15. Walia R, *et al.* Field trials on the use of Mycobacterium w vaccine in conjunction with multidrug therapy in leprosy patients for immunotherapeutic and immunoprophylactic purposes. *Lepr Rev* 1993; **64:** 302–11.

Preparations

Proprietary Preparations (details are given in Part 3)
India: Immuvac.

Leptospirosis Vaccines

Leptospira Vaccines; Vacunas de la leptospirosis.

Profile

Leptospirosis vaccines prepared from killed *Leptospira interrogans* are available in some countries. They are used for active immunisation against leptospirosis icterohaemorrhagica (spirochaetal jaundice; Weil's disease) in persons at high risk of contracting the disease.

Preparations

Proprietary Preparations (details are given in Part 3)
Fr.: Spirolept; ***Switz.:*** Spirolept.

Lyme Disease Vaccines

Vacunas de la enfermedad de Lyme.

Profile

Vaccines based on recombinant outer surface proteins of *Borrelia burgdorferi* were developed and used in some countries for active immunisation against Lyme disease in persons at risk of contracting the disease.

Lyme arthritis refractory to treatment with antibacterials has occurred rarely as an immune reaction to vaccine-derived outer surface proteins of *Borrelia burgdorferi*.

Malaria Vaccines

Vacunas del paludismo.

Profile

Malaria vaccines acting against the sporozoite, asexual, and sexual stages of the *Plasmodium falciparum* life cycle are under investigation, as well as multicomponent vaccines consisting of combined antigens from various stages.

Vaccine development. Chemoprophylaxis of malaria is becoming increasingly problematical (see p.594), resulting in the increased desirability of effective malaria vaccines, several of which have been, or are being, studied clinically. The various approaches to malaria vaccine development have been extensively reviewed.[1-15] Malaria vaccines can be categorised into 4 main groups:

- vaccines against pre-erythrocytic forms of the parasite, specifically the sporozoite and liver stages of infection. A sporozoite vaccine could prevent infection either via an antibody response to block invasion of liver cells or via a cell-mediated response to destroy infected liver cells by preventing release of parasites into the bloodstream. The most advanced of these vaccines are derived from the circumsporozoite antigen present on the sporozoite and the main vaccine candidate of this type is RTS,S/AS02A. This vaccine is comprised of the antigenic C-terminus of the circumsporozoite gene from *Plasmodium falciparum* fused to hepatitis B surface antigen and encouraging results in early studies in endemic African areas have been reported.[16] The US military is also investigating the possibility of DNA vaccines for malaria, including a liver-stage DNA candidate encoding the circumsporozoite (CS) protein of *P. falciparum*; however, this vaccine has so far failed to induce antigen-specific antibodies. A multiple-antigen version of this DNA vaccine, known as MuStDo5, encoding 5 different liver-stage antigens including CS is also under investigation. Some workers are investigating the prospect of priming with a DNA vaccine and boosting with recombinant antigen or viral vectors. There is also some development of vaccines that focus on the intracellular liver stage of the parasite, since some antigens expressed by sporozoites or merozoites can also be expressed by liver stage parasites
- vaccines against asexual erythrocytic stages, directed at the merozoite form of the parasite. These vaccines would be expected to reduce the severity and the duration of disease by decreasing the blood-parasite density; this effect correlates with reduced symptoms and risk of death. The most advanced asexual vaccine candidate is merozoite surface protein 1 (MSP-1), which forms part of a complex thought to be involved in erythrocyte invasion; antibodies to MSP-1 have been shown to block parasite entry to erythrocytes *in vitro*. Recombinant MSP-1 has also been shown to protect against lethal parasite challenge in *animal* studies. Several other merozoite surface proteins are also under development (MSP-2, 3, 4, 5, 8, and 9). A vaccine comprising MSP-1 and MSP-2 in combination with *P. falciparum* ring-infected erythrocyte (RESA) has recently shown a 62% reduction in parasite density in children in a study in Papua New Guinea. Two further promising asexual erythrocytic stage vaccine candidates are the apical membrane antigen-1 (AMA-1) and erythrocyte-binding antigen-175 (EBA-175)
- transmission-blocking vaccines to raise antibodies in humans against the gamete stage of the parasite present in the mosquito gut; these antibodies would then be taken up by the biting mosquito from in the blood and block further parasite development in the mosquito, thus rendering it non-infectious. Blocking transmission in this way could reduce infectivity of mosquitoes in that they would carry fewer parasites, and could extend the useful life of a pre-erythrocytic or erythrocytic vaccine by preventing transmission of antibody-resistant mutants. The most advanced candidate vaccines of this type contain the *P. falciparum* surface protein antigens Pfs-25 and Pfs-28 or the *P. vivax* homologues Pvs-25 and Pvs-28. Recombinant forms of these antigens are currently being investigated. Other similar sexual stage vaccines under development include Pfs-48/45 and Pfs-230
- vaccines against the toxins produced by the parasite that contribute to the disease itself. The glycosylphosphatidyl inositol (GPI) anchor, which binds several of the parasite's antigens to the erythrocyte membrane, has been shown to be highly toxic in *mouse* models, but has potential for disease attenuation if it can be detoxified and rendered safe.

