COVID-19 disease first emerged as a presentation of severe respiratory infection in Wuhan, China in late 2019 (WHO, 2020). By January 2020, lower respiratory samples taken from affected patients were sequenced and demonstrated a novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) (Huang et al., 2020). The first two cases in the UK were seen in late January (Lillie et al., 2020). In March 2020, the WHO declared a SARS-CoV-2 pandemic (WHO Director-General, 2020).

SARS-CoV-2 is a member of the family of Coronaviridae and genus Betacoronavirus (Zhu et al., 2020). Phylogenetic analysis of SARS-CoV-2 has shown that it is genetically distinct from the SARS coronavirus (Dhama, et al. 2020), but appears to share strong sequence similarity to bat coronaviruses in China (Lam et al., 2020).

As with other coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2 is an RNA virus which encodes four major structural proteins, spike (S), membrane (M), envelope (E) and a helical nucleocapsid (N). (Dhama, et al., 2020) The S glycoprotein is considered the main antigenic target and consists of an S1 and S2 subunit (Kaur et al., 2020). The S1 subunit has two functional domains: the N terminal domain (NTD) and receptor binding domain (RBD) which contains the receptor binding motif (RBM) (Kaur et al., 2020). The RBM binds to angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) on host cells and is endocytosed with subsequent release of the viral genome into the cytoplasm (Amanat et al., 2020).

SARS-CoV-2 is primarily transmitted by person to person spread through respiratory aerosols, direct human contact and fomites (Kaur et al., 2020). Estimates of the basic reproduction number [R] were initially between 2 and 3 although a recent estimate was as high as 5.7 (Sanche et al., 2020). This high transmissibility indicates that stringent control measures, such as active surveillance, physical distancing, early quarantine and contact tracing are needed in order to control viral spread. Perinatal transmission has been reported although the exact transmission route has not been elucidated (ECDCa, 2020).

After the initial exposure, patients typically develop symptoms within 5-6 days (incubation period) although about 20% of patients remain asymptomatic throughout infection (Cevik M et al., 2020). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) tests can detect viral SARS-CoV-2 RNA in the upper respiratory tract for a mean of 17 days, although transmission is maximal in the first week of illness. Symptomatic and pre-symptomatic transmission (1-2 days before symptom onset), is thought to play a greater role in the spread of SARS-CoV-2 than asymptomatic transmission.
The disease

In adults, the clinical picture varies widely. A significant proportion of individuals are likely to have mild symptoms and may be asymptomatic at the time of diagnosis.

Symptoms are commonly reported as a new onset of cough and fever (Grant et al, 2020), but may include headache, loss of smell, nasal obstruction, lethargy, myalgia (aching muscles), rhinorrhea (runny nose), taste dysfunction, sore throat, diarrhoea, vomiting and confusion; fever may not be reported in all symptomatic individuals. Patients may also be asymptomatic (He et al, 2020).

Progression of disease, multiple organ failure and death will occur in some individuals (Pachetti et al, 2020).

Current available data suggest that increasing age and male gender are significant risk factors for severe infection. However, there are also groups of patients with underlying comorbidities, where infection may result in increased risk of serious disease. In a large review of primary care records pseudonymously linked with SARS-CoV-2 status, comorbidities including diabetes, cancer and severe asthma were associated with increased risk of death (Williamson et al, 2020).

Infection fatality ratios (IFR) for COVID-19, derived from combining mortality data with infection rates in seroprevalence studies, show a marked increase in IFR in the oldest age groups (Table 1) (Ward et al, 2020).
### Table 1: Infection fatality ratio and estimated total numbers of deaths (February to July 2020)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Population Size</th>
<th>SARS-CoV-2 antibody prevalence% (95% CI)</th>
<th>Confirmed COVID-19 deaths*</th>
<th>Infection fatality ratio % (95% CI)</th>
<th>Estimated number of infections (95% CI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>56,286,961</td>
<td>6.0 (5.7, 6.8)</td>
<td>30180</td>
<td>0.9 (0.9, 0.9)</td>
<td>3,362,037 (3,216,816; 3,507,258)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27,827,831</td>
<td>6.5 (5.8, 6.6)</td>
<td>18575</td>
<td>1.1 (1.0, 1.2)</td>
<td>1,729,675 (1,614,585; 1,844,766)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28,459,130</td>
<td>5.8 (5.4, 6.1)</td>
<td>11600</td>
<td>0.7 (0.7, 0.8)</td>
<td>1,633,785 (1,539,821; 1,727,749)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (years)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-44</td>
<td>21,335,397</td>
<td>7.2 (6.7,7.7)</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0, 0.0)</td>
<td>1,535,884 (1,436,941; 1,634,826)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-64</td>
<td>14,405,759</td>
<td>6.2 (5.8, 6.6)</td>
<td>4657</td>
<td>0.5 (0.5, 0.5)</td>
<td>895,238 (837,231; 953,244)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74</td>
<td>5,576,066</td>
<td>3.2 (2.7, 3.7)</td>
<td>5663</td>
<td>3.1 (2.6, 3.6)</td>
<td>181,044 (153,426; 208,661)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75+</td>
<td>4,777,650</td>
<td>3.3 (2.5, 4.1)</td>
<td>19330</td>
<td>11.6 (9.2, 14.1)</td>
<td>166,077 (131,059; 200,646)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 All estimates of prevalence adjusted for imperfect test sensitivity and specificity (see text for details). Responses have been re-weighted to account for differential sampling (geographic) and for variation in response rate (age, gender, ethnicity and deprivation) in final column to be representative of the England population (18+).

