This is an Accepted Manuscript for Epidemiology & Infection. Subject to change during the editing and production process.

DOI: 10.1017/S095026882400181X

- 1 Trends in general practitioner consultations for hand foot and mouth disease in
- 2 England between 2017 and 2022
- 3 Natalia G. Bednarska¹, Sue Smith¹, Megan Bardsley¹, Paul Loveridge¹, Rachel Byford²,
- 4 William Elson², Helen Hughes¹, Simon de Lusignan^{2,3}, Dan Todkill¹ and Alex J. Elliot^{1*}
- ⁵ Real-time Syndromic Surveillance Team, Field Services, UK Health Security Agency,
- 6 Birmingham, United Kingdom
- ⁷ ² Nuffield Department of Primary Care Health Sciences, University of Oxford, Oxford United
- 8 Kingdom
- ³ Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) Research and Surveillance Centre (RSC),
- 10 RCGP, Euston Square, London, United Kingdom.
- 11 *Corresponding author: Alex J. Elliot, Real-time Syndromic Surveillance Team, Field
- 12 Services, 23 Stephenson Street, Birmingham B2 4BH. Alex.elliot@ukhsa.gov.uk; 44 121 232
- **13** 9211
- 14 Key words: Hand, foot and mouth disease; general practitioner; syndromic surveillance;
- 15 Enterovirus; Coxsackievirus

16

This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives licence (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/bync-nd/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is unaltered and is properly cited. The written permission of Cambridge University Press must be obtained for commercial re-use or in order to create a derivative work.

17 Abstract

Hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) is a contagious communicable disease, with a high 18 incidence in children aged under 10 years. It is a mainly self-limiting disease but can also 19 cause serious neurological or cardiopulmonary complications in some cases, which can lead 20 to death. Little is known about the burden of HMFD on primary care health care services in 21 the UK. The aim of this work was to describe trends in general practitioner (GP) 22 consultations for HFMD in England from January 2017 to December 2022 using a syndromic 23 surveillance network of GPs. Daily GP consultations for HFMD in England were extracted 24 from 1 January 2017 to 31 December 2022. Mean weekly consultation rates per 100,000 25 population and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated. Consultation rates and rate 26 ratios (RR) were calculated by age group and sex. During the study period, the mean weekly 27 consultation rate for HFMD (per 100,000 registered GP patients) was 1.53 (range of 0.27 to 28 2.47). In England, children aged 1-4 years old accounted for the largest affected population 29 followed by children <1 years old. We observed a seasonal pattern of HFMD incidence 30 during the non-COVID years, with a seasonal peak of mean weekly rates between months of 31 September and December. HFMD is typically diagnosed clinically rather than through 32 33 laboratory sampling. Therefore, ability to look at the daily HFMD consultation rates provides excellent epidemiological overview on disease trends. The use of a novel GP-in hours 34 35 surveillance system allowed a unique epidemiological insight into the recent trends of general 36 practitioner consultations for HFMD. We demonstrate a male predominance of cases, the impact of the non-pharmaceutical interventions during the COVID-19 pandemic, and a 37 change in the week in which the peak number of cases happens post pandemic. 38

40 Introduction

Hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) is a contagious communicable disease, with most 41 cases diagnosed in children aged under 10 years [1]. HFMD was first diagnosed in Toronto, 42 Canada, in 1957, but subsequent work recognised the global endemic nature of HFMD. The 43 etiological agents responsible for HFMD belong to non-polio enterovirus family, including 44 Enteroviruses (EV) and Coxsackieviruses (CV) [1]. EV are classified genetically into four 45 categories (A-D) and CV into two groups CV-A and CV-B. Historically, the most common 46 global causes of HFMD were EV-A71 and CVA16, however, currently a higher proportion of 47 HFMD outbreaks are caused by other EVs such as CVA6 and CVA10 [2]. 48 Clinical diagnosis of HFMD is typically based on an assessment of the early presenting 49 symptoms of HFMD, including fever, malaise, loss of appetite, cough and abdominal pain. 50 51 Early symptoms are followed by ulcerative lesions of the oral cavity within 1-2 days and classically the presentation of macules and papules of hands and feet appearing later [3]. 52 Atypical manifestations of HFMD (and EV infections in general) can present, particularly in 53 adults, which include future sites for skin manifestations (including the scalp, buttocks and 54 genitalia) and persisting non-dermatological symptoms such as sore throat, fever and asthenia 55 [4, 5]. The incubation period of HFMD is dependent on the serotype of the causative 56 pathogen as well as age group of the patient, but multiple studies estimated the incubation 57 period to be around 4-8 days, allowing asymptomatic spread of disease in the community [6]. 58 59 Spread of HFMD can be person-to-person via the faecal-oral route, airborne via infected droplets spread through sneezing or coughing or through contaminated fomites [2]. General 60 infection control measures include frequent handwashing and avoiding close contact with 61 infected individuals, which might be difficult to implement in certain settings such as 62 nurseries. 63

There is no specific treatment for HFMD other than pain relief management [1]. The disease is usually self-limiting, however, in a small proportion of cases the disease can lead to neurological complications, respiratory failure and in some cases death [7]. Globally, countries in the Asia-Pacific region deal with the highest burden of HFMD, where it is estimated to cause 96,900 (95% CI 40 600 to 259 000) age-weighted disability-adjusted life years per annum [8].

