The Science of Evaluation of Adverse Events Associated with Vaccination

Neal A. Halsey, MD

about safety.

All vaccines cause some adverse events; serious adverse events are rare. Causal associations between a vaccine and an adverse event rarely can be determined by specific tests such as identifying a vaccine agent in the affected tissue of patients. In the absence of such data, epidemiologic studies can be used to determine if the risk of the disorder is increased in vaccinated compared to unvaccinated individuals. Common mistakes include assuming a causal relationship based on a temporal association only or a series of affected patients. Careful studies have demonstrated that many hypothesized causal associations between vaccines and adverse events were not substantiated. False assumptions regarding causality are likely to occur for illnesses without a carefully defined etiology or pathogenesis. Copyright 2002, Elsevier Science (USA). All rights reserved.

7 accines are the most effective tools available for prevention and control of infectious diseases. Widespread use of vaccines has prevented millions of premature deaths, paralysis, blindness, and neurologic damage. Nevertheless, since smallpox vaccine was developed more than 200 years ago, vaccines have been controversial because of concerns

In recent years, the tolerance for adverse events associated with vaccines has decreased as part of an overall increased public awareness of product safety. As with air and highway travel, food products, and toys, the general public has insisted that federal agencies work to assure safer products for children and advocacy groups have argued for increased attention to the safety of medications and vaccines. Vaccines, which are administered to healthy people, are held to a higher safety standard than are medications used to treat people who are already ill because vaccines often are given universally to infants and children. Even a very low risk of having serious side effects can result in a substantial population-attributable risk if the vaccine is given universally. The tolerance for adverse events associated with vaccines varies because of real and perceived differences in the risks and severity of the illness prevented. When infections such as measles, diphtheria, and polio were common occurrences in our society, accepting occasional rare serious side effects from vaccines as a necessary risk was easier. As immunization programs have become more successful and the risk of contracting those diseases has diminished, the acceptance of side effects from immunizations also has decreased.

Smallpox vaccine caused several serious adverse events, including eczema vaccinatum, encephalitis, and progressive debilitating infections in patients with immunodeficiency disorders. When the risk of contracting smallpox diminished to near zero in the United States, the acceptance of these serious adverse events decreased, and routine immunization against smallpox ended in 1972, 5 years before the interruption of transmission of smallpox in Africa. Communication about the benefits and the risks from vaccination has become much more complicated in recent years because of the increased number of vaccines available, the declining incidence of some vaccine-preventable diseases, and development of new vaccines against diseases that normally do not cause serious complications.

How Vaccines are Evaluated for Causal **Associations with Adverse Events**

Causal associations usually can be determined by isolating a live vaccine agent in affected tissue or by demonstrating, through epidemiologic studies, an increased risk of the disorder in vaccine recipients as compared to appropriate controls. A more detailed discussion of this process can be found in a recent publication on measles-mumps-rubella (MMR) vaccine and autistic spectrum disorder.²

Identification of Vaccine Agents in Affected Tissues

Individual case reports usually provide insufficient evidence to establish causal associations. However, if a vaccine virus

1045-1870/02/1303-0011\$35.00/0 doi:10.1053/spid.2002.125864

From the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD.

Supported in part by a grant for the Center for Disease Control and Prevention as part of the Clinical Immunization Safety Assessment Network. Grant#U50/CCU320703-01

Address reprint requests to Neal Halsey, MD, Director, Institute for Vaccine Safety, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, 615 N. Wolfe Street-W5515, Baltimore, MD 21205, email: nhalsey@jhsph.edu Copyright 2002, Elsevier Science (USA). All rights reserved.

206 Neal A. Halsey

or bacterium is isolated from affected tissue, the organism is not found in controls, no evidence of contamination of specimen is found, and no other explanation for the illness exists, the evidence is strongly suggestive of a causal association. For example, Bacillus of Calmette-Guérin (BCG) vaccine occasionally causes osteomyelitis or joint infections as evidenced by the isolation of the organism from bone or joint tissue in affected patients.³ Similarly, measles vaccine virus has been identified in lung tissue of children with leukemia and from 1 patient with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection.^{4,5} If the vaccine organism routinely infects the affected tissue and the identification is made during the window of time when the organism would normally be found, other possible explanations need to be excluded before accepting the evidence that the agent caused the disorder. However, most vaccine agents are detectable in the blood or body tissues for only a short window of time after vaccination. Identification of the vaccine agent in people who had been vaccinated much earlier provides suggestive evidence that persistence of the agent may contribute to a causal relationship. One must be cautious, however, when interpreting the findings because some infectious agents might persist in lymph nodes, brain, or other tissues.^{2,6,7} Numerous false assumptions about agents possibly causing multiple sclerosis have been made based on laboratory tests that later were found to be falsepositives or the agent was found in normal tissue as well as persons affected by the disease.⁶ Contamination of specimens at the time of collection, during processing, or during laboratory analyses have resulted in false assumptions that the agent was present in affected tissue. The use of molecular techniques to identify infectious agents, including immunohistochemical staining or polymerase chain reaction, has resulted in a proliferation of investigations of infectious agents as possible causes of chronic disorders. Unfortunately, these techniques often are associated with falsepositive results.7 Therefore, most experts await confirmation by several investigators using specimens collected and processed separately before accepting evidence of the presence of the organism in affected tissue.

