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Title: Delayed BCG immunization does not alter antibody responses to EPI vaccines in HIV-exposed and -unexposed South African infants

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Keywords: BCG; humoral immunity; infants; HIV-exposed; South Africa

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Abstract: Background

Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) is routinely given at birth in tuberculosis-endemic settings due to its protective effect against disseminated tuberculosis in infants. BCG is however contraindicated in HIV-infected infants. We investigated whether delaying BCG vaccination to 14 weeks of age affected vaccine-induced antibody responses to Haemophilus influenzae type b (Hib)-conjugate, pertussis, tetanus and Hepatitis B (HBV) vaccines, in HIV-exposed uninfected (HEU) and -unexposed uninfected (HUU) infants.

Methods

Infants were randomized to receive BCG at birth or at 14 weeks of age. Blood was taken at 14, 24, and 52 weeks of age and analyzed for Hib, pertussis, tetanus and HBV specific antibodies.

Results

BCG was given either at birth (106 infants, 51 HEU) or at 14 weeks of age (74 infants, 50 HEU). The timing of BCG vaccination did not influence the antibody response to any antigen studied. However, in a non-randomised comparison, HEU infants had higher Hib antibody concentrations at weeks 14 and 24 ($p=0.001$ and <0.001 respectively) and pertussis at week 24 ($p=0.003$). Conversely, HEU infants had lower antibody concentrations to HBV at 14 and 52 weeks ($p=0.032$ and $p=0.031$) with no differences in tetanus titres.

Conclusions

HIV exposure, but not the timing of BCG vaccination, was associated with antibody concentrations to Hib, pertussis, HBV and tetanus primary immunization.

Clinical Trial Registration: DOH-27-1106-1520

Highlights:

- Timing of BCG vaccination did not influence antibody levels to Hib, pertussis, tetanus or HBV
- Effects of early versus late BCG vaccination did not differ between HIV-exposed and –unexposed groups
- HIV-exposure without infection was associated with increased Hib and pertussis antibody concentrations

1 **Timing of Delayed BCG immunization does not alter antibody responses to EPI**
2 **vaccines in HIV-exposed, uninfected and -unexposed South African infants**

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42 **ABSTRACT**

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44 **Background**

45 Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) is routinely given at birth in tuberculosis-endemic settings
46 due to its protective effect against disseminated tuberculosis in infants. BCG is however
47 contraindicated in HIV-infected infants. We investigated whether delaying BCG vaccination
48 to 14 weeks of age affected vaccine-induced antibody responses to *Haemophilus influenza*
49 type b (Hib)-conjugate, pertussis, tetanus and Hepatitis B (HBV) vaccines, in HIV-exposed
50 uninfected (HEU) and -unexposed uninfected (HUU) infants.

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53 14, 24, and 52 weeks of age and analyzed for Hib, pertussis, tetanus and HBV specific
54 antibodies.

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57 HEU). The timing of BCG vaccination did not influence the antibody response to any antigen
58 studied. However, in a non-randomised comparison, HEU infants had higher Hib antibody
59 concentrations at weeks 14 and 24 ($p=0.001$ and <0.001 respectively) and pertussis at
60 week 24 ($p=0.003$). Conversely, HEU infants had lower antibody concentrations to HBV at
61 14 and 52 weeks ($p=0.032$ and $p=0.031$) with no differences in tetanus titres.

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63 HIV exposure, but not the timing of BCG vaccination, was associated with antibody
64 concentrations to Hib, pertussis, HBV and tetanus primary immunization.

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66 **Key words:** BCG, humoral immunity, infants, HIV-exposed, South Africa

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81 **BACKGROUND**

82 Approximately 1.4 million children under five years of age die annually of vaccine
83 preventable infectious diseases.[1] Maternal and paediatric HIV infections contribute
84 considerably to the burden of infectious disease in developing countries, and HIV-exposed
85 infants constitute up to 30% of infants born in the public health sector in settings with high
86 burden of HIV such as South Africa.[2] Studies of vaccine responsiveness amongst this
87 subpopulation are limited but are important considering their high morbidity and mortality,
88 even in the absence of infant HIV infection. [3-7]

89 Many vaccines rely on inducing antibodies to pathogens or their toxins. Although maternal
90 IgG crosses the placenta *in utero* providing some protection against vaccine preventable
91 infections, infant IgG and IgA responses to pathogens remain relatively weak in the first 12
92 months of life. [8, 9] Despite B-cell priming in neonates generating memory B cells,
93 maternal antibody can inhibit primary humoral responses [6]. Antenatal HIV exposure has
94 been associated with lower specific antibody levels in HIV-exposed uninfected (HEU)
95 infants than HIV-unexposed uninfected infants (HUU) at birth, although subsequent
96 responses in HEU infants to certain vaccines may be better than HUU infants, perhaps due
97 to less inhibition.[7] The development of vaccines or vaccination strategies to induce early
98 protective immune responses in infants is a major challenge in vaccinology.

99 BCG induces robust Th-1 type cellular immune responses, even at birth.[10-12] Apart from
100 its protective effect against disseminated tuberculosis (TB) in young children, [13] BCG is
101 associated with other “non-specific” protective effects and decreases non-TB-related child
102 morbidity and mortality in settings with high background rates of infectious morbidity.[14,
103 15] For example, trials from West Africa showed that BCG reduces neonatal mortality by
104 more than 40%, mainly by preventing neonatal sepsis and respiratory infections.[16, 17] In

105 addition, Ota et al found that BCG enhanced humoral immunity to oral polio and hepatitis B
106 vaccinations but not to tetanus and diphtheria toxoids, while de Castro et al found that BCG
107 vaccination at birth may decrease hospitalization due to respiratory infection and sepsis,
108 due to heterologous protection. [12, 18]

109 In addition to adding new vaccines to the Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI)
110 schedule, it is necessary to assess potential vaccine interactions as well as specific and non-
111 specific vaccine effects of existing vaccines, with consideration of maternal HIV status. [19]
112 BCG-related effects on unrelated vaccine-induced antibody responses could be important in
113 settings with high HIV prevalence, where BCG is still routinely given at birth. Based on
114 concerns of BCG vaccine safety in HIV-infected infants, delaying BCG vaccination in HIV-
115 exposed infants until HIV has been excluded, is a relevant strategy, but its timing could
116 influence vaccine responsiveness. [20]

117 We investigated the effect of delayed BCG vaccination on antibody responses to Hib-
118 conjugate, whole cell *Bordetella pertussis* (wP), tetanus toxoid (TT) and hepatitis B (HBV)
119 vaccines, in HEU and HUU infants. We hypothesized that BCG vaccination at birth would
120 increase antibody responses to other vaccines through induction of non-specific
121 immunological effects, and that these responses would be more pronounced in HIV-exposed
122 infants.

