A single dose, BCG-adjuvanted SARS-CoV-2 vaccine induces Th1-polarized immunity

and high-titre neutralizing antibodies in mice

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Abstract

Next-generation vaccines that are safe, effective and with equitable access globally are required

to prevent SARS-CoV-2 transmission at a population level. One strategy that has gained

significant interest is to 'repurpose' existing licensed vaccines for use against COVID-19. In

this report, we have exploited the immunostimulatory properties of bacille Calmette-Guérin

(BCG), the vaccine for tuberculosis, to develop a SARS-CoV-2-specific and highly

immunogenic vaccine candidate. Combination of BCG with a stabilized, trimeric form of the

SARS-CoV-2 spike antigen promoted rapid development of virus-specific IgG antibodies in

the sera of vaccinated mice, which could be further augmented by the addition of alum. This

vaccine formulation, termed BCG:CoVac, induced a Th1-biased response both in terms of IgG

antibody subclass and cytokine release by vaccine-specific $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells. A single

dose of BCG:CoVac was sufficient to induce high-titre SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies

(NAbs) that were detectable as early as 2 weeks post-vaccination; NAb levels were greater than

that seen in the sera of SARS-CoV-2-infected individuals. Boosting of BCG:CoVac-primed

mice with a heterologous vaccine combination (spike protein plus alum) could further increase

SARS-CoV-2 spike protein-specific antibody response. BCG:CoVac would be broadly

applicable for all populations susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection and in particular could be

readily incorporated into current vaccine schedules in countries where BCG is currently used.

Importance

Effective distribution of vaccine to low- and middle-income countries is critical for the control

of the COVID-19 pandemic. To achieve this, vaccines must offer effective protective immunity

yet should be cheap to manufacture and meet cold chain management requirements. This study

describes a unique COVID-19 vaccine candidate, termed BCG:CoVac, that when delivered as

a single dose induces potent SARS-CoV-2 specific immunity in mice, particularly through

generation of high-titre, anti-viral neutralising antibodies. BCG:CoVac is built on safe and

well-characterised vaccine components: 1) the BCG vaccine, used for control of tuberculosis

since 1921 which also has remarkable 'off target' effects, protecting children and the elderly

against diverse respiratory viral infections; 2) Alhydrogel adjuvant (Alum), a low cost, globally

accessible vaccine adjuvant with an excellent safety record in humans (part of >20 licensed

human vaccines and in use >70 years); 3) Stabilized, trimeric SARS-CoV-2 spike protein,

which stimulates immune specificity for COVID-19. Further assessment in humans will

determine if BCG:CoVac can impart protective immunity against not only SARS-CoV-2, but

also other respiratory infections where BCG has known efficacy.

Introduction

The search for a COVID-19 vaccine has progressed at unprecedented speed and magnitude. Greater than 200 COVID-19 vaccine candidates are in development, with a subset of these now in late-phase clinical trials. The impressive number of candidates suggest extensive diversity in the COVID vaccine pipeline, however most of these vaccines fall into a small group of defined classes, which can be represented by the candidates that have reached human trials. The development speed of RNA vaccines has allowed these to move quickly into early trials and results from Phase 3 efficacy results are very encouraging[1]. It will now be critical to determine if these vaccines can induce long-term immunity and be readily distributed to low- and middle-income countries, particularly as these vaccines may have complex logistic requirements (e.g. storage at ultra-low temperature). These vaccines also require multiple doses, a barrier to mass vaccination. Viral-vectored vaccines have been shown to impart some level of SARS-CoV-2 specific immunity in humans, although responses were relatively poor in Phase 2 assessment of the Ad5-nCOV vaccine, particularly in older age groups; this was most apparent when examining neutralising antibodies (NAbs) to live virus[2]. While this vaccine class is generally well tolerated, mild to moderate adverse events are observed in a sizable proportion of vaccinees. For example, testing of the ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine included administration of paracetamol to reduce side effects[3]. Thus, while RNA and viral-vectored vaccines will be the first to be licensed and could provide some impact on the pandemic, in the long-term vaccines will need to possess a strong safety profile, invoke sustained protective immunity and be cost effective to produce at scale.

