

Abstract

1 Group B streptococcus (GBS) is estimated to have caused 319,000 cases of neonatal disease
2 resulting in 90,000 infant deaths globally in 2015. It is also associated with maternal sepsis,
3 preterm births, stillbirths and neonatal encephalopathy. There is a significant burden of
4 neurological impairment amongst survivors of infant GBS disease. Intrapartum antibiotic
5 prophylaxis strategies have reduced the incidence of newborn early-onset GBS (occurring days 0-
6 6) in some settings, but they are not feasible in many low and middle income countries. A maternal
7 vaccine given to pregnant women to stimulate passive transplacental transfer of protective
8 antibodies has the potential to reduce maternal disease, adverse pregnancy outcomes and
9 newborn disease. Phase I and II vaccine studies are occurring, but conducting phase III efficacy
10 studies of a GBS vaccine candidate would require very large numbers due to the relatively low
11 incidence of invasive GBS disease. It has therefore been proposed that alternative pathways to
12 vaccine licensure should be explored, for example, through use of a regulatory approved correlate
13 of protection and safety evaluation in mothers, fetuses and infants. These studies would then be
14 followed-up with post-licensure phase IV studies in which vaccine effectiveness is evaluated.
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Title - Group B Streptococcus: Trials and Tribulations

Running Title - GBS: Trials and Tribulations

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Conflict of interest

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Group B Streptococcus: Trials and Tribulations

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KEYWORDS - *Streptococcus agalactiae*, Immunisation, Newborn, Infection

Introduction

Group B streptococcus (GBS; *Streptococcus agalactiae*) colonises the female gastrointestinal and rectovaginal tracts of an estimated 18% (95% confidence interval 17-19%) of women globally (1). It causes a spectrum of disease that includes puerperal sepsis, neonatal sepsis and stillbirth. It may also contribute to premature birth and neonatal encephalopathy (2). A comprehensive, 2017 systematic review and meta-analysis estimated a global pooled incidence of invasive infant GBS disease of 0.49 (95%CI 0.43-0.56) per 1000 live births (3). Worldwide in 2015, GBS was estimated to have caused 319,000 (119,000-417,000) cases of invasive neonatal GBS disease, resulting in 90,000 deaths (4). It is the most important cause of neonatal early-onset sepsis in high-income countries such as the United Kingdom (5). In many high-income countries it is also the most common cause of bacterial meningitis in young children (6) (7).

The incidence of early onset GBS infections (0-6 days) has declined significantly in many settings that have adopted intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis (IAP), however, different strategies have been implemented globally (8, 9). In settings such as Africa, IAP implementation is challenging due to overstretched health systems and the burden of invasive GBS disease is high, with an estimated incidence of 1.12/1000 live births (3).

A recent Cochrane review demonstrated that IAP strategies have no impact on reducing mortality from early onset disease (EOGBS) (10) and case-fatality rates from both EOGBS and late onset disease (LOGBS) remain high (4). Moreover, the incidence of LOGBS has been unaffected by the introduction of IAP strategies. Other prevention strategies are urgently required to decrease morbidity and mortality from invasive neonatal GBS disease.

Multivalent vaccines are in development which could be delivered to pregnant women to protect their infants against GBS disease. Trivalent polysaccharide-protein conjugate formulations were found to be safe and effective in a small number of non-pregnant adults and pregnant women (11). Phase I and II clinical trials are underway with hexavalent conjugate vaccines as well as protein-based vaccines (12). Phase III efficacy trials however, will require very large numbers of pregnant women due to the relatively low baseline incidence of invasive GBS disease (13). An alternative pathway to licensure for such vaccines could be based on serocorrelates of protection – in which the antibody levels that confer protection against invasive GBS disease in the infant are quantified - and suitable vaccines are those capable of achieving such levels. (14). A similar method has been utilised for licensing *Neisseria meningitidis* group C and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b vaccines (15). Several retrospective case control studies provide data that indicate that serocorrelates of protection against GBS disease might be determined (16) (17) (18). These studies have

1 compared anti-GBS antibody in maternal serum, infant serum and cord blood of infants that
2 develop GBS disease compared to healthy controls.

