

Early postnatal injections of whole vaccines compared to placebo controls: Differential behavioural outcomes in mice

Housam Eidi, Janice Yoo, Suresh Bairwa, Michael Kuo, Eric Sayre, Lucija Tomljenovic, Christopher Shaw

▶ To cite this version:

Housam Eidi, Janice Yoo, Suresh Bairwa, Michael Kuo, Eric Sayre, et al.. Early postnatal injections of whole vaccines compared to placebo controls: Differential behavioural outcomes in mice. Journal of Inorganic Biochemistry, 2020, 212, pp.111200. 10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2020.111200. anses-03080307

HAL Id: anses-03080307 https://anses.hal.science/anses-03080307v1

Submitted on 17 Oct 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

1 Early postnatal injections of whole vaccines compared to placebo controls:

2 differential behavioral outcomes in mice

- 3 Housam Eidi^{1*}, Janice Yoo^{1*}, Suresh C. Bairwa^{1*}, Michael Kuo¹, Eric C. Sayre², Lucija
- 4 Tomljenovic¹, and Christopher A. Shaw^{1,3,4}
- 5
- ¹ Neural Dynamics Research Group, Department of Ophthalmology and Visual Sciences,
 University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada
- ²Arthritis Research Canada, Richmond, BC, Canada.
- ³ Program in Experimental Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British
 Columbia, Canada
- ⁴ Program in Neuroscience, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia,
 Canada
- 13
- 14 *** These authors contributed equally to the present work
- 15
- 16 *Corresponding author: housam.eidi@gmail.com
- 17

18 Abstract

The present study was designed to evaluate the possible effects of the paediatric 19 vaccination schedule in the United States on the central nervous system in a murine 20 model. We compared the impact of treatment with the whole vaccines versus true 21 22 placebo control. Seventy-six pups were divided into three groups: two vaccinated groups and unvaccinated control. The two vaccinated groups were treated between 7 23 and 21 post-natal days either with one or three times of the vaccine doses per body 24 weight as used in children between newborn and eighteen months of age. The post-25 vaccination development, neuromotor behaviours and neurobehavioural 26 abnormalities (NBAs) were evaluated in all mouse groups during the 67 post-natal 27 weeks of mouse age. Mouse body weight was affected only in the vaccinated females 28 compared to males and control. Some NBAs such as decreased sociability, increased 29 anxiety-like behaviours, and alteration of visual-spatial learning and memory were 30 observed in vaccinated male and female mice compared to controls. The present study 31 also shows a slower acquisition of some neonatal reflexes in vaccinated female mice 32 compared to vaccinated males and controls. The observed neurodevelopmental 33 alterations did not show a linear relationship with vaccine dose, suggesting that the 34 single dose gave a saturated response. The outcomes seemed to be sex-dependent and 35 transient with age. 36

- 37
- **Keywords:** *vaccine, neurodevelopment, behavioural tests, neurobehavioural abnormalities.*
- 39 40
- \odot 2020 published by Elsevier. This manuscript is made available under the CC BY NC user license https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/

41 **1. Introduction**

Most countries in the developed world tend to recommend the same general types 42 of vaccines for paediatric use. However, absolute vaccination schedules vary from 43 country to country. In the United States and Canada, for example, the influenza vaccine 44 is recommended for everyone over 6 months of age, while in France this vaccine is 45 targeted to those over 65 years of age and to special groups such as people with serious 46 medical conditions. Some vaccines are not included in the UK routine program, but are 47 in other countries. For example, the chickenpox (varicella) vaccine is recommended 48 49 routinely in Australia and the United States, but not in the UK [1].

The number of vaccines given under the U. S. vaccine schedule has grown substantially since 1990 making it one of the highest mandated vaccine schedules in the world for children under 5 years old (36 vaccinations, double the Western world average of 18 in 2009) [2].

54 Some reports suggest that excessive immune stimulation can lead to autoimmune conditions and/or changes in the central nervous system (CNS) structure or function 55 during early development [3-5]. One way this may occur is due to the use of various 56 aluminum (Al) adjuvants which have been linked to diseases of the autoimmune-57 58 inflammatory syndrome induced by adjuvants (ASIA) [6]. A chronic condition, termed macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF), [7] occurs primarily in adult women following 59 vaccination with aluminium oxyhydroxide adjuvant containing vaccines. Autoimmune 60 disorders linked to some vaccines and adjuvant treatments have also been reported in 61 animal studies [8-17], supporting some outcomes seen in human studies. 62

63 Many recent studies have underscored the tight connection between the 64 development of the immune system and the CNS and thus the plausibility that 65 disruption of critical events in immune development may play a role in 66 neurobehavioural disorders [18,19].

In regard to particular vaccines, Li *et al* have shown that neonatal vaccination in rats with the hepatitis B vaccine alters hippocampal synaptic plasticity [20]. These data have been confirmed in mice by the same group showing that early hepatitis B vaccination induces neurobehavioural abnormalities and interferes with brain development, particularly hippocampal neurogenesis [21,22].

Ongoing reports from human studies suggest an increase in the prevalence of
neurodevelopmental disorders [23,24] in developed countries, particularly the U.S., U.K.,
Canada and Australia which various authors attribute to vaccines, adjuvants, or both
[25,26].

Various studies have shown that some past and present paediatric vaccine
constituents such as mercury [27], Al [22,28-31] and formalin are neurotoxic and have
been associated with adverse neurological and immune outcomes in animal models
[9,32-35].

Masson *et al* have recently documented that the three available studies on Al adjuvant toxicokinetics [36-38] suffer from serious conceptual and methodological weaknesses [39]. In this context, Gherardi *et al* have recently emphasised the fact that animal studies are a key step toward a better understanding potential vaccine and Al adjuvant adverse effects [40].

Experimental evidence also shows that when individually administered in vaccine-85 relevant amounts for human exposure, Al is capable of causing serious adverse and 86 persistent neuroimmune outcomes in animal models [8,9,41-45]. Moreover, substantial 87 88 evidence suggests that Al vaccine adjuvants are strongly linked to CNS disorders and a 89 variety of autoimmune/inflammatory conditions in human adults [6,22,33,34,46-51]. Since children receive much more Al (and others vaccine constituents) from the vaccination 90 schedule per kg of body weight than adults, they may be at greater risk of auto 91 immunity and vaccine-related adverse effects based solely on dose [22,33,52]. 92

It is also important to recognize that the route of administration of most vaccines, namely via intramuscular (*i.m*) or subcutaneous (*s.c*) injection, considerably lowers the threshold doses of toxic constituents capable of causing harm compared to oral administrations of the same compound in diet or water [53-55]. Furthermore, the vaccine Al administration is considered as an acute exposure and an infant's physiology will react differently to such exposure to a high concentration of Al over a short period as compared to the Al diet intake [56].

In part as a consequence of the overall benefits and success of vaccination, any 100 associated adverse effects may tend to be overlooked or trivialized by public health 101 102 authorities. Additionally, it should be mentioned that potential oversights in vaccine safety trials may arise since the FDA considers vaccines to be biologics, not drugs. This 103 categorization has typically led to a relatively short surveillance period (days to weeks) 104 for possible adverse outcomes. Another issue that needs to be addressed is that in most 105 clinical vaccine trials "controls" are not typically true placebo controls, but rather 106 107 another vaccine or the Al adjuvant used for the vaccine in question [57].

108 With the above points considered, presumptions about vaccine safety should be 109 supported by appropriate scientific evidence as urged in 2004 by the WHO Global 110 Advisory Committee [58]. In this context, concerns about the overall safety of current 111 childhood vaccination programs are worthy of further investigation.

112 Our current study aims to investigate, in a murine model using newly born pups, 113 the impact of the combined U.S. paediatric vaccination schedule on reflex development, 114 neuro- and motor behaviours (including social interactions), anxiety, memory, and 115 cognitive functions.

116

117 2. Materials and Methods

118 2.1. Animals, breeding and experimental groups

All experimental procedures on mice were approved by the University of British Columbia's Animal Care Committee (protocol #A16-0125 and #A16-0052 for breeding and experimental procedures, respectively) and were in compliance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care regulations and guidelines.

Sixteen female and eight male C57BL/6 breeders purchased from Jackson Laboratory 123 were used with one male mating with two females. Female and male mice were six and 124 five weeks old, respectively. The weight averages of the received breeder males and 125 females were 20 and 18 g, respectively. The females and males were housed separately 126 for one week of acclimatization in a room with an ambient temperature of 22 °C and with 127 128 a 14/10 h light/dark cycle. Purina mouse chow and water were available to mice ad libitum. After impregnation, the females were separated from males and monitored 129 closely for the parturition date which was considered in the following to be postnatal day 130 (PND) 0. Pregnant female mice were housed individually after the second week of 131 gestation. A total of 76 pups (twelve litters) were obtained from our mouse breeding 132 protocol. Pups were divided into two experimental groups and one control group of 4 133 litters each (see Table S1 for vaccine types and details): *i*) vaccine group (V1): 25 mice (11 134 males and 14 females), *ii*) vaccine×3 group (V3): 25 mice (13 males and 12 females), and 135 136 *iii*) control group: 26 mice (19 males and 7 females). *i*) V1 group: mice vaccinated with mouse weight equivalent of the current U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 137 (CDC) paediatric vaccination schedule for newborn to 18 months old infants *ii*) V3 group: 138 mice vaccinated with, the mouse weight equivalent of a triple dose of the U.S. paediatric 139 schedule, i.e., at PND7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 18 & 21, the mice pups received triple of each vaccine 140 141 dose (combined in one shot), and iii) saline control group: mice injected with the same total volume of phosphate buffered saline (PBS). 142

In terms of comparison to humans, in mouse or rat pups a postnatal period of 4 to 21 days corresponds roughly to the period of human neurodevelopment from late gestation to the first one to two years after birth [59]. Based on several papers assessing the impact of administration of various well known neuro- and immune-toxicants in early postnatal periods of heightened developmental vulnerability in comparative rodent models [60,61], we have calculated what we consider to be reasonable mouse-age equivalence (see the Table S1) given that mice live only about 2 years [40].

At PND 22, pups were weaned and males were separated from females. Mouseweights were measured weekly throughout the study.

152 All behavioural tests and weighing started at PND7 to minimize any intervention 153 that can adversely affect maternal behaviour.

