

# 1 Superior antibody immunogenicity of a RH5 blood-stage malaria vaccine in 2 Tanzanian infants as compared to adults

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27 **Abstract**

28 **Background**

29 RH5 is the leading blood-stage candidate antigen for inclusion in a *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria  
30 vaccine, however, its safety profile and ability to induce functional immune responses in a malaria-  
31 endemic population are unknown. Characterising safety and immunogenicity is key to refine and progress  
32 next-generation RH5-based blood-stage malaria vaccines to field efficacy assessment.

33 **Methods**

34 A Phase 1b, single-center, dose-escalation, age de-escalation, double-blind, randomized, controlled trial  
35 was conducted in Bagamoyo, Tanzania. Healthy adults (18-35 years), young children (1-6 years) and  
36 infants (6-11 months) were recruited to receive a priming dose of viral-vectored ChAd63 RH5 (or rabies  
37 control vaccine) followed by a booster dose of MVA RH5 (or rabies control vaccine) 8 weeks later. The  
38 primary outcomes were the number of solicited and unsolicited adverse events following vaccination and  
39 the number of serious adverse events over the whole study period. Secondary outcomes included  
40 quantitative and qualitative measures of the anti-RH5 immune response. All participants receiving at least  
41 one dose of vaccine were included in the primary analyses.

42 **Findings**

43 Between 12<sup>th</sup> April and 25<sup>th</sup> October 2018 a total of 63 adults, children and infants were recruited and  
44 primed and 60 of these were boosted, all completing six months of follow-up post-priming vaccination.  
45 Vaccinations were well-tolerated with participants reporting predominantly mild reactogenicity, with  
46 profiles comparable between ChAd63 RH5, MVA RH5 and rabies vaccine groups, and across the age  
47 groups. No serious adverse events were reported during the study period. RH5-specific T cell, B cell and  
48 serum antibody responses were induced by vaccination. Higher anti-RH5 serum IgG responses were  
49 observed post-boost in the 1-6 year old children (median 93 µg/mL; range: 31-508 µg/mL) and infants  
50 (median 149 µg/mL; range: 29-352 µg/mL) as compared to adults (median 14 µg/mL; range: 9-15  
51 µg/mL). These contracted over time post-boost, but the same hierarchy of responses across the age groups

52 was maintained to end of follow-up at 16 weeks post-boost (day 168). Vaccine-induced anti-RH5  
53 antibodies were functional showing growth inhibition activity (GIA) *in vitro* against *P. falciparum* blood-  
54 stage parasites. The highest levels were observed in the 6-11 month old infants, with 6/11 showing >60%  
55 GIA following dilution of total IgG to 2.5 mg/mL (median 61%; range: 41-78%).

56

### 57 **Interpretation**

58 The ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine regimen shows an acceptable safety and reactogenicity profile and  
59 encouraging immunogenicity in children and infants residing in a malaria-endemic area. The levels of  
60 functional GIA observed in the RH5 vaccinated 6-11 month old infants are the highest levels reported to-  
61 date following human vaccination. These data support onward clinical development of RH5-based blood-  
62 stage vaccines that aim to protect against clinical malaria in young African infants.

63

### 64 **Funding**

65 Medical Research Council, London, United Kingdom.

66

### 67 **Trial Registration**

68 ISRCTN registry: 47448832 and ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT03435874.

## 69 **Introduction**

70 Over the last two decades, expanded access to malaria prevention tools has led to a major reduction in the  
71 global burden of this disease, however, progress has stalled with current data showing that cases and  
72 deaths are now rising once again, likely magnified by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic <sup>1</sup>. Notably, over 80%  
73 of deaths occur in children under the age of 5 in sub-Saharan Africa and a highly effective vaccine  
74 remains urgently needed. Encouragingly, subunit vaccine strategies targeting the invasive sporozoite  
75 stage of *Plasmodium falciparum* are now showing moderate levels of efficacy in field trials <sup>2,3</sup>, however,  
76 durability of protection remains a key challenge. These vaccines also necessitate sterilizing immunity,  
77 with only a single break-through sporozoite leading to the subsequent pathogenic blood-stage of infection.  
78 An alternative and complementary approach is to vaccinate against the blood-stage merozoite to inhibit  
79 erythrocyte invasion, thus, leading to control and/or clearance of blood-stage parasitemia, minimizing  
80 morbidity and mortality and reducing transmission <sup>4</sup>. Indeed, combining a blood-stage vaccine component  
81 with existing anti-sporozoite vaccines is now widely regarded as the most promising strategy to achieve a  
82 high efficacy intervention.

83  
84 While a number of factors have long-stalled progress in the design of vaccines that can impact the blood-  
85 stage of the parasite's lifecycle <sup>4</sup>, the identification of an essential, highly conserved, antibody-  
86 susceptible, protein complex used by *P. falciparum* merozoites to invade erythrocytes has propelled the  
87 field over the last 10 years <sup>5</sup>. Vaccine development efforts are most advanced for one component of this  
88 invasion complex: reticulocyte-binding protein homolog 5 (**RH5**) <sup>6</sup>. This vaccine target binds basigin on  
89 the erythrocyte surface <sup>7</sup>, a receptor-ligand interaction that is critical for parasite invasion and its human  
90 host tropism <sup>8</sup>. Significant *in vivo* protection with RH5-based vaccines was first demonstrated against a  
91 stringent blood-stage *P. falciparum* challenge in an *Aotus* monkey model <sup>9</sup>. Here, protection was  
92 correlated with functional antibody activity measured using an *in vitro* assay of growth inhibition activity

93 (GIA); an immune mechanism subsequently validated by passive transfer of anti-RH5 monoclonal  
94 antibody <sup>10</sup>.

95  
96 This paved the way for the first RH5-based vaccine to enter Phase 1a clinical testing in healthy UK adults  
97 in 2014 (VAC057; ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT02181088). This vaccine utilized recombinant replication-  
98 deficient chimpanzee adenovirus serotype 63 (ChAd63) and the attenuated orthopoxvirus modified  
99 vaccinia virus Ankara (MVA), delivered in an 8-week prime-boost regimen, to enable *in situ* expression  
100 of RH5 by virally infected cells (ChAd63-MVA RH5). The vaccine was well-tolerated and induced  
101 functional human antibodies that exhibited cross-strain *in vitro* GIA <sup>11</sup>. However, although the levels of  
102 anti-RH5 serum immunoglobulin G (IgG) in the UK adult participants greatly exceeded the levels  
103 observed in African adults following years of natural malaria exposure, they fell below the protective  
104 immunological threshold predicted by the *Aotus* model. In parallel and in a series of other clinical trials,  
105 immunization with the same ChAd63-prime MVA-boost viral-vectored delivery platform recombinant for  
106 the liver-stage malaria antigen ME-TRAP, reported ten-fold higher antibody levels in West African  
107 infants as compared to UK adults and West African adults <sup>12</sup>. Given deployment trials of the WHO pre-  
108 qualified RTS,S/AS01 vaccine are focussed on infants starting from 5 months of age, and given that a ten-  
109 fold higher anti-RH5 IgG antibody response in African infants could potentially translate into protection  
110 against clinical malaria, we proceeded to further assess the ChAd63-MVA RH5 in this target population.

111  
112 We therefore conducted a single-center, dose-escalation, age de-escalation, double-blind, randomized,  
113 controlled Phase 1b trial to explore the tolerability, safety and immunogenicity of an RH5-based vaccine  
114 in a malaria-endemic area for the first time, to inform crucial decisions on progress to field efficacy  
115 studies and/or iterative vaccine refinement.

116 **Results**

117 **Study recruitment and vaccinations**

118 In total 125 participants were screened and 63 of these were enrolled into the VAC070 Phase 1b trial  
119 (**Figure 1**). Vaccinations began on 12<sup>th</sup> April 2018 and all follow-up visits were completed by 13<sup>th</sup>  
120 February 2019. Within each group, participants were randomized to receive the ChAd63-MVA RH5  
121 vaccine or rabies control vaccine in a ratio of 2:1. Participants and all investigatory staff (involved in  
122 evaluation of safety and immunogenicity endpoints) were blinded to vaccine allocation. All participants  
123 received their immunizations as scheduled and completed 6 months of follow-up post priming  
124 vaccination, apart from three individuals who withdrew from the study after the prime. Similar numbers  
125 of males and females were enrolled across the younger age groups (**Table S1**). Independent safety  
126 reviews were conducted by the Safety Monitoring Committee (SMC) between every age de-escalation  
127 and/or dose-escalation step in the protocol.

128  
129 All participants were recruited from the district of Bagamoyo, Tanzania. Malaria prevalence in the district  
130 ranges from 15.4% in the western part to at times as low as zero in Bagamoyo town; the population  
131 average prevalence was 13% in 2013<sup>13</sup>. The mean age of adult participants in Group 1 was 25.8 years  
132 (range 19.0 – 30.7 years), and they received the full dose of both vaccines via the intramuscular (IM)  
133 route:  $5 \times 10^{10}$  viral particles (vp) ChAd63 RH5 to prime on day 0 and  $2 \times 10^8$  plaque-forming units (pfu)  
134 MVA RH5 to boost on day 56. The mean age of children across Groups 2A and 2B was 3.6 years (range  
135 1.2 – 5.6 years), and infants across Groups 3A and 3B was 9.4 months (range 5.9 – 11.9 months). Those  
136 in Groups 2A and 3A received lower “lead-in” doses of vaccine:  $1 \times 10^{10}$  vp ChAd63 RH5 and  $1 \times 10^8$   
137 pfu MVA RH5, and those in Groups 2B and 3B received the full vaccine dose (all via the IM route).

138  
139 A total of sixty-three adults, children and infants were recruited and primed and sixty of these were  
140 boosted (three withdrew post-prime). Thirty-nine participants were primed with ChAd63 RH5 and

141 boosted with MVA RH5, twenty-one participants received two doses of rabies vaccine 8 weeks apart. All  
142 boosted participants completed six months of follow-up post-prime and analysis was by original assigned  
143 groups. All participants (RH5 and rabies vaccinated) were negative for malaria by blood film throughout  
144 the trial (tested at screening and monthly intervals post-vaccination). We also conducted retrospective  
145 analysis for malaria parasitemia by highly sensitive qPCR on blood samples taken from every participant  
146 at the day 0, day 63 and day 84 time-points. All samples tested negative, except for only one transient low  
147 level asymptomatic parasitemia of 450 parasites/mL blood in a single RH5 vaccinated Group 2B child at  
148 the day 63 time-point (7 days post-MVA RH5 boost).

149

## 150 **Outcomes and estimation**

### 151 **Reactogenicity and safety**

152 There were no serious adverse events (SAEs), AEs of special interest (AESIs) or unexpected reactions  
153 and no safety concerns during the course of the trial. The local and systemic reactogenicity profile of the  
154 full dose RH5 vaccines (**Figure 2**) was similar, if not reduced, as compared to that seen in healthy UK  
155 adults immunized with the identical vaccines<sup>11</sup>. Following the prime with ChAd63 RH5, the majority of  
156 participants across all age groups experienced local pain at the injection site and systemic fever (>37.5°C)  
157 (**Figure 2A-C**); all of these adverse events (AEs) were mild in severity, with similar profiles seen in those  
158 that received the rabies control vaccine (**Figure S1A-C**). A very similar pattern was observed following  
159 the boost with MVA RH5 (**Figure 2D-F**), with some of the older participants also experiencing Grade 1  
160 (mild) erythema, in contrast to the boost with the rabies vaccine where hardly any local or systemic AEs  
161 were observed (**Figure S1D-F**). Very similar AE profiles were observed in the Group 2A children and  
162 Group 3A infants who received the lower “lead-in” doses of the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine or the rabies  
163 control vaccine (**Figure S2**). The majority of solicited AEs occurred within the first two days after  
164 vaccination and the median duration of each local or systemic AE was between 1 and 2 days following  
165 either vaccine. Of the unsolicited AEs recorded within 28 days of vaccination, none were considered



166 related to any of the vaccines (**Table S2**). None were recorded in the adult group or following the  
167 ChAd63 RH5 prime. Those recorded following MVA RH5 or rabies vaccination were mostly mild in  
168 nature, with only a few graded moderate and none graded severe, and all resolved spontaneously. There  
169 were no Grade 3 unsolicited AEs. Viral upper respiratory tract infection (N=15) was the most common  
170 unsolicited AE among the infants 6-11 months of age with similar numbers observed in the MVA RH5  
171 vaccine and rabies vaccine groups.

