Assessing vaccine-mediated protection in an ultra-low dose *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

murine model

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ABSTRACT

Despite widespread immunization with Bacille-Calmette-Guerin (BCG), the only currently

licensed tuberculosis (TB) vaccine, TB remains a leading cause of mortality globally. There are

many TB vaccine candidates in the developmental pipeline, but the lack of a robust animal

model to assess vaccine efficacy has hindered our ability to prioritize candidates for human

clinical trials. Here we use a murine ultra-low dose (ULD) *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb)

challenge model to assess protection conferred by BCG vaccination. We show that BCG

confers a reduction in lung bacterial burdens that is more durable than that observed after

conventional dose challenge, curbs Mtb dissemination to the contralateral lung, and, in a small

percentage of mice, prevents detectable infection. These findings are consistent with the ability

of human BCG vaccination to mediate protection, particularly against disseminated disease, in

specific human populations and clinical settings. Overall, our findings demonstrate that the ultra-

low dose Mtb infection model can measure distinct parameters of immune protection that cannot

be assessed in conventional dose murine infection models and could provide an improved

platform for TB vaccine testing.

INTRODUCTION

New and effective tuberculosis (TB) vaccines are urgently needed. Although BCG vaccination can provide protection in infants and older children in some clinical settings[1-4], it has proven to be inadequate to combat the global pandemic. There are numerous TB vaccine candidates in the developmental pipeline[5], but it will not be feasible to conduct human efficacy trials for most of them. The standard for assessing vaccine efficacy is prevention of disease, which occurs in only a small percentage of infected individuals, resulting in dauting sample sizes and costs needed to complete human trials. Unfortunately, identifying promising vaccine candidates to prioritize for human efficacy trials has been hindered by the lack of reliable animal models that adequately predict human TB vaccine efficacy[6,7].

Historically, mice have been the most commonly used model for testing TB vaccine candidates due to their ease of use, cost-effectiveness, and the relative conservation of the mammalian immune system. However, limitations in the current mouse model, in which mice are infected with ~50-100 CFU by aerosol, have shaken confidence regarding how well findings in mice can be translated to humans[6,7]. There is minimal variability in the performance of different vaccines in the current model. Most TB vaccines confer ~1 log of protection, reducing the lung burden from ~10^6 to ~10^5 CFU, but only if assessed 4-6 weeks after aerosol challenge. This protection is transient and usually dissipates by 3-4 months post-infection (p.i.)[8,9]. Furthermore, it is unclear if the vaccine-induced mechanisms that enable mice to transiently reduce their bacterial burdens in the setting of an ultimately unsuccessful immune response are relevant to the types of immunity required for long lasting protection against the clinical manifestations of human TB. Because mice in this model are unable to eradicate, or even durably control Mtb, some have suggested that mice may lack the fundamental immune effector molecules needed for Mtb control[10]. The failure of mouse vaccine testing to reliably predict results in human TB vaccine

trials have reinforced these concerns about the relevance of the mouse model for TB vaccine

testing[6,7].

Recently we developed a physiologic ultra-low dose (ULD) (i.e., 1-3 CFUs) Mtb mouse infection

model that more closely resembles several aspects of human Mtb infection[11]. Here we test the

ability of the ULD challenge model to assess immunity conferred by BCG vaccination, the

vaccine for which the most human efficacy data exists. In contrast to the conventional dose

model, we show that BCG-vaccinated mice challenged with 1-3 Mtb CFU exhibit a more durable

reduction in lung bacterial burdens. Vaccinated mice had an increased ability to contain

infection to a single lung and prevent Mtb dissemination to the contralateral lung. Finally,

vaccinated mice exhibited a significantly higher proportion of animals with no detectable

infection. Thus, the ULD model provides a promising platform for TB vaccine testing, as it

affords the opportunity to measure distinct parameters of vaccine-mediated immunity that

cannot be assessed in the current mouse model.

RESULTS

BCG-mediated reduction of lung bacterial burdens is transient in the current mouse

model.