Vaccine approaches with a proven safety and efficacy track record may provide the best solution for the long-term control of COVID-19. Results from the first clinical trial using one of the more established vaccine approaches, recombinant spike protein in adjuvant (NVX-

CoV2373), were promising; the vaccine generated strong NAbs and specific CD4^{+} T cell

responses in vaccinees[4]. Two versions of inactivated SARS-CoV-2 formulated in alum have

been assessed in Phase 2 trials and showed an excellent safety profile[5,6]. This is consistent with

the well-established safety and immunogenicity of alum in humans[7] and the success of other

inactivated viral vaccines to control major human pathogens. For one of these vaccines

(CoronaVac), NAbs titres were relatively low after immunisation, although higher than that

needed for the vaccine to protect non-human primates against disease[8]. None-the-less, the

protective capacity of CoronaVac-induced immunity will only be determined after large Phase

3 vaccine trials are completed.

One unique strategy is to 'repurpose' existing licensed vaccines for use against COVID-19.

Much interest has focussed on *Mycobacterium bovis* bacille Calmette-Guerin (BCG), the

tuberculosis (TB) vaccine. A large amount of data has been accumulated to show that BCG has

beneficial, non-specific effects on immunity that affords protection against other pathogens,

particularly respiratory infections[9]. Most recently, BCG vaccination was shown to protect

against viral respiratory tract infections in the elderly (greater than 65 years old) with no

significant adverse events[10]. This non-specific protective effect is attributed to the ability of

BCG to induce 'trained immunity' i.e. reprogramming of innate immune responses to provide

heterologous protection against disease. For these reasons, a Phase 3, randomised controlled

trial in healthcare workers has commenced, in order to determine if BCG vaccination can

reduce the incidence and severity of COVID-19 (The BRACE Trial)[9]. While the BRACE trial

will determine if BCG can reduce the impact on COVID-19 during the current pandemic, BCG

does not express SARS-CoV-2 specific antigens and thus would not be expected to induce

long-term SARS-CoV-2-specific immune memory.

In this report, we have exploited the immunostimulatory properties of BCG to develop a SARS-

CoV-2 vaccine, termed BCG:CoVac, that combines a stabilized, trimeric form of the spike

protein with the alum adjuvant. BCG:CoVac resulted in the stimulation of SARS-CoV-2-

specific antibody and T cell responses in mice after a single vaccination, including the

elicitation of high-titre NAbs, suggesting that BCG can synergise with spike antigen and alum

to result in a highly immunogenic and promising vaccine candidate.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial culture

M. bovis BCG (strain Pasteur) was grown at 37°C in Middlebrook 7H9 medium (Becton Dickinson, BD, New Jersey, USA) supplemented with 0.5% glycerol, 0.02% Tyloxapol, and 10% albumin-dextrose-catalase (ADC) or on solid Middlebrook 7H11 medium (BD) supplemented with oleic acid–ADC. To prepare single cell suspensions, cultures in exponential phase (OD_{600}=0.6) were washed in PBS, passaged 10 times through a 27G syringe, briefly sonicated and centrifuged at low speed (800 rpm) for 10 min to remove residual bacterial clumps. BCG suspensions were frozen at -80° C in PBS 20% glycerol and colony forming units (CFU) for vaccination enumerated on supplemented Middlebrook 7H11 agar plates.

Ethics statement and patient samples

All mouse experiments were performed according to ethical guidelines as set out by the Sydney Local Health District (SLHD) Animal Ethics and Welfare Committee, which adhere to the Australian Code for the Care and Use of Animals for Scientific Purposes (2013) as set out by the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia. All experiments within this manuscript were approved under protocol number 2020/019 by the SLHD Animal Ethics and Welfare Committee. COVID-19 patients were recruited through RPA Virtual Hospital, a virtual care system enabling remote monitoring of patients[11]. Serum specimens (n=22) were collected from patients with PCR-confirmed COVID-19 (mean time from diagnosis to blood sampling of 16 days). The study protocol was approved by the RPA ethics committee (Human ethics number X20-0117 and 2020/ETH00770) and by the participants' verbal consent. All associated procedures were performed in accordance with approved guidelines.

