

1 Reduced placental transfer of antibodies against microbial and  
2 vaccine antigens in HIV-infected women in Mozambique

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Antibody transplacental transfer is essential for conferring protection in newborns against  
26 infectious diseases. This transfer may be affected by gestational age and maternal infections,  
27 although the effects are not consistent across studies. We measured total IgG and IgG subclasses  
28 by quantitative suspension array technology against fourteen pathogens and vaccine antigens,  
29 including target of maternal immunization, in 341 delivering HIV- and HIV+ mother-infant pairs  
30 from southern Mozambique. Maternal antibody levels were the main determinant of cord  
31 antibody levels. HIV broadly reduced the placental transfer and cord levels of IgG and IgG1, but  
32 also IgG2 to half of the antigens. *Plasmodium falciparum* exposure and prematurity were  
33 negatively associated with cord antibody levels and placental transfer but this was antigen-  
34 subclass dependent. These findings suggest maternal infections may impact the efficacy of  
35 maternal immunization and confirm the lower transfer of antibodies as one of the causes  
36 underlying increased susceptibility to infections in HIV-exposed infants.

37 **Introduction**

38 Each year, 2.6 million deaths occur during the neonatal period, being infectious diseases the  
39 leading cause of mortality, particularly in low-income countries [1, 2]. Newborns are highly  
40 vulnerable to pathogens due to their functional immunological differences from adults as a result  
41 of living in a semi-allogeneic sterile environment, where exposure to microbial antigens is limited  
42 [3–6]. For example, microorganisms such as respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) are generally  
43 asymptomatic or cause mild disease in adults but induce acute bronchiolitis, viral pneumoniae  
44 and croup in infants, being those between 2 and 6 months of age at the highest risk, especially in  
45 low-income countries [7, 8].

46 Newborns mostly rely on the protection elicited by maternal antibodies transferred across the  
47 placenta, which provide passive immunity against common pathogens [9]. Neonatal and child  
48 immunization is essential for conferring protection in newborns and infants against vaccine-  
49 preventable diseases [10–12]. Vaccination is among the most cost-effective public health  
50 measures worldwide [13], and regions with high rates of infant morbidity and mortality like sub-  
51 Saharan Africa benefit from the implementation of the Expanded Program of Immunization (EPI)  
52 [14]. Nevertheless, acquisition of immunity from vaccination is not immediate and vaccines are  
53 not available for all infectious diseases. At present, only three vaccines are being administered at  
54 birth in some countries: Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG), hepatitis B virus (HBV) and oral polio  
55 vaccine (OPV) [10, 15].

56 Transplacental transfer of antibodies occurs in utero and it is facilitated by neonatal fragment  
57 crystallisable (Fc) region receptor (FcRn), expressed in the human syncytiotrophoblast [16]. Only  
58 IgG is transferred across the placenta, being foetal IgG concentrations higher at the third trimester  
59 [17], although some studies suggest that maternal IgE is also transferred to the foetus as IgG/IgE  
60 complexes [18]. IgG subclasses have different affinities for the FcRn receptor leading to  
61 differences in the efficiency of transfer [19]; the greatest transport occurs for IgG1, followed by  
62 IgG4, IgG3, and finally IgG2 [20].

63 To be effective, the transferred IgG must reach protective levels after birth. Maternal  
64 immunization is a good strategy to prevent newborn infections, ensuring a sufficient transfer of  
65 protective antibodies to the neonate [21]. Maternal vaccination against tetanus, pertussis and  
66 influenza has been implemented in many populations and has been effective protecting young  
67 infants from these pathogens [22–24], and could be used to protect newborns from RSV [25].

68 A number of factors have been associated with IgG placental transfer and cord levels, such as  
69 maternal antibody concentrations, gestational age, placental integrity, maternal infections and the  
70 antigen specificity [26–30], but inconsistently. Placental malaria (PM) has been shown to reduce  
71 transplacental transfer of antibodies against tetanus, measles, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (*S.*  
72 *pneumoniae*), herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1), RSV and varicella-zoster virus (VZV) [26,  
73 31–33]. However, other studies have shown no impact of PM on transplacental transfer of tetanus,  
74 *S. pneumoniae*, *Haemophilus influenzae* type *b* (*Hib*), diphtheria, measles or RSV antibodies [31,  
75 33–36]. The effect of maternal HIV infection is also controversial. Some studies demonstrated  
76 that HIV infection leads to a reduction of the transplacental transfer of *Hib*, pertussis,  
77 pneumococcus, measles, tetanus and *Plasmodium falciparum* (*P. falciparum*) specific antibodies  
78 [26, 27, 37–39], but others have shown no effect [31, 36, 39–41]. Therefore, there are probably  
79 confounding variables that should be considered.

80 In our study, we wanted to assess the impact of different factors, including maternal HIV infection  
81 and malaria in pregnancy on the placental transfer and cord levels of IgG and IgG subclasses to a  
82 broad range of highly prevalent microbial and vaccine antigens in a sub-Saharan African country,  
83 including: *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* (*C. diphtheriae*), *Clostridium tetani* (*C. tetani*),  
84 *Bordetella pertussis* (*B. pertussis*), *Hib*, *S. pneumoniae*, *Shigella dysenteriae* (*S. dysenteriae*),  
85 *Vibrio cholerae* (*V. cholerae*), hepatitis B virus (HBV), measles, RSV, *Cryptosporidium parvum*  
86 (*C. parvum*), *Giardia intestinalis* (*G. intestinalis*) and *P. falciparum*. A better understanding of  
87 factors affecting cord IgG levels will help designing better preventive measures and strategies for  
88 maternal and child health.

89 **Results**

90 Description of participants

91 A total of 341 women (197 HIV-uninfected and 144 HIV-infected) participated in the study  
92 (Table 1). HIV-infected women were older than the HIV-uninfected and there were more  
93 primigravidae among the HIV-uninfected. HIV-infected women had significantly more anaemia  
94 than the HIV-uninfected. There were no significant differences in birth weight or prematurity  
95 between infants born to HIV-infected and those born to HIV-uninfected women. Among the 155  
96 infants born from HIV-infected women, 8 tested HIV-positive at 6 weeks of age by polymerase  
97 chain reaction (PCR) analysis performed following national guidelines. Placental histology was  
98 performed on 307 samples from study participants, of which 3 had acute PM and 8 past PM. In  
99 total, 20 women had PM (positive at placental blood, by microscopy or PCR at delivery, or acute  
100 or past PM by histology), but there were no differences by HIV infection. Peripheral malaria  
101 (positive at peripheral blood by microscopy or PCR at any of the visits during pregnancy) was  
102 detected in 51 women, but there were no differences by HIV infection. Finally, *P. falciparum*  
103 exposure was lower among HIV-infected women.

104 Profile of antibody levels in cord blood

105 We first performed principal component analysis (PCA) of the cord antibody levels and maternal  
106 antibody levels separately, including IgG, IgG1, IgG2, IgG3 and IgG4 to all antigens tested, to  
107 reduce the dimensionality of the data and get insights into the overall antibody patterns. Cord and  
108 maternal PCA looked very similar (data not shown). Cord antibody responses clearly clustered  
109 by IgG subclasses (Fig. 1a) and antigens (Fig. 1b) suggesting different antibody profiles  
110 depending on the antigen specificity. IgG and IgG1 clusters were closer, showing similar  
111 responses, whereas IgG4 and IgG3 were the most distant. *Hib* cluster was clearly separated from  
112 the rest indicating a different antibody profile. Consistently, median IgG and IgG1 levels were  
113 higher than the rest of IgG subclasses and were both similar between them for most of the antigens  
114 with the exception of *Hib* (Fig. 1c). IgG2 had lower median levels than IgG1, followed by IgG3  
115 and the lowest levels were shown for IgG4.

116 We also determined the placental transfer of antibodies, measured as the ratio of cord blood levels  
117 to the maternal levels. The transfer efficiency was greatest for IgG1, IgG3 or IgG4 depending on  
118 the antigen: IgG1 for *C. diphtheriae*, *P. falciparum*, HBV and rotavirus, IgG3 for *B. pertussis*, *C.*  
119 *tetani*, *Hib* and *V. cholerae* and IgG4 for *C. parvum*, *S. dysenteriae*, measles and RSV. The less  
120 efficiently transferred subclass was IgG2 for most of the antigens, with the exception of *G.*  
121 *intestinalis* and *S. pneumoniae* for which IgG2 was the greatest (Fig. 1d).

122 Altered maternal and cord blood antibody levels in HIV-infected women

123 HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women did not show significant differences between antibody  
124 levels except for *C. tetani* (IgG and IgG1), *S. pneumoniae* and RSV (IgG2), and *C. diphtheriae*  
125 and *P. falciparum* (IgG4), with lower antibody levels in HIV-infected compared to HIV-  
126 uninfected women (Fig. 2a-2d and Figure 2-figure supplement 1). In contrast, higher *G.*  
127 *intestinalis* and HBV IgG levels were found in HIV-infected women (Fig. 2a).

128 IgG cord blood levels were lower in HIV-infected than HIV-uninfected women for *C. tetani*, *B.*  
129 *pertussis*, *S. pneumoniae*, measles, rotavirus and *C. parvum*. Similarly, HIV-infected women had  
130 lower IgG1 cord levels for *C. diphtheriae*, *C. tetani*, *B. pertussis*, *Hib*, *S. dysenteriae*, *V. cholerae*  
131 and measles for IgG1 (Fig. 2b). Lower *C. diphtheriae* and *P. falciparum* IgG4 levels were also  
132 found in cord blood of HIV-infected than HIV-uninfected women, whereas no differences were  
133 observed between groups for IgG2 and IgG3 (Fig 2c-2d and Figure 2-figure supplement 1).

134 Altered placental transfer of antibodies in HIV-infected women

135 Placental transfer of IgG and IgG1 was significantly lower in HIV-infected women for all antigens  
136 except for *Hib* and *V. cholerae* (IgG) and *C. tetani*, *S. pneumoniae*, *V. cholerae* and RSV (IgG1)  
137 (Fig. 3a-3b, Figure 3-figure supplement 1 and Figure 3-figure supplement 2). For IgG2, only *G.*  
138 *intestinalis*, *B. pertussis* and HBV had significantly lower transfer in HIV-infected women, while  
139 *S. pneumoniae* and RSV had higher transfer in HIV-infected women (Fig. 3c and Figure 2-figure  
140 supplement 3). For IgG3, only *C. tetani* antibodies had a significantly lower transfer in HIV-  
141 infected compared to HIV-uninfected women (Fig. 3d and Figure 3-figure supplement 4). No

142 significant differences in placental transfer between the two groups were found for IgG4 (Figure  
143 3-figure supplement 5).

144 Factors associated with cord blood levels of IgG and IgG subclasses

145 Maternal antibodies, HIV infection and *P. falciparum* exposure were the only variables with a  
146 clear general impact on univariable models and were selected for multivariable models, in which  
147 maternal antibody levels had the strongest positive correlation with cord antibody levels for all  
148 the antigens and subclasses (Fig. 4a). However, the effect of maternal antibody levels was more  
149 variable for IgG3-4 than for IgG and IgG1 subclasses. On average, a 10% increase in maternal  
150 IgG levels was associated with 8.1% to 9.7% increases in IgG cord blood levels, depending on  
151 the antigen. For IgG subclasses, a 10% increase in maternal antibody levels was associated with  
152 increases of cord blood levels from 7.6% to 10.9% for IgG1, 5.4% to 9.6% for IgG2, 5% to 9.9%  
153 for IgG3 and 5.3% to 9.3% for IgG4.

154 Maternal HIV infection (Fig. 4b) had a negative effect on IgG cord blood levels to all antigens,  
155 except for *C. diphtheriae*, *Hib* and *V. cholerae*. HIV infection was associated with a 2.1% to 4.1%  
156 reduction in the IgG cord blood levels. For IgG1, HIV infection negatively impacted cord blood  
157 levels against *C. diphtheriae*, *B. pertussis*, *S. dysenteriae*, HBV, measles, *C. parvum* and *G.*  
158 *intestinalis* (2.9% to 7.1% reduction). For IgG2, an HIV negative effect was observed against *B.*  
159 *pertussis*, *S. dysenteriae*, HBV and *G. intestinalis* (2.9% to 7.1% reduction), whereas HIV was  
160 associated with an increase of 3.3% of IgG2 to RSV. Finally, we only detected a negative effect  
161 of HIV infection on IgG3 levels to *C. tetani* (1.1% reduction) and IgG4 to *P. falciparum* (1.8%  
162 reduction).

163 *P. falciparum* exposure was negatively associated with cord blood IgG levels against *S.*  
164 *dysenteriae* and HBV, IgG1 against *S. pneumoniae* and rotavirus, IgG2 against HBV and IgG3  
165 against *C. diphtheriae* and rotavirus (Fig. 4c). Depending on the IgG subclass and antigen, 10%  
166 increases in *P. falciparum* exposure reduced the cord blood levels from 0.3% to 0.8%.

167 Previous studies suggest that PM rather than peripheral malaria affect transplacental transfer of  
168 antibodies and lead to adverse outcomes due to the damaged placental tissue [35, 42, 43].