172  
173 The most frequent laboratory abnormality identified in the 28-day post vaccination period was increased  
174 leukocytes, present in 9/42 vaccinees and 3/18 controls ( $P=0.74$ , 2-tailed Fisher's exact test). These  
175 included four Grade 3 occurrences in the 6-11 month old infants (all in the ChAd63-MVA RH5 group).  
176 These elevations were associated with concurrent infections and resolved with treatment of the infection  
177 (**Table S3**). Other commonly observed laboratory abnormalities included mild and moderate anemia, mild  
178 increases in alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels, mild decreases in leukocytes, and mild decreases in  
179 lymphocytes. The frequencies of these abnormalities did not differ between the vaccinees and controls  
180 ( $P=0.74$ ,  $P=0.65$ ,  $P=0.66$  and  $P>0.99$ , respectively; 2-tailed Fisher's exact test). Full blood count analyses  
181 at the end of trial follow-up were all normal.

182

### 183 **Immunogenicity**

#### 184 **IFN- $\gamma$ T cell responses induced by ChAd63 and MVA RH5 are higher in adult than in** 185 **children and infant participants**

186 The kinetics and magnitude of the RH5-specific T cell response were assessed over time by *ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$   
187 ELISPOT following re-stimulation of PBMC with 20mer peptides overlapping by 10 amino acids (aa)  
188 spanning the entire RH5 insert present in the vaccines (**Figure 3A,B, S3A-D, Table S4**). Following  
189 ChAd63 RH5 prime, comparable responses were detectable in the Tanzanian adults and children on day  
190 14 (median 271 [range 7 – 2723] and median 243 [range 60 – 1147] spot forming units (SFU) / million

191 PBMC, respectively). These were approximately 3-fold lower than the responses previously observed in  
192 UK adults who received the identical dose of vaccine <sup>11</sup>, but significantly higher than those seen in the  
193 Tanzanian infants (median 19 [range 0 – 745] SFU / million PBMC) who also mirrored the rabies vaccine  
194 control recipients (**Figure 3A**). Subsequently, administration of MVA RH5 boosted these responses in the  
195 Tanzanian adults, as measured four weeks later on day 84 with a median of 1159 [range 740 – 1935] SFU  
196 / million PBMC. These responses were now comparable to those previously seen post-boost in the UK  
197 adults <sup>11</sup>, but significantly higher than those in the Tanzanian children (where no appreciable boost in the  
198 T cell response was observed) and the Tanzanian infants where a modest boost reached a median level of  
199 125 [range 0 – 793] SFU / million PBMC (**Figure 3B**). As expected for T cell responses, these then  
200 contracted over time, but the same trend as day 84 was also observed 16 weeks post-boost at the end of  
201 study period (day 168), with responses in all three age groups maintained above baseline and above those  
202 observed in the rabies vaccine control recipients (**Figure S3D**). However, as expected, we also observed  
203 that peripheral lymphocyte counts decreased with age as measured by routine hematology tests at each  
204 time point (**Figure 3C**). Therefore, as reported in a previous pediatric study of a viral vectored malaria  
205 vaccine <sup>12</sup>, we also analyzed the data by incorporating the lymphocyte count into the calculation of T cell  
206 responses, to facilitate a more physiologically relevant comparison of cellular immunity across the  
207 different age groups. Here, only the 6-11 month old infants still showed a significantly lower response  
208 following the ChAd63 RH5 prime (**Figure S3E**), whilst there was no significant difference across the age  
209 groups after the MVA RH5 boost (**Figure 3D**) and the end of follow up (**Figure S3F**). Finally, we also  
210 assessed the responses at day 14 and day 84 in the Tanzanian children and infants receiving the lower  
211 “lead in” doses of ChAd63 and MVA RH5. Here, these T cell responses were also comparable to those  
212 induced by the full dose of each vaccine (**Figure S3G,H**).

213

214 **Anti-RH5 serum IgG and B cell responses induced by ChAd63 and MVA RH5 are higher**  
215 **in children and infants than in adults.**

216 We next measured the kinetics and magnitude of the anti-RH5 serum IgG antibody response over time by  
217 ELISA against full-length RH5 (RH5\_FL) recombinant protein (**Figure 4A,B, S4A-D**). Following  
218 ChAd63 RH5 prime, the magnitude of the antibody response showed a clear age-dependent hierarchy.  
219 Here, on day 14, the lowest responses were detected in the Tanzanian adults, with higher responses  
220 observed in the children 1-6 years of age, and the highest in the infants 6-11 months of age; median levels  
221 of serum anti-RH5 IgG were 0.2, 1.8 and 4.9  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively (in contrast to negligible median  
222 responses in all groups at baseline). Median responses in UK adults who previously received the identical  
223 dose of the ChAd63 RH5 vaccine <sup>11</sup> or in the rabies vaccine control recipients were also negligible at this  
224 time-point (**Figure 4A**). Subsequently, administration of MVA RH5 boosted these responses in all three  
225 age groups, but the same hierarchy was maintained as measured by ELISA one week later on day 63  
226 (**Figure 4B**). Median responses of serum anti-RH5 IgG in the Tanzanian adults were 14  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , now  
227 highly comparable to those previously observed in UK adults who received the identical dose of the viral  
228 vaccines <sup>11</sup>; whilst significantly higher responses were observed in the children (~6-fold, median of 93  
229  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) and infants (~10-fold, median of 149  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ). Antibody responses induced by the vaccines were  
230 also dose dependent; here, responses at day 14 and day 63 were significantly lower in the Tanzanian  
231 infants receiving the lower “lead in” doses of ChAd63 and MVA RH5 as compared to those receiving the  
232 full dose of each vaccine, with a similar trend observed in the children (**Figure S4E,F**). As expected for  
233 serum IgG responses, these contracted over time post-boost, but the same hierarchy of responses across  
234 the age groups was maintained out to 16 weeks post-boost at the end of study period (day 168) (**Figure**  
235 **S4A**).

236  
237 Having observed such high anti-RH5 serum IgG responses in children and infants, we hypothesized this  
238 could be due to anti-vector immunity that may increase with age and thereby negatively affect the priming

239 immunogenicity of adenovirus-vectored vaccines in adults. However, although the 6-11 month old  
240 Tanzanian infants did show the lowest anti-ChAd63 antibody responses at baseline (consistent with  
241 previous data on antibody responses to human adenovirus serotypes in this age group<sup>14</sup>), the children  
242 aged 1-6 years and adults in our study were comparable (**Figure 4C**). Consequently, there was no  
243 significant correlation between existing anti-ChAd63 antibody responses at baseline and the day14  
244 ChAd63 RH5 humoral immunogenicity (Spearman's  $r_s = -0.35$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ,  $N=30$ ). In line with this, we  
245 also measured the anti-rabies glycoprotein serum antibody responses in the control participants. Here we  
246 observed a similar age-dependent hierarchy, despite the small number of vaccinees, with responses in the  
247 children and infants on average ~4-5-fold higher than in adults after the first and second immunizations  
248 (**Figure 4D, S4G,H**).

249  
250 We therefore next measured the underlying B cell response. Previous studies have shown that antibody-  
251 secreting cells (ASC) can be detected in peripheral blood for a short time (around day 7) after MVA boost  
252 when using the ChAd63-MVA regimen<sup>11,15,16</sup>. RH5-specific ASC responses were assessed by *ex-vivo*  
253 ELISPOT using fresh PBMC collected at the day 63 visit for participants. ASC responses were detectable  
254 above baseline in all age groups vaccinated with ChAd63-MVA RH5, with the highest responses trending  
255 to be measured in the Group 3B infants with a median of 60 RH5-specific ASC per million PBMC  
256 (**Figure 5A**). We subsequently assessed RH5-specific B cell responses further by flow cytometry (**Figure**  
257 **5B, S5A**). As noted during the analysis of the T cell responses, clinical hematology data showed a clear  
258 age-dependent hierarchy in the lymphocyte counts per microliter of blood (**Figure S5B**). Within these  
259 total lymphocyte populations, flow cytometry analysis showed the % live B cells to be approximately 2.5-  
260 fold higher in the pediatric groups as compared to adults (**Figure S5C**). Combining these data showed  
261 that 6-11 month old infants have significantly more B cells per microliter of blood (approximately 5-fold  
262 on average) as compared to the adults 18-35 years of age, with children 1-6 years of age having  
263 intermediate levels (**Figure 5C**). Following the MVA-RH5 vaccine boost, children and infants showed

264 comparable RH5-specific responses within the live CD19<sup>+</sup> IgG<sup>+</sup> B cell population. These frequencies  
265 were significantly higher in the infants (approximately 10-fold on average) as compared to the vaccinated  
266 adults (**Figure 5D**).

267

### 268 **Vaccine-induced antibodies show high-level functional GIA *in vitro*.**

269 Finally, serum samples were analyzed for functional anti-parasitic growth inhibition at the GIA Reference  
270 Center at the NIH. Here, the standardized GIA assay of human samples typically tests purified total IgG  
271 (normalized to a starting concentration of 10 mg/mL) against *P. falciparum* 3D7 clone parasites in the  
272 absence of complement<sup>17,18</sup>. However, we initially measured each serum sample's physiological total  
273 serum IgG concentration by HPLC (**Figure S6A**). These data showed the median level in 6-11 month old  
274 infants to be 10.1 mg/mL, highly comparable to that previously seen in healthy UK adults<sup>17</sup>. In contrast,  
275 the levels in 1-6 year old children (median 13.7 mg/mL) and 18-35 year old adults (median 14.8 mg/mL)  
276 were significantly higher. We therefore elected instead to initially screen all samples for GIA starting at  
277 their physiological total IgG concentration as opposed to normalizing to 10 mg/mL. At these higher  
278 starting levels of total IgG, some weak GIA was observed at baseline, especially in the adults (**Figure**  
279 **6A**), in line with higher levels of prior malaria exposure in this age group as confirmed by an anti-parasite  
280 lysate ELISA (**Figure 6B**). However, following ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccination, very large increases in  
281 GIA were observed in the Group 2B children and Group 3B infants (**Figure S6B**), reaching median levels  
282 of 89.2% and 98.5%, respectively, at their physiological IgG concentration at the day 63 time-point  
283 (**Figure 6A**). These increases were not observed in the RH5 vaccinated adults or any of the rabies vaccine  
284 control groups.

285

286 We next titrated individual total IgG samples from the high responding pediatric groups using a 2-fold  
287 dilution series in the GIA assay, starting at each individual sample's physiological total IgG concentration  
288 (**Figure 6C**). Here, the observed GIA showed a very strong relationship to the concentration of RH5-

289 specific IgG present in the total IgG used in the assay as measured by ELISA (**Figure 6D**), as seen  
290 previously for this antigen following viral vectored or protein-in-adjuvant immunization of healthy UK  
291 adults <sup>11,17</sup>. The concentration of RH5\_FL-specific polyclonal IgG required to give 50% GIA (EC<sub>50</sub>) was  
292 highly comparable in both age groups: 34 µg/mL (95% confidence interval [CI], 25–48) in children and  
293 39 µg/mL (95% CI 31–53) in the infants. This functional “quality” readout of vaccine-induced RH5-  
294 specific IgG was highly similar to that previously reported in RH5 vaccinated healthy UK adults <sup>11,17</sup>,  
295 which we also confirmed in an independent head-to-head repeat (**Figure S6C**).

