

1 **MVA Vector Vaccines Inhibit SARS CoV-2 Replication in Upper and Lower Respiratory**
2 **Tracts of Transgenic Mice and Prevent Lethal Disease**

3

4 Ruikang Liu¹, Jeffrey L. Americo¹, Catherine A. Cotter, Patricia L. Earl, Noam Erez¹, Chen
5 Peng² and Bernard Moss*

6

7 Laboratory of Viral Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National
8 Institutes of Health, Bethesda MD 20892 USA

9

10 ¹Contributed equally

11

12 *Corresponding author: E-mail: bmoss@nih.gov

13

14 ¹Current address: Department of Infectious Diseases, Israel Institute of Biological Research
15 (IIBR), Ness-Ziona, Israel

16

17 ²Current address: China Agriculture University, Beijing, PRC

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Replication-restricted modified vaccinia virus Ankara (MVA) is a licensed smallpox vaccine and
21 numerous clinical studies investigating recombinant MVAs (rMVAs) as vectors for prevention
22 of other infectious diseases have been completed or are in progress. Two rMVA COVID-19
23 vaccine trials are at an initial stage, though no animal protection studies have been reported.
24 Here, we characterize rMVAs expressing the S protein of CoV-2. Modifications of full length S
25 individually or in combination included two proline substitutions, mutations of the furin
26 recognition site and deletion of the endoplasmic retrieval signal. Another rMVA in which the
27 receptor binding domain (RBD) flanked by the signal peptide and transmembrane domains of S
28 was also constructed. Each modified S protein was displayed on the surface of rMVA-infected
29 human cells and was recognized by anti-RBD antibody and by soluble hACE2 receptor.
30 Intramuscular injection of mice with the rMVAs induced S-binding and pseudovirus-neutralizing
31 antibodies. Boosting occurred following a second homologous rMVA but was higher with
32 adjuvanted purified RBD protein. Weight loss and lethality following intranasal infection of
33 transgenic hACE2 mice with CoV-2 was prevented by one or two immunizations with rMVAs or
34 by passive transfer of serum from vaccinated mice. One or two rMVA vaccinations also
35 prevented recovery of infectious CoV-2 from the lungs. A low amount of virus was detected in
36 the nasal turbinates of only one of eight rMVA-vaccinated mice on day 2 and none later.
37 Detection of subgenomic mRNA in turbinates on day 2 only indicated that replication was
38 abortive in immunized animals.

39

40

41 **Significance**

42 Vaccines are required to control COVID-19 during the pandemic and possibly afterwards.

43 Recombinant nucleic acids, proteins and virus vectors that stimulate immune responses to the

44 CoV-2 S protein have provided protection in experimental animal or human clinical trials,

45 though questions remain regarding their ability to prevent spread and the duration of immunity.

46 The present study focuses on replication-restricted modified vaccinia virus Ankara (MVA),

47 which has been shown to be a safe, immunogenic and stable smallpox vaccine and a promising

48 vaccine vector for other infectious diseases and cancer. In a transgenic mouse model, one or two

49 injections of recombinant MVAs that express modified forms of S inhibited CoV-2 replication in

50 the upper and lower respiratory tracts and prevented severe disease.

51

52 **Introduction**

53 Recombinant DNA methods have revolutionized the engineering of vaccines against microbial
54 pathogens, thereby creating opportunities to control the current SARS CoV-2 pandemic (1). The
55 main categories of recombinant vaccines are protein, nucleic acid (DNA and RNA), virus vectors
56 (replicating and non-replicating) and genetically modified live viruses. Each approach has
57 distinctive advantages and drawbacks with regard to manufacture, stability, cold-chain
58 requirements, mode of inoculation, and immune stimulation. Recombinant proteins have been
59 successfully deployed as hepatitis B, papilloma, influenza and varicella Zoster virus vaccines (2-
60 5). DNA vaccines have been licensed to protect horses from West Nile virus and salmon from
61 infectious hematopoietic necrosis virus (6, 7), though none are in regular human use. Recently
62 developed mRNA vaccines received emergency approval for COVID-19 and are in pre-clinical
63 development for other infectious diseases (8). At least 12 virus vector vaccines based on
64 adenovirus, fowlpox virus, vaccinia virus (VACV) and yellow fever virus have veterinary
65 applications, but so far only an attenuated yellow fever vectored Dengue and a chimeric Japanese
66 encephalitis virus vaccine have been marketed for humans (9), though numerous clinical trials
67 particularly with attenuated adenovirus and VACV are listed in ClinicalTrials.gov.

68 A variety of recombinant approaches utilizing the spike (S) protein as immunogen are
69 being explored to quell the SARS CoV-2 pandemic (10). Vaccines based on mRNA and
70 adenovirus have demonstrated promising results in animal models as well as in clinical trials and
71 some have already received emergency regulatory approval (11-14). Other vaccines, including
72 ones based on vesicular stomatitis virus (15), an alphavirus-derived replicon RNA (16), and an
73 inactivated recombinant New Castle Disease virus (17) have shown protection in animal models.
74 Immunogenicity in mice was found for a modified VACV Ankara (MVA)-based CoV-2 vaccine

75 (18), but animal protection studies have not yet been reported. However, protection has been
76 obtained with related MVA-based SARS CoV-1 and MERS in animals (19-22) and a MVA
77 MERS vaccine was shown to be safe and immunogenic in a phase 1 clinical trial (23).

78 Experiments with virus vectors for vaccination were carried out initially with VACV (24,
79 25), providing a precedent for a multitude of other virus vectors (9). The majority of current
80 VACV vaccine studies employ the MVA strain, which was attenuated by passage more than 500
81 times in chicken embryo fibroblasts (CEF) during which numerous genes were deleted or
82 mutated resulting in an inability to replicate in human and most other mammalian cells (26).
83 Despite the inability to complete a productive infection, MVA is capable of highly expressing
84 recombinant genes and inducing immune responses (27, 28). MVA is a licensed smallpox
85 vaccine and numerous clinical studies of recombinant MVA (rMVA) vectors are in progress or
86 have been completed and two for COVID-19 are in the recruiting phase (ClinicalTrials.gov).
87 Here, we show that one or two immunizations with rMVAs expressing SARS CoV-2 spike
88 proteins elicit strong neutralizing antibody responses, induce CD8⁺ T-cells and protect
89 susceptible transgenic mice against a lethal intranasal challenge with CoV-2 virus, supporting
90 clinical testing of related rMVA vaccines.

91

92 **Results**

93 **Construction of rMVAs and expression of S proteins.** The full-length CoV-2 S protein
94 contains 1273 amino acids (aa) comprising a signal peptide (aa 1-13), the S1 receptor binding
95 subunit (aa 14-685) and the S2 membrane fusion subunit (aa 686-1273). A panel of rMVAs with
96 names in italics including *WT* expressing unmodified CoV-2 S (GenBank: QHU36824) and
97 modified forms of the S protein with C-terminal FLAG tags were engineered (Fig. 1). The

98 rMVAs with modified versions of full-length S include *2P* with two proline substitutions (K₉₈₆P,
99 V₉₈₇P) intended to stabilize the prefusion conformation (11, 29-31), *Afurin* with perturbation of
100 the furin recognition site (RRAR₆₈₂₋₆₈₅GSAS) to prevent cleavage of S, *ΔERRS* with deletion of
101 the last 19 aa including the endoplasmic reticulum retrieval signal and *Tri* with a combination of
102 all three modifications. *RBD*, another rMVA, contains the receptor binding domain (RBD) and
103 contiguous sequences preceded by the S signal peptide and followed by the transmembrane
104 domain of S. The latter were added because a previous study with an unrelated protein
105 demonstrated that membrane anchoring strongly enhances immunogenicity of a VACV vector
106 (32) and also enhanced immunogenicity of CoV-2 S expressed by an mRNA vaccine (11). The
107 additional rMVAs, *D₆₁₄G* and a *2P* version, express S with amino acid changes of a recently
108 emerged strain (33). VACV transcription termination signals that could reduce early expression
109 (34) and runs of four or more consecutive Gs or Cs that could accelerate the occurrence of
110 deletions (35) were altered by making silent mutations.

111 DNA encoding the modified S open reading frames (ORFs) were inserted into the
112 pLW44 transfer vector (36), which provides a VACV early/late promoter and flanking sequences
113 that enable directed recombination into a non-essential region of the MVA genome and selection
114 of plaques in CEF by green fluorescence. After multiple rounds of plaque purification, the
115 sequences of WT and modified S ORFs were confirmed and the viruses were expanded in CEF
116 and purified by sedimentation through a sucrose cushion.

117 Since CoV-2 vaccines are intended for humans, in which replication of MVA is
118 restricted, HeLa cells were used to evaluate expression of the S proteins during a single round of
119 infection. Cell lysates were analyzed by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and Western
120 blotting. Full-length S proteins of ~180 kDa or a ~50 kDa shortened version in the case of *RBD*,

121 were detected by antibodies to the RBD (Fig. 2A) and to the C-terminal FLAG tag (Fig. 2B). The
122 anti-RBD antibody also recognized S1, formed by cleavage of full-length S, from lysates of cells
123 infected with *WT*, *D614G* and their *2P* versions but only a small amount from *ΔERRS* and none
124 from *Δfurin* or *Tri*, both of which have deletions of the furin recognition site (Fig. 2A). Similarly,
125 S2 was detected by anti-FLAG antibody in lysates from cells infected with *WT*, *D614G* and their
126 *2P* versions but not from *Δfurin*- or *Tri* (Fig. 2B). Relatively small amounts of possibly
127 aggregated higher molecular weight S was detected by anti-FLAG antibody in cells infected with
128 *WT* and *D614G* (Fig. 2B).

