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Aortic stenosis post-COVID-19: A mathematical model on waiting lists and mortality

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3 4	45	Abstract
5 6	46	
7	47	Objectives
8 9	48	To provide estimates for how different treatment pathways for the management of severe
10 11	49	aortic stenosis (AS) may affect NHS England waiting list duration and associated mortality.
12	50	
13 14	51	Design
15 16	52	We constructed a mathematical model of the excess waiting list and found the closed-form
17	53	analytic solution to that model. From published data, we calculated estimates for how the
18 19	54	following strategies may affect the time to clear the backlog of patients waiting for treatment
20 21	55	and the associated waiting list mortality.
22 23	56	
24	57	Setting
25 26	58	The NHS in England.
27 28	59	
29	60	Participants
30 31	61	Estimated aortic stenosis patients in England.
32 33	62	
34 35	63	Interventions
36	64	1) increasing the capacity for the treatment of severe AS, 2) converting proportions of cases
37 38	65	from surgery to transcatheter aortic valve implantation, and 3) a combination of these two.
39 40	66	
41	67	Results
42	68	In a capacitated system, clearing the backlog by returning to pre-COVID-19 capacity is not
44 45	69	possible. A conversion rate of 50% would clear the backlog within 666 (95% CI, 533–848)
46 47	70	days with 1419 (95% CI, 597-2189) deaths whilst waiting during this time. A 20% capacity
48	71	increase would require 535 (95% CI, 434-666) days, with an associated mortality of 1172
49 50	72	(95% CI, 466–1859). A combination of converting 40% cases and increasing capacity by
51 52	73	20% would clear the backlog within a year (343 (95% CI, 281-410) days) with 784 (95% CI,
53 54	74	292–1324) deaths whilst awaiting treatment.
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76 Conclusion

77 A strategy change to the management of severe AS is required to reduce the NHS backlog

and waiting list deaths during the post-COVID-19 'recovery' period. However, plausible

79 adaptations will still incur a substantial wait and many hundreds dying without treatment.

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2 3	80	What is already known on this subject?
4 5	81	It has been estimated that almost 5000 patients were left untreated for severe aortic stenosis
6 7	82	in England due to indirect effects of the COVID-19 pandemic up to November 2020.
8 9	83	However, to our knowledge, there has been no published literature examining how to manage
10	84	the extra backlog this will cause on the waiting list for treatment.
11 12	85	
13 14	86	What might this study add?
15	87	In this study, we found that without significant intervention, the waiting list of patients
17	88	seeking treatment for severe aortic stenosis will not return to pre-pandemic levels for several
18 19	89	years, resulting in thousands of preventable deaths. This study presents a model for
20 21	90	evaluating the relative efficacy of different interventions, including adding extra treatment
22	91	capacity and converting a proportion of cases to TAVI from surgery, to clear the backlog and
23 24	92	minimise mortality of patients waiting for treatment.
25 26	93	
23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 4 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 50 51 52 53 54 55 67 58 59	94 95 96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105	 Strengths and limitations of this study This model's greatest strength is that it provides a good basis to begin to solve a time- critical problem when data gathering is likely to result in a greater number of deaths. The discussion about how treating some SAVR patients with TAVI instead is a useful tool that examines how giving some patients what might be seen by some as sub- optimal treatment, results in better overall outcomes for the target population. The assumption that the entire NHS can be modelled as a single entity with a single waiting list is a limitation of this study. We also recognise that the waiting numbers we use in our study are likely to be flawed as we do not know how many AS patients have died due to catching COVID- 19.
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3	106	Introduction
4 5	107	
6 7	108	The COVID-19 pandemic has led to the reorganisation of healthcare services to limit the
8 9	109	transmission of the virus and deal with the sequelae of infection. This reorganisation had a
10	110	detrimental effect on cardiovascular services, with reductions in hospitalisations for acute
12	111	cardiovascular events and the deferral of all but the most urgent interventional procedures
13 14	112	and operations.[1, 2]
15 16	113	
17	114	Aortic stenosis (AS) is the most common form of valvular heart disease. Once stenosis is
18 19	115	severe, symptoms follow and the prognosis is poor, with 50% mortality within two years of
20 21	116	symptom onset.[3] Thus, timely treatment is of paramount importance. Surgical aortic valve
22	117	replacement (SAVR) has historically been the default treatment strategy. However,
25 24	118	transcatheter aortic valve implantation (TAVI) has recently emerged as an effective and
25 26	119	increasingly utilised option across operative risk strata.[4-8]
27 28	120	
29	121	There was a large decline in TAVI and SAVR procedural activity to treat severe AS during
30 31	122	the COVID-19 pandemic.[9] Between the period March to November 2020, it is estimated
32 33	123	that the decrease in activity accounted for 4989 (95% CI. 4020-5959) patients in England
34 35	124	with severe AS left untreated by TAVI or SAVR.[9] As we move into an era of 'living with'
36	125	COVID-19, plans must urgently be put in place to best manage the additional waiting list
37 38	126	burden for treatment of severe AS.[10]
39 40	127	
41 42	128	In this study, we used mathematical methods to examine the extent to which additional
43	129	capacity to provide treatment of severe AS should be created to clear the backlog and
44 45	130	minimise deaths of people on the waiting list.
46 47	131	
48 40	132	
49 50	133	Methods
51 52	134	
53 54	135	Study population and assumptions
55	136	Data from the UK TAVR registry and NICOR (National Institute for Cardiovascular
56 57	137	Outcomes Research) National Adult Cardiac Surgery Audit (NACSA) between 2017 and
58 59	138	2020 have previously been extracted to estimate an excess waiting list size (W_0) of 4989
60		6

(95% CI, 4020–5959) patients with severe AS left untreated as of November 2020.[9] In the absence of contemporaneous data on waiting lists and SAVR and TAVI activity, we have taken this number as the excess backlog on which to model solutions. The incidence of AS has not increased over recent years.[11] Therefore, we assumed that the system was in a steady state before the COVID-19 pandemic and without loss of generality defined the steady-state waiting list to be zero. Additionally, we assumed that the normal rate of flow (f)of new patients into the waiting list for treatment of severe AS would be maintained upon the commencement of additional operations. Thus, the extra capacity that we model is to clear the excess post-COVID-19 backlog. We took one-year mortality (μ) after the onset of symptoms in severe AS to be 36% (95% CI, 12% - 60%.[12] More recent studies have estimated the one-year mortality to be 51%[5] and 55%, but these included cohorts that were considered inappropriate for SAVR, thus, we considered these estimates unrepresentative of an unselected population with severe AS.[13] The routine capacity for treatment of severe AS was taken from the pre-pandemic period. In 2018/19, the NHS in England performed 7830 SAVR ($r_S^0 = 7830$) and 5197 TAVI (r_T^0 = 5197) procedures, for a total throughput of about 13,000 per vear.[14] Modelling Patients on the waiting list for treatment of severe AS were represented as a dynamical system (figure 1). To this model, we introduce capacity in surplus to the 2018/19 performance and call this capacity T_e (further details are provided in supplementary material). We assume that the typical caseload for which the NHS in England can deal with continues; therefore, the backlog is only reduced by treating patients with this extra capacity or by patient mortality before receiving treatment. We also consider patients in the backlog and patients new to the waiting list indistinguishable. Thus, the waiting list size represents the excess number of people seeking treatment who are unable to be treated immediately at any one time. We also assume that other paths out of the waiting list (i.e. patients seeking private treatment) would be so small in comparison to the uncertainty estimates as to be negligible on the results of our analysis.