Different causative agents of HFMD can result in more severe outcomes; enterovirus EV-A71 has been known for its virulence, with more severe symptoms including meningitis, encephalitis, and pneumonia [3]. While HFMD is in general a self-limiting mild disease, there is a higher risk of more severe disease occurring in infants younger than 6 months and immunocompromised individuals [9]. In a small proportion of cases, fatal neurological or cardiopulmonary complications can occur. There have also been reports of post-infection neurological sequelae in patients who have recovered from severe infection [10].

In England there is limited epidemiological information about the community burden of 77 HFMD as the disease is not required by the law to be reported. Previous epidemiological 78 studies have shown that HFMD seasonality in England occurs in late summer to early 79 80 autumn, either sporadically or in regular outbreaks [11]. Meteorological parameters have shown a significant association with the incidence of HFMD in subtropical regions, including 81 mean temperature, rainfall, and relative humidity [12, 13]. Modelling results by a South 82 Korean research group illustrated direct correlation of the HFMD incidence rate with average 83 temperature and relative humidity [14], therefore the disease potentially has more public 84 health relevance in the context of global warming. 85

Most HMFD outbreaks happen in childcare centres, nurseries, or within the family setting,
since HFMD affects mostly children younger than 10 years of age. CVA16 was the main

pathogen of HFMD outbreaks in England in 1959 and 1994 [11, 15]. Here, we use routinely

89 available general practitioner (GP) HFMD consultation data to provide an updated

90 epidemiological summary of HFMD burden on GP practices in England.

91

92 Methods

93 Study design and population

This was a retrospective, observational, descriptive analysis of GP consultations for HFMD 94 across England. GP consultation data were sourced from the UK Health Security Agency 95 (UKHSA) GP in-hours syndromic surveillance system. The GP in-hours system collates and 96 monitors GP consultation data for a range of health conditions and diseases as part of the 97 routine UKHSA real-time syndromic surveillance programme [16]. The GP in-hours system 98 uses data from two separate sources [17]. Here, GP in-hours consultations were used from the 99 Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) Research and Surveillance Centre (RSC), one 100 of the world's oldest sentinel networks. RSC data are held on the Oxford- Clinical 101 Informatics Digital Hub (ORCHID) [18]. The study population was all persons who 102 presented to general practices of the RSC [16] between 01 January 2017 to 31 December 103 2022 inclusive. The mean number of general practices across the period of the study 104 was1,245 practices across England covering a patient population of 11 million [19]. The 105 study dataset included information on primary care demographics such as age and sex. 106

107 Case definition

108 A case of HFMD was defined as a general practice consultation episode where the GP

- 109 assigned a Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine Clinical Terms (SNOMED) clinical term
- 110 (the terminology system currently used in the UK practice) inferring a diagnosis of HFMD
- 111 [20]. The SNOMED clinical terms included for HFMD were as follows: 67171006

Enteroviral vesicular stomatitis with exanthem; 154357002 Hand foot and mouth disease;
175497008 Hand, foot and mouth disease; 186664000 (Hand, foot & mouth disease) or
(vesicular stomatitis with exanthem); and 266108008 Enteroviral vesicular stomatitis with
exanthem.

116 Statistical analysis

Daily counts of GP consultations for HFMD and the GP registered practice population were
extracted for each day during the study period by age group and sex from 1 January 2017 to
31 December 2022 inclusive.

120 The weekly HFMD consultation rate (and 95% confidence intervals; CI) per 100,000

121 population across England was calculated using the count of HFMD consultations per

122 International Standards Organisation (ISO) week as the numerator and the weekly GP

123 registered population as the denominator. Bank holidays and weekends were removed from

the analysis as routine in-hours GP services are largely restricted on these days. The annual

125 HFMD rates were calculated using the annual total count as numerator and the annual mean

126 population as denominator.

127 Time series graphs were used to visualise trends and seasonality of the weekly national

128 consultation rates for HFMD, overall and stratified by age group and sex. Incidence was

defined as the total number of HFMD cases divided by the average population size during thestudy period.

131

132 **Results**

133 Demographic and temporal characteristics

134 The cumulative sum of HFMD consultations reported through the GP in-hours system in

England from 01 January 2017 to 31 December 2022 was 76,386, translating to a mean

weekly rate across the whole study period of 2.15 HFMD consultations per 100,000registered population.

138 Distinct seasonal HFMD activity was observed across the study period (Figure 1). During

139 'pre-COVID-19 pandemic years (2017-2019), peak HFMD activity (all ages) occurred at

140 weeks 43 and 44, with seasonal activity increasing from baseline activity at week 35-36 until

141 peaking approximately 8 week later. Peak seasonal activity also varied across the pre-

pandemic years; 2017 and 2018 peaked at 8.6 and 9.9 consultations per 100,000 while 2019

143 had a lower peak at 6.3 per 100,000 (Table 1).

