediatric BM in China indicates that Nm cases are declining, whereas *S. pneumoniae* cases are increasing, despite the availability of conjugate vaccines⁴⁸; therefore, new vaccination strategies may be required including the use of conjugate vaccines and a MenB vaccine to reduce the carriage and induce herd protection acknowledging important lessons from the prior use in the control of MD outbreaks.

Conflict of interest

RB and XB perform contract work for Public Health England on behalf of GSK, PATH, Sanofi Pasteur and Pfizer.

MKT performs contract work for the Institut Pasteur funded by GSK, Pfizer and Sanofi Pasteur.

JL, ZS, GL, MC, QG, YH, YL, Xihai Xu, Xin Xu and HZ have no conflicts of interest.

Author's contributions

Authors discussed and agreed to the scope of the manuscript and contributed to the development of the manuscript at all stages. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

Authors would like to thank Dr. Olivier Ronveaux, Infectious Hazard Management, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland for his contribution during this GMI Roundtable Meeting and for providing permission to use their presentation content in this manuscript. The authors were assisted in the preparation of the manuscript by Jennifer Rutter and Emily Fisher, professional medical writers at CircleScience, an Ashfield Company, part of UDG Healthcare plc. Medical writing support was funded by Sanofi Pasteur.

References

- Heymann D. Control of communicable diseases manual. 20 ed. Washington D.C.: American Public Health Association Press; 2015.
- Maiden MC, Jansen van Rensburg MJ, Bray JE, Earle SG, Ford SA, Jolley KA, et al. MLST revisited: the gene-by-gene approach to bacterial genomics. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2013;11:728–36.
- Harrison LH, Pelton SI, Wilder-Smith A, Holst J, Safadi MA, Vazquez JA, et al. The Global Meningococcal Initiative: recommendations for reducing the global burden of meningococcal disease. *Vaccine* 2011;29:3363–71.
- Harrison OB, Claus H, Jiang Y, Bennett JS, Bratcher HB, Jolley KA, et al. Description and nomenclature of *Neisseria meningitidis* capsule locus. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2013;19:566–73.
- Borrow R, Caugant DA, Ceyhan M, Christensen H, Dinleyici EC, Findlow J, et al. Meningococcal disease in the Middle East and Africa: findings and updates from the Global Meningococcal Initiative. *J Infect* 2017;75:1–11.
- CDC. Active bacterial core surveillance report, emerging infections program network, *Neisseria meningitidis*. 2014; 22 December 2016.
- Jafri RZ, Ali A, Messonnier NE, Tevi-Benissan C, Durrheim D, Eskola J, et al. Global epidemiology of invasive meningococcal disease. *Popul Health Metr* 2013;11:17.
- Lingani C, Bergeron-Caron C, Stuart JM, Fernandez K, Djingarey MH, Ronveaux O, et al. Meningococcal meningitis surveillance in the African meningitis belt, 2004–2013. *Clin Infect Dis* 2015;61(Suppl 5):S410–5.
- Li J, Li Y, Wu D, Ning G, Shao Z, Yin Z, et al. Epidemiological characteristics of meningococcal meningitis and switching trend of serogroups of *Neisseria meningitidis* in China, 2006–2014. *Chin J Vaccine Immun* 2015;21:482–5.
- Zhang Y, Wei D, Guo X, Han M, Yuan L, Kyaw MH. Burden of *Neisseria meningitidis* infections in China: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Glob Health* 2016;6:020409.
- Leimkugel JRV, Jacintho da Silva L, Pluschke G. Global review of meningococcal disease. A shifting etiology. *J Bacteriol Res* 2009;1:6–18.
- Li Junhong LY, Zhu Jun S, Haijian Z, Guijun N, Zundong Y, Huiming L, et al. Surveillance of meningococcal disease in China, 2009. *Disease Surveillance* 2010;25:770–80.
- Trotter CL, Lingani C, Fernandez K, Cooper LV, Bitá A, Tevi-Benissan C, et al. Impact of MenAfriVac in nine countries of the African meningitis belt, 2010–15: an analysis of surveillance data. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2017;17:867–72.