Epidemiologic Studies

Before vaccines are licensed by regulatory authorities, controlled trials are performed to compare individuals who receive vaccine with those who receive placebo or a control vaccine. Eligible people are randomly assigned to receive vaccine or placebo (or control vaccine) and then followed to collect outcome data. These controlled studies provide the most powerful evidence for establishing causal associations between vaccines and adverse events. For example, when the first live attenuated measles vaccines were developed, children who received measles vaccine had increased rates of fever from 5 to 10 days in those receiving vaccine compared with those who received only immune serum globulin (Fig 1).8 The rates of fever after vaccination in this study were higher than the 5 to 15 percent rates of fever noted after administration of attenuated vaccines that are in use today. During the study, a small proportion of children who did not receive vaccine developed febrile illnesses caused by

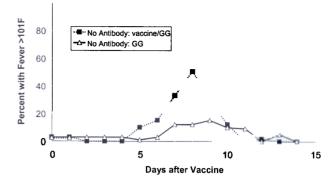


Figure 1. Percent of children who were susceptible to measles with fever after receiving Edmonston B measles vaccine and immunoglobulin (GG) or GG alone (1963). (Adapted from CM Martin 1963, ref #8.)

intercurrent infections. Therefore, determining in any individual child if a fever (or other adverse event) occurring during the window of time when an increased risk occurs is due to a reaction to the vaccine or to some other illness can be difficult. However, these studies can establish whether the risk of a disorder during a specified period of time after vaccination is increased.

Controlled trials are useful for identifying common adverse events that occur within a relatively short time after vaccination. Prelicensure, prospective, randomized studies usually are not designed to detect adverse events with delayed onset. Also, these studies usually are limited to a few thousand vaccinees and an equal number of controls. These studies can detect a doubling of the rates of adverse events that occur in the control population at a rate of 1 in 100 or higher, but the studies have insufficient power to detect rare adverse events or adverse events that might occur months or years after vaccination.9 To increase the ability of studies to detect these rare events, expanded trials involving 10,000 to 50,000 individuals are needed, and some experts have argued for these studies. For vaccines that are likely to be given to all children, such studies might be justified, but the cost of studies on such a large scale would be very high, and manufacturers are reluctant to delay licensure and general use of the vaccine, especially if the vaccine protects against serious diseases. 13

After licensure, monitoring of adverse events after vaccination involves healthcare providers who observe and report such events, vaccine manufacturers, and regulatory authorities. In the United States, reports of adverse events are submitted to the Vaccine Adverse Events Reporting System (VAERS), which is maintained jointly by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). The purpose of this system is to monitor reports of adverse events that might signal the need for further study. For example, prelicensure studies identified only 5 children who developed intussusception among the 10,000 who participated in clinical trials of rhesus rotavirus vaccine, with no consistent pattern of timing or dose of vaccine in the children who

traindication"). Efforts are made in the analyses of data generated from these studies to evaluate and adjust for other measures of health care seeking behavior. CDC has implemented a program to collect controlled data from large numbers of individuals by linking immunization records with all health outcomes in the Vaccine Safety Datalink. 15 This program includes approximately 2.5 percent of the entire United States birth cohort and provides the

opportunity to compare vaccinated and unvaccinated individ-

uals in the same geographic area for adverse events and to

adjust for factors that might contribute to these events.

developed the intussusception.11 After several hundred

thousand children had been vaccinated, 9 reports to VAERS

of intussusception occurring within 15 days after vaccina-

tion triggered case-control and cohort studies conducted by

the CDC that demonstrated a causal association. 12 The risk

of developing intussusception now is estimated to be ap-

proximately 1 in every 5,000 to 10,000 children vaccinated,

viduals postlicensure is possible and practical in large

health maintenance organizations. Such studies have been

conducted with the recently licensed pneumococcal conju-

gate vaccine. Chen et al14 have noted the potential limita-

tions of such studies, including the potential for less healthy

children to not receive vaccines (i.e., "confounding by con-

a rate too low to be detected in the prelicensure studies. Black et al¹³ have demonstrated that generating controlled data from large numbers (10,000 to 40,000) of indi-

Misunderstanding Causality Assessment Unfortunately, the use of case reports and the VAERS system has been misunderstood by some individuals. 10,14 Limitations of this program include incomplete reporting,

which precludes the verification of diagnoses; the absence of denominator information regarding the number of individuals vaccinated; and absence of rates of the disorder in people who did not receive the vaccine.

Too often, affected individuals and their physicians incorrectly assume that a vaccine administered before the onset of a disorder provides evidence that the vaccine

caused the disorder. Reports of temporal associations do not constitute evidence for causal associations, but these reports can provide clues to indicate the need for additional studies to determine if a causal association with the vaccine exists. In the absence of a specific laboratory test, as pre-

viously mentioned, temporal associations can be used only

Table 1. Mechanisms Involved in Adverse Events Caused by Vaccines Injection process Incomplete inactivation of vaccine agent

3. Replication of a live vaccine agent

Inadvertent contamination of vaccine with other live

5. Direct effect of vaccine component (e.g., pyrogens, adjuvants, preservatives) 6. Host immune response to vaccine component (normal or aberrant)

Table 2. Injection-related Serious Adverse Events 1. Pain

2.

3.

4.

Fainting and associated injuries Tissue injury Provocation polio

5. Errors in reconstitution 6. Contamination of multidose vials

to generate hypotheses. The number of reported events alone is not evidence of a causal association, but if the number of events exceeds the number expected because of

chance, it can signal the need for more formal controlled studies. In large countries such as the United States, collecting many hundred people who have developed specific

disorders after vaccination is possible, even if the disorders are relatively rare. For example, based on collections of reports of women who had breast implants and subsequently developed autoimmune disorders, false assumptions were made that silicone breast implants were responsible for causing autoimmune disorders. 16 Because of these reports, the use of silicon breast implants was stopped and the manufacturer filed for bankruptcy because of the large number of lawsuits. Several years later, the scientific evi-

Types of Adverse Events Caused by Vaccines

dence from controlled observations indicated no increased

risk of developing autoimmune disorders associated with

silicon breast implants. 16 Increased efforts need to be made to introduce better science into the legal process and to

avoid making similar mistakes with regard to adverse

Vaccines are known to cause adverse events by several

in severity and short-lived. Pain can be reduced by stimu-

lation of other areas such as pressure or rubbing, distrac-

different mechanisms (Table 1).

events after vaccination.