129 Expression of the S proteins in HeLa cells that were infected with the rMVAs was also
130 evaluated by flow cytometry. After permeabilization, virtually 100% of infected cells
131 distinguished by GFP fluorescence were stained by a mouse anti-RBD mAb (Fig. 2C). In the
132 absence of permeabilization, nearly 100% of the cells expressing full length S and nearly 90%
133 expressing the RBD were stained indicating cell surface expression (Fig. 2D). Control
134 experiments with unmodified parental MVA demonstrated no significant staining with or
135 without permeabilization.

136 Human angiotensin converting enzyme (hACE2) is a cell receptor for CoV-2 (1, 37). The
137 binding of soluble hACE2 to S proteins expressed on the surface of cells infected with rMVAs
138 was analyzed as an indication of their appropriate folding. Binding of hACE2 to all constructs is
139 shown in histograms (Fig. S1). The mean fluorescence intensities of S-expressing cells were
140 similar except for the slightly higher value with *Δfurin* and *Tri* (Fig. 2E). We concluded that the
141 WT and modified S proteins were all highly expressed on the surface of infected HeLa cells and
142 potentially capable of eliciting immune responses.

143

144 **Binding and neutralizing antibodies induced by rMVAs.** To compare their immunogenicity,
145 each rMVA was inoculated intramuscularly (IM) into BALB/c mice at 0 time and again at 3
146 weeks. Some mice received purified RBD protein in QS21 adjuvant for priming and boosting or
147 as a boost for mice primed with an rMVA. Binding antibody was measured by ELISA, using
148 wells coated with purified 2P-stabilized S protein, at 3 weeks after the prime and 2 weeks after
149 the boost. Binding antibodies were detected after the first immunization in all cases and
150 increased by more than 1 log following a boost with the same vector (Fig. 3A, B). The ELISA
151 titers for immunizations with all rMVAs were similar. Lesser binding, representing cross-
152 reactivity, was obtained with sera from mice immunized with rMVA expressing the CoV-1 S
153 (Fig. 3A) (19) and no binding above the base line was detected with sera from mice immunized
154 with the parental MVA (Fig. 3A, B). Sera from mice immunized with the RBD protein and
155 adjuvant exhibited low or no binding to S after the prime and more than a log less binding than
156 any of the rMVAs expressing S after boosting with the same protein (Fig. 3A). Nevertheless, the
157 RBD protein effectively boosted mice primed with rMVAs (Fig. 3A, B). The inability of RBD
158 protein to induce binding antibody in naive mice was probably due to low immunogenicity of a
159 soluble protein rather than to the truncation of the S sequence since the titer obtained after one
160 vaccination with *RBD*, which encodes a membrane bound version, was similar to titers obtained
161 with full-length S (Fig. 3B).

162 Neutralizing titers of the serum samples from BALB/c mice were determined using a
163 lentiviral pseudotype assay (11, 38). Low or no neutralization was detected at 3 weeks after
164 priming but increased markedly at 2 weeks after the rMVA boosts to mean levels of $\sim 10^3$ NT50
165 (Fig. 3C, D). The RBD protein boosts elicited NT50 titers that were consistently higher than the
166 rMVA boosts. Three samples of patient sera that had reference CoV-2 NT50 titers of 1280, 320

167 and 320 were found to have pseudovirus NT50 titers of 3209, 370 and 482, respectively. Thus,
168 the rMVAs produced neutralizing antibody that was in the high range for patient sera.

169 We also determined binding and neutralization antibodies in sera from C57BL/6 mice
170 that were immunized with *2P* and *Tri* and boosted with the same rMVAs or with RBD protein.
171 Both the mean binding and neutralization titers were consistently higher in sera of C57BL/6 mice
172 compared to BALB/c mice (Fig. 3E, F). The difference between the mouse strains was most
173 significant for the neutralization titer after the primes ($p < 0.001$). A time course indicated that
174 binding and neutralizing antibody increased greatly between 1 and 3 weeks after the first
175 immunization in C57BL/6 mice (Fig. S2). An additional experiment showed that soluble S
176 proteins and RBD from a variety of sources boosted binding and neutralizing antibodies in
177 C57BL/6 mice (Fig. S3).

178 High ratios of IgG2a and IgG2c to IgG1 in BALB/c and C57BL/6 mice, respectively, is
179 indicative of a Th1 type anti-viral response (39). We determined the IgG subclasses of S-specific
180 antibodies induced by an MVA-based vector and by RBD protein administered with QS21
181 adjuvant. The subclasses were determined by ELISA in which serum samples from vaccinated
182 mice were added to 96-well plates that had immobilized full-length S. Following this, isotype
183 specific secondary antibodies conjugated to horse radish peroxidase (HRP) were added. Table 1
184 shows that BALB/c and C57BL/6 mice that were primed and boosted by rMVA *2P* made IgG1,
185 IgG2b, IgG2a or IgG2c and IgG3, but no detectable IgA antibody. The highest values were to
186 IgG2a and IgG2c in BALB/c and C57BL/6, respectively (40, 41). The isotypes produced in the
187 hACE2 mice, which were backcrossed to C57BL/6 and used in a later section of the paper, were
188 similar to that of C57BL/6. However, the biggest difference was between the RBD protein prime
189 and boost and immunizations with rMVA (Table 1). The protein only immunizations elicited a

190 predominance of IgG1 giving a clear Th2 response. Nevertheless, the RBD protein following
191 rMVA *2P* boosted the Th1 response in both C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice.

192

193 **Stimulation of Specific T cells.** An *ex vivo* stimulation protocol was used to identify T cells
194 specific for S following immunization. The sequences of an array of CoV-2 S peptides obtained
195 from BEI Resources were compared to peptides that were previously found to be positive (42).
196 As the peptides were not identical in the two libraries, we tested peptide pools for their ability to
197 stimulate CD3+CD8+IFN γ + and CD3+CD4+IFN γ + T cells from spleens of BALB/c mice that
198 had been immunized with parental MVA and rMVA *WT* expressing CoV-2 S. The two S peptide
199 pools with highest specific activity were #4 and #7, which contained peptides from the NTD and
200 RBD portions of S1, respectively (Fig. 4A). None of the pools had high CD4+IFN γ + specific
201 activity for the rMVA expressing S. A similar screen was carried out with spleen cells derived
202 from immunized C57BL/6 mice. Pool #7 was again most positive for CD8+IFN γ + T cells,
203 whereas other pools showed less specific activity (Fig. 4B).

204 Next, we compared the percentages of splenic CD8+IFN γ + T cells following priming
205 with several different rMVA S constructs followed by homologous rMVA or RBD protein
206 boosts. Spleen cells from mice immunized with parental MVA lacking S sequences and spleen
207 cells that were not stimulated with peptide served as negative controls. Following priming and
208 homologous boosting, peptide pool #7 stimulated T cells from mice immunized with each of the
209 rMVA S constructs (Fig. 4C). A similar result was obtained with peptides from pool #4. In
210 comparison, the CD8+IFN γ + T cell numbers following boosts with RBD protein were much
211 lower after stimulation with pool #4 or #7 than after rMVA boosts (Fig. 4C). The same pattern
212 occurred in C57BL/6 T cells: the homologous prime boosts with *2P* and *Tri* were higher than

213 with RBD protein boosts (Fig. 4D). To better understand the difference between the boosts with
214 MVA vectors and protein, we determined the duration of the T cells response following priming
215 with MVA vectors. A dramatic drop in CD8+IFN γ + T cell numbers occurred between 1 and 3
216 weeks (Fig. 4E), indicating a requirement for boosting by an MVA vector to restore elevated T
217 cells.

218

219 **Protection against Intranasal (IN) CoV-2 infection.** Transgenic mice that express hACE2
220 regulated by the cytokeratin 18 (K18) gene promoter (K18-hACE2) (43) are highly susceptible
221 to IN CoV-2 infection (44). High levels of virus are present in the lungs within a few days and
222 severe weight loss occurs by day 5 or 6 with animals becoming moribund. In our experiments,
223 hACE2 transgenic mice were immunized by IM inoculation with *2P* or *Tri* and boosted 3 weeks
224 later with the homologous rMVA or with RBD protein in adjuvant (Fig. 5A). Control mice were
225 unvaccinated (naive) or primed and boosted with the parental MVA lacking CoV-2 sequences.
226 Binding antibody to full length S was detected 3 weeks after the *2P* and *Tri* primes and was
227 boosted up to 10-fold with homologous or protein boosts (Fig. 5B). Isotype analysis indicated
228 that the binding antibody was IgG2c > IgG2b > IgG1 > IgG3 and no detectable IgA (Table 1),
229 indicating a strong Th1 response in the mice receiving *2P* or *Tri* and homologous or
230 heterologous boosts. In contrast to binding antibody, CoV-2 neutralizing antibody was boosted
231 by RBD protein but not appreciably by the rMVAs (Fig. 5C). To help explain the latter results,
232 we compared the MVA neutralizing antibodies of hACE2 mice after priming and boosting with
233 rMVA *2P* as well as after boosting with RBD protein. The *2P* prime elicited high MVA
234 neutralizing antibody, which was increased by more than a log after the homologous boost but
235 not by the RBP protein boost (Fig. S4). We suspect that the primary antibody response to the

236 rMVA attenuated the subsequent MVA infection and that the boost in MVA neutralizing
237 antibody and CoV-2 S binding antibody were due in part to the virus particles and associated
238 membranes of the virus inoculum. Boosting with the RBD protein, however, was not attenuated
239 by priming with the rMVA and stimulated a strong anamnestic response to CoV-2 S.

240 At 2 weeks after the boosts, the hACE2 mice were infected IN with 1×10^5 TCID₅₀ of
241 CoV-2. The naive and parental MVA immunized mice lost weight by day 5 and were moribund
242 on day 6 (Fig. 5D). The similarity between the two controls indicated that non-specific innate
243 immune responses due to the parental MVA were not significantly protective at the time of
244 challenge. In contrast, regardless of the boost, the rMVA vaccinated mice lost no weight and
245 appeared healthy throughout the experiment. The surviving mice were re-challenged with CoV-2
246 after 2 weeks and again showed no weight loss, whereas additional naive mice succumbed to the
247 virus infection by day 6 (Fig. 5E).