3 This review paper aims to outline global prevention strategies for neonatal GBS disease with
4 a focus on GBS vaccine development and assay methods for evaluation of the clinical
5 efficacy of GBS vaccines.
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7 Neonatal GBS disease

8 *Early Onset GBS Disease*

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10 Early-onset invasive GBS disease (EOGBS) in infants (occurring day 0-6) is caused by vertical
11 transmission from a colonised mother (19). Maternal colonisation is the greatest risk factor
12 for early onset (0-6 days) invasive GBS disease. The prevalence of global maternal
13 colonisation is estimated to be 18%. However, there appears to be regional variations in
14 colonisation rates (11-35%), with highest rates reported in the Caribbean and Southern
15 Africa (1). Other risk factors include prolonged rupture of membranes, preterm delivery,
16 GBS bacteriuria during pregnancy, birth of a previous infant with invasive GBS disease,
17 maternal chorioamnionitis, intrapartum fever, young maternal age and low levels of
18 antibody to type-specific capsular polysaccharide (20, 21). In the absence of intrapartum
19 antibiotic policies around 50% of babies born to colonised mothers become colonised and 1-
20 2% of them progress to develop invasive disease (22). Most cases of EOGBS occur within 24-
21 48 hours of birth (23). The most common manifestation of EOGBS is sepsis, but infants with
22 EOGBS may also present with pneumonia and meningitis and the condition may progress
23 rapidly (24). Overall the estimated case fatality rate from EOGBS disease is 10% (7-12%) with
24 case fatality rates fourfold higher in Africa (18.9%, 95% CI 13.7%-24%) than in developed
25 countries (4.7%, 3.3-6.1%) (3). Serotypes Ia, Ib, II, III and V are responsible for more than
26 90% of EOGBS, however, overall there is a paucity of data from low and middle income
27 countries (LMICs) (4).
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37 *Late Onset GBS Disease*

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39 Late-onset disease (LOGBS) (occurring days 7-90) can be caused by either vertical
40 transmission or horizontal transmission from environmental exposures (19). Risk factors for
41 late onset (7-90 days) invasive GBS disease are less well understood and prevention
42 strategies have not yet been developed. Prematurity may be a major risk factor for LOGBS
43 with studies demonstrating that the risk increases with each week of reducing gestation (25,
44 26). HIV exposed infants are also at higher risk of developing LOGBS compared to HIV
45 unexposed infants. A South African study reported that the risk ratio for LOGBS was 3.2
46 (95% CI 2.3-4.4) for HIV-exposed infants compared to HIV-unexposed infants (27).
47 Meningitis is one of the leading presentations of LOGBS with up to 50% cases presenting in
48 this way (24). Serotype III is the predominant cause of LOGBS (4). Case fatality rates from
49 LOGBS are estimated to be 7% (4-9%).
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55 *Disease Outcomes*

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57 Survivors of infant GBS disease are at risk of neurodevelopmental impairment. A 2017
58 systematic review and meta-analysis of 18 studies showed that 32% (95% CI 25-38%) of
59 infants with GBS meningitis from middle and high-income countries had
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1 neurodevelopmental impairment at 18 months follow-up, 18% (95% CI 12-24%) of these had
2 moderate to severe impairment (28). There are no studies in low and middle income
3 countries, where the burden may be higher.

4 **Intrapartum Antibiotic Prophylaxis**

5 *Intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis screening strategies*

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8 There are currently two different approaches used to identify pregnant women that require
9 IAP: the culture-based strategy used in countries such as the US, Canada and parts of
10 Australia and the risk factor-based strategy used in the UK, the Netherlands and South
11 Africa, among others (9). The former identifies GBS colonisation at 35-37 weeks' gestation
12 (using a rectovaginal swab); intravenous benzylpenicillin or ampicillin is then offered to
13 colonised women during labour. The second strategy is based on the presence of clinical risk
14 factors including preterm labour (<37 weeks), prolonged rupture of membranes, maternal
15 pyrexia (temperature >38°C), previous infant with GBS disease and GBS bacteriuria (29).
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20 *Culture based versus risk-factor based screening strategies*