123 **METHODS**

124 **Study setting**

125 This study was conducted from 1 April 2006 to 31 March 2008 at the community-based Site
126 B Midwife Obstetric Unit and well baby clinic in Khayelitsha, Cape Town, Western Cape
127 Province, South Africa, where the maternal HIV prevalence was 32.7 % (95% CI: 29.5-

128 35.9%) in 2008 [21] with a well-established prevention of mother to child HIV
129 transmission (PMTCT) program.

130 During the study, the South African EPI recommended intradermal BCG vaccination (0.05
131 ml reconstituted vaccine, Danish strain BCG, Statens Serum Institute, 1331) and oral live
132 polio (OPV, Sabin, Sanofi Pasteur, France, 2 drops orally) at birth. Diphtheria and TT
133 vaccines, wP and Hib conjugate vaccines (PRP-T) administered as DTP-Hib (TETRActHib,[™]
134 Sanofi Pasteur, France, 0.5ml intramuscular) were recommended at 6, 10 and 14 weeks of
135 age, and were co-administered with Hepatitis B (HBV; Heberbiotec, Cuba, 0.5ml;
136 intramuscular) and OPV. Live measles vaccine (Sanofi Pasteur, France, 0.5ml intramuscular)
137 was recommended at 9 months. As per South African guidelines, pregnant women did not
138 receive anti-tetanus vaccination. BCG coverage was estimated at 99% during 2005.[22]

139 **Eligibility and randomization**

140 Recruitment, enrolment, BCG vaccination and surveillance were carried out as previously
141 described[23]. Briefly, this was an individual, single-blinded, exploratory randomized Phase
142 2 clinical trial investigating immunological effects of early versus delayed BCG vaccination
143 in HIV-exposed and -unexposed infants (DOH-27-1106-1520). Pregnant HIV-positive and -
144 negative women were recruited at the midwife obstetric unit. Enrolment was stratified by
145 maternal HIV status to ensure that two-thirds of infants (n=120) were HIV-exposed and
146 one-third (n=60) HIV-unexposed (control group), using 2 separate randomization lists.
147 Infants were randomized to BCG, given intradermally in the right deltoid area, at birth
148 (routine BCG), versus at 14 weeks of age (delayed BCG). The concealed envelope method
149 was used by the study nurse, who enrolled participants antenatally, and was blinded to
150 study allocation. Stratified randomization (2 separate lists for HIV-infected and uninfected
151 women) was completed by an independent statistician, using randomization with blocks

152 varying in size from 2 to 6 with random ordering. Study nurses who assessed and followed
153 infants were not blinded to treatment allocation.

154 Women with pregnancies of estimated 32 or more weeks gestation were screened for
155 eligibility after routine testing for HIV and written informed consent was obtained. The
156 following were postnatal infant exclusion criteria: stillbirth, birth weight <1.6 kg, severe
157 congenital malformation, asphyxia or other severe illness at birth since under these
158 circumstances, BCG is not routinely given in South Africa. Protocol violators were defined
159 as infants randomized to receive delayed BCG vaccination at 14 weeks, but who were
160 inadvertently given BCG at birth by routine personnel.

161 **Study measures and follow-up**

162 Infant HIV testing and clinical follow-up were performed as previously described.[23]
163 Briefly, a single infant HIV DNA polymerase chain reaction test (Amplicor, Roche Molecular
164 Diagnostics, Pleasanton , CA) was routinely offered at 6 and at 14 weeks of age. The routine
165 testing algorithm at the time recommended testing at 14 weeks of age only. Follow-up was
166 carried out on the same premises, at the Site B well baby clinic, where infants would have
167 attended routine clinical care. Antibody levels were classified using the following accepted
168 measures. Anti-Hib capsular polysaccharide (PRP-T) IgG antibodies were measured using
169 the VaccZyme™ Human Anti Hib Enzyme Immunoassay kit (MK016, The Binding Site Ltd,
170 Birmingham, England). Measurement of specific IgG antibodies to *Bordetella pertussis* was
171 completed using pertussis toxin (PT) and filamentous hemagglutinin (FHA) as antigen
172 preparation using the SERION ELISA classic kit (Serion Immundiagnostica GmbH,
173 Würzburg, Germany). Anti-tetanus IgG was measured with the SERION ELISA *classic* kit
174 (Serion Immundiagnostica GmbH, Würzburg, Germany). Specific IgG against Hepatitis B
175 surface antigen (HBsAg) were quantified using a semi-automated ELISA method (AxSym

176 HBsAb, Abbott Diagnostics, measuring range: 2-1000 mIU/ml). Hib antibody level was
177 classified as protective if >1 mg/ml and non-protective level if ≤ 1 mg/ml.[24] Since there is
178 no correlate of protection against pertussis, anti-pertussis antibody was classified positive if
179 >30 FDA-U/ml, indeterminate if 20-30 FDA-U/ml and negative if <20 FDA-U/ml, as
180 defined by the manufacturer.[25] Tetanus antibodies were classified as having no immunity
181 if <0.01 IU/ml; no safe immunity if 0.01-0.1 IU/ml; sufficient immunity if 0.11-5.0 IU/ml and
182 long-term immunity: >5.0 IU/ml, and sufficient or long-term immunity were considered
183 protection for the purposes of analysis.[26] HBsAb concentrations <10 mIU/ml were
184 classified as negative and when ≥ 10 mIU/ml as positive, based on standard international
185 criteria. [27]

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187 In a subset of participants (n=38, with 17 HEU and 21 HUU infants) with sufficient
188 additional stored sera, the relative avidity of IgG against Hib capsular polysaccharide was
189 measured to assess qualitative response (VaccZyme Hib ELISA accessory pack, The Binding
190 Site Ltd, Birmingham, U.K.). Typical reported values range from 26.4- 68.3 mg/ml.