296

297 Data from previous *Aotus* monkey *P. falciparum* challenge studies have suggested that levels of *in vitro*  
298 GIA >60% at 2.5 mg/mL purified total IgG are associated with a protective outcome following blood-  
299 stage vaccination <sup>9,19</sup>. We therefore next interpolated the levels of GIA at 10 mg/mL and 2.5 mg/mL total  
300 IgG for both age groups, which showed these were significantly higher in the 6-11 month old infants  
301 (**Figure 6E,F**). Notably, 6/11 vaccinated infants showed >60% GIA at 2.5 mg/mL total IgG (median  
302 61%, range 41-78%). Finally, to relate the GIA assay results back to the original sera, and to account for  
303 the significant differences in the physiological concentrations of total IgG across the age groups (**Figure**  
304 **S6A**), we calculated the “GIA<sub>50</sub> titer”, defined in previous studies <sup>9,11,17</sup> as the dilution factor of each  
305 serum sample required to reach the concentration of purified IgG that gives 50% GIA (i.e. the GIA EC<sub>50</sub>).  
306 Here, a GIA<sub>50</sub> titer >5 was previously associated with protection against a stringent *P. falciparum* blood-  
307 stage challenge in *Aotus* monkeys vaccinated with RH5 <sup>9</sup>. In this analysis of the GIA EC<sub>50</sub> (**Figure 6G**)  
308 followed by GIA<sub>50</sub> titer (**Figure 6H**), the Group 3B vaccinated 6-11 month old infants again showed the  
309 highest responses, with a median GIA<sub>50</sub> titer = 5.3 (range 3.2-10.6). In summary, these GIA responses in  
310 the vaccinated 6-11 month old infants are the highest levels of GIA reported to-date following human  
311 vaccination, and were higher than levels of GIA achieved in healthy UK adults using highly immunogenic  
312 recombinant protein-in-adjuvant vaccine formulations targeting the RH5 or AMA1 antigens (**Figure 6F-**  
313 **H**) <sup>17,18</sup>.

314 **Discussion**

315 This dose-escalation, age de-escalation, double-blind, randomized, controlled Phase 1b trial reports the  
316 first data in a malaria-endemic population for a vaccine targeting the RH5 antigen from the blood-stage *P.*  
317 *falciparum* merozoite. We show in healthy Tanzanian adults, children and infants that a recombinant  
318 ChAd63-MVA heterologous prime-boost immunization regimen has a favorable safety profile, and can  
319 induce robust functional RH5-specific serum antibody responses in addition to B cell responses in the  
320 target infant age group. The local and systemic reactogenicity profile of the full dose RH5 vaccines in all  
321 three age groups was similar, if not reduced, as compared to that seen in healthy UK adults immunized  
322 with the identical vaccines <sup>11</sup>. These data are consistent with previous Phase 1a/b malaria vaccine trials  
323 using the same viral vector delivery platforms at similar doses <sup>16,20-30</sup>.

324  
325 The clinical safety of MVA as a recombinant vaccine vector for other infectious diseases and cancer is  
326 well documented <sup>31</sup>, whilst current efforts are also using this virus to vaccinate against mpox <sup>32</sup>. Our data  
327 with the ChAd63 vector also add support to existing data that suggest this simian adenovirus vector is  
328 safe for clinical use. However, a very rare but serious adverse reaction to a similar adenovirus vector  
329 (ChAdOx1) has been observed in the context of COVID-19 vaccines – vaccine-induced thrombosis with  
330 thrombocytopenia <sup>33</sup>. The mechanism of this is not completely understood and so it is unclear whether this  
331 risk is likely to apply to another serotype of adenovirus, delivering a non-coronavirus antigen to a  
332 predominantly African target population. Reassuringly this phenomenon has not been observed in any  
333 trials to-date of the same serotype of adenovirus (ChAdOx1) delivering a malarial or other non-  
334 coronavirus antigen, nor has it been observed in trials of other serotypes <sup>34</sup>. However, all these trials have  
335 been limited by their size (none reaching Phase 3 or more than hundreds of recipients) and so such a rare  
336 adverse event, even if it were real, may not have been detected. Nevertheless, since the time of  
337 undertaking this trial, a second Phase 1b trial has initiated in Tanzania using a soluble protein-in-adjuvant  
338 formulation, RH5.1/Matrix-M™ (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT04318002) <sup>17,35</sup>. Future efforts will thus focus on

339 the clinical development of recombinant RH5 antigen-based vaccines formulated in adjuvant, rather than  
340 ChAd63-MVA viral vectors, in order to align blood-stage vaccine delivery with the existing anti-  
341 sporozoite vaccines RTS,S/AS01<sup>36</sup> and R21/Matrix-M<sup>TM</sup><sup>2</sup> and to enable future multi-stage malaria  
342 vaccine strategies.

343  
344 The viral vectored vaccine platform was historically developed to induce T cell responses against the  
345 encoded transgene<sup>37</sup>, and in this trial RH5-specific IFN- $\gamma$  T cell responses were induced by ChAd63  
346 RH5 in the Tanzanian adults; these subsequently peaked at median levels of >1000 SFU/million PBMC  
347 following the MVA RH5 boost. The magnitude and maintenance of these responses post-boost were  
348 largely comparable to those seen previously in healthy UK adults immunized with the identical vaccine  
349 regimen<sup>11</sup>. In contrast, T cell priming by ChAd63 RH5 in the 6-11 month old infants, and boosting by  
350 MVA RH5 in both the infants and the 1-6 year old children appeared much weaker, leading to  
351 significantly lower responses (~5-10-fold) post-boost as compared to adults when using the standard  
352 ELISPOT readout that reports per million PBMC. However, age-dependent variations are observed in the  
353 numbers of lymphocytes circulating per mL of blood, with much higher lymphocyte frequencies  
354 measured in young children and infants as compared to adults<sup>38</sup>. Following incorporation of the  
355 lymphocyte count to report ELISPOT responses per mL blood, only the 6-11 month old infants still  
356 showed significantly lower responses post-prime, whilst far more comparable IFN- $\gamma$  T cell responses  
357 were observed across the age groups post-boost, as reported in previous West African Phase 1b clinical  
358 trials using the same vectors recombinant for the pre-erythrocytic malaria antigen ME-TRAP<sup>12</sup>.  
359 Nonetheless, the possible contribution of IFN- $\gamma$ -secreting T cells to vaccine-induced blood-stage malaria  
360 immunity in humans remains unclear. The ChAd63-MVA viral vectors have routinely induced a mixed  
361 antigen-specific CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell response in humans, and it is highly likely that RH5-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T  
362 cells will provide key help to B cell responses<sup>39,40</sup>. Indeed, previous work in UK adults has shown the  
363 ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccines can induce antigen-specific peripheral T follicular helper (Tfh) cell



364 responses<sup>41</sup>. Work therefore remains on-going to investigate the phenotypes of the Tfh cells induced in  
365 the Tanzanian population and their contribution to vaccine-induced humoral immune responses.  
366  
367 We also optimized the design and delivery of these recombinant ChAd63 and MVA viruses to induce  
368 strong antibody responses against blood-stage malaria antigens<sup>42-44</sup>. Here, the ChAd63-MVA RH5  
369 vaccines induced RH5-specific IgG antibody responses in the Tanzanian adults that peaked at ~14  
370 µg/mL; these levels of serum antibody were highly comparable to those seen previously in healthy UK  
371 adults immunized with the identical vaccine regimen<sup>11</sup>. More encouragingly, the levels of anti-RH5 IgG  
372 induced by the same full-dose vaccines in the pediatric groups were significantly higher, reaching peak  
373 levels of ~150 µg/mL in the 6-11 month old infants following the MVA RH5 boost. The ability to induce  
374 such high levels of anti-RH5 IgG in the target age group for a blood-stage malaria vaccine (i.e. young  
375 children and infants over 5 months of age) bodes well for future field efficacy testing of standalone blood-  
376 stage malaria vaccines as well as multi-stage malaria vaccine strategies whereby a blood-stage RH5  
377 component could be combined with existing pre-erythrocytic vaccines such as RTS,S/AS01<sup>36</sup> or  
378 R21/Matrix-M<sup>TM</sup><sup>2</sup>. The data also support the ongoing and wider use of the chimpanzee adenovirus  
379 vaccine platform to protect against outbreak or endemic viruses, such as Ebola, rabies and Rift Valley  
380 fever<sup>45-47</sup>.  
381  
382 The induction of higher antibody levels in the pediatric groups, as compared to adults, is likely not  
383 specific to the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine. Indeed, although numbers were small, we observed the same  
384 age-dependent hierarchy of antibody induction against the rabies virus glycoprotein in the rabies vaccine  
385 controls. Elsewhere, younger children (aged 6-11 years) also induced higher antibodies than older  
386 children (aged 12-17 years) vaccinated with the ChAdOx1-nCoV19 (AZD1222) Covid-19 vaccine<sup>48</sup>, and  
387 trials of the pre-erythrocytic vaccine ChAd63-MVA ME-TRAP also reported ten-fold higher anti-TRAP  
388 antibody levels in West African infants as compared to UK adults and West African adults<sup>12</sup>. Published

389 immunogenicity data spanning adults and infants 5-17 months of age vaccinated with the RTS,S/AS01  
390 <sup>36,49</sup> and R21/Matrix-M<sup>TM</sup> 2,<sup>50</sup> malaria vaccines also suggest the same. However, responses in infants 6-12  
391 weeks of age at first vaccination with RTS,S/AS01 showed lower levels of antibody that associated with  
392 reduced efficacy against clinical malaria <sup>36</sup>. Consequently, given both anti-sporozoite and anti-merozoite  
393 malaria vaccine strategies necessitate very high levels of antibody to protect against parasite infection,  
394 current efforts remain focused on infants and young children over 5 months of age at the time of first  
395 vaccination.

396  
397 Why the infants and young children vaccinated with ChAd63-MVA RH5 induced such high levels of  
398 antibody remains to be fully understood. Our results suggested that pre-existing anti-vector immunity is  
399 unlikely to be the reason explaining the observed improvement in anti-RH5 humoral immunogenicity in  
400 the younger age groups. Consistent with this, studies of the ChAdOx1-nCoV19 (AZD1222) Covid-19  
401 vaccine given in a 2-dose homologous regimen reported similar findings across studies in adults and  
402 children, with no evidence that anti-ChAd immune responses measured after the first vaccine dose  
403 associated with the immunogenicity outcome measures of the second vaccine dose <sup>48,51</sup>. We therefore  
404 sought to analyse the underlying B cell responses. Here, we observed higher peripheral ASC responses in  
405 the infants, as well as higher absolute numbers of B cells per microliter of blood and a stronger RH5-  
406 specific IgG<sup>+</sup> B cell response within the CD19<sup>+</sup> population in the younger age groups. The significantly  
407 higher anti-RH5 serum IgG response induced by the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine in children and infants,  
408 as compared to adults, is therefore strongly associated with greater B cell immunogenicity. Given current  
409 antibody-inducing vaccine strategies to protect against clinical malaria are focussed on infants 5-17  
410 months of age, this observation warrants further investigation in the future.

