

compared with those with CS BSIs. This highlights the need for better and more preventive and therapeutic strategies aimed at combating GN CR.

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## 682. The Changing Epidemiology of Bacterial Meningitis During 2015–2017 in Turkey: A Hospital-Based Prospective Surveillance Study

Mehmet Ceyhan, MD<sup>1</sup>; Yasemin Ozsurekci, MD<sup>1</sup>; Cihangül Bayhan, MD<sup>1</sup>; Nezahat Gurler, MD<sup>2</sup>; Enes Sali, MD<sup>3</sup>; Melike Keser Emiroglu, MD<sup>4</sup>; Fatma Nur Öz, MD<sup>5</sup>; Yıldız Camcioglu, MD<sup>6</sup>; Nuran Salman, MD<sup>7</sup>; Zafer Kurugol, MD<sup>8</sup>; Havva Ozlem Altay Akisoglu, MD<sup>9</sup>; Nilden Tuygun, MD<sup>10</sup>; Nursen Belet, MD<sup>11</sup>; Emel Ulusoy, MD<sup>12</sup>; Ener Cagri Dinleyici, MD<sup>13</sup>; Hasan Tezer, MD<sup>14</sup>; Aslınur Parlakay, MD<sup>15</sup>; Adem Karbuz, MD<sup>16</sup>; Fesih Aktar, MD<sup>17</sup>; Mustafa Hacimustafaoglu, MD<sup>18</sup>; Sevgen Tanir Basaranoglu, MD<sup>1</sup>; Kubra Aykac, MD<sup>1</sup>; Emine Kocbas, MD<sup>19</sup>; Ozlem Ozgur Gundeslioglu, MD<sup>19</sup>; Nevin Hatipoglu, MD<sup>20</sup>; Sadik Sami Hatipoglu, MD<sup>20</sup>; Gulnar Sensoy, MD<sup>21</sup>; Eda Karadag Oncel, MD<sup>22</sup>; Mehmet Ali Solmaz, MD<sup>23</sup>; Soner Sertan Kara, MD<sup>24</sup>; Solmaz Çelebi, MD<sup>18</sup>; Ümit Çelik, MD<sup>25</sup>; Özgür Metin, MD<sup>26</sup>; Şefika Bozdemir, MD<sup>27</sup>; Ilker Devrim, MD<sup>28</sup>; Ahu Kara, MD<sup>28</sup> and Murat Sütçü, MD<sup>29</sup>. <sup>1</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Hacettepe University Faculty of Medicine, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>2</sup>Department of Microbiology and Clinical Microbiology, Istanbul University Istanbul Medical Faculty, Istanbul, Turkey, <sup>3</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Sanliurfa Training and Research Hospital, Şanlıurfa, Turkey, <sup>4</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Selcuk University Faculty of Medicine, Konya, Turkey, <sup>5</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Dr. Sami Ulus Maternity and Children's Training and Research Hospital, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>6</sup>Department of Immunology-Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa Faculty of Medicine, Istanbul, Turkey, <sup>7</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Istanbul University Istanbul Medical Faculty, Istanbul, Turkey, <sup>8</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Ege University Faculty of Medicine, Izmir, Turkey, <sup>9</sup>Department of Microbiology, Dr. Sami Ulus Maternity and Children's Training and Research Hospital, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>10</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Dr. Sami Ulus Maternity and Children's Training and Research Hospital, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>11</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Dokuz Eylul University Faculty of Medicine, Izmir, Turkey, <sup>12</sup>Department of Pediatric Emergency Care, Dokuz Eylul University Faculty of Medicine, Izmir, Turkey, <sup>13</sup>Department of Pediatric Intensive Care and Infectious Disease Unit, Eskisehir Osmangazi University Faculty of Medicine, Eskisehir, Turkey, <sup>14</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Gazi University Faculty of Medicine, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>15</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Ankara Hematology Oncology Children's Training and Research Hospital, Ankara, Turkey, <sup>16</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Okmeydanı Training and Research Hospital, Istanbul, Turkey, <sup>17</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Dicle University Faculty of Medicine, Diyarbakir, Turkey, <sup>18</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Uludag University Faculty of Medicine, Bursa, Turkey, <sup>19</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Cukurova University Faculty of Medicine, Adana, Turkey, <sup>20</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Bakirkoy Sadi Konuk Training and Research Hospital, Istanbul, Turkey, <sup>21</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Ondokuz Mayıs University Faculty of Medicine, Samsun, Turkey, <sup>22</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Izmir Tepecik Training and Research Hospital, Izmir, Turkey, <sup>23</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Van Training and Research Hospital, Van, Turkey, <sup>24</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Erzurum Training and Research Hospital, Erzurum, Turkey, <sup>25</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Adana Numune Training and Research Hospital, Adana, Turkey, <sup>26</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Necmettin Erbakan University Faculty of Medicine, Konya, Turkey, <sup>27</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Kayseri Training and Research Hospital, Kayseri, Turkey, <sup>28</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Disease, Dr. Behcet Uz Children's Hospital, Izmir, Turkey, <sup>29</sup>Department of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Konya Training and Research Hospital, Konya, Turkey