169 Therefore, we explored the effect of PM on cord blood levels and placental transfer instead of *P.*  
170 *falciparum* exposure despite the low number of women with any evidence of PM. When analysing  
171 HIV-infected women only, PM was associated with lower *B. pertussis* IgG1, *C. diphtheriae* IgG2  
172 and HBV IgG3 levels in cord blood (Figure 4-figure supplement 1).

173 Prematurity (Fig. 5a), previously shown to have a detrimental effect on placental transfer of  
174 antibodies [44], increased the quality (AIC) of some of the above multivariable models.

175 Prematurity was associated with lower cord blood IgG levels against *Hib* (4.2% reduction  
176 compared with on-term cord blood levels), *V. cholerae* (2.3% reduction), measles (5.8%  
177 reduction) and *C. parvum* (3.8% reduction without statistical significance after adjusting for  
178 multiple testing)

179 The rest of the variables (age, maternal anaemia, gravidity, low birth weight, IPTp treatment,  
180 seasonality; and CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell counts, ART and viral load for HIV-infected women) did not provide  
181 an added value to the multivariable models. Univariable models did not show a consistent effect  
182 of any variable across antigens or IgG subclasses, but some significant associations were found  
183 for age and gravidity (Supplementary Material 1).

184 Factors associated with placental transfer of IgG and IgG subclasses

185 In multivariable models including HIV infection and *P. falciparum* exposure, HIV infection (Fig.  
186 6a) was associated with a generalized reduced placental transfer of IgG and IgG1 (from 2.1% to  
187 6.7% reduction depending on the antigen). HIV infection was also associated with a reduced  
188 transfer of IgG2 against *B. pertussis*, HBV and *G. intestinalis*, but was associated with an increase  
189 in IgG2 RSV transfer (5.4% increase). Although adjusted p-values were not significant, a similar  
190 trend of positive correlation was found for *S. pneumoniae* IgG2 and *Hib* and *V. cholerae* IgG3  
191 and IgG4.

192 *P. falciparum* exposure (Fig. 6b) had a negative effect on the placental transfer of antibodies for  
193 some antigens. An increase of 10% in *P. falciparum* exposure reduced the placental transfer of  
194 IgG against *S. dysenteriae* and HBV by 0.3% and 0.5%, respectively, IgG2 against HBV by 0.9%  
195 and IgG3 against *C. diphtheriae* by 0.6%.

196 PM, in contrast to *P. falciparum* exposure, did not have any impact on transplacental transfer of  
197 antibodies in exploratory analyses and did not improve any of the models, although it had a similar  
198 trend of correlation on IgG. Nevertheless, PM was associated with a diminished placental transfer  
199 on IgG1 *B. pertussis* among the HIV-positive subset of women (Figure 6-figure supplement 1).

200 When prematurity was added to the multivariable models, this additional covariate had a  
201 negative effect on placental transfer of *Hib* and *V. cholerae* IgG antibodies (4.5% and 2.3%  
202 reduction in premature vs on-term newborns, respectively) (Fig. 5b).

203 The rest of variables were not added to the placental transfer multivariable models, because almost  
204 none of the models improved when included. Similar to cord blood levels ones, the placental  
205 transfer univariable models did not show a consistent effect of any variable not included in the  
206 multivariable models across antigens or IgG subclasses (Supplementary Material 1).

## 207 **Discussion**

208 Our comprehensive analysis of maternal and cord plasma IgG and IgG subclasses against a wide  
209 range of microbial and vaccine antigens allowed a depth immunoprofiling, that is essential to  
210 decipher the mechanisms affecting antibody placental transfer and maternal and newborn  
211 immunity in women chronically exposed to pathogens. We confirmed that the main determinant  
212 of cord IgG and IgG subclass levels are the maternal corresponding antibody levels, and that  
213 maternal HIV infection is associated with a generalized diminished IgG levels in the cord due to  
214 low maternal levels but also to a broadly reduction of IgG and IgG1 placental transfer.

215 Maternal and cord blood antibody levels are usually correlated in many studies, suggesting that  
216 maternal levels are the main determinant for transfer efficiency [9, 45, 46]. However, the effect  
217 of HIV infection on placental transfer has not been consistently assessed and the few studies

218 looking at its effect on maternal and cord blood levels mainly focussed on total IgG. Our results  
219 showed that HIV infection reduced the IgG maternal levels for some antigens, the cord blood  
220 levels overall, and also had a negative effect on transplacental transfer of IgG antibodies. It is  
221 interesting that although we found higher maternal HBV and *G. intestinalis* IgG levels among  
222 HIV-infected women, cord blood levels and transplacental transfer were lower than in HIV-  
223 uninfected women. Higher maternal antibody levels against these pathogens in HIV-infected  
224 women may be due to an increased susceptibility to co-infections with these pathogens, as  
225 described before [47–49], but it seems that they are not being transferred as efficiently as in HIV-  
226 uninfected women. This could be due to hypergammaglobulinemia, demonstrated to be common  
227 among HIV-infected individuals [50] and previously shown to impair transplacental transfer of  
228 antibodies [9, 33].

229 Our results are consistent with previous studies reporting that HIV infection led to a reduction of  
230 the cord blood levels and transplacental transfer of total IgG against *B. pertussis* [40, 41], *C. tetani*  
231 [26, 38, 40, 41], *S. pneumoniae* [31, 38, 41, 51], RSV [52, 53] and measles [37, 38]. Some studies  
232 also found a negative effect on *Hib* [27, 40, 51] that is not appreciated in our study (although we  
233 found reduced IgG1 levels in cord in univariable analyses). However, our results differ from other  
234 studies that did not find any effect of HIV status on IgG levels against *C. diphtheriae* [36], *C.*  
235 *tetani* [31, 36], *S. pneumoniae* [53], HBV [36] and measles [31, 36].

236 IgG subclasses may be differently elicited depending on the pathogen, the antigen or the epitope  
237 [54] and the efficiency of the antibody placental transfer is different for each subclass due to  
238 differential affinity of the receptors FcRn. Furthermore, the Fc region of IgG, that mediates  
239 effector functions, vary between IgG subclasses, conferring them different roles during infection  
240 and pathogen clearance [55]. We found that HIV infection reduced mainly IgG1 cord levels due  
241 to an HIV impairment of the transplacental transfer, similarly to IgG. Interestingly, maternal HIV  
242 infection increased the placental transfer of IgG2 to *S. pneumoniae* and RSV, although in  
243 multivariable models it was only significant for RSV. We also found that HIV infection had a  
244 positive effect on RSV IgG2 cord blood levels, although IgG2 maternal levels were lower among

245 HIV-infected women. To our knowledge an increased placental transfer by HIV infection has not  
246 been described before. This may have implications for maternal immunization with RSV vaccines  
247 under development.

248 The efficacy of IgG placental transfer also depended on the antigen. IgG1, IgG3 or IgG4  
249 transferred better than IgG2, except for *S. pneumoniae* and *G. intestinalis*, for which IgG2 transfer  
250 was higher. This was unexpected because it has been previously described that the greatest  
251 transport occurs for IgG1, followed by IgG4, IgG3, and finally IgG2 [9, 20]. However, IgG1  
252 levels were the highest for almost all antigens in cord blood, probably because the overall higher  
253 levels of this IgG subclass in maternal blood. One exception was *Hib* that presented higher IgG2  
254 cord levels than IgG1, although IgG1 transplacental transfer was higher than IgG2 consistently  
255 with previous studies [56]. The mothers had a IgG2-predominant response to *Hib*, and  
256 consequently higher IgG2 than IgG1 levels were found in cord blood as previously described [57,  
257 58].

258 Regarding other variables, our results did not show any significant association between CD4<sup>+</sup> T  
259 cell counts or HIV viral load on cord blood levels and transplacental transfer of antibodies. Even  
260 though these results agree with previous studies that did not find any associations [40, 51, 59],  
261 other studies described that lower CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell counts and higher HIV viral load led to a reduction  
262 on the transfer of some pathogen-specific antibodies and vaccines such as measles and *S.*  
263 *pneumoniae* [35, 60, 61]. Some studies described that HIV-infected women receiving ART  
264 transferred higher pathogen-specific antibodies than those who were not under ART [59] or who  
265 initiated it during pregnancy [62]. However, in our cohort we did not find any significant  
266 associations in regards to ART.

267 At the time of the study, malaria transmission intensity was very low in the area and only a few  
268 women had active malaria during pregnancy. Nonetheless, we found a negative correlation  
269 between *P. falciparum* exposure and both placental transfer and cord blood antibody levels for  
270 some antigens and IgG subclasses. Previous studies are contradictory, as some found that PM led  
271 to a reduction of the transplacental transfer of some pathogen-specific IgG to *C. tetani* [32],

272 measles [33, 37], RSV [35] and *S. pneumoniae* [31], but others did not find any effect for IgG  
273 against *C. diphtheriae* [35, 36], *C. tetani* [26, 33, 36], *Hib* [35], HBV [36], measles [36] RSV [34]  
274 and *S. pneumoniae* [35]. Discrepancies between studies could be due to the different study areas,  
275 with different prevalence of malaria and study sample sizes, different type of antigens used in the  
276 studies, the different sensibilities among the serological methods used, different exposure to the  
277 pathogens tested, and other co-infections.

278 We found prematurity to be associated with lower cord blood IgG levels and placental transfer  
279 for some antigens, as previous studies have shown [44, 63, 64], although the effect was not  
280 consistent among subclasses. It has already been reported that the greatest transport occur in the  
281 third trimester of gestation [17], and due to this fact, preterm infants may have lower amounts of  
282 transplacental IgG than term infants.

283 Our results are important for maternal immunization implementation in settings with a high  
284 prevalence of HIV infection. In our study cohort, the only vaccine given during pregnancy was  
285 tetanus. Although HIV infection was associated with lower maternal and cord blood tetanus  
286 toxoid IgG and IgG1 levels in univariable models, HIV did not affect cord blood IgG1 levels in  
287 multivariable models adjusted by maternal levels. Systemic tetanus vaccination during pregnancy  
288 has been implemented in Africa and has demonstrated a high efficacy [65]. Pertussis vaccination  
289 in pregnancy has also been implemented in some countries, but not in Africa. Acellular pertussis  
290 vaccine induces mainly IgG and IgG1 responses that are thought to confer protection [66, 67].

291 We found lower cord blood levels and a reduced placental transfer of IgG and IgG1 against *B.*  
292 *pertussis* among HIV-infected women and those exposed to *P. falciparum*. These results highlight  
293 the need for further studies assessing the impact of these infections on pertussis vaccine efficacy  
294 and antibody placental transfer when implemented in pregnant women from African countries. A  
295 current vaccine in development for maternal immunization is RSV [68]. Natural RSV infection  
296 seems to elicit an IgG1 and IgG2 response against the F protein, the major target of the host's  
297 immune response [69] and of some vaccines in development [70]. Antibodies binding to the F  
298 protein were protective [71] and Palivizumab, an IgG1 monoclonal antibody against RSV F

299 protein with neutralizing function, has shown to be effective [72]. Here, IgG and IgG1 against  
300 RSV F protein had the highest levels in cord blood compared to other subclasses, but HIV  
301 infection reduced IgG cord blood levels and placental transfer in multivariable models. Instead,  
302 IgG2 cord blood levels were increased by maternal HIV infection. Therefore, HIV infection could  
303 compromise the levels of RSV neutralizing antibodies transferred to the newborn and,  
304 consequently, diminish the effectivity of a RSV vaccine.

305 Unfortunately, we do not know what are the thresholds of antibody levels that confer protection  
306 in our study, therefore it is difficult to infer the clinical relevance of the reductions in antibody  
307 levels detected in cord blood from the-HIV infected women. A study in South Africa reported  
308 that the frequency of HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected pregnant women with protective antibody  
309 levels against pertussis, tetanus or HBV was similar, although the overall frequencies were low  
310 (32%, 41% and 30%, respectively) [40]. This same study demonstrated that the proportion of  
311 HIV-infected pregnant women reaching anti-*Hib* protective antibody levels was lower than HIV-  
312 uninfected women (35% vs 59%). Thus, for the implementation of maternal immunization  
313 programs, the effect of HIV infection and *P. falciparum* exposure must be taken into account,  
314 especially after demonstrating that both infections reduce the levels of antibodies in the cord blood  
315 and therefore may compromise vaccines protective effect in the newborn.

316 In conclusion, our results demonstrate that maternal HIV infection was associated with reduced  
317 levels of antibodies against a broad range of pathogens and vaccine antigens in cord blood. Part  
318 of this reduction in antibody levels was due to altered antibody levels in the mother, which are  
319 the main determinants of cord blood levels, but HIV-infection also diminished transplacental  
320 transfer of antibodies. Importantly, IgG1 was the most affected by maternal HIV infection but,  
321 depending on the pathogen, other subclasses were also affected. *P. falciparum* exposure also  
322 reduced the levels and transfer of some antibodies, although overall the effect was lower than  
323 HIV infection. Our findings are important for effective maternal immunization strategies and for  
324 newborn and infant's health.

