Refer to [http://www.who.int/immunization/documents/positionpapers/](http://www.who.int/immunization/documents/positionpapers/) for most recent version of this table and position papers.

This table summarizes the WHO child vaccination recommendations. It is designed to assist the development of country specific schedules and is not intended for direct use by health care workers. Country specific schedules should be based on local epidemiologic, programmatic, resource and policy considerations.

While vaccines are universally recommended, some children may have contraindications to particular vaccines.

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(updated: August 2018)
Table 1: Recommended Routine Immunization (updated: August 2018)

1 BCG


Universal BCG vaccination at birth is recommended in countries or settings with a high incidence of TB and/or high leprosy burden. A single dose of BCG vaccine should be given to all healthy neonates at birth, ideally together with Hepatitis B birth dose.

Countries with low TB incidence or leprosy burden may choose to selectively vaccinate neonates in high-risk groups.

BCG vaccination is also recommended for unvaccinated TST- or IGRA-negative older children, adolescents and adults from settings with high incidence of TB and/or high leprosy burden, those moving from low to high TB incidence/ leprosy burden settings and persons at risk of occupational exposure in low and high TB incidence areas (e.g. health-care workers, laboratory workers, medical students, prison workers, other individuals with occupational exposure).

BCG vaccination is not recommended during pregnancy.

If HIV-infected individuals, including children, are receiving ART, are clinically well and immunologically stable (CD4% >25% for children aged <5 years or CD4 count ≥200 if aged >5 years) they should be vaccinated with BCG. Neonates born to women of unknown HIV status should be vaccinated as the benefits of BCG vaccination outweigh the risks. Neonates of unknown HIV status born to HIV infected women should be vaccinated if they have no clinical evidence suggestive of HIV infection, regardless of whether the mother is receiving ART. For neonates with HIV infection confirmed by early virological testing, BCG vaccination should be delayed until ART has been started and the infant confirmed to be immunologically stable (CD4 >25%).

2 Hepatitis B


Hepatitis B vaccination is recommended for all children worldwide. Reaching all children with at least 3 doses of hepatitis B vaccine should be the standard for all national immunization programmes. Since perinatal or early postnatal transmission is the most important source of chronic HBV infection globally, all infants (including low birth weight and premature infants) should receive their first dose of hepatitis B vaccine as soon as possible after birth, ideally within 24 hours.

The birth dose should be followed by 2 or 3 additional doses to complete the primary series. Both of the following options are considered appropriate: (i) a 3-dose schedule with the first dose (monovalent) being given at birth and the second and third (monovalent or as part of a combined vaccine) given at the same time as the first and third doses of DTP-containing vaccine; or (ii) 4 doses, where a monovalent birth dose is followed by 3 (monovalent or combined vaccine) doses, usually given with other routine infant vaccines; the additional dose does not cause any harm. The interval between doses should be at least 4 weeks.

A birth dose of hepatitis B vaccine can be given to low birth weight (<2000g) and premature infants. For these infants, the birth dose should not count as part of the primary 3-dose series; the 3 doses of the standard primary series should be given according to the national vaccination schedule.

For catch-up of unvaccinated individuals, priority should be given to younger age groups since the risk of chronic infection is highest in these cohorts. Catch-up vaccination is a time-limited opportunity for prevention and should be considered based on available resources and priority. Unvaccinated individuals should be vaccinated with a 0, 1, 6 month schedule.

Vaccination of groups at highest risk of acquiring HBV is recommended. These include patients who frequently require blood or blood products, dialysis patients, diabetes patients, recipients of solid organ transplantation, person with chronic liver disease including those with Hepatitis C, person with HIV infection, men who have sex with men, persons with multiple sexual partners, as well as health care workers and others who may be exposed to blood, blood products or other potentially infectious body fluids during their work.

3 Polio


OPV plus IPV

For all countries using OPV in the national immunization programme, WHO recommends the inclusion of at least one dose of IPV in the vaccination schedule.

In polio-endemic countries and in countries at high risk for importation and subsequent spread of poliovirus, WHO recommends a bOPV birth dose (zero dose) followed by a primary series of 3 bOPV doses and at least 1 IPV dose.

The zero dose of bOPV should be administered at birth, or as soon as possible after birth, to maximize seroconversion rates following subsequent doses and to induce mucosal protection.

The primary series consisting of 3 bOPV doses plus 1 IPV dose can be initiated from the age of 6 weeks with a minimum interval of 4 weeks between the bOPV doses. If 1 dose of IPV is used, it should be given at 14 weeks of age or later (when maternal antibodies have diminished and immunogenicity is significantly higher) and can be co-administered with a bOPV dose.

The primary series can be administered according to the regular schedules of national
immunization programmes, e.g. at 6, 10, and 14 weeks (bOPV, bOPV, bOPV+IPV), or at 2, 4, and 6 months (bOPV, bOPV+IPV, bOPV or bOPV, bOPV, bOPV+IPV).

- Both OPV and IPV may be co-administered with other infant vaccines.
- For infants starting the routine immunization schedule late (age >3 months) the IPV dose should be administered at the first immunization contact along with bOPV and the other routinely recommended vaccines.
- As an alternative to the intramuscular injection of a full dose of IPV, countries may consider using fractional doses (1/5 of the full IPV dose) via the intradermal route, but the programmatic cost and logistic implications of this option should be considered.
- To ensure early protection a schedule of fractional intradermal doses administered at 6 and 14 weeks may be considered. The 2 fractional doses should be separated by a minimum interval of 4 weeks.
- The implementation of the new infant schedule (3 bOPV doses + 1 IPV dose) does not replace the need for supplementary immunization activities (SIAs). Those countries with insufficient routine vaccination coverage and which rely on SIAs to increase population immunity should continue the SIAs using bOPV until routine coverage improves or until the globally-coordinated withdrawal of bOPV.
- Countries that delayed the introduction of IPV or experience stock-outs should provide one full dose or 2 IPV doses (e.g. at 6 and 14 weeks) to all children who were missed as soon as the vaccine becomes available.
- Low-risk countries using bOPV may adopt the use of the post-OPV certification 2-dose (full or fractional) IPV schedule of 14 weeks and 24 months later (for example at 9 months with measles vaccination) prior to global OPV cessation. In such cases, these countries should continue bOPV in their routine schedule until OPV cessation.

