A Novel Type of Influenza Vaccine: Safety and Immunogenicity of Replication-Deficient Influenza Virus Created by Deletion of the Interferon Antagonist NS1

Volker Wacheck,^{1,a} Andrej Egorov,^{6,a} Franz Groiss,⁶ Andrea Pfeiffer,⁶ Thorsten Fuereder,¹ Doris Hoeflmayer,¹ Michael Kundi,⁴ Therese Popow-Kraupp,⁵ Monika Redlberger-Fritz,⁵ Christian A. Mueller,² Jindrich Cinatl,⁷ Martin Michaelis,⁷ Janina Geiler,⁷ Michael Bergmann,³ Julia Romanova,⁶ Elisabeth Roethl,⁶ Alexander Morokutti,⁶ Markus Wolschek,⁶ Boris Ferko,⁶ Joachim Seipelt,⁶ Rosmarie Dick-Gudenus,⁶ and Thomas Muster,⁶ for the FluVacc European Union consortium

Departments of ¹Clinical Pharmacology, ²Otolaryngology, and ³Surgery, ⁴Centre for Public Health, Institute for Environmental Hygiene, and ⁵Clinical Institute of Virology, Medical University of Vienna, and ⁶AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology, Vienna, Austria; ⁷Institute for Medicinal Virology, Johann Wolfgang Goethe University Frankfurt, Frankfurt, Germany

Background. The nonstructural protein NS1 of influenza virus counteracts the interferon-mediated immune response of the host. By deleting the open reading frame of NS1, we have generated a novel type of influenza vaccine. We studied the safety and immunogenicity of an influenza strain lacking the NS1 gene (Δ NS1-H1N1) in healthy volunteers.

Methods. Healthy seronegative adult volunteers were randomized to receive either a single intranasal dose of the Δ NS1-H1N1 A/New Caledonia vaccine at 1 of 5 dose levels (6.4, 6.7, 7.0, 7.4, and 7.7 log₁₀ median tissue culture infective dose) (n = 36 recipients) or placebo (n = 12 recipients).

Results. Intranasal vaccination with the replication-deficient Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccine was well tolerated. Rhinitislike symptoms and headache were the most common adverse events identified during the 28-day observation period. Adverse events were similarly distributed between the treatment and placebo groups. Vaccine-specific local and serum antibodies were induced in a dose-dependent manner. In the highest dose group, vaccine-specific antibodies were detected in 10 of 12 volunteers. Importantly, the vaccine also induced neutralizing antibodies against heterologous drift variants.

Conclusions. We show that vaccination with an influenza virus strain lacking the viral interferon antagonist NS1 induces statistically significant levels of strain-specific and cross-neutralizing antibodies despite the highly attenuated replication-deficient phenotype. Further studies are warranted to determine whether these results translate into protection from influenza virus infection.

Trial registration. ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT00724997.

Despite preventive efforts, influenza epidemics are responsible for substantial morbidity and mortality every year [1]. Even among people who are vaccinated, some may not be adequately protected by the vaccine [2–4]. We have developed a novel type of intranasal influenza vaccine by deleting the interferon antagonist NS1 from

The Journal of Infectious Diseases 2010; 201:354–62

© 2009 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved. 0022-1899/2010/20103-0007\$15.00 DOI: 10.1086/649428 the virus [5, 6]. In several animal models, vaccine strains lacking the NS1 gene showed 2 properties that

Presented in part: 5th World Health Organization Meeting on Evaluation of Pandemic Influenza Prototype Vaccines in Clinical Trials, Geneva, 12–13 February 2009.

^a V.W. and A.E. contributed equally to this work.

Received 15 July 2009; accepted 24 August 2009; electronically published 29 December 2009.

Reprints or correspondence: Thomas Muster, AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology, Gersthoferstrasse 29-31, 1180 Vienna, Austria (t.muster@greenhillsbiotech.com).

Potential conflicts of interest: V.W., M.K., and M.B. have received consulting fees from AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. A.E., J.S., and T.M. have an equity interest in AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. A.E., F.G., A.P., J.R., E.R., A.M., M.W., B.F., J.S., and R.D.-G. are employed by AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology; T.M. is CEO of AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. A.E. and T.M. are listed as coinventors on patents of influenza vaccine strains lacking the NS1 gene; the patents are owned jointly by the Mount Sinai School of Medicine (New York City, NY) and AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. J.C. has received research funding from AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. J.C. has received research funding from AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology. All other authors report no potential conflicts.