191 **Statistical analysis**

192 The primary end point was the difference in the magnitude of antibody responses to Hib,
193 pertussis, HBV and TT between infants in the early and the delayed BCG groups at 14 weeks
194 of age. Secondly, the effect of HIV exposure on vaccine antibody titres was investigated at
195 week 14, 24 and 52. Sample size estimates for this exploratory study were calculated
196 assuming a 30% difference in vaccine antibody responses between BCG vaccinated and
197 unvaccinated infants, and a 30% difference between HIV-exposed and unexposed infants, at
198 week 14. HIV-infected infants (n=2) were excluded from analysis.

199 The effect of timing of BCG vaccination and HIV exposure on the proportion of responders
200 was compared using the Chi-squared test or Fisher's exact where appropriate; effect
201 estimates (OR; 95% CI) were calculated. Log-transformed data were used to compare mean
202 antibody titres. Antibody concentrations of zero or below the assay cutoff were given an
203 arbitrary value of half the cutoff for geometric mean concentration (GMC) calculation. The
204 2-sided t test was used for comparison of GMC antibody values.

205 A [base-10](#) linear regression model with log-transformed values was used to compare the
206 proportion of "protective" responses to Hib, pertussis, HBV and TT vaccines at week 14
207 using BCG vaccination as primary exposure variable. Other variables included were either
208 specified in the study hypothesis and included HIV exposure, or were known to influence
209 vaccine antibody responses such as sex and birth weight [28-30]. Statistical significance
210 was inferred at the 2-sided 0.05 level. SPSS software (version 16.0, Chicago, Ill) was used
211 for analyses. Missing values were excluded from analysis. The CONSORT guidelines were
212 used for reporting. [31] The Stellenbosch University Human Research Ethics Committee
213 approved the study (trial number DOH-27-1106-1520).

214 **RESULTS**

215 120 HIV-infected and 60 HIV-uninfected women were enrolled during pregnancy. Following
216 randomization, 5 infants (2.8%) were excluded; 1 mother withdrew from the study due to
217 geographic relocation and 4 HIV-exposed infants were stillborn. These infants were
218 replaced with additional randomized participants..

219 Figure 1 provides an overview of the study cohort, per protocol. Randomization of infants
220 resulted in balance for maternal HIV status, infant sex, mean birth weight, maternal CD4+ T
221 cell count and maternal HAART (Table 1). The mean birth weight overall was 3206 grams

222 (standard deviation; SD: 44). Only 6 infants (3.33%) had birth weight <2500 grams. The
223 mean maternal CD4+ T lymphocyte amongst HIV-infected women was 363 cells/mm³ (SD
224 23.7). Of HIV-infected women, 27 (15%) had a CD4+ T lymphocyte count ≤200 cells/mm³;
225 these women were all on highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART; Zidovudine,
226 Lamivudine and Nevirapine).

227 Of the 90 infants randomized to delayed BCG, 16 were inadvertently given immediate BCG
228 by routine labour ward personnel, resulting in 106 infants in the birth (67, 63.2% HIV-
229 exposed) and 74 infants (46, 62.2% HIV-exposed) in the delayed BCG groups, respectively.
230 Analysis was therefore based on actual vaccination (per protocol) status.

231 **Proportion of infants with positive/protective antibody concentrations**

232 Proportions of infants with “protective” antibody concentrations to Hib, pertussis, TT and
233 HBV are reflected in Supplementary Table 2. In general, the proportion of infants with
234 “protective” Hib and pertussis titres was low at all timepoints. Only 62% of infants had
235 antibody concentrations to Hib correlating with protective immunity at week 24, following
236 verified completion of weeks 6, 10 and 14 vaccinations; the level declined to 35% at week
237 52. At week 24, 48% of infants had positive pertussis titres; 45% of infants maintained
238 positive titres at week 52. In contrast, the proportion of infants with positive/protective
239 titres to TT and HBV vaccines was high with all infants having antibody concentrations
240 correlating with sufficient or long-term protective immunity to tetanus vaccine at week 24;
241 positive responses to HBV were detected in all infants. Only 1.2% of infants lacked
242 protective response to TT at week 52.

243 **Effect of BCG vaccination timing on antibody concentrations**

244 Overall, there was no detectable effect of BCG vaccination timing on the GMC antibody titres
245 to Hib, pertussis, or TT at weeks 14, 24 or 52 (Figure 2). There was a trend for higher
246 antibody responses to HBV in the birth BCG group at week 14 (GMC in birth group: 30.5 vs.
247 10.1 in the delayed group; $p=0.090$). Similarly, there was no observed effect of BCG on the
248 proportion of infants with “protective” antibody concentrations (Supplementary Table 1).
249 Results were similar comparing the proportion of infants with “protective” responses in the
250 birth and delayed BCG groups at 14 weeks when infants in the protocol violator group were
251 excluded (data not shown).

252 **Effect of *in utero* HIV exposure on antibody concentrations**

253 Stratified analysis of antibody titres between HIV-exposed and unexposed infants produced
254 similar results in both the birth and delayed BCG groups (data not shown); the birth and
255 delayed groups were therefore combined for further analysis. In the combined analysis,
256 HIV-exposed infants consistently demonstrated higher GMC antibody titres to Hib at weeks
257 14 and 24, and also to pertussis at week 24 (Figure 3a-b). These higher concentrations
258 corresponded to a higher proportion of HIV-exposed infants with positive/protective
259 antibody concentrations to Hib at week 14 (OR: 1.75; 95% CI: 1.17-2.63, $p=0.007$) and week
260 24 (OR: 2.09; 95% CI: 1.37-3.17, $p=0.001$) and to pertussis at week 24 (OR: 1.80; 95% CI:
261 1.19-2.72, $p=0.007$) (Table 2). Conversely, HIV-exposed infants had significantly lower GMC
262 of HBV antibody at week 14 and week 52, although all were above positive/protective
263 concentrations (Figure 3d). Antibody concentrations to tetanus vaccine were similar
264 between HIV-exposed and unexposed infants (Figure 3c).