The capacity of BCG to mediate protection in C57BL/6 (B6) mice infected with 50-100 Mtb CFU

has been assessed by many labs, but we sought to repeat this experiment in our own hands to

directly compare the conventional dose with the ULD model. We subcutaneously immunized B6

mice with 10^6 BCG-Pasteur 8 weeks prior to aerosol challenge with H37Rv Mtb and determined

the lung bacterial burdens at days 42 and 120 post-infection. As previously shown[8,9], BCG

immunization provided about one log of protection against lung bacterial burden at day 42, but

this protection was transient and dissipated at later timepoints; there was no significant

difference in bacterial burdens between unimmunized and BCG-immunized mice at day 120

post-infection (**Figure 1**).

Measuring vaccine-mediated immunity in the ULD Mtb model.

Next, we assessed the efficacy of BCG in the ULD aerosol Mtb challenge model, a model in

which the aerosolized dose is reduced with a goal of infecting only ~60-80% of the mice in the

infection chamber[11]. As previously described using an ULD infection of a pool of bar-coded Mtb

strains, the number founding strains detected using bar-codes after ULD infection approximates

a Poisson distribution; most mice are infected with a single founding Mtb strain, whereas fewer

are infected with two or three founding strains[11]. **Figure 2** depicts a BCG immunization

experiment in which we assessed the bacterial burdens in the right and left lungs separately and

in the spleen 9 weeks after aerosol ULD challenge. Amongst those mice with detectable

infection (>0 CFU), we observed that, compared to unimmunized mice, BCG-immunized mice

had lower overall lung bacterial burdens (pooling right and left lungs) (**Figure 2A**), and lower

spleen bacterial burdens (**Figure 2B**). We also observed that 7/20 of the unimmunized mice and

10/20 of the BCG-immunized mice had no detectable infection in either lung (**Figure 2A**), a

difference that was not statistically significant in this single experiment (p=0.53). While the same

seven mice with undetectable lung bacterial burdens also had no detectable splenic bacterial

burdens, two mice that did have detectable lung infection in the BCG-immunized group failed to

show evidence of splenic bacterial burdens (12/20 BCG-immunized mice had no recoverable

Mtb from their spleen, compared to 10/20 from the lungs). Thus, BCG immunization may

prevent Mtb dissemination to the spleen or promote splenic Mtb clearance.

To further assess the capacity of BCG immunization to restrict Mtb dissemination, we also

assessed bacterial burdens separately in the right and left lungs. In the ULD model, since

infection is usually established by a single founding Mtb strain, the lungs are often infected

unilaterally; most commonly, the right lung is infected because the right lung and bronchus are

larger than the left [11]. Our previous ULD studies using bar-coded Mtb strains showed that

bilateral lung infection usually represents the dissemination of a single Mtb strain from the

infection-seeded lung to the contralateral lung. In the experiment shown in **Figure 2**, we

observed that 5/10 of the BCG-immunized mice exhibited unilateral lung infection compared to

only 1/13 of the infected unimmunized mice (p= 0.023; **Figure 2C and D**). Of the two BCG-

immunized mice with pulmonary Mtb infection but no detectable splenic bacterial burdens, one

was infected in the right lung only while the other had bilateral lung infection (**Figure 2D**). Thus,

the ULD model has the capacity to assess a vaccine's ability to prevent dissemination, a

parameter of protection that cannot be assessed in conventional dose infections because

dissemination occurs in all mice regardless of vaccination status.

BCG confers durable reductions in lung bacterial burdens in ULD-challenged mice.

As previously shown[8,9], and as demonstrated in **Figure 1**, BCG-mediated reductions in lung

bacterial burdens are abrogated by 100-120 days post-challenge. To assess the durability of

BCG-mediated protection in the ULD model, we performed a time course and assessed

bacterial burdens in the lungs and spleen of ULD-infected mice at an early (d14), intermediate

(d42), and late timepoint (d115). Because ULD challenge results in some mice with no

detectable lung bacteria, even in the absence of immunization, we assessed bacterial burdens

only in mice with detectable bacterial burdens and performed a separate analysis to determine

the proportion of mice with undetectable bacteria (the latter is shown in **Figure 5**). At day 14

post ULD-infection, bacterial burdens were similar in both unimmunized and BCG-immunized

infected mice, but at days 42 and 115, bacterial burdens were reduced by approximately one

log (p=0.002 and p<0.001, respectively, excluding those with 0 CFU; **Figure 3A**). These data

suggest that BCG-mediated reductions of lung bacterial burdens are more durable in ULD-

infected mice compared to conventional dose-infected mice, but the intentional heterogeneous

nature of the model makes it difficult to draw conclusions based on a single experiment.