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These assumptions then come together to give an estimated time (see supplementary material for derivation) to clear the waiting list (t_c)

$$t_{C} = \frac{ln\left(1 + \frac{W_{0}\mu}{T_{e}}\right)}{\mu} \tag{1}$$

and associated mortality $(m(t_c))$

$$m(t_{c}) = W_{0} - T_{e}t_{c}.$$
 (2)

Using equations (1) and (2), we can predict the length of time and associated mortality for different percentage increases in capacity. We assume any capacity increase to be constant throughout the entire modelled period. For example, if we increased daily capacity by 5% this would result in, $T_e = \frac{r_s^0 + r_T^0}{365} * 5\% = 1.785$ extra procedures per day, across the whole of the NHS in England. We generated 10,000 random values for the one-year mortality rate and initial waiting list length. We assumed that the uncertainty in both variables was normally distributed.

Interventions and outcomes

We investigated three types of capacity increase: 1) a general increase in the capacity to provide SAVR and TAVI, which could be facilitated by an increased number of procedures per list, additional lists, and prioritisation of care pathways and staffing to treat severe AS; 2) extra capacity created by treating some patients with TAVI who would routinely have SAVR; 3) a combination of a general increase in capacity and the conversion of a proportion of cases from SAVR to TAVI. During the COVID-19 pandemic, TAVI was performed in patients usually referred for surgery, with no difference in short term outcomes compared to historical reference groups.[15, 16]

We assumed that the duration of a SAVR would routinely be between 2-4 hours and a TAVI between 1-2 hours.[17, 18] As such, we assumed within the time for two SAVR operations, three TAVI could be performed instead.[19] Several clinical factors may favour SAVR over TAVI (including concomitant severe coronary artery disease, low STS score, bicuspid aortic valve etc.); therefore, we assumed that, in the short term, no more than 50% of patients could be converted from SAVR to TAVI.[20] We also assumed that no more than 50% extra

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2 3 4	202	connective could be created by other means (a.g. outro lists, mars procedures per list). We
	202	capacity could be created by other means (e.g. extra lists, more procedures per list). We simulated two principal outcomes based on the question of additional connection (T_{i}) :
6	203	simulated two principal outcomes based on the creation of additional capacity (T_e) .
7 8	204	1. Time to clear the backlog (reduce to zero),
9 10	205	2. Mortality of patients within the excess backlog whilst on the waiting list to be treated.
11	206	
12 13	207	We completed additional sensitivity analyses for how the conversion of SAVR to TAVI
14 15	208	would affect the principal outcomes, including if three SAVR operations could be routinely
16	209	completed in a day and four to five TAVI procedures per day (presuming increasing uptake
17 18	210	of a minimalist TAVI approach without general anaesthesia enabling more rapid procedure
19 20	211	time).[21]
20	212	
22 23	213	Patient and public involvement
24 25	214	Patients and the public were not involved in the conduct of this study.
26	215	
27 28	216	
29 30	217	Results
30 31	218	
32 33	219	In the pre-COVID-19 period, the routine capacity for treatment of severe AS was set to cover
34 35	220	the normal incident rate. That is, clearing the backlog by returning to pre-COVID-19 capacity
36 27	221	is not possible. As a result, mortality on the excess waiting list at one year are estimated to be
37 38	222	more than 1500, putting a strong emphasis on the need for change.
39 40	223	
41 42	224	Total additional capacity
43	225	Figure 2 provides simulations of the time to clear the excess backlog and the mortality of
44 45	226	patients on the waiting list based on the amount of total additional capacity, T_e . With a 5%
46 47	227	increase in the capacity to provide treatment of severe AS, we estimate it would take 1384
48 49	228	(95% CI, 1025–1994) days to clear the excess backlog, with 2526 (95% CI, 1355–3516)
50	229	deaths. A 20% increase in total capacity would provide a sharp benefit in clearing the excess
51 52 53 54 55 56 57	230	backlog within 536 (95% CI, 434–666) days, with an estimate of 1173 (95% CI, 466–1859)
	231	deaths. As total capacity increases further, there is a diminishing return in clearing the
	232	backlog and avoiding associated mortality; the greater the capacity increase, the fewer lives
	233	are saved for every extra increase in capacity. Even if it was possible to double capacity, it
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3 4	234	would take 131 (95% CI, 126–137) days to clear the backlog and there would be 313 (95%
5 6 7	235	CI, 118–494) deaths on the waiting list.
	236	
8 9	237	The effect of converting SAVR to TAVI
10	238	The conversion of a proportion of cases from surgery to TAVI provides a modest
12	239	improvement in estimates of time to clear the backlog and mortality on the waiting list. With
13 14	240	the conversion of 30% of SAVR operations to TAVI procedures, without the creation of
15 16	241	additional capacity in the system, we estimate it would take 975 (95% CI, 741-1284) days to
17	242	clear the backlog and result in 1914 (95% CI, 923-2809) deaths on the waiting list. Even with
18 19	243	the conversion of 50% of SAVR operations to TAVI procedures, we estimate the backlog
20 21	244	would be cleared within 666 (95% CI, 533-848) days with 1419 (95% CI, 597-2189) deaths.
22	245	
23 24	246	Combining conversion of SAVR to TAVI and additional capacity
25 26	247	Figures 3a and 3b demonstrate the range of possibilities in creating extra capacity. Each line
27 28	248	demonstrates a range of intervention strategies that provide the same result. For example, to
29	249	reduce mean predicted deaths to 1000 people (red line figure 3b), centres could increase
30 31	250	capacity to provide an extra 25% procedures per week at the same mix as pre-pandemic, or
32 33	251	they could convert 50% of SAVR operations to TAVI and increase capacity by 8.7% at that
34 35	252	mix. Figures 3c and 3d represent how the combinations of interventions to increase capacity
36	253	within the system alongside the conversion of SAVR to TAVI would impact the time to clear
37 38	254	the backlog and on the associated mortality of waiting. Mortality on the waiting list is less
39 40	255	responsive to our modelled interventions than the time to clear the backlog (the darker
41	256	coloured regions of figure 3d make up a greater proportion of the estimates than those of
42 43	257	figure 3c). Increasing capacity within the system alongside converting a proportion of SAVR
44 45	258	cases to TAVI provides the greatest benefit in clearing the backlog and avoiding associated
46 47	259	mortality. A combination that would result in the clearance of the backlog within a year
48	260	might be of interest for decision makers. With the conversion of 40% of SAVR operations to
49 50	261	TAVI and creation of an additional 20% capacity, we estimate the backlog would be cleared
51 52	262	in just under a year - 343 days (95% CI, 281-410) with 784 (95% CI, 292-1324) deaths
53 54	263	before treatment. Sensitivity analyses where the number of TAVI procedures that could be
55	264	completed within the same time as SAVR was altered (TAVI to SAVR: 4 to 3, 4 to 2, 5 to 3)
56 57	265	support these findings (supplementary material figures S1 – S3). Furthermore, sensitivity
58 59 60	266	analyses show that with the best-in-class practices (TAVI to SAVR: 4 to 2), even a more