154 2.2. Vaccine administration

Animals were injected according to the U.S. CDC 2017 recommended vaccination schedule for preschool children shown in Table S1. A total of 21 injections of eight paediatric vaccines were administered by *i.m* or *s.c* injections according to the vaccine manufacturer's instructions. The Rotateq vaccine was administered orally. The pups were

weighed in the morning of the scheduled injection days and, based on the average of 159 measured weights, the corresponding vaccine doses per body weight were calculated 160 regardless of the human/mouse conversion (as the latter takes into consideration the 161 differences between mouse and the human metabolism). The total *i.m* and *s.c* injected 162 volume of vaccine dilutions in PBS was adjusted to 10µl total volume per administration. 163 Vaccines were *s.c* injected in mice into the "scruff" to achieve an *s.c*-like injection in mice, 164 or via *i.m* injections into the left or right tibialis anterior muscles and/or the right and left 165 caudal thigh muscle. Thus, we sought to mimic as closely as possible human infant 166 vaccination as regards the mode of vaccine administration. 167

168 The same volumes of PBS were injected in mice of saline control group in the same manner as any of the scheduled vaccines. The oral administrations were conducted 169 gently putting 10 µl of the vaccine suspension inside the pup mouth using a micropipette 170 and sterile plastic tips ensuring that all the droplets were consumed. 171

Mouse pups were observed for general health and behaviour immediately after 172 injections to ensure that there were no overt signs of adverse effects, such as tremors, 173 seizures, or respiratory problems. Following treatments, pups were returned to their 174 home cages. 175

176

177 2.3. Mouse weights

Mouse body weights were monitored weekly during the post-weaning period from 178 four to 67 weeks of mouse age. 179

180

2.4. Behavioural tests 181

In each test, the experimenter conducting the tests was blinded to the identity of the 182 animals from all treatment groups. All behavioural tests were done between 9 am and 5 183 pm. No specific order was followed in animals testing since the experiments were 184 randomized and blinded. 185

- Table 1 summarizes all the behavioural tests conducted in this study. 186
- 187

Table 1. Summary of pre- and post-weaning behavioural tests. The same number of 188 mice was used for all tests, namely a total of 76 pups divided into two experimental 189 groups and one control group of 4 litters each. 190

Behaviour test	Age of mice	Elements to be checked	Main parameters analyzed		
	Pre	e-weaning tests			
Reflex righting	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, and	Reflex	The time to right onto all 4 paws		
(RR)	15 days	development and	from the supine position		
		neuromotor			

Cliff avoidance	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15,	abilities	The time to turn 180° away from			
(CA)	16, 17, 18, 21, and 22		the cliff face			
	days					
Negative geotaxis	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15,		Time to turn 180° to face			
(NG)	16, 17, and 18 days		upward from the downward			
			position			
	Pos	st-weaning tests				
Open field (OF)	OF 1: Week 6-7	General	Distance moved; velocity;			
	OF 2: Week 28-31	locomotion	duration of moving			
	OF 3: Week 48-52					
Social interaction	SIT 1: Week 8-17	Social recognition	Frequency of entering each			
test (SIT)	SIT 2: Week 43-47	skills	chamber; duration in each			
			chamber			
Light dark box	LDB 1: Week 20-22	Anxiety-like	Duration in dark box			
(LDB)	LDB 2: Week 36-39	behaviour				
Novel object	NOR 1: Week 28-31	Learning and	Discrimination ratio			
recognition	NOR 2: Week 48-52	recognition				
(NOR)		memory				
Barnes maze	Week 56-67	Visual-spatial	Primary latency; primary error;			
(BM)		learning and	total latency; total error; search			
		memory	strategy			

193 2.4.1. Pre-weaning tests for developmental milestones

The pre-weaning tests were carried out as described by Cole *et al* [60]. Briefly, pups were tested for reflex development and neuromotor abilities using tests of reflex righting (RR), cliff avoidance (CA) and negative geotaxis (NG). Reflex tests were commenced in the morning and concluded at least one hour before injections. All pups were tested in a room separated from their mothers.

All the pre-weaning tests were started at PND7 and pups were tested daily. In the RR test, the pups were placed in a supine position and the time it took them to right themselves onto all four paws was measured. This test was continued with one trial per day until the mice met the criterion of a 3-second latency or less for two consecutive days.

The CA test was measured using a flat plexiglass surface raised to a height of 23 cm above a lab laboratory bench. Each pup was placed with their front paws and snout over the edge and the time to turn 180° away from the cliff face was recorded. The CA test was measured daily until the mice achieved a 6-second latency or less for two consecutive days.

For the NG test, the pups were placed head-downward on a 30° mesh incline and the time it took them to turn 180° to face upward was measured. Mice were tested daily until they achieved a 6-second latency or less for two consecutive days. For all reflex tests, if the mice did not complete the task within 30 seconds, the test was terminated and the mice were scored as "criterion not achieved" and returned to their home cages. The orders of reflex testing for each day consisted of CA followed by NG and then RR with a rest period of at least 15 minutes between tests.

- 215
- 216 2.4.2. Post-weaning tests

By using a battery of post-weaning behaviour tests, we tested for behavioural abnormalities including impaired social interaction, anxiety-like behaviours, and memory deficits. At least a break of two weeks was given to each animal before each new test.

The open field test was conducted at one month of age (OF1) and repeated two times in order to analyze mouse locomotor activity as a control of other behavioural tests. During the OF test, distance moved, velocity, and duration of movement were evaluated.

- 223
- 224 2.4.2.1 Social interaction test

The Social interaction test (SIT) was designed to assess components of social affiliation, social recognition [62]. The SIT apparatus is illustrated in Figure 3. The SIT was conducted twice (SIT1 and SIT2, see Table 1). In both SIT1 and SIT2, the number of mice to be tested was greater than the number that could reasonably be tested in any one day. For this reason, mice from different treatment groups were assigned randomly to different days of testing.

The SIT took around two months to complete (2-4 months of age) given the large number tested animals and the time involved (~40 min/animal/day for 3 days). This delay period is also due to personnel and other logistic considerations.

Habituation: A test mouse was placed in the middle chamber and allowed to explore for 10 minutes with the doorways open into the side chambers open. Each of the two side chambers contained an empty wire cage. The time spent in each side chamber was measured to confirm the absence of a side preference bias for either of the side chambers.

238 Sociability: After the habituation session, the test mouse was transferred to a temporary cage and an unfamiliar mouse (stranger 1) was enclosed in one of the wire 239 cages and placed in one of the side chambers. Stranger animals were sex and age-240 matched C57BL/6J mice with no previous contact with the subjects after birth. The 241 animals serving as strangers were habituated to the wire cages in the test box for 10 242 minutes per day for 5 days before the start of SIT. During the test, the location for the 243 stranger alternated between the left and right sides of the test box with different animals 244 tested. Following placement of stranger, the test animal was put back into the middle 245 chamber and allowed to explore the entire box for 10 minutes. A Noldus Ethovision 246 system (Noldus Information Technology, Seattle, WA) was used to automatically score 247 248 the frequency of entering the center, left and right chambers and time spent in each 249 chamber.

251 2.4.2.2 Light dark box test

The Light dark box (LDB) test provides a means of examining anxiety-like 252 behaviours. The LDB paradigm is based on the innate aversion of mice to brightly 253 illuminated areas and on their spontaneous exploratory behaviour applying mild 254 stressors, namely a novel environment and light [63]. This test was performed in a 255 standard two-compartment chamber as described previously [64]. The LDB test was 256 conducted twice with an interval of four months, at 4-5 months and repeated at 8-9 257 months of mouse age (LDB1 and LDB2, respectively) with the same randomization of 258 259 tested mice as cited above. The dark box insert was made of black Perspex designed to 260 cover one third of the area of the activity chamber (45 cm X 30 cm X 21 cm) with a 7 cm × 7 cm hole placed in the middle of the wall at floor level. At the beginning of the test, the 261 test subject was placed in the light box facing the wall farthest apart from the dark box. 262 Mice were allowed to move freely between two chambers for 10 minutes. Time spent in 263 the dark box was automatically scored by the EthoVision system. 264

265 266

2.4.2.3 Novel object recognition test

The novel object recognition (NOR) test is based on the spontaneous tendency of rodents to spend more time exploring a novel object than a familiar one [65] (see Figure S.3a). The NOR test was used to evaluate cognition, particularly recognition memory, in rodent models of CNS disorders [66].

Mice were tested at 5-6 months of age with randomization as above. Three test 271 sessions (habituation, familiarization, and recognition) were conducted on three 272 273 consecutive days. Twenty-four hours before the familiarization phase, the mice were 274 habituated to the open field for 5 minutes (day 1). In the habituation phase, the open field tests 2 and 3 (OF2 and OF3) were conducted to analyze the locomotor activity of mice as a 275 control of NOR and other tests. During the familiarization session (day 2), two identical 276 objects, either a tower of Lego® bricks or a Falcon tissue culture flask, were placed 277 278 approximately 5 cm from the wall and 20 cm away from each other (symmetrically) and then the individual animal was allowed to explore them for 5 minutes [65]. The pair of 279 objects was randomized between each mouse tested. Exploration of an object was defined 280 as directing the nose to the object at a distance of less than 2 cm and/or touching it with 281 the nose and rearing at the object. Turning around or sitting near the object was not 282 considered as an exploratory behaviour. The minimal exploration time for both objects 283 during the familiarization phase (~20 s) was used to ensure a similar exploration time of 284 the two identical objects and between animals. During the recognition phase (day 3), one 285 of the familiar objects used in the previous phase was replaced by a novel object. After 286 this, the animals were placed back into the box and allowed to explore the objects for 5 287 minutes. During the familiarization and recognition sessions, video recordings were 288 made by a camera placed above the arena and video analysis was done manually by an 289 experimenter who was blinded to the treatment groups. We measured the absolute time 290

spent exploring each object during each session. A discrimination ratio (DR), an index of the amount of time spent exploring the unfamiliar object over the total time spent exploring both objects, was used to measure recognition memory (DR = time spent with the novel object / total exploring time).

295

296 2.4.2.4 Barnes maze

The Barnes maze (BM) test was designed for testing visual-spatial learning and memory in rats and mice [67]. This dry-land maze was made of two circular platform elevated at the height of 87 cm (Figure S.1). The maze was placed near the corner in the test room and extra-maze visual cues were placed around the maze so mice could use them as references and learn the position of the escape hole. Two 100-watts fluorescent bulbs facing towards the maze were used as aversive stimuli.

The Barnes test consisted of four phases: adaptation, acquisition, 1st probe trial and 2nd 303 probe trial. Adaption was a pre-acquisition phase in which a mouse was allowed to 304 explore the maze for 3 min, after which the mouse was guided towards the escape hole 305 and allowed to enter and sit in the box for 2 min. Thus, the mice became familiar with the 306 maze and they know that there is an escape hole in the apparatus environment. In the 307 308 acquisition phase, mice were trained four times a day with 15 min interval for four days. Mice were kept in their home cage until the end of their test and were allowed to 309 habituate in the testing room for 30 min before test onset. Before the start of each test, the 310 tested mouse was placed in the center of the maze in a black round start box for 10 sec. 311 When the training started, the box was lifted and mouse was allowed to explore the 312 313 platform for 3 min. Mice were allowed to stay in the box for 1 min before being placed in their home cages. The test ended when mice entered the escape box or after 3 min had 314 elapsed. The top platform was rotated and wiped with 70% ethanol after each test in 315 order to minimize intra-maze cues and residual olfactory cues. The escape box was 316 thoroughly cleaned with 70% ethanol for removing any residual mouse scent. 317

318 Five parameters were measured in the Barnes test (Figure S.2): primary latency, primary error, total latency, total error, and the search strategy used. Primary latency was 319 the time taken when a mouse first encountered the escape hole. The primary error was 320 the number of incorrect holes the mouse sniffed or turned its head towards before finding 321 the escape hole. Sometimes mice did not enter the escape hole after finding it and 322 continued to explore the maze. The total latency was the time taken to fully enter in the 323 hole. The total error was the number of holes searched before entering the escape hole. 324 The search strategies were the patterns that mice utilized during the search of the escape 325 hole. We distinguished among three types of search strategy: *i*) Serial, at least two holes 326 were searched before finding the target hole and searching was done in a serial fashion 327 328 hole by hole, clockwise or counter clockwise. *ii*) Direct (spatial), directly heading to the 329 escape hole or visiting one adjacent hole was done after visiting to one adjacent hole. *iii*) 330 Mixed, unorganized search of the escape hole or searching holes by crossing through the331 center of the maze.

