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Impact of vaccine stock-outs on infant vaccination coverage : a hospital-based survey from South Africa

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1           **IMPACT OF VACCINE STOCK-OUTS ON INFANT VACCINATION COVERAGE: A**  
2           **HOSPITAL-BASED SURVEY FROM SOUTH AFRICA**

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25

26 **ABSTRACT**  
27

28 **Introduction:** National population-based immunisation coverage surveys provide data for  
29 validating official administrative coverage figures. However, these costly and logistically  
30 challenging surveys are infrequently conducted. This hospital-based records-review determined  
31 coverage of birth-dose vaccines; fully immunised under one year-old coverage (FIC) of 12-59  
32 month-old children; and reasons for missed vaccinations.

33 **Methods:** Rotavirus surveillance in South Africa is based on under five year-old children being  
34 treated for diarrhoea, and includes photocopying the official vaccination document, and  
35 collecting data on reasons for missed vaccinations. These data were captured from all 508  
36 records collected from 2011-2014, and subjected to descriptive statistical analysis.

37 **Results:** Bacille Calmette Guérin coverage was 99.4%; oral polio vaccine birth dose (OPV(0))  
38 coverage was 99.2%. Coverage for 12-59 month-olds ranged from 74.8% for the  
39 pneumococcal conjugate vaccine third dose, to 99.1% for OPV(0). Several instances of  
40 subsequent doses being recorded without prior doses being received resulted in a FIC of  
41 55.1%. In total, 207 vaccinations were missed by 88 children. Vaccine stock-outs were  
42 responsible for 62.3% of missed vaccinations.

43 **Conclusion:** Efforts to improve vaccine stock management at facility and higher levels should  
44 be implemented and should include vaccinator training and supervision to eliminate vaccine  
45 stock-outs and missed vaccination opportunities.

46

47 **KEY WORDS:**

48 immunisation coverage; hospital-based survey; vaccine stock-outs; missed vaccination  
49 opportunities; South Africa

50

51 **Word counts**

52 Abstract only = 197

53 Body text = 2 444 (excluding Tables and References)

54

55

56 **INTRODUCTION:**

57

58 In 1974 the World Health Organization (WHO) established the Expanded Programme on  
59 Immunisation (EPI), which through its global policies, over the following two decades provided  
60 universal immunisation against six vaccine-preventable diseases (VPDs) (tuberculosis, polio,  
61 diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis and measles) to children under the age of 6 years.<sup>1</sup> When the EPI  
62 of South Africa (EPI-SA) was launched by the National Department of Health (NDoH) in 1995, it  
63 provided free immunisation against the traditional six VPDs and hepatitis B.<sup>2</sup> EPI-SA has  
64 subsequently closely followed WHO guidelines to incorporate new and underutilised vaccines,<sup>1</sup>  
65 and currently provides free immunisation against 11 VPDs, having added vaccines against  
66 *Haemophilus influenzae* type b [Hib] infection (1999), invasive pneumococcal disease (2009),  
67 rotavirus diarrhoea (2009) and cervical cancer (2014).<sup>2,3</sup>

68

69 Since its inception EPI-SA has been very successful, having (a) eliminated neonatal tetanus by  
70 2002;<sup>2,3</sup> (b) reported no wild-type poliovirus transmission since 1989 while meeting the WHO's  
71 polio surveillance criteria since 2003, which was officially recognised by the Africa Region  
72 Certification Commission in 2006;<sup>2,3</sup> (c) and decreased the prevalence of hepatitis B virus in the  
73 population who were born after the 1995 introduction of the hepatitis B vaccine (HepB).<sup>4</sup>  
74 Furthermore EPI-SA has been at the forefront of introducing new and underutilised vaccines,  
75 being the first African country to introduce the pneumococcal conjugate vaccine (PCV) and  
76 rotavirus vaccine (RV),<sup>2,5</sup> and amongst the first to introduce the human papillomavirus vaccine  
77 (HPV).<sup>2</sup> Also, the programme was considered strong enough by 2009 to allow the simultaneous  
78 introduction of PCV, RV<sup>5</sup> and a pentavalent vaccine (Penta) containing diphtheria, tetanus,  
79 acellular pertussis, inactivated polio vaccine and Hib.<sup>2</sup>

