1 **Atypical B cells mediate poor response to Bacillus Calmette Guérin immunotherapy in non-**
2 **muscle invasive bladder cancer**
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Abstract

Poor response to Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) immunotherapy remains a major barrier in the management of patients with non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC). Among the multiple factors contributing to poor outcomes, a B cell infiltrated pre-treatment immune microenvironment of NMIBC tumors has emerged as a key determinant of response to BCG. The mechanisms underlying the paradoxical roles of B cells in NMIBC are poorly understood. Here, we show that B cell dominant tertiary lymphoid structures (TLSs), a hallmark feature of chronic mucosal immune response, are abundant and located close to the epithelial compartment in pre-treatment tumors from BCG non-responders. Digital spatial proteomic profiling of whole tumor sections revealed higher expression of immune exhaustion-associated proteins within the TLSs from both responders and non-responders. Chronic local inflammation, induced by the N-butyl-N-(4-hydroxybutyl) nitrosamine (BBN) carcinogen, led to TLS formation with recruitment and differentiation of the immunosuppressive atypical B cell (ABCs) subset within the bladder microenvironment, predominantly in aging female mice compared to their male counterparts. Depletion of ABCs simultaneous to BCG treatment delayed cancer progression in female mice. Our findings provide the first evidence indicating the role of ABCs in BCG response and will inform future development of therapies targeting the B cell exhaustion axis.

Introduction

Bladder cancer is the most common urological malignancy known worldwide with 573,278 cases diagnosed in 2020[1]. The majority of bladder cancer patients (75-85%) are diagnosed with early-stage NMIBC with a median age at diagnosis of 73 years. Exposure to environmental and occupational carcinogens, tobacco smoking, recurrent urinary tract infections, and aging can be attributed as the major risk factors for bladder cancer.[2] Although more common in males,[3] females with bladder cancer generally present with advanced-stage tumors and experience shorter recurrence-, and progression-free survival[4-7]. Following transurethral resection of bladder tumor (TURBT), patients categorized as intermediate or high-risk NMIBC are treated with intravesical Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) immunotherapy[8]. The treatment regimen involves an induction phase of 6 weekly instillations after tumor resection, followed by a maintenance phase of 3 weekly instillations every 3-6 months for over 1-3 years depending on the risk stratification[9]. BCG treatment in NMIBC patients is linked to a decreased risk of recurrence and progression when compared to transurethral resection alone. Despite its proven efficacy, recurrence post-BCG treatment occurs in over 50% of patients, necessitating repeated treatments, continuous surveillance, and cystectomy upon progression to muscle-invasive stage[10,11].

Our previous study discovered a significant association between increased density of intra-tumoral B cells and poor outcomes in patients with NMIBC[12]. Tumor-infiltrating B cells are mainly localized within stromal aggregates of immune cells called tertiary lymphoid structures (TLSs)[13]. TLS formation in the bladder mucosa is induced due to chronic inflammation,[14] such as persistent urinary tract infection[15,16]; exposure to carcinogens or smoking; immunomodulatory therapy[13]; or age-related increase in systemic levels of tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α)[17,18]. Indeed, our previous report established an increase in TLS density and maturation with advanced stages of bladder cancer[19].

Simultaneous to biological aging-associated decline in the periphery, B cell proportions significantly increase at mucosal sites, predominantly within mucosa-associated TLSs[17,20-24]. Biological aging, repeated vaccination, and chronic inflammation also lead to the expansion of a

circulating B cell subset known as atypical B cells (ABCs). ABCs are observed at a significantly

higher frequency in females compared to males, exhibit features of high self-reactivity, and are

equipped with specialized antigen-presenting ability[24-28]. In addition, ABCs are known to produce

high levels of IL-6 and TNF-α and augment the suppression of B cell lymphopoiesis[29-31]. In aging

mice, ABCs increase in the bone marrow with a more pronounced expansion in the spleen,

produce autoantibodies and respond uniquely to innate/microbial stimuli[26,32]. A key feature of

ABCs is their proliferative response to stimuli that activate endosomal nucleic acid sensing

pathways (toll-like receptors; TLR7/9) leading to the production of immunosuppressive cytokines

such as IL-10[26,33-36].

Following intravesical instillation, BCG antigens are internalized by residual cancer cells, normal

urothelial cells, and immune cells, leading to immune activation *via* various cytosolic and cell

surface receptors such as TLR2/9[36-38]. We hypothesized that repeated local exposure to BCG

during the induction phase of the treatment, potentiates systemic expansion of ABCs and

recruitment to the bladder. Local immunosuppression mediated by ABCs potentially contributes

to disease progression. In this study, we first characterized TLSs in pre-treatment tumors from

patients, categorized as BCG responders and non-responders, using multiplex

immunofluorescence (mIF) and NanoString GeoMx digital spatial technology (DSP). Since B

cells/ABCs exhibit a sex and age-dependent expansion and response to persistent immune

activation, we further investigated the potential role of ABCs in BBN carcinogen (mimicking

carcinogen present in tobacco smoking) exposed aging wild type C57BL/6 and the four-core

genotype (FCG) mice treated with BCG. Overall, our study is the first to demonstrate the

expansion of ABCs following chronic carcinogen exposure and repeated BCG immunotherapy as

one of the underlying factors for poor response to BCG immunotherapy, specifically, in females.

RESULTS

Pre-treatment tumor adjacent TLSs are increased in BCG non-responders and express proteins

reflective of immune exhaustion

Based on our previous observation of high stromal B cell density and its association with early

recurrence and progression, we questioned whether pre-treatment TLSs (characterized by

CD79a+ B cells, CD3+ and CD8+ T cells, CD208+ mature dendritic cells (DCs), CD21+ follicular DCs

and PNAd+ high endothelial venules) associate with response to BCG. Histopathological

evaluation of BCG-naïve whole tumor sections from 28 patients (clinical details in **Suppl. Table**

S1), revealed the presence of both small and large immune cell aggregates within the lamina

propria, indicative of chronic inflammation in the bladder mucosa (**Fig. 1A**). To determine the

maturation stage of TLSs, we performed mIF staining, which revealed varying organization and

maturation stages of TLSs within the tumors from both BCG responders and non-responders (**Fig.**

1B). Overall, lymphoid aggregates and mature TLSs (with PNAd+ high endothelial venules,

CD21+CD208+ DCs) were higher in whole tumor sections from BCG non-responders compared to

responders (**Fig. 1C**).

Given the counterintuitive finding on the association of TA-TLSs with early recurrence, we further

characterized the expression of 49 immune function related proteins (**Suppl. Table S2)** in TLSs

from a subset of 12 specimens (6 in each group of responders and non-responders; **Fig. 1D**) using

NanoString GeoMx DSP technology **(Fig. S1)**. The area of mature TLSs was higher compared to

all other lymphoid aggregates in the lamina propria (**Fig. 1E**). We did not find any statistically

significant differences in the expression levels of proteins associated with immune regulatory

functions between TLSs from the responders and non-responders. However, when compared to

the tumor epithelial compartment, TLSs from both responders and non-responders exhibited

statistically significant higher expression of a) immune regulatory proteins such as CD25, ICOS,

TIM3, VISTA, PD-L2, IDO-1; b) antigen presentation associated proteins such as B2M, CD11c,

CD40; and c) immune cell phenotype associated proteins, CD45, CD20, CD3, CD4, CD56 and CD68

(**Fig. 1F**). These findings suggest that pre-treatment TLSs in the bladder microenvironment

represent chronic carcinogen induced mucosal inflammation and harbor exhausted populations

of immune cells at the time of TURBT.

Chronic exposure to BBN carcinogen increases infiltration of atypical B cells within the bladder microenvironment

To confirm the previously reported age/sex-related shifts in B cell subsets, we first determined the profiles of total B cells and ABCs in the spleen and bone marrow of healthy 12-month-old (reflecting immune profiles of middle-aged humans[18]) C57BL/6 female and male mice. We did not observe any significant differences in the frequency of total B cells (B220+CD19+) from both the spleen and bone marrow of female mice compared to male mice (**Fig. 2A)**; however, splenic ABCs (CD21-/low CD11c+) were significantly higher in 12-month-old female mice compared to their male counterparts (**Fig. 2B − 2D**). Optimization of the B cell-depletion protocol, as per previous reports,[39] was conducted prior to conducting studies in the carcinogen exposed mice (**Fig. S2B**).

To determine whether long-term BBN induced genotoxicity and local inflammation leads to increased recruitment of ABCs in the bladder microenvironment, we exposed 12-month-old aging female and male mice to BBN carcinogen for 12 weeks with or without B cell depletion treatment[40]. To specifically determine cause and effect, we first assessed whether B cell depletion during BBN exposure attenuates inflammation in the bladder and delays cancer progression. Results from both local and systemic immune profiling revealed clear sex differences. Female mice displayed an increased frequency of splenic total B cells and ABCs despite depletion **(Fig. 2E and 2F)**. A higher density of ABCs, located with stromal lymphoid aggregates, was observed in the bladder microenvironment of female mice compared to their male counterparts at this time point (**Fig. 2G**). Spatial immune profiling of the bladders collected 1 week post last anti-CD20 injection (12 weeks post BBN initiation), revealed significantly fewer numbers of total B cells and ABCs in the B cell-depleted mice in comparison to the B cell-intact mice (**Fig. 2G and 2H**). Histopathological assessment of whole bladder sections from B cell-depleted and B cell intact mice, revealed a benign or close to normal histology of the bladder urothelium in the B cell-depleted female mice **(Fig. S3A)**. Reactive atypia/dysplasia was present in the majority of BBN exposed female and male mice that did not undergo any depletion.