The 1st probe trial was done on day 5 after the last acquisition training to test shortterm retention memory. The 2nd probe trial was done on day 12 to test long-term retention memory. Each test was recorded by a camera placed on top of the maze and recordings were made with Noldus Ethovision tracking software.

The mice were observed for any aggression-like behaviours, such as the barbering,through the study.

338

339 2.5. Statistical analyses

The numbers of mice used were based on power analysis with additional mice added 340 in order to account for unexpected morbidity and mortality due to both study and non-341 study conditions. In the present study, 24-26 animals were used per treatment group. In 342 developmental studies assessing the impact of developmental xenobiotics in rodent 343 models, typically 2 to 11 litters were used per experimental group [60,68-70]. Therefore, we 344 opted for four litters per group to satisfy both a sufficient number of individual animals 345 and litters in consideration. Furthermore, the power analysis (nQuery Advisor 5.0 power 346 347 analysis software, Los Angeles, CA) showed that when the sample size in each of the experimental groups is 10, a one-way analysis of variance will have 95% power to detect 348 significance at the 0.05 level. In the present study, the total number in all experiment 349 groups is more than 20 female and male mice (see the Section 3.1). 350

In all models, generalized estimating equations (GEE) were used to account for 351 potential correlations among animals of the same litter. To assess model fit 352 (appropriateness of GEE specification), we compared working correlation specifications 353 exchangeable versus independence, and independence had the lowest quasi information 354 criterion (QIC), absolute lowest in the majority of models, <1 above in a minority of 355 models and hence considered not substantially different. Therefore GEE models were fit 356 357 with the independence correlation structure. This also served as confirmation that treating individual animals as the experimental unit (and not litters) in the final models 358 was appropriate (i.e., no litter effect). 359

360<u>Pre-weaning tests</u>: We modeled latency vs. treatment (reference=control). Kaplan361Meier curves were used to characterize time to complete tests, stratified by treatment.362Log-rank tests were performed for pair-wise comparisons between the curves for363treatment pairs vs. control group. A *p-value* of < 0.05 was considered significant.</td>

Mouse weights: We fit models predicting body weight at week 67 postnatal age. Additionally, the curve models of mouse body weights were fit to help assess possible differences in growth rates, even with the assumption that mice may end up the same weight.

In pre-weaning tests and mouse weights measurements, all of the GEE models were repeated in the whole sample, as well as males and females separately. A litter effect was deemed unimportant in the GEE models as assessed by QIC statistics. Therefore, GEE models were fit via the independence structure. A *p-value* of < 0.05 was considered significant.

<u>Post-weaning tests</u>: In the three model sets described below (SIT, LDB, and NOR), we
 compared GEE working correlation specifications exchangeable versus independence,
 and independence had the lowest QIC. Therefore, GEE models were fit with the
 independence correlation structure. A *p-value* of <0.05 was considered significant.

- SIT: The SIT data analyses were based on the fact that, in animal models, 377 sociability is a binary yes/no phenotype ("social"/"non social") that can be evaluated by 378 379 comparing the duration in the two chambers of the SIT apparatus within each group. Furthermore, SIT is not a graded parameter for quantitatively comparing chamber times 380 across groups [71]. Thus, no comparison among treatment groups was made during 381 analysis of the social interaction test data as suggested by the original developer of this 382 test [71]. We used logistic regression to compare sex and/or treatment groups on the odds 383 of asocial behaviours (e.g., longer duration spent in empty cage vs. with a stranger). 384

- LDB: Poisson regression models were used to compare sex and/or treatment groups 385 on the number of full body transitions, and linear regression models were used to 386 387 compare groups on their time spent in the dark box and the latency to enter the dark box. In the Poisson models, exponentiated regression coefficients were count ratios, or factors, 388 by which the expected counts differed from the reference expected counts. We reported 389 p-values and confidence intervals around the count ratios. Residuals from the linear 390 models were plotted in normal quantile-quantile plots (QQ-plots) and demonstrated 391 392 adequate normality.

- NOR: We modeled discrimination ratio (DR) with linear regression. In the linear
 models, regression coefficients estimated the additive differences in expected duration in
 each level compared to the reference categories, along with p-values and confidence
 intervals around the differences. Residuals from the linear models were plotted in normal
 QQ-plots, and demonstrated adequate normality.

BM: we performed day to day comparisons, by treatment; treatment comparisons,
by day; interaction models for treatment by day. We repeated these on all data, females,
and males, and all the above on all four outcomes (primary errors, primary latency, total
errors, total latency). We repeated all the above again but using days 5 and 12 data only,
with reference day 5 (primary errors and primary latency only). Finally, we performed
chi-square tests and cross-tabs between strategy and treatment, stratified by day, and chisquare tests and cross-tabs between strategy and day, stratified by treatment.

Barbering: We performed Fisher's Exact Test to test whether barbering was related to either sex or each treatment group (*vs.* control). In the latter, we analyzed both overall, and stratified the results by sex.

408 All statistical analyses were performed using SAS v9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, North 409 Carolina).

411 **3. Results**

- 412
- 413 3.1. Overall mouse development
- 414 No abnormal maternal behaviours were observed. No leg limp or motor disabilities 415 caused by the *i.m* injections were observed in any animals.
- 416
- 417 3.2 Mouse weight

Both experimental groups started off at the similar body weight but increased at a significantly lower rate compared to controls (Figure 1a). When data were stratified by sex, significant differences in body weight were observed in female mice from the V1 and males from the V1 and V3 group vs controls (Figure 1b and 1c). No significant differences in body weight were observed between the two vaccinated groups (V1 vs V3).



427 Figure 1. The effect of vaccine administration on body weight in mice. Data are
428 expressed as mean ± SD weight of mice between 4 and 67 weeks of age for females and
429 males. ns: no significant difference.

- 430
- 431 3.3. Behavioural tests
- 432 Table 2 summarizes the behaviour outcomes for all of the experiments.

433 434 3.3.1. Pre-weaning tests 435 There were no significant differences among the groups in the development of neonatal 436 reflexes and neuromotor abilities except for the CA reflex (Figure 2). Our data obtained 437 from the cliff avoidance reflex demonstrated that female mice from both treated groups 438 achieved the criteria of this test later than the control group (Figure 2e). However, these 439 differences between treated and control females were significant in V1 (p<0.01) group 440 whereas the differences were insignificant in the V3 group (p=0.054) (Figure 2e).







444 **Figure 2**: Evaluation of neonatal reflexes in pups during the first three weeks of 445 postnatal age. Three pre-weaning tests were conducted: reflex righting (RR), cliff

avoidance (CA) and negative geotaxis (NG). a, d and g: Data from both sexes are
analysed together and stratified by sex (females: b, e and h; males: c, f and i). In the RR
and NG test, no significant difference was observed between mouse groups. e: In the
CA test, female pups from all treated groups achieved the test criteria later than
controls.

451

452 3.3.2. Post-weaning tests

453 Our data of the open field test (OF) showed that there was no difference in 454 locomotor activity between the animals from all groups (data not shown).

455

456 3.3.2.1. Social interaction test

The total exploration time and the percentage of the time spent with the strangermouse are shown in the supplementary data section (Table S.2 and Table S.3).

The administration of a single vaccine in V1 vs the V3 group, in the combined male and female groups, did not affect the mouse sociability (Figure 3a). When data were stratified by sex, the only group that did not achieve significant differences was the male V1 group in the time spent with the stranger 1 vs the empty cage (Figure 3b and c). The data of SIT2 demonstrated that no significant effect on the mouse sociability

464 was observed in any of the groups at 9-10 months of age (Figure 3d-f).



Figure 3. Social skills assessment was conducted twice in mice by the Social Interaction Test (SIT): SIT1 (2 - 4 months of age) and SIT2 (9 - 10 months of age). Sociability differences were expressed by the chamber duration within mouse groups and no comparison was done between treated groups and control. (a, b and d - f) No sociability anomaly was observed in any mouse groups and no differences were seen between males and females as all mice spent significantly more time with the stranger *vs*. the

472 empty cage. (c) Males from the V1 group showed no significant difference between the 473 time spent with the stranger 1 vs the empty cage. **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001.

474

475 3.3.2.2. Light dark box test

At 4-5 months of age, (LDB1), the results showed a significant anxiety increase and 476 a decrease in exploratory behaviour in both treatment groups as they spent more time 477 in the dark chamber (Figure 4a). When the data were stratified by sex, the same results 478 were obtained for the female mice in both treatment groups (Figure 4b). There was 479 480 moreover a sex-dependent effect in the V1 group as only the vaccinated females 481 showed increased anxiety when compared to the unvaccinated controls, while there was no difference between the in the unvaccinated and vaccinated males (V1). In the V3 482 group however, males were also affected and showed significantly increased anxiety 483 (p<0.05), although to a lesser extent than females (p<0.01), compared to unvaccinated 484 animals of the same sex group since male mice need a higher dose of vaccines to 485 experience the effect as compared to females (Figure 4b and c). When this test was 486 repeated at 8-9 months of mice age (LDB2), no significant difference was observed 487 between two treated groups and the control (Figure 4d-f). 488

In both LDB tests, no significant differences were observed between V1 and V3 groups (Figure 4a-f). The numbers of entries in the dark and light box and the percentage of time spent in each box of LDB1 and LDB2 are shown in Table S.4 and S.5.





Figure 4. Anxiety and exploratory behaviour evaluation by the light dark box (LDB) test. The LDB test was conducted twice: at 4-5 and 8-9 months of age (LDB1 and LDB2, respectively). (**a**) LDB1: All treated groups showed a significant increase in the spent time in the dark chamber. (**b** and **c**) Females from all treated groups and only males from the V3 groups spent more time in the dark chamber compared to controls. (**d**,*e*,*f*) LDB2: No significant difference was observed between treated groups and control when the data were stratified by sex. **p*<0.05 and ***p*<0.01 *vs.* control.

- 500
- 501 3.3.2.3. Novel object recognition test

502 NOR1 and NOR2 data showed that no negative effect on the recognition memory 503 was observed in any group compared to controls (see the supplementary data section: Figure S.3). The increased DR values, as compared to control, observed in NOR1 in V1
group females (Figure S.3c) and in NOR2 in V1 group males (Figure S.3g) are
considered as "normal" recognition memory.