Immunization and blood collection

Female C57BL/6 (6-8 weeks of age) were purchased from Australian BioResources (Moss Vale, Australia), and housed at the Centenary Institute in specific pathogen-free conditions. SARS-CoV-2 full-length spike stabilized, trimeric protein (SpK) was expressed in EXPI293F™ cells and purified as described previously[12]. Mice were vaccinated subcutaneously (s.c) with 5×10^5 CFU of BCG alone, 5 μg of SpK combined with either BCG (BCG[SpK]) or 100 μg of Alhydrogel (Alum) (Invivogen, California, USA, Alum[SpK]), or a combination of BCG (5×10^5 CFU), SpK (5 μg) and Alyhydrogel (100 μg) (BCG:CoVac). When required mice were boosted three weeks after the first vaccination with 5 μg of SpK combined with 100 μg of Alhyhdrogel. Mice were bled twice weekly after the first immunization (collected in 10 μl of Heparin 50 U/mL). Plasma was collected after centrifugation at 300 g for 10 min and remaining blood was resuspended in 1 mL of PBS Heparin 20 U / mL, stratified on top of Histopaque 10831 (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA) and PBMCs layer collected after gradient centrifugation.

PBMC restimulation and intracellular staining

To assess SpK-specific cytokine production by T cells, murine PBMCs were stimulated for 4 hours with SpK (5 μg/mL) and then supplemented with Protein Transport Inhibitor cocktail (Life Technologies, California, USA) for a further 10-12 hours. Cells were surface stained with Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain (Life Technologies) and the marker-specific fluorochrome-labelled antibodies rat anti-mouse CD4-AF700 (clone RM414, 1:200, BD cat#557956), rat anti-mouse CD8-APCy7 (clone 53-6.7, 1:200, BD cat#557654), rat anti-mouse CD44-FITC (clone IM7, 1:300, BD cat#561859). Cells were then fixed and permeabilized using the BD Cytofix/Cytoperm™ kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Intracellular staining was performed using rat anti-mouse IFN-γ-PECy7 (clone XMG1-2, 1:300, BD cat#557649), rat

anti-mouse IL-2-PE (clone JES6-5H4, 1:200, BD cat#554428), rat anti-mouse IL-17-PB (clone

TC11-18H10.1, 1:200, cat#506918, BioLegend California, USA), rat anti-mouse TNF-

PErCPCy5.5 (clone MP6-XT22, 1:200, BD cat#560659). Samples were acquired on a BD

LSR-Fortessa (BD), and analyzed using FlowJo^{TM} analysis software (Treestar, USA).

Antibody ELISA

Microtitration plates (Corning, New York, USA) were incubated overnight with 1 μg/mL SpK

at room temperature, blocked with 3% BSA and serially diluted plasma samples were added to

for 1 hour at 37°C. Plates were washed and biotinylated polyclonal goat anti-mouse IgG1

(1:50,000, abcam Cambridge, UK, cat#ab97238), polyclonal goat anti-mouse IgG2c (1:10,000,

abcam, cat# ab97253), or polyclonal goat anti-mouse IgG (1:350,000, clone abcam

cat#ab6788) added for 1 hour at RT. After incubation for with streptavidin-HRP (1:30,000,

abcam, cat#405210) for 30 minutes at RT, binding was visualized by addition of tetramethyl

benzene (Sigma-Aldrich). The reaction was stopped with the addition of 2N H_2SO_4 and

absorbances were measured at 450 nm by the M1000 pro plate reader (Tecan, Männedorf,

Switzerland). End point titres were calculated as the dilution of the sample that reached the

average of the control serum ± 3 standard deviations.