Sequential IPV–OPV schedule

- In countries with high vaccination coverage (e.g. 90%–95%) and low importation risk (neighbouring countries and major population movement all having similarly high coverage) an IPV–bOPV sequential schedule can be used when VAPP is a significant concern.
- The initial administration of 1 or 2 doses of IPV should be followed by ≥2 doses of bOPV to ensure both sufficient levels of protection in the intestinal mucosa and a decrease in the burden of VAPP.
- For sequential IPV–bOPV schedules, WHO recommends that IPV be given at 2 months of age (e.g. a 3-dose IPV–bOPV–bOPV schedule), or at 2 months and 3–4 months of age (e.g. a 4-dose IPV–IPV–OPV–bOPV schedule) followed by at least 2 doses of bOPV. Each of the doses in the primary series should be separated by 4–8 weeks depending on the risk of exposure to poliovirus in early childhood.

IPV-only schedule

- An IPV-only schedule may be considered in countries with sustained high vaccination coverage and very low risk of both WPV importation and transmission.
- A primary series of 3 doses of IPV should be administered beginning at 2 months of age. If the primary series begins earlier (e.g. with a 6, 10 and 14-week schedule) then a booster dose should be given after an interval of ≥6 months (for a 4-dose schedule).

4 DTP-containing vaccines (Diphtheria, Tetanus and Pertussis)

- The need for early infant vaccination with DTP-containing vaccine (DTPCV) is principally to ensure rapid protection against pertussis, because severe disease and death from pertussis is almost entirely limited to the first weeks and months of life.
- A primary series of 3 doses of DTP-containing vaccine is recommended, with the first dose administered as early as 6 weeks of age. Subsequent doses should be given with an interval of at least 4 weeks between doses. The third dose of the primary series should be completed by 6 months of age if possible.
- If either the start or the completion of the primary series has been delayed, the missing doses should be given at the earliest opportunity with an interval of at least 4 weeks between doses.
- 3 booster doses of diphtheria toxoid-containing vaccine should be provided during childhood and adolescence. The diphtheria booster doses should be given in combination with tetanus toxoid using the same schedule, i.e at 12–23 months of age, 4–7 years of age, and 9–15 years of age, using age-appropriate vaccine formulations. Ideally, there should be at least 4 years between booster doses.
- Tetanus - To ensure lifelong protection against tetanus in all people should receive 6 doses (3 primary plus 3 booster doses) of tetanus toxoid-containing vaccine (TTCV) through routine childhood immunization schedules.
- The 3 TTCV booster doses should be given at: 12–23 months of age; 4–7 years of age; and 9–15 years of age. Ideally, there should be at least 4 years between booster doses.
- National vaccination schedules can be adjusted within the age limits specified above to enable programmes to tailor their schedules based on local epidemiology, the objectives of the immunisation programme, any particular programmatic issues and to better align tetanus vaccination with the immunological requirements of other vaccines (particularly for pertussis and diphtheria).
- Opportunities for tetanus vaccination may be taken at the second year of life contacts for alternative PCV schedule 2 +1, MCV second dose, and meningococcal A-containing vaccines, as well as pre-adolescence and adolescence contacts including for HPV vaccination.
- To provide and sustain both tetanus and diphtheria immunity throughout the life course and for both sexes, age-appropriate combinations of tetanus and diphtheria toxoids should be used. For children <7 years of age DTwP or DTaP combinations may be used. For children aged 4 years and older Td containing vaccine may be used and is preferred.
- From 7 years of age only Td combinations should be used. Age-appropriate combinations containing pertussis vaccine with low-dose diphtheria antigen are also available.
- If tetanus vaccination is started during adolescence or adulthood, a total of only 5 appropriately spaced doses are required to obtain lifelong protection.
- Pregnant women and their newborn infants are protected from birth-associated tetanus if the mother received either 6 TTCV doses during childhood or 5 doses if first vaccinated during adolescence/adulthood (documented by card, immunization registry and/or history) before the time of reproductive age. Vaccination history should be verified in order to determine whether a dose of TdV is needed in the current pregnancy.
- WHO confirms its earlier recommendation to shift from the use of single-antigen TT to combinations containing diphtheria toxoid, i.e. DT or Td vaccines, which has not yet been implemented in many countries despite the negligible price differential between TT and DT/Td vaccines. Countries and partners are urged to take steps to accelerate this shift.
- TTCVs can be used in immunocompromised persons including HIV-infected individuals, but the immune response may be lower than in fully immunocompetent persons. All HIV-infected children should be vaccinated against tetanus following the vaccine recommendations for the general population.
- Pertussis vaccine: Both aP-containing and wP-containing vaccines have excellent safety records.
- Available evidence indicates that licensed aP and wP vaccines have equivalent initial effectiveness in preventing disease in the first year of life, but that there is more rapid waning of immunity, and possibly a reduced impact on transmission, with aP relative to wP vaccines.
- National programmes currently administering WP vaccination should continue to use WP vaccines
for primary vaccination series. Surveillance and modelling data suggest that the use of aP vaccines may result in a resurgence of pertussis after a number of years.

- National programmes currently using aP vaccine may continue using this vaccine but should consider the need for additional booster doses and strategies to prevent early childhood mortality such as maternal immunization in case of resurgence of pertussis.

- Only aP-containing vaccines should be used for vaccination of persons aged ≥7 years.

- Pertussis containing booster - A booster dose is recommended for children aged 1–6 years, preferably during the second year of life (≥6 months after last primary dose), unless otherwise indicated by local epidemiology; the contact could also be used to catch up on any missed doses of other vaccines. This schedule should provide protection for at least 6 years for countries using aP vaccine. For countries using aP vaccine, protection may decline appreciably before 6 years of age.