325 **Materials and methods**

326 Study design and sample collection

327 A total of 197 HIV-uninfected and 144 HIV-infected women were recruited among those  
328 participating in two clinical trials of antimalarial intermittent preventive treatment in pregnancy  
329 (IPTp, ClinicalTrialGov NCT00811421) (Fig. 7) in the Manhiça District, Southern Mozambique  
330 [73, 74], between May 2011 and September 2012, to perform an immunology ancillary study.  
331 The first clinical trial evaluated mefloquine (MQ) as an alternative IPTp drug to sulfadoxine-  
332 pyrimethamine (SP) in HIV-uninfected pregnant women. The study arms were (1) SP, (2) single  
333 dose MQ (MQ full), and (3) split dose over two days MQ (MQ split). The second trial evaluated  
334 MQ as IPTp drug in HIV-infected pregnant women in whom SP is contraindicated and who  
335 received daily cotrimoxazole (CTX), and women received either three monthly doses of MQ or  
336 placebo. All women received bed nets treated with long-lasting insecticide and supplements of  
337 folic acid and ferrous sulphate. Women also received tetanus vaccination. At the time of the study,  
338 the intensity of malaria transmission was low/moderate [75]. Antiretroviral therapy (ART) with  
339 daily monotherapy with zidovudine (AZT) was recommended when CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count was below  
340 <350 cells/ $\mu$ L and/or when women were in III or IV HIV WHO clinical stage [76].

341 At delivery, blood samples from women (peripheral, placental and cord blood) were collected  
342 into sodium heparin and EDTA vacutainers. Plasma samples from peripheral blood and cord  
343 blood were available for this study from 332 (195 HIV-uninfected and 137 HIV-infected) and 303  
344 women (178 HIV-uninfected and 125 HIV-infected), respectively. There were 294 mother-cord  
345 paired samples.

346 For the detection of *P. falciparum* species, thick and thin blood smears were assessed according  
347 to standard procedures [73, 74]. Fifty  $\mu$ l of maternal peripheral, placental, and cord blood samples  
348 were collected on filter papers for the detection of *P. falciparum* by means of a real-time  
349 quantitative polymerase-chain-reaction (qPCR) assay targeting the 18S ribosomal RNA [77].  
350 Tissue samples from the maternal side of the placenta were also collected for the assessment of  
351 placental malaria. Microscopy data of peripheral and placental blood smears at delivery were

352 available for 308 and 340 women, respectively. Peripheral and placental blood qPCR data were  
353 available for 242 and 236 women, respectively.

354 Antibody assays

355 Quantitative suspension array technology (qSAT) assays applying the xMAP™ technology  
356 (Luminex Corp., TX) were used to measure antigen-specific IgG, IgG1, IgG2, IgG3 and IgG4  
357 responses to vaccine and pathogen antigens. A total of 16 recombinant proteins were selected for  
358 the analysis: diphtheria toxoid (*Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, Alpha Diagnostic DTOX15-N-  
359 500), tetanus toxin (*Clostridium tetani*, Santa Cruz SC222347), pertussis toxin (*Bordetella*  
360 *pertussis*, Santa Cruz SC200837), *Hib* Oligosaccharide (BEI Resources NR12268),  
361 pneumococcal surface protein A (PspA, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, BEI Resources NR33179),  
362 shiga toxin (*Shigella dysenteriae*, BEI Resources NR4676), anti-O-specific polysaccharide (OSP,  
363 *Vibrio cholerae*, Massachusetts General Hospital, MA, USA) [78], hepatitis B surface antigen  
364 (HBsAg, Abcam ab91276), hemagglutinin (measles, Alpha Diagnostic RP655), viral protein 6  
365 (VP6, rotavirus, Friedzgerald 80-1389), F protein (respiratory syncytial virus, BEI Resources  
366 NR31097), 17-kDA surface antigen (Cp17, *Cryptosporidium parvum*, Centres for Disease  
367 Control and Prevention, GA, USA) [79], variant-specific surface protein 5 (VSP5, *Giardia*  
368 *intestinalis*) [79], 42 kDA fragment of merozoite surface protein 1 (MSP1<sub>42</sub>, *P. falciparum*,  
369 WRAIR) [80], merozoite surface protein 2 (MSP2, *P. falciparum*, University of Edinburgh) [81]  
370 and exported protein 1 (EXP1, *P. falciparum*, Sanaria) [82]. MSP1<sub>42</sub> antigen was selected for  
371 representing *P. falciparum* infection. Eight recombinant proteins represent the most prevalent  
372 pathogens circulating in the study area [83–85] and 6 were from the vaccines administrated to the  
373 infants through the EPI in Mozambique [86].

374 qSAT assays were previously standardized and optimized to control for sources of variability  
375 [87–89]. Briefly, antigens covalently coupled to MagPlex beads were added to a 96-well μClear®  
376 flat bottom plate (Greiner Bio-One) in multiplex resuspended in 50μL of PBS, 1% BSA, 0.05%  
377 Azide pH 7.4 (PBS-BN). Fifty μL of test samples, negative or positive controls [90] were added  
378 to multiplex wells and incubated overnight at 4°C protected from light. After incubation, plates

379 were washed three times with PBS-Tween 20 0.05%, and 100 $\mu$ L of anti-human IgG (Sigma  
380 B1140), anti-human IgG1 (Abcam ab99775), anti-human IgG2 (Invitrogen MA1-34755), anti-  
381 human IgG3 (Sigma B3523) or anti-human IgG4 (Invitrogen MA5-16716), each at their  
382 corresponding dilution, were added and incubated for 45 min. Then, plates were washed three  
383 times more and 100 $\mu$ L of streptavidin-R-phycoerythrin (Sigma 42250) at the appropriate dilution  
384 were added to all wells and incubated 30 min for IgG, IgG1 and IgG3. For IgG2 and IgG4, 100  
385  $\mu$ L of anti-mouse IgG (Fc-specific)-biotin (Merck B7401) were added and incubated for 45 min,  
386 followed by another washing cycle and the incubation with streptavidin-R-phycoerythrin for 30  
387 min. Finally, plates were washed and beads resuspended in 100  $\mu$ L/well of PBS-BN. Plates were  
388 read using the Luminex 100/200 analyser, and at least 20 microspheres per analyte were acquired  
389 per sample. Antibody levels were measured as median fluorescence intensity (MFI). Data were  
390 captured using xPonent software.

391 Test samples were assayed at 2 dilutions for IgG (1/250 and 1/10000), and IgG1 and IgG3 (1/100  
392 and 1/2500) to ensure that at least one dilution fell in the linear range of the respective standard  
393 curve. For IgG2 and IgG4 only 1 dilution was tested (1/50) because their usual low levels. Twelve  
394 serial dilutions (1:3, starting at 1/25) of a positive control (WHO Reference Reagent for anti-  
395 malaria *P. falciparum* human serum, NIBSC code: 10/198) were used for QA/QC and to select  
396 optimal sample dilution for data analysis. Two blanks were added to each plate also for quality  
397 control purposes. Sample distribution across plates was designed to ensure a balanced distribution  
398 of groups and time-points. Single replicates of the assay were performed.

### 399 Statistical Analysis

400 To stabilize the variance, the analysis was done on  $\log_{10}$ -transformed values of the MFI  
401 measurements. To select the sample dilution for each antigen-isotype/subclass-plate, the dilution  
402 nearest to the midpoint between the two standard curve serial dilutions ranging the maximum  
403 slope was chosen. If the maximum MFI value of a standard curve did not reach 15000, the  
404 reference value was automatically set up at 15000, since below this point, standard curve data  
405 does not seem trustworthy. If the MFI of the first sample dilution was lower than the MFI of the

406 second dilution (hook effect), the second one was chosen. Plates were normalized using the  
407 standard curve in each plate and the average standard curve from all plates -in both cases using  
408 the dilution of the latter with the value closest to 15000 MFI. The MFI values of samples were  
409 multiplied by the corresponding normalization factor (MFI value of the chosen dilution from the  
410 average standard curve divided by the MFI value of same dilution in the plate curve).

411 The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality confirmed that most of the antibody data were not normally  
412 distributed. The Chi-square and the non-parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests were used to  
413 compare categorical and continuous variables, respectively, between HIV-infected and HIV-  
414 uninfected women. Comparisons of crude Ig levels across antigens and subclasses between HIV  
415 exposure groups were assessed by Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests. Univariable linear regression  
416 models were fit to determine the effect of variables on the cord blood antibody levels ( $\log_{10}$ ) or  
417 the cord blood/mother ratio ( $\log_{10}$ ). The variables considered in this analysis were  $\log_{10}$  maternal  
418 antibody levels, maternal HIV infection, *P. falciparum* exposure, PM (acute, defined by the  
419 presence of parasites on sections without malaria pigment; chronic, by presence of parasites and  
420 pigment; or past, by the presence of pigment alone), age, gravidity (defined as *primigravidae* and  
421 *multigravidae*), maternal anaemia (defined as haemoglobin level <11g/dL), low birth weight  
422 (defined as <2500g at birth), prematurity (defined as delivery before 37 weeks of gestational age),  
423 gestational age (measured by Ballard score [91]), treatment (defined as MQ or placebo in the  
424 HIV-infected women ancillary study and MQ full, MQ split or SP in HIV-uninfected women  
425 ancillary study), antiretroviral therapy (ART) received before the initiation of the study, CD4<sup>+</sup> T  
426 cell counts (<350 cells/ $\mu$ L or  $\geq$ 350 cells/ $\mu$ L), HIV viral load (<400, 400-999, 1000-9999 and  
427 >9999 copies/mL), and seasonality (dry or rainy). Exposure to *P. falciparum* was computed as  
428 the sum of the maternal IgG antibody levels (MFI) for the following immunogenic *P. falciparum*  
429 antigens: MSP1<sub>42</sub>, MSP2 and EXP1, as antibody levels to these antigens have been shown to  
430 reflect exposure to malaria [92, 93]. Seasonality was computed for each woman based on the  
431 pregnancy period - if at least 4 of the pregnancy months fell under the category of rainy period  
432 (November through April), the season was defined as such. In any other case, the season was

433 defined as dry. A base multivariable model including maternal antibody levels, maternal HIV  
434 infection and *P. falciparum* exposure was established for each antigen and IgG or IgG subclass.  
435 Base model for MSP<sub>42</sub> did not include *P. falciparum* exposure as this variable includes antibodies  
436 to this antigen. We performed additional regression models testing exhaustively all possible  
437 combinations of predictor variables (added to our base model) and selected the models based on  
438 the Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC) and Adjusted r-  
439 square parameters. All p-values were considered statistically significant when <0.05 after  
440 adjusting for multiple testing through Benjamini-Hochberg. All data collected were pre-  
441 processed, managed and analysed using the R software version 3.6.3 and its package *devtools*  
442 [94]. The *ggplot2* package was used to perform boxplot graphs [95]. The *FactoMineR* and  
443 *factoextra* packages were used to perform Principal Component Analysis (PCA) [96, 97].

444 **Additional files**

445 Supplementary material 1: Cord blood levels and placental transfer of antibodies univariable  
446 models.

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455 **Competing interests**

456 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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739

740 **Figures legends and tables**

741 **Fig. 1:** Overview of levels of IgG and IgG subclasses to all pathogen antigens. a) Principal component  
742 analysis (PCA) plots of IgG and IgG subclass levels against all antigens clustered by subclass type. b) PCA  
743 plots of IgG and IgG subclass levels clustered by antigen type. The two principal components (Dim 1,  
744 Dim2) that explained the highest percentage of the variance of the data (percentage in parenthesis) were  
745 chosen for representation. Representation of the a) 10 b) 5 first variables that contributed to the principal  
746 components c) Medians of IgG and IgG subclass levels ( $\log_{10}$  MFI) in cord blood for each antigen d) Median  
747 IgG and IgG subclass placental transfer for each antigen, represented as the cord/mother ratios. Source files  
748 of the medians of each antigen/subclass are available in the Figure 1-source data 1.

749

750 **Fig. 2:** Mother and cord blood antibody levels ( $\log_{10}$  MFI) in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women.  
751 Boxplots illustrate the medians and the interquartile range for IgG (a) and IgG1 (b), IgG2 (c) and IgG4 (d)  
752 subclasses. Levels between HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women were compared by parametric  
753 Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-Hochberg  
754 approach. Statistically significant differences between HIV infected and uninfected women levels are  
755 highlighted with an asterisk. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected women. Source  
756 files of the mother and cord levels of each antigen/subclass are available in the Figure 2-source data 1.

757

758 **Fig. 3:** Antibody placental transfer in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women. Radar charts representing  
759 the medians of each analyte antibody cord/mother ratio in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women for  
760 IgG (a) and IgG subclasses (b-d). Ratios between HIV-infected and uninfected women were compared by  
761 parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
762 Hochberg approach. Statistically significant differences between HIV-infected and uninfected women  
763 ratios are highlighted with an asterisk. \*\*\* = p-val < 0.0001, \*\* = p-val < 0.001, \* = p-val < 0.01. Red  
764 represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected women. Source files of the medians and p-values  
765 of each antigen/subclass are available in the Figure 3-source data 1.