21 The decision to implement a risk factor-based strategy rather than a culture-based one is
22 often based on the perception that a culture-based strategy would be more expensive than
23 a risk-based strategy. There are also no randomised trials which compare the efficacy of the
24 2 strategies. However a large US cohort study suggested that a culture-based strategy was
25 around twice as effective as a risk-based strategy (30).
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29 Risk-based strategies might be less effective as not all women whose babies develop EOGBS
30 will have risk factors evident during labour. For example, in the recent UK national
31 surveillance study, only 35% of EOGBS cases had one or more of the conventional risk
32 factors (31). Furthermore, those identified with risk factors during labour may not receive
33 IAP in a timely fashion (30).
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37 There are data that demonstrate that rectovaginal colonisation during pregnancy is not
38 constant; there is both a high rate of new acquisition and a loss of colonisation over the
39 course of the pregnancy. Culture-based strategies may therefore be less effective as they
40 may fail to detect all women colonised at delivery due to the time delay between screening
41 and labour. Conversely, women who lose colonisation between screening and delivery may
42 be given unnecessary antibiotics (32).
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46 An intrapartum screening strategy using rapid tests has been proposed as a means to avoid
47 this issue (33) as there have been significant advances in PCR technologies and new
48 detection platforms for bacterial identification. However, it has technical and logistic
49 challenges such as test availability, its use in busy maternity settings and the fact that
50 women need to arrive at an earlier stage of labour. The sensitivity and specificity of the PCR
51 from a meta-analysis was 90% (95%CI 88%–93%) and 92% (95%CI 91–94%) respectively
52 compared with culture (34, 35). Additionally, PCR will not currently define antimicrobial
53 resistance, an important deficiency when considering the optimal antibiotic to offer a
54 women who is allergic to penicillin.
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“Costs” of IAP

The number of deliveries exposed to IAP in the US has increased from 12% in the pre-prevention era to 32% in the prevention era (36). This is an important issue considering the international efforts to control antimicrobial resistance and conserve antibiotics. Resistance to penicillin is very rare but resistance to clindamycin, commonly used as a second line treatment in women allergic to β -lactam antibiotics, is becoming more common. Rates of clindamycin resistance in the UK are now up to 17%(37). In addition to the concern regarding antimicrobial resistance, the use of IAP might produce long-term effects on infant gut flora, cause an increase in culture negative GBS sepsis and non-GBS sepsis and result in maternal anaphylaxis (38).

In addition to the large proportion of deliveries exposed to intrapartum antibiotics, a significant number of infants are exposed to antibiotics due to suspected early onset neonatal sepsis (EOS), of which GBS is one of the most important aetiological agents. In the European Union an estimated 395,000 infants (7.9% of live births at term) are given antibiotics for suspected EOS, whilst only 0.1% of liveborn infants have culture proven sepsis (39).

Maternal vaccination for GBS

Vaccine Development

In 2014 the World Health Organisation (WHO) convened the first meeting of the Product Development for Vaccines Advisory Committee (PDVAC). The committee reviewed the status of vaccine development against 18 pathogens that contribute significantly to disease burden in LMICs. GBS was identified as one of the pathogens with a high burden amongst neonates and infants that may be amenable to prevention by immunisation. In April 2016, a WHO consultation on GBS vaccines was convened with representatives from industry, academia, public health agencies and funding bodies. The discussion in this meeting concentrated on the development of vaccines for maternal immunisation with a focus on the needs of LMICs (40).

Maternal Vaccination: Closing the window of vulnerability

In 1976, it was reported for the first time that transplacental transfer of native maternal antibodies to type III capsular polysaccharide was associated with protection against infant invasive disease with this serotype (16). Results from subsequent studies supported this initial finding and showed that it was also true of other GBS serotypes. This provided a rationale for maternal vaccination. Vaccinating women during pregnancy in order to increase transplacental transfer of protective antibodies may prevent disease in their young infants. This concept has been demonstrated successfully for neonatal tetanus (41), pertussis (42) and influenza (43) infections.

Potential vaccine targets

GBS expresses a number of virulence factors that are involved in colonisation, adherence, mucosal invasion and immune evasion (44). These are potential vaccine candidates. The capsular polysaccharide is the most well-studied virulence factor. Other potential candidates include proteins such as surface anchoring adhesins(45, 46). To initiate infection and invasion of a specific organ, bacterial pathogens must first be able to attach to an

1 appropriate target tissue by specific multiple tropisms between bacterial surface ligands and
2 host receptors. Surface-anchoring adhesion molecules of GBS may therefore represent good
3 candidates for vaccine development.