144 During the COVID-19 pandemic years (2020 and 2021), the HFMD consultation rate

dropped immediately after the first announcement of COVID-19 restrictions in week 11

146 (early March) 2020. During 2020 there was no obvious typical epidemic activity or peak

148 week 26, when activity started to increase and then increased sharply from week 35, peaking

observed. The very low HFMD weekly rate continued through 2021 until approximately

149 higher (10.5 consultations per 100,00) and earlier (week 41) than other study years (Figure

150 1).

147

During the post-pandemic year (2022), HFMD seasonal activity resumed expected trend, with mean weekly rates higher than 2020 and 2021 however lower than pre-pandemic years (Table 1). During 2022, the seasonal peak of HFMD activity started later and peaked lower than previous years. The timing of the 2022 seasonal peak was also later than other study years; 2022 peak activity occurred at week 46, however activity remained high until week 49 when it then decreased, then following expected seasonal trends.

Figure 1.Weekly incidence rate of hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) per 100,000 population (all ages), England 2017-2022

159 Table 1: Hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) seasonal activity range

160 When stratified by age, the highest rates of consultations for HFMD in England were observed in children aged 1 to 4 years, followed by infants younger than 1 year old (Table 2). 161 During the whole study period we had registered the total of 76,386 HFMD GP consultations. 162 The average annual consultation rate for the whole study period was 112.1 per 100,000 163 registered population. Annually HFMD consultation rates in children aged 1 to 4 and <1 year 164 were the highest in year 2018 (with a peak of 2,411.5 and 1,799.9 per 100,000, respectively). 165 Activity in age groups 5 years and older was much lower with insignificant activity in adults 166 aged 45 years and over (Table 2). 167

Temporally, seasonal trends in HFMD incidence across individual age groups generally 168 followed national 'all ages' trends (Figures 1 and 2). For children aged <1 year, rates 169 observed during in 2018 were higher than other years, however, for 1-4 years age group, the 170 highest rates were observed in 2021. Also of note, during 2021 the seasonal peak of HFMD 171 occurred earlier in the 1-4 years age group (compared to <1 years) but was seen to peak later 172 during 2022 (Figure 2). There was also evidence of a possible lag between younger and older 173 age groups, with HFMD consultation activity in adults aged 45 years and over appearing to 174 start and finish later than activity in younger children by a few weeks. However, the small 175 176 number of HFMD consultations reported in older adults made comparisons challenging.

When stratified by gender, HFMD consultation rate for males was higher than that seen in
females, with the rate ratio consistently illustrating male rates were 20% higher than female
across each year of the study period (Table 2).

180Table 2. Epidemiological characteristics of GP consultations for hand foot and mouth

- 181 disease (HFMD) in England, 2017-2022, presented as the annual number of HFMD GP
- 182 consultations (annual incidence rate per 100,000). Post Covid-19 pandemic years are
- 183 highlighted in grey.

Figure 2. Weekly GP consultation rate of hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) per
100,000 population by age group in England (2017-2022).

186

187 Discussion

This study provides an update on recent epidemiological trends in general practice 188 consultations for HFMD in England. Here, we use a national general practice syndromic 189 190 surveillance system that is routinely used to report on all-hazards including infectious diseases (e.g. influenza, COVID-19), environmental impacts (e.g. heatwaves), mass 191 gatherings (e.g. large sporting events) and chemical incidents (e.g. large industrial fires). 192 Laboratory testing and confirmation of HFMD in England is rare and therefore these GP 193 consultation data are a useful proxy for HFMD incidence and can contribute to surveillance 194 of the disease in England. Our study thereby provides a valuable insight into the 195 epidemiology and burden of this disease. The data presented here show that HFMD peak 196 week occurred during week 43 or 44 pre pandemics, During the years 2017-2019 mean 197 weekly rates ranged from 2.03 to 2.47 per 100,000 registered patients. Our data clearly shows 198 seasonality of HFMD infections for children between 1 and 14 years of age, with highest 199 incidence during months September to January, coinciding with return of schools following 200 201 the summer holiday.

Our study shows that the burden of HFMD mainly occurred in children under 5 years of age, which is supported by existing evidence [2, 21-23]. We also demonstrated higher consultation rates in males versus females (average rate ratio of 1.2 during the studied period of time), however our data support global epidemiological reports where similar findings were made [24, 25]. A research study on transmissibility of HFMD viruses showed higher indices for male transmissibility and infection rates [26]. The explanation suggested elsewhere in the literature for this phenomenon was the fact that male children are generally more active and
exposed to the environment than females [27]. The predominance of disease in younger
males is also reported for other conditions, such as asthma, where it has been shown that
asthma incidence, prevalence and hospitalization rates are higher in pre-pubertal boys than
girls of the same age, but this trend reverses during adolescence [28, 29].