267 modest combination (a conversion of 35% and creation of an additional 10% capacity) would
268 be enough to clear the backlog within a year.

Discussion

In this study, using dynamical system modelling, we provide estimates for how changes to treatment pathways for severe aortic stenosis may affect the time taken to clear the backlog and minimise mortality on the waiting list in the NHS of England. Without providing at least 20% total additional capacity for the interventional treatment of AS, we estimated there would be more than 1000 deaths on the waiting list over a period of nearly 1.5 years. A conversion of cases from SAVR to TAVI would expedite the clearance of the backlog, but even converting half the cases to TAVI would still result in over 1400 deaths over a period of almost 2 years. A combination of converting 40% of cases usually planned for SAVR to TAVI and creating 20% additional capacity for procedures (through measures such as extra lists) would clear the excess backlog within one year, with 784 deaths.

Our study has several strengths. First, in an urgent situation of many unknowns, our use of novel mathematical models provides plausible estimates on which to base planning and provides an exemplar that may be used in service delivery in other conditions in the post-pandemic landscape. Given the high event rate amongst this population, waiting for more contemporary data to be collected may well not provide enough time to institute system changes to prevent deaths. Second, we also provide specific estimates for how the conversion of cases to TAVI from surgery may affect waiting lists and associated mortality, which can inform local MDT discussions. Third, our model can act as a basis for a clinical and cost-benefit analysis to evaluate different ways to increase capacity and define the optimal strategy at each centre. For each centre, the most effective combination of converting SAVR to TAVI and provision or prioritisation of treatment of severe AS can be generated.

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⁵³ 296 We also recognise the limitations inherent in modelling a complex situation. First, we
⁵⁵ 297 represent the NHS in England as a single entity. As such, we implicitly assume that
⁵⁶ 298 population and capacity are distributed evenly throughout the country by treating centre
⁵⁸ 299 capacity. If the distribution of waiting list patients deviates significantly from the distribution

of treatment centres weighted by capacity, the time it would take to clear the waiting list, and thus the mortality rate would be higher. Second, we have not attempted to calculate how many AS patients may have died in the COVID-19 pandemic. Third, our assumed mortality rate may differ at a centre-level due to prioritising clinically more vulnerable patients on the waiting list. Fourth, a centre-level analysis could account for the different practices in each treatment centre and identify strategies that work best for each centre. Fifth, our estimates from converting cases from SAVR to TAVI does not include post-procedural factors such as the requirement for intensive care capacity, hospital stay and further procedures because these rely on multiple centre-specific factors. Finally, it has been shown that rapid growth in the demand for TAVI can overwhelm current capacity, [22] which may lead to prolonged wait times and subsequent adverse outcomes while patients are on the waitlist. Therefore, a demand model that captures the changes of demand for TAVI and SAVR would be a helpful future direction of analysis.

A previous study used a mathematical model to quantify the cumulative cardiac surgical backlog (including coronary artery bypass grafting surgery, valve replacement and transcatheter aortic and mitral valve replacements) in two centres based on the projected pandemic duration in the United States of America (USA).[23] The authors used simple mathematical models to predict the time required to clear the backlog depending on increased operating capacity. However, the authors did not consider mortality, which we have as it is of critical importance to patients and when planning services.

The results of our study highlight concerns pertaining to the deferral of non-emergency treatment for severe AS during the 'recovery period' of COVID-19. Severe AS is a progressive condition with valve replacement the only available treatment improving prognosis.[24] On a local, regional, and national scale, healthcare systems will need to examine capacity, set priorities, and plan for adequate capacity to manage the backlog of patients with severe AS. The response will be complicated by prior exhaustion of human resources from the pandemic and competition with other specialities, which will also have backlogs.[25]

Nonetheless, planning should prioritise patients at the highest risk from a deferral of treatment. Mortality on the waiting list for AS has been reported to be as high as 14%.[26]

Furthermore, patients awaiting structural procedures deferred due to the pandemic have been found to have significantly higher mortality rates compared to those with stable coronary artery disease.[27] Prioritising capacity for treatment of patients with severe AS may mean reduced capacity for other procedures. This interaction will require collaborative decision-making on a local level accepting that these are difficult, imperfect times. We also show that the conversion of a proportion of cases that would usually be managed by SAVR to TAVI can help expedite treatment and reduce mortality on the waiting list. During the pandemic, TAVI procedures were performed in patients usually referred for surgery with no apparent difference in short term outcomes; [15, 16] and data continues to emerge for longer-term efficacy and safety of TAVI across operative risk strata. [28,29] Recent European guidelines suggest that TAVI would be a preferable option for patients over 75 years of age compared to SAVR.[20] To help planning, we provide an app (https://github.com/Christian-P-Stickels/AS Waitinglist data) to explore the impact of alterations in capacity and treatment pathways on waiting lists and mortality related to severe AS at a local, regional and national level (supplementary material). **Conclusions** In this study, we identify that without a combination of increased capacity for treatment of patients with severe aortic stenosis, and consideration of expanding the use of TAVI, there will be unpalatable rates of mortality in this high-risk group during the post-COVID-19 'recovery' period. These results should inform the planning of cardiac services. Acknowledgement We want to thank all the participants of the V-KEMS Study Group on "Modelling Solutions to the Impact of COVID-19 on Cardiovascular Waiting Lists" that took place on February 2-4, 2021, for thought-provoking discussions. Our special thanks to Clare Merritt (Newton Gateway to Mathematics), whose help extended beyond the workshop and was crucial in completing this work, and to Alan Champneys who brought the group together in the first place. BG is supported by the NIHR Bristol Biomedical Research Centre at the University of Bristol and

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Competing Interests

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Data Sharing

No additional data available

Contributorship statement

MM proposed the initial workshop, MM, CG, RN, BG and JHFR all helped to run said workshop as clinical experts. All members but KC and FE were involved in conceptualisation in the initial workshop. CS, HJ, KS, and FE designed the model with clinical guidance from MM, CG, RN, BG and JHFR. CS performed data analysis. CS, RJ and FE wrote the initial manuscript. All authors helped to improve the final manuscript. All authors approved the final manuscript.