Importantly this effect was captured at this time point only in the female mice. These findings

suggest increased recruitment (or differentiation) of B cells to the bladder microenvironment due

to chronic carcinogen induced mucosal inflammation.

BBN and BCG induced expansion of splenic ABCs and bladder-associated TLS formation is age

and sex-dependent

To determine the role of B cells in treatment response, we treated BBN exposed mice with three

weekly intravesical instillations of BCG (**Fig. 3A**). Compared to healthy bladders (pre-BBN; **Fig.**

3B), on hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of bladder sections we observed increased

infiltration of immune cells and TLSs at 7 weeks post BBN initiation in the bladder lamina propria

of female mice (**Fig. 3C**) in contrast to their male counterparts (**Fig. S3D**). Following the 1st dose

of BCG, we observed recovery of the urothelium to its benign morphological states (**Fig. 3D**), in

contrast to the saline treated mice where dysplasia/CIS like features were still present at this

time point (**Fig. S3B**). However, at 1-, 6-, and 8-weeks post completion of all 3 doses of BCG, we

observed urothelial dysplasia and progressive focal to widespread CIS, invasive carcinoma-like

changes, or papillary tumors despite removal of BBN exposure at the initiation of BCG treatment

in female mice (**Fig. 3E-3G**). Repeated BCG treatments also led to the formation of TLSs, as

confirmed by mIF staining, in contrast to the bladders from saline treated mice where tumor

growth was observed with no evidence of TLS formation, (**Fig. S3D and S3E**). An increase in

splenic ABCs at 1 week post 1st BCG, compared to the pre-BCG levels, was observed in both

female and male mice (**Fig. 3H and 3I**). However, the magnitude of increase was significantly

higher in female mice (**Fig. 3I**)**.** A significant decline in the proportion of splenic ABCs post 3rd BCG

in both sexes suggests its potential trafficking to the bladder mucosa **(Fig. 3I)**. Additionally,

histopathological evaluation **(Fig. 3E)** and mIF **(Fig. 3J and 3K)** of the bladder sections post 3rd

BCG revealed presence of ABCs and lymphoid aggregates, particularly prominent in female

bladder sections. Furthermore, higher proportion of splenic ABCs after B cell depletion is

indicative of accelerated expansion of ABCs potentially due to repeated weekly BCG treatment

with simultaneous BBN exposure (**Fig. 3I**). Indeed, removal of BBN exposure at the time of

treatment initiation reduced the frequency of splenic ABCs and CD21+ CD11c+ B cells in female

mice at one week after the 3rd BCG instillation (**Fig. S7)**. Overall, these findings suggested a

combination of carcinogen and BCG treatment induced expansion of ABCs that occurs at a higher

magnitude in females. Disease progression post repeated BCG instillations potentially reflects an

exhausted immune system.

Sex chromosome associated factors influence B cell response following treatment with BCG

The X chromosome harbors multiple B cell function associated genes such as *CD40L, CXCR3, TLR7,*

IL9R, IL13RA1/2, and *BTK*[41]. Furthermore, *TLR7* (known to escape X inactivation) and *IL13RA* are

also known to play key roles in the expansion of ABCs. We thus addressed the fundamental

question of whether sex-associated ABC expansion in BBN-exposed and BCG-treated mice is

influenced by gonadal hormones, sex chromosome complement, or a combination of both

factors. We employed 12-month-old aging FCG mice to investigate these interactions (**Fig. 4A**).

While no significant differences in the total splenic B cells (B220+CD19+) were observed between

the four genotypes; XXF (chromosomal and gonadal females), XYF (gonadal female), XXM

(chromosomal and gonadal males) and XYM (gonadal males) of the FCG mice (**Fig. S2C**), the XXF

mice exhibited significantly higher ABCs compared to all other genotypes (**Fig. 4B**). We then

investigated the sex associated expansion of ABCs in BBN-exposed BCG-treated FCG mice. Splenic

ABCs significantly decreased post 3rd BCG dose in the XXF mice compared to the BBN exposed

untreated, and saline groups (**Fig. 4B and Suppl. Table S8**). This shift was accompanied by a

simultaneous increase in the bone marrow frequency of ABCs at this time point, with a

significantly higher increase in XXF mice compared to the XYF, XYM, and XXM mice (**Fig. 4C**). The

BBN and BCG associated significant shifts were not observed within any other genotype of the

FCG mice indicating that ABC expansion is a plausible combined effect of both X chromosome

associated and hormonal factors. Histopathological evaluation revealed the presence of a higher

density of lymphoid aggregates in the bladder lamina propria of XXF mice at this time point

compared to XYF mice (**Fig. 4D**). Similarly, H&E staining and mIF revealed an overall higher

immune cell infiltration in the bladders of XXM mice compared to the XYM mice (**Fig 4D and Fig.**

S2D). These findings confirmed a biological sex and age-associated expansion of ABCs in response to BCG treatment.

To further confirm the response to ABC phenotype inducing stimuli, we treated splenic total B cells (**Fig. 5A and 5B)**, isolated from BBN exposed 12-month-old female and male mice, to the known ABC inducing cytokines, IFN-γ and IL-21 in the presence or absence of BCG. A significant increase in the frequency of ABCs (CD21-CD11c+) in IL-21 treated B cells isolated from female mice was confirmed *via* multiparametric flow cytometry at 18 hours post-treatment (**Fig. 5C; Fig. S4B)**. Notably, B cells isolated from male mice did not show a similar increase in response to IL-21 treatment (**Fig. 5C**). However, CD11c+ B cells from male mice exhibited higher proportion of CD21low/+ cells compared to the female mice (**Fig. S4C and S4D)**. The higher expression of CD21 in B cells isolated from male mice potentially suggests a delayed expansion of ABCs following treatment with different ABC phenotype-inducing stimuli. Furthermore, stimulation with a TLR7 agonist (Imiquimod) significantly increased differentiation of splenic B cells, from both female and male mice to ABCs (**Fig. S4E**). Gene expression analysis, using quantitative real time (qRT)-PCR, revealed significant alterations in the expression of ABC associated genes *Fcrl5, Tbx21, and Itgax* at 6 hours post-stimulation (**Fig. 5D-5F).** Treatment of splenic B cells from male mice with IL-21 alone led to a significant increase in the expression *of Itgax* (**Fig. 5D**), indicative of higher ABC differentiation. BCG infection elevated *Itgax* expression in B cells from female mice only when added in combination with IFN-γ (**Fig. 5D**). Treatment with IFN-γ alone led to similar increase in expression of *Tbx21*, only in B cells from females (**Fig. 5E**). However, in the presence of both BCG and IFN-γ, increase in *Tbx21* expression was similar in B cells from both females and males (**Fig. 5E**). In contrast, the combination of BCG infection with IL-21 and IFN-γ treatment enhanced *Fcrl5* expression in male splenic B cells (**Fig.5F**). These findings indicate that BCG infection drives a higher differentiation of ABCs in B cells isolated from female mice. Similarly, multiplex cytokine analysis revealed significantly higher levels of GM-CSF, IL-10, IL-6, TNF-α, and MCP-1 in the supernatants collected at 18 hours post-treatment of B cells from female mice compared to those from males (**Fig. 5G-5K**). Internalization of BCG by B cells was confirmed *via* immunofluorescence assay using an anti-LAM antibody (**Fig. S4F**). These findings underscore the

significance of considering sex-specific responses in B cell differentiation to ABCs following

treatment with IFN-γ and IL-21 in the presence or absence of BCG bacteria.

B cell depletion during BCG treatment leads to enhanced recovery of the urothelium

Our findings showing ABC expansion during disease progression prompted us to further

investigate whether B cell depletion alters the response to BCG immunotherapy in mice with

chronic exposure to BBN carcinogen. We found that depletion of B cells prior to and during BCG

treatment led to the return of urothelium to its benign morphological state in female mice (**Fig.**

6A). B cell depletion also led to reduced inflammation in the lamina propria of female mice (**Fig.**

6A) compared to male mice (**Fig. 6C**). In contrast, bladders from BCG-treated B cell intact female

(**Fig. 6B)** and male (**Fig. 6D)** mice showed dysplasia and focal CIS like changes at 1 week following

completion of treatment with 3 doses of BCG. TLS formation was rare or absent in the BCG + B-

cell-depleted mice (**Fig. 6E**) compared to B cell intact female mice (**Fig. 6F**). Exposure to BBN

carcinogen was maintained throughout the course of BCG treatment and B cell depletion to

mimic smoking behavior during BCG treatment. Indeed, removal of the BBN carcinogen at the

time of BCG treatment initiation in combination with B cell depletion revealed decreased invasion

into the sub-mucosal region (**Fig. S3C**).