Financial support: AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology (trial sponsor); European Commission (grant 518281 [FluVacc]).

are highly desirable for safe and immunogenic vaccines. First, Δ NS1 viruses, although capable of infecting nasal epithelial cells and expressing viral antigens, fail to form viral progeny. Therefore, vaccinated animals do not shed vaccine virus. Second, because the Δ NS1 virus has lost its ability to counteract the interferon response of the host, it elicits high levels of interferon, which is known to promote strong B and T cell-mediated immune responses [7–13]. Animals immunized with Δ NS1 strains belonging to the influenza virus A and B subtypes are protected against wild-type virus challenge [7, 14, 15]. We performed, to our knowledge, the first proof-of-concept study assessing the safety, virus shedding, and immunogenicity of a Δ NS1-based vaccine strain in humans.

PARTICIPANTS, MATERIALS, AND METHODS

Vaccine and placebo. The vaccine seed virus, Δ NS1-H1N1, was generated by reverse genetics as described elsewhere, with modifications [6, 14, 16, 17]. Δ NS1-H1N1 contains the surface glycoproteins from A/NC/20/99, whereas the remaining gene segments are from the influenza virus strain IVR-116 (World Health Organization) [18]. In addition, Δ NS1-H1N1 lacks the complete NS1 open reading frame.

The vaccine was produced under good manufacturing practice conditions in Vero cells cultured under serum-free conditions. The harvest was subjected to 2 consecutive chromatographic purification steps that yielded a highly purified virus formulated in a sucrose-phosphate-glutamate stabilizing buffer. The stabilizing buffer was given as placebo. Both vaccine and placebo were stored at -70° C or below and transferred into the nasal spray device (Baby Nasal GPI spray pump; Erich Pfeiffer; Drug Master File no. 6350; dose volume accuracy [tested with water], $\pm 15\%$ per stroke [mean, $\pm 10\%$]).

Study design and objectives. This was a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, dose-escalation study of the effects of single-dose intranasal administration of a ΔNS1-H1N1 vaccine in healthy, seronegative volunteers. After signing an initial informed consent form, healthy male volunteers aged 18-50 years were prescreened for titers of antibodies against A/NC/20/99 virus by hemagglutination-inhibition (HAI) assay. Only healthy volunteers with antibody titers of <1:10 were invited for further screening procedures. These volunteers signed a second informed consent form that covered further study procedures, and those who met all eligibility criteria were included in the study. Healthy volunteers were allocated to treatment groups by means of concealed envelopes, according to a computer-generated randomization list. Independent study nurses dispensed either active treatment or placebo. On day 1, volunteers received the study medication by intranasal aerosol application. Adverse events and pharmacokinetic analyses were closely monitored in an inpatient setting for 48 h. After discharge on day 3, healthy volunteers were observed in an outpatient setting by means of follow-up visits on days 4, 5, 8, 15, and 29. During the outpatient period, volunteers were instructed to record all symptoms and medication taken on a diary card. Volunteers who experienced a temperature of $>38.0^{\circ}$ C were asked to contact the study site for evaluation.

 Δ NS1-H1N1 was escalated according to a fixed dose-escalation scheme comprising 5 dose levels. Cohorts of 8 healthy volunteers per dose level were randomized at a 6:2 ratio to receive either Δ NS1-H1N1 at 6.4, 6.7, 7.0, 7.4, and 7.7 log₁₀ median tissue culture infective dose (TCID₅₀) per volunteer or placebo. A further 8 volunteers were randomized at a 6:2 ratio to receive the highest dose. The volunteers in each cohort were observed for 1 week after the vaccine was administered. An expert committee then performed an interim safety review. If the committee judged that the dose level had been tolerated, the next step of the dose escalation was performed.

The primary objective of this study was to evaluate the safety and tolerability of Δ NS1-H1N1 administered as single-dose intranasal aerosol for vaccination against influenza A(H1N1) virus. Secondary objectives included the analysis of local and systemic immune responses as well as shedding of Δ NS1-H1N1.

The protocol was approved by the ethics committee at the Department of Clinical Pharmacology, Medical University Vienna, Austria, and was conducted in compliance with good clinical practice guidelines and the Declaration of Helsinki.

Nasal washings. To collect nasal wash samples, a urinary catheter with the tip cut off was placed in the volunteer's nostrils and locked by cuffing. The nasal cavity was then washed 3 times with 6 mL of sucrose-phosphate-glutamate virus-stabilizing buffer.