A multi-antigen, multistage combination vaccine is thought to be the best approach to effective vaccination against malaria. One such vaccine, SPf66, a synthetic preparation of three antigens from the asexual phase of the parasite in the blood linked by a sporozoite antigen has been studied but little or no evidence for its protective efficacy has been found.[3] Another multicomponent vaccine, NYVAC-Pf7, using a recombinant vaccinia viral vector that expresses 7 proteins from different stages of malarial infection, has also been studied,[17] but results have been disappointing. A further multicomponent vaccine, CDC/NIIMALVAC-1 has provided encouraging preliminary results in *animals* and *in vitro*.[18]

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2. Moorthy VS, *et al.* Malaria vaccine developments. *Lancet* 2004; **363:** 150–6.
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13. Vekemans J, Ballou WR. Plasmodium falciparum malaria vaccines in development. *Expert Rev Vaccines* 2008; **7:** 223–40.
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15. Tyagi RK, *et al.* Various carrier system(s)-mediated genetic vaccination strategies against malaria. *Expert Rev Vaccines* 2008; **7:** 499–520.
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17. Ockenhouse CF, *et al.* Phase I/IIa safety, immunogenicity, and efficacy trial of NYVAC-Pf7, a pox-vectored, multiantigen, multistage vaccine candidate for Plasmodium falciparum malaria. *J Infect Dis* 1998; **177:** 1664–73.
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Measles Immunoglobulins

Inmunoglobulinas contra el sarampión.

ATC — J06BB14.

Pharmacopoeias. Many pharmacopoeias, including *Eur.* (see p.vii), have monographs.

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Human Measles Immunoglobulin; Immunoglobulinum Humanum Morbillicum). A liquid or freeze-dried preparation containing immunoglobulins, mainly immunoglobulin G (IgG). It is obtained from plasma containing specific antibodies against the measles virus. Normal immunoglobulin may be added. It contains not less than 50 international units/mL. Both the liquid and freeze-dried preparations should be stored, protected from light, in a colourless, glass container. The freeze-dried preparation should be stored under vacuum or under an inert gas.

Adverse Effects and Precautions

As for immunoglobulins in general, p.2201.

Interactions

As for immunoglobulins in general, p.2201.

Uses and Administration

Measles immunoglobulins may be used for passive immunisation against measles. They have been used to prevent or modify measles in susceptible persons who have been exposed to infection; in the UK, normal immunoglobulin is usually given.

Preparations

Ph. Eur.: Human Measles Immunoglobulin.

Measles Vaccines

Vacunas del sarampión.

ATC — J07BD01.

Pharmacopoeias. Many pharmacopoeias, including *Eur.* (see p.vii) and *US*, have monographs.

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Measles Vaccine (Live); Vaccinum Morbillorum Vivum). A freeze-dried preparation of a suitable live attenuated strain of measles virus grown in cultures of chick-embryo cells or human diploid cells. It is prepared immediately before use by reconstitution from the dried vaccine. The virus concentration is not less than 3.0 log $CCID_{50}$ per dose. The dried vaccine should be stored at 2° to 8° and be protected from light.
The BP 2008 states that Measles may be used on the label.