766

767 **Fig. 4:** Factors associated with IgG and IgG subclass levels in cord blood. Forest plots show the effect of  
768 a) maternal antibody levels, b) HIV infection and c) *P. falciparum* exposure (Pf exposure) on cord blood  
769 levels of IgG and IgG subclasses, for all the antigens tested. Beta values, representing the increase or  
770 decrease of cord blood levels ( $\log_{10}$ MFI) were obtained from multivariable regression models using cord  
771 blood ( $\log_{10}$ MFI) levels as the outcome. Beta values are shown when raw p-vals are significant. Asterisks  
772 are shown when adjusted p-vals by Benjamini-Hochbert are significant \*\*\* = p-val < 0.0001, \*\*\* = p-val  
773 < 0.001, \*\* = p-val < 0.01, \* = p-val < 0.05. Source files of the multivariable model are available in the  
774 Figure 4-source data 1.

775

776 **Fig. 5:** Association of prematurity with cord blood levels and placental transfer of IgG and IgG subclasses.  
777 Forest plots show the effect of a) prematurity and cord blood levels and b) prematurity and transplacental  
778 transfer of IgG and IgG subclasses, for all the antigens tested. Cord antibody levels are represented in  
779  $\log_{10}$ MFI. Placental transfer is represented as cord/mother ratio ( $\log_{10}$ ). Beta values are shown when raw p-  
780 vals are significant. Asterisks are shown when adjusted p-vals by Benjamini-Hochbert are significant. \*\*\* =  
781 = p-val < 0.0001, \*\*\* = p-val < 0.001, \*\* = p-val < 0.01, \* = p-val < 0.05. Source files of the multivariable  
782 model are available in the Figure 5-source data 1.

783

784 **Fig. 6:** Factors associated with IgG and IgG subclass placental transfer. Forest plots show the effect of a)  
785 HIV infection and b) *P. falciparum* exposure (Pf exposure) on placental transfer of IgG and IgG subclasses,  
786 for all the antigens tested. Beta values are shown when raw p-vals are significant. Asterisks are shown when  
787 adjusted p-vals by Benjamini-Hochbert are significant. \*\*\* = p-val < 0.0001, \*\*\* = p-val < 0.001, \*\* =  
788 p-val < 0.01, \* = p-val < 0.05. Source files of the multivariable model are available in the Figure 6-source  
789 data 1.

790 **Fig. 7: IPTp trial profile.**

791 **Fig. 2-figure supplement 1:** Mother and cord blood antibody levels ( $\log_{10}$  MFI) in HIV-infected and  
792 HIV-uninfected women. Boxplots illustrate the medians and the interquartile range for IgG3. Levels  
793 between HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected women were compared by parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-  
794 Whitney test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-Hochberg approach.  
795 Statistically significant differences between HIV infected and uninfected women levels are highlighted with  
796 an asterisk. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected women.

797 **Fig. 3-figure supplement 1:** Cord/mother  $\log_{10}$  antibody ratios in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected  
798 women. Boxplots illustrate the medians, the interquartile range (IQR) and the outlier points that are further  
799 1.5\*IQR and black dots show the arithmetic means for IgG. Levels between HIV-infected and uninfected  
800 women were compared by Wilcoxon test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
801 Hochberg approach. ns = not significant. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected  
802 women.

803 **Fig. 3-figure supplement 2:** Cord/mother  $\log_{10}$  antibody ratios in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected  
804 women. Boxplots illustrate the medians, the interquartile range (IQR) and the outlier points that are further  
805 1.5\*IQR and black dots show the arithmetic means for IgG1. Levels between HIV-infected and uninfected  
806 women were compared by Wilcoxon test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
807 Hochberg approach. ns = not significant. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected  
808 women.

809 **Fig. 3-figure supplement 3:** Cord/mother  $\log_{10}$  antibody ratios in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected  
810 women. Boxplots illustrate the medians, the interquartile range (IQR) and the outlier points that are further  
811 1.5\*IQR and black dots show the arithmetic means for IgG2. Levels between HIV-infected and uninfected  
812 women were compared by Wilcoxon test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
813 Hochberg approach. ns = not significant. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected  
814 women.

815 **Fig. 3-figure supplement 4:** Cord/mother  $\log_{10}$  antibody ratios in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected  
816 women. Boxplots illustrate the medians, the interquartile range (IQR) and the outlier points that are further  
817 1.5\*IQR and black dots show the arithmetic means for IgG3. Levels between HIV-infected and uninfected  
818 women were compared by Wilcoxon test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
819 Hochberg approach. ns = not significant. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected  
820 women.

821 **Fig.3-figure supplement 5:** Cord/mother  $\log_{10}$  antibody ratios in HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected  
822 women. Boxplots illustrate the medians, the interquartile range (IQR) and the outlier points that are further  
823 1.5\*IQR and black dots show the arithmetic means for IgG4. Levels between HIV-infected and uninfected  
824 women were compared by Wilcoxon test and p-values were adjusted for multiple testing by the Benjamini-  
825 Hochberg approach. ns = not significant. Red represents HIV-infected women and blue HIV-uninfected  
826 women.

827 **Fig.4-figure supplement 1:** Forest plots show the effect of placental malaria on cord blood levels of IgG  
828 and IgG subclasses, for all the antigens tested, in HIV-infected women. Cord antibody levels are represented  
829 in  $\log_{10}$ MFI. Beta values are shown when raw p-vals are significant. Asterisks are shown when adjusted p-  
830 vals by Benjamini-Hochbert are significant. \*\*\*\* = p-val < 0.0001, \*\*\* = p-val < 0.001, \*\* = p-val < 0.01,  
831 \* = p-val < 0.05.

832 **Fig. 6-figure supplement 1:** Forest plots show the effect of placental malaria on placental transfer of IgG  
833 and IgG subclasses, for all the antigens tested, in HIV-infected women. Placental transfer is represented as  
834 cord/mother ratio ( $\log_{10}$ ). Beta values are shown when raw p-vals are significant. Asterisks are shown when  
835 adjusted p-vals by Benjamini-Hochbert are significant. \*\*\*\* = p-val < 0.0001, \*\*\* = p-val < 0.001, \*\* =  
836 p-val < 0.01, \* = p-val < 0.05.

837

838

**Table 1:** Characteristics of study participants.

	All N=341	HIV-uninfected N=197	HIV-infected N=144	p-value <sup>a</sup>
Age <sup>a</sup> (years median [IQR])	25.0 [19.0; 29.0]	21.0 [18.0; 28.0]	27.0 [22.0; 31.0]	< 0.001
Gravidity (n, %)				< 0.001
<i>Multigravidae</i>	259 (76.0)	128 (65.0)	131 (91.0)	
<i>Primigravidae</i>	82 (24.0)	69 (35.0)	13 (9.0)	
Maternal haemoglobin (n, %)				0.025
Anaemia (< 11 g/dL)	208 (61.5)	109 (56.2)	99 (68.8)	
Normal (≥ 11 g/dL)	130 (38.5)	85 (43.8)	45 (31.2)	
Birth weight (n, %)				NS
Low (< 2500 g)	29 (8.5)	17 (8.6)	12 (8.33)	
Normal (≥ 2500 g)	312 (91.5)	180 (91.4)	132 (91.7)	
Prematurity (n, %)				NS
No (≥ 37 weeks)	312 (94.3)	181 (95.3)	131 (92.9)	
Yes (< 37 weeks)	19 (5.7)	9 (4.7)	10 (7.1)	
Treatment				< 0.001
MQ	71 (20.9)	0 (0.0)	71 (49.7)	
MQ full	68 (20.8)	68 (34.5)	0 (0.0)	
MQ split	73 (21.5)	73 (37.1)	0 (0.0)	
Placebo	72 (21.2)	0 (0.0)	72 (50.3)	
SP	56 (16.5)	56 (28.4)	0 (0.0)	
ART at baseline (n, %)				NP
No	24 (7.1)	—	24 (17.1)	
Yes	116 (34.4)	—	116 (82.9)	
CD4+ T cell counts (n, %)				NP
Lower (< 350 c/µL)	40 (12.3)	—	40 (31.2)	
Higher (≥ 350 c/µL)	88 (27.1)	—	88 (68.8)	
HIV viral load (copies/mL)				NP
< 400	21 (6.4)	—	21 (16.0)	
(400–999)	41 (12.5)	—	41 (31.3)	
(1000–9999)	48 (14.6)	—	48 (36.6)	
> 9999	21 (6.4)	—	21 (16.0)	
Placental malaria <sup>b</sup> (n, %)				NS
No	321 (94.1)	184 (93.4)	137 (95.1)	
Yes	20 (5.9)	13 (6.6)	7 (4.9)	
Peripheral malaria <sup>c</sup> (n, %)				NS
No	290 (85.0)	165 (83.8)	125 (86.8)	
Yes	51 (15.0)	32 (16.2)	19 (13.2)	
<i>P. falciparum</i> exposure ( $\log_{10}$ MFI IgG)	5.27 [5.19; 5.34]	5.29 [5.21; 5.35]	5.26 [5.18; 5.33]	0.011

For numerical variables, the median and first and third quartile, in brackets, are given. For the categorical variables the number of individuals for each group and percentages, in parentheses, are given.

<sup>a</sup> For the age, the Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test was used to compare differences between median values. For the categorical variables, the Chi-square test was used.

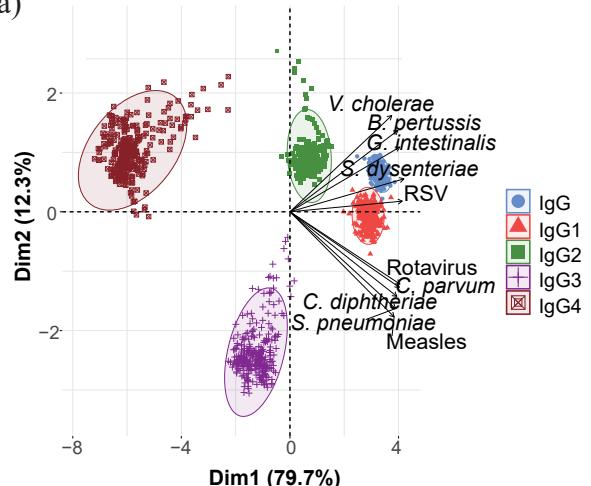
<sup>b</sup> Placental malaria was considered positive if there was any evidence of *P. falciparum* placental parasitaemia by any method.

<sup>c</sup> Peripheral malaria was considered positive if there was any evidence of *P. falciparum* peripheral parasitaemia by any method.

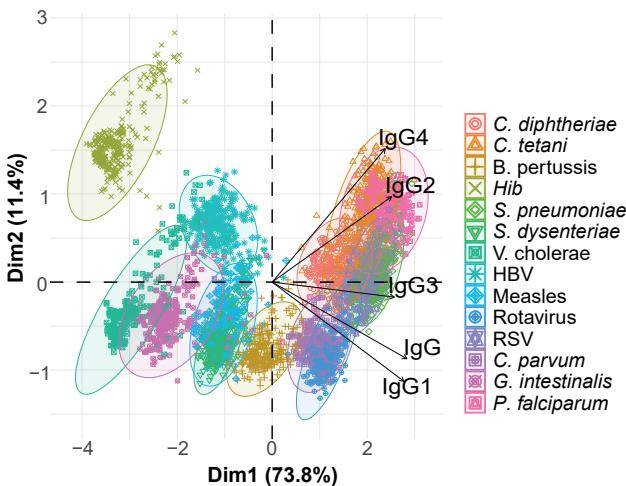
The statistical significance was considered when  $p$ -value <0.05; MQ, mefloquine; NS, not significant; NP, not-performed tests; SP, sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine.