Vaccine virus recovery. To recover the vaccine virus, 1.5 mL aliquots of nasal washings obtained 12, 24, 48, and 72 h after immunization were analyzed for the presence of viable vaccine virus. Samples were diluted 1:1 and used as inoculum on Vero cells. After 3–5 days of incubation, presence or absence of the cytopathic effect was determined, and positive results were confirmed by immunofluorescence specific for the influenza A nucleoprotein. Recovered viruses were characterized for the absence of the NS1 gene by polymerase chain reaction.

Immunological assays. Analysis of immune responses was performed on serum and nasal wash samples obtained prior to vaccination and on day 29. The increase in the geometric mean titer (GMT) of homologous neutralizing antibodies, compared with the baseline GMT, was assessed by microneutralization assay (MNA) according to standard procedures [19] with A/NC/20/99 wild-type virus. The number of responders, who were defined as having a \geq 4-fold increase in antibody titer, was evaluated.

Serum samples from the highest dose group and from the placebo group were additionally tested by MNA according to standard procedures [19], using reassortant viruses containing



Figure 1. Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) flow chart. TCID₅₀, median tissue culture infective dose.

the surface glycoproteins of A/NC/20/99, A/Solomon Islands/ 3/06, and A/Brisbane/59/07 on Vero cells.

HAI antibodies were measured to determine pre- and postvaccination A/NC/20/99-specific titers, according to standard procedures [19]. Serum immunoglobulin G (IgG) and mucosal immunoglobulin A (IgA) were evaluated by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), with purified A/NC/20/99 hemagglutinin used as coating antigen. The calibration curve for assessment of vaccine-specific IgG and IgA was established using a pool of serum or nasal wash samples with detectable ELISA signals. To minimize IgA concentration differences, vaccine-specific IgA antibodies were normalized to a constant amount of total IgA (1 μ g) of each mucosal sample.

Statistical analyses. Statistical analyses were descriptive in nature. Exploratory statistical tests were performed only on the parameters for the secondary objectives. The postvaccination to prevaccination titer or concentration ratio for each volunteer was submitted to logarithmic transformation and tested by analysis of variance. After revealing a significant group effect,

each dose group was compared with the placebo group by the Dunnett test. Results for which P < .05 were considered to be significant.

RESULTS

From March 2007 through June 2008, 288 male volunteers were prescreened for H1N1 A/NC/20/99–specific antibodies by HAI assay. Of these, 110 (38%) had titers of <1:10, 51 of whom met the eligibility criteria. Three volunteers dropped out before vaccination (Figure 1). From April 2007 onward, a total of 48 healthy volunteers were vaccinated.

Safety. All vaccinated individuals were included in the safety analysis. Intranasal vaccination with Δ NS1-H1N1 was well tolerated in all dose groups. No serious adverse event was observed. The proportions of the most frequent symptoms reported during the first 7 days after vaccination are presented in Table 1. Ninety-six percent of all adverse events in Δ NS1-H1N1-treated subjects were graded as mild. A similar pro-

Table 1. Proportion of Healthy Volunteers with Adverse Events within 7 Days after Vaccination

			% (95	% confidence inte	erval)		
Adverse event	Placebo $(n = 12)$	6.4 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	6.7 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	7.0 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	7.4 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	7.7 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 12)	All doses $(n = 36)$
Any	92 (62–100)	67 (22–95)	100 (54–100)	67 (22–96)	50 (12–88)	100 (74–100)	81 (64–92)
Arthralgia	8 (0–38)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	25 (5–57)	11 (3–26)
Diarrhea	8 (0–38)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	25 (5–57)	14 (5–29)
Epistaxis	8 (0–38)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–26)	3 (0–15)
Fatigue	25 (5–57)	0 (0–46)	33 (4–78)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	8 (0–38)	11 (3–26)
Fever ^a	8 (0–38)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–26)	3 (0–15)
Headache	25 (5–57)	50 (12–88)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	50 (21–79)	28 (14–45)
Malaise	8 (0–38)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–10)
Myalgia	0 (0–26)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	0 (0–46)	17 (2–48)	6 (1–19)
Pharyngitis-like symptoms ^b	25 (5–57)	17 (0–64)	17 (0–64)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	33 (10–65)	19 (8–36)
Rhinitis-like symptoms ^c	58 (28–85)	33 (4–78)	50 (12–88)	33 (4–78)	17 (0–64)	33 (10–65)	33 (10–65)
Elevation in transaminase level (ALT grade 1)	25 (5–57)	0 (0–46)	17 (0–64)	50 (12–88)	17 (0–64)	8 (0–38)	17 (6–33)

NOTE. ALT, alanine transaminase; TCID₅₀, median tissue culture infective dose.