80

81 Despite these significant achievements there have been concerns about the immunisation  
82 coverage in South Africa and the reliability of the official administrative coverage figures that  
83 are generated by the District Health Information System (DHIS). For a number of years the  
84 WHO and United Nations Children's Fund Estimates of National Immunization Coverage  
85 (WUENIC) for South Africa have been more than 15% lower than DHIS figures.<sup>3,6</sup> This  
86 suggests that there may be problems with data quality,<sup>3</sup> a notion that is supported by sporadic  
87 measles and diphtheria outbreaks, and a fully immunised under one year-old coverage (FIC) of  
88 only 61% reported in the South Africa Demographic and Health Survey (SADHS) 2016.<sup>7</sup> While  
89 regular national population-based immunisation coverage surveys could provide data for

90 validating official administrative coverage figures,<sup>8</sup> these surveys are (a) very costly; (b)  
91 logistically challenging; (c) prone to methodological flaws which impact on their validity; and (d)  
92 subsequently sometimes of questionable value.<sup>8,9</sup> To supplement such data, hospital-based  
93 surveys could provide valuable insights into several aspects of immunisation coverage and  
94 health system performance at facility level. This study investigated EPI-SA immunisation  
95 coverage, using rotavirus surveillance data collected by a tertiary hospital. Objectives included  
96 determining (1) overall Bacille Calmette Guérin (BCG) and birth dose oral polio vaccine  
97 (OPV(0)) coverage; (2) FIC and individual immunisation coverage of children aged 12 to 59  
98 months; and (3) reasons for missed vaccinations.

99

## 100 **METHODS:**

101 South Africa has 9 provinces divided into 52 districts, with Gauteng being the smallest (in terms  
102 of area) yet most populous province, with 5 districts. The Dr George Mukhari Academic  
103 Hospital (DGMAH) in the Tshwane District of Gauteng Province, is one of three Gauteng  
104 referral hospitals, and is a sentinel rotavirus surveillance site. Since April 2009 data have been  
105 collected for measuring the impact of the RV, based on under 5 year-old children being treated  
106 for acute diarrhoea. As from May 2010, data collection includes photocopying the Road to  
107 Health Card (RTHC) (the official vaccination document), and where reasons for missed  
108 vaccinations are not recorded on the RTHC, collecting these data from caregivers and  
109 recording them on Case Report Forms (CRFs). Ethics approval was obtained from the  
110 Medunsa Research Ethics Committee for both the surveillance study which included obtaining  
111 written informed consent from caregivers,<sup>10</sup> and the current study (MREC/P/398/2014:R).

112

113 Data for the current study were collected from archived CRFs (i.e. caregivers' reasons for  
114 missed vaccinations) and RTHC photocopies (i.e. sex, date of birth, vaccinations received, and  
115 reasons for missed vaccinations recorded by vaccinators [i.e. "out of stock" and "not yet  
116 available"]) collected from January 2011 to December 2014. Where a caregiver reason on the  
117 CRF differed from the vaccinator reason on the RTHC, only the reason on the RTHC was  
118 captured. Caregiver reports of not taking a child to the clinic because either (a) a friend had told  
119 them that the vaccines were out of stock, or (b) they perceived that vaccines are always out of  
120 stock, were coded as "lack of motivation", not as "out of stock". Personal identifiers were not  
121 captured to ensure anonymity. Data were captured using Microsoft Excel 2013 (Microsoft  
122 Office, USA). Descriptive statistical analyses were performed using Epi Info™ v7.1 (Centers for  
123 Disease Control and Prevention, USA) to determine sex and age distributions, individual

124 vaccine coverage, drop-out rates between vaccine series, FIC, and frequencies of reasons for  
125 missed vaccinations.