2 Infection fatality ratios were calculated excluding care home residents. Confirmed COVID-19 death counts were obtained from [https://fingertips.phe.org.uk/static-reports/mortality-surveillance/excess-mortality-in-England-week-ending-17-jul-2020.html](https://fingertips.phe.org.uk/static-reports/mortality-surveillance/excess-mortality-in-England-week-ending-17-jul-2020.html). Deaths in care homes by age on 12 June 2020 were obtained from [https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/birthsdeathsandmarriages/deaths/articles/deathsinvolvingcovid9inthearesectorengandwales/deathsoccurringupto12June2020andregisteredupto20June2020provisional](https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/birthsdeathsandmarriages/deaths/articles/deathsinvolvingcovid9inthearesectorengandwales/deathsoccurringupto12June2020andregisteredupto20June2020provisional). Total deaths in care home residents up to 17 July 2020 were obtained from [https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/birthdeathsandmarriages/deaths/datasets/numberofdeathsinarehones notifiedtothecarequalitycommissionengland](https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/birthdeathsandmarriages/deaths/datasets/numberofdeathsinarehones notifiedtothecarequalitycommissionengland). The age stratified estimates of COVID-19 deaths were then estimated using the total deaths from 17 July and the age distribution from 12 June. We assumed that age distribution of deaths did not change between 12 June and 17 July 2020.
In Europe and the UK, deaths attributed to SARS-CoV-2 have been reported disproportionately from residential care homes (ECDCb, 2020, Graham et al 2020). Other notable risk groups include healthcare workers (Nguyen et al, 2020) who may acquire infection both in the hospital or within the community setting (Bielicki et al, 2020). Current evidence suggests that deprivation and being from Black and Asian Minority Ethnic groups results in a higher risk for death from SARS-CoV-2 infection (Williamson et al, 2020), although the factors that contribute to this are not yet clear.

Children
Fewer than 5% of SARS-CoV-2 infection cases are amongst children and in general they appear to exhibit mild disease (ECDCc, 2020).

Although cough and fever are the main symptoms in children (Ladhani et al, 2020), a UK study tracking children of healthcare workers has recently shown that of those who were seropositive, gastrointestinal symptoms were also commonplace (Waterfield et al, 2020). Preliminary evidence suggested that not only do children have a lower susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection, but they are also unlikely to be key drivers of transmission at a population level (Viner et al, 2020). However, a recent prospective study found higher secondary attack rates where the household index case was a child (Lopez-Bernal J et al, 2020).

A spectrum of multi system inflammatory disease similar to Kawasaki disease (KD) was recently described in children admitted during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, temporally associated with severe acute respiratory syndrome attributed to SARS-CoV-2 (Paediatric multisystem inflammatory syndrome temporally associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection (PIMS-TS)) (Whittaker et al, 2020). This severe presentation in children is extremely rare, but appears to encompass a wide range of features, including fever, gastrointestinal symptoms, rash, myocardial injury and shock (ISARIC, 2020).

Pregnant women and neonates
Evidence to date regarding the risk to pregnant women and neonates following SARS-CoV-2 is conflicting; early studies did not suggest increased intrauterine transmission (Karimi-Zarchi et al, 2020) nor any worsening of clinical presentation compared to non-pregnant adults (Elshafeey et al, 2020). A more recent systematic review suggested that pregnant women are less likely to manifest standard SARS-CoV-2 symptoms such as fever and cough but may require support in intensive care (Allotey et al, 2020). Severe infection in pregnancy was associated with increased maternal age, high-body mass index, pre-existing diabetes and chronic hypertension.

COVID-19 vaccines
The recognition of the pandemic has accelerated the development and testing of several vaccines using platforms investigated during previous emergencies such as the SARS pandemic (Amanat et al, 2020) and Ebola in West Africa. Candidate vaccines include nucleic acid vaccines, inactivated virus vaccines, live attenuated vaccines, protein or peptide subunit vaccines, and viral-vectorized vaccines.

Most vaccine candidates focus on immunisation with the spike (S) protein, which is the main target for neutralising antibodies. Neutralising antibodies that block viral entry into host cells through preventing the interaction between the spike protein RBM and the host cell ACE2 are expected to be protective (Addetia et al, 2020, Thompson et al, 2020).
Provisional guidance subject to MHRA approval of vaccine supply

In the UK, two vaccines targeting the S protein are expected to be authorised for supply first; one uses an mRNA platform (Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine) and the second an adenovirus vector (AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine).

Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine is a nucleoside-modified messenger RNA vaccine (mRNA) vaccine. mRNA vaccines use the pathogen’s genetic code as the vaccine; this then exploits the host cells to translate the code and then make the target spike protein. The protein then acts as an intracellular antigen to stimulate the immune response (Amanat et al, 2020). The mRNA is then normally degraded within a few days. Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine has been generated entirely in vitro and is formulated in lipid nanoparticles which are taken up by the host cells (Vogel et al, 2020). The vaccine was tested in healthy adults between the ages of 18-55 and 65-85 years in phase 1 studies and the BNT162b2 (no 4) vaccine product at a 30 µg dose was chosen by Pfizer as the lead candidate in phase 2/3 trials (Walsh et al 2020).

AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine uses a replication deficient chimpanzee adenovirus (ChAd) as a vector to deliver the full-length SARS-CoV2 spike protein genetic sequence into the host cell (Van Doremalen et al, 2020). ChAd is a non-enveloped virus, and the glycoprotein antigen is not present in the vector, but is only expressed once the genetic code within the vector enters the target cells. The vector genes are also modified to render the virus replication incompetent, and to enhance immunogenicity (Garafalo et al, 2020). Once the vector is in the nucleus, mRNA encoding the spike protein is produced that then enters the cytoplasm. This then leads to translation of the target protein which acts as an intracellular antigen.

Vaccine effectiveness

In phase 1/2 human trials, after prime and boost vaccination, neutralising antibodies were comparable or higher than in convalescent patients. Neutralising antibody responses were generally higher in the 18 to 55 year age group compared to the 65 to 85 year age group, but responses were comparable to levels in convalescent patients in both age groups.

A phase 3 study was conducted in around 44,000 individuals aged 12-years and above with a second dose delivered between 19 and 42 days. Initial analysis conducted as part of a phase 3 study demonstrated a two-dose vaccine efficacy of 95% (with credibility intervals from 90.3% to 97.6%) in those aged 16 years and above. Efficacy was consistent across age, gender, and ethnicity, and in the presence of co-morbidities (including asthma, obesity, diabetes, hypertension and lung disease). In naïve participants aged 65 and 75 years and over the efficacy was 94.7% (95% CI 66.7-99.9%) and 100% (95% CI -13.1-100%) respectively. Efficacy remained high when the analysis included those with evidence of prior immunity.


The Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine received approval to supply in the UK from the MHRA in early December.

AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine elicited increased neutralisation antibodies in Rhesus macaques as well as a reduction in detectable virus in the lower respiratory tract following challenge with SARS-CoV-2 (Van Doremalen et al, 2020). In phase 1/2 human trials AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine was compared with a meningococcal conjugate vaccine (MenACWY) control in healthy adults aged between 18-55 years (Folegatti et al, 2020).
Preliminary findings showed that neutralising antibodies were induced at day 14 and 28 after the first vaccination and titres increased after a second dose. Specific T cell responses were also induced after a single immunisation and were maintained after the second dose. Final data showed that IgG spike antibody responses and neutralising antibody 28 days after the boost dose were similar across the three age cohorts (18–55 years, 56–69 years, and ≥70 years). More than 99% (208/209) of the participants had neutralising antibody responses two weeks after the booster dose. Peak T-cell responses were seen 14 days after the first dose and were broadly equivalent in the three age groups (Ramasamy et al, 2020).

Initial Phase 3 efficacy data suggested a 70% efficacy overall, but was higher in the group primed with a half strength dose. A total of 131 cases were reported in the trial but no hospitalisations or severe cases were reported in vaccinated participants.


At the time of writing the AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine is not yet approved for use in the UK.

Storage

The Pfizer BioNTech vaccine should be stored in a freezer at -80°C to -60°C (-90ºC to -60 ºC in the thermal container). Shelf life is 6 months at -80°C to -60°C. Frozen vials should be transferred to 2°C to 8°C to thaw; a 195 vial pack may take 3 hours to thaw. Alternatively, frozen vials may also be thawed for 30 minutes at temperatures up to 25°C for immediate use.

After thawing, stability data have demonstrated that undiluted vaccine can be stored for up to 5 days at 2°C to 8°C, or up to 2 hours at temperatures up to 25°C, prior to use. Once thawed, the vaccine cannot be re-frozen.

The AstraZeneca vaccine should be stored at +2°C to +8°C and has a shelf life of 6 months. The vaccine does not contain any preservative. After first opening the vial, it should be used within 6 hours when stored at room temperature (up to 30°C [86°F]) or within 48 hours when stored in a refrigerator (2 to 8°C [36 to 46°F]). After this time, the vial must be discarded. The total cumulative storage time must not exceed 48 hours.

Presentation

Each pack of the Pfizer BioNTech vaccine contains 195 vials with 5 doses per vial (975 doses per pack). It is supplied with 0.9% sodium chloride diluent for injection plastic ampoules. After dilution, the vaccine should be kept at 2°C to 25°C and used within 6 hours. Any unused vaccine should be discarded.