^a Fever was defined as an oral temperature of >37.3°C.

^b Pharyngitis-like symptoms were defined as comprising pharyngitis, nasopharyngitis, pharyngolaryngeal pain, throat irritation, dysphonia, oral leukoplakia, tonsillar disorder, mucosal burning sensation, and dysphagia.

^c Rhinitis-like symptoms were defined as comprising rhinitis, rhinorrhea, sneezing, nasal congestion, nasal discomfort, and nasal disorder.

portion was noted within the 28-day observation period. The most frequent adverse events were rhinitis-like symptoms (comprising rhinitis, rhinorrhea, sneezing, nasal congestion, nasal discomfort, and nasal disorder), pharyngitis-like symptoms (encompassing pharyngitis, nasopharyngitis, pharyngolaryngeal pain, throat irritation, dysphonia, oral leukoplakia, tonsillar disorder, mucosal burning sensation, and dysphagia), and headache. These symptoms occurred to a similar extent in placebo- and Δ NS1-H1N1–treated subjects. Rhinitis-like symptoms were predominantly observed during the inpatient period, regardless of treatment group (Table 2). Headache episodes were equally distributed over the 28-day observation period in both treatment lines.

Typical adverse events (such as malaise, myalgia, or fever) reported from previous studies with live cold-adapted influenza vaccines [20] were noted only rarely (Table 1). Fever was observed in 4 subjects, 1 in the placebo group and 3 in the $\Delta NS1$ -H1N1 group. Two of these vaccine recipients, one who received 6.4 log₁₀ TCID₅₀ and one who received 6.7 log₁₀ TCID₅₀, experienced mild fever (temperature, $\leq 38.0^{\circ}$ C) on day 3 and day 16 after vaccination, respectively, and the third vaccine recipient, who received 7.7 log₁₀ TCID₅₀, experienced moderate fever (temperature up to 38.1°C) on day 24 after vaccination. Four subjects, 2 in the placebo group and 2 in the ΔNS1-H1N1 group who received 6.7 log₁₀ TCID₅₀, experienced an episode of epistaxis. In the Δ NS1-H1N1-treated subjects, these mildand moderate-graded episodes occurred on days 7 and 10; in the placebo group, they occurred on days 2 and 13. Ear-nosethroat control examinations after epistaxis and on days 2, 3, 5,

8, and 29 revealed no local adverse events in response to vaccination at any dose level.

Clinical laboratory safety testing of subjects showed no statistically significant abnormalities. Mild elevations in transaminase levels were observed with the same frequency in vaccine- and placebo-treated subjects (grade 1; see Table 1). Transient elevations in bilirubin levels of grade 3 were observed in 2 subjects (dose level, 7.7 \log_{10} TCID₅₀): both had entered the trial with known preexisting asymptomatic grade 2 elevations in bilirubin levels. These rises in bilirubin levels did not coincide with any elevation in transaminase levels. There was no indication of a dose dependency with any of the adverse events observed.

Shedding of vaccine virus. To confirm the replication-defective phenotype of the vaccine virus, we analyzed nasal washings collected after 12, 24, 48, and 72 h for the presence of vaccine virus. Vaccine virus was recovered from samples from 2 subjects in the highest dose group (7.7 $\log_{10} \text{ TCID}_{50}$) at 12 h after immunization. After this point in time, Δ NS1-H1N1 was no longer present in any of the samples.