Given the pronounced effect of depletion, specifically on the urothelium of female mice, we

examined the profiles of genes involved in immune cell recruitment and TLS formation using a

custom NanoString gene panel. The BCG-treated B cell-depleted group demonstrated an

increased expression of genes associated with an active effector immune state and antigen

processing**,** such as *Cd8A, Cxcl10, Cxcl9, H2Eb1, H2D1, H2K1, Stat1 and Batf3* (**Fig. 5G; Fig. S5)**.

On the other hand, bladders from mice that underwent repeated BCG treatment without B cell

depletion showed increased expression of genes associated with the expansion of ABCs and TLS

formation, such as *Tnf, Il6, Il17A, Cxcl13, Cd80, Cxcr4, Cxcr5, Cxcr1, Il1b, Ilr1, Tlr4, E2-2, Cd39, and*

Tmem173 (**Fig 5G; Fig. S5**). These findings suggest that repeated weekly instillations of BCG lead

to the systemic expansion and trafficking of ABCs to the bladder microenvironment accompanied

by TLS formation. A combination effect of BBN carcinogen and BCG treatment induced sustained

inflammation may cause systemic expansion of exhausted immune cells during the contraction

phase thus augmenting disease progression.

B cell depletion during BCG treatment alters the frequencies of helper and cytotoxic T cell

subsets

Given that BCG primarily induces T helper type 1 (Th1) responses *via* activation of CD4+ T helper

cells, we explored the influence of B cell depletion on the profiles of T cell subsets and whether

this occurs in a sex differential manner. We did not observe any significant sex differences in

splenic total CD3+ T cell frequency at both early and late (post 3rd BCG) time points (**Fig. 7A and**

7B). Interestingly, the frequency of total CD3+ T cells in the bone marrow was significantly higher

in female mice post 3rd BCG compared to male mice (**Fig. 7B**). Notably, in the B cell depleted

group there was a significant increase in total splenic T cell frequency compared to the B cell

intact group in both sexes at this time point (**Fig. 7B**). Splenic immune profiles of saline treated

mice reflected catheterization induced sterile inflammation (data not shown), an effect that is

well established in both humans and mice[42,43]. A BCG specific immune response was revealed by

the changes in the urothelium (**Fig. S5A**) and the T cell profiles in the bone marrow (**Fig. 7B**) where

a significant increase in CD3+ T cell proportions was seen only in the female mice that received 3

doses of BCG with or without B cell depletion**.** A decline in splenic CD4+ T helper cells and CD8+

T cells following all 3 BCG instillations indicated potential recruitment to the bladder (**Fig. 7C -**

7E). Presence of high CD8+ T cells was confirmed by mIF of bladders collected at the same time

point (**Fig. S5A**). Overall, these findings confirm that in response to the administration of BCG *via*

intravesical (mucosal) route, the host elicits BCG specific T helper cell associated response that

augments a cancer cell specific cytotoxic immune response.

B cell depletion during BCG treatment alters systemic and bladder infiltrating myeloid cell

functional states

Bladder resident and recruited populations of myeloid cells are key to BCG response. In this study we observed that BCG treatment led to significant alterations in the profiles of CD11b+ myeloid cells in the spleen and bone marrow of both female and male mice. Overall, female mice depicted a higher proportion of myeloid cells in the spleen compared to males. A small but significant increase in splenic total CD11b+ myeloid cells, at 1 week post 1st BCG dose, was only observed in the female mice compared to the male mice (**Fig. 8A and 8B).** Following completion of treatment with all 3 doses of BCG, in both female and male mice, there was a significant decline in bone marrow CD11b+ cells in contrast to mice undergoing B cell depletion during BCG (**Fig. 8B**). A significant increase in splenic PD-L1 immune checkpoint expressing myeloid cells was observed only in female mice following the 1st BCG dose (**Fig. 8C**). The proportion of PD-L1 expressing myeloid cells was significantly higher following the 3rd BCG dose in the spleen and bone marrow of both female and male mice that underwent B cell depletion during BCG treatment (**Fig. 8C and 8D**). This was also confirmed by spatial immune profiling of bladders from the same mice where increased infiltration of macrophages was observed (**Fig. 8E-8G).** Spatial immune profiling of bladders revealed that the BCG + isotype treated female mice had increased infiltration of PD-L1+ cells than the B cell-depleted group (**Fig. 8E-8G**). These findings suggest that the combination of BBN exposure and repeated weekly BCG treatment induces sustained local inflammation, which could potentially accelerate the exhaustion of systemic and bladder local antigen-presenting cells (APCs).

B cell depletion during BCG treatment of BBN exposed mice leads to elevated levels of plasma Th1 and Th2 proinflammatory cytokines and antibodies in female mice

Multiplex cytokine profiling of plasma collected following the completion of 3 doses of BCG revealed significant differences in pro-inflammatory and immune cell activating cytokines key to mediating Th1 and Th2 responses. In female mice undergoing B cell depletion during BCG treatment, plasma levels of the Th1 cytokines; IL-2, IFN-γ, GM-CSF, MIP-1α and MIP-1β were significantly higher compared to mice that did not undergo B cell depletion during BCG treatment. Similarly, significantly increased Th2 cytokines such as IL-9 and IL-13 were observed

in mice subjected to B cell depletion during BCG treatment (**Fig. 9**). Healthy female mice displayed

higher plasma levels of IgM, IgG2a and IgG2b, compared to the age-matched male mice (**Fig.**

S10B, S10C and S10D). However, the levels of IgG2a declined at 7-week post BBN and 1 week

post 3rd BCG in female mice **(Fig. S10C)**. Notably, in the female mice, the levels of IgG2b increased

from their pre-BCG levels reaching up to similar levels to those in age matched healthy controls,

despite the depletion of B cells during BCG treatment (**Fig. S10D**). In contrast, IgG2b levels

decreased significantly in B cell-depleted male mice (**Fig. S10D**). These findings suggest a critical

role of B cell subsets in inhibiting Th1 and Th2 responses induced by repeated mucosal BCG

administration in female mice.

Discussion

B cells and TLSs have emerged as biomarkers of favorable prognosis and response to

chemotherapy or immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy in some cancers including muscle-

invasive BC (MIBC)[44-46]. Recent reports also show that increased density and proximity of TA-TLSs

is associated with improved survival in patients with MIBC who are treated with adjuvant

chemotherapy or immune checkpoint inhibitors[47,48]. TA-TLSs are also associated with favorable

prognosis for patients with melanoma, renal, gastric, and lung cancers[49,50]. Contrary to this, in

colorectal, breast and hepatocellular carcinoma[51], a negative relationship between TA-TLSs and

patient outcomes has been demonstrated[52,53]. Similar to these and our previously reported

findings from pre-treatment tumors of patients with NMIBC and MIBC, findings from the current

study suggest their negative association with response to BCG[12]. This association may primarily

be attributed to the difference in local immunomodulation and downstream responses induced

by live BCG bacteria compared to systemically administered immune checkpoint inhibitors or

cytotoxic chemotherapy. The discrepancy also highlights the fact that the relationship between

TA-TLSs and cancer patient outcome depends on several parameters, including functional states

of immune cells within TLSs, persistence of carcinogen, treatment type, age/sex and disease

stage. While we observed high expression of immune cell exhaustion associated proteins in

chronically evolved pre-BCG TA-TLSs, it is plausible that the induction of acute TLSs post-BCG

would be associated with positive clinical outcomes given the ability of BCG to induce the

formation of granulomas[54]. However, this association may be reversed depending on the

persistence of carcinogen and recruitment of exhausted immune cell populations, from the

systemic circulation following repeated exposure to live BCG bacteria (as observed in our *in vivo*

studies).

TLSs may also play a pathological role by promoting auto-antibody production and harboring

immunosuppressive and dysfunctional immune cell populations due to sustained local

inflammation[55]. Indeed, previous reports in NMIBC showed significantly increased levels of

circulating IgG antibodies in patients exhibiting early recurrence post BCG[56]. This duality helps to

explain our findings as to why TLSs have been strongly associated with both positive and negative

outcomes in different cancer types. In this study, mIF based characterization of TLSs did not

reveal any significant differences in the density of TLSs in tumors from patients who subsequently

responded, compared to those who exhibited early recurrence post BCG. However, the location

and maturity of TLSs and proximity to tumor epithelium/invasive margin was indicative of an

aggressive tumor behavior accompanied with an exhausted local immune response.

Nevertheless, our findings from a cohort of 28 patients (89% male patients) provide novel insights

into TLS biology and emphasize the need for further validations in large independent cohorts.

BCG immunotherapy in NMIBC is unique with respect to its mucosal route of administration and

dosing schedule that requires repeated intravesical instillations at weekly intervals. Such

repeated exposure to BCG antigens, specifically during the induction phase, may cause an

expansion of exhausted immune cell populations in the effector memory phase. Such an

expansion may occur specifically in BCG unresponsive patients with a history of chronic or

persistent carcinogen exposure, smokers, patients with autoimmune conditions or female

patients with a history of recurrent urinary tract infections. The recent report by Strandgaard and

colleagues[57] demonstrated T cell exhaustion as a major factor underlying BCG failure. It is

plausible that in some patients, such repeated BCG induced immune activation will also lead to

increase in exhausted memory B cells and their recruitment to the bladder microenvironment

leading to less effective anti-tumor immune responses. This effect will be more pronounced in

older patients or those who exhibit higher pre-BCG intra-tumoral density of B cells within TA-

TLSs, reflective of their age-related/chronic carcinogen exposure induced profiles. It is tempting

to speculate that analogous to this T-bet transcription factor associated fate in both T and B cells,

expansion of ABCs (during the effector memory phase) may result from repeated encounter with

BCG bacteria in the induction phase, specifically, in unresponsive patients. This effect may

potentially also be more pronounced in female patients who generally experience early

recurrence and progression. Indeed, our previous report and unpublished findings from an on-

going study suggest that both female and male patients with high pre-treatment intra-tumoral B

cell density also experience early recurrence post BCG[12].