- Stefanelli P, Neri A, Vacca P, Piccolo D, Daprai L, Mainardi G, et al. Meningococci of serogroup X clonal complex 181 in refugee camps, Italy. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2017;23:870–2.
- Lucidarme J, Hill DM, Bratcher HB, Gray SJ, du Plessis M, Tsang RS, et al. Genomic resolution of an aggressive, widespread, diverse and expanding meningococcal serogroup B, C and W lineage. *J Infect* 2015;71:544–52.
- Lucidarme J, Scott KJ, Ure R, Smith A, Lindsay D, Stenmark B, et al. An international invasive meningococcal disease outbreak due to a novel and rapidly expanding serogroup W strain, Scotland and Sweden, July to August 2015. *Euro Surveill* 2016;21.
- Granoff DMH, Borrow R. Meningococcal vaccines. In: Plotkin SA, Orenstein W, Offit PA, editors. *Vaccines*. Philadelphia, PA: Saunders Elsevier; 2008. p. 399–434.
- Murphy E, Andrew L, Lee KL, Dilts DA, Nunez L, Fink PS, et al. Sequence diversity of the factor H binding protein vaccine candidate in epidemiologically relevant strains of serogroup B *Neisseria meningitidis*. *J Infect Dis* 2009;200:379–89.
- Vogel U, Taha MK, Vazquez JA, Findlow J, Claus H, Stefanelli P, et al. Predicted strain coverage of a meningococcal multicomponent vaccine (4CMenB) in Europe: a qualitative and quantitative assessment. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2013;13:416–25.
- Mustapha MM, Marsh JW, Krauland MG, Fernandez JO, de Lemos AP, Dunning Hotopp JC, et al. Genomic investigation reveals highly conserved, mosaic, recombination events associated with capsular switching among invasive *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup W sequence type (ST)-11 strains. *Genome Biol Evol* 2016;8:2065–75.
- Achtman M. Clonal spread of serogroup A meningococci: a paradigm for the analysis of microevolution in bacteria. *Mol Microbiol* 1994;11:15–22.
- Wang JF, Caugant DA, Li X, Hu X, Poolman JT, Crowe BA, et al. Clonal and antigenic analysis of serogroup A *Neisseria meningitidis* with particular reference to epidemiological features of epidemic meningitis in the People's Republic of China. *Infect Immun* 1992;60:5267–82.
- Agnememel A, Hong E, Giorgini D, Nunez-Samudio V, Deghmane AE, Taha MK. *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup X in sub-Saharan Africa. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2016;22:698–702.
- Aguilera JF, Perrocheau A, Meffre C, Hahne S. Outbreak of serogroup W135 meningococcal disease after the Hajj pilgrimage, Europe, 2000. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2002;8:761–7.
- Taha MK, Claus H, Lappann M, Veyrier FJ, Otto A, Becher D, et al. Evolutionary events associated with an outbreak of meningococcal disease in men who have sex with men. *PLoS ONE* 2016;11:e0154047.
- Shao Z, Li W, Ren J, Liang X, Xu L, Diao B, et al. Identification of a new *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup C clone from Anhui province, China. *Lancet* 2006;367:419–23.
- Zhu B, Xu Z, Du P, Xu L, Sun X, Gao Y, et al. Sequence type 4821 clonal complex serogroup B *Neisseria meningitidis* in China, 1978–2013. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2015;21:925–32.
- Shao Z, Zhou H, Gao Y, Ren H, Xu L, Kan B, et al. *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup W135, China. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2010;16:348–9.
- Zhou H, Liu W, Xu L, Deng L, Deng Q, Zhuo J, et al. Spread of *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup W clone, China. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2013;19:1496–9.
- Chen C, Zhang TG, He JG, Wu J, Chen LJ, Liu JF, et al. A first meningococcal meningitis case caused by serogroup X *Neisseria meningitidis* strains in China. *Chin Med J* 2008;121:664–6.
- Pan J, Yao P, Zhang H, Sun X, He H, Xie S. The case of a new sequence type 7 serogroup X *Neisseria meningitidis* infection in China: may capsular switching change serogroup profile? *Int J Infect Dis* 2014;29:62–4.