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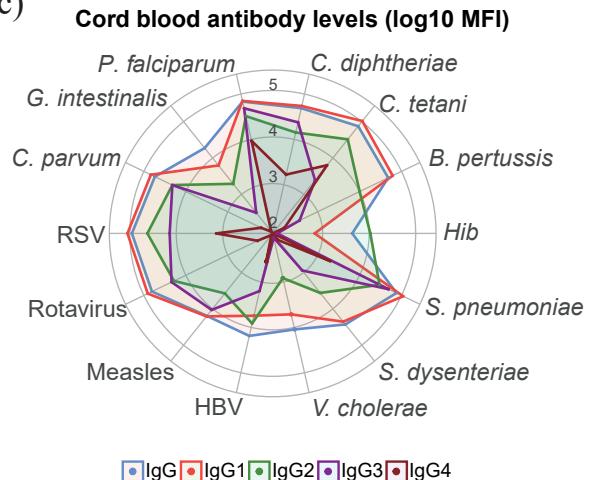
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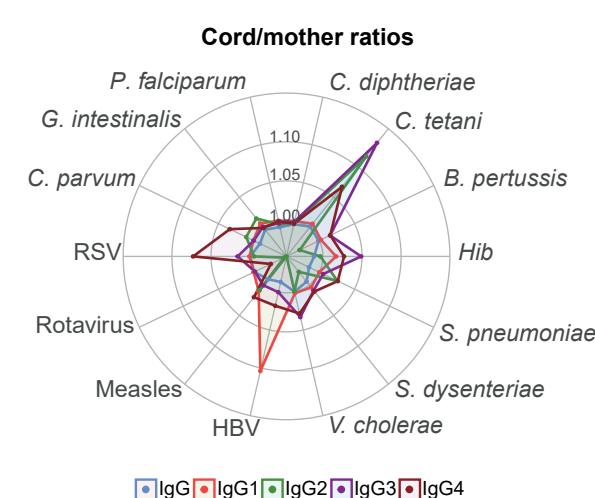
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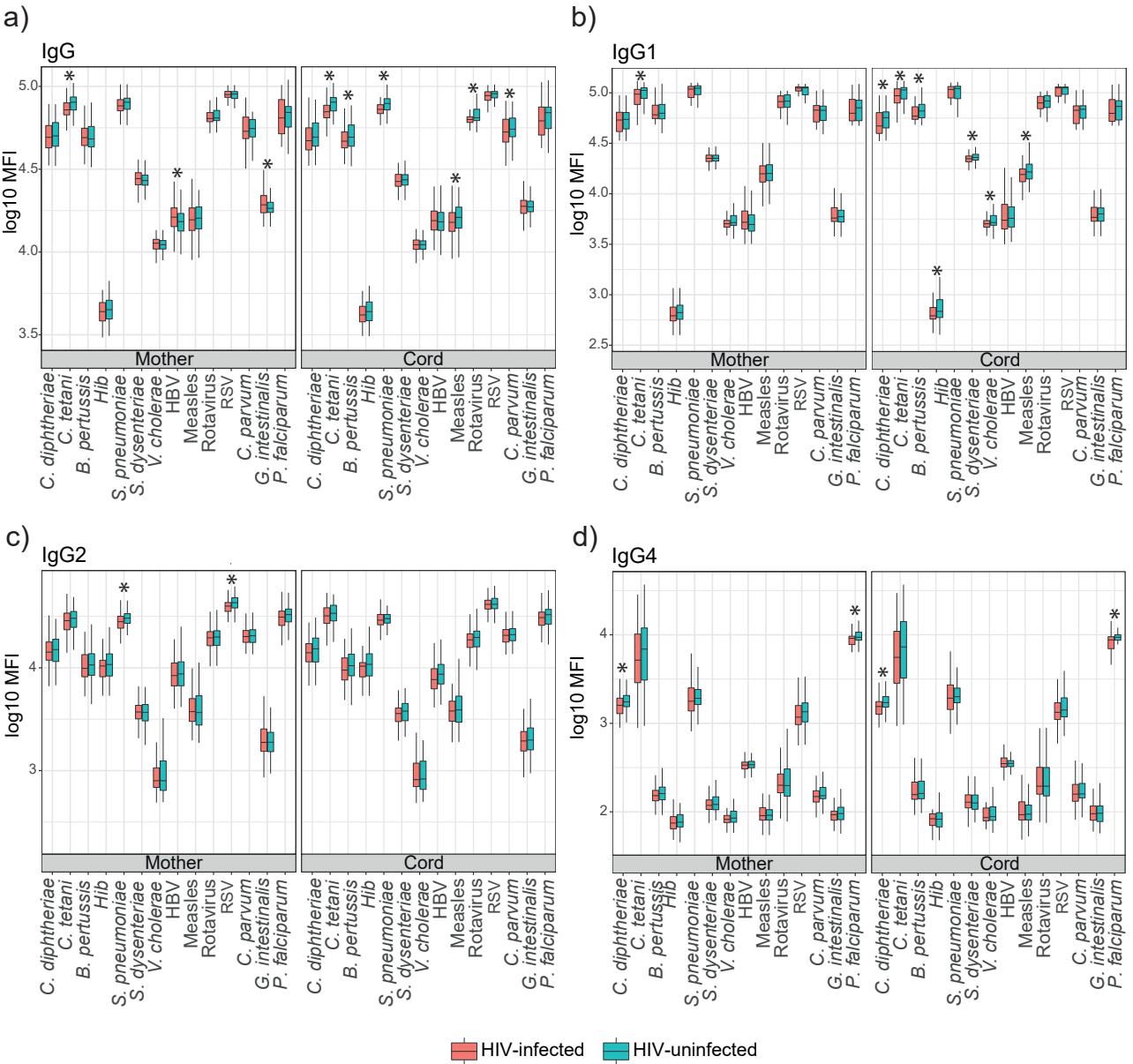


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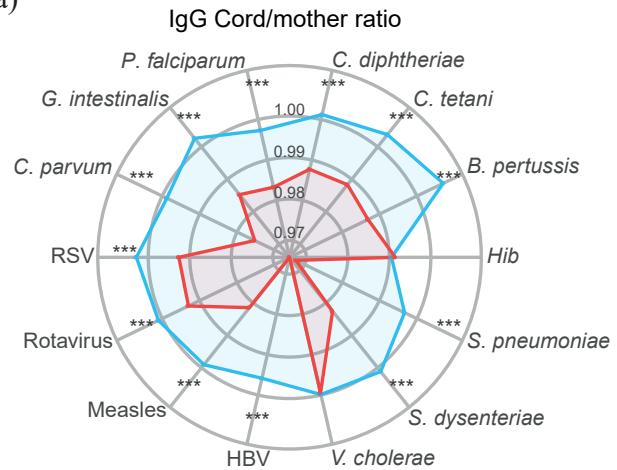


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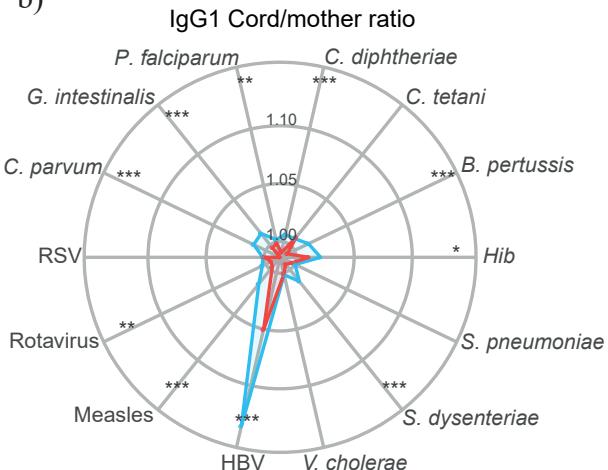




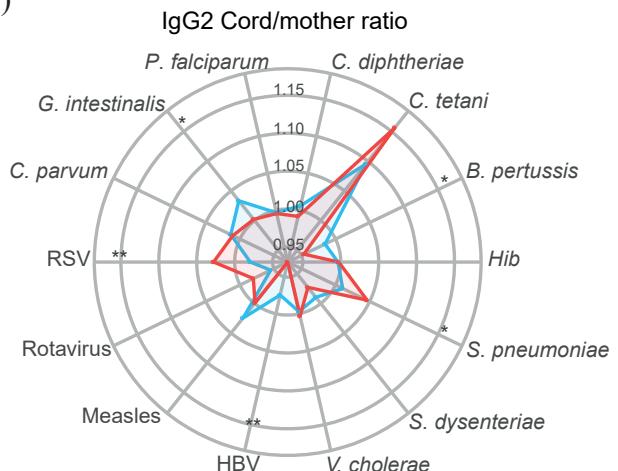
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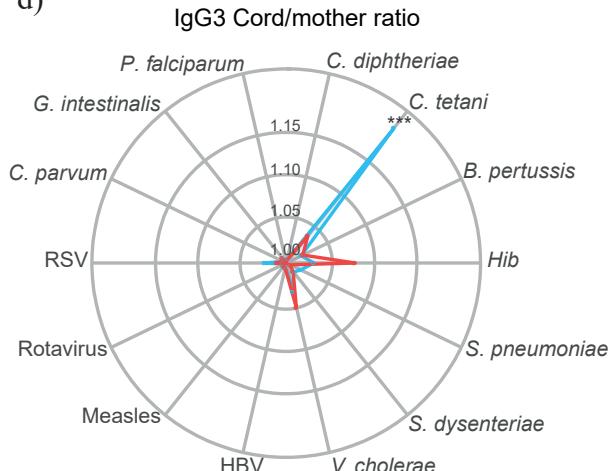
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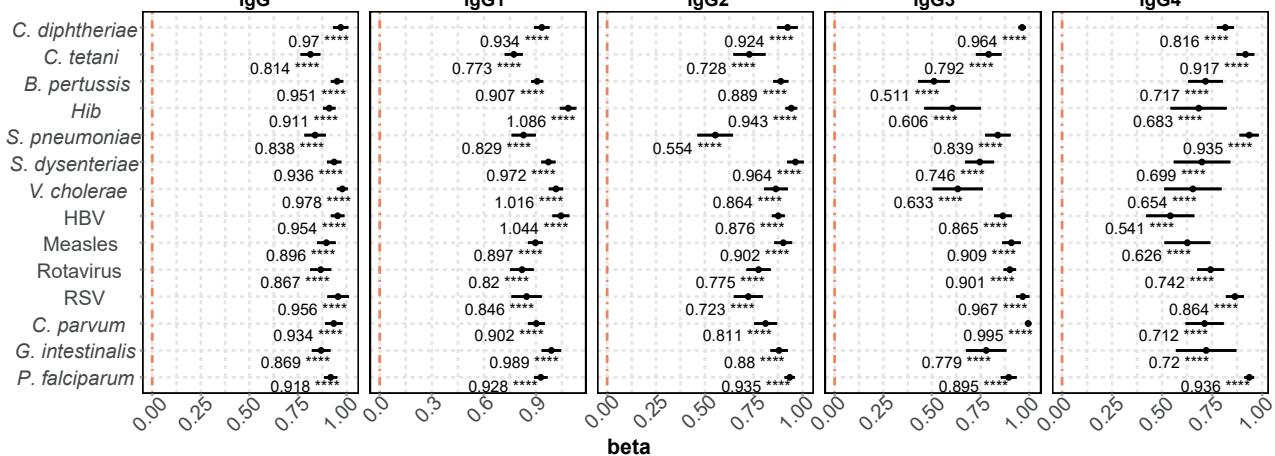
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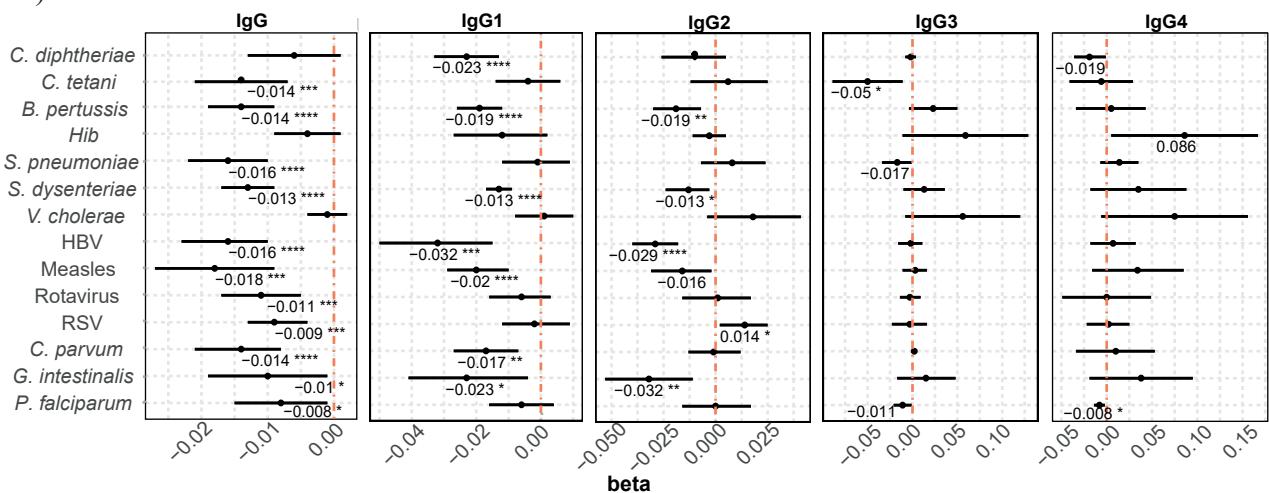
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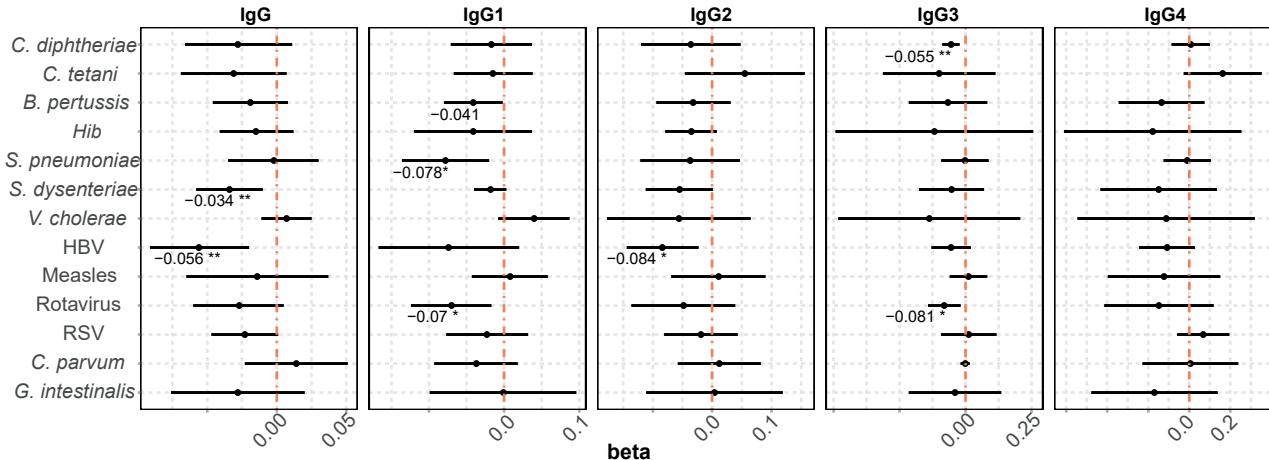
a)

