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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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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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4 de Beer<sup>7</sup>, Louise Kuhn<sup>8</sup>, Mark F. Cotton<sup>9\*\*</sup> and Heather B. Jaspan<sup>2,10\*\*</sup>

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42 **ABSTRACT**

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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 influenzae*  
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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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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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,<sup>™</sup>  
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  $\leq 1$  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  $\geq 10$  mIU/ml as positive, based on standard international  
185 criteria. [27]

186

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/mm<sup>3</sup> (SD  
224 23.7). Of HIV-infected women, 27 (15%) had a CD4+ T lymphocyte count ≤200 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>;  
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 log<sub>10</sub>-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- $\gamma$   
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

	<b><i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> B</b> Frequency (%)			<b>Pertussis</b> Frequency (%)			<b>Tetanus</b> Frequency (%)			<b>Hepatitis B</b> Frequency (%)		
	<b>Protective levels</b> (>1 mg/ml)			<b>Positive (“protected”)</b> (>30 FDA-U/ml)			<b>“Sufficient or long-term immunity”</b> (>0.1 IU/ml)			<b>Positive (“protected”)</b> (≥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	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	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

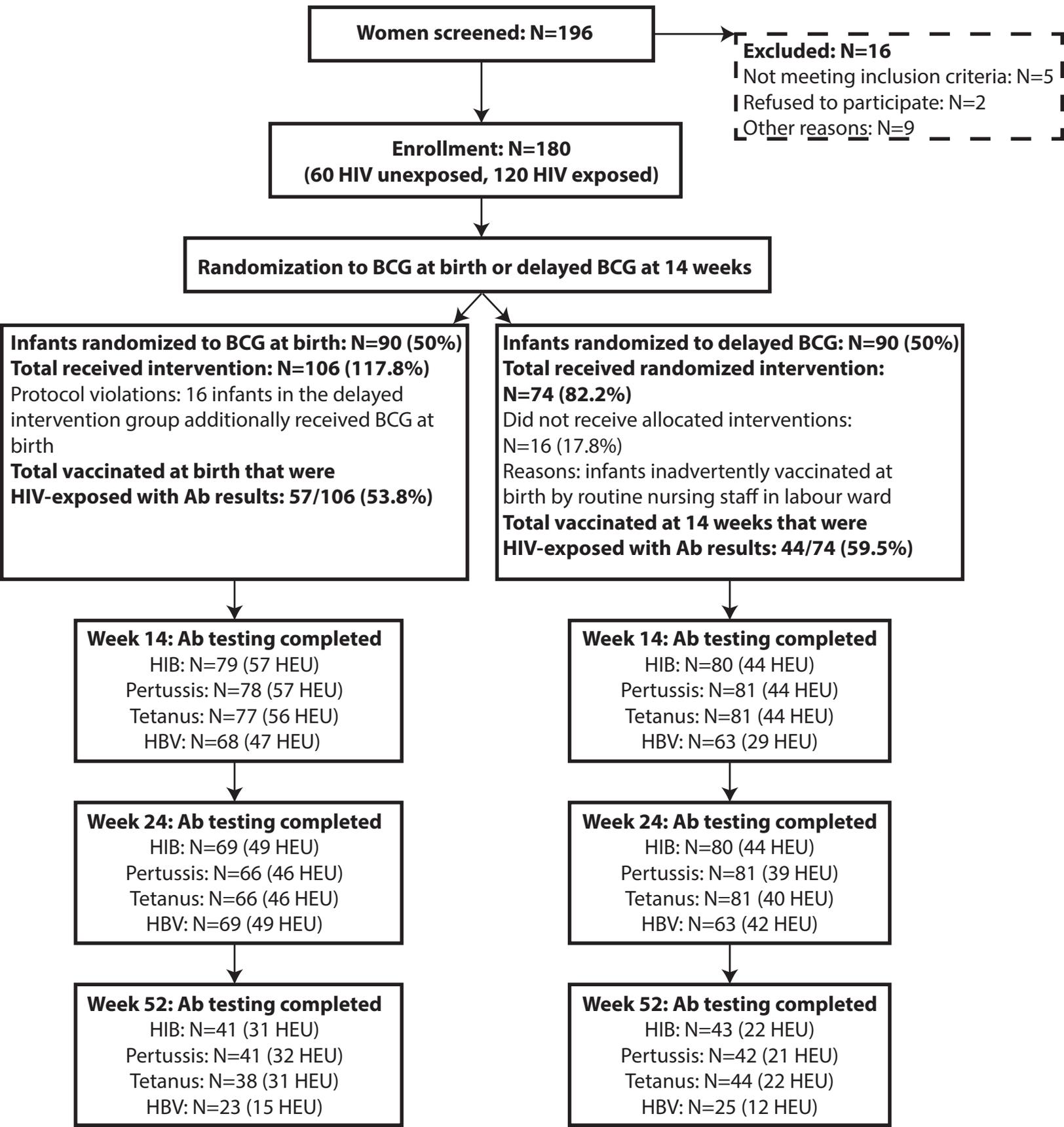
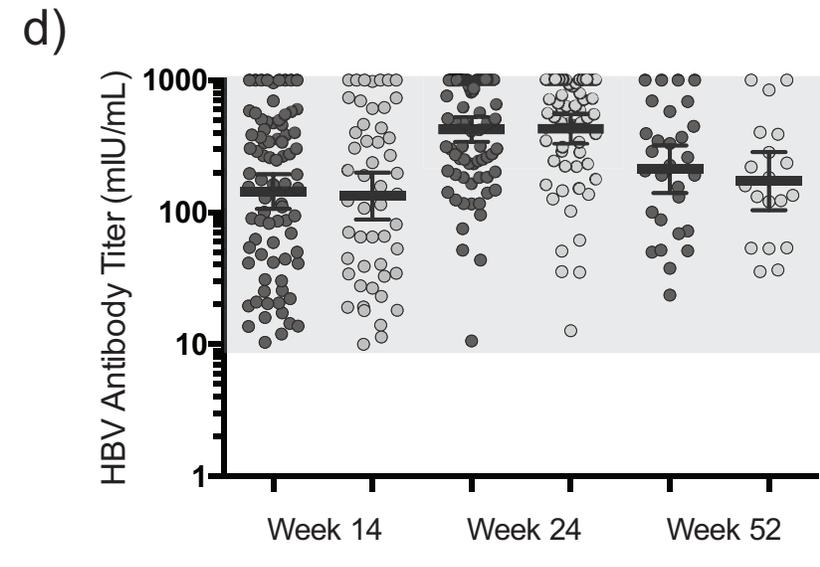
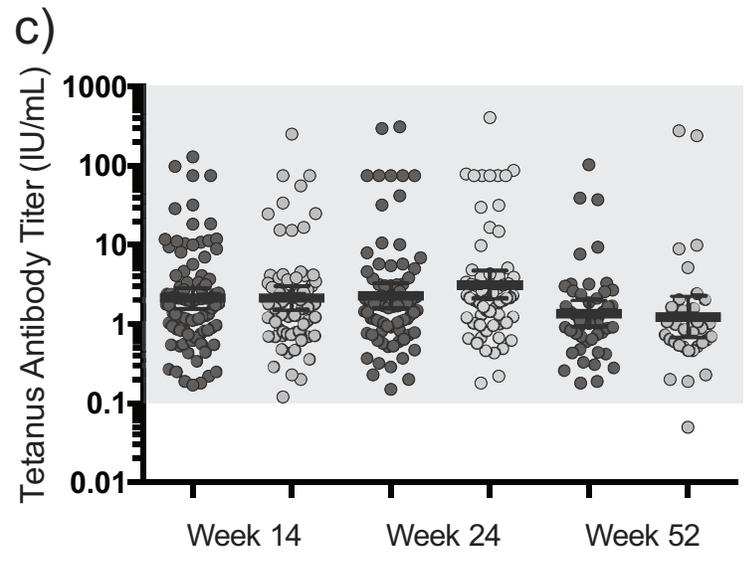
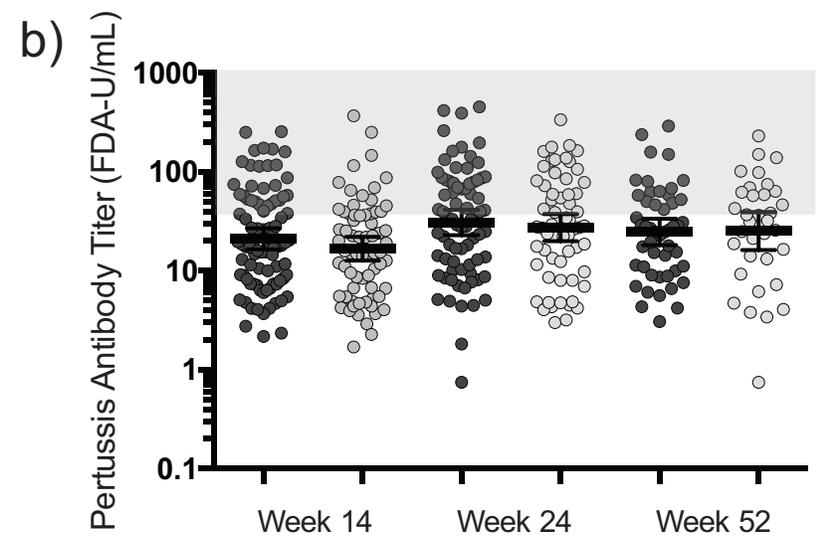
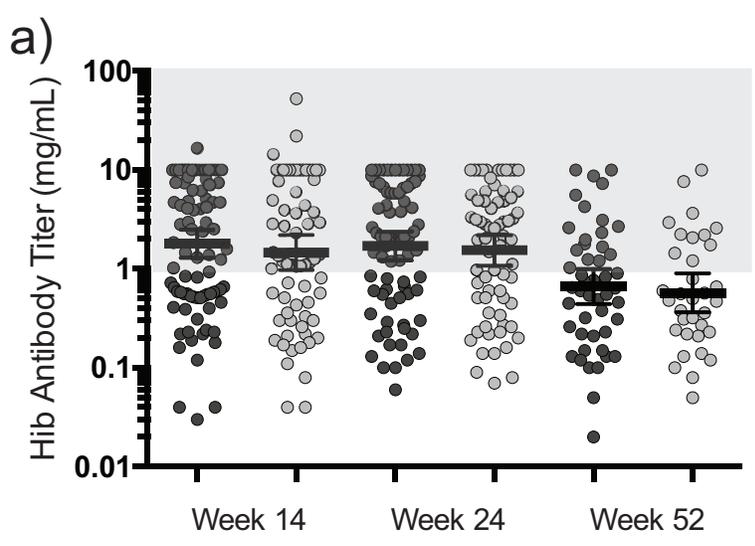
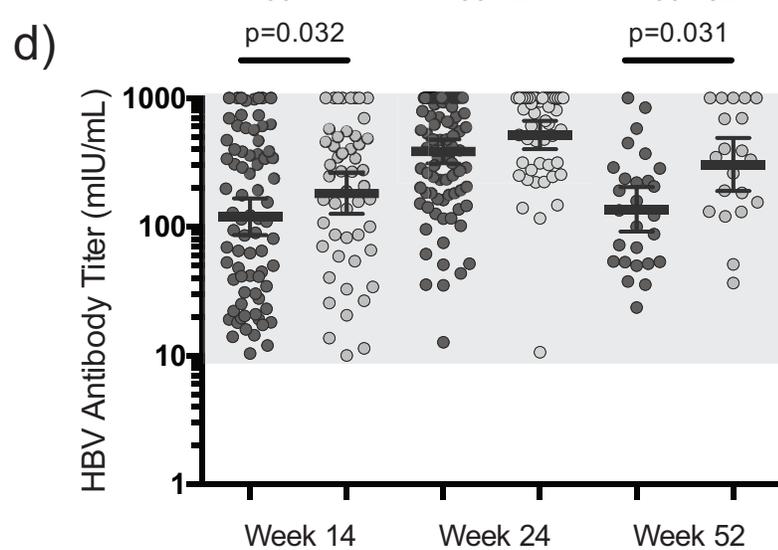
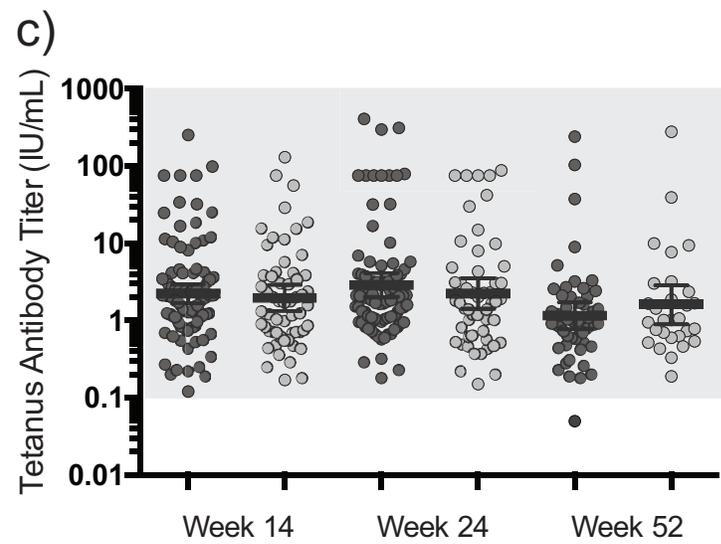
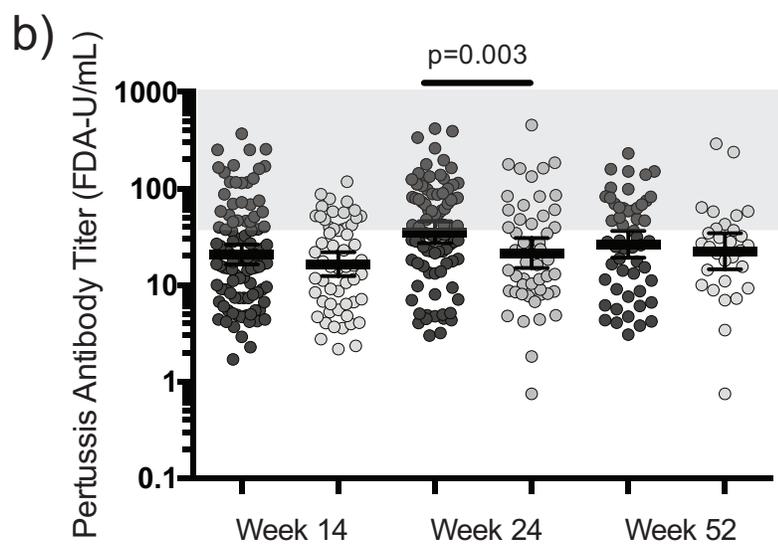
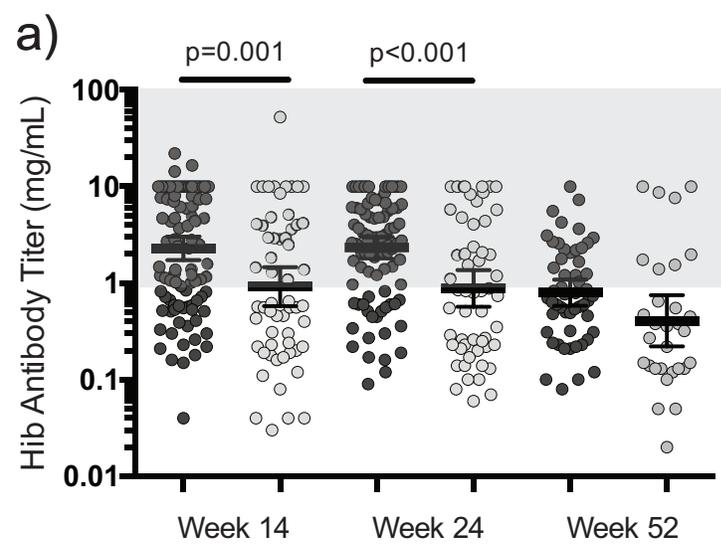


Figure 2



● 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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