248 The lungs of naive and parental MVA immunized control mice had high titers of
249 infectious CoV-2 on day 2, which dropped slightly on day 5, whereas no infectious virus was
250 found in any of the 16 rMVA vaccinated mice at either time regardless of the prime or boost
251 (Fig. 5F). The virus titers in the nasal turbinates of control mice peaked at day 2 but were still
252 elevated at day 5 (Fig. 5G). In contrast, only one rMVA vaccinated mouse had a low level of
253 virus in the turbinates that was more than 2 logs lower than controls on day 2 and none had
254 detectable virus on day 5.

255 Subgenomic N and S mRNAs were analyzed by digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) using
256 specific primers to distinguish newly synthesized RNA from input viral RNA. High levels of N
257 and S mRNA were found in lungs of both control groups on days 2 and 5 (Fig. 5H). In contrast S
258 mRNA was not detected in the lungs of rMVA vaccinated animals at either time and the more

259 abundant N mRNA was barely detected in a few animals at 4.5 to 5 logs lower than controls on
260 day 2 and none on day 5 (Fig. 5H). N and S mRNAs were also detected in the nasal turbinates of
261 control mice on both days but had decreased about a log between the two times (Fig. 5I). In
262 rMVA vaccinated mice, N and S mRNAs were only detected on day 2 and the amounts were 43-
263 and 85-fold lower, respectively, than the controls. Statistical significance ($p < 0.004$) was
264 determined by combining the values for N mRNAs on day 2 from both control groups and
265 comparing that to the combined values from all rMVA vaccinated mice. The same p value was
266 obtained when the S mRNAs were compared. Neither N nor S mRNA was detected in the nasal
267 turbinates of any of the rMVA vaccinated mice on day 5. Thus, all rMVA vaccinated mice
268 exhibited a high degree of protection against CoV-2 regardless of whether they were primed with
269 *2P* or *Tri* and boosted with the homologous rMVA or RBD protein.

270

271 **Single vaccination.** The similar levels of neutralizing antibody after priming and boosting with
272 *2P* and *Tri*, led us to investigate whether a single rMVA vaccination would be sufficient to
273 protect hACE2 mice against an intranasal challenge with CoV-2. The hACE2 mice were
274 vaccinated with parental MVA or *Tri* and challenged 3 weeks later. Prior to challenge, the
275 elevated binding and neutralizing antibody levels (Fig. 6A, B) were consistent with previous
276 experiments. Following IN administration of CoV-2, mice that received the parental MVA
277 suffered severe weight loss and became moribund, whereas the mice that received *Tri* remained
278 healthy (Fig. 6C). Moreover, no infectious CoV-2 or subgenomic N or S mRNA was detected in
279 lungs or nasal turbinates of the rMVA vaccinated mice on day 5 (Fig. 6D-F).

280

281 **Protection of hACE2 mice by passive transfer of serum.** A passive transfer experiment was
282 carried out to determine whether antibody induced by vaccination with rMVA S vectors is
283 sufficient to protect against lethal infection with CoV-2. Sera were pooled from mice that had
284 been vaccinated by priming and boosting with parental MVA or rMVA expressing WT S.
285 Aliquots were injected into the peritoneum of hACE2 mice, which were challenged with CoV-2
286 approximately 24 h later. A few hours before the challenge, the mice were bled and the
287 pseudotype neutralizing titers of 160 NT50 were found for each of the mice that received the
288 immune serum, well below the titers of mice that received rMVA vaccinations. Nevertheless, the
289 mice showed no signs of weight loss or ill health following inoculation of CoV-2 (Fig. 6G).

290

291 **Discussion**

292 The CoV-2 S protein is the major target of neutralizing antibodies. In an attempt to optimize the
293 synthesis and immunogenicity of S, we constructed a panel of rMVAs that expressed unmodified
294 S or S with one or multiple modifications. However, little or no difference was found in the cell
295 surface expression of the variant forms of S and each of the rMVAs stimulated similar levels of
296 antibody that bound S in an ELISA and neutralized a CoV-2 S pseudotype virus. A common
297 feature of all the rMVAs was surface expression of the RBD as shown by interaction with an
298 anti-RBD mAb and soluble hACE2.

299 Isotype analysis indicated that the rMVAs induced a well-balanced predominantly Th1
300 type response with IgG2a or IgG2c (depending on the mouse strain) > IgG2b > IgG1 > IgG3,
301 which is the usual order following a viral infection and by IFN γ stimulation (45-47). IgG2a,
302 IgG2b and IgG2c have similar functions and are able to fix complement and activate Fc
303 receptors to promote virus clearance, whereas IgG1 may limit inflammation (47). Lower levels

304 of binding and neutralizing antibodies were detected following priming and boosting with
305 purified soluble RBD protein in QS21 adjuvant. In addition, IgG1 was predominant when mice
306 were immunized with RBD protein. Nevertheless, higher binding and neutralizing titers were
307 obtained after priming with an rMVA and boosting with RBD protein rather than the
308 homologous rMVA. In part, this may be explained by attenuation of rMVA boosts by immunity
309 to the live virus vector that was generated during the prime. Extending the interval between the
310 first and second rMVA vaccinations to allow the anti-MVA immunity to decline might enhance
311 boosting. Interestingly, the predominance of IgG2a and IgG2c was maintained when RBD was
312 used as the boost for rMVAs, suggesting that the protein stimulated an anamnestic response. The
313 trade-off, however, was a lower CD8+IFN γ + T cell response with the heterologous protocol.

314 The neutralizing antibody titers obtained with the rMVAs (NT50 of $\sim 10^3$ or higher with
315 the RBD protein boost) compared favorably with that achieved by mRNA immunizations. Using
316 the same lentivirus pseudovirus protocol and reagents, the neutralizing titers for immunizations
317 after a prime and boost with mRNA encoding the 2P-modified S reached 819, 89 and 1115
318 reciprocal IC50 geometric mean titer for BALB/c, C57BL/6 and B6C3F1/J mice, respectively
319 (11) and pseudovirus neutralizing titers of ~ 340 NT50 were obtained with 100 to 250 μ g of
320 mRNA in a phase 1 clinical study (48). How well rMVA S constructs will do in other animal
321 models and humans remains to be determined.

322 K18-hACE2 mice were chosen for CoV-2 protection studies because of their
323 susceptibility to severe disease including lung inflammation and death (43, 44). Studies were
324 performed in which the mice were challenged after priming and boosting or after just priming.
325 For the prime-boost study, the mice were first vaccinated with rMVAs *2P* or *Tri* and boosted
326 with the homologous rMVA or with RBD protein in QS21 adjuvant. The control naive mice and

327 mice immunized with the parental MVA lost weight and exhibited signs of morbidity within 5 to
328 6 days after IN inoculation with CoV-2, whereas the challenged mice of all rMVA vaccination
329 groups remained healthy and without weight loss. The rMVA vaccinated mice also resisted a
330 second challenge two weeks later. High virus titers were present in the lungs of the control mice
331 on day 2 and slightly lower on day 5, whereas no virus was detected in the lungs of any of the
332 vaccinated mice. Although CoV-2 was isolated from the nasal turbinates of all control mice on
333 days 2 and 5, only one of eight rMVA vaccinated mice had a low amount of virus on day 2 and
334 none of eight had detectable virus on day 5. High levels of subgenomic N and slightly lower S
335 mRNAs were detected in the lungs of control mice, whereas only traces of N and no S were
336 found in a minority of rMVA vaccinated mice on day 2 only. However, all rMVA vaccinated
337 mice had low levels of subgenomic RNA in the nasal turbinates on day 2 compared to control
338 mice, which was cleared by day 5. Mice challenged after a single rMVA immunization were also
339 protected and had no detectable virus or subgenomic RNAs in the lungs or nasal turbinates on
340 day 5. The detection of low amounts of RNA in the nasal turbinates that was subsequently
341 cleared indicated that sterilizing immunity had not been obtained by systemic rMVA vaccination
342 and would likely require local immunization.

343 Since the MVA vectors stimulated both antibody and T cells, a passive immunization
344 experiment was carried out to evaluate the protective role of antibody alone. Serum from
345 BALB/c mice that had been vaccinated with MVA expressing WT S was injected
346 intraperitoneally into K18-hACE2 mice resulting in NT50s of 160 prior to challenge. Following
347 challenge, the mice remained healthy and lost no weight indicating that antibody is sufficient for
348 protection in this model and that the level of neutralizing antibody elicited by active
349 immunization is considerably higher than necessary.

350 In the present study, we evaluated rMVA CoV-2 vaccines administered IM with
351 homologous or protein boost protocols. Previous studies have shown enhanced responses when
352 rMVAs were combined with recombinant DNA or other virus vectors (49-51). For example, a
353 filovirus vaccine consisting of an Ad26 vector followed by a rMVA was safe and immunogenic
354 in a phase 2 trial (51). The stability of both Ad26 and rMVA compared to mRNA vaccines,
355 which must be kept frozen except for short periods, is an advantage for global distribution. The
356 rMVA component was shown to remain stable for 24 months frozen, 12 months at 2-8°C and up
357 to 6 h at 40°C in a syringe needle (52). Another point to consider is the route of administration,
358 which can affect the ability of vaccines to prevent spread. In addition to IM and subcutaneous
359 routes, rMVAs can be administered orally, IN and by aerosol (53-60). Although IM
360 administration of the rMVA CoV-2 S vectors greatly reduced and rapidly eliminated virus
361 replication in the nasal turbinates, it will be of interest to determine whether IN administration
362 would prevent replication entirely.