The AstraZeneca vaccine is supplied in packs of 10 vials. Each vial contains 8 or 10 doses of vaccine, and is a colourless to slightly yellow, clear to slightly opaque liquid.

Dosing and schedule

Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine*

The dose of Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine is 30µg contained in 0.3ml of the diluted vaccine. After dilution each multidose vial contains 5 doses of 0.3 ml.

The vaccine should be administered in 2 doses, a minimum of 21 days apart.

AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine*

The dose of AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine is 0.5ml.
The vaccine should be administered in 2 doses, a minimum of 28 days apart.

For operational purposes, when both vaccines are approved and in use, scheduling the second dose of COVID-19 vaccine from 28 days may be preferred (although this would not preclude scheduling Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine from 21 days where rapid protection is required). Using a consistent interval for all two-dose vaccines simplifies the messaging to the public and arrangements within clinic settings where alternative vaccines may be supplied at short notice.

If an interval longer than the recommended interval is left between doses, the second dose should still be given (preferably using the same vaccine as was given for the first dose if possible). The course does not need to be restarted.

**Administration**

Vaccines are routinely given intramuscularly into the upper arm or anterolateral thigh. This is to reduce the risk of localised reactions, which are more common when vaccines are given subcutaneously (Mark *et al*., 1999; Zuckerman, 2000; Diggle and Deeks, 2000).

Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine should administered as an intramuscular injection into the deltoid. A 1ml syringe with a 23g x 25mm needle will be provided for administration.

AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine is administered as a single dose of 0.5ml intramuscular injection into the deltoid. A 1ml syringe with a 23g/25g x 25mm needle will be provided for administration. The vaccine should be inspected visually for particulate matter and discolouration prior to administration. The vial should be discarded if the solution is discoloured or visible particles are observed. The vial should not be shaken. A separate needle and syringe should be used for each individual. It is normal for liquid to remain in the vial after withdrawing the final dose.

Individuals with bleeding disorders may be vaccinated intramuscularly if, in the opinion of a doctor familiar with the individual's bleeding risk, vaccines or similar small volume intramuscular injections can be administered with reasonable safety by this route. If the individual receives medication/ treatment to reduce bleeding, for example treatment for haemophilia, intramuscular vaccination can be scheduled shortly after such medication/ treatment is administered. Individuals on stable anticoagulation therapy, including individuals on warfarin who are up-to-date with their scheduled INR testing and whose latest INR is below the upper level of the therapeutic range, can receive intramuscular vaccination. A fine needle (23 or 25 gauge) should be used for the vaccination, followed by firm pressure applied to the site without rubbing for at least 2 minutes (ACIP 2019). The individual/parent/ carer should be informed about the risk of haematoma from the injection.

**Disposal**

Equipment used for vaccination, including used vials, ampoules or syringes, should be disposed of by placing them in a proper, puncture-resistant ‘sharps box’ according to local authority regulations and guidance in Health Technical Memorandum 07-01: Safe management of healthcare waste (Department of Health, 2013).
The COVID-19 immunisation programme

Provisional recommendations for the use of the vaccine

The objectives of the COVID-19 immunisation programme is to protect those who are at highest risk from serious illness or death. The Joint Committee of Vaccination and Immunisation (JCVI) have set out a prioritisation for persons at risk. JCVI ranked the eligible groups according to risk, largely based on prevention of COVID-19-specific mortality.

Evidence from the UK indicates that the risk of poorer outcomes from COVID-19 infection increases dramatically with age in both healthy adults and in adults with underlying health conditions. Those over the age of 65 years have by far the highest risk, and the risk increases with age. Residents in care homes for older adults have been disproportionately affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Table 2 sets out JCVI advice on priority groups for COVID-19 vaccination. Table 3 sets out JCVI advice on clinical risk groups for COVID-19 vaccination.

Table 2 – Priority groups for vaccination advised by the Joint Committee on Vaccination and Immunisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority group</th>
<th>Risk group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1              | Residents in a care home for older adults  
                 | Staff working in care homes for older adults |
| 2              | All those 80 years of age and over  
                 | Frontline Health and social care workers |
| 3              | All those 75 years of age and over |
| 4              | All those 70 years of age and over  
                 | Clinically extremely vulnerable individuals (not including pregnant women and those under 16 years of age) |
| 5              | All those 65 years of age and over |
| 6              | Adults aged 16 to 65 years in an at-risk group (Table 3) |
| 7              | All those 60 years of age and over |
| 8              | All those 55 years of age and over |
| 9              | All those 50 years of age and over |

Clinically extremely vulnerable and adults in priority group 6

People who are defined as clinically extremely vulnerable are considered to be at high risk of severe illness from COVID-19 (https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/guidance-on-shielding-and-protecting-extremely-vulnerable-persons-from-covid-19/guidance-on-shielding-and-protecting-extremely-vulnerable-persons-from-covid-19#cev); these patients should also be flagged on the GP system. A hospital clinician or GP can also add a patient to the list, based on their clinical judgement, because they consider them to be at very high risk of serious illness from COVID-19.

