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1 **Pertussis Vaccination in Pregnancy: State of the Art**

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10

11 Highlights: Pertussis vaccination in pregnancy is safe, immunogenic and effective

12

13 Keywords: pertussis, vaccine, pregnancy, infants, maternal antibodies

14

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## 22 Introduction

23 Part of protection against infectious diseases at birth, is provided by maternal antibodies transported  
24 via the placenta during pregnancy, and via lactation afterwards. These maternal antibodies wane  
25 during the first months of life: the interval between the loss of maternal protection and the onset of  
26 infant vaccine-induced protection should be as narrow as possible for all vaccine-preventable  
27 diseases [1, 2].

28 In regard to pertussis, neonates are most prone to severe disease and death. Despite high coverages  
29 in globally introduced vaccination programs, there are increasingly outbreaks of pertussis. Cause of  
30 the recent resurgence in high income countries, is multi-factorial [3], including the switch from whole  
31 cell Pertussis (wP) to acellular Pertussis (aP) vaccines with consequences on T helper-1 (Th1)-Th17  
32 versus Th2 cellular immune responses, a faster waning of immunity after aP vaccination in  
33 paediatric, adolescent and adult non-pregnant populations, reduced impact on infection and  
34 transmission by the aP vaccines, etc. The recent resurgence in wP using countries relies on low  
35 coverage and possibly poor vaccine quality [4]. In either situation, neonates are most prone to  
36 severe disease and death. Better vaccines, inducing longer protection, would be an asset in the  
37 combat of pertussis disease.

38 During recent epidemics, national advisory bodies (e.g. United States of America (US) (2011)[5],  
39 United Kingdom (UK) (2012)[6], Belgium (2013)[7]) had no other option than to recommend pertussis  
40 vaccination with a tetanus, diphtheria and acellular pertussis (Tdap) vaccine during pregnancy, to  
41 offer passive protection from immediately at birth, thus closing the neonatal susceptibility gap. There  
42 were, however, major gaps in the scientific knowledge at the moment of recommendation: on  
43 safety, immunogenicity, interference of maternal antibodies with aP or wP infant vaccine responses,  
44 breast milk composition, etc. The present review offers an overview on new insights and still existing  
45 knowledge gaps in this quickly evolving research domain.

46

## 47 Safety of pertussis vaccination during pregnancy

48 Maternal and obstetrical safety, as well as safety for the foetus and after birth during infancy, have to  
49 be considered and monitored when immunizing during pregnancy. The first large prospective study  
50 on safety of Tdap administration in pregnant women, was performed after implementation of the  
51 recommendation in the UK [8]. A number of outcomes were monitored, showing no increased risk of  
52 stillbirth, maternal or neonatal death, (pre-) eclampsia, and other predefined conditions. US data [9]  
53 assessed also the risk of infants born small for gestational age (SGA), prematurity, hypertensive  
54 disorders and chorioamnionitis after Tdap during pregnancy, in a large cohort of 123,494 women. No  
55 increased risk was found, except for a small relative risk (RR) increase of 1.19 for chorioamnionitis.  
56 Chorioamnionitis data were therefore further investigated in the VAERS database (Vaccine Adverse  
57 Event Reporting System, Centers for Disease Control and prevention (CDC)) and the relationship with  
58 Tdap administration during pregnancy could not be confirmed [10]. Very recently, the GAIA (Global  
59 Alignment of Immunisation Safety Assessment in Pregnancy) consortium, supported by the Brighton  
60 Collaboration, offers a detailed frame for collection and analysis of safety data gathered during  
61 pregnancy vaccine trials [11].

62 In summary, all available safety data on Tdap during pregnancy are certainly reassuring [12], yet the  
63 importance of comprehension of background incidence rates and the need for surveillance of  
64 adverse events, should be stressed [12, 13]; also in low and middle income countries (LMIC) where  
65 there is often a higher burden of concomitant diseases and adverse pregnancy outcomes [14, 15].  
66 Since Tdap is recommended to be administered during every consecutive pregnancy, in order to have  
67 as high a titer of maternal antibodies as possible, the safety of repeat tetanus containing vaccines  
68 was recently reviewed and confirmed to be of no harm [16].