363

364 **Materials and Methods**

365 **Cells.** Cells were maintained at 37°C in 5% CO₂ humidified incubators. HeLa cells (ATCC
366 CCL-2) and Vero E6 cells (ATCC CRL-1586) were grown in Dulbecco's modified eagle's
367 medium (DMEM) supplemented with 8% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma-Aldrich), 2 mM L-
368 glutamine, 100 U/ml of penicillin, and 100 µg/ml of streptomycin (Quality Biological). 293T-
369 hACE2.MF cells were propagated in the above medium supplemented with 3 µg/ml of
370 puromycin. Primary CEF prepared from 10-day old fertile eggs (Charles River) were grown in
371 minimum essential medium with Earle's balanced salts (EMEM) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2
372 mM L-glutamine, 100 U/ml of penicillin, and 100 µg/ml of streptomycin.

373
374 **Mice.** Five-to six-week-old female BALB/cAnNTac and C57BL/6ANTac were obtained from
375 Taconic Biosciences and B6.Cg-Tg(K18-ACE2)2PrImn/J from Jackson Laboratories. Mice were
376 separated into groups of 2-5 animals in small, ventilated microisolator cages in an ABSL-2
377 facility and used after 1-5 additional 5 weeks.

378
379 **Construction of Recombinant Viruses.** DNA encoding the CoV-2 S protein (QHU36824.1),
380 with a C-terminal 3xFLAG tag and modified by removing four VACV early transcription
381 termination signals (TTTTTNT) and runs of four or more consecutive Gs or Cs, was chemically
382 synthesized (Thermo Fisher). Another construct (*Tri*) with the proline substitutions
383 (K986P/V987P), furin recognition site substitutions (aa 682–685 RRAR to GSAS), and C-
384 terminal 19 aa deletion of ERRS was also synthesized. Constructs with these individual
385 mutations were generated using Q5 Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (New England Biolabs). A 2-
386 step PCR protocol using the Q5 mutagenesis kit was used to join nucleotides 1-117, 955-1782
387 and 3586-3819 to form the ORF for *RBD*. The DNAs were inserted into the pLW44 transfer
388 vector (36) at the *Xma*I and *Sal*I sites, which placed the ORF under the control of the VACV
389 modified H5 early late promoter and adjacent to the separate gene encoding enhanced GFP
390 regulated by the VACV P11 late promoter.

391 To produce rMVAs, linearized plasmids were transfected into cells infected with MVA
392 allowing recombination into the existing deletion III site in the MVA genome (36). The rMVAs
393 were clonally purified by four successive rounds of fluorescent plaque isolation, propagated in
394 CEF, and purified by sedimentation twice through a 36% sucrose cushion. The genetic purities of
395 the recombinant viruses were confirmed by PCR amplification and sequencing of the modified

396 region. Titers of MVAs were determined in CEF by staining plaques with anti-VACV rabbit
397 antibodies (36).

398

399 **Western Blotting.** HeLa cells were infected with 5 PFU per cell of rMVAs for 18 h, washed
400 once with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), then lysed in LDS sample buffer with reducing agent
401 (Thermo Fisher). The lysates were dispersed in a sonicator for four 30 s periods; the proteins
402 were resolved on 4 to 12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris gels (Thermo Fisher) and transferred to a
403 nitrocellulose membrane with an iBlot2 system (Thermo Fisher). The membrane was blocked
404 with 5% nonfat milk in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 1 h, washed with TBS with 0.1% Tween
405 20 (TBST), and then incubated at 4°C overnight with rabbit anti-CoV-2 RBD polyclonal
406 antibody (Cat# 40592-T62, Sino Biological) or anti-FLAG M2 peroxidase antibody (Cat#
407 A8592, MilliporeSigma) in 5% nonfat milk in TBST. The membrane that had been incubated
408 with anti-RBD antibody was then incubated for 1 h with secondary antibody conjugated to
409 horseradish peroxidase (Jackson ImmunoResearch). After washing, the membrane bound
410 proteins were detected with SuperSignal West Dura substrate (Thermo Fisher).

411

412 **Detection of S Protein by Flow Cytometry.** HeLa cells were infected with 5 PFU per cell of
413 rMVAs. After 24 h, the infected cells were stained for intracellular and surface S in parallel. For
414 intracellular staining, cells were fixed with Cytfix/Cytoperm (BD Biosciences), permeabilized
415 with Perm/Wash Buffer (BD Biosciences), and incubated with anti-CoV-2 Spike RBD mAb
416 (SARS2-02) (13) followed by APC-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibody (Cat# 405308,
417 BioLegend). For surface detection, the cells were stained directly using the same primary and
418 secondary antibodies. The binding of hACE2 to surface expressed S protein on infected HeLa

419 cells was detected by incubating with 100 ng/10⁶ cells of biotinylated human ACE2 protein
420 (Cat# 10108-H08H-B, Sino Biological) followed by Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated anti-hACE2
421 antibody (Cat# FAB9332R, R&D Systems). The stained cells were acquired on a FACSCalibur
422 cytometer using Cell Quest software and analyzed with FlowJo (BD Biosciences).

423

424 **Detection of S-Binding Antibodies by ELISA.** CoV-2 S protein produced in HEK293 cells was
425 obtained from the NIAID Vaccine Research Center or Sino Biological and diluted in cold PBS to
426 a concentration of 1 µg/ml. Diluted S protein (100 µl) was added to each well of a MaxiSorp 96-
427 well flat-bottom plate (Thermo Fisher). After incubation for 16-18 h at 4°C, the wells were
428 washed 3 times with 250 µl of PBS + 0.05% Tween 20 (PBS-T, Accurate Chemical) and plates
429 were blocked with 200 µl PBS-T + 5% Nonfat Dry Milk for 2 h at room temperature. During the
430 blocking phase, a series of eight 4-fold dilutions of each mouse serum sample was prepared in
431 blocking buffer. After blocking, plates were washed 3 times with 250 µl of PBS-T and 100 µl of
432 each 4-fold dilution of serum was added to the appropriate well(s) and incubated for 1 h at room
433 temperature. After incubation with serum, plates were washed 3 times with 250 µl of PBS-T.
434 HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) (Thermo Fisher) was diluted 1:4000 in blocking
435 buffer and 100 µl of the secondary antibody was added to each well for 1 h at room temperature.
436 For detection of antibody isotypes, peroxidase-conjugated isotype-specific antibodies were used
437 (Thermo Fisher). Plates were washed 3 times with 250 µl of PBS-T and then 100 µl of KPL
438 SureBlue TMB 1-component microwell peroxidase substrate (Seracare) was added to each well.
439 The chemiluminescence reaction was stopped after 10 min by addition of 100 µl of 1N sulfuric
440 acid. Spectrophotometric measurements were made at A₄₅₀ and A₆₅₀ using a Spectramax Plus
441 384 plate reader with Softmax Pro analysis software (Molecular Devices). Final endpoint titers

442 (1/n) for each sample were determined as 4-fold above the average OD of those wells not
443 containing primary antibody (OD 0.03-0.04).

444

445 **Stimulation and Staining of Lymphocytes.** Splenocytes from individual mice or pooled from
446 3-5 mice were suspended at 1.5×10^7 cells/ml in RPMI (Quality Biological) supplemented with
447 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 10 U/ml penicillin, 10 μ g/ml streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 2
448 mM HEPES as previously described (61). Splenocytes (100 μ l) were mixed with 100 μ l of
449 individual peptide pools in 96-well plates and incubated at 37°C for 1 h after which brefeldin A
450 (Sigma Aldrich) was added and incubation continued for 4-5 h. Staining of cells was performed
451 at 4°C. Fc receptors were blocked with anti-CD16/32 (Clone 2.4G2, a gift from Jack Bennink,
452 NIAID) for 30 min. Surface staining was performed with anti-mouse CD3-FITC (Clone 17A2;
453 BioLegend), anti-mouse CD4-PE (Clone H129.19; BD Biosciences), and anti-CD8-PerCP-Cy5.5
454 (BD Biosciences) for 1 h. Cells were then fixed and permeabilized with Cytofix/Cytoperm
455 solution and stained with IFN γ -APC (BD Biosciences) for 1 h. Cells were washed with PBS and
456 suspended in PBS containing 2% paraformaldehyde. Approximately 100,000 events were
457 acquired on a FACSCaliber cytometer using Cell Quest software and analyzed with FlowJo (BD
458 Biosciences).

459 A peptide array was obtained from BEI Resources (catalog # NR-52402; SARS-Related
460 Coronavirus 2 Spike (S) Glycoprotein). Each peptide was dissolved in DMSO at 10 μ g/ml. A
461 total of 18 peptide pools were prepared, containing 3-11 peptides per pool. For splenocyte
462 stimulation, the final concentration of each peptide was 2 μ g/ml. Peptides in the 2 positive pools
463 were: Pool #4 (BEI peptides 32-41); Pool #7 (BEI peptides 61, 64, 77).

464

465 **Pseudovirus Neutralization Assay.** The CoV-2 lentivirus pseudotype assay was carried out as
466 described by Corbett et al. (11) using cells and plasmids obtained from the NIAID Vaccine
467 Research Center. To determine neutralization titers, serum samples were heat inactivated for 30
468 min at 56°C and clarified by high speed microcentrifugation. The day before titration, 5,000
469 293T-hACE2.MF cells were seeded per well in 96-well white walled clear bottom tissue culture
470 plates (Corning) in DMEM supplemented with 10% heat inactivated FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine,
471 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin) with 3 µg/ml of puromycin. For each serum
472 sample, duplicate 4-fold dilution series were prepared in 96-well U-bottom plates (Corning) in
473 DMEM supplemented with 5% heat inactivated FBS with the starting dilution being 1:20 in a
474 final volume of 45 µl per well. The pseudovirus was thawed at 37°C and 45 µl of a dilution
475 previously shown to exhibit a 1000-fold difference in luciferase between uninfected and infected
476 cells was added to all wells except for controls. After 45 min at 37°C, the medium was aspirated
477 and 50 µl sample-virus mixture was added to each well and incubated for 2 h at 37°C. DMEM
478 (150 µl) supplemented with 5% heat inactivated FBS was added per well and plates were
479 incubated for 72 h at 37°C. Medium was removed from the wells and the cells were lysed with
480 25 µl per well of 1X cell lysis reagent (Promega), shaken at 400 rpm for 15 min at room
481 temperature. Luciferase reagent (50 µl, Promega) was added per well and 90 s later relative
482 luciferase units (RLU) were read on the luminometer (EnSight, Perkin Elmer, 570 nm
483 wavelength, 0.1 mm distance, 0.3 s read). NT50 were calculated using Prism (GraphPad
484 Software) to plot dose-response curves, normalized using the average of the no virus wells as
485 100% neutralization, and the average of the no serum wells as 0%.