Ethics Statement

This paper did not require ethics approval.

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Figure 2a: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% confidence intervals as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from mortality and the initial waiting list. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

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Figure 2b: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% confidence intervals as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from mortality and the initial waiting list. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

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Figure 3a: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in 500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many people would die, on average.

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Figure 3b: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in 500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many people would die, on average.



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Figure 3c: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in 500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many people would die, on average.

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Figure 3d: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in 500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many people would die, on average.

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SUPPLEMENTS

Supplement 1: Mathematical Derivation of the Differential Equation and its Solution

From figure 1, we can write the following equation:

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = f - r_T - r_S - \mu W.$$

We can then re-write and integrate this equation

$$\int_{0}^{t_{c}} 1 dt = \int_{W_{0}}^{0} \frac{1}{f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W} dW$$
$$t_{c} = \left[-\frac{1}{\mu} \ln \left(f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W \right) \right]_{W_{0}}^{0} = \left[\frac{1}{\mu} \ln \left(f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W \right) \right]_{0}^{W_{0}}.$$

We can now define T_e , the extra capacity, as $T_e = r_T + r_S - f$. This is because we claim that under normal conditions, $f = r_T^0 + r_S^0$, such that the waiting list never grows above zero, and that the additional patients are already on the waiting list. The equation for T_e follows the observation that the current rates of TAVI and SAVR treatment are the normal rates plus the additional capacity.

This substitution allows us to write

$$t_{c} = \frac{1}{\mu} (ln \left(-T_{e} - \mu W_{0} \right) - ln \left(-T_{e} \right)) = ln \left(1 + \frac{\mu W_{0}}{T_{e}} \right) \mu^{-1}.$$

This is the solution we use for calculating the time when the waiting list becomes zero.

We now rely on the assumption that T_e is constant to write

$$m(t_c) = W_0 - T_e t_c.$$

That is, by the time the waiting list is zero, everyone who has not been treated is unfortunately dead.

The assumption of a front-loaded waiting list (i.e., that all additional patients are identified and waiting) is not a strict requirement for this model to be valid. If it is the case that the additional patients are still being identified when the extra capacity is created, then as long as they are identified at a faster rate than they are treated, the predictions in this model hold. It is only in cases where the identification rate is less than the treatment rate that this assumption becomes invalid. In such cases, T_e can be said to be equal to the identification rate instead. This is true because mortality is not tied to being on the waiting list but from the onset of symptoms. In this way, the waiting list in our model can be thought of as the list of all people who need treatment, even if the NHS is unaware of them.

This model can be extended to predict mortality and time to clear a waiting list for nonconstant T_e , but we do not expand on that here.

Supplement 2: Data

 We calculate the increase in capacity due to conversions and operational changes as follows. Assume that we increase operations by 20% due to operational changes and convert 10% of all SAVR to TAVI. Also assume that for every three SAVR patients five TAVI patients can be processed. If we convert 10% of SAVR cases to TAVI (783 SAVR patients), we can treat an additional 522 patients from the waiting list. From the 20% increase, we get extra 1039 TAVI and 1566 SAVR operations per year. If we apply 10% conversion to this extra capacity, 156 SAVR operations can be converted into 260 TAVI operations. In total, the operational changes and conversion create an extra capacity of 3232 operations with which to service the waiting list each year: 1822 (1,039+522+261) TAVI and 1410 (1,566-156) SAVR operations.

N.B. We make no assumptions about who the extra TAVI procedures treat, for example, if in the above example, the additional 626 TAVI procedures we gain from conversion (522 from converting the normal capacity and 104 from converting the additional capacity) treated only SAVR patients, the conversion rate would actually be $\frac{626+783+156}{626+1566+78} = 15.6\%$. Normally, we would expect that the application of this extra TAVI would be in the same proportion as the ratio of SAVR to TAVI, which would give a real-world conversion rate of 13.5%.

Supplement 3: App

The app can be accessed at https://github.com/Christian-P-Stickels/AS_Waitinglist_data

Supplement 4: Additional Results

° ⁵⁰ **%**⁵⁰ 40 40 **Seb** 45 04 AD Operational 30 tional Opera rom **E** 25 15 12 1171 1125 1081 Increase 1419 1353 1293 Capacity 0 Capacity 1807 1703 1611 1529 1455 1389 1328 1222 1175 1131 2525 2325 2158 2014 1890 1781 1685 1383 1235 1118 Percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (%) Percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (%)

Supplementary figure S1: Heat map of a three-to-four SAVR-to-TAVI conversion

Supplementary Figure S1: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every three SAVR operations, four TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S2: Heat map of a three-to-five SAVR-to-TAVI conversion

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Supplementary Figure S2: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every three SAVR operations, five TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S3: Heat map of a two-to-four SAVR-to-TAVI conversion



Supplementary Figure S3: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every two SAVR operations, four TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S4: Error from mortality estimates



Supplementary figure S4: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% confidence intervals as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from mortality only. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

We find that error in the one-year mortality causes higher uncertainty at lower capacity increases, but at higher capacity increases, this uncertainty decreases until it is almost zero with regards to clearance time. This is likely because at higher capacity increases, more of our waiting list clearance comes from treatment, as opposed to death, resulting in less error.

Supplementary figure S5: Error from wait list (W₀) estimates



Supplementary figure S5: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% confidence intervals as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from initial waiting list estimates only. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

We find that error in the estimate of the wait list length W_0 causes uncertainty that is fairly constant in the time it takes to clear the backlog and in resultant deaths. This is to be expected as we can show that the uncertainty scales with $\ln W_0$. There is a small decrease in uncertainty as we increase capacity, once again because an increase in capacity results in more control of the waiting list reduction.