**Session:** 66. Public Health: Epidemiology and Outbreaks  
Thursday, October 4, 2018: 12:30 PM

**Background.** The etiology of bacterial meningitis in Turkey has been changed after the implementation of conjugated vaccines against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) in Turkish national immunization schedule.

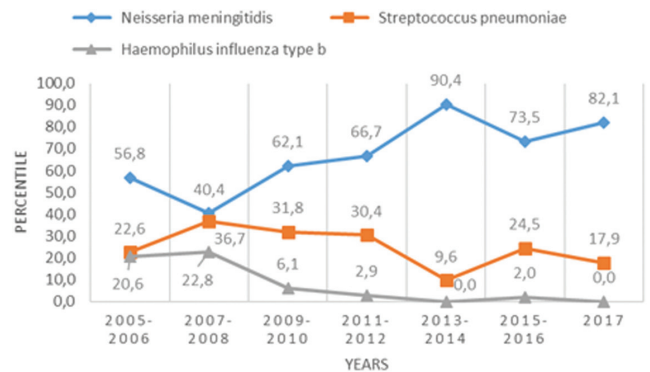
**Methods.** This prospective study was conducted in 25 hospitals located seven regions of Turkey (representing 30% of Turkey population) and children aged between 1 month and 18 years with suspected meningitis and hospitalized were included. Cerebrospinal fluid samples were collected and bacterial identification was made according to the multiplex PCR assay results.

**Results.** During the study period, 927 children were hospitalized for suspected meningitis and Hib (n:1), *S. pneumoniae* (n:17) and *Neisseria meningitidis* (n:59) were detected in 77 samples (Figure 1, Table 1). During 2015–2016, *N. meningitidis* serogroup W, B, A, Y, X frequencies were as 5 (13.9%), 16 (44.4%), 1 (2.8%), 1 (2.8%), 1 (2.8%), respectively. There were 12 nongroupable *N. meningitidis* samples and serogroup C was not detected. In 2017, of meningococcal meningitis serogroup B, W, A, Y and X were identified in two (8.7%), 15 (65.2%), two (8.7%), 1 (4.3%) and 1 (4.3%) cases, respectively (Figure 2). There were four deaths in this study period, all of them were caused by *N. meningitidis* serogroup B and three of them were under 1 year old.