Next, we performed multiple ULD challenge experiments comparing BCG immunized vs.

unimmunized mice to rigorously assess the reproducibility of our findings. **Supplemental Table**

1 shows results from 31 individual experiments assessing BCG efficacy in the ULD model,

representing a total of 537 unimmunized and 543 BCG-immunized mice with lung bacterial

burdens assessed at timepoints ranging from days 14-125 post-infection. **Figure 3B** shows the

combined (right and left lungs pooled) bacterial burdens from all experiments binned by similar

timepoints post-infection. Similar to prior reports using a conventional dose Mtb challenge[12,13],

BCG had no effect on bacterial burdens at the earliest timepoints assessed, days 14-15 post-

infection. However, BCG-immunized mice had lower lung bacterial burdens than unimmunized

mice at every later timepoint (<u>excluding those with 0 CFU</u>). This reduction remained robust (~1

log) even at days 90-125 post-infection. Thus, unlike the transient reduction of bacterial burdens

observed in the conventional dose Mtb challenge model[8,9], BCG durably reduces the lung

bacterial burdens in ULD-challenged mice for at least 4 months post-infection.

BCG prevents Mtb dissemination to the contralateral lung.

To better assess the reproducibility of BCG's capacity to prevent dissemination, we assessed

the proportion of mice with bilateral vs. unilateral lung infection in all experiments shown in

Supplemental Table I. Based on raw CFU data, there was no difference in the proportion of

mice with bilateral lung infection between unimmunized vs. BCG-immunized groups at days 14-

15 post-infection. At this early timepoint, the proportion of mice with bilateral lung infection was

low even in unimmunized mice, suggesting that dissemination had not yet occurred in either

group. This conclusion is supported by the observation that <20% of ULD-infected mice had

detectable splenic Mtb burdens at d14 post-infection (data not shown). At all later timepoints,

however, the proportion of mice with bilateral lung infection was higher in unimmunized

compared to BCG-immunized mice even out to days 90-125 post-infection (**Figure 4A**).

Although bilateral lung infection in the ULD model usually reflects Mtb dissemination from the

initially infected lung to the contralateral lung, it can sometimes represent separate aerosolized

infections by distinct bacilli in each individual lung. To assess true dissemination more

accurately, we ULD-infected mice with a pool of 50 bar-coded H37Rv Mtb strains that we have

previously characterized[11]. Amplified genomic DNA extracted from bacterial colonies of each

infected mouse lung were sequenced to determine the number of unique founding Mtb strains in

each lung (**Figure 4B**). Because the probability of separate infections with the same bar-coded

strain is only ~1 in 78 when using the 50 bar-coded Mtb pool in the ULD model[11], bilateral lung

infection with a single Mtb strain in both lungs likely represents true dissemination (e.g. BCG

36L and 36R). In contrast, when mice have different Mtb strains in each lung (e.g. BCG 28L and

28R), this reflects separate infections of each lung. Thus, if dissemination to the contralateral

lung is assessed by bacterial burden alone without assessing Mtb bar-codes, the ability of a

vaccine to prevent dissemination will be underestimated due to falsely categorizing separate

infections in each lung as dissemination events. In this experiment, BCG was deemed to have

50.2% efficacy (p = 0.002; **Figure 4C**) in preventing dissemination when measured as the

proportion of mice with bilateral Mtb infection. However, if dissemination was defined as the

proportion of mice that possessed at least one identical bar-coded Mtb strain in both lungs, then

BCG exhibited an efficacy of 73.5% (p = 0.001, **Figure 4D**). Compiling data from all

experiments in which we performed bar-coded infection and sequencing (n=5) revealed that

BCG exhibited 79.7% efficacy in preventing dissemination of Mtb to the contralateral lung (p <

0.001; **Figure 4E**).

BCG immunization can prevent detectable infection.

Finally, we compared the proportion of unimmunized and BCG-immunized mice that presented

with undetectable pulmonary infection. Pooling the data from all experiments assessed at D14-

15 after Mtb challenge (n=6), we observed no difference in the proportion of mice with

undetectable bacterial burdens in the BCG-immunized vs. unimmunized groups (**Figure 5A**).