411  
412 Finally, we assessed functional GIA of the vaccine-induced anti-RH5 antibodies. Our previous work has  
413 identified the *in vitro* assay of GIA as a highly significant predictor of *P. falciparum in vivo* growth

414 inhibition following blood-stage challenge of both vaccinated UK adults<sup>17</sup> and *Aotus* monkeys<sup>9,19</sup>. We  
415 have also confirmed this association as a mechanistic correlate in *Aotus* monkeys, i.e. one that can cause  
416 *in vivo* protection, via passive transfer of a GIA-positive RH5-specific IgG monoclonal antibody<sup>10</sup>, with  
417 similar results observed in humanized mice<sup>52</sup>. Importantly, full protection of *Aotus* monkeys required a  
418 serological threshold level of GIA, defined as i) a level of *in vitro* GIA >60% at 2.5 mg/mL purified total  
419 IgG<sup>9,19</sup>, or ii) a GIA<sub>50</sub> titer >5, with this latter measure also taking into account any differences in the  
420 physiological concentrations of total IgG in the vaccinees<sup>9</sup>. Previous trials in healthy UK adults did not  
421 exceed this threshold when using the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine<sup>11</sup>, or a more immunogenic soluble  
422 RH5 protein-in-adjuvant, RH5.1/AS01<sub>B</sub><sup>17</sup>. In contrast, the 6-11 month old infants in this trial showed the  
423 highest yet reported levels of GIA in vaccinated humans, with over half of the vaccinees in this target age  
424 group exceeding the threshold. This related to the high quantity of anti-RH5 serum IgG induced by the  
425 ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine, given the functional quality (i.e. GIA per unit anti-RH5 antibody) was  
426 highly similar across the age groups tested. Moreover, the highly similar functional antibody quality data  
427 across the UK and Tanzanian vaccine trials are encouraging because they indicate no obvious interference  
428 from pre-existing and naturally-occurring anti-malarial antibody responses with the vaccine-induced anti-  
429 RH5 IgG, as occurred for historical vaccines targeting AMA1<sup>53</sup>.

430  
431 The main limitations of the trial include relatively small numbers of participants and a limited follow-up  
432 period of four months post-MVA RH5 booster vaccination, such that the longer-term kinetic of the  
433 immune response has not been characterized. Improving the durability of protection against clinical  
434 malaria will be critical for next-generation malaria vaccine strategies. We also only tested a single  
435 heterologous prime-boost regimen in this trial, whereas a more extensive assessment of vaccine dose and  
436 regimen, including the use of delayed boosting, in Phase 1a/b trials could be key to optimizing  
437 immunogenicity and the longevity of vaccine-induced protection<sup>17,54</sup>. In this regard, since undertaking  
438 this trial, a second Phase 1b trial has initiated in Tanzania using a soluble protein-in-adjuvant formulation,

439 RH5.1/Matrix-M™ delivered in a variety of dosing regimens (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT04318002). This  
440 trial will indicate whether even higher antibody and GIA levels can be achieved in the target 5-17 month  
441 old infant population with a delivery platform that is more immunogenic than ChAd63-MVA.  
442 Nonetheless, the data in the Phase 1b trial reported here confirm, for the first time, that substantial anti-  
443 RH5 immune responses can be achieved safely by vaccination in infants from a malaria-endemic area, in  
444 stark contrast to the poor immunogenicity seen to this antigen following natural *P. falciparum* infection  
445 <sup>6,11</sup>. These data also justify onward progression to Phase 2b field efficacy trials to determine whether  
446 growth inhibitory antibody levels of this magnitude can ultimately protect against clinical malaria.

447 **Methods**

448 **Study Design**

449 This was a randomized, controlled, age de-escalation, dose-escalation study called VAC070 that was  
450 conducted according to the principles of the current revision of the Declaration of Helsinki 2008 and in  
451 full conformity with the ICH guidelines for Good Clinical Practice (GCP). It was approved by the Oxford  
452 Tropical Research Ethics Committee in the UK (OxTREC, reference 29-17), the Ifakara Health Institute  
453 Institutional Review Board in Tanzania (reference: 20-2017), the National Institute for Medical Research  
454 in Tanzania, the National Health Research Ethics Sub-Committee (NatHREC) and the then Tanzania  
455 Food and Drugs Authority (now the Tanzania Medicines and Medical Devices Authority), reference:  
456 TFDA0017/CTR/0015/3. The Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) guideline was  
457 followed.

458  
459 We report here the safety, reactogenicity and immunogenicity profile of heterologous prime-boost  
460 ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccination up until 168 days post-enrolment. The study was conducted (and  
461 participants recruited and vaccinated) at Kingani Clinical Facility, Ifakara Health Institute, Bagamoyo  
462 branch, Tanzania. The VAC070 trial was registered on ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT03435874), the Pan-  
463 African Clinical Trials Registry (PACTR201710002722229) and ISRCTN (ISRCTN47448832).

464  
465 **Participants**

466 Healthy adults (18-35 years), young children (1-6 years) and infants (6-11 months) residing in Bagamoyo,  
467 Tanzania, with a negative malaria blood film at screening, were eligible for inclusion in the study and  
468 enrolled into three groups according to age. A full list of inclusion and exclusion criteria are listed in the  
469 study protocol which is included within the Supplementary Appendix. Each participant (or guardian)  
470 signed or thumb-printed an informed consent form at the in-person screening visit and consent was  
471 verified before each vaccination. A Safety Monitoring Committee (SMC) periodically reviewed the study

472 progress and safety data according to a safety review schedule, critically timed to age de-escalations and  
473 dose escalations.

474

## 475 **Procedures**

### 476 **Randomization and Masking**

477 A randomization list was generated by an independent statistician. This contained sequential codes  
478 (Treatment numbers) linking a study identification (ID) to a vaccine assignment. Study ID was assigned  
479 to participants in the order in which they were enrolled in the trial. Access to the randomization list was  
480 exclusively limited to the study pharmacist and the independent statistician(s). These individuals had no  
481 role in the evaluation of the study participants.

482

483 Participants were assigned to groups based on their age, and groups (characterized by participant age and  
484 dose of vaccine) were enrolled sequentially. Randomization into vaccine or control groups was performed  
485 according to a 2:1 ratio.

486

487 Data pertaining to ChAd63 RH5, MVA RH5 or rabies vaccine were collected in a double-blinded  
488 manner. Neither the vaccine recipient nor their parent(s)/guardian(s) or those members of the study team  
489 responsible for administering the vaccines or evaluating safety and immunogenicity endpoints were aware  
490 of individual vaccine allocation. Only those staff responsible for the storage and preparation of vaccines  
491 were unblinded as both vaccines were distinguishable by their packaging and labelling; these staff played  
492 no other role in the study and the vaccine preparation area was kept physically separate from the  
493 immunization area. The Local Independent Safety Monitor was provided with sealed code-break  
494 envelopes for each participant to facilitate unblinding for urgent clinical/ethical reasons. They also had  
495 access to a copy of the master randomization list in a sealed envelope, in case emergency unblinding was  
496 required.

497  
498 Participants attended a two-part screening visit and those eligible returned for enrolment and were  
499 randomized to either a dose of ChAd63 RH5 or rabies control vaccine. Eight weeks later all participants  
500 were then randomized to either a dose of MVA RH5 or rabies vaccine. All vaccines were administered by  
501 intramuscular injection in the upper arm.

502

### 503 **Safety Analysis**

504 Following each vaccination, each participant was visited at home on days 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 by a community  
505 health worker for assessment and recording of any solicited and unsolicited AEs. At days 2, 7, 14 and 28  
506 post-vaccination participants were seen at the clinical research facility. Observations (heart rate,  
507 temperature and blood pressure measurements) were taken at the clinic visits from the day of vaccination  
508 until the 28 day follow-up visit. Blood tests for exploratory immunology were taken at all visits except  
509 those occurring 2 days after each vaccination, 7 days after the first vaccination and 14 days after the  
510 second vaccination. Blood samples for safety (full blood count, alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and  
511 creatinine) were carried out at screening and on days 0, 7, 14, 28, 56, 63, 84 and 168 for all groups. Any  
512 solicited AEs occurring during the 7 days post-vaccination were defined as being at least possibly related  
513 to vaccination. The likely causality and grading of all other AEs were assessed as described in the  
514 protocol. All unsolicited AEs are reported (**Table S2**) but none were considered possibly, probably or  
515 definitely related to vaccination. The types of AEs were classified according to MedDRA (version 26.0).

516

### 517 **Outcomes**

518 Primary outcome measures for vaccine safety included numbers of solicited and unsolicited AEs after  
519 each vaccination. The primary outcome analysis was conducted on the safety analysis population and  
520 included participants who received at least the first dose of vaccine in the study. The maximum severity  
521 for each solicited systemic AE across seven days after first and second vaccinations was derived for each

522 participant and summarized by group. Analyses were conducted similarly for local reactogenicity. Serious  
523 adverse events (SAEs) were collected for the entire study period. The secondary outcome measures for  
524 humoral immunogenicity were the concentration of anti-RH5 serum antibodies by ELISA and their  
525 percentage GIA *in vitro* using purified IgG, and for cellular immunogenicity were T and B cell responses  
526 to RH5 as measured by ELISPOT and/or flow cytometry.

527

## 528 **Vaccines**

529 The design, production and preclinical testing of the viral vector vaccines have been reported previously  
530 in detail <sup>6,9</sup>. Briefly, both recombinant viruses express the same 1503 bp coding sequence of RH5 from the  
531 3D7 clone of *P. falciparum*, aa E26–Q526 (NCBI Accession #XM\_001351508.1). ChAd63 RH5 was  
532 manufactured by Advent, Pomezia, Italy which is a daughter company of ReiThera. This production  
533 facility meets current Good Manufacturing Practice (cGMP) requirements of the US Food and Drug  
534 Administration (FDA) and the European Medicines Agency (EMA) to produce investigational vaccines to  
535 be used in human clinical studies. MVA RH5 was manufactured under cGMP conditions by IDT  
536 Biologika GmbH, Germany, as described in detail previously <sup>11</sup>. Control participants received  
537 VERORAB, an inactivated rabies vaccine (Sanofi Pasteur).

538

## 539 **Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cell (PBMC), Plasma and Serum Preparation**

540 Blood samples were collected into lithium heparin-treated vacutainer blood collection systems (Becton  
541 Dickinson, UK). PBMC were isolated and used within 6 hours in fresh assays as previously described <sup>22</sup>.  
542 Excess cells were frozen in foetal calf serum (FCS) containing 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and  
543 stored in liquid nitrogen. Plasma samples were stored at -80 °C. For serum preparation, untreated blood  
544 samples were stored at room temperature (RT) and then the clotted blood was centrifuged for 5 min (1000  
545 *xg*). Serum was stored at -80 °C.

546



547 **Peptides**

548 Peptides for *ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$  ELISPOT were purchased from NEO Scientific (Cambridge, MA, USA).  
549 Sequences are reported in **Table S4**. In brief, the peptides (20 amino acids (aa) in length and overlapping  
550 by 10 aa) covered the entire RH5 sequence present in the RH5 vaccine. Peptides were reconstituted in  
551 100% DMSO at 50-200 mg/mL and combined into various pools for the ELISPOT assay.

552

553 ***Ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$  ELISPOT**

554 Fresh PBMC were used in all assays using a previously described protocol <sup>11</sup>. Spots were counted using  
555 an ELISPOT counter (Autoimmun Diagnostika (AID), Germany). Results are expressed as IFN- $\gamma$  spot-  
556 forming units (SFU) per million PBMC. Background responses in unstimulated control wells were almost  
557 always less than 20 spots, and were subtracted from those measured in peptide-stimulated wells.

558

559 **Recombinant RH5 Protein**

560 Recombinant full-length RH5 protein (also known as “RH5.1”) was used for all ELISA assays and B cell  
561 ELISPOT assays. The protein was produced and purified from a stably transfected *Drosophila* S2 cell line  
562 as previously described <sup>35</sup>.

563

564 **RH5 ELISA**

565 Anti-RH5 total IgG ELISAs were performed against full-length RH5 protein (RH5.1) using standardized  
566 methodology as previously described in detail for other RH5 vaccine trials <sup>11,17</sup>. The reciprocal of the test  
567 sample dilution giving an optical density at 405nm (OD<sub>405</sub>) of 1.0 in the standardized assay was used to  
568 assign an ELISA unit value of the standard. A standard curve and Gen5 ELISA software v3.04 (BioTek,  
569 UK) were used to convert the OD<sub>405</sub> of individual test samples into arbitrary units (AU). These responses  
570 in AU are reported in  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  following generation of a conversion factor by calibration-free concentration  
571 analysis (CFCA) as reported previously <sup>11</sup>.