Many individuals considered extremely clinically vulnerable are in the oldest age groups and will be among the first to receive vaccine. Given the level of risk seen in this group as a whole, the remainder of this group should be offered vaccine alongside those 70-74 years of age. There are two key exceptions to this, pregnant women with heart disease and children under 16 years of age. Advice on vaccination in pregnancy and in children is set out below.
Provisional guidance subject to MHRA approval of vaccine supply

All Clinically Extremely Vulnerable (CEV) patients are also expected to also be included in the definitions in table 3. and this flagging is updated regularly. Therefore, any patients who change status with respect to their CEV status during the roll out of the programme should also be called in their appropriate age cohort, or in priority group 6.

Evidence suggests that risk of serious COVID-19 disease is strongly related to age, and risk of COVID-19 mortality is low in those aged under 40 years, even for individuals with clinical risk factors. The lower age for vaccination of these groups has therefore been aligned with the terms of the approval for the supply of the Pfizer-BioNTech vaccine, reflecting the available safety data for this particular vaccine.

Table 3 Clinical risk groups 16 years of age and over who should receive COVID-19 immunisation.

| Chronic respiratory disease | Individuals with a severe lung condition, including those with asthma that requires continuous or repeated use of systemic steroids or with previous exacerbations requiring hospital admission, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) including chronic bronchitis and emphysema; bronchiectasis, cystic fibrosis, interstitial lung fibrosis, pneumoconiosis and bronchopulmonary dysplasia (BPD). |
| Chronic heart disease and vascular disease | Congenital heart disease, hypertension with cardiac complications, chronic heart failure, individuals requiring regular medication and/or follow-up for ischaemic heart disease. This includes individuals with atrial fibrillation, peripheral vascular disease or a history of venous thromboembolism. |
| Chronic kidney disease | Chronic kidney disease at stage 3, 4 or 5, chronic kidney failure, nephrotic syndrome, kidney transplantation. |
| Chronic liver disease | Cirrhosis, biliary atresia, chronic hepatitis. |
| Chronic neurological disease | Stroke, transient ischaemic attack (TIA). Conditions in which respiratory function may be compromised due to neurological disease (e.g. polio syndrome sufferers). This includes individuals with cerebral palsy, severe or profound learning disabilities, Down’s Syndrome, multiple sclerosis, epilepsy, dementia, Parkinson’s disease, motor neurone disease and related or similar conditions; or hereditary and degenerative disease of the nervous system or muscles; or severe neurological disability. |
| Diabetes mellitus | Any diabetes, including diet-controlled diabetes. |
| Immunosuppression | Immunosuppression due to disease or treatment, including patients undergoing chemotherapy leading to immunosuppression, patients undergoing radical radiotherapy, solid organ transplant recipients, bone marrow or stem cell transplant recipients, HIV infection at all stages, multiple myeloma or genetic disorders affecting the immune system (e.g. IRAK-4, NEMO, complement disorder, SCID). Individuals who are receiving immunosuppressive or immunomodulating biological therapy including, but not limited to, anti-TNF, alemtuzumab, ofatumumab, rituximab, patients receiving protein kinase inhibitors or PARP inhibitors, and individuals treated with steroid sparing agents such as cyclophosphamide and mycophenolate mofetil. Individuals treated with or likely to be treated with systemic steroids for more than a month at a dose equivalent to prednisolone at 20mg or more per day (any age). Anyone with a history of haematological malignancy, including leukaemia, lymphoma, and myeloma and those with systemic lupus erythematosus and rheumatoid arthritis, and psoriasis who may require long term immunosuppressive treatments. Some immunosuppressed patients may have a suboptimal immunological response to the vaccine. |
Asplenia or dysfunction of the spleen | This also includes conditions that may lead to splenic dysfunction, such as homozygous sickle cell disease, thalassemia major and coeliac syndrome.
---|---
Morbid obesity | Adults with a Body Mass Index ≥40 kg/m².
Severe mental illness | Individuals with schizophrenia or bipolar disorder, or any mental illness that causes severe functional impairment.
Adult carers | Those who are in receipt of a carer’s allowance, or those who are the main carer of an elderly or disabled person whose welfare may be at risk if the carer falls ill.
Younger adults in long-stay nursing and residential care settings | Many younger adults in residential care settings will be eligible for vaccination because they fall into one of the clinical risk groups above. Given the likely high risk of exposure in these settings, where a high proportion of the population would be considered eligible, vaccination of the whole resident population is recommended. Younger residents in care homes for the elderly will be at high risk of exposure, and although they may be at lower risk of mortality than older residents should not be excluded from vaccination programmes (see priority 1 above). For consideration of children under 16 see below.