However, at all later timepoints through day 125 post-infection, we observed more mice with

undetectable bacterial burdens in BCG-immunized mice than in unimmunized mice. Excluding

the six experiments assessed at D14-15 when no difference was seen, we plotted the remaining

25 experiments at timepoints from D26-125 as the proportion of mice with undetectable

bacterial burdens in the unimmunized vs. BCG-immunized group (**Figure 5B**). Although only

three experiments (15-20 mice/group/experiment) reached statistical significance on their own

(all in the BCG-immunized group), most experiments (18 of 25) had a higher proportion of mice

with undetectable bacterial burdens in the BCG-immunized group. When the compiled data from

all 25 of these experiments were assessed (**Figure 5B**, black filled circle), the difference in the

proportion of mice with undetectable bacterial burdens in the BCG-immunized compared to the

unimmunized group was relatively modest (13% efficacy in preventing detectable infection), but

highly statistically significant (p = 0.001).

We also examined the number of founding strains in each mouse for all ULD experiments using

the pool of bar-coded strains (9 experiments with unimmunized mice and 6 with BCG-

immunized) (**Figure 5C**). As expected from the Poisson distribution, most unimmunized mice

were infected with only one strain, and fewer mice were infected with two or more strains. There

were similar proportions of unimmunized and BCG-immunized mice infected with two or more

Mtb strains. However, fewer BCG-immunized mice were infected with one founding Mtb strain

(36.9% of unimmunized mice versus 22.9% of BCG-immunized mice, p = 0.011), whereas more

BCG-immunized mice had zero Mtb strains (33.0% of unimmunized mice versus 48.3% of BCG-

immunized mice, p = 0.008). This suggests that infection attributable to a single founding Mtb

strain may be more readily prevented by BCG-mediated immunity than infection due to two or

more strains, but further investigation is needed to test this possibility more rigorously.

The demonstration that vaccine-induced immunity can prevent detectable Mtb infection in ULD-

infected mice opens the possibility of assessing a new and important immune parameter for TB

vaccine testing that was not known to be achievable in mice. However, BCG had a very low

capacity to mediate this type of protection (13% efficacy, p = 0.001); large numbers of mice

were required to reach statistical significance, which would not be practical for routine testing of

TB vaccine candidates. Because the overarching goal is to identify vaccines that are more

efficacious than BCG, we performed a power calculation to determine what level of vaccine

efficacy would be required to feasibly measure prevention of infection with a reasonable number

of mice (**Table 1**). This analysis showed that a vaccine with 50-60% efficacy could be assessed

with a sample size of 28-55 mice per group, which would be achievable by pooling results from

2-3 experiments. Such a pipeline could be feasible, as Vidal et al. recently reported that a novel

live attenuated Mtb vaccine was dramatically more effective than BCG in the ULD challenge

model, and prevention of detectable infection could be measured in a statistically significant

manner with only 18 mice per group[25]. Taken together with our findings, these results suggest

that the ULD challenge model provides a larger window to measure differences between TB

vaccine candidates and to measure parameters of protection, including inhibition of

dissemination and prevention of detectable infection, that cannot be assessed in currently used

mouse models.

DISCUSSION

Despite widespread vaccination with BCG, TB remains a major cause of global morbidity and

mortality[14]. Although surpassed for a couple years by SARS-CoV-2 as the leading cause of

death due to a single infectious organism, recent mortality estimates for each infection suggest

that TB is again the number one cause of infectious death[14]. New vaccines that provide better

efficacy than BCG are needed. To triage the growing number of TB vaccine candidates and

move those with the most promise into clinical trials, there is an urgent need to develop small

animal models that reliably assess parameters of immunity with relevance to human protection.

There is growing concern that the current mouse model, in which mice are infected with 50-100

Mtb CFU by aerosolization, is not up to this task[6,7]. This model provides too small a window to

discern differences between vaccine candidates; most confer a transient reduction in the lung

bacterial burden by about one log if measured between 4-6 weeks post-infection. Durable

reductions in lung bacterial burdens and other clinically relevant parameters of immunity,

including the ability to curb Mtb dissemination or prevent detectable infection, are difficult or

impossible to assess. Indeed, the inability of the current model to predict how well vaccine

candidates will perform in human efficacy trials is becoming increasingly apparent[6,7]. In this

study, we demonstrate that the ULD murine model provides a promising new challenge model in

which three distinct parameters of protection can be assessed: 1) reductions in lung bacterial

burdens that are more durable than after conventional dose challenge, 2) inhibition of Mtb

dissemination, and 3) prevention of detectable infection.