507

508 3.3.2.4. Barnes maze test

509 See the supplementary data section (Figure S.4, S.5, S.6 and S.7)

510

511 3.3.2.4.1. Acquisition phase

512 *Primary latency and primary errors*

513 During the 4 days of acquisition training, a significant reduction in primary latency 514 in both sexes combined (Figure S.4a) on day 4 compared with day 1 was observed in the 515 control and the both treatment groups (p<0.001). Similarly, when stratified by sex, both 516 treatment groups in female and male mice showed a significant reduction in primary 517 latency on day 4 compared with day 1 (p≤0.001) (Figure S.4b and S.4c). When compared 518 with the control on day 4, V1 group in both sexes combined (Figure S.4a) and in male 519 mice (Figure S.4c) showed significant decrease in primary latency (p<0.05).

Primary errors in control and both the treatment groups showed a significant 520 521 decrease ($p \le 0.001$) when both sexes combined (Figure S.4d) on day 4 compared with day 1 which was similarly observed in all the groups of male mice ($p \le 0.01$; Figure S.4f). 522 During the 4-day acquisition trial in female mice, only control and V1 group showed a 523 significant reduction in primary errors on day 4 compared with day 1 (p<0.001), while 524 V3 females showed no significant reduction (Figure S.4e). No significant difference was 525 526 observed in both treatment groups compared to control on day 4 (Figure S.4d, S.4e and 527 S.4f).

528 529

Total latency and total errors

The total latency was significantly decreased (*p*<0.001) on day 4 compared with day 530 531 1 in control and in the two treatment groups in both sexes combined over the 4 days of the acquisition training period (Figure S.5a). Similarly, when separated by sex, all the 532 groups of female (Figure S.5b) and male mice (Figure S.5c) showed a significant 533 reduction in total latency ($p \le 0.001$). Total errors were likewise reduced significantly in 534 control and all the treatment groups on day 4 compared with day 1 during 4 days of the 535 acquisition training in both sexes combined ($p \leq 0.01$) (Figure S.5d). When stratified by 536 sex, control and V1 groups of female mice made significant improvements in total 537 errors (p<0.001; (Figure S.5e) on day 4. During the 4 days of acquisition training, control 538 and V3 groups in male mice showed a significant reduction in total errors on day 4 539 compared with day 1 ($p \le 0.01$) (Figure S.5f). Only female mice from V1 group made 540 significantly more total errors on day 4 compared to control (p<0.001; Figure S.5e). No 541 significant difference in total errors between the treatment groups and the control group 542 was observed on day 4 when both sexes combined and in male mice. 543

545 Search strategies

When stratifying by treatments, the association between strategy and days (1 to 4) 546 was significant in control and the both treatment groups when both sexes combined 547 (*p*<0.001) (Figure S.6a) and separated (female: *p*<0.05; Figure S.6b, male: *p*<0.001: Figure 548 S.6c). As the experiment progressed (from day 1 to day 4), mice used the direct strategy 549 more often and the mixed strategy less often in all the groups when both sexes 550 combined and separated. When stratifying by days, the association between strategy 551 552 and treatments was not significant on any day (*p*>0.05). The same results were also seen 553 in the female (Figure S.6b) and male mice (Figure S.6c).

- 554
- 555

3.3.2.4.2. Short- and long-term memory retention

556 During the 1st (short-term) and 2nd (long-term) probe trial (day 5 and 12 after the last 557 acquisition training, respectively), mice in both vaccine groups when both sexes 558 combined (Figure S.7a) as well as females separately from males (Figure S.7b) did not 559 show any significant improvement in primary latency compared to control on either 560 day 5 or day 12, or compared between day 5 and day 12. However, on day 12, the V3 561 group showed significantly increased primary latency compared to their performance 562 on day 5 (Figure S.7c).

Primary errors on day 5 were not significantly different in all the treatment groups 563 compared to controls (Figure S.7d). On day 12, V1 and V3 group made significantly 564 more primary errors compared with controls (p<0.05) (Figure S.7d). When comparing 565 between the two probe trials, the V3 group had significantly increased primary errors 566 on day 12 in comparison to day 5 (Figure S.7d). When stratified by sex, the data showed 567 that there were no significant difference in primary errors in female (Figure A.7e) and 568 male (Figure S.7f) mice in any of the treatment groups compared to control on day 5 or 569 on day 12. Nor did any group show a difference in primary errors between days 5 and 570 571 12. These results could be due to a sample size issue which could have made the test under-powered to detect this particular difference according to sex. 572

573 574

3.4. Repetitive/aggressive-like behaviours

Barbering, a fur and whiskers tearing behaviour, was clearly observed by the end of 575 the 3rd month of age of vaccinated mice compared to control (Figure 5a-b). Mice from V3 576 showed the highest barbering percentage (16%) followed by V1 group (12%) at 10 577 months of age (Figure 5c). However, the statistical analysis of these data showed that 578 there was no significant difference between the two treated groups compared to control. 579 Unlike the treated mice, all mice showing barbering behaviour in the control group 580 were males, representing only 3.85% of this group. Females seemed to be more affected 581 by barbering as the percentage of female barber mice from V1 groups was higher than 582 males with no male barbers in the V1 group (Figure 5c). 583



Figure 5. Barbering was observed in all mouse groups between 3 and 10 months of age.
(a) and (b): Two victim mice of barbering, a female from the V1 group and a male from the V3 group with aggressive fur barbering induced by one (or more) of its cage mates
(a barber mouse) leading to a fur loss in the neck and head area (see the arrows) (c) The percentages of barber mice at 10 months of age: 16% in the V3 group followed by V1 group (12%) and control group (3.85%).

592 Table 2.

- 593 Table 2a. Qualitative summary of the overall vaccine impacts on body weight, reflex development, neuromotor
- 594 behaviours, and neurobehavioural abnormalities in mice.

Group	Sex	Body	Cliff	Negative	Reflex	SIT1	SIT2	LDB	LDB	NOR	NOR	Barber mice
		weight	avoidance	geotaxis	righting			1	2	1	2	(%)
			Reflex develop	pment and neuromotor		Sociability		Anxiety-like		Learning and		Aggressive
				abilities				beha	viour recog		nition	behaviours
										men	nory	
V1	F	\mathbf{S}^{1}	S			Normal		S				
	М	NS ²	NS			Abnormal	Normal	NS				
	F+M	S	NS				•					
V3	F	NS	S			Norm	nal	S				
	М	S	NS		<u> </u>						110	
	F+M	S	NS		5						NS	
		1		1								

595 *LDB*: light dark box test; *NOR*: novel object recognition; *F*: females; *M*: males.

596 1: a statistically significant effect compared to control ($p \le 0.05$).

597 2: no statistically significant effect compared with control (p > 0.05).

598

599 Table 2b. Qualitative summary of the overall vaccine impacts on visual-and spatial learning and memory parameters in

600 the Barnes maze (BM) trial. We qualitatively assessed a "global impact" of the various treatments by giving a point for

601 every tested measure that was significantly altered [72]. Note here that it is normal that latency and errors should decrease

602 significantly over the course of 4 days in the acquisition trial so that the designation "Normal" refers to cases where such

603 decrease was observed. The designation "Increased" represents cases where an increase was observed in either latency

or errors in the vaccinated compared to the control group. The designation "Decreased" on the other hand represents

605 cases where significant decrease in either latency or errors was observed in vaccinated compared to control animals. If

606 however the within-treatment group increases or decreases in latency or error values did not statistically differ from those

observed in the control animals on day 12, they were not counted in the global score (for details see Discussion).

- 608
- 609

BM (visual-spatial learning and memory)											
Group	Sex		Acquisi	tion phase	e trial 1		1 st and 2 nd	Global score			
							(day 5 and day	(Tables 2a and			
			-	-		-	acquisition train	2b)			
		Primary	Primary	Total	Total	Search	Primary latency	Primary errors			
		latency	errors	latency	errors	strategies					
V1	F				Increas			Normal	4		
		Normal			ed**						
	М	Decreased*					Normal		1		
	F+M	Decreased*	Nor	mal				Increased*1	2		
V3	F				Normal	Normal		Normal	2		
	Μ	Normal					Normal ⁺		2		
	F+M						Normal	Increased*2+	3		

610 * a statistical significant effect compared with control ($p \le 0.05$).

611 ** a statistical significant effect compared with control ($p \le 0.001$).

612 +: a statistical significant effect within the same group between day 5 and 12.

613 ¹ V1 males and females on day 12 compared to control male and females on day 12.

614 ² V3 males and females on day 12 compared to control males and females on day 12.

615 4. Discussion

616

617 In the present study, we detected abnormalities in the vaccinated mice in some of the parameters tested: body weight, reflex development and neuromotor abilities (as 618 measured by the CA test), anxiety, visual-spatial learning and memory and 619 aggressiveness. Females from the V1 group and males from the V3 group were the most 620 affected. While most of the abnormalities detected did not persist until the final 621 evaluations at 67 weeks of age, some persisted into adulthood, including decreased 622 623 body weight (in both vaccine treatment groups). Indeed, according to our raw data of 624 SIT, NOR and LDB tests, 12 – 54% of affected mice at the 1st trial were still showing abnormalities during the 2nd trial of these tests (data not shown). However, most of 625 these observed percentages were not statistically significant compared to control. 626

The differences between the data obtained in the two treated groups (V1 vs V3)could indicate that not all targets were saturated with a single vaccine dose.

629 Concerning the sample sizes of the control and treatment groups, our power 630 analysis suggests that the numbers in each group were adequate to detect significant 631 changes in weight, but it must be acknowledged that even so the capacity for relatively 632 small sample sizes to unduly impact the outcomes cannot be totally dismissed.