The list above is not exhaustive, and the prescriber should apply clinical judgment to take into account the risk of COVID-19 exacerbating any underlying disease that a patient may have, as well as the risk of serious illness from COVID-19 itself. COVID-19 vaccine should be offered in such cases even if the individual is not in the clinical risk groups specified above.

**Recommendations by staff groups**

The objective of occupational immunisation of health and social care staff is to protect workers at high risk of exposure who provide care to vulnerable individuals. Although there is yet no evidence on whether vaccination leads to a reduction in transmission, a small effect may have major additional benefit for staff who could expose multiple vulnerable patients and other staff members. Potential exposure to COVID-19, and therefore the priority for vaccination, may vary from workplace to workplace. Guidance on COVID-19 immunisation that may be appropriate follows.

**Healthcare staff**

All frontline healthcare staff who are eligible for seasonal influenza vaccination should be offered COVID-19 vaccine.

This includes the following groups.

**Staff involved in direct patient care**

This includes staff who have frequent face-to-face clinical contact with patients and who are directly involved in patient care in either secondary or primary care/community settings. This includes doctors, dentists, midwives and nurses, paramedics and ambulance drivers, pharmacists, optometrists, occupational therapists, physiotherapists and radiographers. It should also include those working in independent, voluntary and non-standard healthcare settings such as hospices, and community-based mental health or addiction services. Temporary staff, including those working in the COVID-19 vaccination programme, students, trainees and volunteers who are working with patients must also be included.
Non-clinical staff in secondary or primary care/community healthcare settings
This includes non-clinical ancillary staff who may have social contact with patients but are not directly involved in patient care. This group includes receptionists, ward clerks, porters and cleaners.

Laboratory and pathology staff
Hospital-based laboratory and mortuary staff who frequently handle SARS-CoV-2 or collect or handle potentially infected specimens, including respiratory, gastrointestinal and blood specimens should be eligible as they may also have social contact with patients. This may also include cleaners, porters, secretaries and receptionists in laboratories. Frontline funeral operatives and mortuary technicians / embalmers are both at risk of exposure and likely to spend a considerable amount of time in care homes and hospital settings where they may also expose multiple patients.

Staff working in non-hospital-based laboratory and those academic or commercial research laboratories who handle clinical specimens or potentially infected samples will be able to use effective protective equipment in their work and should be at low risk of exposure.

Social care workers
This would include:

- those working in long-stay residential and nursing care homes or other long-stay care facilities where rapid spread is likely to follow introduction of infection and cause high morbidity and mortality
- social care staff directly involved in the care of their patients or clients
- others involved directly in delivering social care such that they and vulnerable patients/clients are at increased risk of exposure

Young people age 16-18 years, who are employed in, studying or in training for health and social care work should be offered vaccination alongside their colleagues if a suitable vaccine is available. Younger people who are taking part in health and social care work as volunteers, interns or for the purposes of work experience, should make all efforts to avoid exposure to infection; vaccination would not normally be required.

Previous incomplete vaccination
If the course is interrupted or delayed, it should be resumed using the same vaccine but the first dose should not be repeated. There is no evidence on the interchangeability of the COVID-19 vaccines although studies are underway (JCVI, 2020). Therefore, every effort should be made to determine which vaccine the individual received and to complete with the same vaccine. For individuals who started the schedule and who attend for vaccination at a site where the same vaccine is not available, or if the first product received is unknown, it is reasonable to offer a single dose of the locally available product. This option is preferred if the individual is likely to be at immediate high risk or is considered unlikely to attend again. In these circumstances, as both the vaccines are based on the spike protein, it is likely the second dose will help to boost the response to the first dose. For this reason, until additional information becomes available, further doses are not required.

Individuals who are participating in a clinical trial of COVID-19 vaccines who present for vaccination should be referred back to the investigators.
Reinforcing immunisation
Booster doses of COVID-19 vaccine are not yet recommended because the need for, and timing of, boosters has not yet been determined.

Co-administration with other vaccines
Although no data for co-administration of COVID-19 vaccine with other vaccines exists, in the absence of such data first principles would suggest that interference between inactivated vaccines with different antigenic content is likely to be limited (see Chapter 11). Based on experience with other vaccines any potential interference is most likely to result in a slightly attenuated immune response to one of the vaccines. There is no evidence of any safety concerns, although it may make the attribution of any adverse events more difficult.

Because of the absence of data on co-administration with COVID-19 vaccines, it should not be routine to offer appointments to give this vaccine at the same time as other vaccines. Based on current information about the first COVID-19 vaccines being deployed, scheduling should ideally be separated by an interval of at least 7 days to avoid incorrect attribution of potential adverse events.

As both of the early COVID-19 vaccines are considered inactivated (including the non-replicating adenovirus vaccine), where individuals in an eligible cohort present having received another inactivated or live vaccine, COVID-19 vaccination should still be considered. The same applies for other live and inactivated vaccines where COVID-19 vaccination has been received first. In many cases, vaccination should proceed to avoid any further delay in protection and to avoid the risk of the patient not returning for a later appointment. In such circumstances, patients should be informed about the likely timing of potential adverse events relating to each vaccine.