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5 25	999	964	931	900	871	844	819	795	773	751	731
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Word Count

Keywords

OVID-19 Valvular heart disease

1		
2 3	45	Abstract
4 5	46	
6 7	47	Objectives
8 9	48	To provide estimates for how different treatment pathways for the management of severe
10 11	49	aortic stenosis (AS) may affect NHS England waiting list duration and associated mortality.
12	50	
13 14	51	Design
15 16	52	We constructed a mathematical model of the excess waiting list and found the closed-form
17	53	analytic solution to that model. From published data, we calculated estimates for how the
19	54	following strategies may affect the time to clear the backlog of patients waiting for treatment
20 21	55	and the associated waiting list mortality.
22 23	56	
24	57	Setting
25 26	58	The NHS in England.
27 28	59	
29 30	60	Participants
31	61	Estimated aortic stenosis patients in England.
32 33	62	
34 35	63	Interventions
36 37	64	1) Increasing the capacity for the treatment of severe AS, 2) converting proportions of cases
38	65	from surgery to transcatheter aortic valve implantation, and 3) a combination of these two.
39 40	66	
41 42	67	Results
43 44	68	In a capacitated system, clearing the backlog by returning to pre-COVID-19 capacity is not
44	69	possible. A conversion rate of 50% would clear the backlog within 666 (533-848) days with
46 47	70	1419 (597-2189) deaths whilst waiting during this time. A 20% capacity increase would
48 49	71	require 535 (434–666) days, with an associated mortality of 1172 (466–1859). A combination
50	72	of converting 40% cases and increasing capacity by 20% would clear the backlog within a
52	73	year (343 (281-410) days) with 784 (292-1324) deaths whilst awaiting treatment.
53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	74	

Conclusion

A strategy change to the management of severe AS is required to reduce the NHS backlog

and waiting list deaths during the post-COVID-19 'recovery' period. However, plausible

adaptations will still incur a substantial wait to treatment and many hundreds dying whilst

waiting.

1 2	
$ \frac{3}{4} 80 $	Strengths and limitations of this study
5 81 6	
7 82 8 82	• Our model provides a good basis from which to alleviate a time-critical health system
9 83	problem when data gathering is likely to result in a greater number of deaths.
10 84 11	• Offering TAVI to some SAVR patients in what might be considered sub-optimal per-
12 85 13	patient treatment in ideal conditions, could result in better target population-based
14 86 15 -	outcomes.
16 ⁸⁷	• The assumption that the entire NHS can be modelled as a single entity with a single
17 88 18	waiting list is a limitation of this study.
19 89 20	• We recognise that the waiting numbers used in our study are only estimates because
21 90 22	we do not know how many patients with AS died due to COVID-19 infection.
23 91 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 60	

1 2		
3	92	Introduction
4 5	93	
6 7	94	The COVID-19 pandemic has led to the reorganisation of healthcare services to limit the
8 9 10 11 12 13 14	95	transmission of the virus and deal with the sequelae of infection. This reorganisation had a
	96	detrimental effect on cardiovascular services, with reductions in hospitalisations for acute
	97	cardiovascular events and the deferral of all but the most urgent interventional procedures
	98	and operations.[1, 2]
15 16	99	
17	100	Aortic stenosis (AS) is the most common form of valvular heart disease. Once stenosis is
18 19 20	101	severe, symptoms follow and the prognosis is poor, with 50% mortality within two years of
20 21	102	symptom onset.[3] Thus, timely treatment is of paramount importance. Surgical aortic valve
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	103	replacement (SAVR) has historically been the default treatment strategy. However,
	104	transcatheter aortic valve implantation (TAVI) has recently emerged as an effective and
	105	increasingly utilised option across operative risk strata.[4-8]
	106	
	107	There was a large decline in TAVI and SAVR procedural activity to treat severe AS during
	108	the COVID-19 pandemic.[9] Between the period March to November 2020, it is estimated
32 33	109	that the decrease in activity accounted for 4989 (95% CI. 4020–5959) patients in England
34 35	110	with severe AS left untreated by TAVI or SAVR.[9] As we move into an era of 'living with'
36 37	111	COVID-19, plans must urgently be put in place to best manage the additional waiting list
38	112	burden for treatment of severe AS.[10]
39 40	113	
41 42	114	In this study, we used mathematical methods to examine the extent to which additional
43	115	capacity to provide treatment of severe AS should be created to clear the backlog and
44 45	116	minimise deaths of people on the waiting list.
46 47	117	
48 49	118	
50	119	Methods
51 52	120	
53 54	121	Study population and assumptions
55 56	122	Data from the UK TAVR registry and NICOR (National Institute for Cardiovascular
57	123	Outcomes Research) National Adult Cardiac Surgery Audit (NACSA) between 2017 and
58 59 60	124	2020 have previously been extracted to estimate an excess waiting list size (W_0) of 4989

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2		
3 4	125	(95% CI, 4020–5959) patients with severe AS left untreated as of November 2020.[9] In the
5	126	absence of contemporaneous data on waiting lists and SAVR and TAVI activity, we have
6 7	127	taken this number as the excess backlog on which to model solutions. The incidence of AS
8 9	128	has not increased over recent years.[11] Therefore, we assumed that the system was in a
10	129	steady state before the COVID-19 pandemic and without loss of generality defined the
12	130	steady-state waiting list to be zero. Additionally, we assumed that the normal rate of flow (f)
13 14	131	of new patients into the waiting list for treatment of severe AS would be maintained upon the
15 16	132	commencement of additional operations. Thus, the extra capacity that we model is to clear
17	133	the excess post-COVID-19 backlog.
18 19	134	
20 21	135	We took one-year mortality (μ) after the onset of symptoms in severe AS to be 36% (95% CI,
22 23	136	12% – 60%).[12] More recent studies have estimated the one-year mortality to be 51%[5] and
23	137	55%, but these included cohorts that were considered inappropriate for SAVR, thus, we
25 26	138	considered these estimates unrepresentative of an unselected population with severe AS.[13]
27 28	139	The routine capacity for treatment of severe AS was taken from the pre-pandemic period. In
29	140	2018/19, the NHS in England performed 7830 SAVR ($r_s^0 = 7830$) and 5197 TAVI (r_T^0
31	141	= 5197) procedures, for a total throughput of about 13,000 per year.[14]
32 33	142	
34 35	143	Modelling
36	144	Patients on the waiting list for treatment of severe AS were represented as a dynamical
37 38	145	system (figure 1).
39 40	146	
41 42	147	To this model, we introduced capacity in surplus to the 2018/19 performance and called this
43	148	capacity T_e (further details are provided in supplementary material). We assumed that the
44 45	149	typical caseload for which the NHS in England can deal with continues; i.e., we assumed that
46 47	150	the system will return to pre-pandemic levels first using its baseline capabilities. The backlog
48 49	151	accumulated during the pandemic is only reduced by treating patients with this extra capacity
50	152	or by patient mortality before receiving treatment. We also considered patients in the backlog
51 52	153	and patients new to the waiting list indistinguishable. Accordingly, the waiting list size
53 54	154	represents the excess number of people seeking treatment who are unable to be treated
55 56	155	immediately at any one time. We also assumed that other paths out of the waiting list (i.e.
57	156	patients seeking private treatment) would be so small in comparison to the uncertainty
~ *		

sestimates as to be negligible on the results of our analysis.
estimates as to be negligible on the results of our analysis.