633 With respect to how our study results relate to other similar investigations we 634 observe the following:

i) in regard to body weight, our results showed that the mice from both 635 experimental groups deviated from the expected body weight which was significantly 636 lower than controls. The body weight has been suggested as one of the best indicator of 637 the physical development of pups and highly correlated with the pre-weaning 638 landmarks of development [73]. Our result of body weight is in line with those from our 639 previous study [74] and others [75-77] which have shown a reduction in body weight post 640 exposure to vaccine Al adjuvants that can be found in some of the vaccine formulations 641 642 used in the present study. However, another study from our laboratory demonstrated a weight increase in male and female mouse pups injected with vaccine Al adjuvant alone 643 between 2 and 17 PND [78]. These inconsistencies may be linked to several factors 644 including mouse strain, the sample size in these studies, mouse age, the administrated 645 Al adjuvant type, the dose and the route of administration and the Al adjuvant effect vs 646 the whole vaccine one. 647

Although the mechanism behind the post-vaccination alterations of body weight is still unclear, various studies have suggested that body weight decrease can be due to nutritional changes caused by changes in animal water consumption after vaccination [79]. Other studies suggested that body weight reduction occurred as a result of changes in the expression of several genes in vaccinated animals [79,80].

ii) Females in both treatment groups showed a significantly late development of the cliff avoidance reflex compared to the control group. However, the two other development reflexes tested in our study, namely the negative geotaxis and reflex righting, were not significantly affected by the vaccine treatments. These data indicate early effects on some development reflexes in the vaccinated pups compared to unvaccinated ones. These results are in line with Hewitson *et al* findings as they reported a significant delayed acquisition of neonatal reflexes in male newborn primates receiving a hepatitis B vaccine [45].

iii) Our data of SIT performed at 2-4 months of mouse age (SIT1) showed that only male mice from V1 group showed a significant abnormal sociability as no significant difference was observed between the time spent with the stranger 1 vs the empty cage (p=0.056). At 9-10 months of mouse age, SIT2 outcomes showed no abnormal sociability in the two treatment groups compared to controls.

iv) The LDB data obtained in the present study showed increased anxiety and 666 decreased exploratory behaviours in mice from V1 and V3 groups at 4-5 months of age 667 (LDB1), an outcome which is consistent with the published data from our laboratory 668 using CD1 mice injected with Al hydroxide adjuvant [78] and those recently obtained by 669 Asin et al using the same vaccine Al adjuvant in sheep [81]. Furthermore, when the 670 current data were stratified by sex, a significant difference was observed between the 671 vaccinated and unvaccinated females, but no such difference was observed between 672 vaccinated and unvaccinated males in the V1 group. However, in the V3 group, both 673 sexes were significantly affected although males less significantly than females given 674 that the later need a lower dose of vaccines to experience the effect as compared to 675 males (Figure 4b and c). These findings indicate thus a sex-dependent as well as dose-676 677 dependent effect of vaccination on the anxiety and exploratory behaviours in mice, with females being more adversely affected than males even at lower doses. At 8-9 months of 678 age (LDB2), no significant alterations in anxiety and exploratory behaviours were seen 679 in V1 and V3 groups compared to controls. 680

v) Our BM data on long-term memory retention assessment demonstrate that V1 681 682 and V3 mice made significantly more errors in locating the target hole on the probe test on day 12. However, no significant differences were seen in time taken to find the target 683 hole. V1 and V3 female mice similarly exhibited abnormal values in the acquisition of 684 test parameters, the former showing a significant increase in total errors while the latter 685 in total latency (Table 2b). Collectively these results suggest a negative impact of 686 vaccine treatment on short-term visual-spatial learning, as well as a sex-dependent 687 vulnerability, with females being more susceptible than males. In all of these cases, the 688 net effect of this apparent improvement was scores of primary latency and errors. The 689 observation that the same trend occurred in control mice can be interpreted as all of the 690 animals of whatever group may reflect neuroplasticity such that the scores of all groups 691 692 converged.

693 The improvement in the early neurobehavioural impairments observed by Curtis *et* 694 *al* in primates [82] and those obtained from our SIT and LDB outcomes in mice mirror

those reported in human children with neurodevelopmental disorders [83,84]. Moreover, 695 our BM data at 12 months of age seem to be in line with our hypothesis of possible age-696 dependant adverse outcomes of the paediatric vaccine schedule. Such changes in all 697 three species (human, non-human primates and murine) might be due to 698 compensation/neuroplasticity. However, the possible mechanism of such compensation 699 is still poorly understood and has no unanimous definition [85]. Nevertheless, such 700 701 outcomes in human children as well as in the other species, may suggest an agedependent impact of such vaccination schedules. 702

703 *vi*) In the early stages of these tests, we observed a particularly notable behavioural 704 abnormality, e.g., aggressive interactions, among treated mice between 3 and 10 months of age. This aggressiveness was observed as a hair and/or whisker barbering either by 705 an aggressive cage mate or by themselves. Hauschka reported that the normal rate of 706 overall female barbers in C57BL/6J mice is around 10.7 % at 7 -10 months of age [86]. In 707 708 the present study, at this age window, barbering mouse percentage in treated groups was clearly greater than in controls and the normal ratio reported in the literature (0% 709 vs 12% in control vs V1 females, respectively). Moreover, our data analysis of barbering 710 demonstrated a sex-dependent effect since there was an increased percentage of female 711 712 barbers in all treated groups in comparison to the control group where all the barbers were males. However, no statistical significance difference in barbering was observed in 713 V1 and V3 group compared to controls. This statistical insignificance could be explained 714 by the sample size which could have made the test under-powered to detect this 715 particular difference. Thus, further experiments with more appropriate sample size 716 717 should be conducted in order to shed light on these unexpected findings.

718 vii) The administration of triple the dose of the administered vaccines in a very short time period did not uniformly affect mouse behaviours more than that of a single 719 dose of each. This findings are in accordance with what has been recently reported for 720 vaccine Al-adjuvants, namely that vaccine adverse effects may not obey "the dose 721 722 makes the poison" rule of the classical pharmacology [39,87,88]. This could be explained 723 by immune system saturation in the V1 group. A manuscript currently in preparation on the cytokine profiles in the mice used in the present study supports this hypothesis 724 as it shows some similar increases in cytokines levels, in particular IL-5, in the plasma of 725 both sexes of V1 and V3 mice. 726

As mentioned above, our data analysis showed that most of the neuro-behavioural abnormalities observed in the present study were not identical across time. Our speculation is that there is a complex interplay of dose, age, and sex (Figure 6). This combination of variables might explain the different outcomes between animal groups and sexes. In addition, the route of administration, i.e., *i.m* or s.c can be added as a variable.



Figure 6. A schematic depicting the neurobehavioural effects of administering
paediatric vaccines to mice. Not included in this schematic are the potential impacts of
vaccine dose, mouse strain and Al adjuvant type.

737

To the best of our knowledge, apart from the study by Curtis *et al* [82], this is the only other study examining the impact on neurodevelopment, anxiety, learning and social behaviour of a combined routine paediatric vaccination schedule in an animal model.

We stress that since we, like Curtis *et al*, used whole vaccines, any abnormal outcomes reported cannot easily be attributed to particular chemical agents in the vaccines themselves. For example, vaccines contain a specific antigen designed to mimic part of the natural pathogen. In addition, many vaccines contain Al adjuvants. Finally, there are various other trace molecules usually listed as excipients. Using a whole vaccine makes it impossible to define an independent role for any of these. In this regard, it is possible, but not certain, that some of the abnormal outcomes we have seen in the treatment groups reflect primarily the impact of the Al adjuvant, an outcomewhich would be consistent with our previous work and that of others [6,34,46-50,89].

The monkeys (Macaca mulatta) used in the Curtis et al's study, however, can be 751 752 considered as a wild type model in that individual variations can be extensive compared to other laboratory species, such as colony bred mice, in which the mice are 753 designed to have a more homogeneous genotype and phenotype. One interpretation for 754 differences in these two data sets might be that in genetically similar populations any 755 impacts might be more prominent. However, the observation that across two 756 757 mammalian species abnormalities were seen may lend support to the notion that in 758 humans some level of neurobehavioural abnormality might be expected. While the numbers of those so affected might be small, it would still be plausible to expect such 759 numbers to increase as the causative stimuli increased. 760

Nevertheless, the Curtis *et al* study had several limitations which may lead to different profiles of toxicokinetics and toxiocodynamics of the vaccine constituents. The first is the nature of colony animals that may be viewed as more outbred than colony bred rodents. Further, only male animals were studied. In contrast, many of the alterations we found in behaviour were in the treated female mice (see Table 2a and Figures: 1b; 2b and 4b).

Some limitations inherent to our study should be noted as well. First, while we 767 avoided a variation in dose based on body weight, apart from the deliberate use of the 768 V3 treatment group, we acknowledge that the use of an appropriate dose is not a simple 769 matter to resolve. Second, as our data showed, the age of the animal is an issue given 770 771 that mouse neural and immune systems are more mature at birth compared to humans. 772 For this reason, age equivalents for treatments compared to humans are often approximate. Our approach, as cited in the Materials and Methods section for the 773 treatments on certain postnatal days, is thus not precisely in register with humans, but 774 rather reflects a best approximation that arguably is more conservative. 775

776 Another caveat to the present study is that, similar to other fields of medical sciences, animal models of neuro-developmental disorders should comply with the 777 three criteria of validity, namely: face, construct, and predictive validity [90,91]. Face 778 validity refers to the ability of a model to successfully capture aspects of the observed 779 phenotype in humans. While it is considered as a requirement for rodent model of ASD 780 to show social deficits in order to show demonstrate face validity, it still remains 781 questionable whether behavioral abnormalities in rodents truly mirror the social 782 deficient observed in ASD [91], and thus the results obtained from such tests should be 783 interpreted with caution. Construct validity refers to the use of a known cause for a 784 given biological disorder in the animal model such as the animal exposure to an 785 environmental factors in order to induce defined outcomes. Predictive validity is a 786 787 measure of the degree to which a treatment in a model system predicts outcomes in humans. 788

In regard to models for ASD, these can be divided into three categories: i) genetic-789 based models ii) environmental-based models, which are produced by introducing an 790 environmental factor that has been linked to ASD such as chemicals or infectious 791 792 microorganisms and iii) behaviourally-based models [91]. In the present study, the mouse model injected with vaccines satisfies Buxbaum et al's recommendations [92] 793 regarding the criteria of validity. This level of validity does not alone suggest that the 794 US vaccination schedule is responsible for the apparent increase in ASD in recent 795 decades. Neither, however, does it allow us to definitively eliminate this schedule as 796 797 one of the etiological factors involved in the disorder. It is worthwhile to note that the 798 current work was originally designed in order to only capture the first 18 months of the US schedule of paediatric vaccination and that the provision of the rest of the schedule 799 at older ages may have given more pronounced outcomes. 800

Overall, these concerns reflect general caveats to any model system approach to 801 human diseases [93]. Nevertheless, any such model approach is the best that can be done 802 in place of any invasive studies on humans. Clearly, the latter is neither ethical nor 803 feasible. In regard to primate studies such as those performed by Curtis et al [82], the 804 likely broad genetic variations in a wild type population would render the number of 805 806 animals used insufficient to see small population effects, at least unless the individual animals were 'deconvolved' to see individual variations across the overall test groups 807 compared to humans. However, small numbers in such individual analyses would 808 almost certainly not be sufficient to perform statistical analysis. In our work, we have 809 tried to address this issue by looking at individual animals over time as shown in Table 810 811 2, recognizing that these represent qualitative data only.

812 While the underlying pathways through which vaccines provoke some 813 neurobehavioural abnormalities in mice are still unclear, they seem to interfere with 814 multiple neural and immune pathways during certain critical windows of nervous and 815 immune system development, especially during the first two weeks of postnatal life 816 when the brain-blood barrier is still immature and permeable [94].

The interaction assessment/confirmation of vaccine effects on the developing nervous and immune systems in mice is the next aim of our ongoing study using various histological and biochemical analyses. This study will be reported at a future date.

The current study has attempted to answer a question about vaccine adverse effects, a question that has pitted two apparently severely polarized camps with diametrically opposing views. The mainstream medical camp holds that vaccine adverse events are extremely uncommon, tending to discount reports to the contrary. Against this viewpoint are lay people and a number of scientists who maintain that adverse vaccine events are far more common and potentially devastating to CNS development than conventionally acknowledged.