126

## 127 **RESULTS:**

128

129 Of the 692 caregivers who had consented to participate in the main surveillance study, 508  
130 were in possession of RTHCs, the photocopies of which were used for the current study. The  
131 average age was 13.1 months (range: 0.9-57.9; median: 10.8). The majority (58.9% [299/508])  
132 of children were males. BCG coverage was 99.4% (505/508) (95% confidence interval [CI]:  
133 98.1-99.9%); OPV(0) coverage was 99.2% (504/508) (95% CI: 97.9-99.8%). For children aged  
134 12 months and older (n=214), the coverage for individual vaccines ranged from 74.8%  
135 (160/214) (95% CI: 68.4-80.4%) for the PCV third dose (PCV(3)), to 99.1% (212/214) (95% CI:  
136 96.7-99.9%) for OPV(0). Several instances of subsequent doses being recorded without prior  
137 doses being received resulted in a FIC of 50.9% (109/214) (95% CI: 44.0-57.8%).

138

139 When analysing the reasons for missed vaccinations, it was found that 18 children were not  
140 vaccinated with some or all of the vaccines introduced in 2009, because these vaccines were  
141 not yet included in the provincial EPI-SA at the time when these children received their  
142 vaccines scheduled for 6, 10 and 14 weeks of age. These 18 records were thus removed,  
143 leaving 196 records for the final analysis (Table 1), which increased the FIC to 55.1% (108/196)  
144 (95% CI: 47.9-62.2%) (Table 2). In total, 207 vaccinations were missed by 88 children.  
145 Vaccine stock-outs were responsible for 62.3% (129/207) of missed vaccinations, affecting  
146 87.5% (77/88) of under-vaccinated children (Table 3). Of the missed vaccinations from stock-  
147 outs, 86.0% (111/129) were for the vaccines introduced in 2009, with 35.7% (46/129), 27.9%  
148 (36/129) and 22.5% (29/129) for RV, PCV and Penta respectively.

149

## 150 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION:**

151 Since hospital-based immunisation coverage studies are biased towards those who make use  
152 of healthcare services, the very high BCG and OPV(0) coverages found in this study were to be  
153 expected, as these vaccines are administered to newborns delivered in healthcare facilities. In  
154 contrast, the FIC of 55% found in this study was unexpected. Although this result is very similar  
155 to the 51.9% FIC for Gauteng reported in SADHS 2016,<sup>7</sup> it is almost half that of the official  
156 administrative FIC for Tshwane. From 2013 onwards, the vaccines that were introduced in  
157 2009 were included in the numerator for the official administrative FIC, and for Tshwane the

158 2013/2014 FIC was 111.2%.<sup>11</sup> A possible explanation for this is the other strong selection bias  
159 in this study, i.e. the fact that the study is based only on records of children presenting with  
160 acute diarrhoea. This bias may result in an overrepresentation of records of children who have  
161 not been fully vaccinated against rotavirus diarrhoea, and indeed this may be the case in this  
162 study. Table 2 shows that only 70% of children received both doses of RV, compared to  
163 the >90% second dose RV (RV(2)) coverage reported by the DHIS for Tshwane for  
164 2011/2012,<sup>12</sup> 2012/2013<sup>13</sup> and 2013/2014.<sup>11</sup> However, it is highly likely that the official  
165 coverage figures for RV(2) do not reflect that both doses of RV have in fact been received, as  
166 this study has shown that vaccinators often record RV(2) without the child having received  
167 RV(1). Thus it may be more acceptable to compare the RV(2) coverage of 84.2% (Table 1),  
168 which is still much lower than the DHIS figures for Tshwane. Interestingly, the 70% coverage  
169 for both doses of RV is in line with the national estimates of WUENIC, with 72%, 78%, 64% and  
170 72% coverage for RV(2) being estimated respectively for each year from 2011 to 2014.<sup>6</sup>