Patient age is an independent risk factor associated with poor response to BCG immunotherapy

in NMIBC[58]. Immunosenescence associated B cell alterations, governed by hormonal and sex

chromosome associated factors, accompany aging in a sex differential manner[23]. Indeed, immune

profiling of healthy aging mice confirmed the higher frequency of ABCs in females compared to

their male counterparts. Most importantly, using the FCG mouse model, we clearly established

that such sex differences in BCG induced systemic immune profiles as well as bladder associated

lymphoid aggregate formation, are influenced by both gonadal hormones and X chromosome

linked factors. Based on our *in vivo* findings, we reason that BCG internalized by ABCs in the

bladder microenvironment/TLSs, activates the TLR9 pathway following the binding of bacterial

CpG DNA[35]. Such an amplified TLR9 response could lead to the production of immunosuppressive

IL-10, which may further inhibit anti-tumor T cell responses and polarize macrophages to M2-like

suppressive states. *In vitro* infection of B cells using BCG bacteria confirmed such an increase in

IL-10. Further, significant decrease in PD-L1 expression in bladders B cell-depleted BCG-treated

female mice reflects a favorable anti-tumor immune response.

Validation to the central role of B cells, in mediating responses to BCG, is reinforced by

noteworthy observations from our study. Notably, the depletion of B cells during BCG treatment

reduced inflammation in the urothelium and helped accelerate its recovery despite the presence

of carcinogen specifically in female mice. Additionally, the recovery of urothelium was

accompanied by significant increases in circulating levels of the cytokines such as IL-2, IFN-γ, IL-9

and IL-13 that favor a Th1 and Th2 response. These cytokines play crucial roles in enhancing the immune system's ability to fight against cancer cells and facilitate the resolution of inflammation. Furthermore, increased expression of *Cd8A, Cxcl10, Cxcl9, H2-Eb1, H2-d1,* and *Batf3* was observed in bladders from mice undergoing B cell depletion during BCG treatment. A higher expression of *Cd8A* in the depleted group indicated a higher T cell density, which is also supported by our findings from mIF of whole bladder sections from the depleted group. Conversely, the upregulation of *Batf3* suggests either increased DCs or the suppression of T regulatory cells, in the depleted group. On the other hand, the BCG treated group exhibited higher expression of genes linked to ABC expansion and TLS formation, such as *Tnf, Il6, Il17, Cxcl13, Cxcr4, Cxcr5, Cxcr1, Cd80* and *Il1B.* These findings align with our hypothesis that ABC expansion and recruitment following repeated BCG treatment could contribute to an exhaustive bladder microenvironment, potentially leading to early disease recurrence. These gene expression patterns further corroborate the differential immune responses observed between the two treatment groups, emphasizing the pivotal role of B cells in shaping the response to BCG immunotherapy. Despite the depletion of B cells, comparable levels of IgM, IgG2a, and IgG2b between the healthy control and B cell-depleted female mice is suggestive of a memory B cell response triggered by BCG infection given the enhanced rejuvenation of lymphopoiesis in females. It is known that the cytokine IL-21 (inhibits CD8+ T cell cytolytic function), which governs ABC expansion, plays opposite roles compared to those of IL-2 (promotes cytotoxic function of CD8+ T cells)[59]. B cell depletion prior to initiation of BCG treatment may thus ablate such IL-21 mediated suppression of T cell function thus enhancing anti-tumor immunity especially in females or males with high TA-TLSs.

Our study is not without limitations. We did not establish the precise *in vivo* cellular trafficking associated events following BCG. However, our finding that CD3+CD8- T cells were significantly expanded post 3rd BCG in both B cell depleted and non-depleted mice, suggests that BCG bacteria travel to the bone marrow where further cellular priming and activation may occur. While findings from this study demonstrate the critical role of B cells and ABCs in mediating response to BCG, the mechanistic basis of how these cells suppress anti-tumor cytotoxic response remains unclear and needs further investigation. Future investigations could also explore the BCG dose

related aspects of differential response to BCG in the context of sex related immune physiology.

It is established that B cell associated CD21 (complement receptor 2) binds to autoantigens or

immune complexes,[60] and also interacts with TLR9. Most importantly CD21/CR2 has been shown

to be critical for the internalization of BCG bacteria by B cells.[61] The role of the complement

cascade in mediating response to BCG in NMIBC has not been explored and needs further

investigation.

Overall, this study not only advances the current understanding of the BCG mode of action in the

context of bladder mucosal immunity but also provides the first evidence for a critical role of B

cell exhaustion, reflected by higher pre-BCG TA-TLSs and expansion of ABCs, in disease

progression and treatment response. While mouse models do not reflect the disease complexity

observed in human scenarios, our study considers aging aspects of the immune system, unique

aspects of the mucosal immune responses and sex differences *via* the inclusion of mice from both

sexes and the FCG mice. Taken together, these novel findings based on human specimens and *in*

vivo studies, partially explain the poor outcomes in female patients and in male patients with

high intra-tumoral B cells and TA-TLSs in their pre-treatment tumors. Therapeutic targeting of

ABC associated markers in combination with optimal sequencing of PD-L1 immune checkpoint

blockade could be a novel approach for treatment of patients identified early based on their

systemic and bladder associated immune profiles.

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Materials and Methods

Human NMIBC tumor specimens

All studies involving the use of patient materials were approved by the Human Ethics Review

Board at Queen's University. The cohort comprised of 28 patients (25 males and 3 females) with

NMIBC who underwent TURBT surgery at Kingston Health Sciences Centre (KHSC) between

March 2016 and November 2017. Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tumor specimens

were retrieved from the Department of Pathology at Queen's University. Patient clinical details

were retrieved *via* electronic chart review (DJ). All patients in the cohort received adequate

induction of BCG immunotherapy (>5 out of 6 doses) following index TURBT surgery. Response

to BCG was defined as the time from each patient's earliest TURBT resection to next malignant

diagnosis. Operative notes were reviewed to exclude re-resections as recurrences. Patients who

had recurrence-free survival greater than 2 years were classified as BCG-responders (n=15).

Patients who had recurrence-free survival less than 1 year were classified as BCG-non-responders

(n=13).

Multiplex immunofluorescence on whole tumor sections

We employed mIF to characterize the organization and maturity of TLSs found in tumors from

NMIBC patients. Using our selected archival FFPE samples, triplicate 5 μm sections were cut and

mounted at Queen's Laboratory for Molecular Pathology (QLMP). One section per sample was

subjected to H&E staining. Stained sections were subjected to high-resolution scanning (Olympus

VS120 Scanner) and the scans were uploaded for viewing on the web-based HALO® image hosting

service. Immune cell aggregates, mature TLSs, and other areas of interest were electronically

annotated and reviewed for accuracy by a trained pathologist (MX).

An unstained section from each of the samples was stained *via* automated mIF staining at the

Molecular and Cellular Immunology Core facility (Deeley Research Centre; Vancouver, British

Columbia, Canada). Samples were stained with fluorophore-conjugated primary antibodies

against cell surface proteins to identify B cells, T cells, DCs and high endothelial venules (**Suppl.**

Table S4). Stained sections were scanned using the Vectra multispectral imaging system and

viewed using PhenoChart 1.1.0 Software (Akoya BioSciences®; Marlborough, Massachusetts,

USA). Aggregates/TLSs were classified into primary (immature) or secondary (mature) follicle as

previously reported.[19]

Digital spatial profiling of immune pathway proteins using NanoString's GeoMx platform

We employed NanoString GeoMx™ DSP technology to spatially characterize the protein

expression profiles in TLSs and epithelial regions within a subset of NMIBC tumors (6 responders

and 6 non-responders). This unique, high-throughput multiplexed technique uses indexing

oligonucleotides to quantify the spatially resolved abundance of protein or RNA from FFPE tissue

sections. Unstained fresh-cut 5 µm sections from the selected samples were processed on the

NanoString GeoMx DSP platform at the Imaging Centre (University of Minnesota, USA). Slide

processing was performed as per the manufacturer's instructions using DNA stain (SYTO 13), pan-

Cytokeratin (epithelium), CD45 (immune cells) and CD20 (B cells) antibodies to guide selection of

regions of interest. The abundance and localization of 49 immune proteins of interest (Immune

Cell Profiling Core, plus the Immuno-Oncology, Drug Target Module, Immune Activation Status

Module, and the Immune Cell Typing Module; see **Suppl. Table S2**) was measured. Quality control

was performed as per the manufacturer's instructions and External RNA Controls Consortium in

DSP suite (nCounter™ platform) prior to further analysis. Details of the DSP methodology and

analysis are provided in the Supplementary data.