265 **Effect of BCG vaccination timing on antibody concentrations in HIV-exposed infants**

266 Because delaying BCG vaccination until 14 weeks of age would be most relevant for infants
267 born to HIV-positive mothers, we compared the effects of BCG vaccination at birth versus
268 14 weeks of age in HIV-exposed infants. There was no detectable effect of BCG vaccination
269 on the GMC of antibody to Hib, pertussis, tetanus of HBV at weeks 14, 24, or 52
270 (Supplementary Figure 1).

271 Predictors of antibody titres against against Hib and pertussis

272 In a multivariable base-10 linear regression model with log₁₀-transformed values for
273 factors (including BCG vaccination as primary predictor and HIV exposure status, birth
274 weight and sex as covariates) associated with “protective” anti-Hib concentration at 14
275 weeks of age (including BCG vaccination as primary predictor and HIV exposure status,
276 birth weight and sex as covariates), only HIV exposure remained associated with higher
277 concentrations (coefficient 0.47; 95% CI: 0.21-0.72; $p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.101$) (Table 3);
278 the timing of BCG vaccination was not a predictor. In a similar model for pertussis, none of
279 the predictors were associated with “protection” against pertussis at week 14 (adjusted
280 $R^2 = 0.020$; Table 3). For both the Hib linear regression models, a plot of the residuals versus
281 the antibody titres for Hib and pertussis were randomly distributed, indicating that a linear
282 regression model was appropriate for analysis. For pertussis, a plot of the residuals versus
283 the antibody titres revealed a single outlier; removal of this single outlier did not alter the
284 model. Linear regression analyses of predictors for positive responses to TT or HBV were
285 not completed since all infants had sufficient or long-term immunity to TT, and 99.2%
286 immunity HBV at week 14, respectively.

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287 **Qualitative Hib antibody**

288 Qualitative analyses for Hib were completed in 38 infants with available serum samples, in
289 17 HEU and in 21 HUU infants. The mean binding index was 72.06 (SD 45.67) classified as
290 “high or adequate”. There was no difference between the mean index in HEU and HUU
291 infants (mean: 66.01; SD: 18.41 in HEU vs. 76.95; SD: 59.42 in HUU infants; p=0.470).

292 **DISCUSSION**

293 In this exploratory randomized controlled trial, the timing of BCG vaccination did not alter
294 antibody responses to Hib, pertussis, HBV and TT vaccines in HEU or HUU infants. Despite a
295 trend for increased antibody responses to HBV, there was no evidence for BCG-induced
296 increased HBV antibody concentrations, both when responses were measured at 14 weeks
297 (comparing the effect of BCG given at birth to infants who had not yet received BCG), and at
298 24 and 52 weeks (comparing the effect of BCG given at birth to BCG given at 14 weeks). In a
299 non-randomised comparison, we found that HIV-exposed infants had significantly higher
300 antibody concentrations to pertussis and Hib than HIV-unexposed infants, following
301 vaccination. This study is limited by the lack of data on maternal and baseline (birth) infant
302 antibody responses, and a lack of correlation with clinical endpoints. The protocol
303 violations (vaccination with BCG when subjects were randomized to the delayed BCG
304 group) and high loss to follow-up may also have introduced bias. We did not find any
305 differences at birth in sex, birth weight, or maternal HIV status between infants in the
306 protocol deviation group, and infants who were vaccinated as per randomisation schedule,
307 but this does not exclude bias (for example, if loss to follow-up was associated with
308 differences in response to immunization).

309 We found that the proportion of children with Hib antibody >1 mg/ml were consistently of
310 greater magnitude amongst HEU compared to HUU infants in both the early and delayed
311 vaccination groups and remained significant after controlling for the timing of BCG
312 vaccination, birth weight and sex, at week 14. The proportion of children with anti-
313 pertussis antibody >30 FDA-U/ml at 24 weeks of age was also higher amongst HIV-exposed
314 infants. These data are consistent with our own and other published data.[5, 23] The higher
315 observed antibody responses to Hib and pertussis amongst HEU infants may be due to
316 reduced maternal-infant placental antibody transfer in the presence of maternal HIV
317 infection. Jones et al showed that HEU infants had lower concentrations of specific
318 antibodies at birth than HUU infants to Hib, wP, pneumococcus and tetanus vaccines, in the
319 identical study setting.[7] Maternal antibodies can inhibit infant responses to measles,
320 tetanus, wP, and Hib vaccines, although this effect varies considerably between different
321 vaccines and studies.[32-34] Another explanation for this may be non-specific T cell
322 activation as a result of *in utero*, peripartum or postpartum HIV exposure and increased
323 immune maturity.[35]

324 Maternal infections, including HIV, can negatively impact placental integrity and maternal-
325 foetal antibody transfer. A study amongst Kenyan HIV-infected women and their infants
326 showed that high maternal viral load was associated with reduced transplacental transfer of
327 measles antibodies.[36] Although vaccination of women during pregnancy leads to
328 transplacental transfer of antibodies, high total maternal IgG concentrations may lead to
329 decreased antibody concentrations in infants; this effect can last until up to 12 months of
330 age.[37] In this study, we have no data on prevaccination antibody levels, and therefore
331 cannot distinguish whether HEU infants had poor antibody responses due to inherent
332 deficiencies in immunity, or due to differences in passive maternal antibody levels.
333 Although persistence of maternal antibodies may limit infant antibody responses, priming

334 of infant T-cell responses are unaffected by these passively transferred antibodies, which
335 may explain why humoral responses are altered, but not cellular responses [37, 38]. In this
336 study, we did not measure T cell responses to vaccines, but we found compromised IFN- γ
337 ELISPOT responses in HEU.[23] Antibodies alone are a convenient yet imperfect measure of
338 vaccine-induced effects, as cell-mediated immunity is likely also an important component of
339 protection against vaccine-preventable disease.