- Vaccinating pregnant women and household contacts - Vaccination of pregnant women is likely to be the most cost-effective additional strategy for preventing disease in too young to be vaccinated and appears to be more effective and favourable than cocooning.

- National programmes may consider the vaccination of pregnant women with 1 dose of Tdap (in the 2nd or 3rd trimester and preferably at least 15 days before the end of pregnancy) as a strategy additional to routine primary infant pertussis vaccination in countries or settings with high or increasing infant morbidity/ mortality from pertussis.

- Delayed or interrupted DTP-containing series - For children whose vaccination series has been interrupted, the series should be resumed without repeating previous doses. Children aged 1 to < 7 years who have not previously been vaccinated should receive 3 doses of vaccine following a 0, 1, 6 month schedule. Two subsequent booster doses using Td or Tdap combination vaccines are needed with an interval of at least 1 year between doses.

- Health-care workers should be prioritized as a group to receive pertussis vaccine.

### 6 Haemophilus influenzae type b (Hib)

- **Position paper reference:** [Weekly Epid. Record](2013, 88: 413-428) [pdf 209KB]

- The use of Hib vaccines should be part of a comprehensive strategy to control pneumonia including exclusive breastfeeding for six months, hand washing with soap, improved water supply and sanitation, reduction of household air pollution, and improved case management at community and health facility levels.

- WHO recommends that any one of the following Hib immunization schedules may be followed: 3 primary doses without a booster (3p); 2 primary doses plus a booster (2p+1); and 3 primary doses with a booster (3p+1).

- Because serious Hib disease occurs most commonly in children aged between 4 months and 18 months, immunization should start from 6 weeks of age, or as early as possible thereafter.

- The number of primary doses should be set after consideration of the local epidemiology, vaccine presentation (Hib conjugate monovalent vaccine versus Hib conjugate vaccine in combination with other antigens) and how this fits into the overall routine immunization schedule.

- In countries where the peak burden of severe Hib disease occurs in young infants, providing 3 doses of vaccine early in life may confer a greater benefit.

- In some settings (e.g. where the greatest disease morbidity and mortality occur later, or where rate reductions of disease are not fully sustained after the routine use of Hib vaccine), it might be advantageous to give a booster dose by following either a 2p+1 or 3p+1 schedule.

- The interval between doses should be at least 4 weeks if 3 primary doses are given, and at least 8 weeks if 2 primary doses are given. Booster doses should be administered at least six months after completion of the primary series.

- If the vaccination course has been interrupted, the schedule should be resumed without repeating the previous dose. Children who start vaccination late, but are aged under 12 months, should complete the vaccination schedule (e.g. have 3 primary doses or 2 primary doses plus a booster).

- When a first dose is given to a child older than 12 months of age, only one dose is recommended.

- Hib vaccine is not required for healthy children after 5 years of age.

- The Hib conjugate vaccine is contraindicated in people with known allergies to any component of the vaccine. There are no other known contraindications or precautions.

### 6 Pneumococcal (Conjugate)

- **Position paper reference:** [Weekly Epid. Record](2012, 87: 129-143) [pdf 1.04 MB]

- Pneumococcal conjugate vaccines (PCVs) are considered safe in all target groups for vaccination, also in immunocompromised individuals. The vaccines are not currently licensed for use in age groups that include women of childbearing age. Although theoretically highly unlikely to be harmful, there is no information on the safety of PCV10 and PCV13 during pregnancy.

- Except for very rare anaphylactic reactions that may follow the administration of any medicine, there are no contraindications to the use of these vaccines. However, it is advisable to defer vaccination until after an acute infection with temperature >39 °C.

- When injected at different sites, PCVs can be administered concurrently with any other vaccines in infant immunization programmes.

- When primary immunization is initiated with one of these vaccines, it is recommended that remaining doses are administered with the same product. Interchangeability between PCV10 and PCV13 has not yet been documented. However, if it is not possible to complete the series with the same type of vaccine, the other PCV product should be used.

- For infants, 3 primary doses (the 3p+0 schedule) or, as an alternative, 2 primary doses plus a booster (the 2p+1 schedule).

- In choosing between the 3p+0 and 2p+1 schedules, countries should consider locally relevant factors including the epidemiology of pneumococcal disease, the likely coverage, and the timeliness of the vaccine doses.

- If disease incidence peaks in young infants (<32 weeks of age), a 2p+1 schedule might not offer optimal individual protection for certain serotypes (e.g. 6B, 23F) compared to a 3p+0 schedule, particularly in the absence of herd protection.

- In contrast, higher antibody levels are induced by the third (booster) dose in a 2p+1 schedule compared to the third dose in a 3p+0 schedule. This may be important for duration of protection or effectiveness against some serotypes.

- If the 3p+0 schedule is used, vaccination can be initiated as early as 6 weeks of age with an interval between doses of 4–8 weeks, depending on programmatic convenience.

- If the 2p+1 schedule is selected, the 2 primary doses should ideally be completed by six months of age, starting as early as 6 weeks of age with a minimum interval of 8 weeks or more between the two doses (for infants aged ≥7 months a minimum interval of 4 weeks between doses is possible). One booster dose should be given between 9–15 months of age.

- Vaccinating pregnant women and household contacts - Vaccination of pregnant women is likely to be the most cost-effective additional strategy for preventing disease in too young to be vaccinated and appears to be more effective and favourable than cocooning.

- National programmes may consider the vaccination of pregnant women with 1 dose of Tdap (in the 2nd or 3rd trimester and preferably at least 15 days before the end of pregnancy) as a strategy additional to routine primary infant pertussis vaccination in countries or settings with high or increasing infant morbidity/ mortality from pertussis.