Of these, reduction in bacterial burdens is the only parameter of protection that can readily be

assessed in current mouse models. In contrast to transient protection that dissipates within 3-4

months in the current model[8,9], we have shown durable lung bacterial burden reductions for at

least four months in the ULD model. Importantly, the types of immune responses that mediate

reductions in lung bacterial burdens in mice infected with high doses (>250 CFUs) are

sometimes different than those that do so at conventional doses (50–100 CFU)[15,16]. Although

this has not yet been rigorously assessed in the ULD model, it is reasonable to hypothesize that

the optimal immune responses that are optimal for reducing lung bacterial burdens after a

physiologic dose challenge of 1-3 CFU may also be different than those required for a 50-100

CFU challenge. Thus, vaccine candidates may vary in their capacity to control bacterial burdens

to a physiologically relevant challenge dose compared to a challenge dose that is artificially

high, a hypothesis that needs further investigation.

The second parameter of immunity that can be measured in the ULD model is the ability to

prevent dissemination. Because most ULD-infected mice are infected by a single founding

bacillus[11], infection is usually initiated at a single site in one lung. Thus, most bilateral lung

infection is the result of Mtb dissemination from the initially infected lung to the contralateral lung

and CFU determinations of each individual lung can provide an estimation of a vaccine's ability

to block dissemination, which we have termed containment. This approach underestimates

containment, however, because some mice may have Mtb in each lung not because of

dissemination, but due to independent infection events of each lung by two or more distinct

aerosolized strains. By infecting mice with a pool of bar-coded strains, we have shown that we

can distinguish between disseminated infection and separate infections with different strains by

sequencing the Mtb bar-codes in each lung. Using this approach, we have shown that BCG

immunization can prevent Mtb dissemination to the contralateral lung in ~80% of ULD-infected

mice. These results in the murine ULD model parallel results in BCG vaccinated humans

showing that BCG vaccination is most effective at preventing disseminated forms of TB[17].

The third parameter of immunity that can be assessed in the ULD model is the prevention of

detectable infection. There are several lines of evidence that the human immune system can

prevent or eradicate Mtb infection. Some individuals with high exposure to index cases with

active TB disease, including household contacts, fail to develop an Mtb-specific IFNγ-producing

T cell response, suggesting that long-term Mtb infection is sometimes not established despite

intense exposure[18]. Furthermore, many individuals that do develop a T cell IFNγ response

against Mtb may eventually eradicate infection, as the incidence of active TB is quite low

amongst IGRA+ individuals (usually less than 5%) even when their immune systems are

potently immunosuppressed or ablated[19]. Recently there have been several high-profile TB

vaccine studies showing that some vaccines can prevent detectable infection in non-human

primates[20-22]. This had not been previously shown in mice, and it has been postulated that mice

lack the fundamental immune effectors needed to prevent sustained Mtb infection[10]. In this

study we showed no difference in the proportion of BCG-immunized mice with detectable

infection compared to controls at d14-15 after Mtb challenge, suggesting that vaccination did not

block the initial Mtb infection. At all later timepoints, however, BCG vaccinated animals had a

modest, but highly statistically significant increase in the proportion of mice with undetectable

infection compared to unimmunized controls (overall 13% efficacy, p=0.001). This suggests that

a small proportion of the vaccinated mice that may have been initially infected were able to clear

Mtb to undetectable levels. Even though BCG can do this only modestly, these results suggest

that vaccine-mediated immunity can prevent sustained infection in mice exposed to a

physiologic Mtb dose, challenging the longstanding belief stemming from experiments with an

artificially high Mtb exposure dose, that mice are unable to eradicate Mtb infection.