***In vivo* studies**

Animal models

All murine experiments were in accordance with the guidelines provided by Queen's University

Animal Care Committee and approved in an animal research protocol. The B6.Cg-Tg(Sry)2Ei

Srydl1Rlb/ArnoJ mice were kindly provided by Dr. Manu Rangachari (University of Laval) and also

purchased from the Jackson laboratory (stock number 010905, RRID:SCR_002187). Breeding of

the FCG mice was conducted at the Queen's animal care facility to derive the four genotypes

(gonadally female mice and male mice with XX and XY chromosomal complement each). The FCG

transgenic mouse model (on a C57BL/6 background) allows for the generation of sex-reversed XX

males and XY females by breeding mice with a loss-of-function mutation in the Y chromosome-

linked testes-determining *Sry* gene with transgenic mice carrying an *Sry* rescue transgene on an

autosome (**Fig. 4A**)[62]. This model permits determination of independent effects of gonadal and

sex chromosome-specific features on bladder cancer progression associated immunologic

profiles. Mice were aged for 12 months at the facility. Wild type C57BL/6 female and male mice
(12 months old) were purchased from Charles River Laboratory (Montreal, QC, Canada). All mice
were fed sterilized conventional diet and water and maintained under specific pathogen-free
environment.
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541 **BBN carcinogen exposure and depletion of B cells**
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Female and male C57BL/6 mice (12 months old) and FCG mice (12 months old) were administered
0.05% BBN (Cat# B0938, TCI America, OR, USA) *ad libitum* in drinking water (protected from light)
once a week for 7-12 weeks as previously described.[18] Our previous findings have demonstrated
the formation of lymphocyte aggregates, within the lamina propria of bladder, initiating at week
4 post BBN exposure as a result of BBN induced DNA damage[40]. To determine the influence of B
cells on disease progression, we initiated B cell depletion starting week 3 post BBN exposure.
Briefly, a cocktail of monoclonal antibodies (**Suppl. Table S3**) at 150 µg/mouse: rat anti-mouse
CD19, rat anti-mouse B220 and mouse anti-mouse CD22 was injected *via* intraperitoneal (I.P)
injection, as described previously[39]. After 48 hours, mice were injected with mouse anti-rat κ
secondary antibody at 150 µg/mouse. To maintain the depletion of B cells *in vivo*, mice were
injected with anti-CD20 antibody. B cell depletion cocktail injections were repeated 3 times every
10 days to ensure the complete depletion of systemic B cells, further confirmed with flow
cytometry results post last injection. To determine the effect of B cell depletion on response to
BCG in BBN exposed mice, depletion protocol was initiated 1 week prior to 1st BCG instillation
followed by weekly anti-CD20 antibody injections for 3 weeks during BCG treatment. Isotype
controls for each antibody (**Suppl. Table S3**) mentioned above were also used.
559
Intravesical BCG in BBN exposed mice
Lyophilized TICE strain of BCG (Merck, Canada) was obtained from the pharmacy at KHSC. Each
50 mg vial contained $1 - 8 \times 10^8$ colony forming units (CFU) of BCG, as tested by the manufacturer.
BCG was resuspended in sterile saline for all experiments. At 7 weeks post BBN exposure, mice
were subjected to intravesical treatment with 3 weekly instillations of BCG (1mg/mouse in 50 µl

of saline). BCG was delivered *via* transurethral catheterization with a 24-gauge catheter (3/4",

Cat# 4053, Jelco, Minneapolis, USA) for female mice and PE-10 tubing in male mice under

isoflurane anaesthesia. Urethral VASCU-STATT Midi clamps (Cat# 1001-501, Scanlan, Canada)

were placed to hold BCG within the bladder for 1 hour. Whole bladders were collected from all

treatment groups post 1st (8 weeks post BBN exposure) and 3rd BCG (10 weeks post BBN

exposure) instillation, post 1st anti-CD20 treatment after 1st BCG instillation (8 weeks post BBN

exposure) and post 3rd anti-CD20 treatment after 3rd BCG (10 weeks post BBN exposure)

instillation (**Fig. 3A**) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for histopathological evaluation and

spatial immune profiling *via* mIF. Single cell suspensions from bone marrow and spleen were

subjected to profiling using multispectral flow cytometry. Blood was collected from the

submandibular vein for plasma cytokine profiling.

Local and systemic immune profiling

Whole bladders collected from all treatment groups, at treatment time points as indicated in **Fig.**

3A, were sagittaly cut into two halves, fixed in 10% formalin and paraffin-embedded for H&E

staining as described in above section. The urothelial changes in mice were classified as follows:

reactive atypia, dysplasia, carcinoma in situ (CIS), early invasion and invasion. 5 μm unstained

FFPE sections were subjected to spatial immune profiling using mIF staining to determine the

infiltration patterns of selected immune markers. Antibodies to identify CD11b+ myeloid cells,

CD3+ total T cells, CD8+ cytotoxic T cells, Pax5+ B cells, CD19+ CD21- CD11c+ atypical B cells, PD-

L1+ cells (**Suppl. Table S4**) were used in mIF staining at the Molecular and Cellular Immunology

Core (MCIC) facility, BC Cancer Agency as per previously reported methods.[18] Multiplex IF stained

images were acquired using the Vectra 3 multichannel imaging system. Images were then

imported to Phenochart (11.0, Akoya Biosciences) and Inform Viewer (2.5.0, Akoya Biosciences)

software for annotation followed by capturing at high magnification. The Inform Viewer was used

to visualize a detailed composite image of each section with the flexibility of spectral separation

of all the fluorophores from each panel. StarDist (https://github.com/stardist/stardist), a deep

learning tool extension available in the QuPath software (https://qupath.github.io, v0.40) was

used to further analyze the expression of markers within a region of interest (ROI)[63]. Positive

staining thresholds were manually defined for each marker following confirmation using the DAPI

nuclear stain channel. Immune cell infiltration was evaluated in 10 random annotated ROI

adjacent to the basal layer of the urothelium in the bladders for each treatment group.

Composite object classifier tool was used to identify co-expression of markers. Measurements

were calculated per mm^2 and exported to GraphPad Prism (v9.5.1, California, USA) to analyze

differences between sexes and treatment groups.

Single cell suspensions from spleens harvested were prepared by mechanical dissociation. Bone

marrow was aspirated with RPMI-1640 media (Wisent Bioproducts, ON, Canada) using a 26-

gauge needle and passing it through a 40 μm cell strainer followed by red blood cell (RBC) lysis.

Details of further processing and multiparametric flow cytometry (Cytoflex-S; Beckman, USA) are

provided in the **Supplementary methods** section.

Gene expression profiling of bladder using NanoString nCounter gene expression platform

Gene expression profiling was performed on total RNA isolated from fresh frozen whole bladders

using a custom designed nCounter gene panel (**Suppl. Table S7**) which included genes associated

with immune function, various cancer-related chemokines and cytokines, and housekeeping

genes (NanoString Technologies, Washington, USA). Because of the significant changes observed

in urothelium of female bladders following B cell depletion during BCG treatment, this analysis

was only performed in bladders from female mice. Total RNA from fresh frozen bladders (as

indicated) was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Cat. #74004, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) as

per the manufacturer's instructions. The purity and concentration of isolated RNA was

assessed using the NanoDrop ND-100 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, DE,

USA). Total RNA (150 ng) was used as a template for digital multiplexed profiling at Ontario

Institute for Cancer Research as per previously established protocols. The nSolver software

(NanoString Technologies, Washington, USA) was used to normalize the raw nCounter

NanoString counts using built-in positive controls. Normalization was performed using

housekeeping genes and overall assay efficiency was calculated using geometric mean of
each control. Normalized nCounter gene counts between different treatment groups was
further analysed in GraphPad Prism.

Plasma cytokine profiling and immunoglobulin isotyping

Female and male mice from each treatment group (n = 4-5 mice per group) were subjected to
blood collection from the submandibular (facial) vein. Separated plasma was aliquoted as per the
requirements for multiplex cytokine analysis and stored at -80°C until further profiling. Plasma
was diluted using PBS (1:1) and subjected to multiplex cytokine analysis using the commercially
available 32-Plex Mouse Cytokine Discovery Array (MD-31; Eve Technologies, AB, Canada).

Plasma Ig were analysed using the LEGENDplex Mouse Immunoglobulin Isotyping panel (6-plex)
by flow cytometry (Cat #740493, BioLegend, CA, USA). Plasma sample and standards was
prepared using assay buffer as per the manufacturer's instruction. Data was analysed using the
cloud-specific LEGENDplex Data Analysis Software Suite Qognit (v.2023.02.15, CA, USA).
Statistically significant differences in the levels of Ig isotypes between the groups were
determined using GraphPad Prism.