- Delayed or interrupted DTP-containing series - For children whose vaccination series has been interrupted, the series should be resumed without repeating previous doses. Children aged 1 to < 7 years who have not previously been vaccinated should receive 3 doses of vaccine following a 0, 1, 6 month schedule. Two subsequent booster doses using Td or Tdap combination vaccines are needed with an interval of at least 1 year between doses.

- Health-care workers should be prioritized as a group to receive pertussis vaccine.

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PCV impact on disease and carriage. Maximized protection at the time of introduction of PCV10 or PCV13 can be achieved by providing 2 catch-up dose(s) at an interval of at least 8 weeks to unvaccinated children aged 12–24 months and to children aged 2–5 years who are at high risk of pneumococcal infection.

- Further data are needed from different epidemiological settings on the impact of large-scale PCV vaccination of individuals >50 years of age in order to establish the relative priority of immunization programmes in that age group. However, given the documented effects of herd protection in adult age groups following routine infant immunization with PCV7, higher priority should normally be given to introducing and maintaining high coverage of infants with PCVs.

- The use of pneumococcal vaccine should be seen as complementary to the use of other pneumonia control measures, such as appropriate case management, promotion of exclusive breastfeeding for first 6 months of life, and the reduction of known risk factors, such as indoor pollutants and tobacco smoke.

- For polysaccharide pneumococcal vaccine see position paper: Weekly Epid. Record (2008, 83: 373-384) [pdf 308KB]

- In resource-limited settings where there are many competing health priorities, evidence does not support routine immunization of the elderly and high-risk populations with PPV23. Also, because of the low level of evidence for benefit, routine PPV23 vaccination of HIV-infected adults is not recommended in such settings. In countries that do not routinely administer PPV23 to high-risk populations, data are insufficient to recommend introducing this vaccine to reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with influenza.

7 Rotavirus


- Recommended to be included in all national immunization programmes.

- Early immunization is favoured with the first dose of rotavirus vaccine to be administered from 6 weeks of age, however, in order to benefit those who may come late infants can receive doses without age restriction. Because of the typical age distribution of rotavirus gastroenteritis (RVGE), rotavirus vaccination of children >24 months of age is not recommended.

- RotaTeq is administered orally in a 2-dose schedule at the time of DTPPCV with an interval of at least 4 weeks between doses.

- RotaTeq vaccine is administered orally in a 3-dose schedule at the time of DTPPCV contacts, with an interval of at least 4 weeks between doses.

- Rotavac vaccine is administered orally as a dose schedule at the time of DTPPCV, with an interval of at least 4 weeks between doses.

- Rotavirus vaccinations can be administered simultaneously with other vaccines in the infant immunization programme.

- Apart from a low risk of intussusception (about 1-2 per 100 000 infants vaccinated) the current rotavirus vaccines are considered safe and well tolerated.

- Severe allergic reaction (e.g. anaphylaxis) after a previous dose, and severe immunodeficiency including severe combined immunodeficiency, are contraindications for rotavirus vaccination.

- Precautions are necessary if there is a history of intussusception or intestinal malformations, chronic gastrointestinal disease, and severe acute illness. Vaccination should be postponed in case of ongoing acute gastroenteritis or fever with moderate to severe illness.

- The use of rotavirus vaccines should be part of a comprehensive strategy to control diarrhoeal diseases with the scaling up of both prevention (exclusive breastfeeding for 6 months, vitamin A supplementation, safe drinking water, hygiene/handwashing with soap, and sanitation) and treatment (low-osmolarity ORS, zinc and continued feeding).

8 Measles


- Reaching all children with 2 doses of measles vaccine should be the standard for all national immunization programmes. In addition to the first routine dose of MCV1, all countries should add a second routine dose of MCV2 to their national immunization schedules regardless of the level of MCV1 coverage.

- In countries with ongoing transmission in which the risk of measles mortality remains high, MCV1 should be given at age 9 months. MCV2 should be given between 15-18 months, as providing MCV2 in the 2nd year of life reduces the rate of accumulation of susceptible children and the risk of an outbreak. The minimum interval between MCV1 and MCV2 is 4 weeks.

- Because many cases of measles occur in children aged >12 months who have not been vaccinated, routine delivery of MCV1 should not be limited to infants aged 9–12 months and routine delivery of MCV2 should not be limited to infants 15 to 18 months of age. Every opportunity (e.g. when children come into contact with health services) should be taken to vaccinate all children that missed one or both MCV routine doses, particularly those under 15 years of age. Policies which prohibit use of vaccine in children >1 year of age, older children and teenagers should be changed to allow these individuals to be vaccinated.

- In countries with low levels of measles transmission (i.e. those that are near elimination or verified as having eliminated endemic measles virus transmission) and therefore the risk of measles virus infection among infants is low, MCV1 may be administered at 12 months of age to take advantage of the higher seroconversion rates achieved at this age. In these countries, the optimal age for delivering MCV2 is based on programmatic considerations to achieve the highest coverage of MCV2 and, hence, the highest population immunity. Administration of MCV2 at 15-18 months of age ensures early protection of the individual, slows accumulation of susceptible young children, and may correspond to the schedule for other routine immunizations (for example, a DTP-containing booster, PCV, or meningococcal vaccines). This measure also supports the establishment of a policy on immunization and other health interventions in the second year of life. If MCV1 coverage is high (>90%) and school enrolment is high (>95%), administration of routine MCV1 at school entry may prove an effective strategy for achieving high coverage and preventing outbreaks in schools.

- For programmatic reasons (e.g. to reduce cold storage needs and vaccine wastage), it is recommended that the same vaccine formulation is used for both routine doses of MCV.

- In the following situations, a supplementary dose of MCV should be given to infants from 6 months of age: (1) during a measles outbreak as part of intensified service delivery; (2) during campaigns in settings where the risk of measles among infants < 9 months of age remains high (e.g. in endemic countries experiencing regular outbreaks); (3) for internally displaced populations and refugees, and populations in conflict zones; (4) for individual infants at high risk of contracting measles (e.g. contacts of known measles cases or in settings with increased risk of exposure during outbreaks); (5) for infants travelling to countries experiencing measles outbreaks; (6) for infants known to be HIV-infected or exposed (i.e. born to an HIV-infected woman).