572

### 573 **ChAd63 ELISA**

574 Antibody responses to the ChAd63 vaccine vector were determined by endpoint ELISA as previously  
575 described<sup>42,55,56</sup>. Briefly, a purified ChAd63 vector encoding an irrelevant antigen (ovalbumin)<sup>57,58</sup> was  
576 adsorbed overnight at 4 °C to 96 well NUNC-Immuno Maxisorp plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 3 x  
577 10<sup>8</sup> vp/mL<sup>59</sup>. Test sera were diluted 1:100, added in duplicate and serially diluted 3-fold. Bound  
578 antibodies were detected using goat anti-human IgG conjugated to alkaline phosphatase (Sigma),  
579 developed using 4-Nitrophenyl phosphate disodium salt hexahydrate (Sigma) and OD<sub>405</sub> determined on a  
580 BioTek Elx808 reader with Gen5 ELISA software. Endpoint titers were calculated as the x-axis intercept  
581 of the sample titration curve at OD<sub>405</sub> = 0.15 (equivalent to blank test samples). A positive control sample  
582 from participants vaccinated with a different ChAd63 vectored vaccine<sup>27</sup> was included as an internal  
583 reference.

584

### 585 **Parasite Lysate ELISA**

586 Serum antibody levels to parasite lysate were assessed by standardized ELISA methodology previously  
587 described<sup>60,61</sup>. Schizont extract from *P. falciparum* (3D7 clone) produced by the GIA Reference  
588 Laboratory, NIAID, NIH, was adsorbed overnight at 4 °C to 96 well NUNC-Immuno Maxisorp plates  
589 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at equivalent to 5x10<sup>2</sup> parasites per µL. Test sera were diluted in 1% milk and  
590 added in triplicate to plates following blocking with 5% milk in DPBS (Sigma). A reference standard and  
591 internal control from a pool of N=34 high malaria pre-exposed serum samples, from the BCTF-IHI  
592 Biobank, plus blank wells were included. Bound antibodies were detected using goat anti-human IgG  
593 conjugated to alkaline phosphatase (Sigma), developed using 4-Nitrophenyl phosphate disodium salt  
594 hexahydrate (Sigma) and absorbance (OD<sub>405</sub>) was determined on a BioTek Elx808 reader with Gen5  
595 software. Antibody units were assigned using the reciprocal dilution of the standard giving an optical

596 density of 1.0 at OD<sub>405</sub>. The standard curve and Gen5 software v3.04 (Agilent) were then used to convert  
597 the OD<sub>405</sub> of test samples to arbitrary units (AU).

598

### 599 **Rabies ELISA**

600 Binding antibody responses induced by the rabies control vaccine were determined by endpoint ELISA,  
601 with the same methodology as for the anti-ChAd63 ELISA, but using recombinant rabies glycoprotein <sup>46</sup>  
602 adsorbed to the plate at 2 µg/mL. Pooled sera from Group 3B participants vaccinated with the rabies  
603 vaccine was included as a development control.

604

### 605 **Parasite qPCR**

606 Parasitemia was determined retrospectively by quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) performed  
607 on blood samples taken at baseline, 7 days and 28 days post-boost as previously described <sup>62</sup>. Briefly,  
608 blood was collected in 2.0 mL tubes containing EDTA. DNA was extracted from whole blood using  
609 Quick-DNA miniprep plus kit (Zymo research, USA), and 2 µL each extracted DNA was used per assay  
610 well and run in triplicate. qPCR was conducted on a CFX96 real-time qPCR machine (Bio-Rad) and  
611 analyzed with CFX Manager Software (v2.2) with the following cycling conditions: polymerase  
612 activation at 95 °C for 1 min, 45 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 15 s and annealing and elongation at  
613 57 °C for 45 s. Parasites per µL were calculated against a defined international standard for *P. falciparum*  
614 DNA Nucleic Acid Amplification techniques (WHO reference from NIBSC #04/176) <sup>63</sup> reconstituted in  
615 0.5 mL sterile nuclease-free water to 5x10<sup>8</sup> parasites per µL.

616

### 617 **Antibody-Secreting Cell (ASC) ELISPOT**

618 *Ex-vivo* ASC ELISPOT assays were performed against RH5.1 protein as described in detail elsewhere <sup>11</sup>  
619 using fresh PBMC. Plates were counted using an AID ELISPOT plate reader. Results are reported as  
620 RH5-specific ASC per million PBMC used in the assay.

621

622 **B cell Flow Cytometry**

623 Frequencies of live B cells within total lymphocytes and RH5-specific cells within IgG<sup>+</sup> B cells (CD19<sup>+</sup>

624 IgD<sup>-</sup> IgM<sup>-</sup> IgA<sup>-</sup>) were measured by flow cytometry. In brief, cryopreserved PBMC were thawed and

625 washed in IMDM (12440053, Gibco) supplemented with 10% FCS (F9665, Sigma Aldrich), 0.2%

626 MycoZap (VZA-2031, Lonza), and 0.04% benzonase (71205-3, Merck). Thawed PBMC were stained

627 first with a viability stain (Live/Dead Aqua; L34966, Invitrogen), followed by a panel comprising anti-

628 human CD3-BV510 (317332, Biolegend); anti-human CD14-BV510 (301842, Biolegend); anti-human

629 CD56-BV510 (318430, Biolegend); anti-human CD27-A488 (393204, Biolegend); anti-human IgM-

630 PerCP-Cy5.5 (561285, BD Biosciences); anti-human CD19-ECD (IM2708U, Beckman Coulter); anti-

631 human IgD-PE-Cy7 (561315, BD Biosciences); anti-human IgA-A647 (109-475-011, Jackson); anti-

632 human CD38-APC-Cy7 (303534, Biolegend); and a RH5-PE probe (produced in-house as previously

633 described<sup>41,54</sup>). Stained samples were washed and acquired on a FACSAria Fusion Flow Cytometer (BD

634 Biosciences). See **Figure S5** for an example gating strategy of live B cells within single lymphocytes, and

635 RH5-specific (IgG<sup>+</sup>) cells within the CD19<sup>+</sup> IgD<sup>-</sup> IgM<sup>-</sup> IgA<sup>-</sup> B cell population.

636

637 **Haematology**

638 The lymphocyte count was obtained during Complete Blood Count (CBC) analysis using the automated

639 haematology analyzer, Sysmex XS 800i, for assessment of whole blood. The analyzer uses a fluorescence

640 flow cytometry method for analysis of white blood cells (WBC) and the five differentials by using the

641 semiconductor laser beam. A small volume of blood (20 µL) is aspirated by the analyzer to measure the

642 WBC differentials according to their size and structure.

643

644 **Serum IgG Concentration**

645 Total serum IgG concentrations were determined using a Bio-Monolith Protein G column on an Agilent  
646 1260 HPLC system (Agilent, Cheshire, UK). Separation was performed at 1 mL/min using PBS and 0.2  
647 M Glycine pH 2.0 as mobile phases with detection at UV 280 nm. A calibration curve was produced  
648 using purified human IgG.

649

650 **Assay of Growth Inhibition Activity (GIA)**

651 Standardized assays were performed by the GIA Reference Center, NIH, USA, using previously  
652 described methodology<sup>64</sup>, with one modification. Here, each sample was tested in three independent  
653 replication assays using three different batches of red blood cells (RBC), and the median of these three  
654 results was used to generate the final dataset. Otherwise for each assay, in brief, protein G purified IgG  
655 samples were incubated with RBC infected with synchronized *P. falciparum* 3D7 clone parasites in a  
656 final volume of 40  $\mu$ L for 40 h at 37 °C, and the final parasitemia in each well was quantified by  
657 biochemical determination of parasite lactate dehydrogenase. All purified IgG samples were tested at final  
658 test well concentrations (reported in mg/mL) as described in Results. For certain samples a dilution series  
659 was used to determine the concentration that gave 50% GIA ( $EC_{50}$ ).

660

661 **Statistical Analysis**

662 Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism version 9.5 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., California,  
663 USA). All tests used were two-tailed and are described in the text. To analyze the relationship between  
664 GIA and ELISA assay data, a Richard's five-parameter dose-response curve was fitted, constrained to 0  
665 % GIA at the bottom and 100% GIA at the top. A value of  $P < 0.05$  was considered significant.

666 **Author Contributions**

667 Conceived and performed the experiments: SES, WFK, IMM, NSL, MM, FM, SA, AD, FM, BS, TA,  
668 MR, LM, OL, AMA, GN, BM, SM, TGM, JRB, LTW, YT, LDWK, SHH, ROP, CMN, CAL, KM, SJD,  
669 AMM, AIO.  
670 Analyzed the data: SES, WFK, IMM, NSL, TA, TGM, CMN, KM, SJD, AMM, AIO.  
671 Project Management: SA, AML, FLN, J-SC.  
672 Wrote the paper: SES, SJD, AMM.

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698

### 699 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

700 SJD is a named inventor on patent applications relating to RH5 malaria vaccines and adenovirus-based  
701 vaccines, is an inventor on intellectual property licensed by Oxford University Innovation to AstraZeneca,  
702 and has been a consultant to GSK on malaria vaccines. AMM has been a consultant to GSK on malaria  
703 vaccines, and has an immediate family member who is an inventor on patent applications relating to RH5  
704 malaria vaccines and adenovirus-based vaccines, and is an inventor on intellectual property licensed by  
705 Oxford University Innovation to AstraZeneca. All other authors have declared that no conflict of interest  
706 exists.

707

### 708 **Data and Materials Availability**

709 Requests for materials should be addressed to the corresponding authors.

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940 **Figure Legends**

941 **Figure 1. VAC070 flow chart of study design and participant recruitment.**

942 Screening into the VAC070 study began in March 2018 and all follow-up visits were completed by  
943 February 2019. All immunizations were administered IM into the left deltoid area.

944

945 **Figure 2. Solicited AEs following vaccination with full dose ChAd63 and MVA RH5.**

946 The solicited local and systemic AEs recorded for 7 days following ChAd63 RH5 prime and MVA RH5  
947 boost are shown at the maximum severity reported by all participants within the VAC070 trial Groups 1,  
948 2B and 3B. Participants aged (A) 18-35 years (n=6); (B) 1-6 years (n=12); and (C) 6-11 months (n=12)  
949 received the full priming dose of  $5 \times 10^{10}$  vp ChAd63 RH5 on day 0. The same participants aged (D) 18-  
950 35 years (n=5); (E) 1-6 years (n=12); and (F) 6-11 months (n=11) received the full boosting dose of  $2 \times$   
951  $10^8$  pfu MVA RH5 on day 56. Rabies vaccine control data are shown in **Figure S1** and data for the lower  
952 lead-in dose of ChAd63-MVA RH5 (trial Groups 2A and 3A) are shown in **Figure S2**.

953

954 **Figure 3. *Ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$  T cell response to ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccination.**

955 Median and individual *ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$  enzyme-linked immunospot (ELISPOT) responses to RH5 per  
956 million peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) are shown for all groups receiving the full dose of  
957 ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccines and rabies vaccine control. Responses are shown at (A) day 14, two weeks  
958 post-ChAd63 RH5 prime; and (B) day 84, four weeks post-MVA RH5 boost. Group 1 adults 18-35 years,  
959 N=5 or 6; Group 2B children 1-6 years, N=12; Group 3B infants 6-11 months, N=11 or 12; and rabies  
960 vaccine control, all groups and ages pooled, N=15. Historical data testing the identical dose and regimen  
961 of the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine in healthy UK adults 18-50 years are shown for comparison only: day  
962 14, N=20; and day 84, N=8<sup>11</sup>. (C) Lymphocyte counts per mL of blood for all vaccinated participants at  
963 day 84. Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=8; Group 2B children 1-6 years, N=18; Group 3B infants 6-11  
964 months, N=17. (D) Median and individual *ex-vivo* IFN- $\gamma$  ELISPOT responses to RH5 per mL peripheral

965 blood are shown for all groups receiving the full dose of ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccines and rabies vaccine  
966 control at day 84. Groups as per panel (B). Analyses using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple  
967 comparison test across Groups 1, 2B and 3B only; \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , and \*\*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ .

968

969 **Figure 4. Serum antibody response to vaccination.**

970 Median and individual anti-RH5\_FL serum total IgG responses as measured by ELISA are shown for all  
971 groups receiving the full dose of ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccines and rabies vaccine control. Responses are  
972 shown at (A) day 14, two weeks post-ChAd63 RH5 prime; and (B) day 63, one week post-MVA RH5  
973 boost. Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=5 or 6; Group 2B children 1-6 years, N=12; Group 3B infants 6-11  
974 months, N=11 or 12; and rabies vaccine control, all groups and ages pooled, N=15. Baseline = day 0 pre-  
975 vaccination time-point shown for Groups 1, 2B and 3B combined and color-coded. Historical data testing  
976 the identical dose and regimen of the ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine in healthy UK adults 18-50 years are  
977 shown for comparison only: day 14, N=20; and day 63, N=8<sup>11</sup>. The horizontal dotted line indicates the  
978 limit of detection of the assay. Responses to the "lead in" vaccine doses are shown in **Figure S4. (C)**

979 Median and individual anti-ChAd63 serum IgG endpoint titers as measured by ELISA in pre-vaccination  
980 (day 0) samples. Solid symbols = participants who subsequently underwent ChAd63-MVA RH5  
981 vaccination and open symbols = those who received rabies vaccine control. UK adults 18-50 years, N=8  
982<sup>11</sup>; Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=9; Group 2B children 1-6 years, N=18; Group 3B infants 6-11 months,  
983 N=18. (D) Median and individual anti-rabies glycoprotein serum total IgG responses as measured by  
984 ELISA in day 63 samples (after two vaccine doses) are shown for all individuals receiving rabies vaccine  
985 control: Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=3; Group 2 children 1-6 years, N=9; Group 3 infants 6-11 months,  
986 N=9; open symbols = Groups 2A and 3A, closed symbols = Groups 2B and 3B; as well as the ChAd63-  
987 MVA RH5 vaccinees (N=28, Groups 1, 2B and 3B combined). Analyses shown used Kruskal-Wallis test  
988 with Dunn's multiple comparison test across Groups 1, 2B and 3B only; \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ .

989

990 **Figure 5. B cell response to ChAd63-RH5 vaccination.**

991 (A) RH5-specific antibody-secreting cell (ASC) responses were assessed by *ex-vivo* enzyme-linked  
992 immunospot (ELISPOT) using RH5\_FL protein and fresh peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC)  
993 from the day 63 time-point. Responses are reported as RH5-specific ASC per million PBMC used in the  
994 assay. Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=5; Group 2B children 1-6 years, N=12; Group 3B infants 6-11  
995 months, N=11; Baseline = Groups 1, 2B and 3B combined, N=30; Rabies = Groups 1, 2B and 3B  
996 combined, N=15. (B) Representative flow cytometry plots showing definition of RH5-specific cells  
997 within the live CD19<sup>+</sup> IgD<sup>-</sup> IgM<sup>-</sup> IgA<sup>-</sup> B cell population (see **Figure S5A** for full gating strategy).  
998 Representative plots are shown for matched day 0 (pre-vaccination) and day 63 (one week post-MVA  
999 RH5 boost vaccination) samples from a single vaccinee. (C) Number of live CD19<sup>+</sup> B cells per microliter  
1000 of blood, as calculated by combining data from lymphocyte counts per microliter of blood (**Figure S5B**)  
1001 and percentage of live CD19<sup>+</sup> B cells within lymphocytes as assessed by flow cytometry (**Figure S5C**).  
1002 (D) Percentage of RH5-specific cells within the CD19<sup>+</sup> IgD<sup>-</sup> IgM<sup>-</sup> IgA<sup>-</sup> B cell population as assessed by  
1003 flow cytometry. Same individuals and color coding for age groups as shown in (C) measured at baseline  
1004 day 0 (d0) or at 7 days post-MVA RH5 boost vaccination (V, closed symbols); N=3 individuals were  
1005 measured at 28 days post-MVA RH5 boost due to sample availability (open symbols). Data from baseline  
1006 samples for N=3 healthy UK adult participants 18-50 years of age enrolled in a previous trial of the  
1007 ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccine <sup>11</sup> are shown for comparison only (pink diamonds to left of dashed line).  
1008 Individual and median results are shown in each panel. Analyses used Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's  
1009 multiple comparison test across the three groups in (C) or the three vaccinated groups in (D); \*\* $P < 0.01$ ,  
1010 \*\*\*  $P < 0.001$ .

1011

1012 **Figure 6. Functional GIA induced by ChAd63-MVA RH5 vaccination.**

1013 (A) *In vitro* growth inhibition activity (GIA) of purified IgG was assessed against 3D7 clone *P.*  
1014 *falci-parum* parasites. Total IgG purified from serum at baseline (day 0) and the day 63 time-point was

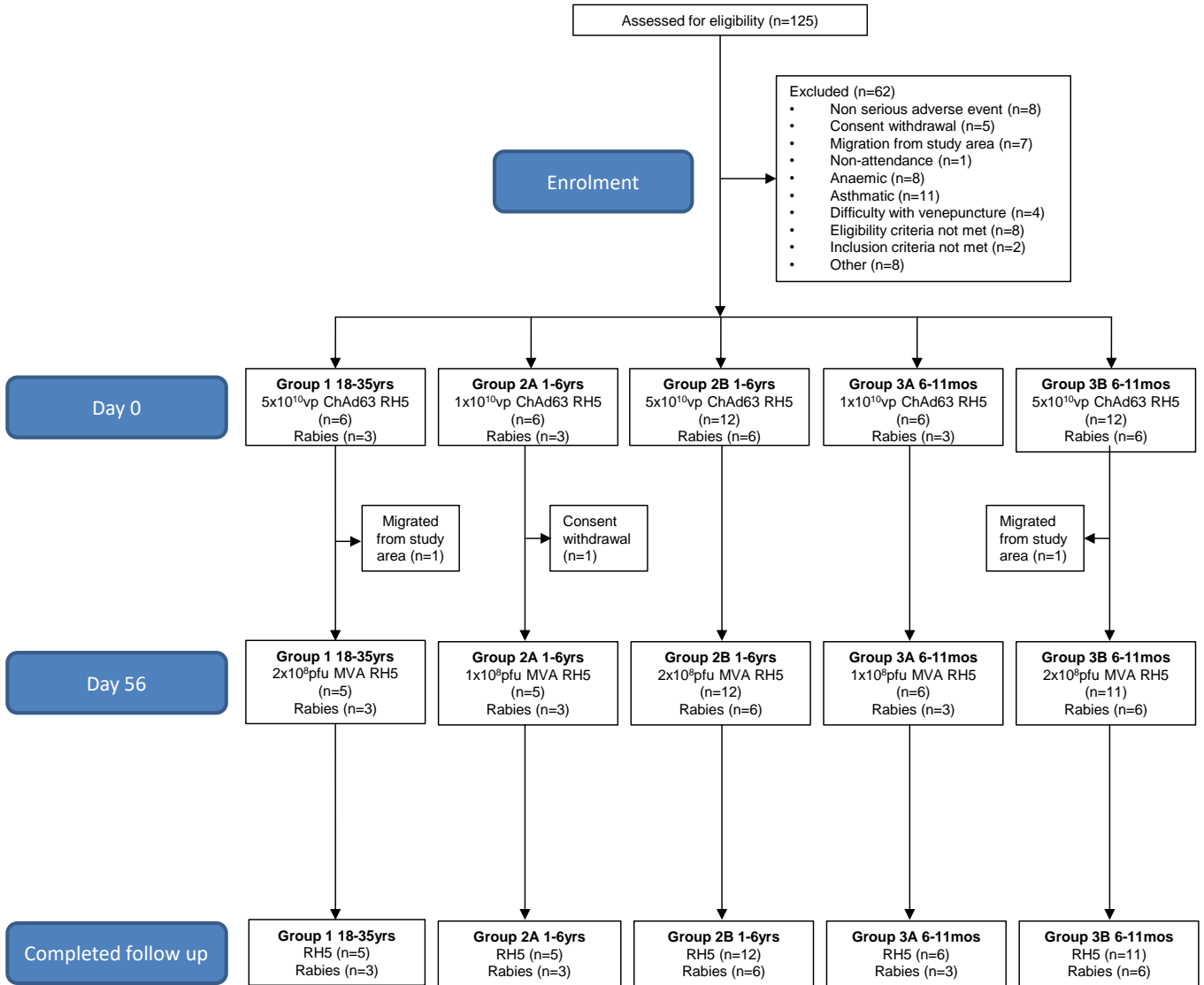
1015 initially tested at each sample's physiological total serum IgG concentration as measured by HPLC  
1016 (**Figure S6A**). Data shown for Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=5 vaccinees and N=3 control; Group 2B  
1017 children 1-6 years, N=12 vaccinees and N=5 or 6 control (one sample was lost during analysis); and  
1018 Group 3B infants 6-11 months, N=11 vaccinees and N=6 control. (**B**) Median and individual anti-parasite  
1019 lysate serum IgG responses as measured by ELISA in arbitrary units (AU) in pre-vaccination (day 0)  
1020 samples. Group 1 adults 18-35 years, N=9; Group 2A and 2B children 1-6 years, N=27; Group 3A and 3B  
1021 infants 6-11 months, N=27. Analysis using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison test; \* $P$   
1022  $< 0.05$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ . (**C**) Day 63 samples from Group 2B children 1-6 years (N=12)  
1023 and Group 3B infants 6-11 months (N=11) vaccinated with ChAd63-MVA RH5 were subsequently  
1024 titrated in the GIA assay using a 2-fold dilution series and starting at each sample's physiological total  
1025 serum IgG concentration. GIA responses were later interpolated for 2.5 and 10 mg/mL total IgG (dotted  
1026 lines), and the GIA assay  $EC_{50}$  of each purified IgG in mg/mL was also interpolated from the data, i.e. the  
1027 concentration of total IgG that, following titration, showed 50% GIA (dashed line). (**D**) Relationship  
1028 between GIA data from the dilution series shown in (**C**) and concentration of anti-RH5\_FL purified IgG  
1029 used in the assay as measured by ELISA. Non-linear regression curves are shown for all samples  
1030 combined in Group 2B (blue line,  $r^2 = 0.92$ , N=108) and in Group 3B (green line,  $r^2 = 0.95$ , N=81). The  
1031  $EC_{50}$  (concentration of anti-RH5\_FL polyclonal IgG that gives 50% GIA, dashed line) was calculated. (**E**)  
1032 GIA data interpolated from (**C**) at 10 mg/mL total IgG and (**F**) at 2.5 mg/mL total IgG. Analysis using  
1033 Mann-Whitney test comparing Groups 2B and 3B only; \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ . Historical GIA assay data  
1034 are also shown for comparison only in (**F**) for the RH5.1/AS01<sub>B</sub><sup>17</sup> (N=15) and AMA1 FMP2.1/AS01<sup>18</sup>  
1035 (N=12) protein-in-adjuvant vaccines previously tested in healthy UK adults. (**G**) Individual GIA assay  
1036  $EC_{50}$  of each purified IgG in mg/mL interpolated from the data in (**C**). Samples for which the GIA was  
1037  $< 50\%$  at the top concentration of total IgG tested were plotted as 14 mg/mL (above the dashed black line).  
1038 (**H**) To relate the GIA assay results (using purified total IgG) back to the original sera, the concentration  
1039 of IgG in each original serum sample was also measured by HPLC (**Figure S6A**). This enabled



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1040 calculation of the “GIA<sub>50</sub> Titer”, defined previously<sup>9</sup> as the dilution factor of each serum sample required  
1041 to reach the concentration of purified IgG that gives 50% GIA (i.e. the GIA EC<sub>50</sub>). Samples for which the  
1042 GIA<sub>50</sub> titer could not be calculated (because they did not achieve  $\geq 50\%$  GIA using purified IgG) are  
1043 plotted arbitrarily at 0.8. In **(G)** and **(H)**, individual data and median results are shown for the same  
1044 samples shown in **(F)**. Red dashed lines indicate threshold level of GIA at 2.5 mg/mL total IgG in **(F)** and  
1045 a GIA<sub>50</sub> titer  $> 5$  in **(H)** above which protection against a stringent *P. falciparum* blood-stage challenge  
1046 has been reported in *Aotus* monkeys vaccinated with RH5<sup>9</sup>.