In vitro **studies**

Cell culture

Splenic B cells were isolated from 12-month-old female and male mice (n=3-4/group) after 7
weeks of BBN exposure using EasySep Mouse Pan B cell negative isolation kit (Cat# 19844,
StemCell technologies, BC, Canada). The purity and viability of enriched B cells was >90% as
assessed by anti-B220 and anti-CD19 mAb staining using flow cytometry (**Fig. 5A; Fig. S5A).** B cells
were resuspended in a base B cell culture media comprising of RPMI media supplemented with
L-glutamine, 10% FBS, 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin, 1X Sodium Pyruvate, 50 µM 2-

mercaptoethanol, 1X Nonessential amino acid and 10mM HEPES. 1.5×10^6 cells/ml were seeded

in a 96 well plate and treated with IFN-γ (20ng/ml, Cat#315-05, Peprotech, NJ, USA), IL-21 (20

ng/ml, Cat# 210-21, Peprotech, NJ, USA) and TLR7 agonist – Imiquimod (R837) (2.5µM, Cat# tlrl-

imqs, Invivogen, CA, USA) for 6 and 18 hours at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Cells were also infected with

BCG TICE (Merck, Canada) along with IFN-γ and IL-21 to compare the expansion of ABCs.

Lyophilized BCG was reconstituted in B cell culture media at a concentration of 1 mg/ml, resulting

in approximately $0.2 – 1.6 \times 10^7$ CFU per ml. Following an 18-hour treatment, the supernatant

was collected, and cells were subjected to flow cytometric analysis using the ABC panel

(**Supplementary methods**).

Quantitative real-time PCR

After 6 hrs of *in vitro* treatment, total RNA was extracted from the B cells using the RNeasy Mini

Kit (Cat. #74004, QIAGEN, Germany) as per the manufacturer's instruction. The quality and

concentration of the RNA was assessed by the NanoDrop ND-100 spectrophotometer

(NanoDrop Technologies, DE, USA). 150 ng of total RNA per sample was used to synthesize

cDNA using LunaScript RT SuperMix kit (Cat# E3010L, NewEngland BioLabs, MA, USA) in a

20 µl reaction volume. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using ViiA 7 Real-Time

PCR System (Applied Biosystems, MA, USA). Briefly, the 20 µl reaction volume consisted of

10 µl of TaqMan Fast Advanced Master Mix (Cat# 4444556, Applied Biosystems, MA, USA),

2 µl of cDNA, 1 µl of TaqMan primers (**Suppl. Table S6)** and 7 µl of nuclease free water.

Relative gene expression was calculated using $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method and *Ubc* as the housekeeping

gene.

Multiplex cytokine profiling of culture supernatants

Supernatants collected after 18 hours of treatment was aliquoted in separate tubes and stored

at -80°C until further profiling. Supernatant was subjected to multiplex cytokine analysis using

commercially available Mouse Cytokine Proinflammatory Focused 10-plex Discovery Array (MD-

F10; Eve Technologies, AB, Canada).

Immunocytochemistry

Splenic B cells, enriched *via* negative selection, were treated with IFN-γ, IL-21, TLR7, and BCG

infection for 6 hours and 18 hours. The treated cells were then transferred to cover slips pre-

coated with a 0.1% Poly-L-lysine solution (Cat# P8920, Millipore Sigma, MO, USA) and incubated

at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 1 hour. Next, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for

30 minutes at room temperature (RT) and blocked with 5% skim milk for 30–45 minutes at RT.

Subsequently, the cells were incubated with primary antibodies Anti-CD11c and Anti-LAM (**Suppl.**

Table S5) overnight at 4°C. The cells were then incubated with the corresponding secondary

antibodies (**Suppl. Table S5**) for 1 hour at RT. All intermediate washes were performed using PBS-

T (0.1% Tween 20) buffer. Finally, ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant with DNA stain DAPI (Cat#

P36941, Invitrogen, MA, USA) was used to prevent photobleaching, and the cells were

transferred onto slides. The slides were visualized using a Zeiss Axio Imager M2 epifluorescence

microscope (Zeiss, Germany).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. Results are expressed as mean ± SD.

Comparisons between two groups with one independent variable was performed using non-

parametric t-test (Mann-Whitney). Three or more groups with one independent variable were

analysed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. Three or more groups with two or

more independent variable were analysed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparison test. Statistical significance is indicated by *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$,

****$p < 0.001$, ns - not significant.

Author contributions and acknowledgements
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MK conceptualized and designed the study. PY, SR, SC, GC and MK performed experiments
included in this study, analyzed data and contributed to manuscript writing and reviewing. IE
helped with BBN experiments. KS and JH analyzed the NanoString GeoMx DSP data. DJ helped
with chart review and identification of BCG responders and non-responders. MX helped with
reviewing histopathological features and retrieving the archival tumor tissue specimens. DRS and
DMB helped with clinical classifications of BCG treated patient specimens. EM and JM designed
the Nanostring nCounter panel in consultation with WK. All authors reviewed the manuscript.
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Figure 1. Pre-treatment tumors from BCG non-responders exhibit higher density of tumor adjacent tertiary lymphoid structures. H&E-stained tumor section from a patient classified as BCG non-responder (TLS highlighted in box) (**A**); Classification of different stages of TLSs (identified by expression of CD21+ and CD208+ follicular dendritic cells and PNAd+ high endothelial venules). Multiplex IF showing different stages of TLSs in whole tumor sections (**B**). Bar graph showing higher number of TA-TLSs in BCG non-responders (n=13) compared to responders (n=15) (**C**); Representative images from NanoString GeoMx DSP based staining of 4 whole tumor sections (2 Responders and 2 Non-Responder), showing regions of interest (ROI) selection based on PanCK+/-, CD45+, CD20+ and SYTO 13+ areas/cells (**D**). Violin plot showing area distribution between TLSs and tumor epithelial compartments in all 12 sections (**E**). Box plots showing expression of significantly differentially expressed (*p<0.05, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, ns − not significant) proteins of interest between tumor epithelial regions and TLSs (**F**).

Figure 2. Atypical B cells exhibit sex differences in healthy and carcinogen exposed aging C57BL/6 mice. Comparison of profiles of total B cells (B220+ CD19+) (**A**; n=5-6) and ABCs (CD45+B220+CD19+CD21-/lo CD11c+) (**D**; n=5-6) in spleen and bone marrow of healthy 12-month-old female and male mice. Contour plots and unsupervised Fast interpolation-based t-SNE (FItSNE) plot represents the distribution of ABC population in the total immune (CD45+) cells in healthy male and female mice **(B and C).** FItSNE plot was created using plug-in tool FItSNE and FlowSOM in FlowJo® software. Total B cells and ABCs in B cell depleted, isotype control and untreated female and male mice at 12 weeks post BBN initiation (**E and F**; n=3-4 mice/group). Representative multiplex IF images (n=4/group in each sex) showing differences in bladder infiltrating ABCs at 12 weeks post BBN exposure in female and male mice (**G and H**). Analysis of flow cytometry data was performed using FlowJo® software. All statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test was applied to determine statistical significance in differences (*$p<0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p <0.001$, ns – not significant). Bar graphs represent mean ± SD.

3A.

3B. Pre-BBN Week 1

3C. Week 7

3H.

3D. Post 1st BCG

3E. Post 3rd BCG

3F. Week 14

3G. Week 16

3I.

3J.

CD19+ B cells, CD11c+ Atypical B cell marker, CD21+ B cells

3K.

Figure 3. Repeated weekly BCG treatment in aging mice promotes expansion of ABCs and disease progression. Schematic diagram showing experimental approach for intravesical BCG treatment (3 weekly doses) with or without B cell depletion in 12-month-old female and male mice **(A)**. H&E-stained sections showing histological changes in the urothelium and bladder microenvironment at various time points pre-BBN **(B)**, post 7-week BBN **(C)**, one week post 1st BCG **(D)**, one week post 3rd BCG **(E)**, and 6 and 8-weeks post 3rd BCG **(F&G)**. Circles indicate lymphoid aggregates/TLSs. Black arrows indicate the urothelium of bladder sections. Scale bar in H&E-stained images – 100 µm. Representative contour plots for identification of splenic ABC population at different time points post BBN and BCG treatment. Contour plots are illustrative of frequency of CD19+ cells and may show disparity in density in comparison to bar graph as shown in B cell depleted and post 3rd BCG treatment group **(H)**. Bar graph represents differences in the frequency of ABCs (CD19+ CD21-/low CD11c+) post BBN and BCG treatment at different time points for both male (n=3-9) and female mice (n=4-9) **(I)**. Analysis of flow cytometry data was performed using FlowJo® software. All statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. Ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test was applied to determine statistical significance in differences (*p<0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <0.001, ****p<0.0001). Multiplex IF-stained whole bladder sections showing ABCs (CD19+CD21-CD11c+) in 1 week post 3rd BCG treated 12-month-old female mice **(J)**. Representative of 8-10 regions per section (n=5/6 mice in each group). Images at 200x magnification. Bar graph represents number of ABCs (CD19+CD21-CD11c+) detected in 10 annotations per treatment group of the bladder microenvironment **(K)**. Cell detection analysis and classifier to identify different subsets was performed using QuPath software. All statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. Mann-Whitney test was applied to determine statistical significance in differences (*p<0.05, ns- not significant). Data presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 4. Expansion of ABCs is influenced by hormonal and sex chromosome associated factors. Schematic representation of four core genotype (FCG) mouse model used to study the hormonal and sex chromosomal influence on response to BCG treatment in BBN exposed mice (A). Bar graph showing splenic (B) and bone marrow (C) CD45+B220+CD19+CD21-/low CD11c+ ABCs in healthy 12-month-old FCG mice; at 10-weeks post BBN and at 1 week post 3rd BCG instillation in BBN exposed mice (BCG treatment initiated at week 7 post BBN initiation). Immune cell frequency was determined using multiparametric flow cytometry. H&E-stained bladder sections from all four genotypes of FCG mice showing differences in bladder microenvironment and overall immune cell infiltration under untreated and BCG treated BBN exposed conditions (D). GraphPad software was used to determine statistically significant differences in profiles across the different genotypes using two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's test. (*p<0.05, **p<0.001, ****p<0.0001). Statistical comparison (p value) among different groups shown in Suppl. Table S8. Data shown as mean ± SD. N=3-9 per group. Scale bar in H&E-stained images – 100 μm.