- MCV administered before 9 months of age should be considered a supplementary dose and recorded on the child's vaccination record as “MCV0”. Children who receive MCV0 should also receive MCV1 and MCV2 at the recommended ages according to the national schedule.

- Given the severe course of measles in patients with AIDS, measles vaccination should be routinely administered to potentially susceptible, asymptomatic HIV infected children and adults. Vaccination may even be considered for those with symptomatic HIV infection if they are not severely immunosuppressed according to conventional definitions. In areas where there is a high incidence of both HIV infection and measles, an initial dose of MCV may be offered as early as age 6 months (recorded as MCV0). The 2 routine doses of MCV (MCV1 and MCV2) should then be administered to these children according to the national immunization schedule.

- An additional dose of MCV should be administered to HIV-infected children receiving HAART following immune reconstitution. If CD4+ T lymphocyte counts are monitored, an additional

Table 1: Recommended Routine Immunization (updated: August 2018)
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**9 Rubella**
- All countries that have not yet introduced rubella vaccine, and are providing 2 doses of measles vaccine using routine immunization, or SIAs, or both, should consider including rubella containing vaccines (RCVs) in their immunization programme. Countries planning to introduce RCVs should review the epidemiology of rubella, including the susceptibility profile of the population; assess the burden of CRS; and establish rubella and CRS prevention as a public health priority.
- There are two general approaches to the use of rubella vaccine: (i) exclusive focus on reducing CRS by immunizing adolescent girls or women of childbearing age, or both groups, to provide individual protection; (ii) focus on interrupting transmission of rubella virus and eliminating rubella and CRS, by introducing rubella vaccination into the routine childhood immunization schedule combined with the vaccination of older age groups who are susceptible to rubella.
- Because rubella is not as highly infectious as measles and because the effectiveness of 1 dose of an RCV is > 95% even at 9 months of age, only 1 dose of rubella vaccine is required to achieve rubella elimination if high coverage is achieved. However, when combined with measles vaccination, it may be easier to implement a second dose of RCV’s using the same combined MR vaccine or MMR vaccine for both doses.
- To avoid the potential of an increased risk of CRS, countries should achieve and maintain immunization coverage of 80% or greater with at least 1 dose of an RCV delivered through routine services or regular campaigns, or both.
- The first dose of RCV can be delivered at 9 or 12 months depending on the measles vaccination schedule.
- RCV’s can be administered concurrently with inactivated vaccines. As a general rule, live vaccines should be given either simultaneously with RCV’s, or at least 4 weeks apart. An exception to this is oral polio vaccine, which can be given at any time before or after RCV’s without interfering in the response to either vaccine. Interference may occur between MMR and yellow fever vaccines if they are simultaneously administered to children < 2 years of age.
- Because of a theoretical, but never demonstrated, teratogenic risk rubella vaccination in pregnant women should be avoided in principle, and those planning a pregnancy are advised to avoid pregnancy for 1 month following vaccination.
- Administration of blood or blood products before or shortly after vaccination may interfere with vaccine efficacy. If using only rubella vaccines persons who received blood products should wait at least 3 months before vaccination and, if possible, blood products should be avoided for up to 2 weeks postvaccination. Vaccinated persons are not eligible to donate blood for 1 month after vaccination.

**10 Human Papillomavirus (HPV)**
- Recommended target population for the prevention of cervical cancer: females aged 9–14 years, prior to becoming sexually active.
- HPV vaccines should be introduced as part of a coordinated strategy to prevent cervical cancer.
- A 2-dose schedule with a 6-month interval between doses is recommended for individuals receiving the first dose before 15 years of age. Those aged ≥15 years at the time of the second dose are also adequately covered by 2 doses.
- The initial vaccination of multiple cohorts of girls aged 9–14 is recommended when the vaccine is first introduced.
- If the interval between doses is shorter than 5 months, then a third dose should be given at least 6 months after the first dose.
- A 3-dose schedule (0, 1–2, 6 months) should be used for all vaccinations initiated ≥15 years of age, including in those younger than 15 years known to be immunocompromised and/or HIV infected (regardless of whether they are receiving antiretroviral therapy). It is not necessary to screen for HPV infection or HIV infection prior to HPV vaccination.
- These schedule recommendations apply to the bivalent, quadrivalent, and nonavalent vaccines.
- All three HPV vaccines can be co-administered with other live and non-live vaccines using separate syringes and different injection sites.
- Data on the safety of HPV vaccination in pregnancy are limited, and HPV vaccination of pregnant women should be avoided.
- Vaccination of secondary target populations, e.g. females aged ≥15 years or males, is recommended only if this is feasible, affordable, cost-effective, and does not divert resources from vaccination of the primary target population or from effective cervical cancer screening programmes.

**11 Japanese Encephalitis (JE)**
- JE vaccination should be integrated into national immunization schedules in all areas where JE is recognized as a public health priority.
- The most effective immunization strategy in JE endemic settings is a one-time campaign in the primary target population, as defined by local epidemiology (typically children aged <15 years), followed by incorporation of JE vaccine into the routine childhood immunization programme.
- The following vaccine dosing schedules and age of administration are recommended. The need for a booster dose in endemic settings has not been clearly established for any of the vaccines listed below:
  - **Inactivated Vero cell-derived vaccine:** Primary series according to manufacturer’s recommendations (these vary by product), generally 2 doses at 4-week intervals starting the primary series at ≥6 months of age in endemic settings
  - **Live attenuated vaccine:** Single dose administered at ≥8 months of age
  - **Live recombinant vaccine:** Single dose administered at ≥9 months of age
- Preferably, inactivated mouse brain-derived vaccines should be replaced by the newer generation JE vaccines discussed in this position paper. Inactivated mouse brain-derived vaccines may continue to play a role in combating JE in some countries, but overall these products have a less favourable safety profile due to their increased reactogenicity compared to newer JE vaccines. Other disadvantages include the variability of manufacturing, the cost, the higher number of doses required and the need for boosters.
Despite a lack of comprehensive immunogenicity/effectiveness and safety data for all possible combinations of JE and other routine vaccines, co-administration for programmatic reasons seems acceptable, even in the context of mass campaigns.