**Maternal levels**

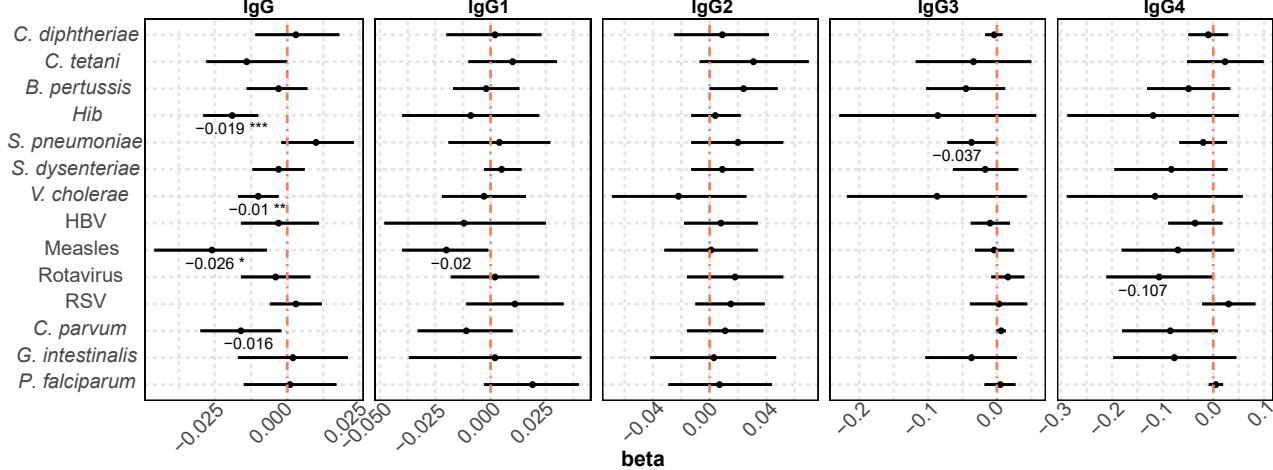
b)

**HIV infection**

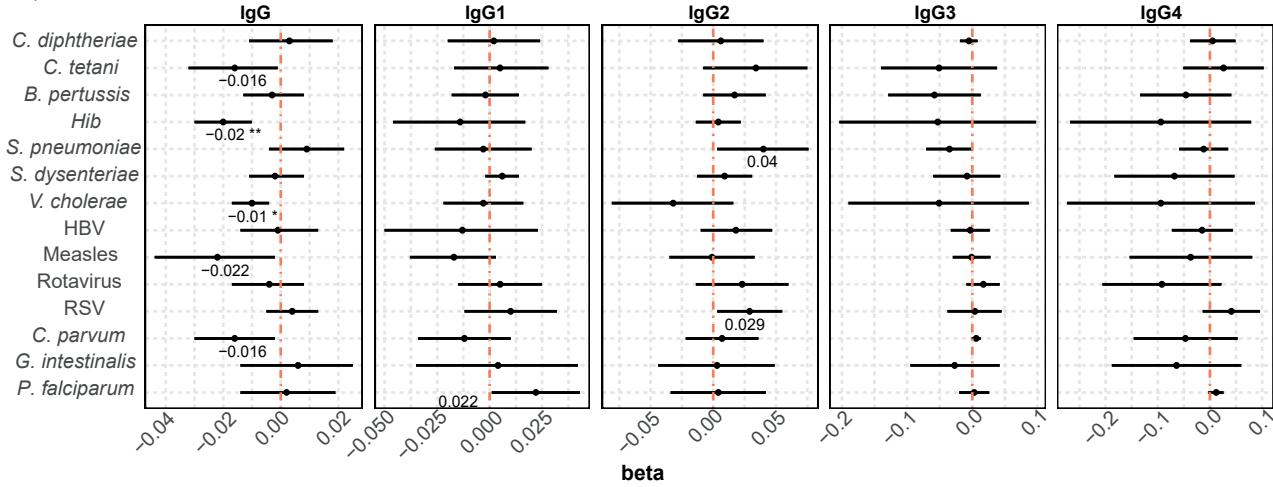
c)

**Pf exposure**

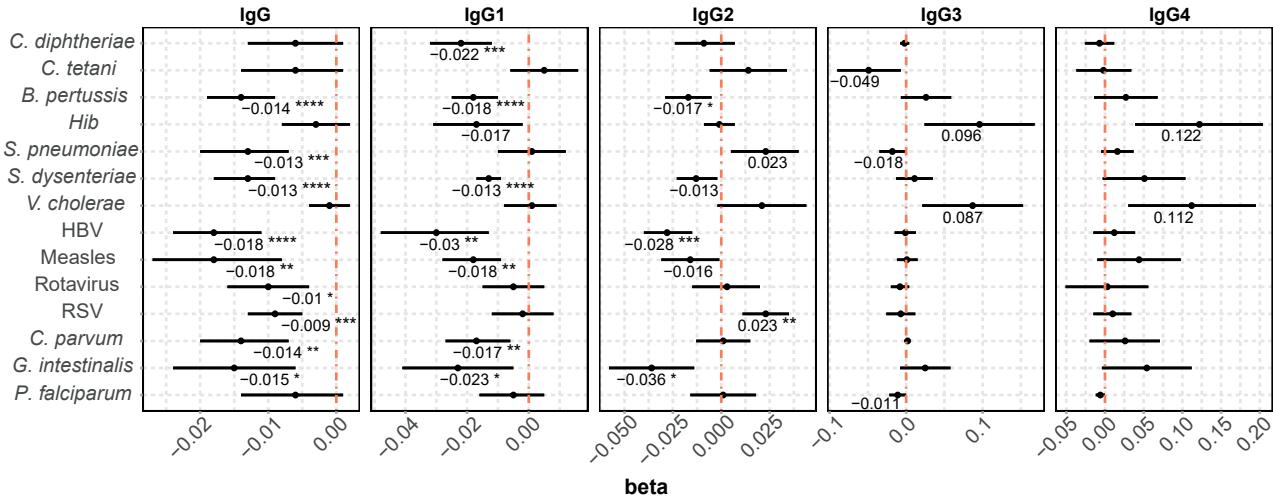
a) Cord blood levels & Prematurity



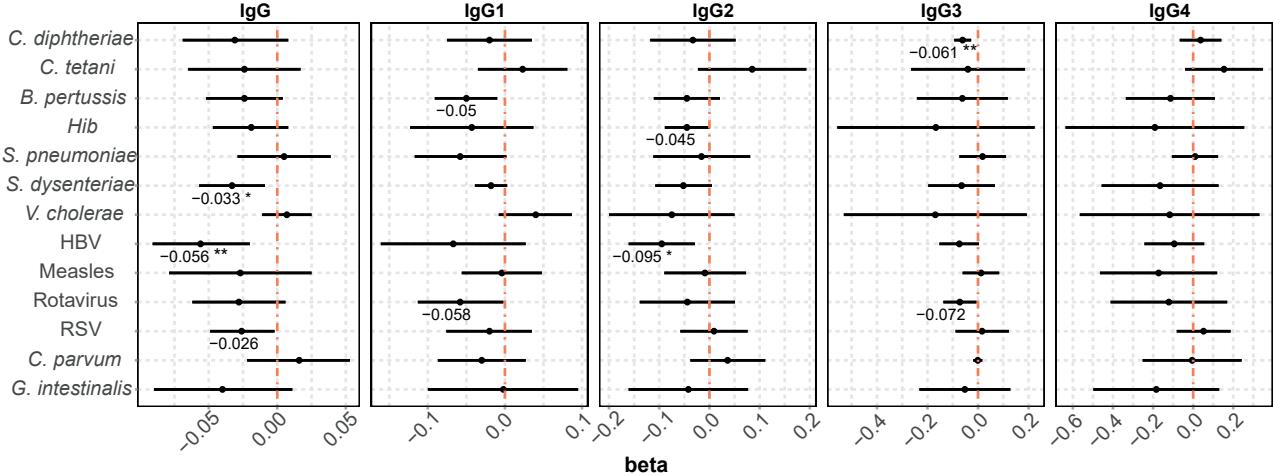
b) Placental transfer & Prematurity



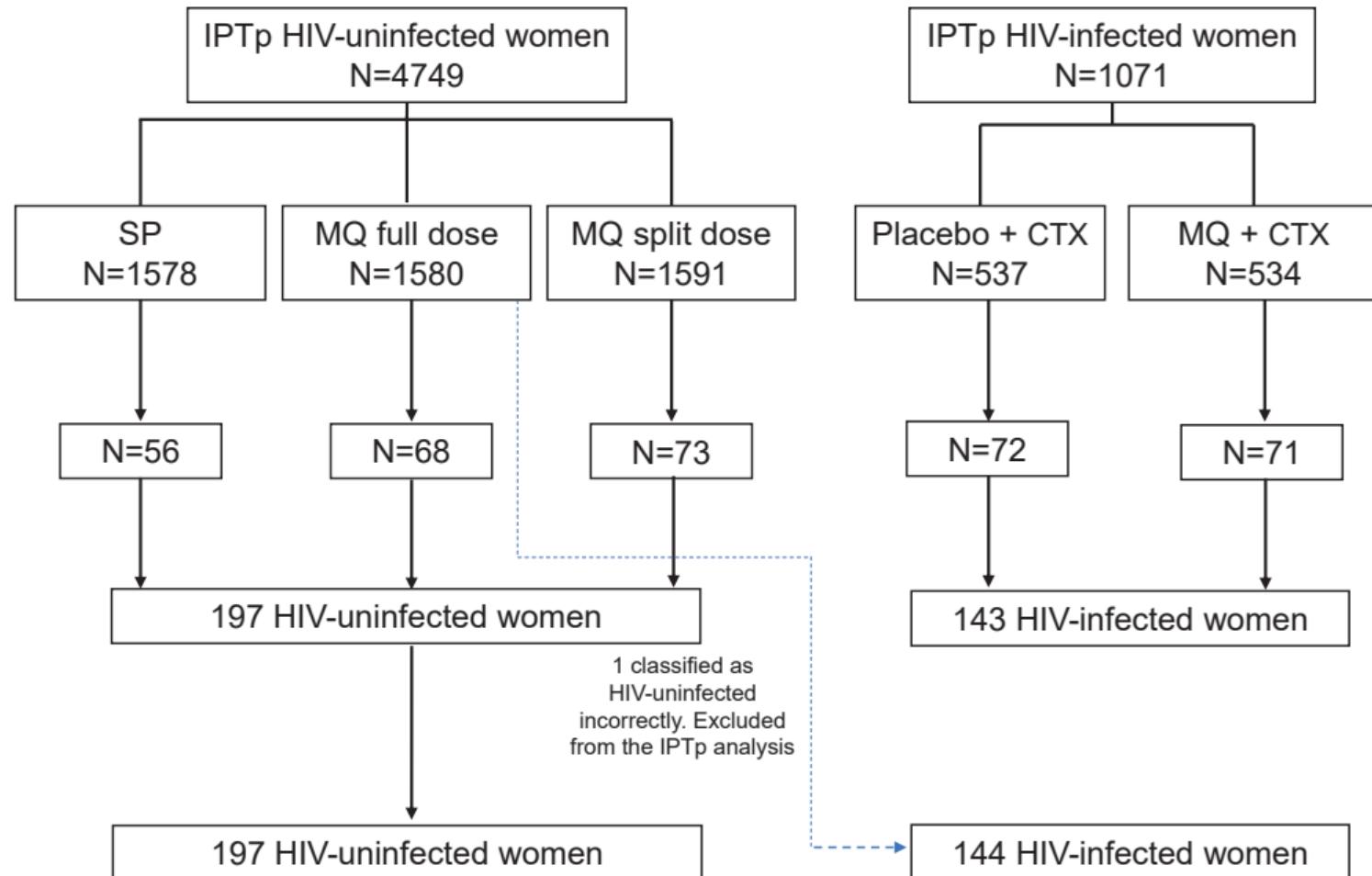
a)