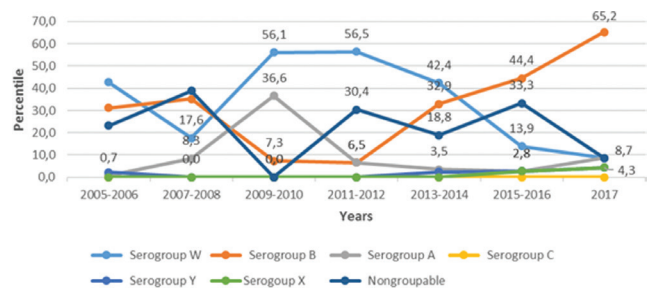
**Conclusion.** The epidemiology of meningococcal diseases has been varied in time with or without any apparent reasons. Hajji is a well-known cause for serogroup

W epidemics and serogroup W was the most common cause of meningitis in Turkey during 2009–2014 as in other Middle East countries. After the impact of serogroup W epidemics related to Hajji seen in 2010's was diminished, serogroup B has been leading cause of childhood meningitis since 2015. In countries affected from Hajji like Turkey, vaccination of children with serogroup B meningococcal vaccine as well as quadrivalent conjugated vaccine seems to be very important. It should be kept in mind that meningococcal epidemiology is dynamic and needed to be closely monitored to detect changes in years

**Figure 1.** Distribution of causative agents of bacterial meningitis in Turkey during 2005–2017.



**Figure 2.** Distribution of meningococcal serogroups of meningococcal meningitis in Turkey during 2015–2017 and comparison with results belonging to previous years.



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## 683. Cost Calculator for Mass Vaccination Response to a US College Campus Outbreak of Serogroup B Meningococcal Disease

Elizabeth M. La, PhD<sup>1</sup>; Sandra E. Talbird, MSPH<sup>1</sup>; Koren V. Kanadianian, MSc, CEM<sup>2</sup>; Joel Fain, PhD<sup>3</sup>; Liping Huang, MD, MPH<sup>4</sup> and Amit Srivastava, PhD<sup>3</sup>; RTI Health Solutions, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, <sup>2</sup>Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island, <sup>3</sup>Pfizer Vaccines, Collegeville, Pennsylvania, <sup>4</sup>Outcomes and Evidence, Pfizer Inc., Collegeville, Pennsylvania

**Session:** 66. Public Health: Epidemiology and Outbreaks  
Thursday, October 4, 2018: 12:30 PM

**Background.** US college students are at increased risk for serogroup B meningococcal disease (MenB). MenB caused ~57% of meningococcal disease cases among 16- to 23-year-olds in 2016, and was responsible for 10 US college outbreaks from 2011–2017 involving 41 cases and an at-risk population of ~182,000 enrolled undergraduates. Outbreaks cause disruptive anxiety among university communities and implementing a mass vaccination response imposes an often unforeseen financial burden. This study aimed to enumerate costs incurred during a points-of-dispensing, mass vaccination response to a US campus MenB outbreak.

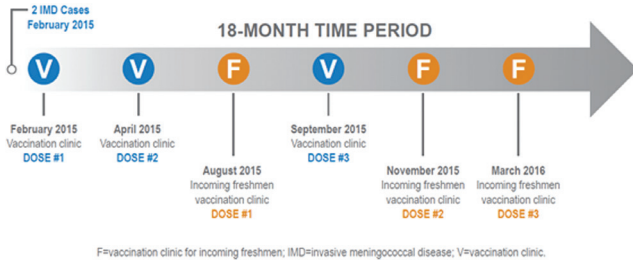
**Methods.** The 2015 MenB outbreak at Providence College was used as a case study to develop an Excel-based (Microsoft, Redmond, WA) cost calculator to capture costs and resources associated with a MenB outbreak response. The calculator has user-modifiable inputs related to the vaccine-eligible population, accounts for each vaccination event and vaccine dose (Figure 1), and estimates direct costs (2016 USD) during 18 months post-outbreak. Potential/expected costs computed (assuming 100% vaccine coverage) were compared with estimated actual costs incurred during the outbreak, using a micro-costing approach.