32. Guo LC, Liu XC, Xu QY, Yiu YS, Cai Y, Jiang GQ, et al. Epidemiological analysis on serogroup Y *Neisseria meningitidis* firstly isolated from patient in Tianjin. *Zhonghua Yu Fang Yi Xue Za Zhi* 2016;50:825–7.
33. Wang Q, Shao Z, Wang X, Gao Y, Li M, Xu L, et al. Genetic study of capsular switching between *Neisseria meningitidis* sequence type 7 serogroup A and C strains. *Infect Immun* 2010;78:3883–8.
34. Zhu B, Yao P, Zhang L, Gao Y, Xu L, Xie N, et al. Genetic analysis of *Neisseria meningitidis* sequence type 7 serogroup X originating from serogroup A. *Infect Immun* 2017;85.
35. Xu Z, Du P, Zhu B, Xu L, Wang H, Gao Y, et al. Phylogenetic study of clonal complex (CC)198 capsule null locus (cni) genomes: a distinctive group within the species *Neisseria meningitidis*. *Infect Genet Evol* 2015;34:372–7.
36. Li J, Li Y, Shao Z, Li L, Yin Z, Ning G, et al. Prevalence of meningococcal meningitis in China from 2005 to 2010. *Vaccine* 2015;33:1092–7.
37. Li J, Li Y, Yin Z, Ning G, Wu D, Shao Z, et al. Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of serogroup C meningococcal meningitis in China during 2008–2013. *Chin J Vaccine Immun* 2015;21:168–72.
38. Yang L, Shao Z, Zhang X, Xu L, Peng J, Xu X, et al. Genotypic characterization of *Neisseria meningitidis* serogroup B strains circulating in China. *J Infect* 2008;56:211–8.
39. Yao J, Wang BJ. Genetic variation of 25 Y-chromosomal and 15 autosomal STR loci in the Han Chinese population of Liaoning province, Northeast China. *PLoS ONE* 2016;11:e0160415.
40. The National Bureau of Statistics of China. *China STATISTICS YEARBOOK 2016*. China Statistics Press; 2016 Available at: <http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/2016/indexeh.htm>.
41. Liang J, Liu M, Zheng Z, Wu C, Shao X. Antibody levels to serogroup C *Neisseria meningitidis* in a healthy population of Guangdong Province, 2010 to 2013. *Chin J Vaccine Immun* 2015;21:177–80.
42. Chen M, Guo Q, Wang Y, Zou Y, Wang G, Zhang X, et al. Shifts in the antibiotic susceptibility, serogroups, and clonal complexes of *Neisseria meningitidis* in Shanghai, China: a time trend analysis of the pre-quinolone and quinolone eras. *PLoS Med* 2015;12:e1001838, discussion e.
43. Zhu BQ, Xu L, Li MC, Ren HY, Tian GZ, Gao Y, et al. Establishment and application of TaqMan real-time PCR in detection and serogrouping of *Neisseria meningitidis*. *Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi* 2008;29:360–4.
44. Birtles A, Hardy K, Gray SJ, Handford S, Kaczmarek EB, Edwards-Jones V, et al. Multilocus sequence typing of *Neisseria meningitidis* directly from clinical samples and application of the method to the investigation of meningococcal disease case clusters. *J Clin Microbiol* 2005;43:6007–14.
45. Liu G, Zhang E, Chen H, Li S, Chi W, Jiang Z. Risk factors of poor prognosis in children with purulent meningitis. *J Clin Pediatr* 2011;29:148–52.
46. Li Y, Yin Z, Shao Z, Li M, Liang X, Sandhu HS, et al. Population-based surveillance for bacterial meningitis in China, September 2006–December 2009. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2014;20:61–9.
47. Yang Y, Leng Z, Shen X, Lu D, Jiang Z, Rao J, et al. Acute bacterial meningitis in children in Hefei, China 1990–1992. *Chin Med J* 1996;109:385–8.
48. Guo LY, Zhang ZX, Wang X, Zhang PP, Shi W, Yao KH, et al. Clinical and pathogenic analysis of 507 children with bacterial meningitis in Beijing, 2010–2014. *Int J Infect Dis* 2016;50:38–43.
49. Zhang L, Wang C, Wang Y. Clinical and etiological analysis of 146 cases of bacterial meningitis with clear pathogens. *Chin J Evid Based Pediatr* 2013;8:161–6.