One limitation of the ULD model for vaccine testing is the number of animals that are required in

each group. This is exacerbated by the fact that not all animals are initially infected in the model,

and currently it is not possible to discern animals that were never infected from those that were

initially infected, but subsequently eradicated Mtb. We have attempted to develop both

immunologic and molecular assays to distinguish between these possible outcomes, but this

has proven difficult to achieve. We initially assessed Mtb-specific CD4 T cell responses against

an Mtb antigen (ESAT-6) that is not present in BCG. We identified a couple unvaccinated mice

that were exposed to aerosolized ULD Mtb and had measurable Mtb ESAT-6-specific CD4 T

cell responses despite having no detectable lung bacterial burdens. These results suggested

that even a few unvaccinated ULD-infected mice may clear Mtb to undetectable levels, but mice

exhibiting this phenotype were rare. However, this approach was not successful in BCG-

immunized mice because BCG immunization suppressed the development of Mtb ESAT-6-

specific T cells to undetectable or almost undetectable levels even in ULD Mtb-challenged mice

that were demonstrably infected, providing minimal window to discern differences between

uninfected and infected mice. We also attempted to amplify Mtb DNA from lung homogenate

using previously published Mtb-specific PCR primers[23]. Unfortunately, the sensitivity of this

assay was not sufficient to reliably detect below 1,000 viable bacteria, and we were unable to

obtain a signal from mice with undetectable bacterial burdens. Despite our inability to

differentiate mice that were never infected from those who cleared infection, we were able to

build strong statistical evidence for prevention of detectable infection by assessing large

numbers of mice.

Our results are consistent with findings that BCG can sometimes provide long-term protection

against human TB, and are consistent with studies showing BCG-mediated protection in

individuals without prior Mtb exposure (tuberculin skin test-negative or IGRA-negative

individuals) or in low Mtb transmission settings[1-4]. The low overall observed efficacy (~13%) in

preventing detectable infection also reflects the suboptimal nature of BCG-mediated immunity.

Reliably assessing this parameter of protection for a vaccine with such low efficacy would

require hundreds of mice per group, as in this study, which would not be feasible for routine pre-

clinical evaluation of TB vaccine candidates. However, the goal is to identify promising vaccine

candidates that are significantly more efficacious than BCG to move into human trials. Our

power analysis showed that a vaccine with 50% efficacy could be readily assessed by repeating

studies with 15-20 mice per group 2-3 times and compiling the results. We believe this is

feasible and would be worthwhile if further studies show that results obtained in the ULD model

are superior to those obtained in the conventional murine model for distinguishing vaccine

efficacies in clinical meaningful ways. We are encouraged that a recent study assessing a novel

TB vaccine candidate (ΔLprG, a live-attenuated Mtb vaccine) in the ULD mouse model showed

that ΔLprG was dramatically better than BCG at preventing detectable infection and achieved

statistical significance with only 18 mice per group[25]. In this same study, ΔLprG was only slightly

better than BCG in reducing lung bacterial burdens in mice challenged with 100 CFU,

suggesting that the ULD challenge model provides a larger window to discriminate differences

between vaccines.

Overall, the ULD challenge model holds promise as a new and improved platform for evaluating

TB vaccine candidates. The model can assess distinct parameters of vaccine-mediated

immunity that cannot be assessed in the current mouse model and has potential to improve

discrimination between the protective capacities of different vaccines. Each of the three

parameters of immunity that can be assessed in the ULD model may be relevant to different

clinical TB outcomes. For example, the ability of vaccines to durably reduce lung bacterial

burdens and prevent dissemination may reflect their capacity to prevent different aspects of TB

disease, whereas the ability to prevent detectable infection may reflect prevention of sustained

infection. Because each of these parameters are likely mediated by different aspects of

immunity, it is possible that different vaccines will differ in the relative capacity to control Mtb

burdens, inhibit dissemination, and prevent detectable infection. Future studies are needed to

assess a variety of TB vaccine candidates in the ULD model, and whenever possible, determine

whether the results correlate with clinical outcomes in human vaccine trials.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. BCG-mediated reductions in Mtb lung burdens are not durable in a

conventional-dose infection. C57BL/6 (B6) mice were aerosol infected with a conventional

dose (CD) (50-100 CFU) of H37Rv Mtb eight weeks following either subcutaneous (s.c.)

immunization with 10^6 BCG-Pasteur (BCG) or no immunization (unimmunized). On day 42 or

120 post-infection, CFU were enumerated from lung homogenates plated onto 7H10 plates.

These data represent 5 mice per group and are shown as mean ± SEM. Single-group

comparisons were analyzed using an unpaired t test. ***p<0.001.