The current study period spans the COVID-19 pandemic. The impact of the pandemic on the 213 epidemiology of HFMD is clear from our results. GP consultations for HFMD decreased 214 during the early part of 2020, diverging from the seasonal trend observed in other years. 215 Consultation rates remained at very low (near 'zero') levels until week 25 of 2021, when 216 HFMD consultations slowly started to increase and return to expected levels. This 217 observation is consistent with reports of the impact of COVID-19 on the circulation of other 218 219 infectious diseases. In England, non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) were introduced to control the spread of SARS-CoV-2 in the community [30]. An indirect effect of NPIs was the 220 interruption of the transmission chain of other infectious diseases. During the pandemic, 221 surveillance data for respiratory syncytial virus, influenza and gastrointestinal pathogens 222 illustrated very low and out-of-season activity [31]. Our findings support that infection 223 control measures for HFMD (hand washing, restricting close contact, removing cases from 224 close contact settings such as nurseries) are effective measures as the impact of NPIs clearly 225 226 demonstrated a significant decrease in HFMD circulation. However, it must also be 227 considered that other confounders might have played a role, including changes in the availability of health care services and changes in health care seeking behaviour of the public 228 which were also documented during the pandemic [32-34]. Post-pandemic, HFMD 229 230 seasonality appeared to change. During 2021, the HFMD epidemic curve was earlier than previous years, by 2-3 weeks. However, the following year (2022) saw later activity, 2-3 231 weeks later than expected. The first HFMD season post pandemic (2021) might have seen an 232

earlier surge in cases since the lifting of restrictions resulted in schools returning. The cohort
of children in the 1-4 years age group would also contain some children not exposed to
HFMD pre-pandemic. This is supported by the finding that the 1-4 years age group had the
highest incidence during 2021. Further routine surveillance of HFMD is required over the
coming years to establish whether the seasonality of HFMD returns to regular pre-pandemic
trends.

There was a significant gap since the last epidemiological description of HFMD activity in 239 England, with the last publication dated in 1996 [11]. Hereby, we have provided the first 240 update of HFMD epidemiology for 25 years, presenting trends over the recent years 2017-241 2022. The original 1996 study by Bendig and Fleming utilised a small sentinel network of 242 GPs, the RCGP Weekly Returns Service [11]. This network consisted of 92 sentinel GP 243 practices covering a mean sample population of 614,303 patients. The GP syndromic 244 surveillance system used in our current study involves the same RCGP surveillance network, 245 however the size of the network and patient population has increased significantly to 1,160 246 practices, with a mean sample registered patient population of 11 million in 2022 [19], 247 thereby providing a much greater and representative sample of the population [35]. 248 249 The peak of HFMD activity described in the 1996 study occurred during ISO week 49, with a peak incidence rate reported at 12.6 consultations per 100,000 population. We present HFMD 250 activity peaking between weeks 41-46 with the maximum mean weekly rate of 10.52 in year 251 2021. The suggestion of a lag in HFMD activity between the youngest and oldest age groups 252 is supported by transmission studies of other communicable diseases between these age 253 groups, particularly acute respiratory infections including those caused by respiratory 254 syncytial virus (RSV) [36, 37]. This merits further research into HFMD transmission as there 255 are potentially important implications for infection control advice for older adults who are 256 more at risk of developing severe disease and complications from HFMD, particularly if they 257

are living with or having close contact with younger children who are in the nursery or schoolsetting and therefore more likely to have exposure to the viruses causing HFMD.

Globally the burden and severity of HFMD differs, with particular impact seen in South-East 260 Asian countries, however in comparison there is a lower burden and relative severity of 261 HFMD in England. Particular strains of enterovirus and coxsackievirus display different 262 neurotropic and deadly propensities worldwide and therefore the surveillance of virus and 263 clinical presentation is of vital importance. In Singapore, HFMD was listed as the top 5 most 264 contagious febrile viral illness amongst children below age of 5 years [38]. Some of the 265 clinical manifestations for HFMD viruses include more severe aseptic meningitis, 266 encephalitis, acute flaccid paralysis and flaccid myelitis [39]. Coxsackievirus serotype A6 267 (CVA6) has been identified as a causative agent of autumn 2008 epidemic outbreak of 268 HFMD in Finland, with atypical symptom of onychomadesis as a hallmark of this outbreak 269 [40]. HFMD outbreaks are very common in East Asian countries, where now specific 270 reporting systems are implemented as a control measure. Coxsackievirus CV-A16 continues 271 to evolve into more diverse branches as per epidemiological information provided by a 272 Chinese reporting system [41]. 273

274 In Malaysia, a 1997 outbreak of HFMD resulted in several deaths, after which the country introduced its first control policies including mandatory notification of clusters of cases. 275 Preventative measures inclusive of routine checks of temperature, soles of feet and mouth 276 before allowing children to enter nurseries are also part of the anti HFMD practice in some 277 countries [3]. In the United States of America it has been shown that individual serotypes 278 have different temporal patterns of circulation and often are associated with different clinical 279 manifestations [42]. Moreover, the changes in circulating serotypes might be accompanied by 280 large-scale outbreaks, therefore monitoring HFMD occurrence is of high importance. 281

The serotype EV-A71was associated with the most infections in Europe, East and South-East Asia. Both Coxsackievirus types A16 (CV-A16) and A6 (CV-A6) are found to be prevalent in USA, Europe [40] and Asia- Pacific with a high pandemic potential [43]. According to historical data only some sporadic outbreaks were recorded elsewhere to be associated with CV-A10 [44, 45].