Injection Process

Pain. Most vaccines are given by injections, which cause

pain at the site. Pain, the most common adverse event associated with immunizations, usually is mild to moderate

tion techniques, or feeding sugar to the patient just prior to giving the injection.17 Fainting. Rarely, serious adverse events, including skull fractures, cerebral bleeding, or cerebral contusions, have

occurred as a result of the patient fainting after receiving

vaccines. 18 In 1 study, 63 percent of fainting episodes occurred within 15 minutes after vaccination, and a disproportionate number of episodes occurred in adolescents. 18 Expert committees often advise that individuals be ob-

served for 15 minutes after immunization to minimize the occurrence of potential adverse events associated with fainting while walking down stairways or other places more

prone to cause injury than sitting in a chair.19 Other serious events associated with the injection process are listed in Table 2.

vaccines.

Tissue Injury. The most common injury associated with needle sticks has been damage to nerves from the needlestick. Sciatic nerve damage now occurs less frequently since the World Health Organization (WHO), the CDC, and the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) have discouraged use of the buttocks as a site for vaccine administration. 19-21 Because alternative sites almost always are available for administering vaccines, little justification exists to admin-

ister vaccine in the buttock region. Moreover, the large fat

pad in this region can result in subcutaneous injections and

decreased immunogenicity, as occurred with hepatitis B

facturer scaled up production from 50 mL to 500 mL vials, sediment formed at the bottom of the vials, allowing for protection of the wild-type virus from to formaldehyde.²⁶ This event resulted in the establishment of the Division of Biological Standards, currently the Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research of the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), which monitors the safety of all vaccines and related biological products.27 Current good manufacturing practices should prevent recurrences of this type of problem because all lots of inactivated vaccines must be demonstrated to have complete inactivation of vaccine agents. Rigorous safety testing and annual review also are performed for all steps in the manufacture of vaccines.²⁸

Provocation Polio. When children incubating wild-type poliovirus infections receive injections, the likelihood of residual paralytic diseases developing in the injected extremity is increased.²² The damage to small nerve endings probably provides entrance to the nervous system for polioviruses circulating in the bloodstream, which subsequently

Replication of Live Vaccine Agent

study in Romania revealed that multiple injections were associated with development of residual paralysis from oral poliovirus vaccines (discussed subsequently).²³ Errors in Reconstitution. Vaccines that have been ly-

travel to the spinal cord and damage the motor neuron. A

For live attenuated vaccines, replication of the vaccine agent in the body produces a mild infection that results in fever, malaise, myalgias, and other adverse events. An example is the increased rates of fever that occurred in the 5 to 10 days after vaccination in children who received the original attenuated measles vaccine as compared to children who received immune globulin only (Fig 1).8

ophilized require reconstitution in a diluent (usually water) provided by the manufacturer. Occasionally, healthcare workers have mistakenly used vials of medications with similar appearances to reconstitute vaccines, resulting in overdoses and unintended effects.²⁴ Recognized mistakes

have included administration of agents such as succinvl

choline or pavulon (pancuronium bromide), resulting in

Increased rates of rash occurred during a similar time window. Similarly, approximately 15 percent of children who receive varicella vaccine develop mild fever, and 3 to 4 percent develop a mild varicella-like rash 10 to 42 days after vaccination.²⁹ Some live attenuated vaccine agents can cause diseases similar to those caused by the wild-type agent. For example, BCG can cause bone or joint infections.³ In normal hosts, these infections usually are selflimited and mild.

temporary paralysis or respiratory arrest. These problems can be avoided by storing vaccines separately from other medications, packaging vaccines with the diluents, and training healthcare workers to carefully read the vials on all diluents before administration. Contamination of Multidose Vials. Vaccines in multi-

dose vials should be used within a few hours of opening if

they do not contain a preservative. In at least 3 countries,

Vaccine-associated paralytic poliomyelitis (VAPP) is a rare complication of live oral poliovirus vaccine (OPV), occurring in approximately 1 in 760,000 first vaccinations.³⁰ Approximately one-fourth of affected individuals are found to have a definable immunodeficiency disorder, but most cases of VAPP occur in otherwise normal hosts. Future technologic developments, such as use of genetic arrays, may provide further insight into why some people develop these complications in the absence of other definable immunodeficiency states.

multidose vials of measles vaccines that were inappropriately stored overnight became contaminated with Staphylococcus aureus that multiplied and caused septic shock or toxic shock syndrome.24 Multidose vials of diphtheria-tetanuspertussis (DTP) vaccine contain preservatives to minimize the potential for bacterial contamination. However, thimerosal in whole-cell DTP was insufficient to prevent growth of Streptococcus pyogenes, and several clusters of cellulitis, sepsis, and abscesses have been reported.^{24,25} These problems could be prevented by using more effective preservatives or

Inadvertent Contamination of Vaccines with Other Live Agents

In 1962, Simian Virus 40 (SV₄₀) was discovered to be a contaminant of monkey kidney cells used to produce oral and inactivated polio vaccines.31 This infectious agent had not been identified previously because the virus does not cause cytopathic effects in the cell lines used for safety testing. SV₄₀ infection was found to be associated with selected tumors in animals, and several investigators have identified SV₄₀ in mesotheliomas and other tumors.³¹ However, SV₄₀ has been identified in people who never received vaccines that might have contained the virus, and other

disease has not been demonstrated.