Figure 2. Assessing BCG efficacy in the ultra-low dose Mtb model. B6 mice were aerosol

infected with an ULD (1-3 CFU) of H37Rv Mtb 8 weeks following either s.c. immunization with

10^6 BCG-Pasteur (n=20) or no immunization (n=20). On day 63 post-infection, CFU were

enumerated from left lung, right lung, or spleen homogenates plated onto 7H10 plates. **A)**

Combined lung CFUs or **B)** spleen CFUs from unimmunized and BCG-immunized mice are

graphed. Counts from left lungs, right lungs and spleen are graphed separately from, **C)**

unimmunized mice or **D)** BCG-immunized mice. There were 20 mice per group, and the data

are graphed as mean ± SD. Single-group comparisons were analyzed using an unpaired t test

<u>and excluding mice with 0 CFU</u>. **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 3. BCG-mediated reductions in Mtb lung burden are <u>more</u> durable in the ULD

model. A) Combined lung CFU from a single experiment time course of ULD-infected B6 mice

with or without BCG immunization. Combined lung CFU were enumerated on days 14, 42, and

115 post-infection. There were 19 or 20 mice per group, and the data are graphed as mean ±

SD. Single-group comparisons were analyzed using an unpaired t test (<u>excluding mice with 0</u>

<u>CFU</u>). ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. **B)** Combined lung CFU from a compilation of 31 experiments,

<u>excluding mice with 0 CFU</u>, separated by timepoint post-infection of ULD-infected B6 mice with

or without BCG immunization. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals in a fixed effects

negative regression model. All timepoints except days 14-15 post-infection have a p < 0.001.

Figure 4. BCG-immunization prevents Mtb dissemination to the contralateral lung. A)

Proportion of mice with bilateral lung infection (CFU in left and right lung) from a compilation of

31 experiments separated by timepoint post-infection of ULD-infected B6 mice with or without

BCG immunization. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals in a mixed effects logistic

regression model, with experiment as a grouping variable. All timepoints except days 14-15

post-infection have a p $\leq$ 0.001. **B)** A single ULD experiment using bar-coded Mtb strains is

shown. On day 65 post-infection, right and left lung homogenates were plated onto 7H10 plates

and Mtb colonies from infected lungs were scraped to make genomic DNA. DNA was

sequenced, and the identity of each bar-coded Mtb strain is graphed for each lung separately.

The percentage of bilateral infection for unimmunized and BCG-immunized mice from this

experiment was calculated by the proportion of mice with CFUs in both lungs **(C)** or the

proportion of mice with at least one common Mtb strain in both lungs **(D)**. **(E)** The percentage of

mice with bilateral Mtb strains was compiled from 5 independent experiments, excluding day 14

post-infection. Vaccine efficacy for preventing dissemination to the contralateral lung was

calculated as 1-(% BCG mice with bilateral infection)/(% Unimmunized mice with bilateral

infection).

Figure 5. BCG immunization prevents detectable infection in some mice. A) Table of all

mice, showing the percentage with 0 CFU in the unimmunized vs BCG-immunized groups

separated by timepoint post-infection. **B)** The proportion of unimmunized mice with 0 CFU (x-

axis) vs the proportion of BCG-immunized mice with 0 CFU (y-axis) for each experiment from a

compilation of 25 experiments (days 26-125) separated by timepoint post-ULD infection. Each

colored symbol is an independent experiment, and the larger black circle is the compilation of all

the data, which was statistically significant (mixed effects logistic regression p = 0.001). Post-

hoc analyses indicated that, if each infection cohort had been analyzed separately, the 3 filled in

symbols would have attained statistical significance if they had been analyzed using the same

regression model (p<0.05), see supplemental Figure 1. **C)** In ULD-Mtb experiments in which

bar-coded strains were used for infection (n=9 for unimmunized, n=6 for BCG-immunized), the

mice are graphed according to the number of unique Mtb strains recovered from each mouse's

lungs.

Table 1. Group sizes needed to assess vaccine-mediated prevention of detectable

infection. Minimum sample size required per group for specified power to detect a given

vaccine efficacy (prevalence in unimmunized mice assumed to be 61.6%).

METHODS

Mice

C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME). Female mice

between the ages of 9-12 weeks were used. All animals were housed and maintained in

specific-pathogen-free conditions at Seattle Children's Research Institute (SCRI). All animal

studies were performed in compliance with the SCRI Animal Care and Use Committee.