A key strength of our study is that we have utilised one of the only routinely available 287 sources of HMFD clinical data. The GP surveillance network is large and covers 288 approximately 18% of the England population. The network has been shown to be 289 representative of the England population thereby ensuring that we have a good cross-section 290 of the population [19]. This system is routinely used for real-time all-hazard surveillance in 291 England and therefore the clinical diagnosis codes used in this study to identify HFMD 292 293 consultations can be directly applied prospectively for real-time surveillance of HFMD. However, HFMD cases reported here are likely to be an underestimate of total cases in the 294 community. It is likely that mild or asymptomatic HFMD cases will not report to primary 295 care or may present to other areas of the National Health Service (NHS) in England. 296 Furthermore, before the development of a classic HFMD vesicular rash, the disease can 297 298 present with relatively generic symptoms in the early stages of infection meaning that a clinical diagnosis made by a GP might not initially indicate HFMD as the causative diagnosis 299 furthering this underestimate. Finally, a range of other pathogens can be responsible for 300 301 causing typical and atypical manifestations that might cause a differential diagnosis of HFMD [4]. 302

303 Increased public awareness of HFMD and emphasising preventative measures such as basic

304 hygiene remain the best means for preventing and controlling cases and outbreaks of HFMD.

305 In England, NHS and local health protection services advise health professionals

306 encountering cases of HFMD to provide advice to patients and their carers, but that no further

specialised health protection advice is required [46]. As the majority of cases are not
sampled, nor is this a notifiable disease, syndromic surveillance provides a useful tool for
measuring the healthcare burden associated with HFMD.

In conclusion, we have described trends in GP consultations for HFMD in England from 310 January 2017 to December 2022 using a syndromic surveillance network of GPs. We 311 observed seasonality of HFMD incidence during the non-COVID years, with a peak of mean 312 weekly rates between months of September and December. Our data shows that in England, 313 children aged 1-4 years old accounted for the largest affected population followed by children 314 <1 years old. This study shows that syndromic surveillance GP reporting on a near-real time 315 basis can provide a valuable insight into HFMD epidemiology. The experiences and lessons 316 learnt from other countries where large outbreaks have occurred (including virulent strains 317 318 and therefore more severe presentations and increased mortality) highlights the importance of understanding the evolving aetiology of HFMD, epidemiology and changing burden of 319 clinical cases. We have shown that monitoring changes in HFMD epidemiology through 320 prospective surveillance can also provide timely alerts in the event of increasing activity both 321 at national, regional or local level that might implicate changes in the underlying aetiology of 322 cases. Our data provides the framework for assessing changes in healthcare presentation 323 linked to future changes in presenting severity of cases. 324

325 Data availability statement. Applications for requests to access relevant anonymised data
 326 included in this study should be submitted to the UKHSA Office for Data Release
 327 (<u>https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/accessing-ukhsa-protected-data/accessing-</u>
 328 <u>ukhsa-protected-data</u>).

Author contribution. Conceptualization, DT, AJE; resources, AJE; data curation, NGB, PL,
RB, HH; formal analysis, NGB, MB, HH, DT; investigation, NGB, MB; methodology, NGB,

331	MB, H	IH; supe	rvision,	DT,	AJE;	validation.	NGB,	PL,	HH,	DT,	AJE;	visualization	, NGB,
				,	,		, ,			,	,		,

HH, DT; writing - original draft, NGB, DT, AJE; writing - review & editing, all authors.

333 Acknowledgements. We thank the Oxford-Royal College of General Practitioners Research

- and Surveillance Centre, and to its member general practices and their patients who share
- data with the surveillance system. We also thank the UKHSA Real-time Syndromic
- 336 Surveillance Team for technical support. DT and AJE are affiliated with the National Institute[>]
- 337 for Health and Care Research (NIHR) Health Protection Research Unit (HPRU) in

338 Emergency Preparedness and Response at King's College London. AJE is affiliated with the

- 339 NIHR HPRU in Gastrointestinal Infections at the University of Liverpool. The views
- 340 expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NIHR, the UKHSA or the
- 341 Department of Health and Social Care.
- Funding statement. The research was funded through UKHSA core activities. This researchreceived no external funding.
- 344 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no conflict of interests.
- 345

346 **References**

- Esposito S and Principi N (2018) Hand, foot and mouth disease: current knowledge
 on clinical manifestations, epidemiology, aetiology and prevention. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases* 37, 391-398.
- 350 [2] Zhu P, et al. (2023) Current status of hand-foot-and-mouth disease. *Journal of Biomedical Science* 30, 15.
- 352 [3] Siegel K, Cook AR and La H (2017) The impact of hand, foot and mouth disease
- control policies in Singapore: a qualitative analysis of public perceptions. *Journal of*
- 354 *Public Health Policy* **38**, 271-287.