Inactivated JE vaccine can be used in immunocompromised persons including HIV-infected individuals, but the immune response may be lower than in fully immunocompetent persons. Inactivated Vero cell-derived vaccines should be used preferentially over live attenuated or live recombinant vaccines in immunocompromised persons. HIV testing is not a prerequisite for vaccination.

If the JE risk is sufficient to warrant vaccination of pregnant women, inactivated Vero cell-derived vaccines should be used preferentially over live attenuated or live recombinant vaccines based on the general precautionary principle against using live vaccines in pregnant women especially if alternative types of vaccines are available. Pregnancy testing is not a prerequisite for JE vaccination. Inadvertent administration of live attenuated or live recombinant JE vaccine to a pregnant woman is not an indication for termination of the pregnancy.

**Yellow Fever**


- WHO recommends that all endemic countries should introduce YF vaccine into their routine immunization programmes.

- A single dose of YF vaccine is sufficient to confer sustained life-long protective immunity against YF disease; a booster dose is not necessary.

- It is recommended that YF vaccine be given to children at age 9-12 months at the same time as the measles vaccine.

- The vaccine is contraindicated in children aged <6 months and is not recommended for those aged 6-8 months, except during epidemics when the risk of infection with the YF virus is very high. Other contraindications for YF vaccination are severe hyper-sensitivity to egg antigens and severe immunodeficiency.

- Preventive mass vaccination campaigns are recommended for inhabitants of areas at risk of YF where there is low vaccination coverage. Vaccination should be provided to everyone aged ≥ 9 months, in any area with reported cases. Noting that YF is a live vaccine, a risk-benefit assessment should be undertaken for all pregnant and lactating women.

- Vaccine should be offered to all unvaccinated travelers aged ≥ 9 months, travelling to and from at-risk areas, unless they belong to the group of individuals for whom YF vaccination is contraindicated.

- YF vaccine may be administered simultaneously with other vaccines.

**Tick-Borne Encephalitis (TBE)**


- Since the incidence of tick-borne encephalitis may vary considerably between and even within geographical regions, public immunization strategies should be based on risk assessments conducted at country, regional or district level, and they should be appropriate to the local endemic situation. Therefore, establishing case reporting of the disease is essential before deciding on the most appropriate preventive measures to be taken.

- In areas where the disease is highly endemic (that is, where the average prevaccination incidence of clinical disease is ≥5 cases/100 000 population per year), implying that there is a high individual risk of infection, WHO recommends that vaccination be offered to all age groups, including children.

- Because the disease tends to be more serious in individuals aged >50–60 years this age group constitutes an important target for immunization.

- Where the prevaccination incidence of the disease is moderate or low (that is, the annual average during a 5-year period is <5/100 000) or is limited to particular geographical locations or certain outdoor activities, immunization should target individuals in the most severely affected cohorts.

- People travelling from non-endemic areas to endemic areas should be offered vaccination if their visits will include extensive outdoor activities.

- Vaccination against the disease requires a primary series of 3 doses; those who will continue to be at risk should probably have ≥1 booster doses.

- Within the considerable range of acceptable dose intervals, the relevant national authorities should select the most rational primary schedule for their national, regional or district immunization programmes.

- Although there is a strong indication that the spacing of boosters could be expanded considerably from the intervals currently recommended by the manufacturers (every 3-5 years), the evidence is still insufficient for a definitive recommendation on the optimal frequency and number of booster doses. Countries should therefore continue to recommend the use of vaccines in accordance with local disease epidemiology and current schedules until more definitive information becomes available.

- For the vaccines manufactured in Austria and Germany (FSME-Immun and Encepur) that can be given starting from > 1year of age an interval of 1–3 months is recommended between the first 2 doses, and 5–12 months between the second and third doses. When rapid protection is required, for example for people who will be travelling to endemic areas, the interval between the first 2 doses may be reduced to 1–2 weeks.

- With the vaccines manufactured in the Russian Federation (TBE-Moscow and EnceVir) the recommended intervals are 1–7 months between the first 2 doses, and 12 months between the second and third doses. Booster doses are recommended every 3 years for those at continued risk of exposure.

- The currently recommended booster interval should be maintained until more data have been obtained on the duration of protection induced by the Russian vaccines.

- Regardless of the duration of the delay, interrupted schedules should be resumed without repeating previous doses.

**Yellow Fever**


- Typhoid vaccination programmes should be implemented in the context of other efforts to control the disease, including health education, water quality and sanitation improvements, and training of health professionals in diagnosis and treatment.

- Among the available typhoid vaccines, TCV is preferred at all ages in view of its improved immunological properties, use in younger children and expected duration of protection. Countries may consider the routine use of ViPS vaccine in individuals 2 years and older, and Ty21a vaccine for individuals more than 6 years of age.

- TCV - for infants and children from 6 months of age and in adults up to 45 years. Administration of TCV at the same time as other vaccine visits at 9 month of age or in the second year of life is encouraged. ViPS – single dose from 2 years of age. Ty21a – 3-doses to be administered orally every second day from 6 years of age.

- Catch-up vaccination with TCV up to 15 years of age is recommended when feasible and supported by epidemiological data.

- Typhoid vaccination is recommended in response to confirmed outbreaks of typhoid fever and may be considered in humanitarian emergency settings depending on the risk assessment in the local setting.

- The potential need for revaccination with TCV is currently unclear. Revaccination is recommended every 3 years for ViPS, and every 3-7 years for Ty21a.