486

487 **MVA Neutralization Assay.** A semi-automated flow cytometric assay was carried out as
488 previously described (62) except for substitution of MVA expressing GFP for the WR strain of
489 VACV. Briefly, ten 2-fold serial dilutions of heat-inactivated serum from vaccinated mice were
490 prepared in a 96-well plate and 6.25×10^3 PFU of MVA-GFP was added to each well and
491 incubated at 37°C for 1 h. Approximately 10^5 HeLa suspension cells were added to each well in
492 the presence of 44 µg/ml of cytosine arabinoside. After 18 h at 37°C, the cells were fixed in 2%
493 paraformaldehyde and acquired with a FACSCalibur cytometer using Cell Quest software and
494 analyzed with FlowJo. The dilution of mouse serum that reduced the percentage of GFP-
495 expressing cells by 50% (IC₅₀) was determined by nonlinear regression using Prism.

496

497 **SARS CoV-2 Challenge Virus.** SARS CoV-2 USA-WA1/2019 was obtained from BEI
498 resources (Ref# NR-52281) and propagated in a BSL-3 laboratory using Vero E6 cells cultured
499 in DMEM+Glutamax supplemented with 2% heat-inactivated FBS and penicillin, streptomycin,
500 and fungizone by Bernard Lafont of the NIAID SARS Virology Core laboratory. The TCID₅₀ of
501 the clarified culture medium was determined on Vero E6 cells after staining with crystal violet
502 and scored by the Reed-Muench method.

503

504 **Vaccination and Challenge Experiments.** Prior to vaccination, the virus was thawed, sonicated
505 twice for 30 s on ice and diluted to 2×10^8 PFU/ml in PBS supplemented with 0.05% bovine
506 serum albumin. In an ABSL-2 laboratory, 50 µl of diluted virus was injected IM into each hind
507 leg of the animal for a total dose of 2×10^7 PFU. Unless otherwise stated, baculovirus RBD
508 protein provided by Eugene Valkov (NCI) was diluted to 0.2 mg/ml in PBS containing 0.3
509 mg/ml of QS-21 adjuvant (Desert King International, San Diego, CA) and 10 µg of RBD was

510 injected IM into the left hind leg. All mice scheduled to be infected with SARS-CoV-2 were
511 transferred to an ABSL-3 laboratory a few days prior to virus challenge. The challenge stock of
512 SARS-CoV-2 USA-WA1/2019 was diluted to 2×10^6 TCID₅₀/ml in PBS. Mice were lightly
513 sedated with isoflourine and inoculated IN with 50 μ l of SARS-CoV-2. After infection,
514 morbidity/mortality status and weights were assessed and recorded daily for 14 days by the
515 NIAID Comparative Medical Branch.

516

517 **Determination of CoV-2 in Lungs and Nasal Turbinates.** At 2- and 5-days post-infection with
518 CoV-2, lung and nasal turbinates were removed and placed in 1.5-2 ml of ice-cold Dulbecco's
519 PBS and weights of lungs were recorded. Tissues were homogenized for three 25 s intervals in
520 ice water using a GLH-1 grinder equipped with a disposable probe and aerosol proof cap (Omni
521 International). Homogenates were cleared of debris by centrifugation at 4,000 xg for 10 min and
522 the supernatants were transferred to sterile tubes and stored at -80°C. Clarified homogenates
523 were thawed and titrated in quadruplicate on Vero E6 cells using 10-fold serial dilutions in 96-
524 well microtiter plates. After 72-96 h, the plates were stained with crystal violet and scored using
525 the Reed-Muench method to determine TCID₅₀.

526

527 **Determination of CoV-2 RNA in Lungs and Nasal Turbinates.** Immediately after
528 homogenization of lungs and turbinates, 0.125 ml was transferred to sterile tubes, 0.9 ml Trizol
529 (Thermo Fisher) was added and the mixture frozen. After thawing, RNA was extracted using the
530 Trizol Plus RNA Purification Kit with Phasemaker tubes (Thermo Fisher) following the
531 manufacturer's instructions. Contaminating DNA was removed from the eluted RNA using the
532 Turbo DNA-free kit (Thermo Fisher) and RNA was reverse-transcribed using the iScript cDNA

533 synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). CoV-2 S and N transcripts and 18s rRNA were quantified
534 by ddPCR with specific primers (CoV-2 RNA Leader, Forward – CGA TCT CTT GTA GAT
535 CTG TTC TCT AAA C; CoV-2 S, Reverse – TCT TAG TAC CAT TGG TCC CAG AGA;
536 CoV-2 N, Reverse - GGT CTT CCT TGC CAT GTT GAG T; 18S, Forward - GGC CCT GTA
537 ATT GGA ATG AGT C; 18S, Reverse - CCA AGA TCC AAC TAC GAG CTT) using an
538 automated droplet generator and QX200 Droplet Reader (Bio-Rad). The values for CoV-2 S
539 transcripts were normalized using the 18s RNA in the same sample.

540

541 **Passive Serum Transfer.** Serum for passive transfer was obtained from 20 BALB/c mice that
542 were inoculated IM with rMVA S (*WT*) and 10 BALB/c mice with parental MVA at 0 and 3
543 weeks. Two weeks after the boosts, the MVA S and control MVA sera were pooled separately.
544 Four naive K18-hACE2 mice each received 0.4 ml of MVA S serum and three received 0.4 ml of
545 the control MVA serum. The following day, mice were bled to determine levels of SARS-CoV-2
546 binding and neutralizing antibody. Approximately 4 h later, the mice were challenged IN with
547 10^5 TCID₅₀ of CoV-2. Mice were observed and weighed over the next two weeks.

548

549 **Safety and Ethics.** All experiments and procedures involving mice were approved under
550 protocol LVD29E by the NIAID Animal Care and Use Committee according to standards set
551 forth in the NIH guidelines, Animal Welfare Act, and US Federal Law. Euthanasia was carried
552 out using carbon dioxide inhalation in accordance with the American Veterinary Medical
553 Association Guidelines for Euthanasia of Animals (2013 Report of the AVMA Panel of
554 Euthanasia). Experiments with SARS-CoV-2 were carried out under BSL-3 containment.

555

556 **Data Availability.** Materials and data are available upon request.

557

558 **Acknowledgements**

559 We thank Kizzmekia Corbett of the NIAID Vaccine Research Center for reagents and protocols,

560 Eugene Valkov of the NCI for RBD protein, Bernard Lafont of NIAID for CoV-2 and use of the

561 BSL-3 facility, Michael Holbrook of NIAID for patient serum, and Michael Diamond and Laura

562 VanBlargan of Washington University in St. Louis for mouse mAbs. The technical staff of the

563 NIAID Comparative Medical Branch provided animal care. The work was funded by the

564 Division of Intramural Research, NIAID.

565

566 **References**

567 1. P. Zhou *et al.*, A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat
568 origin. *Nature* **579**, 270-273 (2020).

569 2. W. J. McAleer *et al.*, Human hepatitis B vaccine from recombinant yeast. 1984.
570 *Biotechnology* **24**, 500-502 (1992).

571 3. C. D. Harro *et al.*, Safety and immunogenicity trial in adult volunteers of a human
572 papillomavirus 16 L1 virus-like particle vaccine. *J Natl Cancer Inst* **93**, 284-292 (2001).

573 4. J. J. Treanor *et al.*, Safety and immunogenicity of a baculovirus-expressed hemagglutinin
574 influenza vaccine: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* **297**, 1577-1582 (2007).

575 5. A. C. Tricco *et al.*, Efficacy, effectiveness, and safety of herpes zoster vaccines in adults
576 aged 50 and older: systematic review and network meta-analysis. *BMJ* **363**, k4029

577 (2018).

- 578 6. B. S. Davis *et al.*, West Nile virus recombinant DNA vaccine protects mouse and horse
579 from virus challenge and expresses in vitro a noninfectious recombinant antigen that can
580 be used in enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays. *J Virol* **75**, 4040-4047 (2001).
- 581 7. K. A. Garver, S. E. LaPatra, G. Kurath, Efficacy of an infectious hematopoietic necrosis
582 (IHN) virus DNA vaccine in Chinook *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha* and sockeye *O. nerka*
583 salmon. *Dis Aquat Organ* **64**, 13-22 (2005).
- 584 8. N. Pardi, M. J. Hogan, F. W. Porter, D. Weissman, mRNA vaccines - a new era in
585 vaccinology. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **17**, 261-279 (2018).
- 586 9. B. Ramezani, I. Haan, A. Osterhaus, E. Claassen, Vector-based genetically modified
587 vaccines: Exploiting Jenner's legacy. *Vaccine* **34**, 6436-6448 (2016).
- 588 10. G. A. Poland, I. G. Ovsyannikova, R. B. Kennedy, SARS-CoV-2 immunity: review and
589 applications to phase 3 vaccine candidates. *Lancet* 10.1016/S0140-6736(20)32137-1
590 (2020).
- 591 11. K. S. Corbett *et al.*, SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine design enabled by prototype pathogen
592 preparedness. *Nature* 10.1038/s41586-020-2622-0 (2020).
- 593 12. E. J. Anderson *et al.*, Safety and Immunogenicity of SARS-CoV-2 mRNA-1273 Vaccine
594 in Older Adults. *N Engl J Med* 10.1056/NEJMoa2028436 (2020).
- 595 13. A. O. Hassan *et al.*, A Single-Dose Intranasal ChAd Vaccine Protects Upper and Lower
596 Respiratory Tracts against SARS-CoV-2. *Cell* **183**, 169-184 e113 (2020).
- 597 14. N. van Doremalen *et al.*, ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine prevents SARS-CoV-2 pneumonia
598 in rhesus macaques. *Nature* 10.1038/s41586-020-2608-y (2020).