Figure 5. BCG infection and exposure of B cells to IFN-γ and IL-21 increases differentiation of B cells to ABCs in a sex differential manner. Representative contour plot for identification of B220+ CD19+ total splenic B cells before and after enrichment (A). Bar graph illustrates the purity of B cells (93.4 ± 2.2%) after isolation from 12-month-old male and female mice exposed to 7 weeks of BBN (B). Bar graph showing increase in ABCs (CD19+ CD21- CD11c+) after 18 h of incubation with IL-21 with or without BCG infection (C). Bar graph represents the *Ubc* house keeping gene-normalized $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ fold change expression levels of ABC-associated genes *Itgax* (A)*, Tbx21* (B), and *Fcrl5* (C) genes in splenic B cells of BBN exposed male and female mice, at 6 h post treatment with IFN-γ, IL-21 in the presence or absence of BCG bacteria. Bar graphs showing significantly increased levels of TNF-α (D), IL-10 (E), GM-CSF (F), IL-6 (G) and MCP-1 (H) in the supernatants collected at 18 hours post incubation of B cells from female mice compared to those from male mice. B cells were treated with IFN-γ, IL-21 with and without infection with BCG and subjected to multiplex cytokine profiling. GraphPad software was used to determine statistically significant differences in profiles across the different genotypes using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. (*$p<0.05$, **$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$). N=3-4 per group. Data shown as mean ± SD.

Figure. 6. Effect of transient B cell depletion during BCG treatment on urothelium of BBN exposed female and male mice. H&E-stained whole bladder section showing benign/normal histology of urothelium (shown by arrow) post 3rd BCG + B cell depletion in female (A) and focal hyperplasia in male (C) mice compared to dysplasia and CIS post 3rd BCG treatment in female (B) and male (D) mice. Multiplex IF stained whole bladder section showing dysplasia and TLS formation (white box) post 3rd BCG instillation in BCG+ isotype treated (F) compared to the BCG+ B cell depleted female mice (E). Representative of 8-10 regions/section, 200x magnification (n=5/6 mice/group). Scale bar in H&E-stained images– 100 μm. Bar graph illustrating the mean ± SD of normalized nCounter gene counts (as indicated), analyzed using NanoString nSolver software. Changes in the expression profiles of selected set of genes in fresh frozen bladders from female mice at 7-weeks post BBN exposure, and one week post 3rd BCG with or without B cell depletion (G). Statistical analysis was conducted using GraphPad software with a one-way ANOVA test to identify significant differences in expression profiles across the various genotypes (*p<0.05, **p<0.001). N=4 per group.

7A.

7B.

7C.

7D.

7E.

Figure 7. Depletion of B cells during BCG treatment alters systemic T cell profiles in BBN exposed female and male mice. Representative flow cytometry contour plots demonstrating differences in splenic CD45+CD3+ total T cell population in different treatment groups (**A**). Bar graph represents frequency of total CD3+ T cells in the spleen and bone marrow of 12-month-old male and female C57BL/6 mice at 7-weeks post BBN; one week post 1st BCG; one week post 3rd BCG with or without B cell depletion (**B**). Representative flow cytometry contour plots demonstrating differences in CD4+ CD8- and CD4- CD8+ T cell subsets in different treatment groups (**C**). Bar graph illustrating the variations in the frequency of CD4+ CD8- T helper cells (**D**) and CD4-CD8+ cytotoxic T cells (**E**) in the spleen and bone marrow of 12-month-old aging male and female mice at 7-weeks post BBN; one week post 3rd BCG with or without B cell depletion. Analysis of flow cytometry data was performed using FlowJo® software. All statistical analysis was done in GraphPad Prism software using two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's test depicted statistical significance. (****$p < 0.0001$). N=3-9 per group. Data presented as mean ± SD.

8A.

7 week post BBN | Post 3rd BCG
Post 1st BCG | Post 3rd BCG + BD

8B.

8C.

8D.

8E.

8F.

PD-L1+ , F4/80+, CD163+ M2 macrophage, EpCAM+ urothelium

8G.

Figure 8. Repeated BCG treatment increases PD-L1 expression on splenic myeloid cells and in the bladder microenvironment. Representative flow cytometry contour plots demonstrating differences in splenic CD45+ CD11b+ total myeloid cell population in different treatment groups (A). Bar graph represents profile of total CD11b+ myeloid cells in the spleen and bone marrow of 12-month-old male and female C57BL/6 mice at 7-weeks post BBN; one week post 1st BCG; one week post 3rd BCG with or without B cell depletion (B). Bar graph represents differences in the profile of CD11b+ PD-L1+ cells in spleen (C) and bone marrow (D) of 12-month-old aging female and male mice at 7-weeks post BBN; one week post 1st BCG; one week post 3rd BCG with or without B cell depletion. Analysis of flow cytometry data was performed using FlowJo® software. All statistical analysis done in GraphPad Prism software (v9.5.1) using two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's test depicted statistical significance. (*p<0.05, **p<0.01,***p < 0.001,****p < 0.0001). Multiplex IF-stained whole bladder sections showing PD-L1+ cells in BCG + B cell depleted (E) and BCG + isotype antibody treated mice (F) at 1 week post 3rd BCG instillation. Representative of 8-10 regions per section. Images at 200x magnification. Bar graph (mean ± SD) represents PD-L1+ detections in 10 annotations per treatment group of the bladder section (G). Cell detection analysis and classifier to identify PD-L1+ expression was performed using QuPath software. All statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. Mann-Whitney test was applied to determine statistical significance in differences (*p<0.05). N=3-10 per group. Data presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 9. B cell depletion during BCG treatment increases plasma Th1/Th2 cytokine levels. Plasma collected at 1 week post 3rd BCG dose with or without B cell depletion was subjected to multiplex cytokine profiling. Significantly increased levels of Th1 (IL-2, IFN-γ, MIP-1α, MIP-1β), Th2 (IL-9 and IL-13) cytokines and GM-CSF, were observed in BCG+B cell depleted female mice (n=3-4 in each group). All statistical analysis were performed using GraphPad Prism. Statistical significance, *p<0.01, **p<0.001, ***p<0.0001, ****p<0.0001, was determined using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple effect test. Data presented as mean ± SEM.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table S1. Patient clinical and pathological features

		Responders (n=15)	Non-responders (n=13)
Sex	Male	13 (86.67%)	12 (92.3%)
	Female	2 (13.33%)	1 (7.69%)
Age	50-70 yrs.	7 (46.67%)	8 (61.54%)
	71-90 yrs.	8 (53.3%)	5 (38.4%)
AUA risk category	Low	1 (6.67%)	0 (0.00%)
	Intermediate	7 (46.67%)	4 (30.71%)
	High	7 (46.67%)	9 (69.23%)
Pathology	Non-invasive, Low grade	1 (6.67%)	1 (7.69%)
	CIS	0 (0.00%)	1 (7.69%)
	Non-invasive, High grade	8 (53.3%)	4 (30.76%)
	Invasive, High grade	6 (40%)	7 (53.84%)

Supplementary Table S2. List of proteins investigated via NanoString GeoMx DSP

Immune Cell Profiling Core	IO Drug Target Module	Immune Activation Status Module	Immune Cell Typing Module
Beta-2-microglobulin	4-1BB	CD127	CD45RO
CD11c	LAG3	CD25	FOXP3
CD20	OX40L	CD80	CD34
CD3	Tim-3	ICOS	CD66b
CD4	VISTA	PD-L2	FAP-alpha
CD45	ARG1	CD40	CD14
CD56	B7-H3	CD44	CD163
CD68	IDO1	CD27	
CD8	STING		
CTLA4	GITR		
Fibronectin			
GAPDH			
GZMB			
Histone H3			
HLA-DR			
Ki-67			
Ms IgG1			
Ms IgG2a			
PanCk			
PD-1			
PD-L1			
Rb IgG			
S6			
SMA			