**Table 1: Recommended Routine Immunization (updated: August 2018)**
15 Cholera

- Appropriate case management, WaSH interventions, surveillance and community mobilization remain the cornerstones of cholera control. Vaccination should be implemented in relevant settings as part of comprehensive cholera control strategies or while other activities are being developed.
- WC vaccines (Shanchol, Euvchol, and mORCVAX) 2 doses should be given 14 days apart to individuals ≥1 year of age. For WC-rBS vaccine (Dukoral) 3 doses should be given to children 2-5 years of age, and 2 doses to children aged ≥6 years and adults, with an interval of 1-6 weeks between doses in both groups.
- Revaccination is recommended where there is continued risk of *V. cholerae* infection. For WC vaccines revaccination is recommended after 3 years. For WC-rBS vaccine: children age 2-5 years revaccination is recommended within 6 months. If less than 6 months have passed, 1 dose for revaccination. If more than 6 months have passed, the primary series of 3 doses should be repeated. For those aged ≥6 years of age, if less than 2 years have passed, 1 dose for revaccination. If more than 2 years have passed, the primary series of 2 doses should be repeated.
- In cholera-endemic countries, vaccination of the entire population (throughout a country regardless of risk) is usually not warranted. Vaccination policies and strategies should be guided by an assessment of the risk of cholera and targeted to cholera hotspots. Strategies targeting specific age groups at higher risk of disease may be considered.
- For control of cholera outbreaks vaccination should be considered to help prevent the spread to new areas. For vaccination campaigns, a single-dose strategy using WC vaccines (Shanchol, Euvchol or mORCVAX) could be considered in areas experiencing cholera outbreaks.
- During humanitarian emergencies with a risk of cholera, but without a current cholera outbreak, vaccination with OCV should be considered as an additional preparedness measure for outbreak prevention, depending on the local infrastructure (capacity to organize a vaccination campaign).
- Pregnant and lactating women and HIV infected individuals should be included in OCV campaigns since there is a high potential benefit and minimal risks.

17 Hepatitis A

- Hepatitis A vaccination is recommended for inclusion in the national immunization schedule for children ≥1 year if indicated on the basis of incidence of acute hepatitis A, change in the endemicity from high to intermediate, and consideration of cost-effectiveness.
- In highly endemic hepatitis A countries almost all persons are asymptomatic infected with HAV in childhood, which effectively prevents clinical hepatitis A in adolescents and adults. In these countries, large-scale vaccination programmes are not recommended.
- Countries with improving socioeconomic status may rapidly move from high to intermediate endemicity. In these countries, a relatively large proportion of the adult population is susceptible to HAV and large-scale hepatitis A vaccination is likely to be cost-effective and therefore is encouraged.
- For individual health benefit targeted vaccination of high-risk groups should be considered in low and very low endemicity settings. Those at increased risk of hepatitis A include travelers to areas of intermediate or high endemicity, those requiring life-long treatment with blood products, men who have sex with men, workers in contact with non-human primates, and injection drug users. In addition, patients with chronic liver disease are at increased risk for fulminant hepatitis A and should be vaccinated.
- Inactivated HAV vaccine is licensed for intramuscular administration in a 2-dose schedule with the first dose given at the age of 1 year or older. The interval between the first and second dose is flexible (from 6 months up to 4-5 years) but is usually 6-18 months. Countries may consider a 1-dose schedule as this option seems comparable in terms of effectiveness, and is less expensive and easier to implement. However, in individuals at substantial risk of contracting hepatitis A in and immunocompromised individuals, a 2-dose schedule is preferred. Inactivated HAV vaccines produced by combined hepatitis A vaccines, are interchangeable. Apart from severe allergic reaction to the previous dose, there is no contraindication to their use. These vaccines can be co-administered simultaneously with other routine childhood vaccines, and should be considered for use in pregnant women at definite risk of HAV infection.
- Live attenuated HAV vaccine is administered as a single subcutaneous dose to those ≥1 year of age. Severe allergy to components included in the live attenuated hepatitis A vaccine is a contraindication to their use. As a rule, live vaccines should not be used in pregnancy or in severely immunocompromised patients. There is no information available on co-administration of live attenuated hepatitis A vaccines with other routinely used vaccines.

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**Table 1: Recommended Routine Immunization**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vaccine Type</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Dose Schedule</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MenA conjugate</td>
<td>≥12 months, teenagers and adults</td>
<td>2 doses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC conjugate vaccine</td>
<td>≥2 years of age</td>
<td>2 doses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live attenuated HAV vaccine</td>
<td>≥1 year</td>
<td>1 dose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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- Vaccination against hepatitis A should be part of a comprehensive plan for the prevention and control of viral hepatitis, including measures to improve hygiene and sanitation and measures for outbreak control.

18 Rabies

- Production and use of nerve-tissue vaccines should be discontinued and replaced by vaccines based on RABV grown in cell culture or embryonated eggs (CCEEs).
- There are two main immunization strategies for the prevention of human rabies: (i) PEP which includes extensive and thorough wound washing at the RABV-exposure site, together with RIG administration if indicated, and the administration of a course of several doses of rabies vaccine; (ii) PrEP which is the administration of several doses of rabies vaccine before exposure to RABV. PrEP is recommended for individuals at high risk of RABV exposure. These include sub-populations in highly endemic settings with limited access to timely and adequate PEP, individuals at occupational risk, and travellers who may be at risk of exposure.
- For both PEP and PrEP, vaccines can be administered by either the ID or IM route. One ID dose is 0.1 mL of vaccine; one IM dose is 0.5 mL or 1.0 mL depending on the product.
- The indication and procedure for PEP depend on the type of contact with the suspected rabid animal and immunization status of the patient. For category I exposures, no PEP is required; for category II, immediate vaccination is recommended; for category III, immediate vaccination is recommended, and administration of RIG, if indicated.
- PrEP schedule: 2-site ID vaccine administered on days 0 and 7. If IM administration is used, WHO recommends a 1-site IM vaccine administration on days 0 and 7.
- If any doses are delayed, vaccination should be resumed, not restarted. A change in the route of administration or in vaccine product during a PEP or PrEP course is acceptable if such a change is unavoidable.
- No further PrEP booster doses following a primary series of PrEP or PEP are required for individuals living in, or travelling to, high-risk areas.
- Professionals who are at continual or frequent risk of exposure through their activities should have regular serological monitoring. If VNA levels fall to <0.5 IU/mL, a 1-site ID or a 1-site IM PrEP booster vaccination is recommended. If serological testing is not available for those at continual or frequent occupational risk, a periodic 1-dose (ID or IM) PrEP booster vaccination can be considered based on the assessment of relative risk.