Live virus neutralization assay

Two-fold dilutions of patient plasma samples were mixed with an equal volume of virus

solution (8 x 10^3 TCID50/ml) and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour. After the virus-plasma

incubation, 40 μl virus/plasma mixture was added to Vero E6 cells seeded in 384-well plates

at 5 x 10^3 cells per well in a final volume of 40 μl. Plates were then incubated for 72 hours at

37°C, 5% CO_2. Cell nuclei were stained and each well was imaged by a high-content

fluorescence microscopy system (IN Cell Analyser 2500HS, Cytiva Life Sciences, Parramatta,

Australia). The number of cells per well was determined with the automated InCarta image

analysis software (Cytiva). The percentage of virus neutralisation for each well was calculated

using the following formula: Neutralisation (%) = (D-(1-Q)) x 100/D, where "Q" represents a

well's nuclei count divided by the nuclei count of the untreated control (i.e. cells and media

only), and "D" represents 1 minus the Q value for the positive infection control (i.e. cells +

virus, without plasma).

Statistical analysis

The significance of differences between experimental groups was evaluated by one-way

analysis of variance (ANOVA), with pairwise comparison of multi-grouped data sets achieved

using the Dunnett's post-hoc test. Differences were considered statistically significant when p

≤ 0.05.

Results and Discussion

BCG promotes SARS-CoV-2 spike protein-specific antibody and T cell responses in vaccinated mice

The immunostimulatory properties of BCG[13] led to us to test if the vaccine could serve as the backbone of a unique vaccine platform. To examine this, mice were vaccinated s.c with a single dose of BCG Pasteur strain formulated with a stabilized, trimeric form of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein[14] (BCG^Spk) and the titre of IgG2c or IgG1 anti-SpK antibodies (Abs) determined at various timepoints post-immunization (Fig. 1A). While BCG-vaccination resulted in background levels of anti-SpK Abs, titres were approximately 100-fold higher for both isotypes after BCG^Spk vaccination, and similar to Ab levels achieved with SpK formulated in Alyhydrogel/alum (Alm^SpK) (Fig. 1B, 1C). Addition of alum to BCG^Spk (BCG:CoVac) further increased Ab titres, particularly IgG2c, which were significantly greater after BCG:CoVac vaccination compared with mice immunised with either BCG or Alm^SpK, at all timepoints examined (Fig. 1B, 1C). Thus BCG could serve to promote early and pronounced anti-SARS-CoV-2 humoral response when co-delivered with the trimeric SpK antigen, which could be further enhanced with the addition of alum.

IgG2c Ab isotype correlates with Th1-like immunity in C57BL/6 mice[15], and such responses are considered necessary for effective protection against SARS-CoV-2 infection[16]. We therefore examined the frequency of IFN-γ-secreting T cells after a single dose BCG:CoVac at 2 weeks post-vaccination. BCG^Spk and BCG:CoVac induced the generation of SpK-specific CD4^+ and CD8^+ T cells secreting IFN-γ (Fig. 2A, 2B), consistent with Th1 immunity observed after BCG vaccination[17]. The greatest response was observed after vaccination with BCG:CoVac, with the number IFN-γ-secreting T cells significantly increased compared to responses of mice vaccinated with either BCG or Alum^SpK.

The relative paucity of IFN-γ-secreting T cells observed after Alum[SpK] vaccination corresponds with that previously seen with alum-precipitated vaccines using the spike protein[18] and is consistent with studies that show preferential priming of Th2-type immunity by aluminum hydroxide-based adjuvants[19]. The ability of BCG:CoVac to induce Th1-like immunity correlates to the known adjuvant effect of BCG components to induce such responses[20]. This has clear importance, as T cell responses in recovering COVID-19 patients are predominately Th1[21], expression of IFN-γ is lower in severe COVID-19 cases compared to mild ones[22] and the induction of Th2 immunity is correlated with vaccine-associated enhanced respiratory disease (VAERD)[23].We also observed background levels of the inflammatory cytokines IL-17 and TNF after BCG:CoVac delivery, suggesting reduced levels of potentially deleterious, circulating inflammatory cytokines (Fig. 2B). Heightened expression of IL-17 correlates with severe COVID-19 disease[24], while blocking IL-17 has been suggested as a possible therapy to treat acute respiratory distress syndrome in SARS-CoV-2-infected individuals[25]. In addition, the development of VAERD is also associated with Th17 immunity[26].