171

172 This study found 207 instances where catch-up vaccinations were necessary but were not  
173 administered. These missed vaccination opportunities affected 88 children, and resulted in the  
174 discrepancies shown between Tables 1 and 2, where the lowest coverage for an individual  
175 vaccine in children aged 12 months and older was 78.6% for PCV(3), yet only 55.1% had  
176 received all the vaccines given in the first year of life. This finding shows that the practice of  
177 using coverage of a final dose of a vaccine for a specific age group as a surrogate for full  
178 coverage (eg.: using the first dose of measles vaccine (MV(1)) or PCV(3) coverage as a  
179 surrogate for FIC), leads to erroneous coverage figures because often an earlier vaccine has  
180 been missed and the child has not been caught up at a later date when presenting for later  
181 vaccinations. The discrepancy between the official DHIS FIC for 2015/2016 of 89.2%<sup>14</sup> and the  
182 SADHS FIC of 61%<sup>7</sup> could perhaps be explained by these missed vaccination opportunities.  
183 This finding also points to the urgent need for introducing an electronic data capturing system,  
184 which will allow for flagging such missed vaccinations automatically.

185

186 Almost 45% of children eligible to have received all the vaccines offered in the first year of life  
187 were found to be under-vaccinated in this study, with the vast majority of them being affected  
188 by vaccine stock-outs of the vaccines introduced in 2009. This finding is supported by a recent  
189 report on vaccine availability conducted at 31 public sector Tshwane clinics, where during 2013,  
190 74%, 65% and 58% of clinics had shortages of Penta, PCV and RV respectively.<sup>15</sup> To ensure  
191 validity, care was taken in the current study to capture only true vaccine stock-outs that were

192 reported by vaccinators. This was accomplished by removing records where one or more  
193 vaccines were not yet available, and excluding caregiver perceptions of probable stock-outs.  
194 These precautions may have resulted in a slight underestimation of vaccine stock-outs.  
195 However, the aforementioned Tshwane clinic survey<sup>15</sup> and the Post Introduction Evaluation  
196 conducted jointly by the NDoH and WHO in 2011,<sup>16</sup> reported vaccine shortages in the vast  
197 majority of facilities that were visited. In addition, since its inception in 2013, the Stop Stock  
198 Outs Project (a consortium of six civil society organisations), has reported vaccine shortages in  
199 every province of South Africa every year.<sup>17,18</sup> This project conducts an annual telephonic  
200 survey of all public health facilities in South Africa, enquiring about the availability of specific  
201 drugs and three vaccines: RV, MV and Penta / hexavalent vaccine (from 2015 Penta was  
202 replaced by a hexavalent vaccine containing HepB as the sixth antigen). In 2013, 14.7% of  
203 responding facilities reported vaccine stock-outs, ranging from 6.2% of facilities in KwaZulu  
204 Natal to 35.6% in Limpopo Province.<sup>17</sup> This decreased to 12% of facilities in 2014, ranging from  
205 2% in the Western Cape, to 31% in Limpopo Province.<sup>18</sup> Another slight decrease to 11% of  
206 facilities was reported in 2015, ranging from 4% in the Western Cape, to 17% in North West  
207 Province.<sup>18</sup> While district level data were not reported, the figures for Gauteng Province were  
208 8.5% of facilities in 2013,<sup>17</sup> 4% in 2014 and 11% in 2015.<sup>18</sup>

209

210 Apart from national shortages of HepB and MV in 2013,<sup>15</sup> and a global shortage of BCG  
211 starting in 2014, vaccine shortages are rarely reported by provincial depots.<sup>19</sup> Thus the finding  
212 of this study regarding vaccine stock-outs suggests that these are caused by human error,  
213 occurring either at district or facility level. This suggestion is supported by the recently  
214 published findings on vaccine availability at public sector Tshwane clinics, which identified poor  
215 stock management at facility and district depot level as a major reason for stock-outs.<sup>15</sup> The  
216 current study shows that these human errors have a devastating effect on vaccine coverage,  
217 and are further exacerbated by the failure to catch up the missed vaccinations when the  
218 vaccines are back in stock.