Immune response. Immunogenicity of Δ NS1-H1N1 was determined on the basis of the presence of vaccine-specific antibodies in nasal washings and serum samples obtained before vaccination and on day 29 after vaccination. In the highest dose group (7.7 log₁₀ TCID₅₀), 8 (67%) of 12 volunteers had a 4-fold or higher increase in neutralization titers (Table 3). The increase in the GMT in this group was 6.4-fold (from 22.6 before immunization to 143.7 after immunization) and was significantly different from that in the placebo group (*P*<

												Da	iy afte	er vacc	inatio	_											
Treatment group (total subjects in group), subject	1 2	9	، ٤	4	5 6	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20 2	1 22	2 23	3 24	25	26	27	28	29
6.4 \log_{10} TCID ₅₀ (<i>n</i> = 6)																											
-	×																										
2	\times																										
6.7 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (<i>n</i> = 6)																											
-	×																										
2													\times														
m	×																										
4			~	×																							
വ																									×		
7.0 \log_{10} TCID ₅₀ (<i>n</i> = 6)																											
1	×																										
2				^	~																						
m																											\times
4																×											
7.4 \log_{10} TCID ₅₀ (<i>n</i> = 6)																											
1	×																										
2																		×									
7.7 \log_{10} TCID ₅₀ (<i>n</i> = 12)																											
1	\times																										
2													×														
m																\times											
4	×																										
Q																							×				
Q		×	~																								
7	×																							×			
Placebo ($n = 12$)																											
1				^	~																						
2	×																										
ß	\times																										
4	×	J		×																							
Q	×																										
Q	×				~																						
7	\times																										

Table 2. Time Course of Rhinitis-Like Symptoms after Immunization

NOTE. X indicates an episode of rhinitis-like symptoms, defined as comprising rhinitis, rhinorrhea, sneezing, nasal congestion, nasal discomfort, and nasal disorder. TCID₅₀, median tissue culture infective dose.

		Microneutralization			HAI			Mucosal IgA			Serum IgG		No. (%) of
Treatment group	Before, GMT (95% CI)	After, GMT (95% CI)	Responders, ^a no. (%)	Before, GMT (95% CI)	After, GMT (95% CI)	Responders, ^a no. (%)	Before, GMC (95% CI)	After, GMC (95% CI)	Responders, ^b no. (%)	Before, GMC (95% CI)	After, GMC (95% CI)	Responders, ^b no. (%)	volunteers with any response
$6.4 \log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50} (n = 6)$	16.0 (6.4–40.2)	28.5 (7.5-108.3)	1 (17)	5.0 (5.0)	5.0 (5.0)	0	1.5 (0.9–2.3)	1.2 (0.8–1.8)	0	44.7 (20.5–97.3)	50.0 (24.2-103.7)	0	1 (17)
6.7 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	12.7 (3.3–49.2)	16.0 (3.7–68.5)	0	5.0 (5.0)	5.6 (4.2–7.6)	0	1.6 (1.0–2.4)	1.8 (1.0–3.3)	1 (17)	31.7 (13.9–72.4)	34.2 (15.8–74.2)	0	1 (17)
7.0 log ₁₀ TCID ₅₀ (n = 6)	20.2 (4.5–90.6)	32.0 (4.5–225.3)	2 (33)	5.0 (5.0)	6.3 (3.5–11.4)	1 (17)	3.1 (1.1–8.7)	2.3 (1.0-5.4)	0	32.3 (10.4–100.3)	36.1 (11.1–118.0)	0	2 (33)
7.4 $\log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$ (n = 6)	9.0 (3.8–21.0)	20.2 (7.5–54.5)	3 (50)	5.0 (5.0)	5.0 (5.0)	0	2.8 (1.4–5.6)	2.6 (1.4-4.6)	1 (17)	21.9 (9.7–49.6)	29.3 (16.4–52.4)	1 (17)	3 (50)
7.7 log ₁₀ TCID ₅₀ (n = 12)	22.6 (13.1–39.1)	143.7 ^d (45.3–456.1)	8 (67)	5.3 ^c (4.7–6.0)	17.8 ^d (9.3–34.0)	6 (50)	1.7 (0.9–3.5)	4.3 ^e (2.1–8.6)	5 (42)	26.7 (14.6-48.8)	68.1 ^d (42.5–109.0)	7 (58)	10 (83)
Placebo ($n = 12$)	32.0 (11.2–91.0)	30.2 (11.1–82.2)	0	5.3 ^c (4.7–6.0)	5.3 (4.7–6.0)	0	1.8 (1.4–2.3)	1.8 (1.2–2.6)	1 (8.3)	41.7 (19.2–90.3)	42.1 (19.3–91.6)	0	1 (8.3)
				ţ	-		(- -						

Immunization
after
Days
28
Response
Antibody
Mucosal
and
Systemic
able 3.
Ë

NOTE. Cl, confidence interval; GMC, geometric mean concentration; GMT, geometric mean titer; IgG, immunoglobulin G; TCID₅₀, median tissue culture infective dose.