340 Our finding that BCG timing had no effect on antibody responses to unrelated vaccines is
341 inconsistent with data from a single study from Ota et al from the Gambia, a setting with
342 high infant mortality but low HIV prevalence. Here, giving BCG at birth markedly increased
343 the cellular and antibody responses to HBV in low birth weight infants at 18 weeks. [12]
344 BCG enhanced antibody responses to OPV, but only when given at the time of boosting. BCG
345 had no detectable effect on antibody responses to TT (consistent with our findings) and
346 diphtheria toxoid vaccines at 18 weeks. A proposed mechanism for these BCG effects on
347 HBV and OPV responses is the enhanced activation of T lymphocytes by dendritic cells and
348 BCG- enhanced induction of memory B cells. Unlike in the Gambia, infants in South Africa
349 receive OPV but not HBV at birth. This may partly explain the lack of effect of BCG on
350 response to HBV in our study. However, given the almost universally protective immunity
351 elicited by HBV vaccine in infants, the clinical relevance of changes in responsiveness due to
352 concomitant BCG vaccination is unknown.

353 The low proportion of infants in our study with “protective” antibody to Hib and pertussis
354 at 24 weeks, 10 weeks after vaccination at week 14, is concerning. Low responses confirm
355 that boosting is essential, as already practiced in the EPI. However, the coverage of DTP-Hib
356 4 boosting at 18 months was low (<60%) ii routine care at the time of the study, which
357 leaves a large gap in “protective” immunity. Hussey et al reported similar low levels of

358 protective antibody responses (69.1%) following vaccination with the same Hib vaccine
359 amongst South African infants at 18 weeks of age in an adjacent community.[38] A recent
360 outbreak of pertussis in Bloemfontein, South Africa, confirms the need for better
361 immunization practices and suggests that young children are vulnerable and can contribute
362 to its spread [39].

363 Our findings suggest that the timing of BCG vaccination does not have a major effect on the
364 antibody responses to Hib, pertussis, tetanus and hepatitis B vaccines amongst South
365 African infants; however, delaying BCG vaccination to 14 weeks of age may deny children
366 the possible beneficial non-specific reductions in pneumonia and sepsis after BCG at birth,
367 [16, 17] and it may affect cell-mediated responses to other vaccines and alter the clinical
368 effects (neither of which were assessed in this study). Although antibody responses to Hib
369 and pertussis were higher amongst HIV-exposed than HIV-unexposed infants, they were not
370 “protective” in a third of infants by 52 weeks of age. These findings support further
371 investigation into optimizing infant vaccination strategies in settings with high HIV
372 prevalence.

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382 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

383 All authors: none declare

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505 **Figure and Table Captions:**

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507 Figure 1: Flowchart of BCG-vaccinated infants investigated for serum antibody levels
508 following a per protocol analysis.

509 Table 1. Characteristics of 180 infants randomized to BCG at birth or delayed BCG
510 vaccination at 14 weeks of age, by randomization arm.

511 Figure 2. Concentration of antibody titres to a) Hib, b) pertussis, c) tetanus and d) HBV
512 measured at 14, 24, and 52 weeks of age in infants who received BCG at birth (dark grey
513 dots) vs. infants who received delayed BCG at 14 weeks of age (light grey dots), regardless
514 of HIV-exposure status. Shaded area indicates “protective” antibody concentrations. Bar and
515 error bars represent geometric mean concentration (GMC) with 95% confidence interval.

516 Figure 3. Concentration of antibody titres to a) Hib, b) pertussis, c) tetanus and d) HBV
517 measured at 14, 24, and 52 weeks of age in HIV-exposed infants (dark grey dots) vs. HIV-
518 unexposed infant (light grey dots), regardless of timing of BCG vaccination. Shaded area
519 indicates “protective” antibody concentrations. Bar and error bars represent geometric
520 mean concentration with 95% confidence interval.

521 Table 2. Proportions of infants with “protective” antibody levels to Haemophilus influenza
522 b, whole cell pertussis, tetanus toxoid and hepatitis B vaccines comparing HIV-exposed and
523 –unexposed infants, regardless of timing of BCG vaccination (summary data).

524 Table 3. Multiple linear regression for predictors of “protective” antibody titres to
525 Haemophilus influenzae b conjugate vaccine and whole cell B. pertussis at 14 weeks of age
526 (N=165).

527 Supplementary Table 1. Proportion of infants with “protective” antibody levels to
528 Haemophilus influenza b, whole cell pertussis, tetanus toxoid and hepatitis B vaccines at 14,
529 24 and 52 weeks of age in infants receiving BCG at birth vs. infants receiving delayed BCG
530 vaccination at 14 weeks of age.

531 Supplementary Table 2. Antibody concentrations Haemophilus influenza b (HIB), whole cell
532 pertussis, tetanus toxoid (TT), and hepatitis B vaccines (HBV) at 14, 24 and 52 weeks
533 (N=165) regardless of HIV exposure or timing of BCG vaccination (summary analysis).

534 Supplementary Figure 1. Antibody titres in HIV-exposed infants to a) Hib, b) pertussis, c)
535 tetanus and d) HBV measured at 14, 24, and 52 weeks of age in infants who received BCG
536 vaccination at birth (black dots) vs. infants who received delayed BCG vaccination at 14
537 weeks of age (white circles). Shaded area indicates “protective” antibody concentrations.
538 Bar and error bars represent geometric mean concentration (GMC) with 95% confidence
539 interval.