50. Wang H, Hua C, Li J. [Pathogens distribution and drug resistance from cerebrospinal fluid culture from 2007 to 2014]. *J Clin Pediatr* 2016;34:533–7.
51. Zhang Yan LM-S, Li-zhi S, Gui-fang L, Min W, Xiao-juan L, Zuo-kui X, et al. Sentinel surveillance and etiological analysis of acute bacterial meningitis in Shandong, 2006–2012. *Dis Surveill* 2014;29:48–51.
52. Chen HY. Recurrent purulent meningitis in children: analysis of the cause and follow up with 33 cases. *Beijing Med* 2011;6:479–83.
53. Zhang P, Zhang N, Liu L, Zheng K, Zhu L, Zhu J, et al. Polymorphisms of toll-like receptors 2 and 9 and severity and prognosis of bacterial meningitis in Chinese children. *Sci Rep* 2017;7:42796.
54. Brouwer MC, Tunkel AR, van de Beek D. Epidemiology, diagnosis, and antimicrobial treatment of acute bacterial meningitis. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2010;23:467–92.
55. Miller E, Salisbury D, Ramsay M. Planning, registration, and implementation of an immunisation campaign against meningococcal serogroup C disease in the UK: a success story. *Vaccine* 2001;20(Suppl 1):S58–67.
56. Maiden MC, Ibarz-Pavon AB, Urwin R, Gray SJ, Andrews NJ, Clarke SC, et al. Impact of meningococcal serogroup C conjugate vaccines on carriage and herd immunity. *J Infect Dis* 2008;197:737–43.
57. Takala AK, Eskola J, Leinonen M, Kayhty H, Nissinen A, Pekkanen E, et al. Reduction of oropharyngeal carriage of *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) in children immunized with an Hib conjugate vaccine. *J Infect Dis* 1991;164:982–6.
58. Dagan R, Melamed R, Muallem M, Piglansky L, Greenberg D, Abramson O, et al. Reduction of nasopharyngeal carriage of pneumococci during the second year of life by a heptavalent conjugate pneumococcal vaccine. *J Infect Dis* 1996;174:1271–8.
59. Kristiansen PA, Diomande F, Ba AK, Sanou I, Ouedraogo AS, Ouedraogo R, et al. Impact of the serogroup A meningococcal conjugate vaccine, MenAfriVac, on carriage and herd immunity. *Clin Infect Dis* 2013;56:354–63.
60. Read RC, Baxter D, Chadwick DR, Faust SN, Finn A, Gordon SB, et al. Effect of a quadrivalent meningococcal ACWY glycoconjugate or a serogroup B meningococcal vaccine on meningococcal carriage: an observer-blind, phase 3 randomised clinical trial. *Lancet* 2014;384:2123–31.
61. Campbell H, Andrews N, Borrow R, Trotter C, Miller E. Updated postlicensure surveillance of the meningococcal C conjugate vaccine in England and Wales: effectiveness, validation of serological correlates of protection, and modeling predictions of the duration of herd immunity. *Clin Vaccine Immunol* 2010;17:840–7.
62. Borrow R, Goldblatt D, Andrews N, Southern J, Ashton L, Deane S, et al. Antibody persistence and immunological memory at age 4 years after meningococcal group C conjugate vaccination in children in the United Kingdom. *J Infect Dis* 2002;186:1353–7.
63. Auckland C, Gray S, Borrow R, Andrews N, Goldblatt D, Ramsay M, et al. Clinical and immunologic risk factors for meningococcal C conjugate vaccine failure in the United Kingdom. *J Infect Dis* 2006;194:1745–52.
64. Ladhani SN, Andrews NJ, Waight P, Hallis B, Matheson M, England A, et al. Interchangeability of meningococcal group C conjugate vaccines with different carrier proteins in the United Kingdom infant immunisation schedule. *Vaccine* 2015;33:648–55.
65. Ramsay ME, Andrews NJ, Trotter CL, Kaczmarek EB, Miller E. Herd immunity from meningococcal serogroup C conjugate vaccination in England: database analysis. *BMJ* 2003;326:365–6.
66. Cartwright KA, Stuart JM, Jones DM, Noah ND. The Stonehouse survey: nasopharyngeal carriage of meningococci and *Neisseria lactamica*. *Epidemiol Infect* 1987;99:591–601.