^a Responders were defined as having a ≥ 4 -fold increase from the baseline level. ^b Responders were defined as having a ≥ 2 -fold increase from the baseline level. ^c One subject exhibited a titer of 1:10 on day 1, although prescreening values were <1:10. ^d P < .001 for an increase from the baseline level to the postvaccination level compared with placebo (Dunnett test).

.001). Although several subjects in the lower dose groups were classified as responders, the increase in the GMT in these groups was not significant in comparison with the placebo group.

Similarly, 6 (50%) of 12 volunteers receiving the highest dose had a 4-fold or higher increase in HAI antibody titer after immunization (Table 3). At this dose level, a 3.4-fold increase in the GMT was obtained (from 5.3 to 17.8). This increase was significantly different from that in the placebo group (P <.001), whereas the rise in GMT in the other dose groups did not significantly differ from that in the placebo group.

Nasal wash samples were analyzed for vaccine-specific local IgA induction (Table 3). Five (42%) of 12 subjects in the 7.7 $\log_{10} \text{ TCID}_{50}$ dose group showed a 2-fold or higher increase and were classified as responders. The increase in the geometric mean concentration in this dose group was 2.5-fold and was significantly different from that in the placebo group (*P*<.05). No significant increase was observed in any of the lower dose groups.

Volunteers who experienced a \geq 2-fold increase in IgG serum concentrations of antibodies against purified hemagglutinin derived from A/New Caledonia/20/99 virus were classified as responders (Table 3). In line with the neutralization and HAI antibody titers, the highest rate of responders (7/12 [58%]) was observed in the 7.7 log₁₀ TCID₅₀ dose group, and the increase in the geometric mean concentration in this group was significant in comparison with the placebo group (*P*<.001).

The number of overall responders (volunteers classified as responders in any of the 4 categories) was dose dependent, with 10 (83%) of 12 subjects in the highest dose group, 3 (50%) of 6 in the 7.4 \log_{10} TCID₅₀ dose group, 2 (33%) of 6 in the 7.0 \log_{10} TCID₅₀ dose group, and 1 responder each in the 2 lowest dose groups (Table 3).

Serum samples from the highest dose group were also analyzed for their cross-neutralizing activity, by employing reassortant strains containing the surface glycoproteins from influenza A/NC/20/99, A/Solomon Islands/3/06, or A/Brisbane/59/ 07 in the MNA. Whereas 8 (67%) of 12 subjects experienced a \geq 4-fold increase in neutralization titers against the homologous A/NC strain, 7 (58%) of 12 experienced a \geq 4-fold increase in titer against A/Solomon Islands, and 6 (50%) of 12 showed an increase in titer against A/Brisbane (Figure 2). The corresponding increases in GMTs from before to after vaccination were 4.5 (from 16.4 to 74.5), 3.3 (from 13.4 to 44.9), and 3.3 (from 16.0 to 53.1), respectively.

DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this study provides the first safety and immunogenicity data in humans for a replication-deficient influenza vaccine lacking NS1 (Δ NS1-H1N1). Intranasal vaccination with Δ NS1-H1N1 was well tolerated. The most frequent symptoms were rhinitis-like symptoms and mild headache. However,



Figure 2. Cross-neutralizing antibody response after Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccination. Volunteers were immunized with either 7.7 log₁₀ median tissue culture infective dose (TCID₅₀) of Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccine (A/NC/20/99-like) or placebo. Titers of serum neutralizing antibodies against reassortant viruses containing the hemagglutinin and neuraminidase from A/NC/20/99-like, A/Solomon Islands/3/06–like, and A/Brisbane/59/07-like vaccines were determined. Shown are the *x*-fold increases in pre- to postvaccination titers; horizontal lines indicate the geometric mean fold increases.

because these symptoms were seen to a similar extent in placebo- and Δ NS1-H1N1-treated subjects (with largely overlapping 95% confidence intervals), a drug-effect relationship is unlikely.

Local symptoms (rhinitis- and pharyngitis-like symptoms) occurred predominantly during the first 4 days after vaccination. Because these symptoms were equally frequent in the placebo and vaccine groups, the air conditioning at the study site during hospitalization and nasal wash procedures might be the cause of these. One subject from the highest dose group reported a temperature of 38.1°C on day 24. On the same day, this person also had sunburn, and the fever lasted for only 1 day. Nevertheless, a relationship between the elevated temperature and the study medication could not be entirely excluded and thus was judged to be possibly related.