Incomplete Inactivation of the Vaccine Agent Historically, serious adverse events have been caused by the

inadvertent administration of wild-type infectious agents instead of inactivated agents. In 1955, several companies produced inactivated poliovirus vaccines following procedures modified from methods used for vaccines produced for experimental field trials.²⁶ One manufacturer's product

was associated with paralytic disease because of incomplete

inactivation of the wild-type polioviruses. When the manu-

single-dose vials without preservatives.

In 1942, an outbreak of hepatitis occurred involving

25,585 United States military recruits who had received

investigators have not found evidence of these viruses in

tumors. A causal relationship with SV₄₀ and any human

yellow fever vaccine. The source of the infection immediately was suspected to be the human sera used as a stabilizer in the vaccine, which was replaced with bovine serum in 1942. In 1987, epidemiologic studies of individuals who had received the contaminated vaccines and controls demonstrated that the human sera had been contaminated with hepatitis B virus.³² Also, avian leukosis virus was found in 1966 to be a contaminant in 17D yellow fever vaccines³²; all vaccines produced since the early 1970s are free of this virus.

Current manufacturing practices include intensive testing of all vaccine additives to assure the absence of detectable infectious agents. Although questions have been raised with regard to the use of bovine serum because of theoretical concerns about the possibility of transmission of bovine spongioform encephalopathy, experts agree that this risk is extremely unlikely.³³ Nevertheless, regulatory authorities now require that any bovine products used in vaccine production must come from countries that are free of bovine spongioform encephalopathy.³³ (For more information, go to: http://www.who.int/vaccines-diseases/safety/hottop/bse.shtml or http://www.fda.gov/cber/bse/risk.htm.)

Some vaccines being considered for human testing will require new cell lines for production, including continuous cell lines that have been transformed by molecular techniques. These considerations have raised theoretical concerns about potential infectious agents, including oncogenic viruses in cell lines that might be used for vaccine production. A recent conference on this topic summarized the concerns and the steps that can be taken to test for these effects. 34 Regulatory authorities must depend upon applying the best scientific methods available at any point to assure the safest possible production of vaccine. As new information and tools become available, testing methods need to be updated and manufacturing methods may need to be modified.

Direct Effect of Vaccine Component

Vaccines, especially whole bacterial vaccines, often contain pyrogens that cause fever by release of chemicals from macrophages. For example, whole-cell pertussis vaccines induce fever in 30 to 50 percent of vaccine recipients.³⁵ Adjuvants enhance the antibody response to vaccines, but aluminum hydroxide and aluminum phosphate often induce local reactions, such as induration and swelling by stimulating or enhancing an inflammatory response. Other vaccine components may have undesirable effects. The preservative thimerosal has been used for many years in a variety of vaccine products. Thimerosal can induce hypersensitivity reactions, which usually are localized.³⁶ One of the breakdown products of thimerosal is ethylmercury, which can cause neurologic damage when administered in large doses.³⁷ An FDA analysis revealed that the use of multiple thimerosal-containing vaccines in infants could result in cumulative exposures that exceeded some federal guidelines for methylmercury.³⁶ In 1999, the U.S. Public Health Service, the AAP, and the European Agency for the Evaluation of Medicinal Products issued statements encouraging the reduction or elimination as soon as possible of the use of thimerosal in vaccines administered to infants.38 Preliminary data from one study suggest the possibility of a dose-related increased risk of developing some mild neurologic disorders from thimerosal, but the data are inconclusive. 39 A review by the Institute of Medicine concluded that current evidence was insufficient to determine whether harmful effects were caused by thimerosal exposures in vaccines.40 Ongoing follow-up studies of children who had high and low exposures should provide further information about any evidence of neurodevelopmental effects from these exposures in the United States.41 The amount of exposure to thimerosal was much less in most other countries of the world because many European authorities had been phasing out this preservative and other countries had not added as many new vaccines that contain thimerosal as a preservative to the routine infant schedule.

Host Immune Response to Vaccine Component

Hypersensitivity reactions, including hives, anaphylaxis, and Stevens Johnson syndrome, have been observed after administration of many different vaccines (see Table 1).42,43 Although these reactions usually are very rare, they can be life-threatening. Hypersensitivity can be generated to vaccine agents, preservatives, stabilizers, adjuvants, or residual antimicrobial agents. For many years, immediate hypersensitivity reactions to measles vaccines produced in chick embryo tissue culture and given to children with egg allergies was a concern. Careful studies using sensitive techniques have not detected residual egg protein in measles and other vaccines produced in chick embryo tissue culture. Children who have had hypersensitivity reactions after receiving measles-containing vaccines have been demonstrated to react to the gelatin stabilizer and not to egg protein.44 In addition, children with true hypersensitivity reactions to egg protein can be administered MMR vaccine safely. 19,45 Administration of vaccines produced in eggs, such as influenza and yellow fever vaccines, is contraindicated in people with immediate hypersensitivity reactions to eggs because some residual egg protein is present in these vaccines.

Most hypersensitivity reactions to neomycin, which commonly is used during vaccine production, are mild local reactions, and adverse reactions to the small amounts in vaccines have not been documented.²¹ Other antibiotics that are used commonly for treating infections, such as penicillin and cephalosporins, are not used in production of vaccines.

Increased risk of developing Gullain-Barré syndrome, an autoimmune disorder, was observed in people who received the swine influenza vaccine developed in 1976. The attributable risk was approximately 1 in every 110,000 people vaccinated. Subsequent studies demonstrated no increased risk associated with influenza vaccines administered in the late 1970s and 1980s, but a small increased risk of approximately 1 per million vaccinees was noted after influenza vaccine was administered in the United States from 1992 through 1994. No other autoimmune disorders have been

Table 3. Vaccines Contraindicated in Patients with Underlying Immune Deficiency Disorders—United States Guidelines

Immune Deficiency	Contraindicated Vaccine
B cell	OPV and live bacterial (BCG and S. typhi 21a and BCG); "consider" giving measles and varicella vaccines
T cell	All live vaccines
Phagocyte	Live bacterial (BCG and S. typhi 21a)
HIV	OPV and BCG (measles and varicella)
Suppressive therapy	All live, depending on immune status

Abbreviations: OPV, oral poliovirus vaccine; BCG, Bacillus of Calmette-Guérin; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus.

found to be caused by any vaccine (as subsequently discussed).