Supplementary Table S3. List of antibodies used in multispectral flow cytometry

ANTIBODIES (B CELL DEPLETION)	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Anti-mouse CD19 (Clone 1D3)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0150
Anti-mouse CD22 (Clone Cy34.1)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0011
Anti-mouse B220 (Clone RA3.3A1/6.1)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0067
Anti-mouse CD20 (Clone MB20-11)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0356
Anti-rat kappa Immunoglobulin Light Chain (Clone MB20-11)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0122
Rat IgG2a Isotype control (Clone 2A3)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0089
Mouse IgG1 Isotype control (Clone MOPC-21)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0083
Polyclonal rat IgG Isotype control (Clone N/A)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0094
Mouse IgG2a Isotype control (Clone C1.18.4)	Bio X Cell	Cat# BE0085
ANTIBODIES (FLOW CYTOMETRY)	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Anti-mouse CD45 – Pacific Blue (Clone 30-F11)	BioLegend	Cat# 103126
Anti-mouse CD19 – Alexa Fluor 700 (Clone 6D5)	BioLegend	Cat# 115528
Anti-mouse CD21 – APC/Cyanine 7 (Clone 7E9)	BioLegend	Cat# 123418
Anti-mouse CD11c – PE/Dazzle 594 (Clone N418)	BioLegend	Cat# 117348
Anti-mouse B220 – FITC (Clone RA3-6B2)	BioLegend	Cat# 103206
Anti-mouse IgD - PE (Clone 11-26c.2a)	BioLegend	Cat# 405705
Anti-mouse CD3ε – FITC (Clone 145-2C11)	BioLegend	Cat# 100306
Anti-mouse CD4 – Alexa Fluor 700 (Clone GK1.5)	BioLegend	Cat# 100430
Anti-mouse CD8a – PE/Fire 700 (Clone 53-6.7)	BioLegend	Cat# 100791
Anti-mouse/rat/human FOXP3- PE (Clone 150D)	BioLegend	Cat# 320008
Anti-mouse CD279 – APC (Clone RMP1-30)	BioLegend	Cat# 109112
Anti-mouse NK-1.1 – Brilliant violet 785 (Clone PK136)	BioLegend	Cat# 108749
Anti-mouse/human CD11b – FITC (Clone M1/70)	BioLegend	Cat# 101206
Anti-mouse F4/80 – PE/Cyanine5 (Clone BM8)	BioLegend	Cat# 123112
Anti-mouse CD274 – PE/Cyanine7 (Clone 10F.9G2)	BioLegend	Cat# 124314
Anti-mouse CD8a – PE (Clone 53-6.7)	BioLegend	Cat# 100708
Purified anti-mouse CD16/32 (Clone 93)	BioLegend	Cat# 101302

Supplementary Table S4. Antibodies used in multiplex IF staining.

Primary Antibody	Staining Round	Species	Cat#	Clone #	Ab Dilution (Diluent)	Fluorophore	Fluorophore dilution
CD208	1	Rat	DDX0191P-100	1010E1.01	1/100 (RR)	Opal 650	1/100
CD3	2	Rabbit	M3074	SP7	1/600 (DVG)	Opal 520	1/300
PNAd	3	Rat	120802	MECA-79	1/200 (DVG)	Opal 620	1/100
Pax5	4	Rabbit	ab109443	EPR3730	1/1000 (DVG)	Opal 540	1/500
CD8	5	Rabbit	98941S	D4W2Z	1/200 (DVG)	Opal 690	1/150
CD11b	6	Rabbit	ab133357	EPR1344	1/7500 (DVG)	Opal 570	1/800
CD163	1	Rabbit	ab182422	EPR19518	1/3000 (RR)	Opal 570	1/200
Ly6G	2	Rat	127607	1A8	1/800 (DVG)	Opal 620	1/300
EpCAM	3	Rabbit	ab221552	EPR20533-63	1/600 (DVG)	Opal 690	1/100
PD-L1	4	Rabbit	64988	D5V3B	1/150 (DVG)	Opal 520	1/100
CD11c	1	Rabbit	97585	D1V9Y	1/200 (DVG)	Opal480	1/100
CD21	3	Rabbit	ab227662	SP186	1/100 (DVG)	Opal620	1/100
CD19	4	Rabbit	90176T	D4V4BXP (R)	1/800 (DVG)	Opal570	1/800

Supplementary Table S5. Antibodies used in atypical B cell panel for multiplex IF staining.

Primary Antibody	Species	Cat#	Clone	Company	Ab Dilution
B220	Rat	14-0452-81	RA3-6B2	ThermoFisher	1:200
CD11c	Armenian Hamster	14-0114-81	N418	ThermoFisher	1:100
IgM	Goat	A90-101A	N/A	Fortis Life Sciences	1:150
CD21	Rabbit	MA5-32227	SC0681	ThermoFisher	1:100
Anti-LAM	Rabbit	MBS320597	N/A	MyBioSource	1:100

Secondary Antibody	Conjugate	Cat#	Company	Ab Dilution
Goat anti-Rat	Alexa Fluor 555	A-21434	ThermoFisher	1:400
Goat anti-Armenian hamster	Alexa Fluor 488	ab173003	Abcam	1:250
Donkey anti-Goat	Alexa Fluor 647	A-21447	ThermoFisher	1:200
Donkey anti-Rabbit	Alexa Fluor 594	A-21207	ThermoFisher	1:400

Supplementary Table S6. List of primers used for quantitative RT-PCR

Gene Symbol	Species	Cat#	Company
Aicda	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher
Fcrl5	Mouse	4448892	ThermoFisher
Itgax	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher
Il10	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher
Tbx21	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher
Tlr7	Mouse	4448892	ThermoFisher
Tlr9	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher
Ubc	Mouse	4453320	ThermoFisher

Supplementary Table S7. List of genes investigated via NanoString nCounter

ATG5	CXCL9	H2-D1	IL17RA	PDCD1
BATF3	CXCR3	H2-DMb1	IL1B	PDIA3
BAX	Cd63	H2-Dma	IL1R1	PIK3CA
Bcl6	Cxcl13	H2-Eb1	IL6	PRF1
CALR	Cxcr1	H2-K1	Icos	PSMB9
CASP1	Cxcr4	HMGB1	Irf4	SF3A3
CASP8	Cxcr5	HSP90AA1	Isg15	STAT1
CCL5	E2-2	IDO1	Klrb1c	STAT3
CD274	EIF2AK3	IFNA1	Klrk1	Sap130
CD4	ENTPD1	IFNAR1	LY96	Sdha
CD80	Edc3	IFNB1	MYD88	Siglech
CD86	FOXP3	IFNG	Mavs	TLR4
CD8A	Gusb	IFNGR1	NLRP3	TMEM173
CD8B	H2-Aa	IL10	NT5E	TNF
CXCL10	H2-Ab1	IL17A	P2RX7	cd81

Supplementary Table S8. Summary of statistical comparison of splenic ABC profiles between the treatment groups of the four genotypes of FCG

Comparison group	Summary	Individual p value	Comparison group	Summary	Individual p value
XXF:12 month old vs. XXF:Post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:12 month old	**	0.0017
XXF:12 month old vs. XXF:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	**	0.0052
XXF:12 month old vs. XXF:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0208
XXF:12 month old vs. XXF:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XXF:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0116
XXF:12 month old vs. XYF:12 month old	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYF:12 month old	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XYF:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYF:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XYF:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYF:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XYF:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XXM:12 month old	**	0.0053
XXF:12 month old vs. XYF:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XXM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0354
XXF:12 month old vs. XXM:12 month old	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:12 month old	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XXM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XXF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYF:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0227
XXF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0086
XXF:12 month old vs. XYM:12 month old	***	0.0003	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	**	0.0091
XXF:12 month old vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:12 month old	**	0.0061
XXF:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	*	0.0196
XXF:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0170
XXF:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XXF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0450
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXF:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0015	XYF:12 month old vs. XYF:Post 3rd BCG	***	0.0002
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYF:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0034	XYF:12 month old vs. XYF:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0155
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0012	XYF:12 month old vs. XXM:post 7 wk BBN	**	0.0094
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	**	0.0012	XYF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 10 wk BBN	**	0.0095
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0026	XYF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001
XXF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	**	0.0066	XYF:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001
XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYF:12 month old	*	0.0149	XYF:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	***	0.0002
XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYF:post 7 wk BBN	*	0.0250	XYF:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	***	0.0003
XXF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYF:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0190	XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0117
XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:post 7 wk BBN	*	0.0155	XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0118
XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0156	XYF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYF:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001
XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XYF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYF:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001
XYF:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XYF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XXM:12 month old	*	0.0100
XYF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	***	0.0002	XYF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:12 month old	****	<0.0001
XYF:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	***	0.0004	XYF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XYF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:12 month old	**	0.0013	XYF:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	***	0.0002
XYF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	**	0.0046	XXM:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0039
XYF:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0219	XXM:12 month old vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	**	0.0042
XXM:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	**	0.0076	XXM:12 month old vs. XYM:12 month old	*	0.0499
XXM:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0193	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0378
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0252	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0430
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XXM:Post 3rd Saline	*	0.0277	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:12 month old	***	0.0006
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:12 month old	***	0.0005	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	**	0.0024
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	**	0.0024	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0131
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	*	0.0133	XXM:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:12 month old	****	<0.0001
XXM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	*	0.0458	XXM:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XYM:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXM:Post 3rd BCG vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XYM:12 month old vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001	XXM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	****	<0.0001
XYM:post 7 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	****	<0.0001	XXM:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:12 month old	****	<0.0001
XYM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd BCG	***	0.0002	XXM:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:post 7 wk BBN	****	<0.0001
XYM:Post 10 wk BBN vs. XYM:Post 3rd Saline	***	0.0004	XXM:Post 3rd Saline vs. XYM:Post 10 wk BBN	****	<0.0001