- 599 15. J. B. Case *et al.*, Replication-Competent Vesicular Stomatitis Virus Vaccine Vector
600 Protects against SARS-CoV-2-Mediated Pathogenesis in Mice. *Cell Host Microbe* **28**,
601 465-474 e464 (2020).
- 602 16. J. H. Erasmus *et al.*, An Alphavirus-derived replicon RNA vaccine induces SARS-CoV-2
603 neutralizing antibody and T cell responses in mice and nonhuman primates. *Sci Transl*
604 *Med* **12** (2020).
- 605 17. W. Sun *et al.*, A Newcastle disease virus (NDV) expressing membrane-anchored spike as
606 a cost-effective inactivated SARS-CoV-2 vaccine. *bioRxiv* 10.1101/2020.07.30.229120
607 (2020).
- 608 18. F. Chiuppesi *et al.*, Development of a multi-antigenic SARS-CoV-2 vaccine candidate
609 using a synthetic poxvirus platform. *Nat Commun* **11**, 6121 (2020).
- 610 19. H. Bisht *et al.*, Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus spike protein expressed by
611 attenuated vaccinia virus protectively immunizes mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **101**,
612 6641-6646 (2004).
- 613 20. Z. W. Chen *et al.*, Recombinant modified vaccinia virus Ankara expressing the spike
614 glycoprotein of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus induces protective
615 neutralizing antibodies primarily targeting the receptor binding region. *Journal of*
616 *Virology* **79**, 2678-2688 (2005).
- 617 21. A. Volz *et al.*, Protective Efficacy of Recombinant Modified Vaccinia Virus Ankara
618 Delivering Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus Spike Glycoprotein. *Journal*
619 *of Virology* **89**, 8651-8656 (2015).
- 620 22. B. L. Haagmans *et al.*, An orthopoxvirus-based vaccine reduces virus excretion after
621 MERS-CoV infection in dromedary camels. *Science* **351**, 77-81 (2016).

- 622 23. T. Koch *et al.*, Safety and immunogenicity of a modified vaccinia virus Ankara vector
623 vaccine candidate for Middle East respiratory syndrome: an open-label, phase 1 trial.
624 *Lancet Infect Dis* **20**, 827-838 (2020).
- 625 24. M. Mackett, G. L. Smith, B. Moss, Vaccinia virus: a selectable eukaryotic cloning and
626 expression vector. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **79**, 7415-7419 (1982).
- 627 25. D. Panicali, E. Paoletti, Construction of poxviruses as cloning vectors: insertion of the
628 thymidine kinase gene from herpes simplex virus into the DNA of infectious vaccinia
629 virus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **79**, 4927-4931 (1982).
- 630 26. A. Volz, G. Sutter, "Modified vaccinia virus Ankara: History, value in basic research, and
631 current perspectives for vaccine development" in *Advances in Virus Research*, Vol 97,
632 M. Kielian, T. C. Mettenleiter, M. J. Roossinck, Eds. (2017), vol. 97, pp. 187-243.
- 633 27. G. Sutter, B. Moss, Nonreplicating vaccinia vector efficiently expresses recombinant
634 genes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **89**, 10847-10851 (1992).
- 635 28. G. Sutter, L. S. Wyatt, P. L. Foley, J. R. Bennink, B. Moss, A recombinant vector derived
636 from the host range-restricted and highly attenuated MVA strain of vaccinia virus
637 stimulates protective immunity in mice to influenza virus. *Vaccine* **12**, 1032-1040 (1994).
- 638 29. J. Pallesen *et al.*, Immunogenicity and structures of a rationally designed prefusion
639 MERS-CoV spike antigen. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **114**, E7348-E7357 (2017).
- 640 30. D. Wrapp *et al.*, Cryo-EM structure of the 2019-nCoV spike in the prefusion
641 conformation. *Science* **367**, 1260-1263 (2020).
- 642 31. A. C. Walls *et al.*, Structure, Function, and Antigenicity of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike
643 Glycoprotein. *Cell* **181**, 281-292 e286 (2020).

- 644 32. S. Yang, M. W. Carroll, A. P. Torres-Duarte, B. Moss, E. A. Davidson, Addition of the
645 MSA1 signal and anchor sequences to the malaria merozoite surface antigen 1 C-terminal
646 region enhances immunogenicity when expressed by recombinant vaccinia virus. *Vaccine*
647 **15**, 1303-1313 (1997).
- 648 33. B. Korber *et al.*, Tracking Changes in SARS-CoV-2 Spike: Evidence that D614G
649 Increases Infectivity of the COVID-19 Virus. *Cell* **182**, 812-827 e819 (2020).
- 650 34. P. L. Earl, A. W. Hügin, B. Moss, Removal of cryptic poxvirus transcription termination
651 signals from the human immunodeficiency virus type 1 envelope gene enhances
652 expression and immunogenicity of a recombinant vaccinia virus. *J. Virol.* **64**, 2448-2451
653 (1990).
- 654 35. L. S. Wyatt *et al.*, Elucidating and minimizing the loss by recombinant vaccinia virus of
655 human immunodeficiency virus gene expression resulting from spontaneous mutations
656 and positive selection. *Journal of Virology* **83**, 7176-7184 (2009).
- 657 36. L. S. Wyatt, P. L. Earl, B. Moss, Generation of Recombinant Vaccinia Viruses. *Curr.*
658 *Protoc. Mol. Biol.* **117**, 16 17 11-16 17 18 (2017).
- 659 37. M. Hoffmann *et al.*, SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is
660 Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease Inhibitor. *Cell* **181**, 271-280 e278 (2020).
- 661 38. X. Ou *et al.*, Characterization of spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 on virus entry and
662 its immune cross-reactivity with SARS-CoV. *Nat Commun* **11**, 1620 (2020).
- 663 39. T. L. Stevens *et al.*, Regulation of antibody isotype secretion by subsets of antigen-
664 specific helper T cells. *Nature* **334**, 255-258 (1988).
- 665 40. T. R. Mosmann, R. L. Coffman, TH1 and TH2 cells: different patterns of lymphokine
666 secretion lead to different functional properties. *Annu. Rev. Immunol.* **7**, 145-173 (1989).

- 667 41. C. D. Mills, K. Kincaid, J. M. Alt, M. J. Heilman, A. M. Hill, M-1/M-2 macrophages and
668 the Th1/Th2 paradigm. *J Immunol* **164**, 6166-6173 (2000).
- 669 42. T. R. F. Smith *et al.*, Immunogenicity of a DNA vaccine candidate for COVID-19. *Nat*
670 *Commun* **11**, 2601 (2020).
- 671 43. P. B. McCray, Jr. *et al.*, Lethal infection of K18-hACE2 mice infected with severe acute
672 respiratory syndrome coronavirus. *J Virol* **81**, 813-821 (2007).
- 673 44. E. S. Winkler *et al.*, SARS-CoV-2 infection of human ACE2-transgenic mice causes
674 severe lung inflammation and impaired function. *Nat Immunol* 10.1038/s41590-020-
675 0778-2 (2020).
- 676 45. J. P. Coutelier, J. T. van der Logt, F. W. Heessen, G. Warnier, J. Van Snick, IgG2a
677 restriction of murine antibodies elicited by viral infections. *J Exp Med* **165**, 64-69 (1987).
- 678 46. F. D. Finkelman, I. M. Katona, T. R. Mosmann, R. L. Coffman, IFN-gamma regulates the
679 isotypes of Ig secreted during in vivo humoral immune responses. *J Immunol* **140**, 1022-
680 1027 (1988).
- 681 47. A. M. Collins, IgG subclass co-expression brings harmony to the quartet model of murine
682 IgG function. *Immunol Cell Biol* **94**, 949-954 (2016).
- 683 48. L. A. Jackson *et al.*, An mRNA Vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 - Preliminary Report. *N*
684 *Engl J Med* **383**, 1920-1931 (2020).
- 685 49. R. R. Amara *et al.*, Control of a mucosal challenge and prevention of AIDS by a
686 multiprotein DNA/MVA vaccine. *Science* **292**, 69-74 (2001).
- 687 50. P. A. Goepfert *et al.*, Phase 1 safety and immunogenicity testing of DNA and
688 recombinant modified vaccinia Ankara vaccines expressing HIV-1 virus-like particles. *J*
689 *Infect. Dis.* **203**, 610-619 (2011).