355	[4]	Drago F, et al. (2021) Oral and cutaneous manifestations of viral and bacterial
356		infections: not only COVID-19 disease. Clinics in Dermatology 39, 384-404.
357	[5]	Second J, et al. (2017) Clinicopathologic analysis of atypical hand, foot, and mouth
358		disease in adult patients. Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology 76, 722-
359		729.
360	[6]	Yang Z, et al. (2017) Estimating the incubation period of hand, foot and mouth
361		disease for children in different age groups. Scientific Reports 7, 16464.
362	[7]	Antona D, et al. (2016) Severe paediatric conditions linked with EV-A71 and EV-
363		D68, France, May to October 2016. Eurosurveillance 21, pii=30402.
364	[8]	Koh WM, et al. (2018) Severity and burden of hand, foot and mouth disease in Asia:
365		a modelling study. BMJ Global Health 3, e000442.
366	[9]	Tan YW and Chu JJH (2021) Protecting the most vulnerable from hand, foot, and
367		mouth disease. Lancet Infectious Diseases 21, 308-309.
368	[10]	Kim B, et al. (2018) Factors associated with severe neurologic complications in
369		patients with either hand-foot-mouth disease or herpangina: A nationwide
370		observational study in South Korea, 2009-2014. PLoS One 13, e0201726.
371	[11]	Bendig JW and Fleming DM (1996) Epidemiological, virological, and clinical
372		features of an epidemic of hand, foot, and mouth disease in England and Wales.
373		Communicable Disease Report. CDR Review 6, R81-86.
374	[12]	Jiang Y, et al. (2021) Association between meteorological parameters and Hand,
375	X	Foot and Mouth Disease in mainland China: a systematic review and meta-analysis.
376		Iranian Journal of Public Health 50, 1757-1765.
377	[13]	Huang Z, et al. (2019) Seasonality of the transmissibility of hand, foot and mouth
378		disease: a modelling study in Xiamen City, China. Epidemiology and Infection 147,
379		e327.

- 380 [14] Kim BI, et al. (2016) Effect of climatic factors on Hand, Foot, and Mouth Disease in
 381 South Korea, 2010-2013. *PLoS One* 11, e0157500.
- 382 [15] Alsop J, Flewett TH and Foster JR (1960) "Hand-foot-and-mouth disease" in
 383 Birmingham in 1959. *BMJ (Clinical Research Ed.)* 2, 1708-1711.
- 384 [16] de Lusignan S, et al. (2021) Influenza and respiratory virus surveillance, vaccine
- 385 uptake, and effectiveness at a time of cocirculating COVID-19: protocol for the
- English primary care sentinel system for 2020-2021. *JMIR Public Health and Surveillance* 7, e24341.
- **Bardsley M, et al.** (2023) The epidemiology of chickenpox in England, 2016-2022:
- an observational study using general practitioner consultations. *Viruses* **15**, 2163.
- 390 [18] de Lusignan S, et al. (2020) The Oxford Royal College of General Practitioners
- 391 Clinical Informatics Digital Hub: protocol to develop extended COVID-19
- surveillance and trial platforms. *JMIR Public Health and Surveillance* **6**, e19773.
- 393 [19] Smith S, et al. (2023) New developments and expansion of the GP in-hours
- 394 syndromic surveillance system: collaboration between UKHSA and the Oxford-Royal
- 395 College of General Practitioners Clinical Informatics Digital Hub. *British Journal of*
- 396 *General Practice* **73**, bjgp23X734289.
- de Lusignan S (2005) Codes, classifications, terminologies and nomenclatures:
 definition, development and application in practice. *Informatics in Primary Care* 13,
- 399 65-70.
- 400 [21] Wang Y, et al. (2020) Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of severe hand401 foot-and-mouth disease (HFMD) among children: a 6-year population-based study.
 402 *BMC Public Health* 20, 801.
- 403 [22] Mirand A, et al. (2021) A large-scale outbreak of hand, foot and mouth disease,
 404 France, as at 28 September 2021. *Eurosurveillance* 26, pii=2100978.

405 [23] Cabrerizo M, et al. (2014) Molecular epidemiology of enterow
--

- 406 coxsackievirus A16 and A6 associated with hand, foot and mouth disease in Spain.
 407 *Clinical Microbiology and Infection* 20, O150-O156.
- 408 [24] **Peng D, et al.** (2020) Epidemiological and aetiological characteristics of hand, foot,
- and mouth disease in Sichuan Province, China, 2011–2017. *Scientific Reports* **10**,
- **410 6**117.
- Wang YR, et al. (2013) Epidemiology and clinical characteristics of hand foot, and
 mouth disease in a Shenzhen sentinel hospital from 2009 to 2011. *BMC Infectious*
- 413 *Diseases* **13**, 539.
- Liao Y, et al. (2019) Relative transmissibility of hand, foot and mouth disease from
 male to female individuals. *Epidemiology and Infection* 147, e284.
- 416 [27] Wang W, et al. (2023) Epidemiological characteristics and spatiotemporal patterns of
 417 hand, foot, and mouth disease in Hubei, China from 2009 to 2019. *PLoS One* 18,
- 418 e0287539.
- 419 [28] Fuhlbrigge AL, Jackson B and Wright RJ (2002) Gender and asthma. *Immunology*420 *and Allergy Clinics of North America* 22, 753-789.
- 421 [29] Green MS (1992) The male predominance in the incidence of infectious diseases in
 422 children: a postulated explanation for disparities in the literature. *International*
- 423 *Journal of Epidemiology* **21**, 381-386.
- 424 [30] Bernal JL, et al. (2021) The impact of social and physical distancing measures on
 425 COVID-19 activity in England: findings from a multi-tiered surveillance system.
 426 *Eurosurveillance* 26, 2001062.
- 427 [31] Bardsley M, et al. (2023) Epidemiology of respiratory syncytial virus in children
 428 younger than 5 years in England during the COVID-19 pandemic, measured by