BCG Immunizations

BCG-Pasteur was cultured in Middlebrook 7H9 with OADC supplement and 0.05% Tween-80 at

37˚C with constant agitation for five days. BCG was back diluted in 7H9 for two days and grown

to an OD of 0.2-0.5. Bacteria was diluted in PBS and mice were injected subcutaneously with

200µl of 10^6 CFU. After immunization, mice were rested for 8 weeks prior to Mtb infection.

ULD Mtb Aerosol Infections

H37Rv or bar-coded H37Rv Mtb were used for infections[11]. Mtb stocks were grown in

Middlebrook 7H9 with OADC supplement and 0.05% Tween-80 at 37˚C with constant agitation

to an OD = 1. Cultures were filtered through a 5µm filter to remove clumps and aliquots were

frozen at -80˚C. Frozen filtered stocks were thawed and titered side by side with stocks used for

conventional dose infection to determine how to dilute the ULD stocks with the goal of leaving

37% of mice uninfected. Mice were infected using a Glas-Col aerosol infection chamber.

CFU Plating

Mouse organs (right lung, left lung, or spleen) were homogenized separately in M tubes

containing 1mL PBS+0.05% Tween-80 (PBS-T) using a Miltenyi GentleMACS machine

(Miltenyi). Homogenates were then diluted in PBS-T and plated onto 7H10 plates. For ULD

infections, undiluted homogenate was also plated between two 7H10 plates. Plates were

incubated at 37˚C for at least 21 days before quantification of CFU.

Genomic DNA Extraction

Bacterial colonies grown from infected left lungs or right lungs were scraped into resuspension

buffer (25mM Tris-HCl pH 7.9, 10mM EDTA, 50mM glucose, water) plus 10mg/mL lysozyme

and were incubated at 37˚C overnight. Samples were resuspended in 10% sodium dodecyl

sulfate and 10mg/mL Proteinase K and were heated at 55˚C for 30 minutes. Samples were then

resuspended in 5M NaCl followed by Cetrimide saline solution and heated at 65˚C for 10

minutes. Genomic DNA was extracted twice with 24:1 chloroform:isoamyl alcohol. DNA was

precipitated with 0.7x volume of isopropanol and washed with 70% ethanol. Finally, DNA was

eluted with DEPC water.

Barcoded Sequencing

Mice were infected with a pool of 50 bar-coded strains. Sequencing of bacterial bar-codes has

been previously described[11,24]. Briefly, genomic DNA was pre-amplified with pooled barcoded

primers before libraries were prepared with NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina

(New England Biolabs) using the AMPure XP reagent (AgenCourt Bioscience) for size selection

and cleanup. The NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (New England Biosciences) were used

to barcode DNA libraries and enabled multiplexing of 96 libraries per sequencing run. Samples

were sequenced using the NextSeq 500 Mid Output v2 kit (Illumina) at the University of

Washington Northwest Genomics Center. Read alignment was carried out using a custom

processing pipeline that has been previously described[24].

Statistics

All statistical analysis was done in R v.4.2.0 with packages Exact (v3.1) and lme4 (v1.1-30).

When comparing values between two groups in a single experiment, we used Barnard's exact

test for differences in proportions and simple linear regression on log-transformed CFU values

for differences in bacterial burden (excluding those with 0 CFU). For analyses compiling more

than one experiment, we used mixed effects logistic regression with experiment as the grouping

variable for differences in proportions, and mixed effects linear regression on log-transformed

CFU values for differences in bacterial burden. In all analyses, mice were considered protected

when the CFU was undetectable in both lungs, and analyses of dissemination and overall

bacterial burden were performed conditional on absence of protection.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

	# mice with undetectable CFU (Unimmunized)	# mice with undetectable CFU (BCG)
All timepoints w/o D14-15	154/440 (35.0%)	191/443 (43.1%)
14-15 dpi	41/97 (42%)	41/100 (41%)
26-36 dpi	34/118 (29%)	40/116 (35%)
42-65 dpi	54/164 (33%)	65/162 (40%)
90-125 dpi	66/158 (42%)	86/165 (52%)

B

C

Figure 5

Prevalence	Vaccine efficacy	Min. sample size per group	
		80% Power	90% Power
61.6%	20%	259	342
61.6%	30%	112	155
61.6%	40%	66	84
61.6%	50%	40	55
61.6%	60%	28	37
61.6%	70%	21	25
61.6%	80%	16	18
61.6%	90%	12	16

Table 1