69

#### 70 Immunogenicity of vaccination during pregnancy

71 The immune system during pregnancy alters in function of the tolerance of the foetus, but humoral  
72 immune responses are not different during pregnancy as compared to a non- pregnant immune  
73 status [17]. For adults, only combination vaccines are available against pertussis (aP), containing also

74 tetanus, diphtheria, and sometimes polio. Depending on the manufacturer, composition differs in  
75 the number and amount of the inactivated pertussis components. AP vaccines induce high  
76 concentrations of antibodies during pregnancy [18-23] and similar humoral responses were reported  
77 in pregnant as in non-pregnant women [24], yet the stimulation of vaccine specific Th1 type cellular  
78 immune responses seems to be transient and impaired during pregnancy. The importance of that  
79 finding needs more in depth research, in view of duration of protection from disease.  
80 There is no correlate of protection for pertussis, but higher antibody concentrations against pertussis  
81 toxin (PT) and to a lesser extent pertactin (Prn), are related to better protection [25]. Until now, few  
82 data on the functionality, or neutralizing capacity, of the maternal antibodies induced during  
83 pregnancy, have been published [26].

84

#### 85 The role of maternal antibodies in protecting young infants from disease

86 Several studies confirmed the beneficial effect of maternal prenatal vaccination on the antibody titer  
87 in cord blood with endured higher concentrations of antibodies in neonates until primary  
88 vaccination is started [20, 22, 23, 27]. The maternal IgG antibodies are transported in utero by the  
89 placental neonatal Fc receptor (FcRn), and the transport is most efficient during the last trimester of  
90 gestation [17]. Recent Swiss data indicate however, that a longer exposure to higher concentrations  
91 of maternally circulating antibodies is beneficial for the concentration of maternal antibodies in cord  
92 blood (rather second trimester than third trimester vaccination), and hence protection during the  
93 first months of life [28]. A small study showed that even a pre-pregnancy Tdap booster also induced  
94 higher antibody levels in cord blood compared to a control group [29]. The peak response to Tdap  
95 vaccination in adult women occurs at 2 weeks postvaccination [30] and antibodies decline by half at  
96 12 months post-vaccination in the women [24].  
97 Since transplacental transport is more efficient near term delivery, preterm infants receive  
98 significantly less antibodies [31], and they might benefit from earlier vaccination during pregnancy  
99 despite the impaired transplacental transport at the beginning of the third trimester. The optimal

100 gestational age for Tdap vaccination is still subject for debate [28], but effectiveness data are better  
101 when there is an interval of at least 4 weeks between vaccination and delivery [21, 28].  
102 In terms of effectiveness, historical data on maternal vaccination with wP vaccines have shown  
103 effectiveness of the strategy to protect young infants from disease [32]. Recently, baboon challenge  
104 studies confirm the protective effect of maternal aP vaccination during pregnancy [33, 34], however,  
105 offspring was protected from disease, yet not from infection. UK experiences indicate that there  
106 were significantly less deaths after the recommendation was put in place [35, 36], with a sustained  
107 effect 3 years after implementation. In addition, the number of hospitalisations of young infants for  
108 pertussis disease after the recommendation was made, reduced significantly, with a more  
109 pronounced effect whenever prenatal vaccination was performed with larger interval before  
110 delivery. Overall mortality decreased also in Argentina after introduction of the maternal vaccination  
111 strategy, with highest reduction rate among the very young [37, 38]. Winter et al [39] report  
112 effectiveness of the strategy on the severity of the pertussis cases among young infants whose  
113 mothers were vaccinated: they has significantly lower risk of hospitalisation and intensive care unit  
114 admission and shorter hospital stay.