These assumptions were brought together to give an estimated time (see supplementary material for derivation) to clear the waiting list (t_c) $t_C = \frac{ln\left(1 + \frac{W_0\mu}{T_e}\right)}{\mu}$ (1)and associated mortality $(m(t_c))$ $m(t_{\mathcal{C}}) = W_0 - T_{\mathcal{C}}t_{\mathcal{C}}.$ (2)Using equations (1) and (2), we predicted the length of time and associated mortality for different percentage increases in capacity. We assumed any capacity increase to be constant throughout the entire modelled period. For example, if we increased daily capacity by 5% this would result in, $T_e = \frac{r_s^0 + r_T^0}{365} * 5\% = 1.785$ extra procedures per day, across the whole of the NHS in England. We generated 10,000 random values for the one-year mortality rate and initial waiting list length. We assumed that the uncertainty in both variables was normally distributed. For every T_e , we present the mean and the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the 10,000 simulations for time to clear the waiting list and the associated mortality. That is, we present the 95% reference range.[15] Interventions and outcomes We investigated three types of capacity increase: 1) a general increase in the capacity to provide SAVR and TAVI, which could be facilitated by an increased number of procedures per list, additional lists, and prioritisation of care pathways and staffing to treat severe AS; 2) extra capacity created by treating some patients with TAVI who would routinely have SAVR; 3) a combination of a general increase in capacity and the conversion of a proportion of cases from SAVR to TAVI. During the COVID-19 pandemic, TAVI was performed in patients usually referred for surgery, with no difference in short term outcomes compared to historical reference groups.[16, 17] We assumed that the duration of a SAVR would routinely be between 2-4 hours and a TAVI between 1-2 hours. [18, 19] As such, we assumed within the time for two SAVR operations, three TAVI could be performed instead.[20] Several clinical factors may favour SAVR over TAVI (including concomitant severe coronary artery disease, low STS score, bicuspid aortic Page 11 of 27

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1 2		
3	189	valve etc.); therefore, we assumed that, in the short term, no more than 50% of patients could
5	190	be converted from SAVR to TAVI.[21] We also assumed that no more than 50% extra
6 7	191	capacity could be created by other means (e.g. extra lists, more procedures per list). We
8 9	192	simulated two principal outcomes based on the creation of additional capacity (T_e) : the time
10	193	to clear the backlog (reduce to zero), and the mortality of patients within the excess backlog
12	194	whilst on the waiting list to be treated.
13 14	195	
15 16	196	We completed additional sensitivity analyses for how the conversion of SAVR to TAVI
17	197	could affect the principal outcomes, including if three SAVR operations could be routinely
18 19	198	completed in a day and four to five TAVI procedures per day (presuming increasing uptake
20 21	199	of a minimalist TAVI approach without general anaesthesia enabling more rapid procedure
22 23	200	time).[22]
24	201	
25 26	202	Patient and public involvement
27 28	203	Patients and the public were not involved in the conduct of this study.
29 30	204	
31	205	
32 33	206	Results
34 35	207	
36 27	208	In the pre-COVID-19 period, the routine capacity for treatment of severe AS was set to cover
38	209	the normal incident rate. That is, clearing the backlog by returning to pre-COVID-19 capacity
39 40	210	is not possible. As a result, mortality on the excess waiting list at one year are estimated to be
41 42	211	more than 1500, putting a strong emphasis on the need for change.
43	212	
44 45	213	Total additional capacity
46 47	214	Figure 2 provides simulations of the time to clear the excess backlog and the mortality of
48 49	215	patients on the waiting list based on the amount of total additional capacity, T_e . With a 5%
50	216	increase in the capacity to provide treatment of severe AS, we estimate it would take 1384
52	217	(1025–1994) days to clear the excess backlog, with 2526 (1355–3516) deaths. A 20%
53 54	218	increase in total capacity would provide a benefit in clearing the excess backlog within 536
55 56	219	(434–666) days, with an estimate of 1173 (466–1859) deaths. As total capacity increased
57	220	further, there was a diminishing return in clearing the backlog and avoiding associated
58 59	221	mortality; the greater the capacity increase, the fewer lives are saved for every extra increase
60		9

in capacity. Even if it was possible to double capacity, it was estimated that it may take 131 (126–137) days to clear the backlog and there would be 313 (118–494) deaths on the waiting list.

The effect of converting SAVR to TAVI

The conversion of a proportion of cases from surgery to TAVI provides a modest improvement in estimates of time to clear the backlog and mortality on the waiting list. With the conversion of 30% of SAVR operations to TAVI procedures, without the creation of additional capacity in the system, we estimated that it would take 975 (741–1284) days to clear the backlog and there would be 1914 (923–2809) deaths on the waiting list. Even with a conversion of 50% of SAVR operations to TAVI procedures, the estimated backlog would be cleared within 666 (533–848) days with 1419 (597–2189) deaths. For the highest conversion ratio that we considered (2:4), at a 50% rate of conversion, we estimated the backlog to be cleared in 384 (330–462) days with 871 (314–1426) deaths. Whilst this result is improved, we consider a 2:4 conversion ratio the highest reasonable ratio in the short-term, and is unlikely to be achieved at every centre immediately. It is also worth noting that even if this was achieved, the backlog would still take over a year to clear.

Combining conversion of SAVR to TAVI and additional capacity

Figures 3a and 3b demonstrate the range of possibilities in creating extra capacity. Each line demonstrates a range of intervention strategies that provide the same result. For example, to reduce the mean predicted deaths to 1000 (red line figure 3b), centres could increase capacity to provide an extra 25% procedures per week at the same mix as pre-pandemic, or they could convert 50% of SAVR operations to TAVI and increase their capacity by 8.7% at that mix. Figures 3c and 3d represent how the combinations of interventions to increase capacity within the system alongside the conversion of SAVR to TAVI would impact the time to clear the backlog and on the associated mortality of waiting. Mortality on the waiting list is less responsive to our modelled interventions than the time to clear the backlog (the darker coloured regions of figure 3d make up a greater proportion of the estimates than those of figure 3c). Increasing capacity within the system alongside converting a proportion of SAVR cases to TAVI provides the greatest estimated benefit in clearing the backlog and avoiding associated mortality. A combination that would result in the clearance of the backlog within a year might be of interest for decision makers. With the conversion of 40% of SAVR

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operations to TAVI and the creation of an additional 20% capacity, we estimated that the backlog would be cleared in just under a year – 343 days (281–410) with 784 (292–1324) deaths before treatment.

Sensitivity analyses where the number of TAVI procedures that could be completed within the same time as SAVR was altered (TAVI to SAVR: 4 to 3, 4 to 2, 5 to 3) support these findings (supplementary material figures S1 - S3). Furthermore, sensitivity analyses show that with the best-in-class practices (TAVI to SAVR: 4 to 2), even a more modest combination (a conversion of 35% and creation of an additional 10% capacity) may be enough to clear the backlog within a year.