# Figure 1



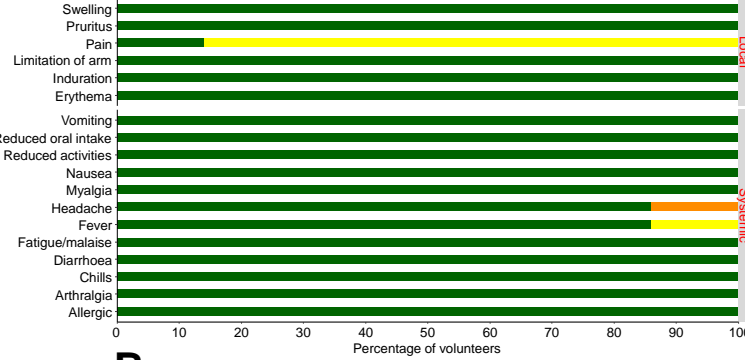
# Figure 2

Prime

Boost

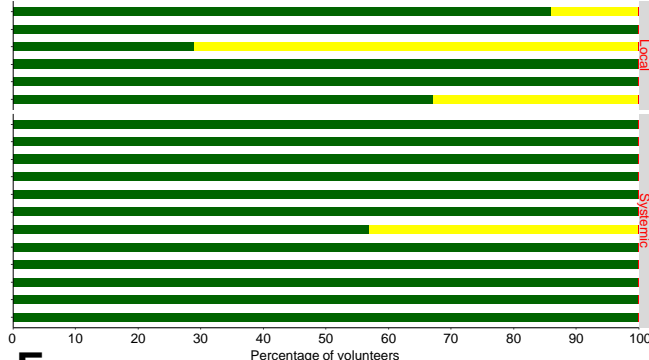
**A**

ChAd 63 RH5 Group 1 (18-35yrs)



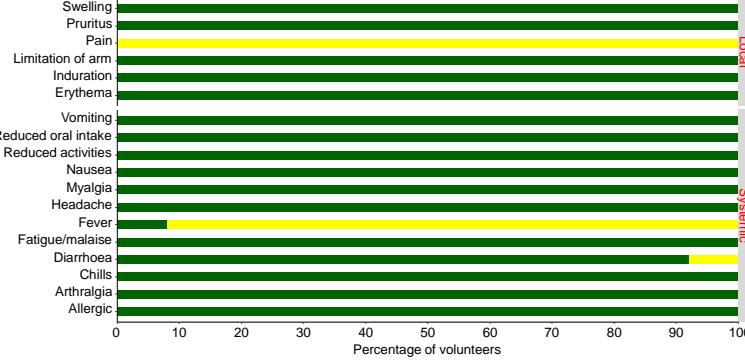
**D**

MVA RH5 Group 1 (18-35yrs)



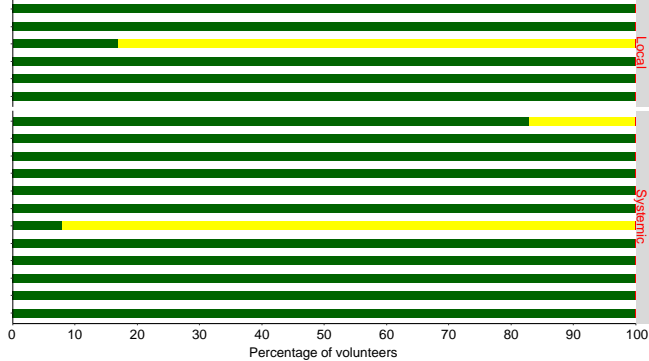
**B**

ChAd 63 RH5 Group 2B (1-6yrs)



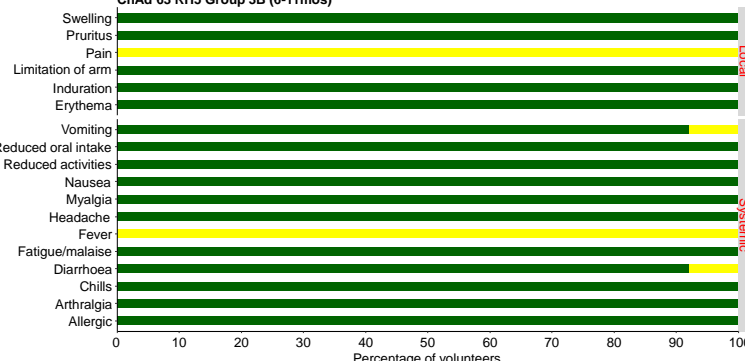
**E**

MVA RH5 Group 2B (1-6yrs)



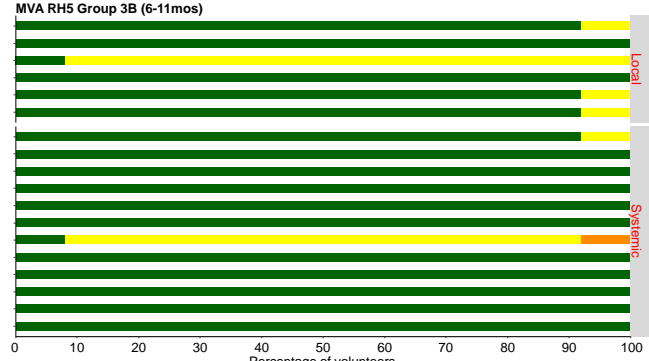
**C**

ChAd 63 RH5 Group 3B (6-11mos)



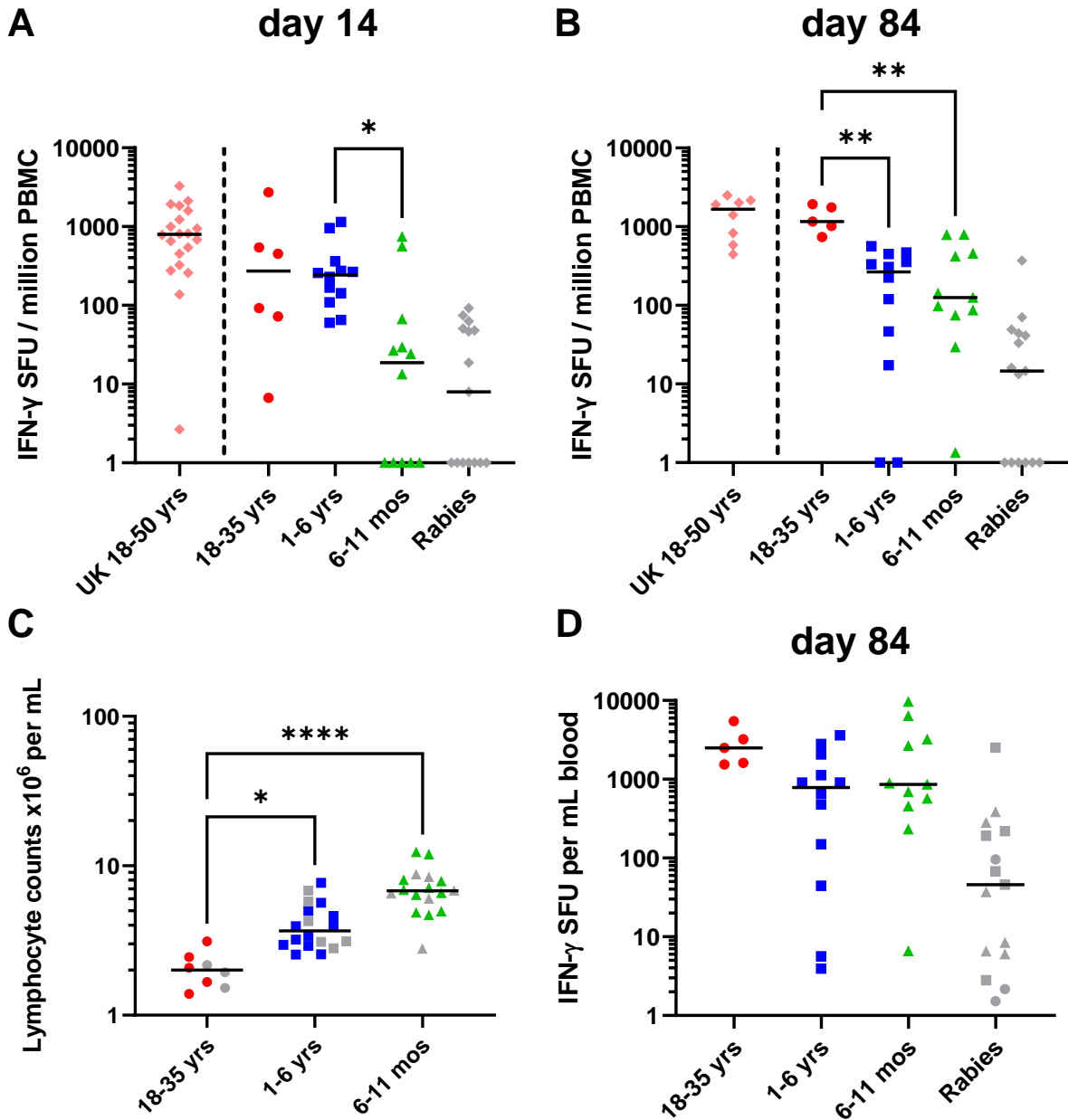
**F**

MVA RH5 Group 3B (6-11mos)