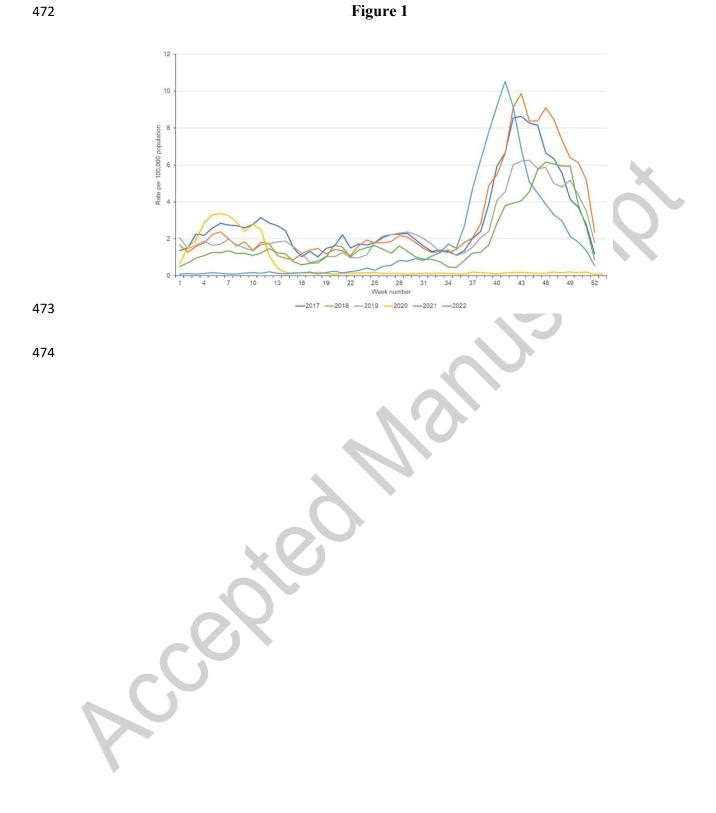
- 429 laboratory, clinical, and syndromic surveillance: a retrospective observational study.
 430 *Lancet Infectious Diseases* 23, 56-66.
- 431 [32] Murphy M, et al. (2021) Implementation of remote consulting in UK primary care
 432 following the COVID-19 pandemic: a mixed-methods longitudinal study. *British*433 *Journal of General Practice* 71, e166-e177.
- 434 [33] Eapen V, et al. (2021) "Watch Me Grow- Electronic (WMG-E)" surveillance
- approach to identify and address child development, parental mental health, and
- 436 psychosocial needs: study protocol. *BMC Health Services Research* **21**, 1240.
- 437 [34] Ferraro CF, et al. (2021) Describing the indirect impact of COVID-19 on healthcare
- 438 utilisation using syndromic surveillance systems. *BMC Public Health* **21**, 2019.
- 439 [35] Leston M, et al. (2022) Representativeness, vaccination uptake, and COVID-19
- 440 clinical outcomes 2020-2021 in the UK Oxford-Royal College of General
- 441 Practitioners Research and Surveillance Network: cohort profile summary. *JMIR*

442 *Public Health and Surveillance* **8**, e39141.

- 443 [36] Korsten K, et al. (2022) Contact with young children increases the risk of respiratory
- 444 infection in older adults in Europe the RESCEU Study. *Journal of Infectious*445 *Diseases* 226, \$79-\$86.
- Fleming DM and Elliot AJ (2007) The management of acute bronchitis in children. *Expert Opinion on Pharmacotherapy* 8, 415-426.
- 448 [38] Min N, et al. (2021) An epidemiological surveillance of hand foot and mouth disease
 449 in paediatric patients and in community: A Singapore retrospective cohort study,
- 450 2013-2018. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **15**, e0008885.
- 451 [39] Gonzalez G, et al. (2019) Enterovirus-Associated Hand-Foot and Mouth Disease and
- 452 Neurological Complications in Japan and the Rest of the World. *International Journal*
- 453 *of Molecular Sciences* **20**, 5201.