The only adverse event graded as moderate and probably related to the study medication was an episode of epistaxis on day 10 in a subject vaccinated at a dose level of $6.7 \log_{10} \text{TCID}_{50}$. However, because episodes of epistaxis were equally distributed among placebo and vaccine groups, it is possible that nasal wash procedures for pharmacokinetic evaluations might have provoked the bleeding. All other moderate adverse events (n = 29; 12 in the placebo group and 17 in the vaccine group) were judged by the investigators to be not related or only possibly related to the study medication.

An important safety aspect of live attenuated influenza vaccines is the potential to replicate and shed vaccine virus. For example, current live cold-adapted vaccines can replicate in the upper respiratory tract, resulting in viral shedding for up to 21 days [20]. Viral shedding may lead to transmission to persons in close contact with vaccine recipients and bears the risk of reversion of the replicating vaccine virus. Results from earlier studies in animals suggest that the lack of NS1 increases the production of interferon, which can block viral replication. Consistent with these observations, only 2 subjects were found to have virus present in nasal washings and only at the earliest time point of testing, indicating that the Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccine undergoes abortive replication.

Despite the replication-deficient phenotype of the $\Delta NS1$ -H1N1 vaccine, local and systemic antibodies were induced in a dose-dependent manner. In the highest dose group, 10 of 12 volunteers responded to the vaccine. Even if the sample size of a phase 1 study is small by nature, it is noteworthy to put the immunogenicity results observed in the context of what is known for current live attenuated influenza vaccines. Subjects who tested negative for HAI antibodies against H1N1 live coldadapted vaccines showed an up to 2.0-fold increase in the GMT of HAI antibodies, with a \geq 4-fold increase observed in ~20% of the vaccine recipients [21-23]. Remarkably, despite the relatively low number of HAI responders, an overall clinical efficacy of 85%-93% was reached in these trials [23, 24]. Given all the limitations of comparisons with historic controls, in our study the group receiving the highest dose of Δ NS1-H1N1 showed a 3.4-fold increase in the GMT of HAI antibodies, and a \geq 4-fold increase was observed in 50% of all subjects. Even though a limited number of volunteers were vaccinated with Δ NS1-H1N1, the increases in the GMTs of vaccine-specific antibodies in the highest dose group were statistically significant. It should be noted that the number of responders was different in the different assays, which most likely was due to different sensitivities of the assays.

Cross protection against drift variants is an important factor for the development of effective influenza vaccines. We found that neutralizing antibodies induced by the A/NC/20/99-like Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccine were also active against drift variants such as A/Solomon Islands/3/06 and A/Brisbane/59/07, which have appeared during the last 2 years. These results give hope that Δ NS1-H1N1 vaccines will more efficiently protect vaccinated individuals against drift variants that evolve between the time at which the vaccine composition was recommended by authorities and the actual epidemics.

In summary, this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, proof-of-concept study demonstrated for the first time to our knowledge that an influenza virus strain lacking the NS1 protein is a safe and well-tolerated vaccine for humans. The Δ NS1 vaccine strain displayed a statistically significant immunogenic potential, and we confirmed the replication-deficient phenotype of Δ NS-H1N1. This encouraging proof of concept warrants further clinical development of a trivalent influenza vaccine.

Acknowledgments

We thank all members of the FluVac consortium for their respective contributions to the project, specifically Alexandra Khassidov and Monika Sachet (Department of Surgery, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria), Aleš Štrancar and Matjaz Peterka (BIA Separations, Slovenia), Jan Zábský and Martin Slais (BioTest, Czech Republic), Thorsten Wolff (Robert Koch Institute, Germany), Oleg Kiselov (Research Institute of Influenza, St Petersburg, Russia), Torbjoern Ingemansson (European Commission, Belgium), and Karla Valdés Rodríguez (AVIR Green Hills Biotechnology, Vienna, Austria) for excellent management.