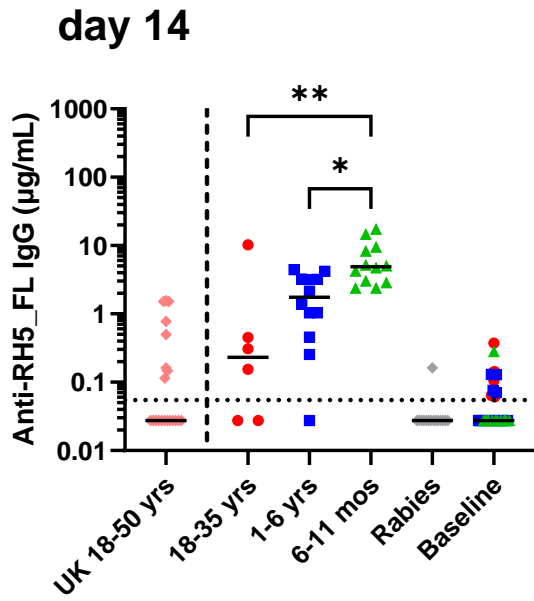
None Mild Moderate Severe

# Figure 3

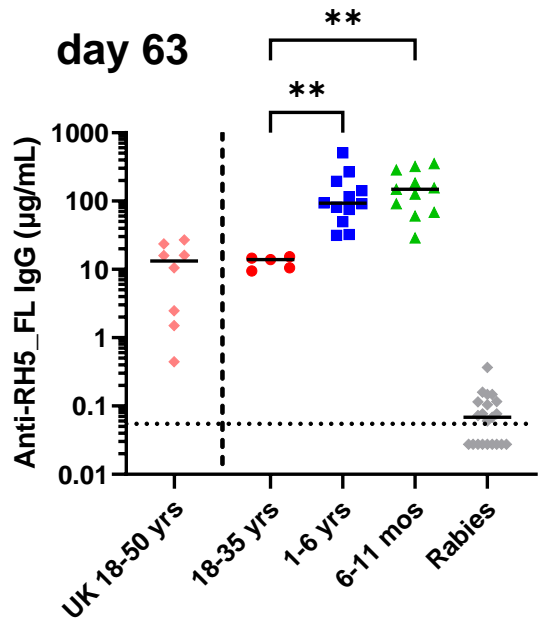


# Figure 4

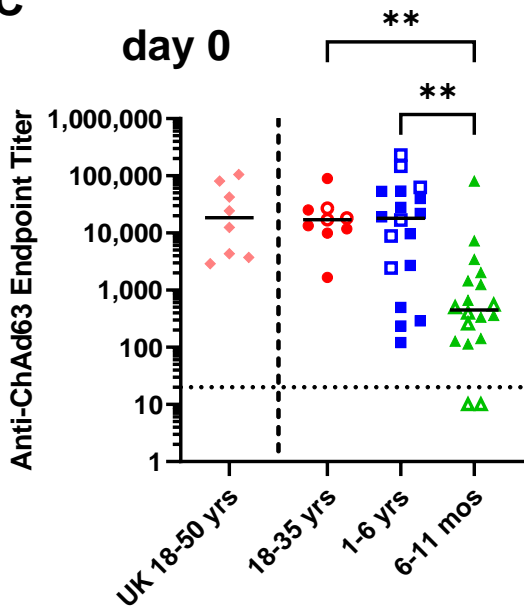
**A**



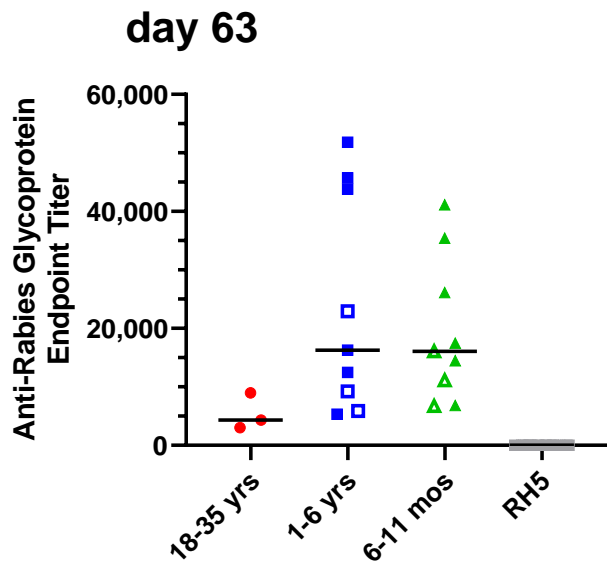
**B**



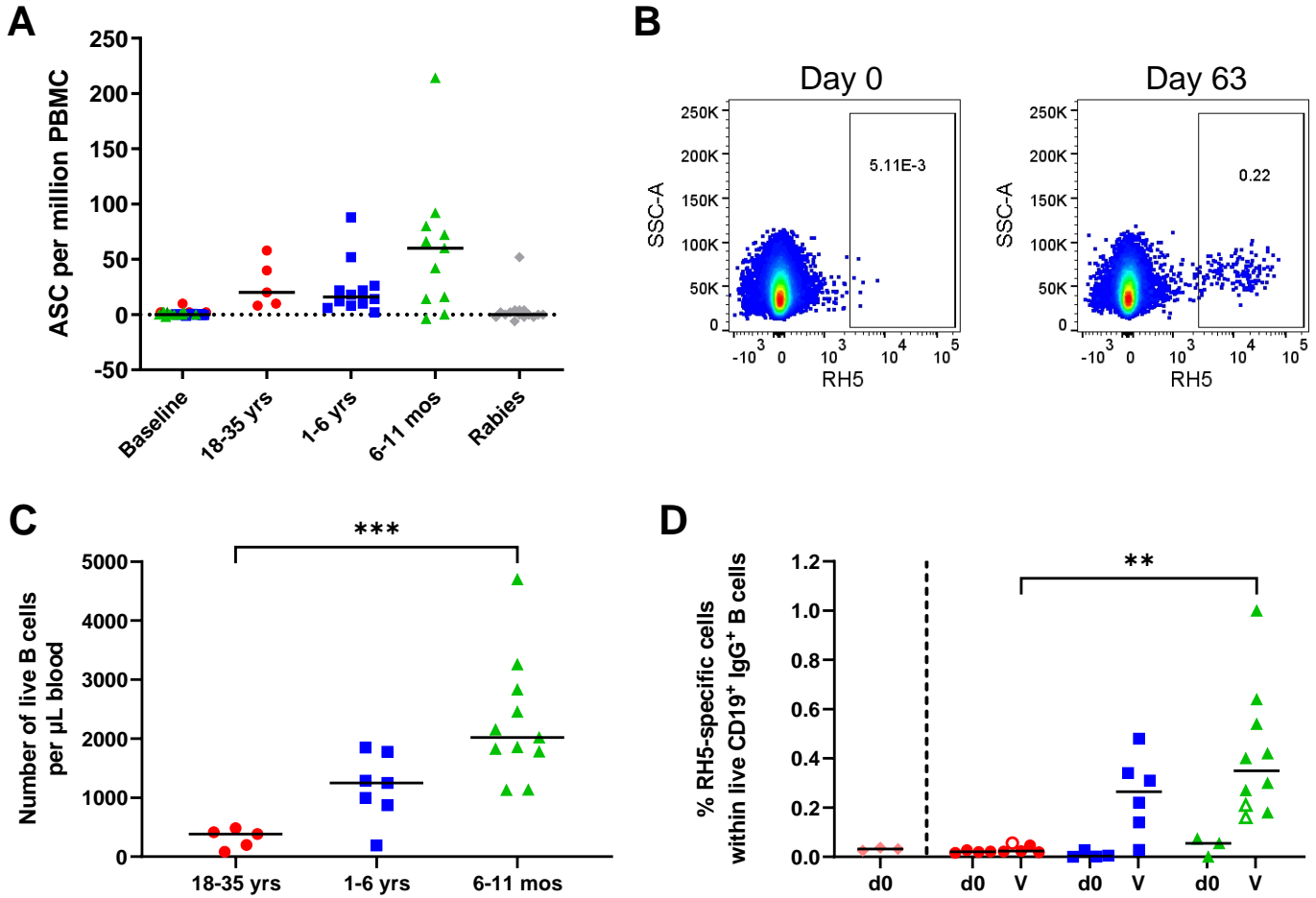
**C**



**D**

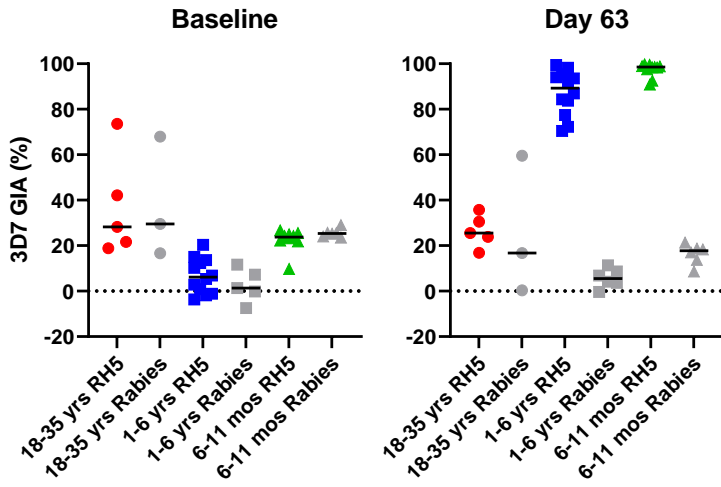


# Figure 5

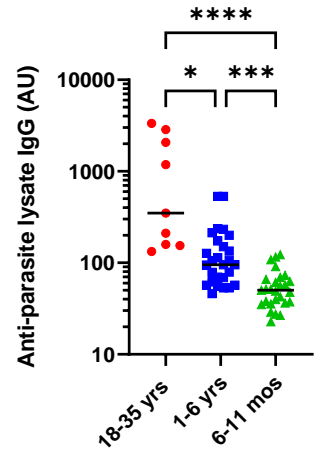


# Figure 6

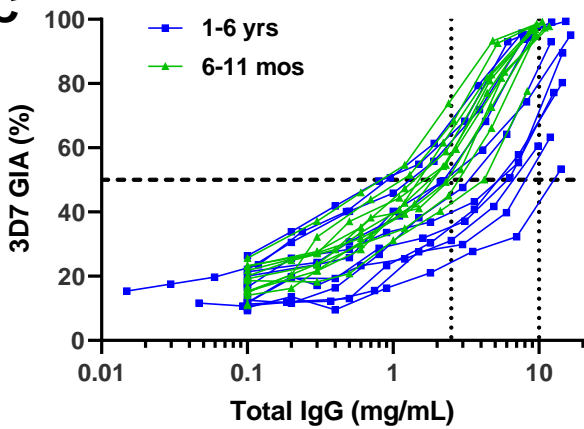
**A**



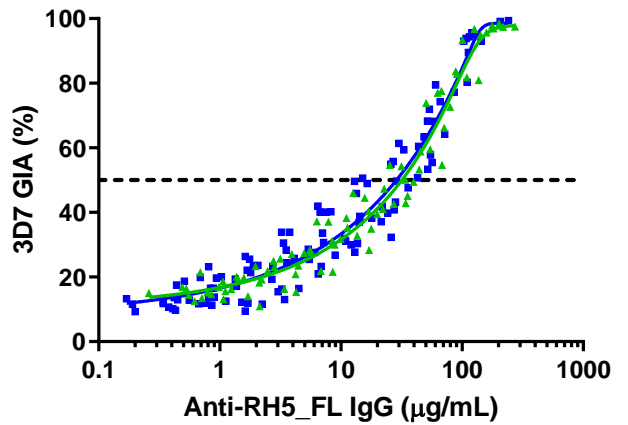
**B**



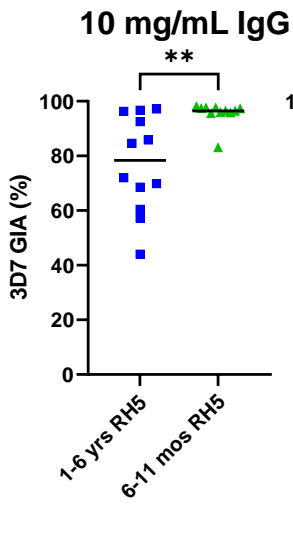
**C**



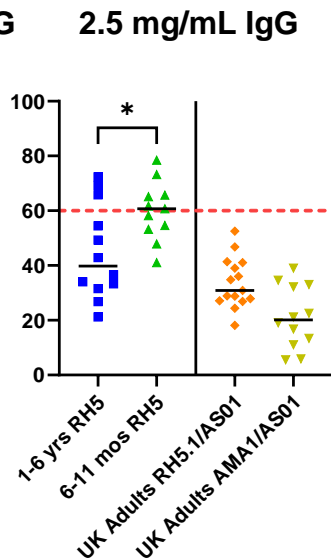
**D**



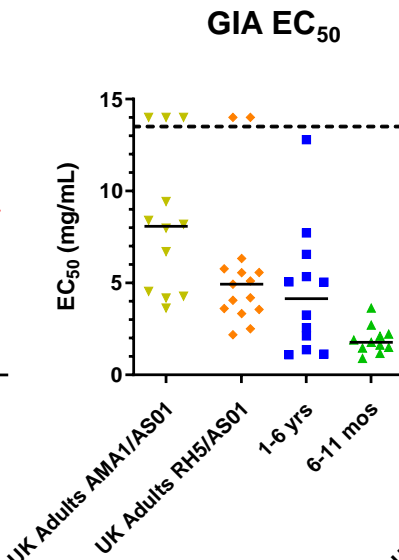
**E**



**F**



**G**



**H**