- 690 51. A. J. Pollard *et al.*, Safety and immunogenicity of a two-dose heterologous Ad26.ZEBOV
691 and MVA-BN-Filo Ebola vaccine regimen in adults in Europe (EBOVAC2): a
692 randomised, observer-blind, participant-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 2 trial. *Lancet*
693 *Infect Dis* 10.1016/S1473-3099(20)30476-X (2020).
- 694 52. M. A. H. Capelle *et al.*, Stability and suitability for storage and distribution of
695 Ad26.ZEBOV/MVA-BN(R)-Filo heterologous prime-boost Ebola vaccine. *Eur J Pharm*
696 *Biopharm* **129**, 215-221 (2018).
- 697 53. B. S. Bender *et al.*, Oral immunization with a replication-deficient recombinant vaccinia
698 virus protects mice against influenza. *J. Virol.* **70**, 6418-6424 (1996).
- 699 54. A. Durbin, L. S. Wyatt, J. Slew, B. Moss, B. R. Murphy, The immunogenicity and
700 efficacy of intranasally or parenterally administered replication-deficient vaccinia-
701 parainfluenza virus type 3 recombinants in rhesus monkeys. *Vaccine* **16**, 1324-1330
702 (1998).
- 703 55. M. M. Gherardi, E. Perez-Jimenez, J. L. Najera, M. Esteban, Induction of HIV immunity
704 in intranasal delivery of a MVA the genital tract after vector: Enhanced immunogenicity
705 after DNA prime-modified vaccinia virus Ankara boost immunization schedule. *Journal*
706 *of Immunology* **172**, 6209-6220 (2004).
- 707 56. M. Corbett *et al.*, Aerosol immunization with NYVAC and MVA vectored vaccines is
708 safe, simple, and immunogenic. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
709 *United States of America* **105**, 2046-2051 (2008).
- 710 57. B. L. Haagmans *et al.*, An orthopoxvirus-based vaccine reduces virus excretion after
711 MERS-CoV infection in dromedary camels. *Science* **351**, 77-81 (2016).

- 712 58. A. D. Curtis *et al.*, A simultaneous oral and intramuscular prime/sublingual boost with a
713 DNA/Modified Vaccinia Ankara viral vector-based vaccine induces simian
714 immunodeficiency virus-specific systemic and mucosal immune responses in juvenile
715 rhesus macaques. *Journal of Medical Primatology* **47**, 288-297 (2018).
- 716 59. A. T. Jones *et al.*, HIV-1 vaccination by needle-free oral injection induces strong mucosal
717 immunity and protects against SHIV challenge. *Nature Communications* **10** (2019).
- 718 60. R. Forster, H. Fleige, G. Sutter, Combating COVID-19: MVA Vector Vaccines Applied
719 to the Respiratory Tract as Promising Approach Toward Protective Immunity in the
720 Lung. *Frontiers in Immunology* **11** (2020).
- 721 61. P. L. Earl, J. L. Americo, B. Moss, Natural killer cells expanded in vivo or ex vivo with
722 IL-15 overcomes the inherent susceptibility of CAST mice to lethal infection with
723 orthopoxviruses. *PLoS Pathog* **16**, e1008505 (2020).
- 724 62. P. L. Earl, J. L. Americo, B. Moss, Development and use of a vaccinia virus
725 neutralization assay based on flow cytometric detection of green fluorescent protein. *J.*
726 *Virol.* **77**, 10684-10688 (2003).
727

728

729 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

730 **Fig. 1.** Diagrams of rMVAs. Top shows approximate locations of CoV-2 spike protein (S) and
731 green fluorescent protein (GFP) ORFs within rMVA. Modifications of S ORF are shown below
732 with names of constructs on the left. Abbreviations: SP, signal peptide; NTD, N-Terminal
733 domain; TM, transmembrane domain; CT, C-terminal domain; RBD, receptor binding domain;
734 3xFLAG, 3 tandem copies of FLAG epitope tag.

735

736 **Fig. 2.** Expression of modified S proteins. **(A, B)** Western blots. HeLa cells were mock infected
737 or infected with 5 PFU per cell of indicated rMVA for 18 h and total lysates were analyzed by
738 SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. After membrane transfer, the proteins were detected
739 with antibody to RBD or FLAG. The positions and masses in kDa of marker proteins are
740 indicated on left and the positions of S, S1, S2 and RBD on right. **(C, D)** Flow cytometry. HeLa
741 cells were infected in triplicate and permeabilized or stained directly with anti-SARS-CoV-2
742 Spike RBD mAb followed by APC-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG. Infected cells were
743 identified by GFP fluorescence and the percent that express S was determined by antibody
744 staining. Bars represent the geometric mean. **(E)** Mean fluorescent intensities. HeLa cells were
745 infected in duplicate and incubated with soluble hACE2 followed by Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated
746 anti-hACE2 antibody. Cells that express S were identified as in the previous panels and the
747 intensity of anti-hACE2 antibody determined. A representative of two experiments is shown.

748

749 **Fig. 3.** Binding and neutralizing antibody responses. BALB/c **(A-D)** or C57BL/6 **(E, F)** mice
750 were primed and boosted 3 weeks later with 10^7 PFU of parental MVA, rMVA expressing CoV-

751 1 S or rMVA expressing CoV-2 WT S or modified S proteins in each hind leg or with 10 μ g of
752 RBD protein in QS21 adjuvant in the left hind leg. Mice were bled before vaccination, at 3
753 weeks (just before the boost), and at 2 weeks after the boost. Antibody binding to S was
754 determined by ELISA. Reciprocal end point binding titers are shown in **A**, **B** and **E**. Dotted lines
755 indicate limit of detection. Pseudovirus neutralization titers are shown in **C**, **D** and **F** and are
756 plotted as NT50. In all panels, the tops of bars are the geometric mean titers. Abbreviations: X1
757 refers to sera collected 3 weeks after prime; X2 refers to sera collected two weeks after
758 homologous boost; / indicates heterologous boost with RBD protein.

759

760 **Fig. 4.** CD8⁺ T cell response. BALB/c mice (**A**) and C57BL/6 (**B**) mice were injected in each
761 hind leg with 10⁷ PFU of unmodified MVA or rMVA expressing WT CoV-2 S at 0 time and
762 again after 3 weeks. At 2 weeks after the boost, spleen cells were combined from 3-5 mice and
763 stimulated with pools of peptides derived from CoV-2 S protein and treated with Brefeldin A.
764 Cells were then stained for cell surface markers with mouse anti-CD3-FITC, anti-CD4-PE, and
765 anti-CD8-PerCP. Cells were subsequently stained intracellularly with mouse anti-IFN- γ -APC.
766 CD3⁺CD8⁺IFN γ ⁺ cells were enumerated by flow cytometry. BALB/c (**C**) and C57BL/6 (**D**)
767 mice were primed with the indicated parental MVA or rMVA and boosted with the homologous
768 rMVA or with RBD protein (Pro). Splenocytes from 4-5 mice were combined and stimulated
769 with pool #4 and pool #7 peptides and then analyzed as in panels A and B. (**E**) C57BL/6 mice
770 were primed with parental MVA or rMVA *Tri*. After 1 and 3 weeks the splenocytes of individual
771 mice (n=4) were analyzed as in panel A. Abbreviations: X2 refers to splenocytes collected after
772 homologous boost; / indicates heterologous boost with RBD protein. Standard deviations shown.

773

774 **Fig. 5.** Challenge of transgenic mice following prime and boost vaccinations. **(A)** Protocol
775 consisted of vaccinating five groups of six K18 hACE2 mice (female, 7 weeks old) IM in each
776 hind leg with 10^7 PFU of MVA or rMVA on days 0 (prime) and 21 (boost) and challenging
777 unvaccinated (naive) and vaccinated mice with 10^5 TCID₅₀ of CoV-2 IN on day 35. A second
778 IN challenge of surviving mice and two added naive mice was performed 2 weeks after the first
779 challenge. Mice were weighed daily and observed for signs of morbidity. Mice were bled before
780 vaccination (pre-bleed) and before the boost and 2 weeks after the boost. After challenge, 2 mice
781 from each group were sacrificed on days 2 (*) and 5 (**) to determine the amounts of CoV-2
782 virus and subgenomic RNA. **(B)** Binding antibody was determined by ELISA on serum from
783 each of the six mice of each vaccinated group and plotted as 1/end-point dilution. Dotted line
784 indicates limit of detection. Abbreviations: X1 refers to sera collected 3 weeks after prime; X2
785 refers to sera collected 2 weeks after homologous boost; / indicates heterologous boost with RBD
786 protein. **(C)** Neutralizing antibody was determined by a pseudovirus assay on serum from each
787 of the six mice in each group and plotted as NT₅₀. **(D)** Weights of surviving mice were
788 determined daily and plotted as per cent of starting weight. Asterisks indicate number of mice
789 that died or euthanized on a specific day. Data for one of the naive mice was obtained in a
790 preliminary experiment. **(E)** Weights were determined following the second challenge of
791 surviving mice and two naive mice. **(F)** Virus titers in lung homogenates obtained on days 2 and
792 5 were determined by end point dilution and plotted as TCID₅₀ per gram of tissue. The lower
793 two data points for naive mice on day 2 were determined in a preliminary experiment. **(G)** Virus
794 titers in nasal turbinate homogenates obtained on days 2 and 5 were determined as in panel F and
795 plotted as TCID₅₀ per sample. **(H)** RNA was isolated from lung homogenates on days 2 and 5.
796 CoV-2 N and S subgenomic RNAs were determined by ddPCR and plotted as copies per 10^8

797 copies of 18s rRNA in the same sample. **(I)** RNA was isolated from nasal turbinate homogenates
798 as described in panel H.

799

800 **Fig. 6.** Challenge of transgenic mice after a single vaccination and after passive transfer of
801 immune sera. **(A-F)** K18-hACE2 mice (female, 7 weeks old) were vaccinated IM on each hind
802 leg with 10^7 PFU of MVA (n=5) or rMVA *Tri* (n=8) and 5 mice of each group were challenged 3
803 weeks later with 10^5 TCID₅₀ of CoV-2 IN. **(A)** S-binding antibody prior to challenge. **(B)**
804 Neutralizing antibody prior to challenge. **(C)** Weights of mice after challenge. **(D)** Lung virus
805 titers. **(E)** Nasal turbinate virus titers. **(F)** N and S subgenomic RNA copies per 10^8 copies of 18s
806 RNA in lung and nasal turbinates. **(G)** Passive serum transfer. K18-hACE2 mice were injected
807 IP with 0.4 ml of pooled serum from mice vaccinated with parental MVA (n=3) or with MVA-S
808 (n=4) and challenged with 10^5 TCID₅₀ of CoV-2 IN. Mice were weighed on the indicated days
809 and values plotted as percent of starting weight of each mouse. Asterisks indicate number of
810 mice that died or were sacrificed due to morbidity on day 7.