The results presented in this paper will likely satisfy neither solitude, nor the 828 "trolls" who constantly hover around this subject. At least in this in vivo model, 829 830 accepting all the caveats to such models, the results reveal a far more nuanced outcome: While most of the behavioral assessments in vaccinated mice at early time post 831 vaccination were within the normal range, some were significantly not. Many of these 832 differences disappeared with age such that by one year of age, few significant 833 differences in the tested populations remained. The results were also stratified by sex 834 and our data showed that female mice seemed to be more vulnerable in certain 835 parameters measured. Put more succinctly, vaccine adverse effects in this model system 836 837 were neither trivial nor devastating at a population level. This outcome, again with the caveats to animal models, appears to mirror to some extent the range of outcomes seen 838 in human populations. 839

840

841 5. Conclusions

In the present study, some neurobehavioural abnormalities (NBAs) were observed in mice treated with vaccines compared to true placebo controls. These NBAs were not identical across time, changing according to a complex 3×3 matrix where the key factors appear to be vaccine dose, animal age, and sex.

The majority of treated mice at the end of the experimental period did not significantly differ from the control population such that, most of the abnormalities detected did not persist until the final evaluations at 67 weeks of age, however some persisted into adulthood. Even if this last outcome is not statistically significant, it is worth noting that these outcomes reflect an average of population average statement, not an individual one with recovery not universal.

Vaccine impacts seem not to have a clear linear dose-relationship suggesting that classical toxicokinetics may be different. Thus, a single dose of vaccine antigens could simply saturate the system triggering often a greater impact than higher doses.

Such behavioural data reported here, particularly in a murine model, are not sufficient to make firm inferences about human neurodevelopmental disorders, in particular for subjects as contentious as the aetiology of ASD.

The current results suggest, however, that lay and professional concerns about vaccine safety may not be as unfounded as often claimed and that further investigations in this area are indeed still warranted.

Author Contributions: conceptualization: CAS, LT and HE; methodology: HE, JY and SCB; validation: HE, ECS and JY; formal analysis: HE, JY and ECS; investigation: HE and MK; data curation: HE, JY, and SCB; writing original draft preparation: HE; writing review and editing: CAS, LT, HE, MK, JY and SCB; supervision: CAS and HE; project administration: JY, MK and SCB; statistical analysis: ECS, JY, SCB and HE.

868

Funding: This research was funded by Children's Medical Safety Research Institute(grant number 20R73006) and the Katlyn Fox Foundation (grant number 20R47306).

871

872 Conflicts of Interest: This work received funding from Children's Medical Safety873 Research Institute (CMSRI) and the Katlyn Fox Foundation.

874

875 Acknowledgments:

We thank Sears Family Pediatrics for their kind help in acquiring the whole vaccines used in the present study.

878 We also thank Agripina Suarez and Jessica Morrice for their feedback on study design

and data analysis, and Sara Wu for her help with the behavioural tests.

880

882 References

- 883 1. Oxford-University. Vaccination schedules in other countries. Availabe online:
 884 http://vk.ovg.ox.ac.uk/vaccination-schedules-other-countries (accessed on march, 2018).
- 885 2. Generation Rescue, I. Autism and vaccines around the world: Vaccine Schedules, Autism Rates, and Under 5
 886 Mortality 2009.
- 887 3. Rose, N.R. Autoimmunity, infection and adjuvants. *Lupus* 2010, 19, 354-358, doi:19/4/354
 888 [pii]10.1177/0961203309360670.
- 4. Tsumiyama, K.; Miyazaki, Y.; Shiozawa, S. Self-organized criticality theory of autoimmunity. *PLoS One* 2009, 4, e8382, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0008382.
- 5. Kandagaddala, L.D.; Kang, M.J.; Chung, B.C.; Patterson, T.A.; Kwon, O.S. Expression and activation of matrix metalloproteinase-9 and NADPH oxidase in tissues and plasma of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis in mice. *Exp Toxicol Pathol* 2012, *64*, 109-114, doi:S0940-2993(10)00112-0
 [pii]10.1016/j.etp.2010.07.002.
- 895 6. Shoenfeld, Y.; Agmon-Levin, N. 'ASIA' autoimmune/inflammatory syndrome induced by adjuvants. J
 896 Autoimmun 2011, 36, 4-8, doi:S0896-8411(10)00078-8 [pii]10.1016/j.jaut.2010.07.003.
- 897 7. Gherardi, R.K.; Coquet, M.; Cherin, P.; Belec, L.; Moretto, P.; Dreyfus, P.A.; Pellissier, J.F.; Chariot, P.;
 898 Authier, F.J. Macrophagic myofasciitis lesions assess long-term persistence of vaccine-derived aluminium
 899 hydroxide in muscle. *Brain* 2001, 124, 1821-1831.
- 8. Authier, F.J.; Sauvat, S.; Christov, C.; Chariot, P.; Raisbeck, G.; Poron, M.F.; Yiou, F.; Gherardi, R. AlOH3-adjuvanted vaccine-induced macrophagic myofasciitis in rats is influenced by the genetic background.
 902 Neuromuscul Disord 2006, 16, 347-352, doi:S0960-8966(06)00036-8 [pii]10.1016/j.nmd.2006.02.004.
- 9039.Petrik, M.S.; Wong, M.C.; Tabata, R.C.; Garry, R.F.; Shaw, C.A. Aluminum adjuvant linked to Gulf War904illness induces motor neuron death in mice. *Neuromolecular Med* 2007, *9*, 83-100, doi:NMM:9:1:83 [pii].
- 905 10. Khan, Z.; Combadiere, C.; Authier, F.J.; Itier, V.; Lux, F.; Exley, C.; Mahrouf-Yorgov, M.; Decrouy, X.;
 906 Moretto, P.; Tillement, O., et al. Slow CCL2-dependent translocation of biopersistent particles from muscle
 907 to brain. *BMC Med* 2013, *11*, 99, doi:1741-7015-11-99 [pii]10.1186/1741-7015-11-99.
- 90811.Ruiz, J.T.; Lujan, L.; Blank, M.; Shoenfeld, Y. Adjuvants- and vaccines-induced autoimmunity: animal909models. *Immunol Res* 2017, 65, 55-65, doi:10.1007/s12026-016-8819-510.1007/s12026-016-8819-5 [pii].
- 91012.Lujan, L.; Perez, M.; Salazar, E.; Alvarez, N.; Gimeno, M.; Pinczowski, P.; Irusta, S.; Santamaria, J.; Insausti,911N.; Cortes, Y., et al. Autoimmune/autoinflammatory syndrome induced by adjuvants (ASIA syndrome) in912commercial sheep. Immunol Res 2013, 56, 317-324, doi:10.1007/s12026-013-8404-0.
- 913 13. Agmon-Levin, N.; Arango, M.T.; Kivity, S.; Katzav, A.; Gilburd, B.; Blank, M.; Tomer, N.; Volkov, A.;
 914 Barshack, I.; Chapman, J., et al. Immunization with hepatitis B vaccine accelerates SLE-like disease in a
 915 murine model. *J Autoimmun* 2014, 54, 21-32, doi:S0896-8411(14)00103-6 [pii]10.1016/j.jaut.2014.06.006.
- 91614.Bassi, N.; Luisetto, R.; Ghirardello, A.; Gatto, M.; Bottazzi, B.; Shoenfeld, Y.; Punzi, L.; Doria, A. Vaccination917of mice for research purpose: alum is as effective as and safer than complete Freund adjuvant. *Reumatismo*9182012, 64, 380-387, doi:reumatismo.2012.380 [pii].
- 919 15. Katzav, A.; Kivity, S.; Blank, M.; Shoenfeld, Y.; Chapman, J. Adjuvant immunization induces high levels of pathogenic antiphospholipid antibodies in genetically prone mice: another facet of the ASIA syndrome.
 921 Lupus 2012, 21, 210-216, doi:21/2/210 [pii]10.1177/0961203311429550.
- 922 16. Kivity, S.; Arango, M.T.; Molano-Gonzalez, N.; Blank, M.; Shoenfeld, Y. Phospholipid supplementation can attenuate vaccine-induced depressive-like behavior in mice. *Immunol Res* 2017, 65, 99-105, doi:10.1007/s12026-016-8818-610.1007/s12026-016-8818-6 [pii].
- 925 17. Gonzalez, J.M.; Figueras, L.; Ortega, M.E.; Lozano, M.; de Arcaute, M.R.; Royo, R.; Cebrian, L.M.; Ferrer,
 926 L.M.; Farinas, F.; de Jalon, J.A., et al. Possible adverse reactions in sheep after vaccination with inactivated
 927 BTV vaccines. *Vet Rec* 2010, *166*, 757-758, doi:166/24/757 [pii]10.1136/vr.b4849.
- 928 18. Dietert, R.R.; Dietert, J.M. Potential for early-life immune insult including developmental immunotoxicity in autism and autism spectrum disorders: focus on critical windows of immune vulnerability. *J Toxicol Environ*930 *Health B Crit Rev* 2008, 11, 660-680, doi:903024619 [pii]10.1080/10937400802370923.
- 93119.Belmonte, M.K.; Allen, G.; Beckel-Mitchener, A.; Boulanger, L.M.; Carper, R.A.; Webb, S.J. Autism and932abnormal development of brain connectivity. J Neurosci 2004, 24, 9228-9231, doi:24/42/9228933[pii]10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3340-04.2004.

- 20. Li, Q.; Qi, F.; Yang, J.; Zhang, L.; Gu, H.; Zou, J.; Yuan, Q.; Yao, Z. Neonatal vaccination with bacillus
 Calmette-Guerin and hepatitis B vaccines modulates hippocampal synaptic plasticity in rats. *J Neuroimmunol*2015, 288, 1-12, doi:S0165-5728(15)30029-1 [pii]10.1016/j.jneuroim.2015.08.019.
- 937 21. Yang, J.; Qi, F.; Yang, Y.; Yuan, Q.; Zou, J.; Guo, K.; Yao, Z. Neonatal hepatitis B vaccination impaired the
 938 behavior and neurogenesis of mice transiently in early adulthood. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 2016, 73, 166939 176, doi:S0306-4530(16)30514-5 [pii]10.1016/j.psyneuen.2016.08.002.
- 940 22. Tomljenovic, L.; Shaw, C.A. Mechanisms of aluminum adjuvant toxicity in pediatric populations. *Lupus* 941 2012, 21, 223-230.
- 942 23. Hansen, B.H.; Oerbeck, B.; Skirbekk, B.; Petrovski, B.E.; Kristensen, H. Neurodevelopmental disorders:
 943 prevalence and comorbidity in children referred to mental health services. *Nordic journal of psychiatry* 2018, 72, 285-291, doi:10.1080/08039488.2018.1444087.
- 945 24. CDC, U.S. Autism prevalence slightly higher in CDC's ADDM Network. 2018.
- 94625.Gillberg, C.; Steffenburg, S.; Schaumann, H. Is autism more common now than ten years ago? Br J Psychiatry9471991, 158, 403-409, doi:S0007125000107974 [pii].
- 948 26. Baron-Cohen, S.; Scott, F.J.; Allison, C.; Williams, J.; Bolton, P.; Matthews, F.E.; Brayne, C. Prevalence of autism-spectrum conditions: UK school-based population study. *Br J Psychiatry* 2009, *194*, 500-509, doi:S000712500006802 [pii]10.1192/bjp.bp.108.059345.
- 95127.Dorea, J.G. Integrating experimental (in vitro and in vivo) neurotoxicity studies of low-dose thimerosal952relevant to vaccines. Neurochem Res 2011, 36, 927-938, doi:10.1007/s11064-011-0427-0.
- 953
 28.
 Israeli, E.; Agmon-Levin, N.; Blank, M.; Shoenfeld, Y. Adjuvants and autoimmunity. Lupus 2009, 18, 1217