67. MacLennan J, Kafatos G, Neal K, Andrews N, Cameron JC, Roberts R, et al. Social behavior and meningococcal carriage in British teenagers. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2006;12:950–7.
68. Donnelly J, Medini D, Boccadifuoco G, Biolchi A, Ward J, Frasch C, et al. Qualitative and quantitative assessment of meningococcal antigens to evaluate the potential strain coverage of protein-based vaccines. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2010;107:19490–5.
69. Parikh SRAN, Beebejaun K, Campbell H, Ribeiro S, Ward C, White JM, et al. Early evidence of effectiveness against group B meningococcal disease and population impact of a reduced infant schedule with 4CMenB vaccine in England. *Lancet* 2016;338:2775–82.
70. Sunasara K, Cundy J, Srinivasan S, Evans B, Sun W, Cook S, et al. Bivalent rLP2086 (Trumenb(R)): development of a well-characterized vaccine through commercialization. *Vaccine* 2017; <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2017.03.100>.
71. Griggs RC, Batschaw M, Dunkle M, Gopal-Srivastava R, Kaye E, Krischer J, et al. Clinical research for rare disease: opportunities, challenges, and solutions. *Mol Genet Metab* 2009;96:20–6.
72. Soeters HM, Dinitz-Sklar J, Kulkarni PA, MacNeil JR, McNamara LA, Zaremski E, et al. Serogroup B meningococcal disease vaccine recommendations at a University, New Jersey, USA, 2016. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2017;23:867–9.
73. Rouaud P, Perrocheau A, Taha MK, Sesboue C, Fougues AM, Parent du Chatelet I, et al. Prolonged outbreak of B meningococcal disease in the Seine-Maritime department, France, January 2003 to June 2005. *Euro Surveill* 2006;11:178–81.
74. Taha MK, Zarattonelli ML, Alonso JM, Naess LM, Holst J, Feiring B, et al. Use of available outer membrane vesicle vaccines to control serogroup B meningococcal outbreaks. *Vaccine* 2007;25:2537–8.
75. Sevestre J, Hong E, Delbos V, Terrade A, Mallet E, Deghmane AE, et al. Durability of immunogenicity and strain coverage of MenBvac, a meningococcal vaccine based on outer membrane vesicles: lessons of the Normandy campaign. *Vaccine* 2017;35:4029–33.
76. Caron F, Delbos V, Houivet E, Deghmane AE, Leroy JP, Hong E, et al. Evolution of immune response against *Neisseria meningitidis* B:14:P1.7,16 before and after the outer membrane vesicle vaccine MenBvac. *Vaccine* 2012;30:5059–62.
77. Greenwood B. Manson lecture. Meningococcal meningitis in Africa. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 1999;93:341–53.
78. Okwo-Bele JM, LaForce FM, Borrow R, Preziosi MP. Documenting the results of a successful partnership: a new meningococcal vaccine for Africa. *Clin Infect Dis* 2015;61(Suppl 5):S389–90.
79. Daugla DM, Gami JP, Gamougam K, Naibei N, Mbainadji L, Narbe M, et al. Effect of a serogroup A meningococcal conjugate vaccine (PSA-TT) on serogroup A meningococcal meningitis and carriage in Chad: a community study [corrected]. *Lancet* 2014;383:40–7.
80. Gamougam K, Daugla DM, Toralta J, Ngadoua C, Fermon F, Page AL, et al. Continuing effectiveness of serogroup A meningococcal conjugate vaccine, Chad, 2013. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2015;21:115–8.
81. Methylin® SPC 2015. METHYLIN—methylphenidate hydrochloride solution. 2015. Available from Solution: <http://dailymed.nlm.nih.gov/dailymed/drugInfo.cfm?setid=9e3c22d9-71d9-46a7-b315-8021c94c4bec>. Chewable tablets: <http://dailymed.nlm.nih.gov/dailymed/drugInfo.cfm?setid=09f13452-8f90-426e-9687-d30be75db9d7>. [Accessed 1 May 2015].
82. Pneumococcal meningitis outbreaks in sub-Saharan Africa. *Wkly Epidemiol Rec* 2016;91:298–302.