**HIV infection**

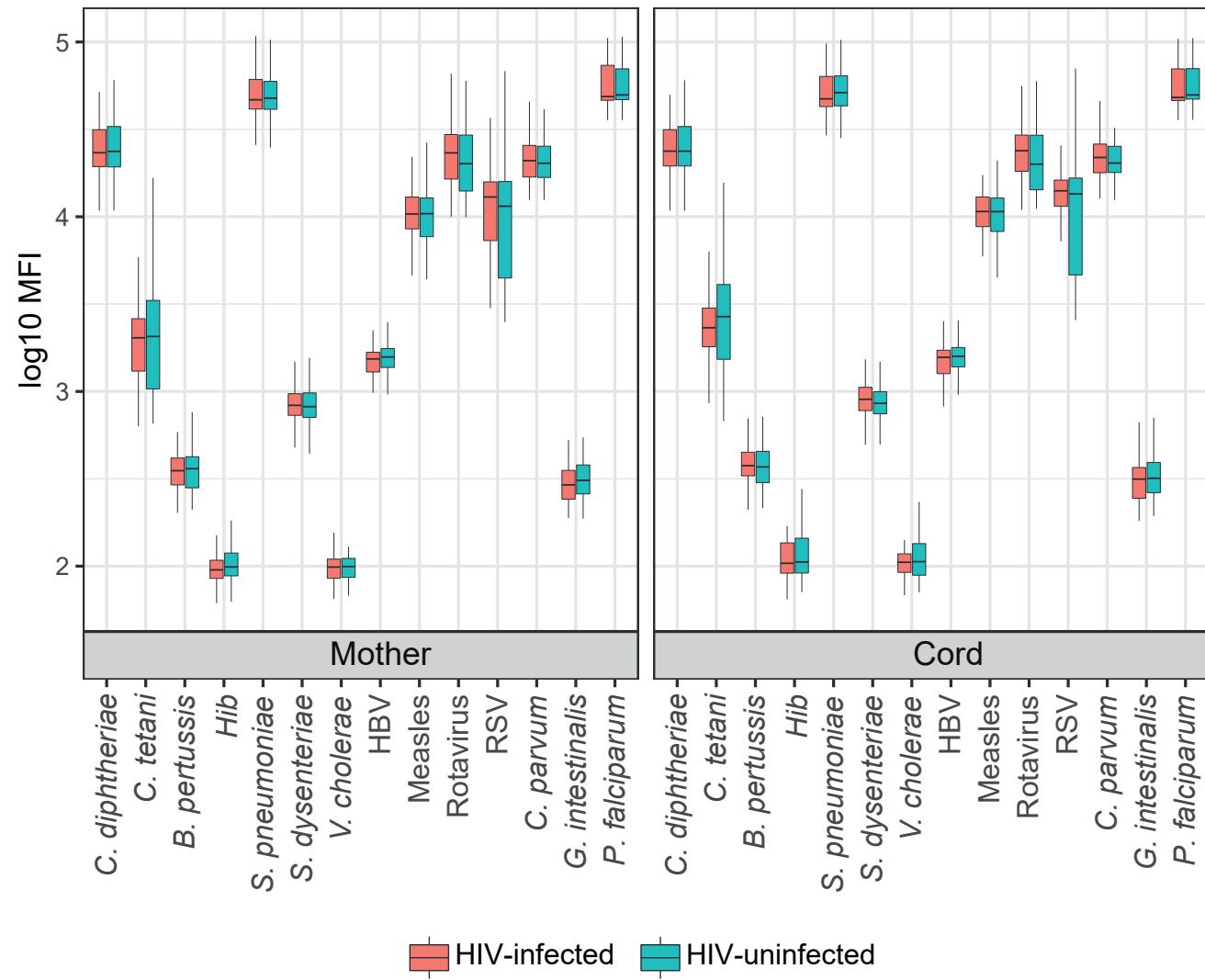
b)