219

220 One of the motivations behind conducting this study was to find evidence to support anecdotal  
221 claims by vaccinators,<sup>21</sup> and evidence from an Internet-based study,<sup>22</sup> that a growing number of  
222 South African caregivers are refusing to vaccinate their children because of fears regarding  
223 vaccine safety, or the belief that vaccines are unnecessary. While none of the caregivers in this  
224 study reported that they refused vaccines for their children, caregivers refused to give reasons  
225 for 12% of the vaccines that were not received. If these caregivers were vaccine refusers, a



226 possible explanation for why they did not admit this is because they feared the negative  
227 repercussions that this may have on the current treatment of their children.

228

229 There were a few reasons for not vaccinating given only for the vaccines received at 9 months,  
230 and not mentioned for the earlier vaccines. These include “lost RTHC”, yet the RTHC was  
231 present at the time when the child had acute diarrhoea and was brought to hospital, which  
232 suggests that the caregiver perhaps forgot to bring the child for vaccination. Together with the  
233 reasons summarised as “lacked motivation” and “forgot and busy”, this suggests that  
234 caregivers need to be better informed and reminded about the importance of booster doses  
235 required in later life. As suggested by others, the NDoH’s free mobile application for pregnant  
236 women called MomConnect could be extended to reminding caregivers about infant  
237 vaccination appointments.<sup>15</sup>

238

239 In conclusion, despite suffering from selection bias, this hospital-based study has provided  
240 valuable insights into modifiable aspects of immunisation coverage and health system  
241 performance at facility level in the Tshwane district of Gauteng. These insights give rise to two  
242 major recommendations: (a) Eliminate missed vaccination opportunities by training vaccinators  
243 to check the RTHC at each visit, until such time as electronic data capturing replaces this  
244 manual system,<sup>15</sup> with close supervision to ensure correct recording of doses and dose  
245 numbers; (b) Eliminate vaccine stock-outs by ensuring that interventions addressing the  
246 reasons identified by the previous study in Tshwane public sector clinics<sup>15</sup> are put into place. It  
247 is clear from that study that vaccinators are not trained in stock management, thus training  
248 should be a priority for facilities where there are no trained pharmacists. The current pilot to  
249 implement a web-based DHIS (personal communication) is certainly a move in the right  
250 direction, and it is hoped that features such as linking it to vaccine stock levels, and flagging  
251 and following up on those children who have missed some vaccine doses will also be added in  
252 the near future.

253

254 **AUTHORS’ STATEMENTS:** This study is a sub-study of a larger project on anti-vaccination  
255 lobbying (AVL) in South Africa. RJB conceptualised the over-arching study and developed the  
256 original over-arching protocol. MJM, CD, LMS and GM reviewed and made input into the final  
257 over-arching study protocol. GM collected the data for both the RV surveillance study and the  
258 AVL study. MJM and LMS are co-investigators in the RV surveillance study and the AVL study.  
259 RJB analysed the data and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. NJN assisted with the

260 literature review and interpretation of the results. All authors reviewed the first draft of the  
261 manuscript and made substantial contributions to the development and finalisation thereof. All  
262 authors have read and approved the final manuscript. RJB and MJM are guarantors of the  
263 manuscript.

264

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268

269 **COMPETING INTERESTS:** None declared.

270

271 **ETHICAL APPROVAL:** Ethics approval was obtained from the Medunsa Research Ethics  
272 Committee for both the surveillance study which included obtaining written informed consent  
273 from caregivers,<sup>10</sup> and the current study (MREC/P/398/2014:R).