Discussion

In this study, using dynamical system modelling, we provide estimates for how changes to treatment pathways for patients with severe aortic stenosis may affect the time taken to clear the backlog and minimise mortality on the waiting list in the NHS of England. Without providing at least 20% total additional capacity for the interventional treatment of AS, we estimated there would be more than 1000 deaths on the waiting list over a period of nearly 1.5 years. A conversion of cases from SAVR to TAVI would expedite the clearance of the backlog, but even converting half the cases to TAVI would still result in over 1400 deaths over a period of almost 2 years. A combination of converting 40% of cases usually planned for SAVR to TAVI and creating 20% additional capacity for procedures (through measures such as extra lists) would clear the excess backlog within one year, with 784 deaths.

Our study has several strengths. First, in a time-critical clinical situation of many unknowns, our use of novel mathematical models provides plausible estimates on which to base health services planning, and provides an exemplar that may be used in service delivery in other conditions in the post-pandemic landscape. Given the high event rate amongst this population, waiting for more contemporary data to be collected may well not provide enough time to institute system changes to prevent deaths. Second, we also provide specific estimates for how the conversion of cases to TAVI from surgery may affect waiting lists and associated mortality, which can inform local MDT discussions. Third, our model can act as a basis for a

clinical and cost-benefit analysis to evaluate different ways to increase capacity and define
the optimal strategy at each centre. For each centre, the most effective combination of
converting SAVR to TAVI and provision or prioritisation of treatment of severe AS can be
generated.

We recognise the limitations inherent in modelling a complex situation. First, we represent the NHS in England as a single entity. As such, we implicitly assume that population and capacity are distributed evenly throughout the country by treating centre capacity. If the distribution of waiting list patients deviates significantly from the distribution of treatment centres weighted by capacity, the time it would take to clear the waiting list, and thus the mortality rate would be higher. Second, we have not attempted to calculate how many patients with AS may have died in the COVID-19 pandemic, which could have reduced the numbers of deaths on the waiting list and the duration of the waiting list because of an underestimation of 'abandonment' from the model. Third, our assumed mortality rate may differ at a centre-level due to prioritising clinically more vulnerable patients on the waiting list. Fourth, a centre-level analysis could account for the different practices in each treatment centre and identify strategies that work best for each centre. Fifth, our estimates from converting cases from SAVR to TAVI do not include post-procedural factors such as the requirement for intensive care capacity, hospital stay and further procedures because these rely on multiple centre-specific factors. Finally, it has been shown that rapid growth in the demand for TAVI can overwhelm current capacity, [23] which may lead to prolonged wait times and subsequent adverse outcomes while patients are on the waitlist. Therefore, a demand model that captures the changes of demand for TAVI and SAVR would be a helpful future direction of analysis.

A previous study used a mathematical model to quantify the cumulative cardiac surgical backlog (including coronary artery bypass grafting surgery, valve replacement and transcatheter aortic and mitral valve replacements) in two centres based on the projected pandemic duration in the United States of America (USA).[24] The authors used simple mathematical models to predict the time required to clear the backlog depending on increased operating capacity. However, the authors did not consider mortality, which we have as it is of critical importance to patients and when planning services.

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The results of our study highlight concerns pertaining to the deferral of non-emergency treatment for severe AS during the 'recovery period' of COVID-19. Severe AS is a progressive condition with valve replacement the only available treatment improving prognosis.[25] On a local, regional, and national scale, healthcare systems will need to examine capacity, set priorities, and plan for adequate capacity to manage the backlog of patients with severe AS. The response will be complicated by prior exhaustion of human resources from the pandemic and competition with other specialities, which will also have backlogs.[26]

Nonetheless, planning should prioritise patients at the highest risk from a deferral of treatment. Mortality on the waiting list for AS has been reported to be as high as 14%.[27] Furthermore, patients awaiting structural procedures deferred due to the pandemic have been found to have significantly higher mortality rates compared to those with stable coronary artery disease.[28] Prioritising capacity for treatment of patients with severe AS may mean reduced capacity for other procedures. Providing 20% extra capacity for TAVI and SAVR may only require the addition of one extra list per week at the expense of other procedures, as many centres only conduct TAVI procedures on between two and three days per week.[22] This interaction will require collaborative decision-making on a local level accepting that these are difficult, imperfect times. We also show that the conversion of a proportion of cases that would usually be managed by SAVR to TAVI can help expedite treatment and reduce mortality on the waiting list. During the pandemic, TAVI procedures were performed in patients usually referred for surgery with no apparent difference in short term outcomes;[16, 17] and data continues to emerge for longer-term efficacy and safety of TAVI across operative risk strata. [29,30] Recent European guidelines suggest that TAVI would be a preferable option for patients over 75 years of age compared to SAVR.[21] To help planning, we provide an app (https://github.com/Christian-P-Stickels/AS Waitinglist data) to explore the impact of alterations in capacity and treatment

53 350 54 55 351

- 57 352
- 59 353 Conclusions

level (supplementary material).

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pathways on waiting lists and mortality related to severe AS at a local, regional and national

1 2									
3	354								
4 5	355	In this study, we found that without a combination of increased capacity for treatment of							
6 7	356	patients with severe aortic stenosis and an expansion in the use of TAVI, there would be							
8 9	357	many potentially avoidable deaths during the post-COVID-19 recovery period. Our study							
10	358	findings and accompanying app may help inform the planning of cardiac services.							
12	359								
13 14	360								
15 16	361	Acknowledgement							
17	362								
18 19	363	We want to thank all the participants of the V-KEMS Study Group on "Modelling Solutions to							
20 21	364	the Impact of COVID-19 on Cardiovascular Waiting Lists" that took place on February 2-4,							
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39 40	375								
41 42	376	This study was part funded by EPSRC Cambridge Centre for Mathematics of Information in							
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44	378	the design, data analysis, writing of or decision to publish this paper.							
46 47	379								
48 49	380	Competing Interests							
50	381	BG acknowledges grants not related to this project from the David Telling Charitable Tru							
52	382	and the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council, he additionally declared							
53 54	383	Associate Editorship of Anesthesia Journal, and being the chair DMSC for the COPIA Trial.							
55 56	384	All other authors confirm that they have no competing interests to declare.							
57	385								
58 59	386	Data Sharing							
60		14							