USP 31 (Measles Virus Vaccine Live). A bacterially sterile preparation of a suitable live strain of measles virus grown in cultures of chick-embryo cells. It contains not less than the equivalent of 1×10^3 $TCID_{50}$ in each immunising dose, and may contain suitable antimicrobial agents. It should be stored at 2° to 8° and be protected from light.

Adverse Effects

As for vaccines in general, p.2201.

Fever and skin rashes may occur after measles vaccines. The fever generally starts about 1 week after the injection, lasts for about 2 or 3 days, and has sometimes been accompanied by convulsions. More serious effects reported rarely include encephalitis and thrombocytopenia.

◊ Reviews.

1. Duclos P, Ward BJ. Measles vaccines: a review of adverse events. *Drug Safety* 1998; **19:** 435–54.

Incidence of adverse effects. Some brief comments made by the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices in the USA on adverse effects of standard measles vaccines.[1] An excellent safety record of measles vaccines has been indicated by the experience gained through the use of more than 240 million doses up to 1993. Fever with a temperature of 39.4° or more may develop in 5 to 15% of vaccinees beginning 5-12 days after vaccination and usually lasts several days. Transient rashes have been reported in about 5% of vaccinees. CNS disorders, including encephalitis and encephalopathy, have been reported with a frequency of less than one case per million doses given. The incidence of encephalitis or encephalopathy after vaccination is lower than the incidence rate of encephalitis of unknown origin suggesting that such events after vaccination may be only temporally related to, rather than due to, vaccination.

1. Immunization Practices Advisory Committee. Update: vaccine side effects, adverse reactions, contraindications, and precautions. *MMWR* 1996; **45** (RR 12): 1–35.

Atypical measles. The atypical-measles syndrome has occurred in persons vaccinated against measles and later exposed to the natural infection. The syndrome has been characterised by high fever and atypical rash; abdominal pain has been common and pneumonia almost universal.[1] Although atypical measles has occurred particularly in patients given killed vaccine[1] (no longer used) it has been reported in recipients of live measles vaccines.[2,3]

Measles occurring in patients previously vaccinated with live measles vaccines may be mild and go unrecognised. However, secondary vaccine failure does not appear to be a major problem (see Immunisation Schedules under Uses, below).

1. Anonymous. The atypical-measles syndrome. *Lancet* 1979; **i:** 962–3.
2. Chatterji M, Mankad V. Failure of attenuated viral vaccine in prevention of atypical measles. *JAMA* 1977; **238:** 2635.
3. Henderson JAM, Hammond DI. Delayed diagnosis in atypical measles syndrome. *Can Med Assoc J* 1985; **133:** 211–13.

Effects on hearing. There have been individual case reports of sensorineural hearing loss after measles vaccination.[1,2] Similar reports have been made after vaccination with measles and rubella vaccines (p.2223) and measles, mumps, and rubella vaccines (p.2223).

1. Watson JG. Bilateral hearing loss in a 3-year-old girl following measles immunisation at the age of 15 months. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 1990; **19:** 189–90.
2. Jayarajan V, Sedler PA. Hearing loss following measles vaccination. *J Infect* 1995; **30:** 184–5.

Effects on the nervous system. ***GUILLAIN-BARRÉ SYNDROME.*** No association was found between measles vaccination and Guillain-Barré syndrome in an analysis of 2296 cases.[1]

1. da Silveira CM, *et al.* Measles vaccination and Guillain-Barré syndrome. *Lancet* 1997; **349:** 14–16.

OPTIC NEURITIS. For a report of optic neuritis in 2 children after being given measles and rubella vaccine, see under Adverse Effects of Measles and Rubella Vaccines, p.2223.

SUBACUTE SCLEROSING PANENCEPHALITIS. Subacute sclerosing panencephalitis (SSPE) is a rare complication of measles infection (p.860) and has been reported in children who have