



HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

Lancet. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2019 April 01.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Published in final edited form as:

Lancet. 2014 December 06; 384(9959): 2008–2009. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61290-3.

Chikungunya Virus Control: Is a Vaccine on the Horizon?

Ann M. Powers

Division of Vector-Borne Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 3156 Rampart Road, Fort Collins, CO 80521, USA

Vector-borne diseases such as malaria and dengue are among the most prevalent and significant infectious diseases on a global scale. For example, the World Health Organization has estimated that 40% of the world's population is at risk of dengue infection and up to 100 million infections may occur annually. In the United States alone, West Nile virus and Lyme disease are prominent examples of vector-borne diseases with over 5,600 and 31,000 human cases estimated, respectively, in 2012.^{1, 2} Now, another arthropod-borne virus, chikungunya virus, which has caused over 2.5 million infections worldwide over the past decade, has been found spreading throughout the Americas and has just recently been reported in the United States.³ Ideally, for both public health and economic reasons, there would be options available for control of these agents before they caused large outbreaks. For chikungunya, on the single island of La Reunion, approximately 300,000 cases were reported during the course of the outbreak with an estimated economic impact of \$43.9 million euros (in 2006 values).^{4, 5} Studies have demonstrated that the cost of a delayed response to the introduction of a novel arboviral disease could be as much as 346 times as high as the cost of preparedness through surveillance for the outbreak event.⁶ Additional preparedness efforts, including the availability of effective and safe vaccines, could further reduce the scope and impact of an eventual outbreak.

A single chikungunya virus vaccine candidate was developed in the US prior to the large outbreaks that started in 2004 in coastal Kenya. Phase 2 clinical trials were conducted on the live-attenuated vaccine candidate before further development was discontinued due to lack of funding and questions regarding the eventual use of the vaccine.^{7, 8} However, with the continued expansion of the chikungunya epidemic, Lee-Jah Chang and Vaccine Research Center (VRC) colleagues at the NIH have reinvigorated chikungunya virus vaccine development with the completion of a Phase 1 clinical trial on the VRC virus-like particle (VLP) vaccine candidate, VRC-CHKVLP059-00-VP. The dose-escalation, open-label clinical trial included 25 participants to evaluate the safety, tolerability, and immunogenicity of the candidate vaccine. This VLP vaccine, which had previously been shown to protect non-human primates against virus infection,⁹ was shown in a study in this issue of *The Lancet*, to elicit antibody development in all participants. Significantly, the authors demonstrated that the neutralizing antibodies persisted for at least 6 months in all subjects in all dose groups which indicates the vaccine could provide long-term protection against the virus.

I declare that I have no conflicts of interest. The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

The development of a VLP vaccine is a novel approach in vaccine technology; one that should result in a safer option than with many more traditional approaches such as killed vaccines or live-attenuated candidates. A VLP contains the outer structural proteins of the virus – the ones that would typically be seen by the immune system. The important safety feature of this approach is that none of the viral genetic material is present so no live virus could ever be generated. The lack of any live virus also provides a manufacturing advantage as no high-containment facilities would be needed for production. The safety profile of the VRC VLP was evaluated in this study in the test subjects with no serious adverse events reported and tenderness at the injection site being the only localized symptom (present in 9 of 25 participants). Mild systemic reactions including headache, malaise, myalgia, and nausea were reported in 10 of the subjects. Overall, the safety data reported suggest the vaccine would indeed be well-tolerated.

In addition to the safety profile shown, the authors also demonstrated increasing levels of antibodies after booster doses. The study design included three doses of vaccine administered at weeks 0, 4, and 20. All subjects were antibody positive after the second dose with the antibody levels reaching a peak after the third dose. While multiple doses can be a challenge in developing countries, alternate formulations of the VLP might increase the immunogenicity. For example, the inclusion of an adjuvant may lead to equally high levels of antibody in fewer doses. Importantly, the levels of antibodies detected in these subjects after just the initial dose appear to be similar to those found in patients who had recovered from wild type infections. Another important aspect of the study was the inclusion of multiple genotypes, or variants, in the antibody analysis. The study showed that the VLP vaccine generated antibodies against these distinct variants suggesting the vaccine would be effective against any strain of the virus, including the type circulating in the Americas.