1 2												
2 3 4 5	387 388	No additional data available										
6	389	Contributorship statement										
8	390	MAM proposed the initial workshop and designed the research question, MAM, CPG, RN,										
9 10	391	BG and JHFR all helped to run said workshop as clinical experts. All members but KC and										
11 12	392	FE were involved in conceptualisation in the initial workshop. CS, HJ, KS, and FE designed										
13	393	the model with clinical guidance from MAM, CPG, RN, BG and JHFR. CS performed data										
14 15	394	analysis. CS, RN and FE drafted the initial manuscript. MAM, CPG, BG, JHFR, NH, SL,										
16 17	395	LaSc, MS, LoSu, JWM, KC provided critical interpretation and revision of the manuscript.										
18	396	All authors approved the final manuscript.										
19 20	397											
21 22	398	Ethics Statement										
23 24	399	This paper did not require ethics approval.										
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15 16	520	Legends and Captions								
17 18 19 20 21 22 23	521	Figure 1: Dynamical system model of the waiting list length.								
	522									
	523	Figure 2: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95%								
	524	confidence intervals as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty								
23 24 25	525	from mortality and the initial waiting list. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and								
25 26	526	clarity.								
27 28 29 30	527									
	528	Figure 3: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of								
31	529	daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI								
32 33 34 35 36 37 38	530	(x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time								
	531	going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of								
	532	constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in								
	533	500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily								
39 40	534	capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D)								
41 42	535	Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many								
43	536	people would die, on average.								
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Figure 3: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis) (Presented in two different forms). A) Isoclines of constant mean clearance-time going from half a year (blue) to 2 years (purple) in half-year increments. B) Isoclines of constant mean mortality after clearing the backlog from 500 people (blue) to 2000 (purple) in 500-person increments. C) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how long the backlog would take to clear on average, in days. D) Heatmap of different combinations of conversion and daily capacity increases and how many people would die, on average.

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SUPPLEMENTS

Supplement 1: Mathematical Derivation of the Differential Equation and its Solution

From figure 1, we can write the following equation:

$$\frac{dW}{dt}=f-r_T-r_S-\mu W.$$

We can then re-write and integrate this equation

$$\int_{0}^{t_{c}} 1 dt = \int_{W_{0}}^{0} \frac{1}{f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W} dW$$
$$t_{c} = \left[-\frac{1}{\mu} \ln \left(f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W \right) \right]_{W_{0}}^{0} = \left[\frac{1}{\mu} \ln \left(f - r_{T} - r_{S} - \mu W \right) \right]_{0}^{W_{0}}.$$

We can now define T_e , the extra capacity, as $T_e = r_T + r_S - f$. This is because we claim that under normal conditions, $f = r_T^0 + r_S^0$, such that the waiting list never grows above zero, and that the additional patients are already on the waiting list. The equation for T_e follows the observation that the current rates of TAVI and SAVR treatment are the normal rates plus the additional capacity.

This substitution allows us to write

$$t_{c} = \frac{1}{\mu} (ln \left(-T_{e} - \mu W_{0} \right) - ln \left(-T_{e} \right)) = ln \left(1 + \frac{\mu W_{0}}{T_{e}} \right) \mu^{-1}.$$

This is the solution we use for calculating the time when the waiting list becomes zero.

We now rely on the assumption that T_e is constant to write

$$m(t_c) = W_0 - T_e t_c.$$

That is, by the time the waiting list is zero, everyone who has not been treated is unfortunately dead.

The assumption of a front-loaded waiting list (i.e., that all additional patients are identified and waiting) is not a strict requirement for this model to be valid. If it is the case that the additional patients are still being identified when the extra capacity is created, then as long as they are identified at a faster rate than they are treated, the predictions in this model hold. It is only in cases where the identification rate is less than the treatment rate that this assumption becomes invalid. In such cases, T_e can be said to be equal to the identification rate instead. This is true because mortality is not tied to being on the waiting list but from the onset of symptoms. In this way, the waiting list in our model can be thought of as the list of all people who need treatment, even if the NHS is unaware of them.

This model can be extended to predict mortality and time to clear a waiting list for nonconstant T_e , but we do not expand on that here.

Supplement 2: Data

We calculate the increase in capacity due to conversions and operational changes as follows. Assume that we increase operations by 20% due to operational changes and convert 10% of all SAVR to TAVI. Also assume that for every three SAVR patients five TAVI patients can be processed. If we convert 10% of SAVR cases to TAVI (783 SAVR patients), we can treat an additional 522 patients from the waiting list. From the 20% increase, we get extra 1039 TAVI and 1566 SAVR operations per year. If we apply 10% conversion to this extra capacity, 156 SAVR operations can be converted into 260 TAVI operations. In total, the operational changes and conversion create an extra capacity of 3232 operations with which to service the waiting list each year: 1822 (1,039+522+261) TAVI and 1410 (1,566-156) SAVR operations.

N.B. We make no assumptions about who the extra TAVI procedures treat, for example, if in the above example, the additional 626 TAVI procedures we gain from conversion (522 from converting the normal capacity and 104 from converting the additional capacity) treated only SAVR patients, the conversion rate would actually be $\frac{626+783+156}{626+1566+7830} = 15.6\%$. Normally, we would expect that the application of this extra TAVI would be in the same proportion as the ratio of SAVR to TAVI, which would give a real-world conversion rate of 13.5%.

Supplement 3: App

The app can be accessed at https://github.com/Christian-P-Stickels/AS_Waitinglist_data

Supplement 4: Additional Results

° ⁵⁰ **%**⁵⁰ 40 40 **Seb** 45 04 AD Operational 30 tional Opera rom **E** 25 15 12 1171 1125 1081 Increase 1419 1353 1293 Capacity 0 Capacity 1807 1703 1611 1529 1455 1389 1328 1222 1175 1131 2525 2325 2158 2014 1890 1781 1685 1383 1235 1118 Percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (%) Percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (%)

Supplementary figure S1: Heat map of a three-to-four SAVR-to-TAVI conversion

Supplementary Figure S1: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every three SAVR operations, four TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S2: Heat map of a three-to-five SAVR-to-TAVI conversion

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Supplementary Figure S2: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every three SAVR operations, five TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S3: Heat map of a two-to-four SAVR-to-TAVI conversion



Supplementary Figure S3: Mean time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity (y-axis) and percentage of SAVR converted to TAVI (x-axis), assuming that for every two SAVR operations, four TAVI procedures can be performed instead.

Supplementary figure S4: Error from mortality estimates



Supplementary figure S4: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% reference ranges as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from mortality only. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

We find that error in the one-year mortality causes higher uncertainty at lower capacity increases, but at higher capacity increases, this uncertainty decreases until it is almost zero with regards to clearance time. This is likely because at higher capacity increases, more of our waiting list clearance comes from treatment, as opposed to death, resulting in less error.
Supplementary figure S5: Error from wait list (W₀) estimates



Supplementary figure S5: Time to clear backlog (left) and the resulting deaths (right) with associated 95% reference ranges as a function of daily percentage increase in capacity, with uncertainty from initial waiting list estimates only. The x-axis is truncated at 5% for visualisation and clarity.

We find that error in the estimate of the wait list length W_0 causes uncertainty that is fairly constant in the time it takes to clear the backlog and in resultant deaths. This is to be expected as we can show that the uncertainty scales with $\ln W_0$. There is a small decrease in uncertainty as we increase capacity, once again because an increase in capacity results in more control of the waiting list reduction.

Reversion of the second