540

Table 1

| | BCG at birth (N=106) | | | Delayed BCG at 14 weeks (N=74) | | | Comparison of birth vs. delayed arms |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------|---|
| | HIV-exposed (N=67, 63.2%) | HIV- unexposed (N=39, 36.8%) | p value | HIV-exposed (N=46, 62.2%) | HIV- unexposed (N=28, 37.8%) | p value | |
| Female sex (%) | 31 (46.2%) | 18 (46.2%) | 0.99 | 21 (45.6%) | 13 (46.4%) | 0.95 | 0.97 |
| Mean birth weight, grams (standard error) | 3250 (60) | 3240 (120) | 0.95 | 3170 (60) | 3200 (80) | 0.73 | 0.42 |
| Mean maternal CD4+ T cell count (standard error) | 355 (28) | N/A | | 386 (28) | N/A | | 0.47 |
| Maternal highly active antiretroviral therapy (%) | 34 (50.7%) | N/A | | 31 (67.4%) | N/A | | 0.077 |

Table 2

| | <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> B Frequency (%) | | | Pertussis Frequency (%) | | | Tetanus Frequency (%) | | | Hepatitis B Frequency (%) | | |
|---------|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| | Protective levels (>1 mg/ml) | | | Positive (“protected”) (>30 FDA-U/ml) | | | “Sufficient or long-term immunity” (>0.1 IU/ml) | | | Positive (“protected”) (≥10 mIU/ml) | | |
| | HIV- exposed N (%) | HIV- unexposed N (%) | Odds ratio (95% CI) | HIV- exposed N (%) | HIV- unexposed N (%) | Odds ratio (95% CI) | HIV- exposed N (%) | HIV- unexposed N (%) | Odds ratio (95% CI) | HIV- exposed N (%) | HIV- unexposed N (%) | Odds ratio (95% CI) |
| Week 14 | 69/101 (68.3) | 27/58 (46.6) | 1.75 (1.17- 2.63) | 47/101 (46.5) | 27/60 (44.8) | 1.05 (0.69- 1.58) | 100/100 (100.0) | 58/58 (100.0) | N/A | 80/80 (100.0) | 50/51 (98.0) | N/A |
| Week 24 | 68/94 (72.3)) | 24/55 (43.6) | 2.09 (1.37- 3.17) | 60/85 (70.6) | 25/53 (47.2) | 1.80 (1.19- 2.72) | 86/86 (100.0) | 63/63 (100.0) | N/A | 93/93 (100.0) | 48/48 (100.0) | N/A |
| Week 52 | 21/54 (38.9) | 8/30 (26.7) | 1.45 (0.74- 2.84) | 31/51 (60.4) | 18/30 (60.0) | 1.01 (0.56- 1.81) | 52/53 (98.1) | 29/29 (100.0) | 0.08 (0.96- 1.02) | 28/28 (100.0) | 20/20 (100.0) | N/A |

Table 3

| | <i>Haemophilus influenzae b</i> | | | Pertussis | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Coefficient | 95% Confidence Interval | p value | Coefficient | 95% Confidence Interval | p value |
| BCG vaccination given at birth | -0.20 | -0.45-0.04 | 0.102 | -0.14 | -0.34—0.05 | 0.151 |
| HIV exposure | 0.47 | 0.21-0.72 | <0.001 | 0.16 | -0.04-0.36 | 0.121 |
| Birth weight (kg) | 0.18 | -0.06-0.41 | 0.149 | -0.02 | -0.21-0.17 | 0.839 |
| Male sex | 0.07 | -0.17-0.31 | 0.567 | 0.15 | 0.33-1.28 | 0.128 |