High-titre SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies after a single immunization with BCG:CoVac

We next determined if a single dose of BCG:CoVac could induce neutralizing antibodies (NAbs) to block live SARS-CoV-2 entry into host cells, a critical determinant for protection against infection[23]. No NAbs were detected in the sera of vaccinated mice with BCG (Fig 3A). Surprisingly, NAb titres were at near background levels for mice vaccinated with BCG[SpK] (Fig. 3A), despite the high levels of IgG Ab isotypes detected in these same animals (Fig. 1). Encouragingly, high level of NAbs were detected as early as 2 weeks post-immunization upon vaccination of mice with BCG:CoVac, and titres were significantly increased compared to

vaccination with Alum^{SpK} (approximate 10 fold). The mean NAbs titres in the sera of

BCG:CoVac-vaccinated mice were approximately 10-fold greater than that seen in sera from

SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals (Fig 3A). Although the levels of NAbs peaked at 2 weeks

post-vaccination with BCG:CoVac, they remained significantly elevated up to day 42 post-

immunization compared to the other immunized groups.

As previous work suggests that IgG antibody levels correlates with NAbs titres after SARS-

CoV-2 infection[27], we examined if a similar phenomenon was observed after vaccination with

BCG:CoVac. Strong corelation (r > 0.9) was observed between IgG2c isotype and NAbs in

groups vaccinated with BCG:CoVac or Alum^{SpK} (Fig. 3B), with a significant yet less robust

correlation between IgG1 and NAbs for these groups (Fig. 3C). There was no correlation

between NAbs and either IgG1 or IgG2c Ab for mice vaccinated with BCG^{SpK} alone (Fig. 3D,

3E). These data suggests alum is required for the optimal generation of NAbs after BCG:CoV

vaccination; this is a significant advantage for implementation of the vaccine, due to the low

cost and long standing safety record of alum[7,28]. Importantly, the potential risk of VAERD due

to the selective induction of Th2 by alum is offset by the strong Th1immunity driven by BCG

(Fig. 2B).

Augmentation of BCG:CoVac antibody response by heterologous vaccine boosting

COVID-19 subunit vaccines typically display poor immunity after a single dose and require a

booster to allow sufficient generation of NAbs[29]. Whilst we observed high-titre NAbs as early

as two weeks post-BCG:CoVac vaccination (Fig. 3), we sought to determine if responses could

be further augmented by boosting with a prototype subunit vaccine (Alum^{SpK}) (Fig. 4A). At 7

days post-boost, IgG2c titres in sera from mice primed with BCG^{SpK} or BCG:CoVac remained

elevated by day 42 after the prime (Fig. 4B). A corresponding augmentation of NAbs was also

seen in these boosted groups, with significantly elevated response in BCG:CoVac primed mice

boosted with Alum^{SpK} (Fig. 4C). Boosting Alum^{SpK} vaccination with a second dose led to a

greater than 10-fold increase in NAbs in boosted mice, however responses were significantly

lower than that observed with the superior BCG:CoVac-prime, Alum^{SpK}-boost combination

(Fig. 4C). Taken together, these data indicate that the strong antigen-specific immunity

imparted by BCG:CoVac can be further enhanced by heterologous boosting with a second

SARS-CoV-2 vaccine.

Conclusion

In this report we demonstrate a single dose of the BCG:CoVac vaccine candidate can induce

rapid and pronounced development of SARS-CoV-2-specific cellular and humoral immune

responses in mice. Encouragingly, the level of immunity observed (particularly the generation

of neutralizing antibodies) is equivalent to or exceeds responses elicited by vaccines in late

stage humans trials, when these candidates were testing in the murine model[29-31]. BCG:CoVac

may have the additional advantage of inducing protection against other respiratory infection

where BCG is known to induce some level of protective immunity[13]. In addition, the possibility

that prior BCG exposure may impart protection against severe COVID-19[32], which is currently

under evaluation through randomised control studies[9], raises the possibility that a BCG-based

vaccine could afford protection against SARS-CoV-2 escape mutants or new pandemic

coronavirus that may emerge. BCG:CoVac could also provide additional benefit in countries

where BCG is part of immunization programs for the control of TB, based on recent findings

that a second BCG vaccination significantly reduced rates of *M. tuberculosis* infection[33].