**Results.** The estimated total cost for full vaccination of 4,795 eligible individuals was \$1,798,399 (\$375.06/person); based on actual vaccinations received, the cost calculator computed \$1,350,963 in aggregate direct costs (\$636.05/person fully vaccinated) (Table 1). In both analyses, medical supplies were the majority of costs (88–89%), followed by labor resources (7–9%).

**Conclusion.** This cost calculator quantifies the direct cost of a mass vaccination response to one campus MenB outbreak. Although the cost estimates herein are higher

than previously reported, the calculator does not account for follow-up costs or productivity losses and therefore underestimates the true economic burden of a campus MenB outbreak. This outbreak response cost calculator can be used to aid in response planning and highlights the need to shift the public health response from outbreak control to prevention by proactive, pre-emptive vaccination using available licensed meningococcal vaccines.

**Figure 1.** Timeline of vaccination clinics



**Table 1. Actual vs Potential/Expected Direct Costs by Resource Category for Providence College**

Outcome	Actual	Potential/Expected
<b>Coverage outcomes</b>		
People vaccinated with any doses, n	4,418	4,795
People vaccinated with all 3 doses, n	2,124	4,795
Completed full course, % of target population	44.3	100.0
<b>Cost outcomes (college/university paid), \$</b>		
Labor resource costs	91,418	153,702
Nonlabor resource costs	845,642	1,621,905
<b>Cost outcomes (other entities paid), \$</b>		
Medical supplies (CDC covered vaccine costs)	391,600	0*
Case identification (local/state health departments paid)	21,158	21,158
Vaccine-related adverse events	1,145	1,635
<b>Total costs, \$</b>	<b>1,350,963</b>	<b>1,798,399</b>
College/university paid	937,060	1,775,607
Other entities paid	413,903	22,793
Total costs per person ever vaccinated <sup>†</sup>	305.79	375.06
Total costs per person fully vaccinated <sup>‡</sup>	636.05	375.06

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**684. Risk Stacking for Pneumococcal Disease in Costa Rica**

Jorge Chaverri-Murillo, MD<sup>1</sup>; Manuel Ramírez-Cardoche, MD<sup>1</sup> and José Castro-Cordero, MD<sup>2</sup>; <sup>1</sup>Infectious Diseases, Caja Costarricense del Seguro Social, San José, Costa Rica, <sup>2</sup>Infection Control, Caja Costarricense del Seguro Social, San José, Costa Rica

**Session:** 66. Public Health: Epidemiology and Outbreaks

Thursday, October 4, 2018: 12:30 PM

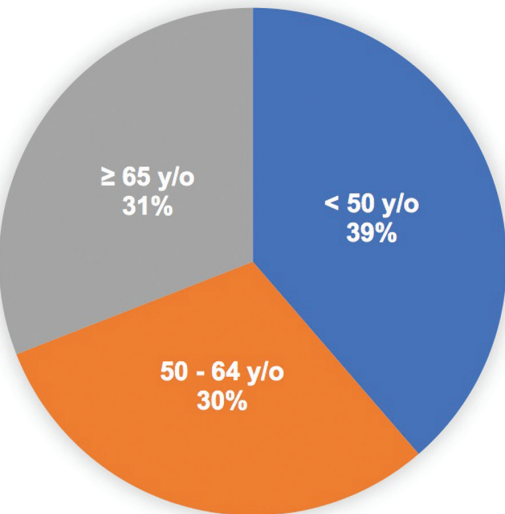
**Background.** The value of nontraditional high-risk factor stacking is not known in the Costa Rican population. We aim to describe risk factor stacking for pneumococcal disease (PD) in patients seeking care at Social Security Hospitals in Costa Rica

**Methods.** Descriptive study of adult patients with microbiological culture-positive *Streptococcus pneumoniae* disease seeking care at two tertiary hospitals in Costa Rica between years 2014 and 2016. Information on underlying comorbidities (nontraditional) and other risk factors for PD was analyzed and stalked for each age group (G1: <50, G2: 50–64, and G3: ≥65 y/o).