Pregnancy and breastfeeding
There is no known risk associated with giving inactivated, recombinant viral or bacterial vaccines or toxoids during pregnancy or whilst breast-feeding (Kroger A et al., 2013). Since inactivated vaccines cannot replicate, they cannot cause infection in either the mother or the fetus. Although AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine contains a live adenovirus vector, this virus is not replicating so will not cause infection in the mother or the fetus. As with most pharmaceutical products, specific clinical trials of COVID-19 vaccine in pregnancy have not been carried out.

Although the available data do not indicate any safety concern or harm to pregnancy, there is insufficient evidence to recommend routine use of COVID-19 vaccines during pregnancy. The Pfizer BioNTech vaccine is formulated in lipid nanoparticles, and although studies with other mRNA liposome vaccines in non-pregnant animals do not suggest any problem is likely (Bahl K et al 2017, Liang F et al 2017), animal reproductive toxicity studies have not been completed. Whilst testing of the COVID-19 mRNA vaccine in pregnant animals is undertaken, the MHRA has put forward a very precautionary approach. In addition to not vaccinating in pregnancy, MHRA advise that pregnancy should be avoided until 2 months after the second dose of vaccine. They also have advised vaccination should not be given whilst breastfeeding. MHRA have not advised performing a pregnancy test prior to offering vaccination.

JCVI recognises that the MHRA’s advice is based on the absence of evidence in pregnancy, and not on the presence of evidence to implicate toxicity in pregnancy. To appropriately reflect this stance, JCVI have advised that routine questioning about last menstrual period and/or pregnancy testing is not required before offering the vaccine. JCVI have agreed that those...
being invited for vaccination should be able to access this additional advice (for example as a leaflet or by signposting to online information) but their understanding checked as part of the consent process. This will also help to avoid health and care staff having to disclose the fact that they are pregnant or planning pregnancy during mass vaccination sessions in the workplace. Additional measures may need to be considered for potential recipients who are unable to access the information in written or online form.

If a woman finds out she is pregnant after she has started a course of vaccine, she should complete her pregnancy before finishing the recommended schedule. Women at high risk (including health care workers), should be offered vaccine as soon as possible after pregnancy. Termination of pregnancy following inadvertent immunisation should not be recommended. Surveillance of inadvertent administration in pregnancy is being conducted for the UK by the PHE Immunisation Department, to whom such cases should be reported https://www.gov.uk/guidance/vaccination-in-pregnancy-vip.

Children
SARS-CoV-2 vaccine trials have only just begun in children and there are, therefore, very limited data on safety and immunogenicity in this group. Children and young people have a very low risk of COVID-19, severe disease or death due to SARS-CoV-2 compared to adults and so COVID-19 vaccines are not routinely recommended for children and young people under 16 years of age.

There are currently very limited data on clinical risk factors in childhood, but children with neurological comorbidities are over-represented in those who develop severe COVID-19 requiring intensive care and those who die of COVID-19. Given the increased risk of exposure to infection and outbreaks in institutional settings, vaccination may be considered for children with serious neuro-disabilities (including cerebral palsy, severe autism and Down’s syndrome) who spend regular time in specialised residential care settings for children with complex needs. As older children have higher risk of acquiring and becoming sick from infection and there are some safety data on the Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine in children aged 12 years and older, vaccination of older children in these settings should be considered. As this would be outside the terms of the MHRA approval, this would be considered unlicensed use. (https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/supply-unlicensed-medicinal-products-specials)

Recommendations on vaccinating children with other underlying conditions will be reviewed after the initial roll-out phase by which time additional data on use of the vaccines in adults should allow a better assessment of risks and benefits.

Immunosuppression and HIV
Individuals who have immunosuppression and HIV infection (regardless of CD4 count) should be given COVID-19 vaccine in accordance with the recommendations and contraindications above. Although AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine contains a live adenovirus vector, this virus is not replicating and is considered safe in immunosuppressed people. Other adenovirus vector vaccines have been trialled in populations with high prevalence of HIV and shown no serious adverse events (Kennedy et al, 2017). Although individuals with stable treated HIV infection were not excluded from the phase 3 trial of the Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine, data on safety and effectiveness in this group have not been presented.

These individuals may not make a full antibody response and should therefore continue to follow advice to avoid exposure unless they are advised otherwise by their doctor.
Contraindications
There are very few individuals who cannot receive the Pfizer-BioNTech or AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccines. Where there is doubt, rather than withholding vaccination, appropriate advice should be sought from the relevant specialist, or from the local immunisation or health protection team.

The vaccine should not be given to those who have had:

- a confirmed anaphylactic reaction to a previous dose of a COVID-19 vaccine,
- a confirmed anaphylactic reaction to any components of the COVID-19 vaccine

Precautions
Minor illnesses without fever or systemic upset are not valid reasons to postpone immunisation. If an individual is acutely unwell, immunisation may be postponed until they have fully recovered. This is to avoid confusing the differential diagnosis of any acute illness (including COVID-19) by wrongly attributing any signs or symptoms to the adverse effects of the vaccine.