Immune Deficiency Disorders. Although people with underlying immune deficiency disorders may not benefit, they are not at increased risk of developing complications from inactivated and subunit vaccines. Because these vaccines may provide partial or complete protection, most expert groups recommend administration of these vaccines to all immunodeficient patients if the vaccines are indicated otherwise. 19,48

Many disorders of the immune system are mild and do not alter the risk of developing adverse events from vaccines. People with disorders of macrophage function, such as chronic granulomatous disease, are not at increased risk of developing complications from viral infections. Therefore, no reason exists to expect increased complications from live viral vaccines. Many affected individuals were vaccinated with live oral poliovirus and MMR vaccines without serious adverse events, before they were diagnosed with immune deficiency disorders. However, people with macrophage disorders are at potential increased risk from BCG vaccine (Table 3). 19

In patients with T-cell immunodeficiency disorders, unchecked replication of live vaccine agents can result in severe infections and death. Progressive fatal pneumonitis developed when measles vaccine was administered to children with leukemia.⁴ Children with leukemia in prolonged remission and patients who are 2 or more years after successful bone marrow transplants can receive live viral vaccines if they are not on severe immunosuppressive therapy.⁴⁸ In general, patients with underlying T-cell immunodeficiency disorders should not receive live viral vaccines, with the exceptions of selected patients with HIV infection discussed below. In cases of doubts about specific disorders, consultation with an immunologist or infectious disease specialist is indicated.¹⁹

HIV Infection. Infection with HIV induces a progressive immune deficiency state and increased risk of developing complications from numerous infectious agents. Severe complications from BCG vaccine have occurred in HIV-infected children and adults.⁴⁹ An HIV-infected adult with

severe immune deficiency developed a progressive fatal pneumonitis after receiving measles vaccine, and, in another case, pneumonia caused by varicella vaccine was reported.^{50,51} However, HIV-infected people with no or minimal evidence of immune suppression can be immunized safely with these vaccines.⁴⁹ In the United States, where resources are available for routine testing, advisory groups have recommended administration of these vaccines to some HIV-infected people depending on their CD4 lymphocyte counts. Although 2 people have developed VAPP after receiving OPV, many hundreds of thousands of HIV-infected people have been immunized, with no convincing evidence that the risk of developing VAPP is increased in HIV-infected children.⁴⁹ In developing countries where routine HIV testing is not performed, the advantages of routine administration of OPV and measles vaccines far outweigh the theoretical risks of complications from these vaccines. Also, vaccination early in life often results in an adequate immune response before HIV-induced immunosuppression develops. Therefore, WHO and individual countries recommend routine universal immunization with these vaccines.49

Recent Misunderstandings and False Accusations Regarding the Safety of Commonly Used Vaccines

During the past few years, several concerns have been raised about vaccines causing serious diseases. In most of these cases, the etiology or pathogenesis of the disease is unknown or incompletely understood, allowing for speculation about the role of vaccines. In several instances, individual investigators have made observations and speculated beyond their data to imply causal relationships between vaccines and the disorders.

Hepatitis B, Multiple Sclerosis, and Other Demyelinating Diseases

Multiple sclerosis is an autoimmune disorder. Epidemiologic evidence from many countries indicates that environmental factors and genetic predisposition contribute to the risk of developing multiple sclerosis. Infectious agents have been suggested as possible priming or triggering factors.6 Individuals who developed their first episode of multiple sclerosis after receiving a vaccine (and some of their physicians) hypothesized that the immune response to the hepatitis B vaccine (or other vaccines) contributed to the development of the disease. In 1994, the Institute of Medicine Vaccine Safety Committee reviewed the available evidence regarding multiple sclerosis and hepatitis B vaccine and concluded that the available data provided insufficient evidence to establish a causal relationship.⁴² The Committee also determined that there was biologic plausibility for a possible association between hepatitis B vaccine and multiple sclerosis on the basis of 1 study in rabbits in which investigators had found a short amino acid sequence in the myelin basic protein of rabbits that was identical to a sequence in the hepatitis B virus.⁵² When these investigators immunized rabbits with an experimental protein based upon the sequence with complete Freund adjuvant, some of the rabbits developed an autoimmune encephalomyelitis. However, the protein is not present in hepatitis B surface antigen vaccines, and the genetic sequence in question is not present in human myelin basic protein. Nonetheless, some individuals misinterpreted the Institute of Medicine's conclusion that "the evidence was inadequate to accept or reject a possible causal relationship" to mean that evidence supported the relationship.