**Pf exposure**

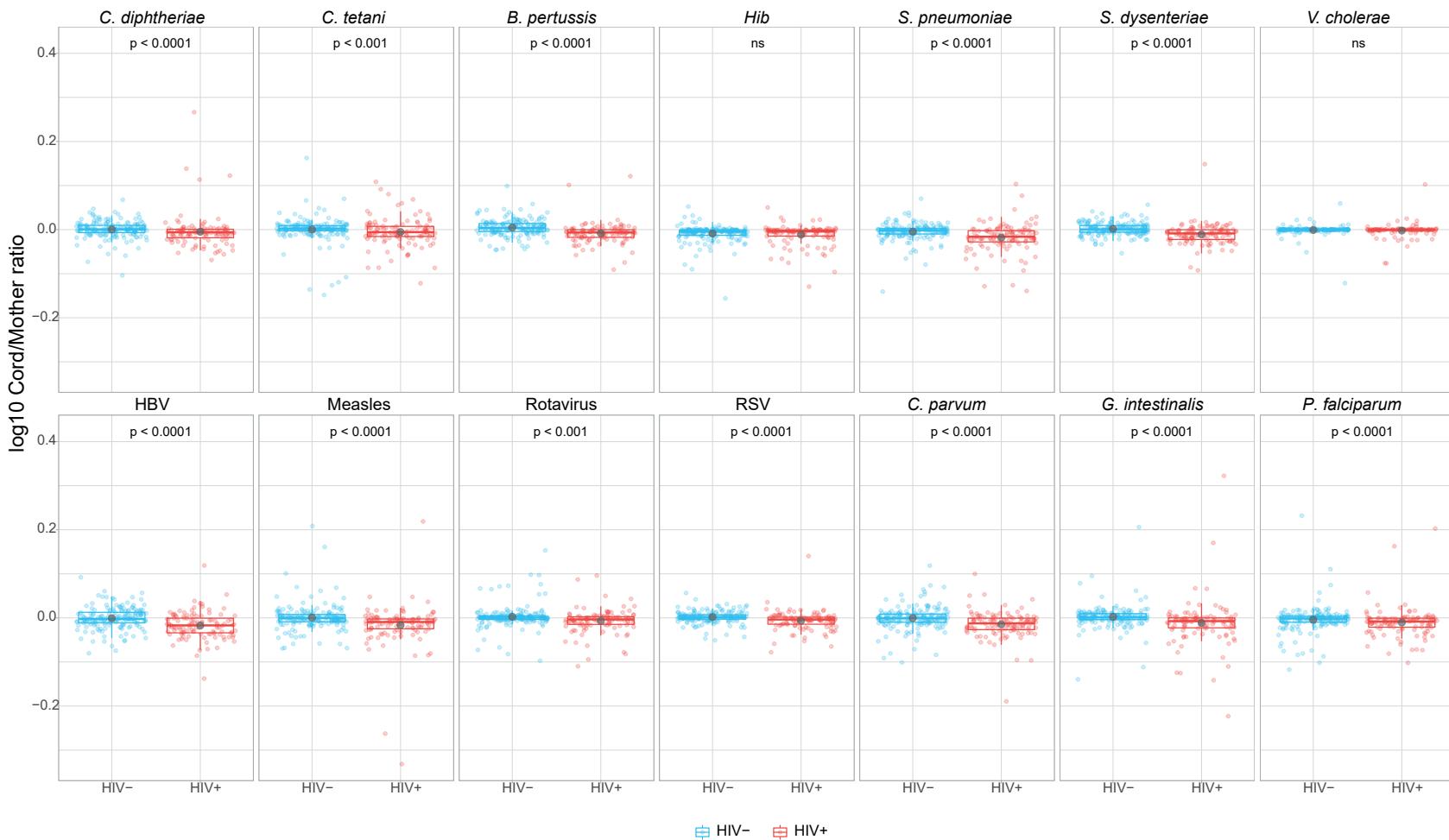
MiPPAD Clinical trial



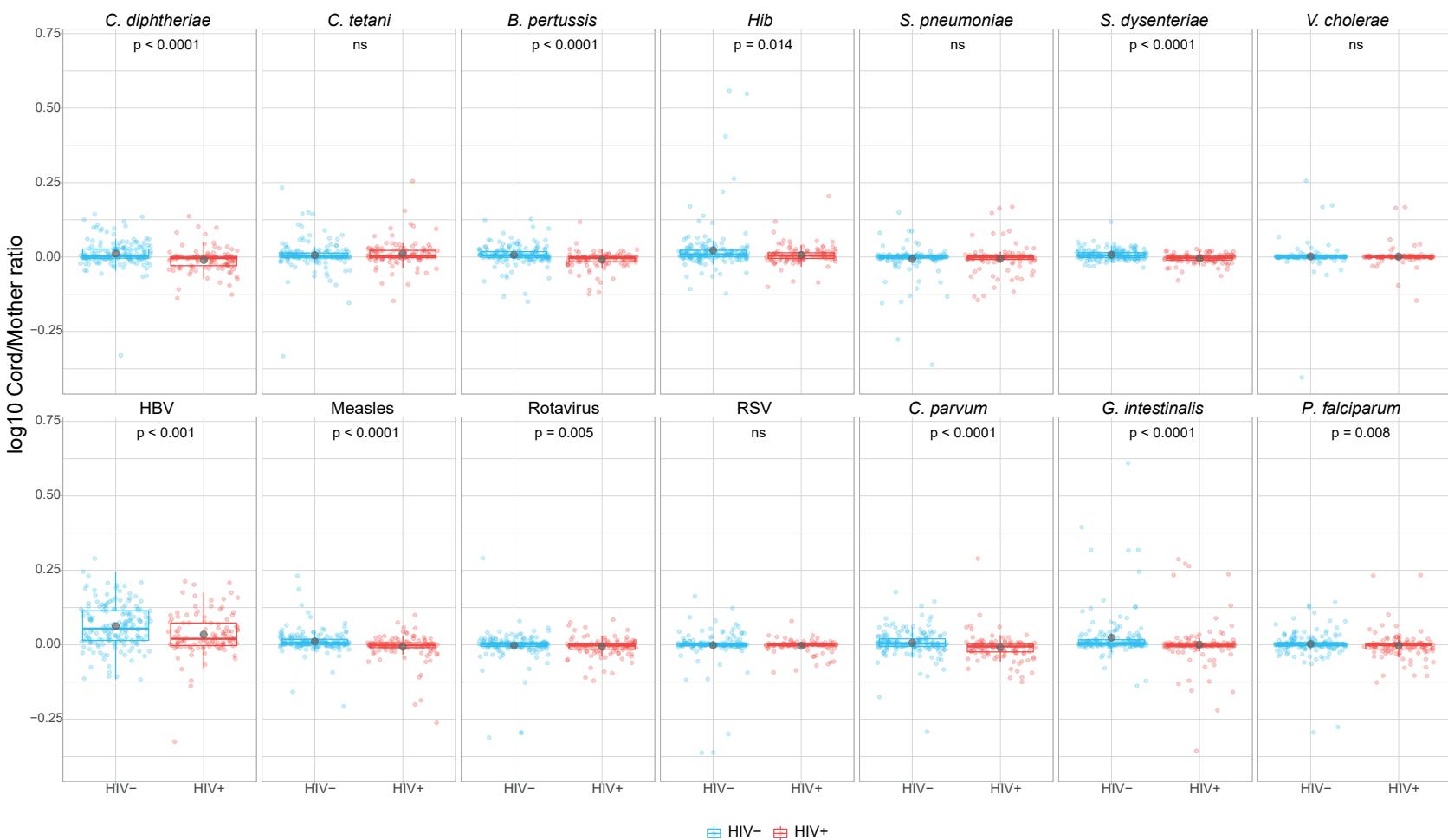
# IgG3



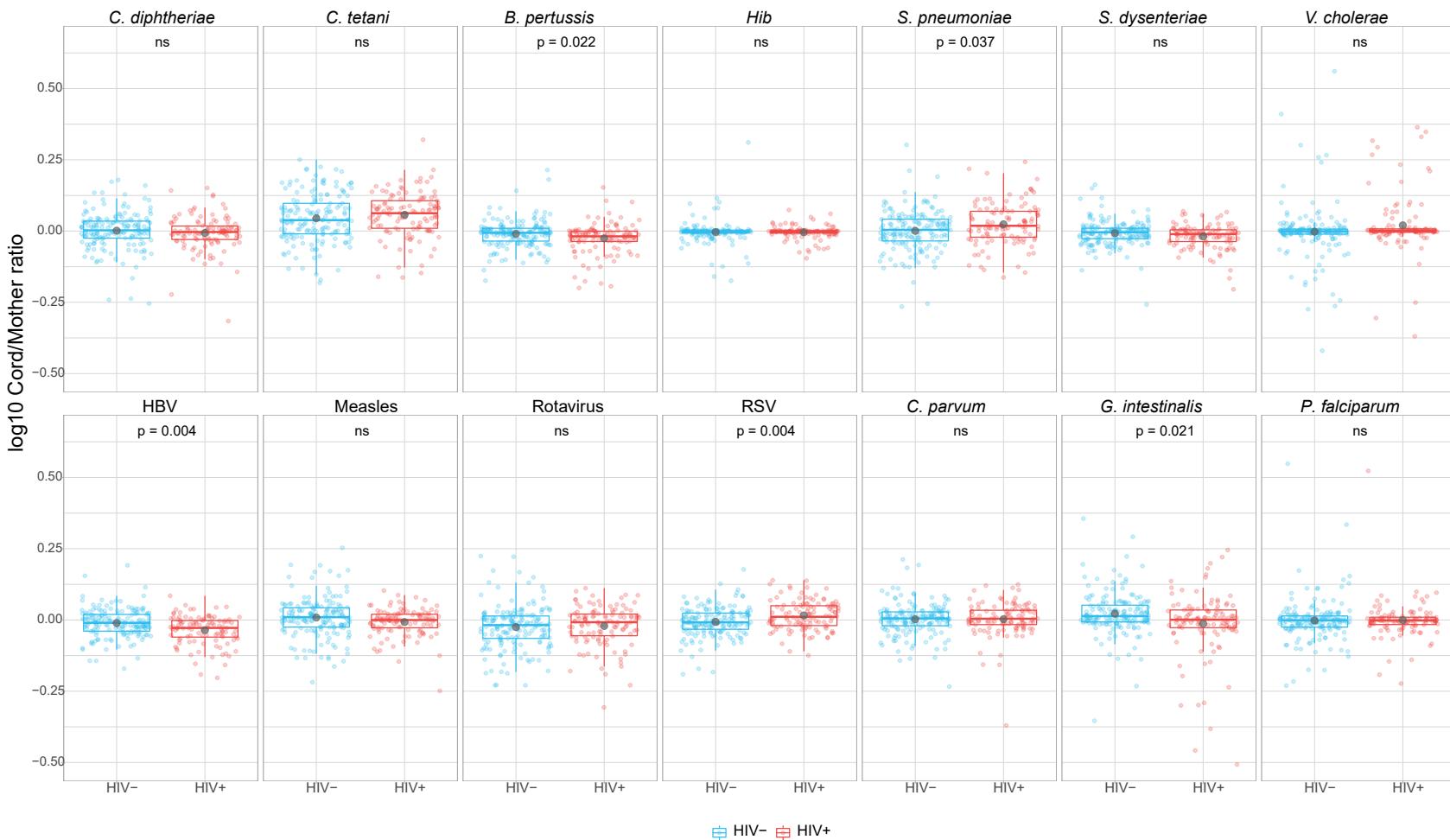
## IgG



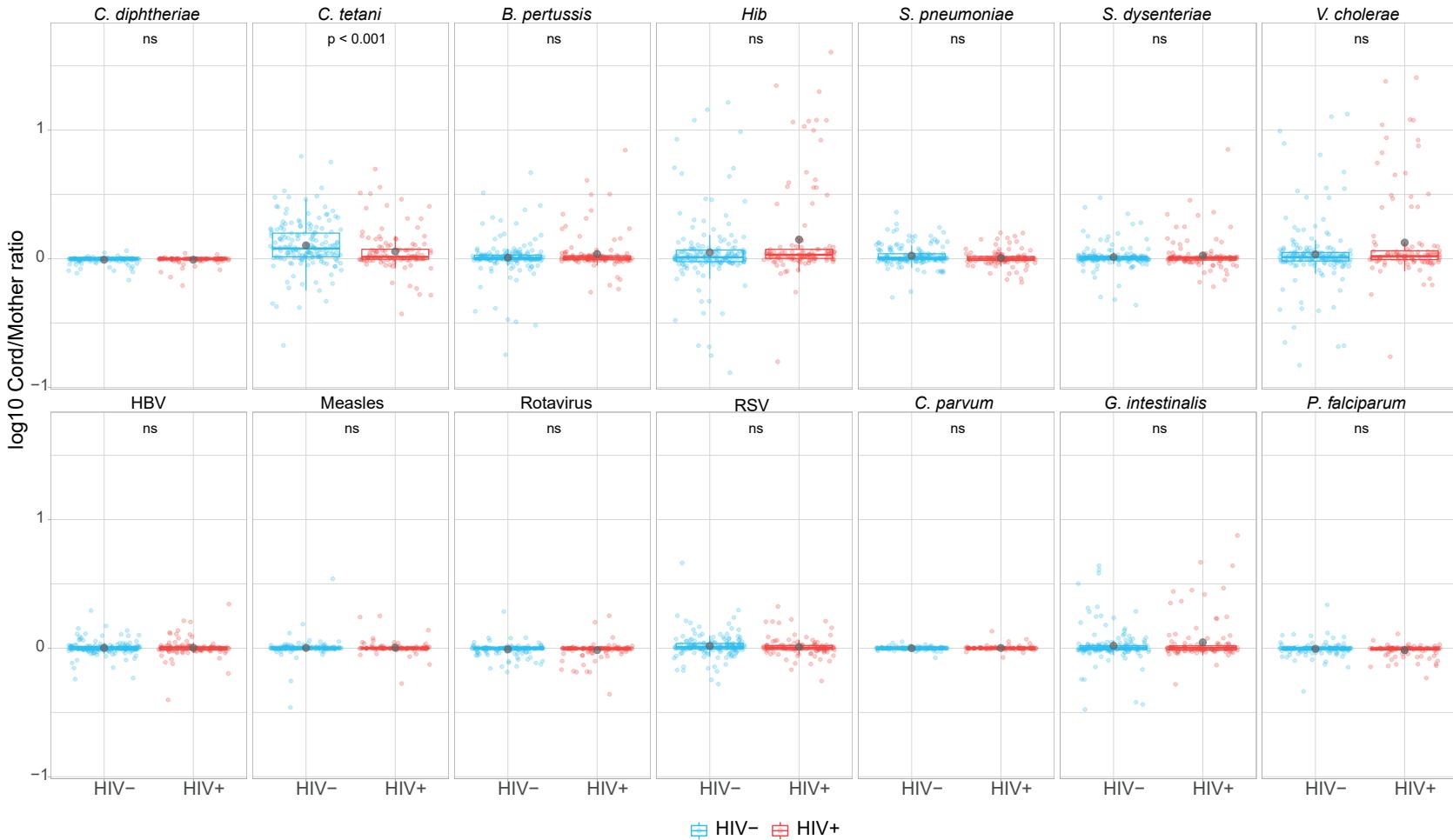
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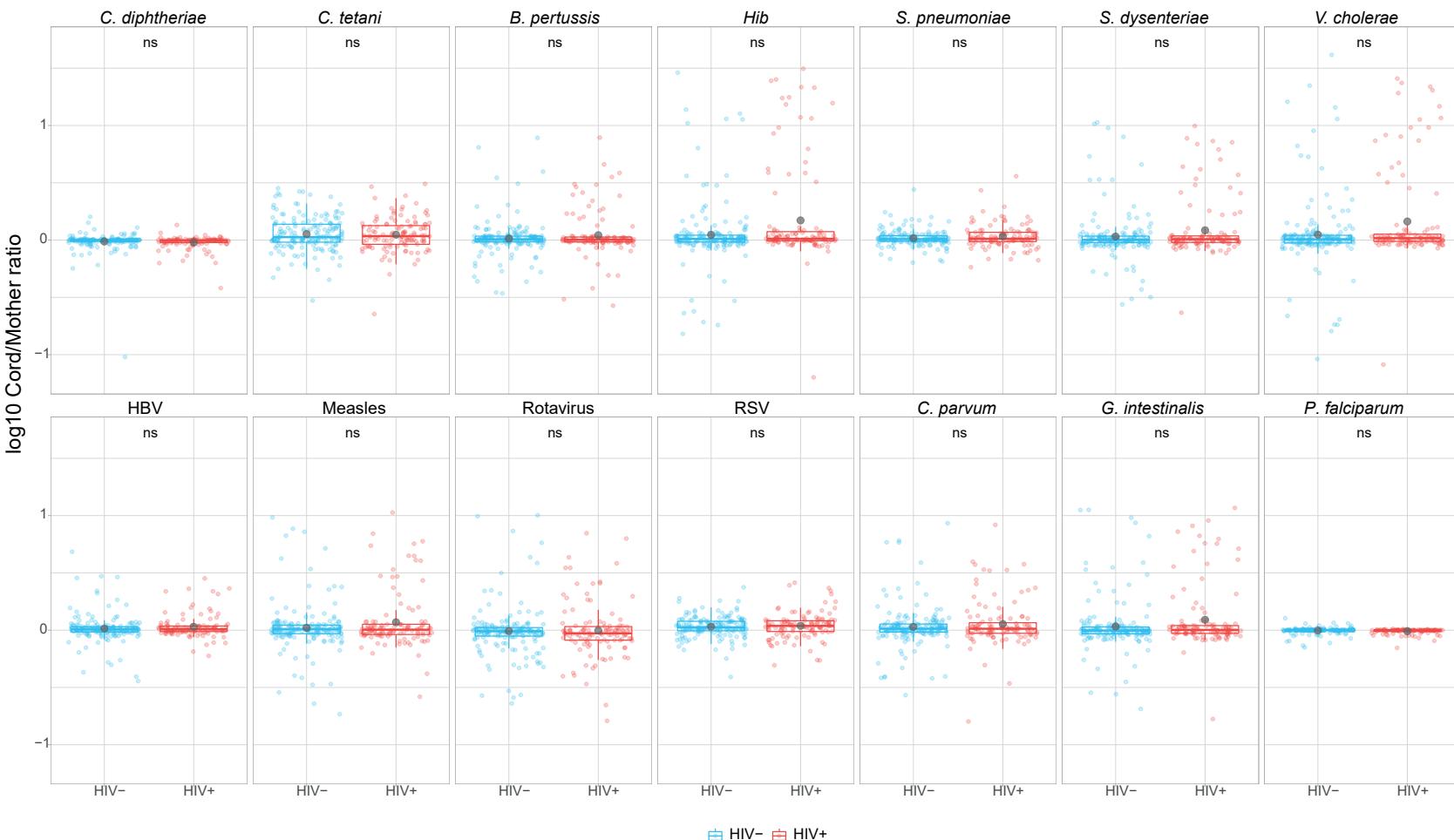
# IgG2



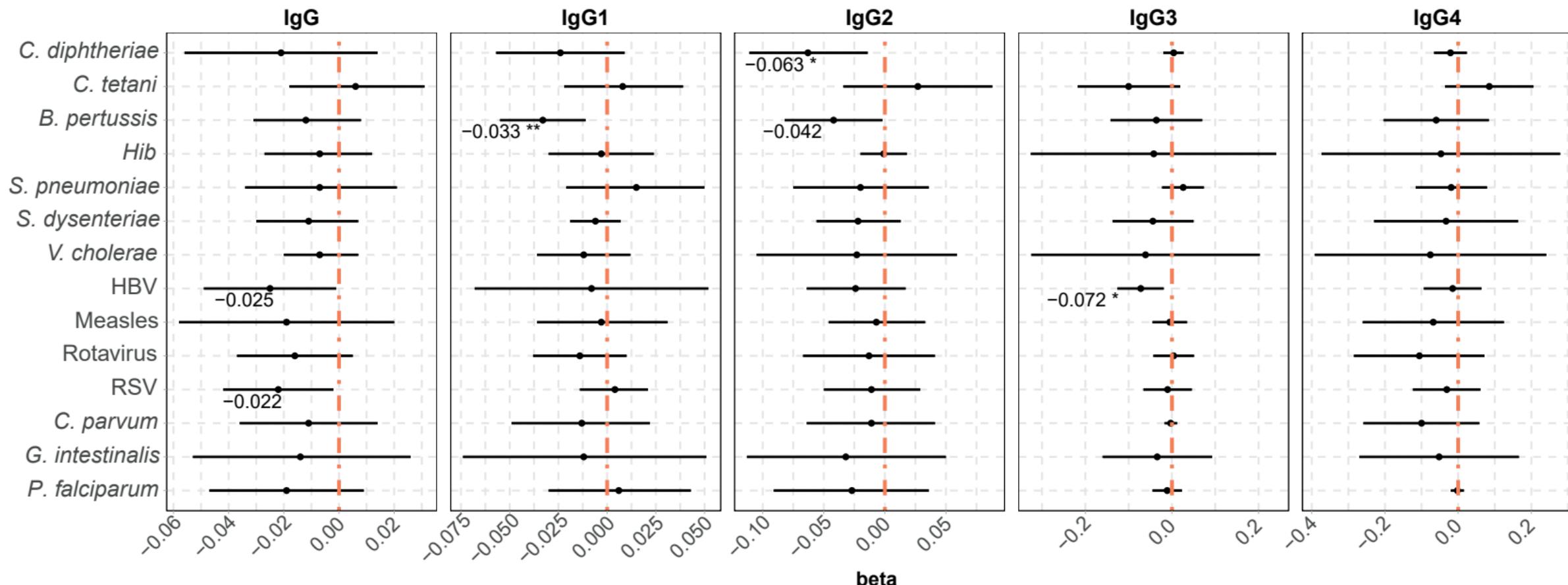
# IgG3



IgG4



# Cord blood levels & Placental malaria



# Placental transfer & Placental malaria