Figure 1

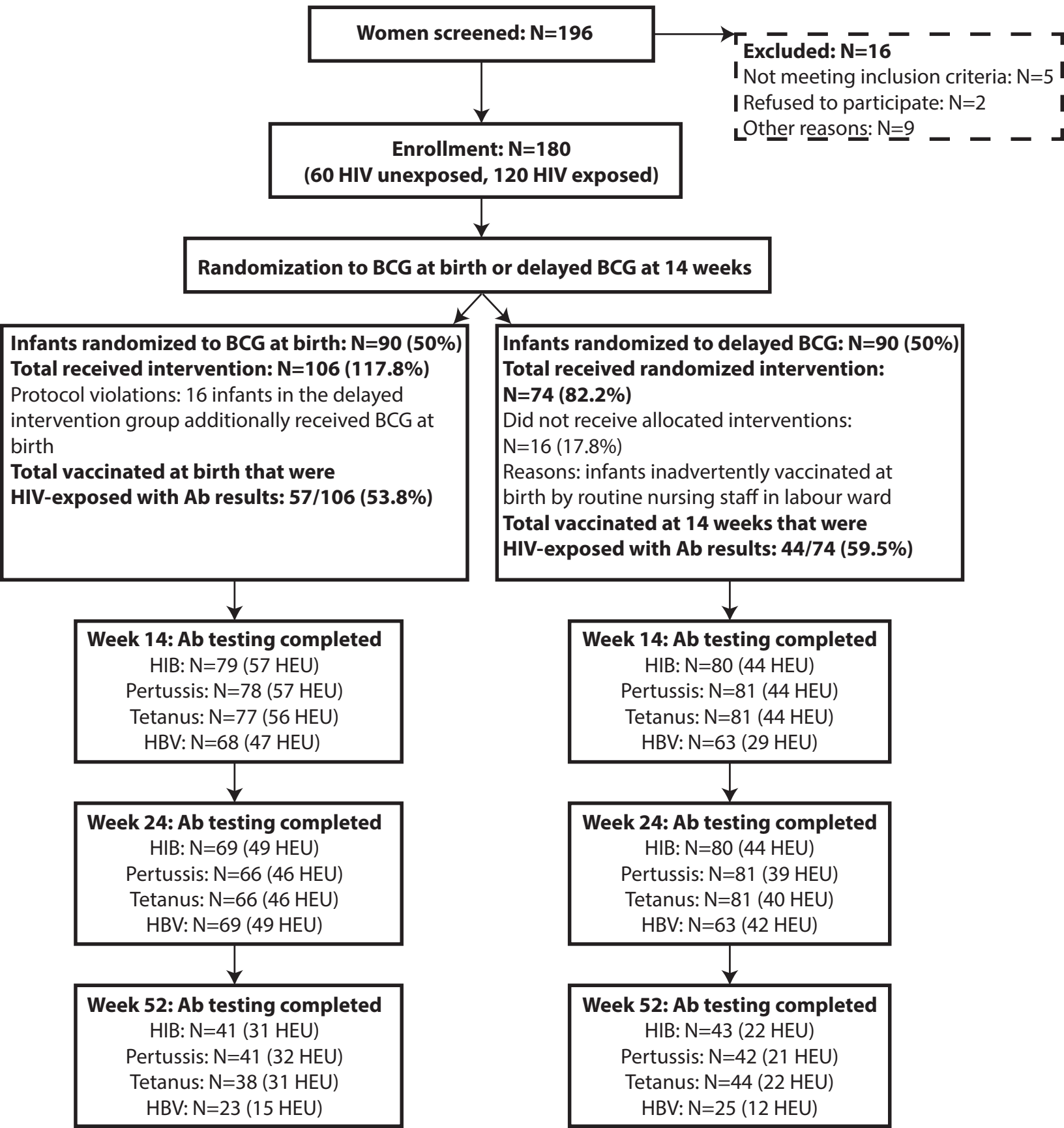
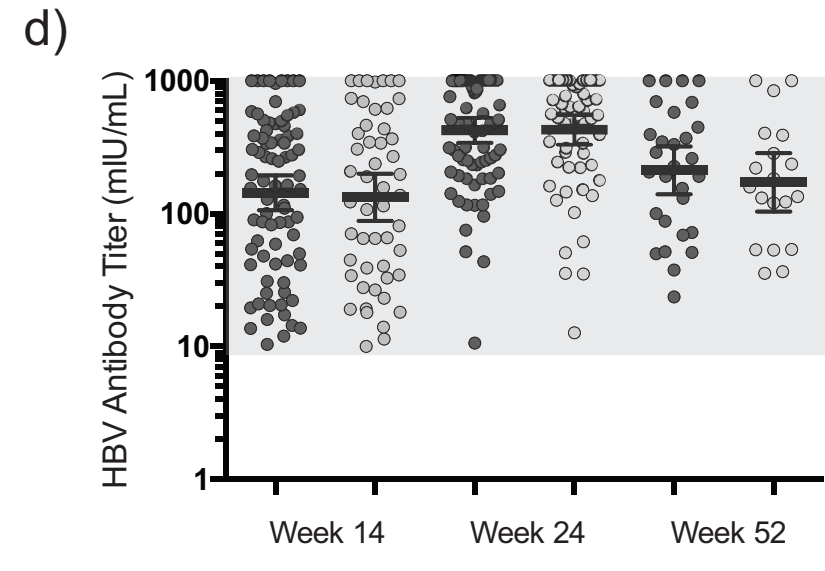
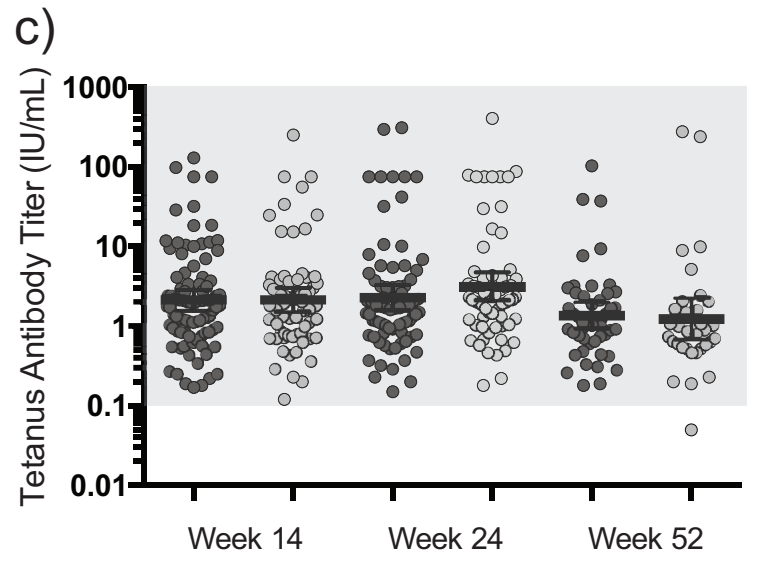
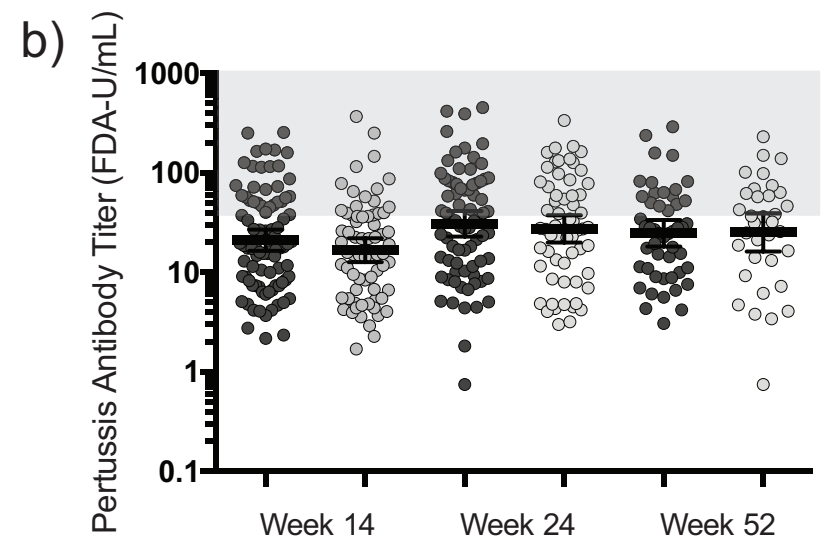
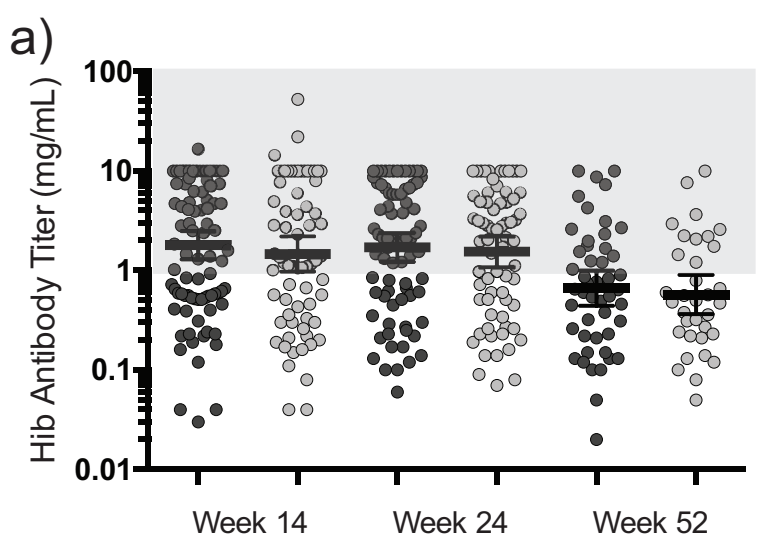
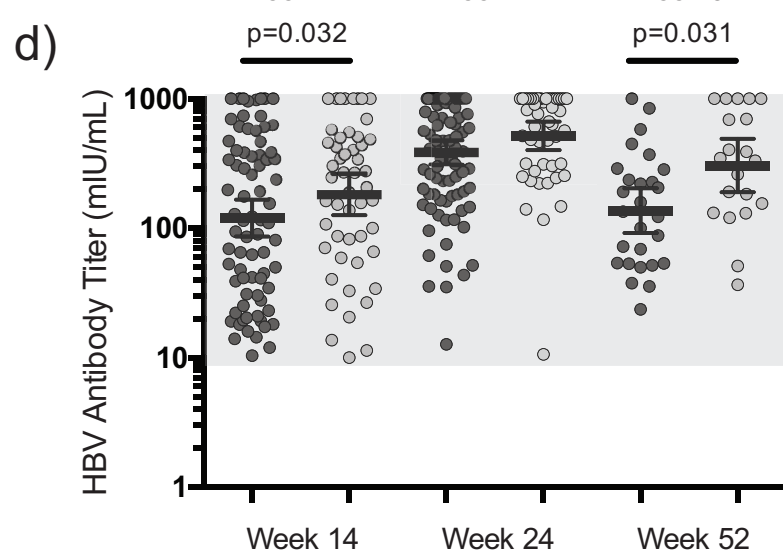
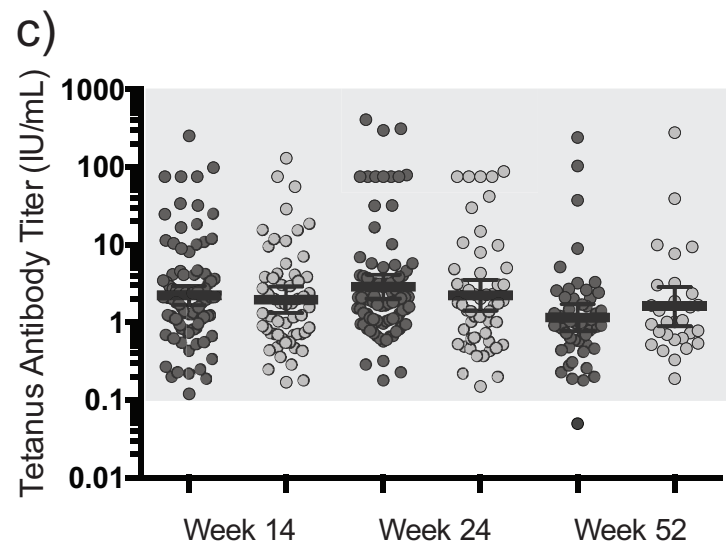
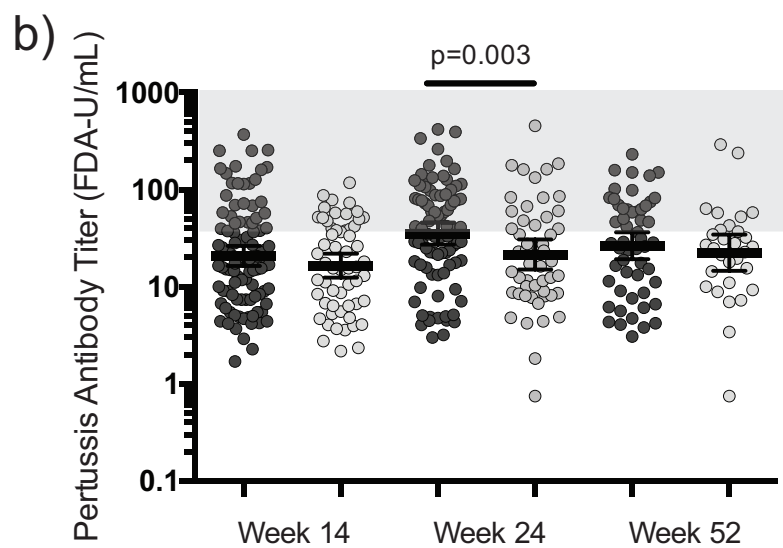