 954
 1225, doi:18/13/1217 [pii]10.1177/0961203309345724.
- 955
 29.
 Cohen, A.D.; Shoenfeld, Y. Vaccine-induced autoimmunity. J Autoimmun 1996, 9, 699-703, doi:S0896

 956
 8411(96)90091-8 [pii]10.1006/jaut.1996.0091.
- 957
 30.
 Agmon-Levin, N.; Paz, Z.; Israeli, E.; Shoenfeld, Y. Vaccines and autoimmunity. Nat Rev Rheumatol 2009, 5, 648-652, doi:nrrheum.2009.196 [pii]10.1038/nrrheum.2009.196.
- 959 31. Tomljenovic, L.; Dorea, J.G.; Shaw, A.C. Commentary: A Link Between Mercury Exposure, Autism
 960 Spectrum Disorder and Other Neurodevelopmental Disorders? Implications for Thimerosal-Containing
 961 Vaccines. Journal on Developmental Disabilities 2012, 18, 29-37.
- 962 32. Shaw, C.A.; Li, Y.; Tomljenovic, L. Administration of aluminium in vaccine-relevant amounts in neonatal
 963 mice is associated with long-term adverse neurological outcomes. *J Inorg Biochem* 2013, 128, 237-244.
- 96433.Shaw, C.A.; Sheth, S.; Li, D.; Tomljenovic, L. Etiology of autism spectrum disorders: Genes, environment, or965both? OA Autism 2014, 2, 11.
- 34. Zivkovic, I.; Petrusic, V.; Stojanovic, M.; Inic-Kanada, A.; Stojicevic, I.; Dimitrijevic, L. Induction of decreased
 967 fecundity by tetanus toxoid hyper-immunization in C57BL/6 mice depends on the applied adjuvant. *Innate*968 *Immun* 2012, *18*, 333-342, doi:1753425911407361 [pii]10.1177/1753425911407361.
- 969 35. Moghaddam, A.; Olszewska, W.; Wang, B.; Tregoning, J.S.; Helson, R.; Sattentau, Q.J.; Openshaw, P.J. A
 970 potential molecular mechanism for hypersensitivity caused by formalin-inactivated vaccines. *Nat Med* 2006,
 971 12, 905-907, doi:nm1456 [pii]10.1038/nm1456.
- 972 36. Flarend, R.E.; Hem, S.L.; White, J.L.; Elmore, D.; Suckow, M.A.; Rudy, A.C.; Dandashli, E.A. In vivo absorption of aluminium-containing vaccine adjuvants using 26Al. *Vaccine* 1997, *15*, 1314-1318, doi:S0264-974 410X(97)00041-8 [pii].
- 975 37. Keith, L.S.; Jones, D.E.; Chou, C.H. Aluminum toxicokinetics regarding infant diet and vaccinations. *Vaccine*976 2002, 20 *Suppl* 3, S13-17, doi:S0264-410X(02)00165-2 [pii].
- 977 38. Mitkus, R.J.; King, D.B.; Hess, M.A.; Forshee, R.A.; Walderhaug, M.O. Updated aluminum pharmacokinetics
 978 following infant exposures through diet and vaccination. *Vaccine* 2011, 29, 9538-9543, doi:S0264979 410X(11)01579-9 [pii]10.1016/j.vaccine.2011.09.124.
- 980 39. Masson, J.D.; Crepeaux, G.; Authier, F.J.; Exley, C.; Gherardi, R.K. Critical analysis of reference studies on
 981 the toxicokinetics of aluminum-based adjuvants. *J Inorg Biochem* 2018, *181*, 87-95, doi:S0162-0134(17)30338-0
 982 [pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2017.12.015.
- 983 40. Gherardi, R.K.; Crepeaux, G.; Authier, F.J.; Lujan, L. Animal studies are mandatory to investigate the poorly understood fate and effects of aluminum adjuvants administered to billions of humans and animals worldwide. *Autoimmun Rev* 2018, 17, 735-737, doi:S1568-9972(18)30114-9 [pii]10.1016/j.autrev.2018.02.005.

- 986 41. Shaw, C.A.; Petrik, M.S. Aluminum hydroxide injections lead to motor deficits and motor neuron degeneration. *J Inorg Biochem* 2009, 103, 1555-1562, doi:S0162-0134(09)00180-9
 988 [pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2009.05.019.
- 989 42. Olczak, M.; Duszczyk, M.; Mierzejewski, P.; Wierzba-Bobrowicz, T.; Majewska, M.D. Lasting
 990 neuropathological changes in rat brain after intermittent neonatal administration of thimerosal. *Folia*991 *Neuropathol* 2011, 48, 258-269, doi:15811 [pii].
- 992 43. Olczak, M.; Duszczyk, M.; Mierzejewski, P.; Meyza, K.; Majewska, M.D. Persistent behavioral impairments
 993 and alterations of brain dopamine system after early postnatal administration of thimerosal in rats. *Behav*994 *Brain Res* 2011, 223, 107-118, doi:50166-4328(11)00336-6 [pii]

995 10.1016/j.bbr.2011.04.026.

- 44. Hornig, M.; Chian, D.; Lipkin, W.I. Neurotoxic effects of postnatal thimerosal are mouse strain dependent.
 Mol Psychiatry 2004, 9, 833-845, doi:10.1038/sj.mp.40015294001529 [pii].
- 998 45. Hewitson, L.; Houser, L.A.; Stott, C.; Sackett, G.; Tomko, J.L.; Atwood, D.; Blue, L.; White, E.R. Delayed acquisition of neonatal reflexes in newborn primates receiving a thimerosal-containing hepatitis B vaccine: influence of gestational age and birth weight. *J Toxicol Environ Health A* 2010, 73, 1298-1313, doi:10.1080/15287394.2010.484709.
- 100246.Gherardi, R.K.; Eidi, H.; Crepeaux, G.; Authier, F.J.; Cadusseau, J. Biopersistence and brain translocation of
aluminum adjuvants of vaccines. *Front Neurol* 2015, *6*, 4, doi:10.3389/fneur.2015.00004.
- 1004 47. Cadusseau, J.; Ragunathan-Thangarajah, N.; Surenaud, M.; Hue, S.; Authier, F.J.; Gherardi, R.K. Selective
 1005 elevation of circulating CCL2/MCP1 levels in patients with longstanding post-vaccinal macrophagic
 1006 myofasciitis and ASIA. *Curr Med Chem* 2014, *21*, 511-517, doi:CMC-EPUB-56484 [pii].
- 1007 48. Passeri, E.; Villa, C.; Couette, M.; Itti, E.; Brugieres, P.; Cesaro, P.; Gherardi, R.K.; Bachoud-Levi, A.C.;
 1008 Authier, F.J. Long-term follow-up of cognitive dysfunction in patients with aluminum hydroxide-induced
 1009 macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF). *J Inorg Biochem* 2011, 105, 1457-1463, doi:S0162-0134(11)00219-4 [pii]
- 1010 10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2011.08.006.
- 101149.Shaw, C.A.; Li, D.; Tomljenovic, L. Are there negative CNS impacts of aluminum adjuvants used in vaccines1012and immunotherapy? *Immunotherapy* 2014, 6, 1055-1071, doi:10.2217/imt.14.81.
- 101350.Exley, C. Aluminium adjuvants and adverse events in sub-cutaneous allergy immunotherapy. Allergy1014Asthma Clin Immunol 2014, 10, 4, doi:1710-1492-10-4 [pii]10.1186/1710-1492-10-4.
- 1015 51. Aoun Sebaiti, M.; Kauv, P.; Charles-Nelson, A.; Van Der Gucht, A.; Blanc-Durand, P.; Itti, E.; Gherardi, R.K.;
 1016 Bachoud-Levi, A.C.; Authier, F.J. Cognitive dysfunction associated with aluminum hydroxide-induced
 1017 macrophagic myofasciitis: A reappraisal of neuropsychological profile. *J Inorg Biochem* 2018, *181*, 132-138,
 1018 doi:S0162-0134(17)30652-9 [pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2017.09.019.
- 1019 52. McFarland, G.; La Joie, E.; Thomas, P.; Lyons-Weiler, J. Acute exposure and chronic retention of aluminum in three vaccine schedules and effects of genetic and environmental variation. *J Trace Elem Med Biol* 2020, *58*, 1021 126444, doi:10.1016/j.jtemb.2019.126444.
- 1022 53. Tomljenovic, L.; Shaw, C.A. Aluminum Vaccine Adjuvants: Are they Safe? *Current Medicinal Chemistry* 2011, 18, 2630-2637.
- 1024 54. Tomljenovic, L.; Shaw, C.A. Do aluminum vaccine adjuvants contribute to the rising prevalence of autism?
 1025 *Journal of Inorganic Biochemistry* 2011, 105, 1489-1499, doi:DOI 10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2011.08.008.
- 1026 55. Principi, N.; Esposito, S. Aluminum in vaccines: Does it create a safety problem? *Vaccine* 2018, *36*, 5825-5831, doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2018.08.036.
- 1028 56. Exley, C. An aluminium adjuvant in a vaccine is an acute exposure to aluminium. *J Trace Elem Med Biol* 2020, 57, 57-59, doi:10.1016/j.jtemb.2019.09.010.
- 1030 57. Mold, M.; Shardlow, E.; Exley, C. Toward understanding the mechanisms underlying the strong adjuvant activity of aluminium salt nanoparticles. *Jaccine* 2017, *35*, 1101, doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.12.051.
- 103258.Weekly epidemiological record. Global Advisory Committee on Vaccine Safety. Availabe online:1033http://www.who.int/wer/2005/wer8001.pdf (accessed on 7 January).
- 103459.Rice, D.; Barone, S., Jr. Critical periods of vulnerability for the developing nervous system: evidence from1035humans and animal models. Environ Health Perspect 2000, 108 Suppl 3, 511-533, doi:sc271_5_1835 [pii].