There is no evidence of any safety concerns from vaccinating individuals with a past history of COVID-19 infection, or with detectable COVID-19 antibody.

Vaccination of individuals who may be infected or asymptomatic or incubating COVID-19 infection is unlikely to have a detrimental effect on the illness. Vaccination should be deferred in those with confirmed infection to avoid confusing the differential diagnosis. As clinical deterioration can occur up to two weeks after infection, ideally vaccination should be deferred until clinical recovery and at least four weeks after onset of symptoms or four weeks from the first PCR positive specimen in those who are asymptomatic.

Having prolonged COVID-19 symptoms is not a contraindication to receiving COVID-19 vaccine but if the patient is seriously debilitated, still under active investigation, or has evidence of recent deterioration, deferral of vaccination may be considered to avoid incorrect attribution of any change in the person’s underlying condition to the vaccine.

Adverse events
Local reactions at the injection site are fairly common after Pfizer BioNTech COVID-19 vaccine, primarily pain at the injection site, usually without redness and swelling. Systemic events reported were generally mild and short lived (Walsh et al, 2020). In the final safety analysis of over 21,000 participants 16 years and older, the most common events were injection site pain (>80%), fatigue (>60%), and headache (>50%). Myalgia, arthralgia and chills were also common with fever in 10-20%. Most were classified as mild or moderate. Lymphadenopathy was reported in less than 1%.

In an earlier analysis of around 8,000 recipient, severe side effects, defined as those that interfere with daily activity, included fatigue in around 4% and headache in 2%. Older adults tend to report fewer adverse events following vaccination. This earlier analysis also showed no signal for enhanced disease in vaccine recipients with only 1 case of severe COVID in the 8 vaccine failures at that time.

From early phase trials, mild pain and tenderness at the injection site was common with AstraZeneca COVID-19 vaccine occurring in 88% of 18-55 year olds, 73% of 56-69 year olds and 61% of people aged 70 years or over; similar levels were reported after each dose. Short lived systemic symptoms including fatigue and headache were also common but decreased with age, being reported in 86%, 77%, and 65% of those aged 18-55, 56-69 and 70 years or over respectively; most of these were classified as mild or moderate. These reactions were unusual after the second dose (Ramasamy et al, 2020). Mild fever (>38˚C) was recorded in the first 48 hours for around a quarter of younger participants and but was not reported in those over 55 years of age or in any age group after the second dose (Ramasamy et al, 2020). Fever can be modified by the prophylactic use of paracetamol, which does not affect the immune response to this vaccine (Folegatti et al, 2020).

Vaccinated individuals should be advised that the COVID-19 vaccine may cause a mild fever which usually resolves within 48 hours. This is a common, expected reaction and isolation is not required unless COVID-19 is suspected.

**Reporting anaphylaxis and other allergic reactions**

Anaphylaxis is a very rare, recognised side effect of most vaccines and suspected cases should be reported via the Coronavirus Yellow Card Scheme (www.coronavirus-yellowcard.mhra.gov.uk). Chapter 8 of the Green Book gives detailed guidance on distinguishing between faints, panic attacks and the signs and symptoms of anaphylaxis. If a case of suspected anaphylaxis meets the clinical features described in Chapter 8, this should be reported via the Yellow Card Scheme as a case of ‘anaphylaxis’ (or if appropriate ‘anaphylactoid reaction’). Cases of less severe allergic reactions (i.e. not including the clinical features of anaphylaxis) should not be reported as anaphylaxis but as ‘allergic reaction’.

As these vaccines are labelled with a black triangle, all adverse reactions occurring in individuals of any age after vaccination should be reported to the MHRA using the Yellow Card Scheme. Anyone can report a suspected adverse reaction to the Medical and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA) using the Yellow Card reporting scheme (www.yellowcard.gov.uk). Any adverse reaction should also be documented in accordance with local procedures.

**Management of suspected cases and Contacts**

There is currently limited evidence to support the use of COVID-19 vaccines as post-exposure prophylaxis or to interrupt transmission during outbreaks. The use of vaccine to provide direct protection to vulnerable individuals in prolonged community outbreaks should be discussed with the local health protection teams.

Current recommendations for testing and contact tracing and guidance on infection control is regularly updated can be found in the following links: [https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/wuhan-novel-coronavirus](https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/wuhan-novel-coronavirus)


[https://www.hps.scot.nhs.uk/a-to-z-of-topics/covid-19/](https://www.hps.scot.nhs.uk/a-to-z-of-topics/covid-19/)


Supplies

Covid-19 vaccines for those authorised by the NHS to deliver the programme will be made available for ordering on the ImmForm website https://portal.immform.phe.gov.uk/ telephone 0207 183 8580.

Arrangements in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland may be different, please contact Public Health Agencies in each respective administration for local details.
Provisional guidance subject to MHRA approval of vaccine supply

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