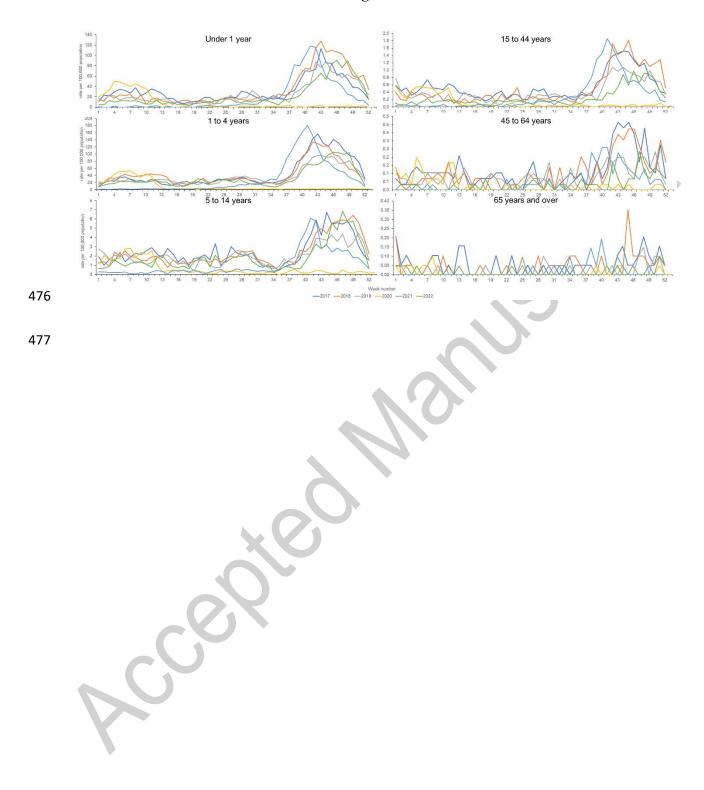
- 454 [40] Osterback R, et al. (2009) Coxsackievirus A6 and hand, foot, and mouth disease,
- 455 Finland. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* **15**, 1485-1488.
- 456 [41] Chen L, et al. (2019) Molecular surveillance of coxsackievirus A16 reveals the
- 457 emergence of a new clade in mainland China. *Archives of Virology* **164**, 867-874.
- 458 [42] Khetsuriani N, et al. (2006) Enterovirus surveillance--United States, 1970-2005.
- 459 *MMWR Surveillance Summaries* **55**, 1-20.
- 460 [43] Anh NT, et al. (2018) Emerging Coxsackievirus A6 Causing Hand, Foot and Mouth
 461 Disease, Vietnam. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 24, 654-662.
- 462 [44] Kamahora T, et al. (1985) Oligonucleotide fingerprint analysis of coxsackievirus
- 463 A10 isolated in Japan. *Journal of General Virology* **66**, 2627-2634.
- 464 [45] Chau NVV, et al. (2024) Emerging enterovirus A71 subgenogroup B5 causing severe
- 465 Hand, Foot, and Mouth Disease, Vietnam, 2023. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 30,
 466 363-367.
- 467 [46] NHS. Hand, foot and mouth disease (2024) Available at:
- 468 <u>https://www.nhs.uk/conditions/hand-foot-mouth-disease/</u> (accessed 4 November
- 469 2024).
- 470





475

Figure 2



Year	Mean	Standard	Lower	Upper	minimum	maximum	Peak
	weekly	deviation	95%	95%	rate*	rate* (during	week
	rate*	of the mean	CI	CI		peak week)	number
2017	2.47	2.09	1.9	3.03	1.02	8.64	43
2018	2.32	2.6	1.62	3.03	0.86	9.88	43
2019	2.03	1.59	1.61	2.46	0.72	6.26	44
2020	0.27	1.01	0	0.54	0.08	3.36	7
2021	0.62	2.69	-0.1	1.35	0.09	10.53	41
2022	1.47	0.59	1.3	1.62	0.44	6.17	46

478 Table 1: Hand foot and mouth disease (HFMD) seasonal activity range

* Rate of HFMD consultations per 100,000 registered patients. Post Covid-19 pandemic
years are highlighted in grey.

481

- 482 Table 2. Epidemiological characteristics of GP consultations for hand foot and mouth
- 483 disease (HFMD) in England, 2017-2022, presented as the annual number of HFMD GP
- 484 consultations (annual incidence rate per 100,000). Post Covid-19 pandemic years are
- 485 highlighted in grey.

	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Mean
Total cases	17,054	17,681	14,247	4,151	11,259	11,994	12,731
Annual incidence	155.4	159.5	126.0	34.8	96.9	99.8	112.1
Age (incidence)							
<1 year	1,852	1,973	1,494	512	1,114	1,248	1,365.5
	(1,668.5)	(1,799.9)	(1,376.5)	(485.8)	(1,075.9)	(1,168.2)	
1-4 years	12,020	12,642	10,168	2,790	8,424	8,693	9,122.8
	(2,286.6)	(2,411.5)	(1,937.5)	(536.8)	(1,655.7)	(1,731.4)	
5-14 years	1,679	1,671	1,447	484	823	1,356	1,243.3
	(128.3)	(124.1)	(105.3)	(34.7)	(58.3)	(95.3)	
15-44years	1,272	1,189	992	306	799	628	864.3
	(28.7)	(26.2)	(21.3)	(6.4)	(16.4)	(12.6)	
45-64 years	179 (6.3)	163 (5.6)	123 (4.2)	48 (1.6)	80 (2.6)	54 (1.8)	107.8
>65 years	52 (2.7)	43 (2.2)	23 (1.2)	11 (0.5)	19 (0.9)	15 (0.7)	27.2
Sex (incidence)							
Male (incidence)	9,250	9,609	7,744	2,168	6,278	6,572	6,936.8
K	(158.8)	(164.9)	(132.9)	(37.2)	(107.7)	(112.8)	
Female (incidence)	7,803	8,072	6,503	1,983	4,980	5,422	5,793.8
	(134)	(139.5)	(112.4)	(34.2)	(86)	(93.7)	

	Male to female	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.2
	ratio							
486	*Total cases include	e records w	ith unknow	n age				
487								
488								
						C		
						\mathbf{S}		
						5		
					\sim			
					0			
				$\langle \cdot \rangle$				
		X						
		$\mathbf{O}_{\mathbf{A}}$						
		5						
	c.V							
	N							
	V							
	*							