- 1036 60. Cole, T.B.; Fisher, J.C.; Burbacher, T.M.; Costa, L.G.; Furlong, C.E. Neurobehavioral assessment of mice following repeated postnatal exposure to chlorpyrifos-oxon. *Neurotoxicol Teratol* 2012, *34*, 311-322, doi:S0892-0362(12)00038-4 [pii]10.1016/j.ntt.2012.02.003.
- Susick, L.L.; Lowing, J.L.; Provenzano, A.M.; Hildebrandt, C.C.; Conti, A.C. Postnatal ethanol exposure simplifies the dendritic morphology of medium spiny neurons independently of adenylyl cyclase 1 and 8 activity in mice. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res* 2014, *38*, 1339-1346, doi:10.1111/acer.12383.
- 1042 62. Silverman, J.L.; Yang, M.; Lord, C.; Crawley, J.N. Behavioural phenotyping assays for mouse models of autism. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 2010, *11*, 490.
- Bourin, M.; Hascoët, M. The mouse light/dark box test. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 2003, 463, 55-65, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-2999(03)01274-3.
- 1046 64. Shaw, C.A.; Li, Y.; Tomljenovic, L. Administration of aluminium to neonatal mice in vaccine-relevant amounts is associated with adverse long term neurological outcomes. *Journal of Inorganic Biochemistry* 2013, 1048 128, 237-244, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2013.07.022.
- 1049 65. Leger, M.; Quiedeville, A.; Bouet, V.; Haelewyn, B.; Boulouard, M.; Schumann-Bard, P.; Freret, T. Object recognition test in mice. *Nature protocols* 2013, *8*, 2531-2537, doi:10.1038/nprot.2013.155.
- 105166.Antunes, M.; Biala, G. The novel object recognition memory: neurobiology, test procedure, and its1052modifications. Cognitive Processing 2012, 13, 93-110, doi:10.1007/s10339-011-0430-z.
- 105367.Barnes, C.A. Memory deficits associated with senescence: a neurophysiological and behavioral study in the1054rat. Journal of comparative and physiological psychology 1979, 93, 74-104.
- 1055 68. Mustapha, O.; Oke, B.; Offen, N.; Siren, A.L.; Olopade, J. Neurobehavioral and cytotoxic effects of vanadium during oligodendrocyte maturation: a protective role for erythropoietin. *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol* 2014, 38, 98-111, doi:10.1016/j.etap.2014.05.001.
- 1058 69. Konjuh, C.; Garcia, G.; Lopez, L.; de Duffard, A.M.; Brusco, A.; Duffard, R. Neonatal hypomyelination by
 1059 the herbicide 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid. Chemical and ultrastructural studies in rats. *Toxicol Sci* 2008, 104, 332-340, doi:10.1093/toxsci/kfn085.
- 1061 70. Ibi, D.; Nagai, T.; Kitahara, Y.; Mizoguchi, H.; Koike, H.; Shiraki, A.; Takuma, K.; Kamei, H.; Noda, Y.; Nitta,
 1062 A., et al. Neonatal polyI:C treatment in mice results in schizophrenia-like behavioral and neurochemical
 abnormalities in adulthood. *Neurosci Res* 2009, 64, 297-305, doi:10.1016/j.neures.2009.03.015.
- Yang, M.; Silverman, J.L.; Crawley, J.N. Automated three-chambered social approach task for mice. *Curr Protoc Neurosci* 2016, *Chapter 8*, Unit 8 26, doi:10.1002/0471142301.ns0826s56.
- 106672.Wilson, J.M.; Shaw, C.A. Late appearance of glutamate transporter defects in a murine model of ALS-1067parkinsonism dementia complex. Neurochemistry international 2007, 50, 1067-1077,1068doi:10.1016/j.neuint.2006.09.017.
- 1069 73. Marianno, P.; Salles, M.J.; Sonego, A.B.; Costa, G.A.; Galvao, T.C.; Lima, G.Z.; Moreira, E.G. Gestational
 1070 exposure to yellow fever vaccine at different developmental stages induces behavioral alterations in the
 1071 progeny. *Neurotoxicol Teratol* 2013, 35, 21-27, doi:10.1016/j.ntt.2012.12.002.
- 107274.Sheth, S.K.S.; Li, Y.; Shaw, C.A. Is exposure to aluminium adjuvants associated with social impairments in1073mice? A pilot study. J Inorg Biochem 2017, 181, 96-103, doi:S0162-0134(17)30474-91074[pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2017.11.012.
- 1075 75. Abu-Taweel, G.M.; Ajarem, J.S.; Ahmad, M. Neurobehavioral toxic effects of perinatal oral exposure to aluminum on the developmental motor reflexes, learning, memory and brain neurotransmitters of mice offspring. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 2012, 101, 49-56, doi:S0091-3057(11)00358-3 [pii]
- **1078** 10.1016/j.pbb.2011.11.003.
- 1079 76. Llobet, J.M.; Colomina, M.T.; Sirvent, J.J.; Domingo, J.L.; Corbella, J. Reproductive toxicology of aluminum in male mice. *Fundam Appl Toxicol* 1995, 25, 45-51, doi:S027205908571038X [pii].
- 1081 77. Malekshah, A.K.; Torabizadeh, Z.; Naghshwar, F. Developmental Toxicity of Aluminum from High Doses of AlCl 3 in Mice. *Journal of Applied Research* 2005, *5*, 575-579.
- 1083 78. Shaw, C.A.; Li, Y.; Tomljenovic, L. Administration of aluminium to neonatal mice in vaccine-relevant amounts is associated with adverse long term neurological outcomes. *J Inorg Biochem* 2013, *128*, 237-244, doi:S0162-0134(13)00177-3 [pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2013.07.022.
- 1086 79. Mizukami, T.; Masumi, A.; Momose, H.; Kuramitsu, M.; Takizawa, K.; Naito, S.; Maeyama, J.; Furuhata, K.;
 1087 Tsuruhara, M.; Hamaguchi, I., et al. An improved abnormal toxicity test by using reference vaccine-specific

body weight curves and histopathological data for monitoring vaccine quality and safety in Japan.
 Biologicals : journal of the International Association of Biological Standardization 2009, 37, 8-17, doi:10.1016/j.biologicals.2008.07.007.

- 1091 80. Hamaguchi, I.; Imai, J.; Momose, H.; Kawamura, M.; Mizukami, T.; Kato, H.; Naito, S.; Maeyama, J.;
 1092 Masumi, A.; Kuramitsu, M., et al. Two vaccine toxicity-related genes Agp and Hpx could prove useful for
 1093 pertussis vaccine safety control. *Vaccine* 2007, 25, 3355-3364, doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2006.12.059.
- 109481.Asin, J.; Pascual-Alonso, M.; Pinczowski, P.; Gimeno, M.; Perez, M.; Muniesa, A.; de Pablo-Maiso, L.; de1095Blas, I.; Lacasta, D.; Fernandez, A., et al. Cognition and behavior in sheep repetitively inoculated with1096aluminum adjuvant-containing vaccines or aluminum adjuvant only. J Inorg Biochem 2020, 203, 110934,1097doi:10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2019.110934.
- 109882.Curtis, B.; Liberato, N.; Rulien, M.; Morrisroe, K.; Kenney, C.; Yutuc, V.; Ferrier, C.; Marti, C.N.; Mandell, D.;1099Burbacher, T.M., et al. Examination of the safety of pediatric vaccine schedules in a non-human primate1100model: assessments of neurodevelopment, learning, and social behavior. *Environ Health Perspect* 2015, 123,1101579-589, doi:10.1289/ehp.1408257.
- 110283.Livingston, L.A.; Colvert, E.; Bolton, P.; Happe, F. Good social skills despite poor theory of mind: exploring1103compensation in autism spectrum disorder. J Child Psychol Psychiatry 2018, 10.1111/jcpp.12886,1104doi:10.1111/jcpp.12886.
- 110584.Ullman, M.T.; Pullman, M.Y. A compensatory role for declarative memory in neurodevelopmental1106disorders. Neurosci Biobehav Rev2015, 51, 205-222, doi:S0149-7634(15)00010-X1107[pii]10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.01.008.
- 1108 85. Livingston, L.A.; Happe, F. Conceptualising compensation in neurodevelopmental disorders: Reflections from autism spectrum disorder. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2017, *80*, 729-742, doi:S0149-7634(17)30173-2
 1110 [pii]10.1016/j.neubiorev.2017.06.005.
- 1111 86. Hauschka, T. Whisker-eating mice. J Hered 1952, 43, 77-80.
- 1112 87. Crepeaux, G.; Eidi, H.; David, M.O.; Baba-Amer, Y.; Tzavara, E.; Giros, B.; Authier, F.J.; Exley, C.; Shaw,
 1113 C.A.; Cadusseau, J., et al. Non-linear dose-response of aluminium hydroxide adjuvant particles: Selective low dose neurotoxicity. *Toxicology* 2017, 375, 48-57, doi:S0300-483X(16)30304-3 [pii]10.1016/j.tox.2016.11.018.
- 1115 88. Crepeaux, G.; Eidi, H.; David, M.O.; Tzavara, E.; Giros, B.; Exley, C.; Curmi, P.A.; Shaw, C.A.; Gherardi,
 1116 R.K.; Cadusseau, J. Highly delayed systemic translocation of aluminum-based adjuvant in CD1 mice
 1117 following intramuscular injections. *J Inorg Biochem* 2015, 152, 199-205, doi:S0162-0134(15)30031-3
 1118 [pii]10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2015.07.004.
- 111989.Exley, C. The aluminium-amyloid cascade hypothesis and Alzheimer's disease. Subcell Biochem 2005, 38, 225-1120234.
- 112190.Belzung, C.; Lemoine, M. Criteria of validity for animal models of psychiatric disorders: focus on anxiety1122disorders and depression. *Biology of mood & anxiety disorders* 2011, 1, 9, doi:10.1186/2045-5380-1-9.
- 112391.Hurlemann, R.; Grinevich, V. Behavioral Pharmacology of Neuropeptides: Oxytocin; Springer International1124Publishing: 2018; 10.1007/978-3-319-63739-6.
- 112592.Buxbaum, J.D.; Betancur, C.; Bozdagi, O.; Dorr, N.P.; Elder, G.A.; Hof, P.R. Optimizing the phenotyping of1126rodent ASD models: enrichment analysis of mouse and human neurobiological phenotypes associated with1127high-risk autism genes identifies morphological, electrophysiological, neurological, and behavioral features.1128Molecular autism 2012, 3, 1, doi:10.1186/2040-2392-3-1.
- **1129** 93. Shaw, C.A. *Neural dynamics of neurological disease;* Wiley-Blackwell: Canada, 2017; pp. 155-172.
- 1130 94. Wang, X.; Yang, J.; Xing, Z.; Zhang, H.; Wen, Y.; Qi, F.; Zuo, Z.; Xu, J.; Yao, Z. IL-4 mediates the delayed 1131 neurobehavioral impairments induced by neonatal hepatitis B vaccination that involves the downregulation of the IL-4 receptor in the hippocampus. *Cytokine* 2018, 110, 137-149, doi:S1043-4666(18)30190-X
 1133 [pii]10.1016/j.cyto.2018.04.037.
- 113495.Recommended Immunization Schedule for Persons Aged 0 Through 18 Years. Availabe online:1135http://www.cdc.gov/vaccines/schedules/hcp/imz/child-adolescent.html (accessed on February 25th 2019).
- 1136

Synopsis for the Graphical Abstract

A schematic depicting the neurobehavioural effects of administering paediatric vaccines to mice. Not included in this schematic are the potential impacts of vaccine dose, mouse strain and Al adjuvant type.