In France, large-scale programs were implemented in 1997 and 1998 to immunize adolescents and young adults, including individuals in the age group 20 to 40 years of age when multiple sclerosis usually presents, against hepatitis B. Some individuals developed the onset of multiple sclerosis symptoms within 2 months after receiving hepatitis B vaccine. Although a quickly conducted case-control study disclosed no significant increased odds ratio for multiple sclerosis patients having received hepatitis B vaccine in comparison to people without multiple sclerosis, the Minister of Health of France decided on October 1, 1998, to terminate the hepatitis B vaccine program for adolescents and adults pending further investigations.⁵³ Some individuals in the popular press interpreted this action to indicate that the government of France had evidence that hepatitis B vaccine caused multiple sclerosis. Subsequently, carefully conducted cohort and case-control studies documented no increased risk of developing multiple sclerosis or other demyelinating diseases after receiving hepatitis B immunization, and no evidence of any vaccines triggering relapses of multiple sclerosis was found.54,55

Type One Diabetes Mellitus and Vaccines

Type one diabetes mellitus is an autoimmune disease. Based on individual case reports of temporal associations and population-based increases in incidence of type one diabetes, Classen⁵⁶ believed that introduction of *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) vaccines caused diabetes in children. He also thought, based on animal studies, that diabetes could be prevented by early immunization with BCG or other vaccines.⁵⁷ However, Classen misunderstood the limitations of how ecological data, which are population-based changes in incidence, can be used for assessing causal relationships. The incidence of diabetes is increasing in various age groups in countries throughout the world.⁵⁸ Noting an increased incidence of any disease (or any other change in the population) after the introduction of a vaccine does not provide evidence to support a causal relation-

ship. Careful studies in Finland demonstrated a continuous increasing incidence of type one diabetes before and after the introduction of Hib vaccines and no evidence of any significant difference in risk of developing diabetes for children who received multiple doses of this vaccine in infancy as compared to children who received only a single dose at 18 months of age.⁵⁹ Two separate expert panels reviewed those data and data from numerous other studies and concluded that there is no evidence to suggest a causal relationship between vaccines and increased risk of developing diabetes.^{60,61}

MMR and Autism

In 1998, a gastroenterologist published a brief article implying that MMR vaccine contributed to the development of autism.61 He had been studying the possible role of measles in inflammatory bowel disease. Twelve children (average age of 6 years) with autism were referred to him for evaluation of gastrointestinal disorders; when he asked the children's parents if the onset of disease had started within 2 weeks of receiving MMR, 8 of the 12 parents said "yes." The investigator believed that he had evidence that MMR was the cause of these children's disease and that the incidence of autism increased in the United States and the United Kingdom after the introduction of MMR. In his view, the simultaneous administration of measles, mumps, and rubella vaccines constituted an "atypical" exposure to measles that predisposed the patient to persistent measles vaccine virus infection of the intestine and an associated inflammatory disorder resulting in the absorption of toxins from the gastrointestinal tract inducing neurologic damage. Because the cause of autism was largely unknown, many parents of affected children were seeking explanations for their children's disease and were willing to accept the hypothesis. Expert panels for the AAP and the Institute of Medicine reviewed these hypotheses in-depth, and both groups concluded that the available data did not support a causal association between MMR and autism. 2,62

Simultaneous administration of measles, mumps and rubella vaccines results in immunologic responses to each of the vaccines that are similar to the vaccines administered separately and poses no increased risk of developing adverse events, especially gastrointestinal disorders, with the combined vaccines.² The evidence for possible persistence of measles viruses and other paramyxoviruses in the intestinal tract and other body tissues is inconclusive, but several investigators in respected institutions around the world have been unable to find evidence of measles virus in tissue

Table 4. Relative Incidence of Severe Complications from Diseases and the Vaccines used to Protec Against these Diseases

Disease/Vaccine	Complication	Disease	Vaccine	Ratio
		-5/1000	1/1,000,000	> 1000
		1/1000	1/1,000,000	1000
		4/1000	1/1,000,000	> 4000
		1/10	1/1,000,000	> 100,000

Table 5. Web Sites for Vaccine Information

Organization	Web Site
	www.aap.org www.cdc.gov/ www.immunize.org www.vaccinesafety.edu www.immunizationinfo.org www.fda.gov/cber/vaers/

biopsies from children or adults with inflammatory bowel disease.⁶³ No evidence supports the contention that inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract contributes to the abnormal absorption of toxins and neurologic damage. Several epidemiologic studies have demonstrated no association between the timing of introduction of MMR vaccine and apparent increases in the prevalence of autism in several countries.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶ The investigator had misinterpreted ecological data, which have limited value for the assessment of causal relationships, and he assumed that temporal associations implied causal associations. Expert groups in many countries strongly endorse the simultaneous administration of measles, mumps, and rubella vaccines in MMR as the most effective way to prevent these diseases.¹⁹

Other false assumptions and concerns about vaccines and diseases, including the development of asthma and neurologic damage after administration of whole-cell DTP, have been reviewed by McPhillips and Marcuse.⁶⁷ Allegations that administration of multiple vaccines can impair the immune system of infants and young children also have been reviewed recently and found not to be supported by the scientific evidence.^{68,69}

Conclusion

All vaccines and related products have some risk of adverse events. Fortunately, most adverse events caused by vaccines are mild, and serious adverse events caused by vaccines rarely occur. When compared to the risk of serious complications from the diseases prevented by vaccines, the risks of serious consequences usually are far greater, 1,000-fold or more, from the natural disease than from the vaccine (Table 4).

Future vaccine safety issues undoubtedly will develop. Up-to-date information can be found at reputable Web sites (Table 5). To prevent future misunderstandings, efforts need to be made to increase understanding by the general public and healthcare practitioners about how vaccine safety issues are investigated and about what constitutes evidence for causal relationships. Efforts to monitor closely vaccines for safety before and after licensure must continue and expand as needed to ensure that the vaccines used to protect against disease are as safe as possible.