Overall, the strong anti-SARS-CoV-2 immunity afforded by BCG:CoVac, together with the

excellent safety profile of both BCG and alum, supports the progression of BCG:CoVac to

human trials.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. A single immunisation with BCG:CoVac vaccination induces rapid development of anti-SARS-CoV-2 spike antibodies. C57BL/6 mice were vaccinated subcutaneously with PBS, BCG, BCG^{SpK}, Alum^{SpK} or BCG:CoVac and whole blood collected at day 14, 28 and 42 (**A**). Spike-specific IgG2c (**B**) and IgG1 (**C**) titres in plasma were determined by ELISA with endpoint titres estimated by the sigmoidal curve of each sample interpolated with the threshold of the negative sample± 3 standard deviations. The dotted line shows the limit of detection. The significance of differences between groups compared to BCG^{Spk} (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.01) or Alum^{Spk} (†p<0.05, ††p<0.01, †††p<0.001) was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test for multiple comparisons.

Figure 2. BCG:CoVac induces the generation of IFN-γ-secreting T cells with minimal release of inflammatory cytokines. Mice (n=3-4) were vaccinated as in Figure 1 and two weeks post-vaccination PBMCs were restimulated *ex vivo* with 5 μg/mL of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein for 4 hrs and cytokine production was determined by flow cytometry. A. Representative dot plots of CD44$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells and CD44$^+$ CD8$^+$ T cells expressing IFN-γ. B. Number of circulating CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells expressing IFN-γ or CD4$^+$ T cells expressing IL-17 or TNF. The significant differences between groups compared to BCG^{Spk} (*p<0.05) or Alum^{Spk} (†p<0.05) was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test for multiple comparisons.

Figure 3. BCG:CoVac induces high titre neutralizing antibodies against live SARS-CoV-2 which correlates with production of antigen-specific IgG2c. Plasma from mice vaccinated as in Figure 1 tested for neutralizing activity against live SARS-CoV-2 infection of Vero E6 cells. Neutralizing antibody (NAb) titres (IC$_{50}$) were calculated as the highest dilution of

plasma that still retained at least 50% inhibition of infection compared to controls (**A**). NAb

titres from PCR confirmed SARS-CoV-2-infected individuals (COVID) were determined

using the same method. Spearman correlations of spike-specific IgG2c (**B**) or IgG1 (**C**) titres

and NAbs after Alum^{SpK} or BCG:CoVac vaccination are shown, as well as correlation of IgG2c

(**D**) or IgG1 (**E**) titres and NAbs after vaccination with BCG^{SpK}. The dotted line shows the limit

of detection. The significance of differences between groups compared to BCG^{Spk} (**$p<0.01$,

***$p<0.01$) or Alum^{Spk} (†$p<0.05$, †††$p<0.001$) was determined by one-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's post hoc test for multiple comparisons.

Figure 4. Heterologous boosting of BCG:CoVac-primed mice results in augmented

SARS-CoV-2-specific IgG2c titres and neutralizing antibodies. C57BL/6 mice were

vaccinated subcutaneously (s.c.) with PBS, BCG, BCG^{SpK}, Alum^{SpK} or BCG:CoVac. At day

21 they received a s.c boost with Alum^{Spk} (**A**). Spike-specific IgG2c titres in plasma were

determined by ELISA with endpoint titres estimated by the sigmoidal curve of each sample

interpolated with the threshold of the negative sample± 3 standard deviations (**B**). Neutralizing

antibody titres (IC$_{50}$) were calculated as the highest dilution of plasma that still retained at least

50% inhibition of infection compared to controls (**C**). The dotted line shows the limit of

detection. The significance of differences between groups compared to BCG^{Spk} (*$p<0.05$,

**$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.01$) or Alum^{Spk} (†$p<0.05$, ††$p<0.01$, †††$p<0.001$) was determined by one-

way ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test for multiple comparisons.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4