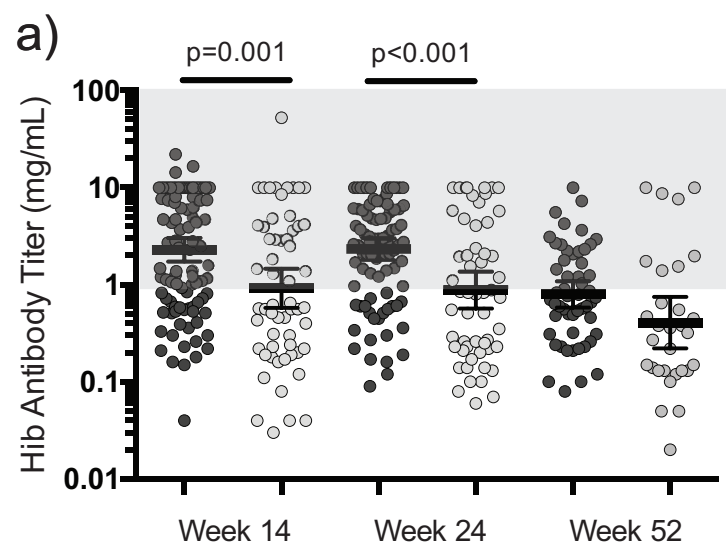


Figure 2



● Birth
○ Delayed

Figure 3



● HIV-exposed
○ HIV-unexposed

Supplementary Figure 1

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Supplementary Table 1

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Supplementary Table 2

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