19 Dengue (CYD-TDV)

- Countries should consider introduction of the dengue vaccine CYD-TDV only in geographic settings (national or subnational) where epidemiological data indicate a high burden of disease.
- In defining populations to be targeted for vaccination, prior infection with dengue virus of any serotype, as measured by seroprevalence, should be approximately 70% or greater in the age group targeted for vaccination in order to maximize public health impact and cost effectiveness.
- Vaccination of populations with seroprevalence between 50% and 70% is acceptable but the impact of the vaccination programme may be lower.
- The vaccine is not recommended when seroprevalence is below 50% in the age group targeted for vaccination.
- Dengue vaccine introduction should be a part of a comprehensive dengue control strategy, including well executed and sustained vector control, evidence-based best practices for clinical care for all patients with dengue illness, and strong dengue surveillance. Vaccine introduction must be accompanied by a targeted communication strategy.
- Decisions about introduction require careful assessment at the country level, including consideration of local priorities, national and subnational dengue epidemiology, predicted impact and cost-effectiveness with country-specific inputs, affordability and budget impact.
- At the time of introduction, countries are encouraged to have a functional pharmacovigilance system with at least minimal capacity to monitor and manage adverse events following immunization.
- Countries considering vaccination should also have a dengue surveillance system able to detect and report hospitalized and severe dengue cases consistently over time.
- Administered as a 3-dose series given on a 0/6/12 month schedule. If a vaccine dose is delayed for any reason, the vaccine course should be resumed (not restarted), maintaining the 6-month interval between subsequent doses. Because of the 12-month duration of the immunization schedule and to enable better vaccine monitoring, countries should have systems in place for tracking vaccination.
- Because of the association of CYD-TDV with increased risk of hospitalized and severe dengue illness in the 2–5 year age group, CYD-TDV is not recommended for use in children under 9 years of age.
- The target age for routine vaccination should be defined by each country, based on maximizing vaccination impact and programmatic feasibility of targeting specific age groups.
- Some countries may experience the highest incidence of dengue illness among adults and may consider vaccinating populations up to 45 years of age.
- Catch-up campaigns targeting older age groups may be considered if additional impact is desired and the additional costs can be met.
- Co-administration is permissible with live and other non-live attenuated vaccines. Co-administration may be desirable to reduce programmatic costs associated with school-based vaccination programmes.
- CYD-TDV is not recommended for pregnant and lactating women due to lack of sufficient data in this population. However, the limited data collected during the clinical trials on inadvertent immunization of pregnant women have yielded no evidence of harm to the fetus or pregnant woman. Women of child-bearing age who are targeted for vaccination do not need to be tested for pregnancy.
- Until data become available, there is no recommendation for the use of CYD-TDV in HIV-infected or immunocompromised individuals.
- There is no recommendation for vaccination of travellers or health-care workers at this time.

20 Mumps

- Recommended for use in high performing immunization programmes with the capacity to maintain coverage over 80% and where mumps reduction is a public health priority.
- If implemented, a combination vaccine of measles, mumps and rubella is recommended.

21 Seasonal Influenza (Inactivated Vaccine)

- For countries considering the initiation or expansion of programmes for seasonal influenza vaccination, WHO recommends that pregnant women should have the highest priority. Children aged < 6 months are not eligible to receive currently licensed influenza vaccines and should be protected against influenza through vaccination of their mothers during pregnancy and through ensuring vaccination of close contacts.

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Table 1: Recommended Routine Immunization (updated: August 2018)
Additional risk groups to be considered are children aged 6-59 months, elderly persons ≥ 65 years of age, individuals with specific chronic medical conditions, and health-care workers. Countries with existing influenza vaccination programmes targeting any of these additional groups should continue to do so and should incorporate immunization of pregnant women into such programmes.

A single dose is appropriate for those ≥ 9 years of age, including pregnant women. Inactivated influenza vaccine is safe to give throughout pregnancy.

Children aged 6-59 months should receive 2 doses at least 4 weeks apart. Children aged 6-35 months should receive a pediatric dosage.

Annual vaccination (or re-vaccination, if the vaccine strains are identical) is recommended. Previously vaccinated children 6-59 months require only one-dose.

**Varicella**


Countries where varicella is an important public health burden could consider introducing varicella vaccination in the routine childhood immunization programme. However, resources should be sufficient to ensure reaching and sustaining vaccine coverage ≥ 80%. Decision-making on childhood varicella vaccination should also include consideration of the possible impact on herpes zoster.

Depending on the goal of the vaccination programme, 1-2 doses should be given with the first dose administered at 12-18 months of age. The minimum interval between doses should be as recommended by the manufacturer, ranging from 4 weeks to 3 months.

Countries with a high average age (≥15 years) of acquisition of infection could consider alternative vaccination strategies such as vaccination of adolescents and adults without evidence of varicella immunity. This strategy requires a 2-dose schedule.

Varicella vaccination is contraindicated during pregnancy and pregnancy should be delayed for 4 weeks after vaccination. Termination of pregnancy is not indicated if vaccination was carried out inadvertently during pregnancy.

Varicella vaccine can be administered concomitantly with other vaccines. Unless given together with other live viral vaccines (measles, MR, MMR), it should be administered at a minimum interval of 28 days.

Countries should consider vaccination of potentially susceptible health-care workers (i.e. unvaccinated and with no history of varicella) with 2 doses of varicella vaccine.