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Table 1: Individual vaccine coverage in children 12 months and older (n=196)

Age	Vaccine	n	%	95% CIs
At birth	BCG	194	99.0	96.4 - 99.9%
	OPV (0)	194	99.0	96.4 - 99.9%
6 weeks	OPV (1)	188	95.9	92.1 - 98.2%
	RV (1)	169	86.2	80.6 - 90.7%
	HepB (1)	194	99.0	96.4 - 99.9%
	Penta (1)	187	95.4	91.5 - 97.9%
	PCV (1)	190	96.9	93.5 - 98.9%
10 weeks	HepB (2)	191	97.4	94.2 - 99.2%
	Penta (2)	183	93.4	88.9 - 96.4%
14 weeks	RV (2)	165	84.2	78.3 - 89.0%
	HepB (3)	189	96.4	92.8 - 98.6%
	Penta (3)	178	90.8	85.9 - 94.5%
	PCV (2)	182	92.9	88.3 - 96.0%
9 months	MV (1)	175	89.3	84.1 - 93.2%
	PCV (3)	154	78.6	72.2 - 84.1%

BCG: Bacille Calmette Guérin; OPV: oral polio vaccine; RV: rotavirus vaccine; HepB: hepatitis B vaccine; Penta: pentavalent vaccine containing diphtheria, tetanus, acellular pertussis, inactivated polio vaccine and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b; PCV: pneumococcal conjugate vaccine; MV: measles vaccine

Table 2: Frequency of vaccination combinations received and drop-out rates in children 12 months and older (n=196)

Vaccine combination	n	%	% drop-out
BCG	194	99.0	
BCG+OPV0	194	99.0	0.0
BCG+OPV0+OPV1	187	95.4	3.6
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1	162	82.7	13.4
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1	156	79.6	3.7
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1	156	79.6	0.0
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1	156	79.6	0.0
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+ Penta 2	149	76.0	4.5
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+ Penta 2+HepB2	147	75.0	1.3
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta 2+HepB2+RV2	138	70.4	6.1
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta2+HepB2+RV2+ Penta 3	132	67.3	4.3
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta2+HepB2+RV2+ Penta3+HepB3	130	66.3	1.5
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta2+HepB2+RV2+ Penta3+HepB3+PCV2	127	64.8	2.3
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta2+HepB2+RV2+ Penta3+HepB3+PCV2+MV1	120	61.2	5.5
BCG+OPV0+OPV1+RV1+Penta1+HepB1+PCV1+Penta2+HepB2+RV2+ Penta3+HepB3+PCV2+MV1+PCV3	108	55.1	10.0

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Table 3: Frequency distribution of reasons for missed vaccinations (n=88)

Age	Vaccine	Don't know		Out of stock		Refused reason		Child sick		Mother sick		Lacked motivation		Lost RTHC		Mother in school		Forgot + busy		Total
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
At birth	BCG	1	50.0	0	0.0	1	50.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2
	OPV (0)	1	50.0	0	0.0	1	50.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2
6 weeks	OPV (1)	0	0.0	7	87.5	1	12.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	8
	RV (1)	4	14.8	22	81.5	1	3.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	27
	HepB (1)	0	0.0	1	50.0	1	50.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2
	Penta (1)	1	11.1	7	77.8	1	11.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	9
	PCV (1)	2	33.3	3	50.0	1	16.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6
10 weeks	HepB (2)	0	0.0	2	40.0	2	40.0	1	20.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	5
	Penta (2)	2	15.4	8	61.5	2	15.4	1	7.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	13
14 weeks	RV (2)	4	12.9	24	77.4	2	6.5	1	3.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	31
	HepB (3)	0	0.0	4	57.1	2	28.6	1	14.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	7
	Penta (3)	1	5.6	14	77.8	2	11.1	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	18
9 months	PCV (2)	2	14.3	9	64.3	2	14.3	1	7.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	14
	MV (1)	3	14.3	4	19.0	3	14.3	2	9.5	1	4.8	4	19.0	2	9.5	1	4.8	1	4.8	21
	PCV (3)	4	9.5	24	57.1	3	7.1	2	4.8	1	2.4	4	9.5	2	4.8	1	2.4	1	2.4	42
		25	12.1	129	62.3	25	12.1	10	4.8	2	1.0	8	3.9	4	1.9	2	1.0	2	1.0	207

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