References

 Lane JM, Ruben FI, Neff JM, et al: Complications of smallpox vaccination, 1968: Results of ten statewide surveys. J Infect Dis 122:303-309, 1970

- Halsey NA, Hyman SL: Measles-mumps-rubella vaccine and autistic spectrum disorder: Report from the New Challenges in Childhood Immunizations Conference convened in Oak Brook, IL, June 12-13, 2000. Pediatrics 107(5), 2001
- Kroger L, Korppi M, Brander E, et al: Osteitis caused by bacillus Calmette-Guerin vaccination: A retrospective analysis of 222 cases. J Infect Dis 172:574-576, 1995
- Siegel MM, Walter TK, Ablin AR: Measles pneumonia in childhood leukemia. Pediatrics 60:38-40, 1997
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Measles pneumonitis following measles-mumps-rubella vaccination of a patient with HIV infection, 1993. MMWR 45:603-606, 1996
- Cermelli C, Jacobson S: Viruses and multiple sclerosis [review]. Viral Immunol 13:255-267, 2000
- Fredricks DN, Relman DA: Application of polymerase chain reaction to the diagnosis of infectious diseases. Clin Infect Dis 29:475-488, 1999
- Martin CM, Manfredonia SJ, Webb NC Jr, et al: Controlled trial of live measles vaccine: Effects of age, history of measles in siblings, prevaccine antibody, and human-globulin on symptomatic and immune responses. Am J Dis Children 106:270-279, 1963
- Ellenberg SS: Evaluating the safety of combination vaccines.
 CID 33:S319-S322, 2001 (suppl 4)
- Chen RT, Rastogi SC, Mullen JR, et al: The Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System (VAERS). Vaccine 12:542-550, 1994
- Rennels MB, Parashar UD, Holman RC, et al: Lack of an apparent association between intussusception and wild or vaccine rotavirus infection. Pediatr Infect Dis J 17:924-925, 1998
- Murphy TV, Gargiullo PM, Massoudi MS, et al: Intussusception among infants given an oral rotavirus vaccine. N Engl J Med 344:564-572, 2001
- Black S: Perspectives on the design and analysis of prelicensure trials: Bridging the gap to postlicensure studies. CID 33:S323-S326, 2001 (suppl 4)
- 14. Chen RT, Pool V, Takahashi H, et al: Combination vaccines: postlicensure safety evaluation. CID 33:S327-S333, 2001 (suppl 4)
- 15. Chen RT, DeStefano F, Davis RL, et al: The Vaccine Safety Datalink: Immunization research in health maintenance organizations in the USA. Bull World Health Org 78:186-194, 2000
- Janowski EC, Kupper LL, Hulka BS: Meta-analyses of the relation between silicone breast implants and the risk of connective-tissue diseases. New Engl J Med 342:781-790, 2000
- Reis EC, Jacobson RM, Tarbell S, et al: Taking the sting out of shots: Control of vaccination-associated pain and adverse reactions. Pediatr Ann 27:375-386, 1998
- Braun MM, Patriarca PA, Ellenberg SS: Syncope after immunization. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 151:255-259, 1997
- American Academy of Pediatrics. Active Immunization Pickering LK (ed): 2000 Red Book: Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases, ed 25. Elk Grove Village, IL: American Academy of Pediatrics, 2000
- World Health Organization: WHO Global Programme for Vaccines and Immunization, module 4. How to give a hepatitis B immunization. In Immunization in Practice. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1998, document no. WHO/EPI/TRAM/98.01-13
- 21. Genters for Disease Control and Prevention: General recommendations on immunization. Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP). MMWR 43(RR-01):1-38, 1994
- Wyatt HV: Provocation of poliomyelitis by multiple injections.
 Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 79:355-358, 1985

- Strebel PM, Ion-Nedelcu N, Baughman AL, et al: Intramuscular injections within 30 days of immunization with oral poliovirus vaccine—A risk factor for vaccine-associated paralytic poliomyelitis. New Engl J Med 332:500-530, 1995
- World Health Organization: Vaccine supply and quality: Surveillance of adverse events following immunization. Wkly Epidemiol Rec 71(32):237-244, 1996
- Bernier RH, Frank JA Jr, Nolan TF Jr: Abscesses complicating DTP vaccination. Am J Dis Child. 135:826-828, 1981
- Nathanson N, Langmuir A: The Cutter Incident: Poliomyelitis following formaldehyde-inactivated poliovirus vaccination in the United States during the spring of 1955. II. Relationship of poliomyelitis to Cutter vaccine. Am J Hyg 78:29-60, 1963
- Parkman PD, Hardegree MC: Regulation and testing of vaccines. In Plotkin SA, Orenstein WA, editors. Vaccines, 3rd ed. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company; 1999. p 1131
- Ebbert GB, Mascolo ED, Six HR. Overview of Vaccine Manufacturing and Quality Assurance. In: Plotkin SA, Orenstein WA (eds): Vaccines, ed 3. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company, 1999, p 40
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Prevention of Varicella. Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP) of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. MMWR 45(RR-11):1-36, 1996
- Strebel PM, Sutter RW, Cochi SL, et al: Epidemiology of poliomyelitis in the United States one decade after the last reported case of indigenous wild virus-associated disease. Clin Infect Dis 14:568-579, 1992
- Shah KV: Does SV40 infection contribute to the development of human cancers? Rev Med Virol 10:31-43, 2000
- Monath TP: Yellow fever. In Plotkin SA, Orenstein WA (eds): Vaccines, ed 3. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company, 1999, p 815
- Notice to readers: Public Health Service recommendations for the use of vaccines manufactured with bovine-derived materials. MMWR 49:1137-1138, 2000
- 34. Brown F, Lewis AM, Jr, Peden K, et al (eds): Evolving Scientific and Regulatory Perspectives on Cell Substrates for Vaccine Development. Proceedings of the International Association of Biologicals Symposium. Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 2001
- 35. Steinhoff MC, Reed GF, Decker MD, et al: A randomized comparison of reactogenicity and immunogenicity of two whole cell pertussis vaccines. Pediatrics 96:567-570, 1995
- Ball LK, Ball R, Pratt RD: An assessment of thimerosal use in childhood vaccines. Pediatrics 107:1147-1154, 2001
- Goldman LR, Shannon MW: Technical report: Mercury in the environment: Implications for pediatricians. Pediatrics 108: 197-205, 2001
- Joint Statement of the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) and the United States Public Health Service (PHS) on Thimerosal in Vaccines on Infant Hepatitis B Vaccination Practices. Pediatrics 104:568-569, 1999
- Verstraeten T: Data presented at the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, October 2000.
- Stratton K, Gable A, McCormick MC (eds): Immunization Safety Review: Thimerosal-Containing Vaccines and Neurodevelopmental Disorders. Washington DC: National Academy Press. 2001
- 41. Halsey NA, Goldman L: Balancing risks and benefits: Primum non nocere is too simplistic. Pediatrics 108:466-467, 2001
- Institute of Medicine: Adverse Events Associated with Childhood Vaccines: Evidence Bearing on Causality. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1994