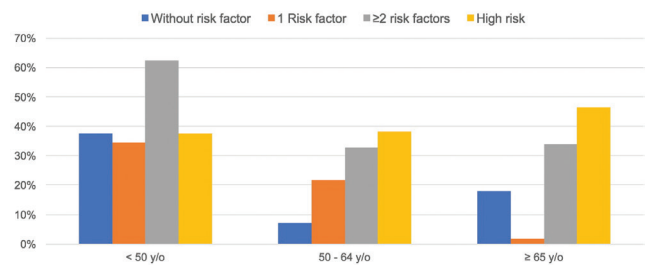
**Results.** We included 181 culture-positive patients. We found that patients in G1 predominantly stacked ≥2 risk factors (63%), the proportion of patients with ≥2 risk factor was similar to high-risk patients in G2 (33% vs. 38%). In G3, 18% didn't stack any other risk factor and 46% was on high-risk. Most frequent risk factors in G1/G2 were smoking and alcoholism, and in G3 chronic pulmonary and heart diseases.

**Conclusion.** We conclude that risk factor stacking is more relevant than high-risk conditions and PD also occurs in persons <50 y/o. We recommend that risk factor stacking should be considered in prevention strategies for PD.

**Figure 1. Pneumococcal disease by age group**



**Figure 2. Risk Factor Stacking By Age Group**



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**685. Correlation Between Hospitalized Influenza and Group A Streptococcus Infections in Minnesota, 2010–2016**

Olufunmilayo Arogbokun, MPH<sup>1</sup>; Austin Bell, MS<sup>1</sup>; Babatunde Abidoye, PhD<sup>2</sup>; Kathryn Como-Sabetti, MPH<sup>3</sup>; Melissa McMahon, MPH<sup>4</sup> and Ruth Lynfield, MD, FIDSA<sup>5</sup>; <sup>1</sup>Minnesota Department of Health, St. Paul, Minnesota, <sup>2</sup>Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, <sup>3</sup>Minnesota Department of Health, Minneapolis, Minnesota, <sup>4</sup>State Epidemiologist and Medical Director for Infectious Diseases, Epidemiology & Community Health, Minnesota Department of Health, St. Paul, Minnesota

**Session:** 66. Public Health: Epidemiology and Outbreaks

Thursday, October 4, 2018: 12:30 PM

**Background.** Outbreaks of influenza can result in significant morbidity, including secondary bacterial infections. Invasive group A streptococcal (iGAS) infections are associated with a 12% case fatality rate. We used surveillance data to examine if there was a correlation between hospitalized influenza and GAS cases.

**Methods.** Minnesota Department of Health conducts population-based surveillance for hospitalized lab-confirmed influenza and iGAS (sterile site isolation) cases in the Minneapolis–St. Paul area as part of the CDC Emerging Infections Program. Cases were categorized by week during October–April of each year for 2010–2016, based on specimen collection date. Using STATA (v15), the correlation between the number of influenza (N = 11,768), and overall iGAS (N = 687), iGAS septic shock (n = 104), and iGAS pneumonia cases (n = 59) was assessed in weekly time periods using the Granger causality test.

**Results.** The number of hospitalized influenza cases was associated with an increase in the overall number of iGAS cases (Wald  $\chi^2 = 10.22$ , P = 0.04). Hospitalized influenza cases were associated with an increase in iGAS septic shock cases; every 1,000 increase in case counts were associated with one case of iGAS septic shock 1 week later (P = 0.02). Similarly, every 1,000 increase in hospitalized influenza cases were associated with one case of iGAS pneumonia 1 week later (P < 0.01). While the effect of Granger causality is cumulative when describing the causal relationship between hospitalized influenza and total iGAS, the correlation between influenza and the iGAS subgroups is best described with a 1-week lag.