While this VLP vaccine candidate exhibits a range of properties suggesting that it would be a good vaccine option, there is always concern over whether a vaccine for a vector-borne virus would be licensed. Development of vaccines for “orphan” agents is certainly a challenging endeavor as the market may not be great enough to justify the investment. The cost of development of a vaccine beginning with preclinical studies to vaccine registration is estimated to be \$200-500 million (US dollars).¹⁰ Yet even with this tremendous funding requirement, vaccines are still the most cost-effective strategy for disease prevention.¹¹ In spite of the limitations, there is optimism for vaccine development with the findings that a vaccine for another vector-borne disease, dengue, could be made available at an affordable price¹² and that policymakers in the affected countries expressed interest in the public sector use of a dengue vaccine.¹³ Given the known burden of chikungunya outbreaks which have impacted up to 63% of local populations in a matter of months,¹⁴ the continued development of this VLP vaccine candidate, along with other vaccine options, should be encouraged.

References

1. CDC. [accessed July 24, 2014] Reported Cases of Lyme Disease by Year, United States 2003-2012. <http://www.cdc.gov/lyme/stats/charttables/casesbyyear.html>
2. Lindsey NP, Lehman JA, Staples JE, Fischer M. West Nile Virus and Other Arboviral Diseases — United States, 2012. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2013; 62(25):513–7.

3. Fischer M, Staples JE. Arboviral Diseases Branch, Zoonotic Infectious Diseases CDC. Notes from the field: chikungunya virus spreads in the americas - Caribbean and South America, 2013-2014. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2014; 63(22):500–1. [PubMed: 24898168]
4. Gerardin P, Guernier V, Perrau J, et al. Estimating Chikungunya prevalence in La Reunion Island outbreak by serosurveys: two methods for two critical times of the epidemic. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2008; 8:99. [PubMed: 18662384]
5. Soumahoro MK, Boelle PY, Gauzere BA, et al. The Chikungunya epidemic on La Reunion Island in 2005-2006: a cost-of-illness study. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2011; 5(6):e1197. [PubMed: 21695162]
6. Vazquez-Prokopec GM, Chaves LF, Ritchie SA, Davis J, Kitron U. Unforeseen costs of cutting mosquito surveillance budgets. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2010; 4(10):e858. [PubMed: 21049010]
7. Edelman R, Tacket CO, Wasserman SS, Bodison SA, Perry JG, Mangiafico JA. Phase II safety and immunogenicity study of live chikungunya virus vaccine TSI-GSD-218. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine & Hygiene.* 2000; 62(6):681–5. [PubMed: 11304054]
8. Hoke CH Jr, Pace-Templeton J, Pittman P, et al. US Military contributions to the global response to pandemic chikungunya. *Vaccine.* 2012; 30(47):6713–20. [PubMed: 22940380]
9. Akahata W, Yang ZY, Andersen H, et al. A virus-like particle vaccine for epidemic Chikungunya virus protects nonhuman primates against infection. *Nat Med.* 2010; 16(3):334–8. [PubMed: 20111039]
10. Andre FE. How the research-based industry approaches vaccine development and establishes priorities. *Developments in biologicals.* 2002; 110:25–9. [PubMed: 12477303]
11. Pronker ES, Weenen TC, Commandeur H, Claassen EH, Osterhaus AD. Risk in vaccine research and development quantified. *PLoS One.* 2013; 8(3):e57755. [PubMed: 23526951]
12. Mahoney RT, Francis DP, Frazatti-Gallina NM, et al. Cost of production of live attenuated dengue vaccines: a case study of the Instituto Butantan, Sao Paulo, Brazil. *Vaccine.* 2012; 30(32):4892–6. [PubMed: 22406455]
13. Douglas DL, DeRoeck DA, Mahoney RT, Wichmann O. Will dengue vaccines be used in the public sector and if so, how? Findings from an 8-country survey of policymakers and opinion leaders. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2013; 7(3):e2127. [PubMed: 23516658]
14. Sergon K, Yahaya AA, Brown J, et al. Seroprevalence of Chikungunya Virus Infection on Grande Comore Island, Union of the Comoros, 2005. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 2007; 76(6):1189–93. [PubMed: 17556634]