115

#### 116 Interference by maternal antibodies on infant immune responses

117 In the presence of high concentrations of maternal antibodies (naturally induced after infection),  
118 blunting of the infant responses to wP vaccines has been described in the past [40-42]. At present,  
119 studies in UK [43], Belgium [23] and Vietnam [22] report significant blunting of infant responses on  
120 aP antigens in infant vaccines, whenever their mother was vaccinated during pregnancy. In the UK  
121 study, humoral response to some serotypes in the pneumococcal infant vaccination was also  
122 significantly lower, due to the use of Diphtheria CRM 197 conjugation in both vaccines during  
123 pregnancy (Tdap) and infancy (pneumococcal conjugate vaccines). In Belgium, even the post-booster  
124 immune response to pertussis toxin was still affected by the maternal immunisation [44]. The clinical  
125 repercussion of this blunting remains uncertain. We need more detailed data on infant responses in

126 the presence of maternal antibodies, to vaccines from several manufacturers (different composition  
127 of antigens), with different infant vaccine schedules and distinct starting ages, intervals, and number  
128 of doses.

129 Knowledge on the functionality of the infant antibodies, induced in the presence of maternal  
130 antibodies, is lacking as well as insight in the cellular immune responses of young infants after  
131 immunisation, in the presence of high concentrations of maternal antibodies. Several initiatives are  
132 ongoing to unravel these questions. Delaying the primary infant vaccination to avoid interference,  
133 would need high coverages of the recommended strategy in order not to have a longer susceptibility  
134 gap in infants from unvaccinated women.

135 Interference should also be kept in mind, when extending the recommendations to LMIC. Tetanus  
136 vaccination is recommended during pregnancy within the EPI schedule, with a global coverage of  
137 over 75% in 2012 [45]. This strategy is well accepted, offering a platform to possibly add pertussis  
138 vaccine, since high burden of pertussis disease is estimated in LMIC [45], despite underreporting,  
139 under-diagnosis and a lack of technical possibilities for confirmation of cases. Given the data on  
140 blunting effects by maternal antibodies, the influence of high concentrations of aP induced maternal  
141 antibodies on infant vaccine responses to a wP vaccines, should first be investigated.

142

#### 143 Adherence to recommendations

144 One crucial factor in this entire story, is the acceptance of the strategy by the health care  
145 professional (HCP) taking care of pregnant women, and the acceptance by the target group. National  
146 coverage data differ in countries where the recommendation has been put in place: UK coverage  
147 went up to over 80% at the start of the implementation in 2012 and was 56.4% in 2014 [46]; in  
148 Flanders, Belgium, the coverage was 64% in 2014 [47] , and in Argentina the coverage was 56.9% in  
149 2014 [38]. A review on the influencing factors for vaccine acceptance during pregnancy [48]  
150 described that the main barriers for the women related to vaccine safety, belief that the vaccine is  
151 not needed or effective, lack of recommendation by HCP, low knowledge about vaccines, access

152 issues, cost, conflicting advice. The HCP barriers related to inadequate training and inadequate  
153 workload. We confirmed in Belgium a few of these hurdles and identified specific at risk groups for  
154 not receiving the vaccine, mainly in a sociological context, as did others: women with migration  
155 background [49-52], lower maternal educational level [49], maternal unemployment, provider's  
156 attitude (not offered by HCP or discouraged by HCP) [47].

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160 Conclusion

161 Pertussis immunisation during pregnancy has been recommended in several high income countries,  
162 as it is the only possible means, with the currently available vaccines, to protect young infants from  
163 (severe) pertussis disease. The strategy is safe and effective, based on the currently available data.  
164 There are indications of a blunting effect by the vaccine induced maternal antibodies, on the infant  
165 immune responses to aP vaccines, yet the clinical meaning is unclear. Despite research on other  
166 maternal vaccination possibilities, like flu and tetanus, many gaps remain in our basic knowledge,  
167 included in Table 1.

168

169 Table 1: existing evidence (Including indications of knowledge, that might need more evidence) and  
170 knowledge gaps regarding Tdap vaccination in pregnancy.

171

172

173

174 Research opportunities are plenty, in this quickly evolving field.

175 The future looks promising: the gained knowledge on pertussis and flu, will and is already used to  
176 combat other diseases e.g. RSV infection in young infants, GBS infection in neonates and congenital  
177 CMV disease, for which maternal immunisation will certainly make a difference in reducing infant  
178 disease burden.

179

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322

### 323 **Conflict of interest statement**

324 Authors do not have a commercial or other association that might pose a conflict of interest (e.g.,  
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327