References

- Molinari NA, Ortega-Sanchez IR, Messonnier ML, et al. The annual impact of seasonal influenza in the US: measuring disease burden and costs. Vaccine 2007; 25:5086–5096.
- Glezen WP, Simonsen L. Commentary: benefits of influenza vaccine in US elderly. Int J Epidemiol 2006; 35:352–353.
- Jefferson T, Rivetti D, Rivetti A, Rudin M, Di Pietrantonj C, Demicheli V. Efficacy and effectiveness of influenza vaccines in elderly people: a systematic review. Lancet 2005; 366:1165–1174.
- Simonsen L, Viboud C, Taylor R. Influenza vaccination in elderly people. Lancet 2005; 366:2086.
- Egorov A, Brandt S, Sereinig S, et al. Transfectant influenza A viruses with long deletions in the NS1 protein grow efficiently in Vero cells. J Virol 1998;72:6437–6441.
- Garcia-Sastre A, Egorov A, Matassov D, et al. Influenza A virus lacking the NS1 gene replicates in interferon-deficient systems. Virology 1998; 252:324–330.
- Ferko B, Stasakova J, Romanova J, et al. Immunogenicity and protection efficacy of replication-deficient influenza A viruses with altered NS1 genes. J Virol 2004; 78:13037–13045.
- Le Bon A, Schiavoni G, D'Agostino G, Gresser I, Belardelli F, Tough DF. Type I interferons potently enhance humoral immunity and can promote isotype switching by stimulating dendritic cells in vivo. Immunity 2001; 14:461–470.
- 9. Palese P. Making better influenza virus vaccines? Emerg Infect Dis 2006; 12:61–65.
- Proietti E, Bracci L, Puzelli S, et al. Type I IFN as a natural adjuvant for a protective immune response: lessons from the influenza vaccine model. J Immunol 2002; 169:375–383.
- Talon J, Salvatore M, O'Neill RE, et al. Influenza A and B viruses expressing altered NS1 proteins: a vaccine approach. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2000; 97:4309–4314.
- Tovey MG, Lallemand C, Thyphronitis G. Adjuvant activity of type I interferons. Biol Chem 2008; 389:541–545.
- Hale BG, Randall RE, Ortin J, Jackson D. The multifunctional NS1 protein of influenza A viruses. J Gen Virol 2008; 89:2359–2376.
- 14. Wressnigg N, Voss D, Wolff T, et al. Development of a live-attenuated influenza B Δ NS1 intranasal vaccine candidate. Vaccine **2009**; 27: 2851–2857.
- Wressnigg N, Shurygina AP, Wolff T, et al. Influenza B mutant viruses with truncated NS1 proteins grow efficiently in Vero cells and are immunogenic in mice. J Gen Virol 2009; 90:366–374.
- Hoffmann E, Neumann G, Kawaoka Y, Hobom G, Webster RG. A DNA transfection system for generation of influenza A virus from eight plasmids. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2000; 97:6108–6113.
- Pleschka S, Jaskunas R, Engelhardt OG, Zurcher T, Palese P, Garcia-Sastre A. A plasmid-based reverse genetics system for influenza A virus. J Virol 1996; 70:4188–4192.
- Nicolson C, Major D, Wood JM, Robertson JS. Generation of influenza vaccine viruses on Vero cells by reverse genetics: an H5N1 candidate vaccine strain produced under a quality system. Vaccine 2005; 23: 2943–2952.
- 19. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO manual on animal influenza

diagnosis and surveillance (WHO/CDS/CSR/NCS/2002.5Rev.1). WHO Web site. http://www.who.int/vaccine_research/diseases/influenza/WHO _manual_on_animal-diagnosis_and_surveillance_2002_5.pdf. Published **2005**. Accessed November 2008.

- 20. FluMist [package insert]. Gaithersburg, MD: MedImmune; 2008.
- Belshe RB, Gruber WC, Mendelman PM, et al. Efficacy of vaccination with live attenuated, cold-adapted, trivalent, intranasal influenza virus vaccine against a variant (A/Sydney) not contained in the vaccine. J Pediatr 2000; 136:168–175.
- 22. Block SL, Reisinger KS, Hultquist M, Walker RE. Comparative immunogenicities of frozen and refrigerated formulations of live atten-

uated influenza vaccine in healthy subjects. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **2007**; 51:4001–4008.

- Treanor JJ, Kotloff K, Betts RF, et al. Evaluation of trivalent, live, coldadapted (CAIV-T) and inactivated (TIV) influenza vaccines in prevention of virus infection and illness following challenge of adults with wild-type influenza A (H1N1), A (H3N2), and B viruses. Vaccine **1999**; 18:899–906.
- Ohmit SE, Victor JC, Rotthoff JR, et al. Prevention of antigenically drifted influenza by inactivated and live attenuated vaccines. N Engl J Med 2006; 355:2513–2522.