4 *CPS Conjugate Vaccines*

5 Favourable safety of CPS vaccines has been shown in small studies of non-pregnant and
6 pregnant women (47). Glycoconjugate vaccines have the potential to produce a stronger
7 and more functional IgG response than plain polysaccharide vaccines as the immunogenicity
8 of polysaccharides is enhanced by covalent conjugation with a carrier protein. Initially, GBS
9 vaccine studies used tetanus toxoid (TT) as the carrier protein but there have been concerns
10 about possible adverse events (48, 49). Another carrier protein used is CRM₁₉₇, a nontoxic
11 mutant of diphtheria toxin. However, TT-conjugated GBS vaccines might still be considered
12 where maternal and neonatal tetanus remain a concern, replacing one of the current
13 tetanus boosters(15).

14 Currently, there are four large companies undertaking efforts to develop a GBS conjugate
15 vaccine. The most advanced candidates are hexavalent vaccines (serotypes Ia, Ib, II, III, IV,
16 V), which are now in phase I/II trials.

17 *Protein Vaccines*

18 CPS conjugate vaccines only provide protection against serotypes included in the vaccine, or
19 closely related ones. Therefore, efforts to identify common proteins to all GBS strains have
20 been made in order to find a vaccine that confers broad protection against GBS. The most
21 well-known and abundant surface protein is the Alp protein family. MinervaX Inc. recently
22 announced that their protein vaccine based on the fusion of highly immunogenic N-terminal
23 domains of Alpha C and Rib proteins (Alp family proteins) showed positive results from a
24 phase I trial in 240 healthy non-pregnant women (50). Other surface proteins included in
25 experimental vaccine studies are serine-rich repeat (SRR) glycoproteins, C5a peptidase and
26 Pilus proteins (51).

27 *Cost-effectiveness evaluations*

28 Several studies in high and middle-income countries have evaluated the cost-effectiveness
29 of a GBS vaccine compared to 'doing nothing', screening or risk-based IAP strategies. These
30 analyses concluded that maternal immunisation would lead to important reductions in the
31 burden of infant GBS disease and be considered very cost-effective (52) (53, 54)

32 There is a modelling study of different sub-Saharan African country scenarios which
33 concluded that maternal GBS immunisation could be a cost-effective intervention, with
34 cost-effectiveness ratios similar to other recently introduced vaccines. However, the
35 vaccination cost at which introduction is cost-effective depends on disease incidence and
36 vaccine efficacy. Mathematical modelling studies might be helpful in predicting
37 effectiveness and cost-effectiveness in different LMICs but more data on disease burden are
38 required (55).

39 *Antibody and protection*

40 Seroepidemiological studies have shown some evidence in favour of an association between
41 low maternal CPS specific antibody and the risk of invasive GBS disease in their infants (56).

1 Associations between maternal GBS surface-protein concentrations and infant invasive
2 disease have been less clearly established (57) (15).

3 There are two potential assays for measuring immune responses to GBS, an enzyme-linked
4 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and an opsonophagocytic killing assay (OPKA) which is a
5 measure of functional antibody rather than total concentration or titre (58). Several issues
6 have been highlighted in historical studies: the lack of standard reference sera for
7 standardisation of GBS ELISA, immobilisation of GBS-CPS on ELISA plates need to be
8 optimised and the low affinity of natural and non-specific binding antibodies needs to be
9 resolved. Furthermore assays need to be optimised and validated in multiple laboratories
10 (51) (59). Such standardization efforts are underway

15 Conclusions

16 Despite the availability in many countries of IAP, GBS persists as an infection of significant
17 public health importance and is responsible for around 90,000 deaths in infants in the first
18 90 days of life (4). Up to 50% of infants that survive neonatal meningitis are left with long-
19 term neurological sequelae (60). A maternal GBS vaccine has the potential to decrease the
20 burden of neonatal early and late onset invasive disease, maternal puerperal sepsis and
21 adverse birth outcomes such as stillbirth, prematurity and disability following neonatal
22 disease. GBS vaccine development is underway and a panel of experts convened by the
23 World Health Organisation have developed two key documents in order to provide guidance
24 on research and development pathways (40) (61). Among the research priorities identified
25 to accelerate vaccine development efforts, the development of a quality-assured,
26 regulatory-acceptable immune correlate of protection has been highlighted.

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42 Conflict of interest

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48 to Novavax on respiratory syncytial virus vaccine, but received no personal
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