- Mortimer EA Jr, Ball R, Ball LK, et al: Stevens-Johnson syndrome after vaccination. Pediatr Infect Dis J 20:818-819, 2001
- Kelso JM, Jones RT, Yunginger JW: Anaphylaxis to measles, mumps, and rubella vaccine mediated by IgE to gelatin. Allergy Clin Immunol 91:867-872, 1993
- James JM, Burks AW, Roberson PK, et al: Safe administration of the measles vaccine to children allergic to eggs. N Engl J Med 332:1262-1266, 1995
- Schonberger LB, Bregman DJ, Sullivan-Bolyai JZ, et al: Guillain-Barre syndrome following vaccination in the National Influenza Immunization Program, United States, 1976-1977.
 Am I Epidemiol 110:105-123, 1979
- Lasky T, Terracciano GJ, Magder L, et al: The Guillain-Barre syndrome and the 1992-1993 and 1993-1994 influenza vaccines. N Engl J Med 339:1797-1802, 1998
- 48. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP): Use of vaccines and immune globulins for persons with altered immunocompetence. MMWR 42(RR-4):1-18, 1993
- Moss WJ, Halsey NA: Immunization of HIV-infected children. WHO Bull in press: 2002.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Measles pneumonitis following measles-mumps-rubella vaccination of a patient with HIV infection, 1993. MMWR 45:603-606, 1996
- 51. Sharrar RG, LaRussa P, Galea SA, et al: The postmarketing safety profile of varicella vaccine. Vaccine 19:916-923, 2000
- Fujinami RS, Oldstone MB: Amino acid homology between the encephalitogenic site of myelin basic protein and virus: mechanism for autoimmunity. Science 230:1043-1045, 1985
- 53. Halsey NA, Duclos P, Van Damme P, et al: Hepatitis B vaccine and central nervous system demyelinating diseases. Viral Hepatitis Prevention Board. Pediatr Infect Dis J 18: 23-24, 1999
- Confavreux C, Suissa S, Saddier P, et al: Vaccinations and the risk of relapse in multiple sclerosis. Vaccines in Multiple Sclerosis Study Group. N Engl J Med 344:319-326, 2001
- Ascherio A, Zhang SM, Hernan MA, et al: Hepatitis B vaccination and the risk of multiple sclerosis. N Engl J Med 344: 327-332, 2001
- Classen JB: The timing of immunization affects the development of diabetes in rodents. Autoimmunity 24(3):137-145, 1996
- 57. Qin HY, Singh B: BCG vaccination prevents insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) in NOD mice after disease acceleration with cyclophosphamide. J Autoimmun 10:271-278, 1997.
- 58. LaPorte RE, Matusushima M, Change YF: Prevalence and incidence of insulin-dependent diabetes. In Harris MI, Cowie CC, Stern MP, et al (eds): Diabetes in America, ed 2. NIH Publication 95-1468. Bethesda, MD: National Diabetes Data Group of the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases, National Institutes of Health, 1997, pp 37-46
- 59. Karvonen M, Cepaitis Z, Tuomilehto J: Association between type 1 diabetes and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b vaccination: Birth cohort study. BMJ 318:1169-1172, 1999
- Institutes for Vaccine Safety: Childhood immunizations and type I diabetes: Summary of an Institute for Vaccine Safety Workshop. Pediatr Infect Dis J 18:217-222, 1999
- Wakefield AJ, Murch SH, Anthony A, et al: Ileal-lymphoidnodular hyperplasia, non-specific colitis, and pervasive developmental disorder in children. Lancet 351:637-641, 1998
- Institute of Medicine: Measles-Mumps-Rubella Vaccine and Autism. Stratton K, Gable A, Shetty P, et al (eds). Washington DC: National Academy Press, 2001.

- 63. Afzal MA, Minor PD, Ghosh S, et al: Measles virus persistence in specimens of inflammatory bowel disease and autism cases. Dig Dis Sci 46:658-660, 2001
- 64. Taylor B, Miller E, Farrington CP, et al: Autism and measles, mumps and rubella vaccine: No epidemiological evidence for a causal association. Lancet 353:2026-2029, 1999
- 65. Kaye JA, del mar Melero-Montes M, Jick H: Mumps, measles, and rubella vaccine and the incidence of autism recorded by general practitioners: A time trend analysis. BMJ 322:460-463, 2001
- 66. Dales L, Hammer SJ, Smith NJ: Time trends in autism and in
- MMR immunization coverage in California. JAMA 285:1183-1185, 2001
- McPhillips H, Marcuse EK: Vaccine safety. Curr Probl Pediatr 31:91-121, 2001
- 68. Halsey NA: Combination vaccines: Defining and addressing current safety concerns. Clin Infect Dis 33:312-318, 2001
- 69. Offit PA, Quarles J, Gerber MA, et al: Addressing parents' concerns: Do multiple vaccines overwhelm or weaken the infant's immune system? Pediatrics 109:124-129, 2002