811

812 Table 1. Isotype analysis of anti-S antibodies

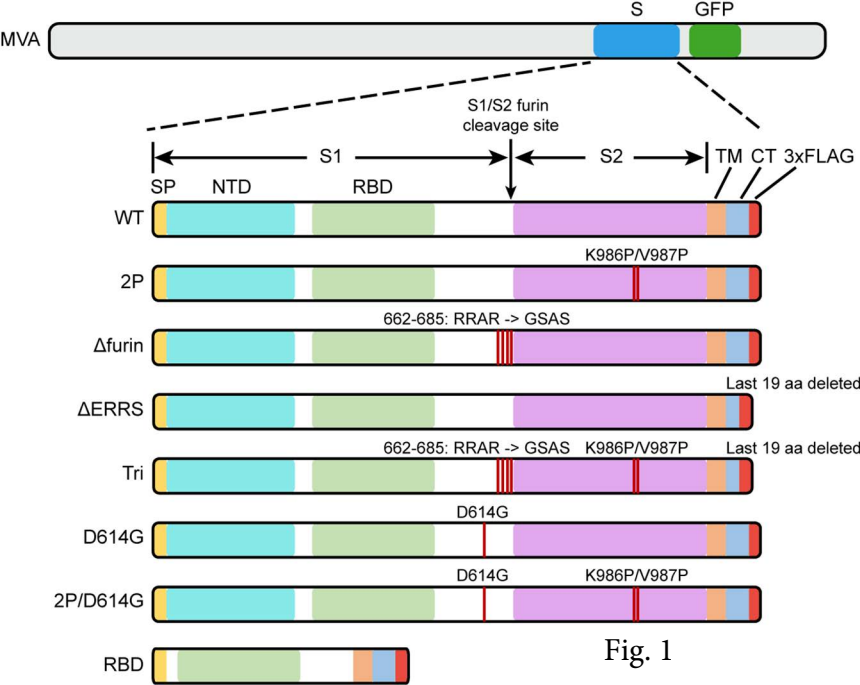
Strain	Vaccine	IgA	10 ⁻³ Reciprocal Endpoint Titer ^a					IgG2a,c/IgG1 Ratio	
			IgG1	IgG2a ^c	IgG2b	IgG2c ^d	IgG3	IgG2a/IgG1	IgG2c/IgG1
BALB/c	2P x 2	ND ^b	102	1005	26	-	4	9.85	-
	2P/RBD	ND	102	1600	64	-	6	15.69	-
	RBD/RBD	ND	102	16	2	-	0	0.16	-
C57BL/6	2P x 2	ND	16	-	102	409	4	-	25.56
	2P/RBD	ND	26	-	102	1005	6	-	39.24
K18-hACE2	2P x 2	ND	26	-	102	409	2	-	15.98
	2P/RBD	ND	26	-	256	409	6	-	15.98

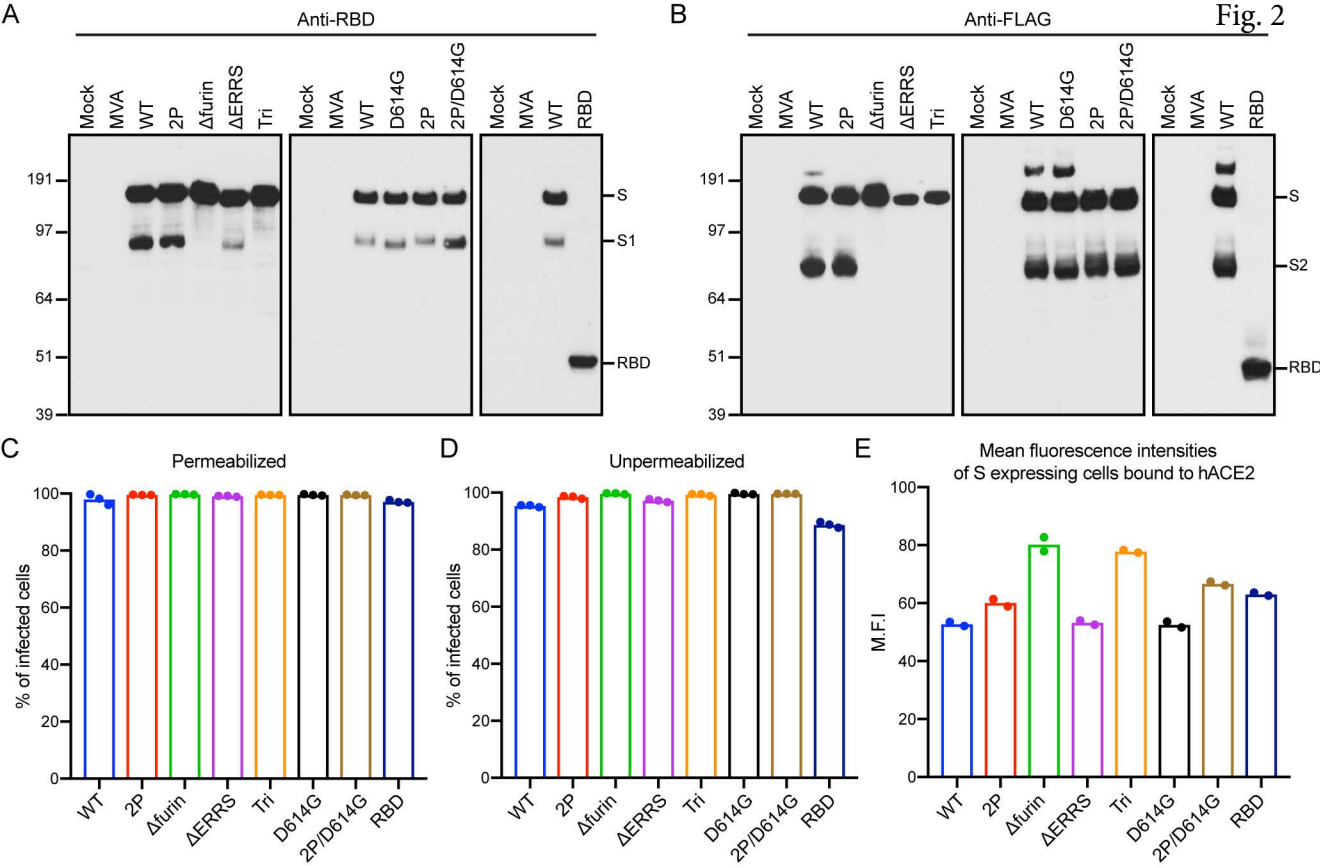
813

814

815

^aMean of duplicates of pooled sera; ^bnot detected; ^cgene not present in C57BL/6 and derivative mice; ^dgene not present in BALB/c mice





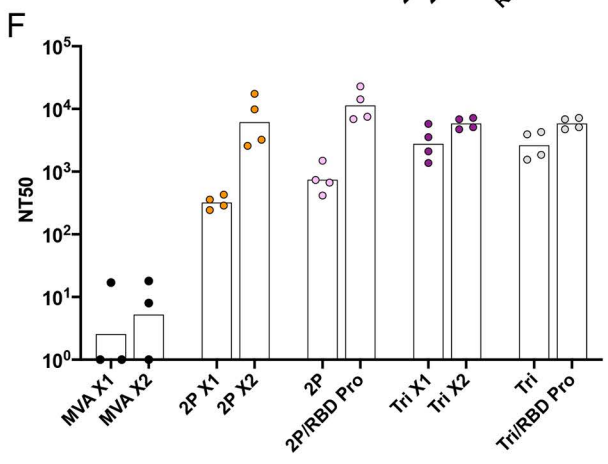
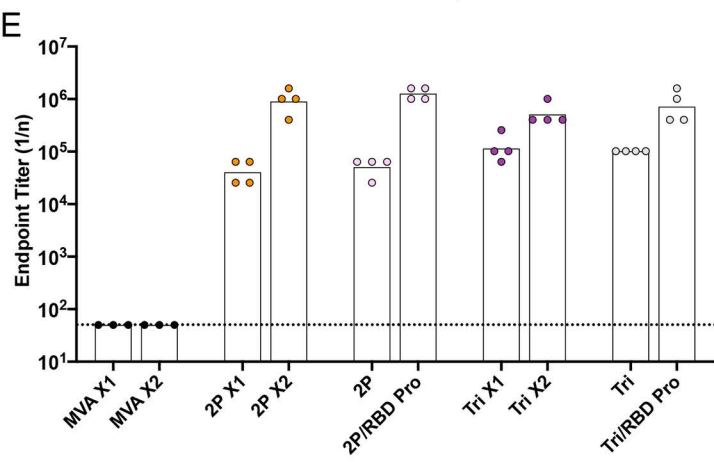
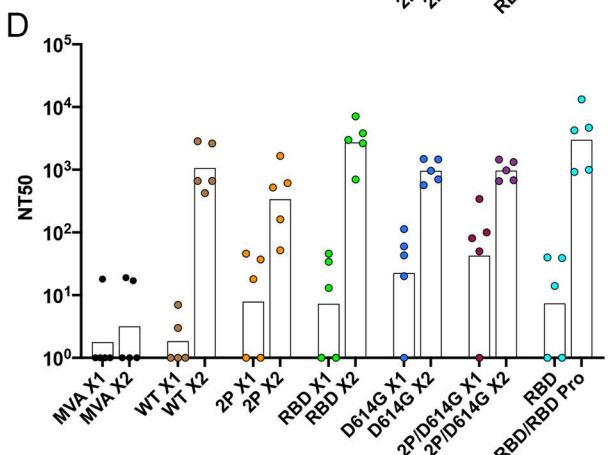
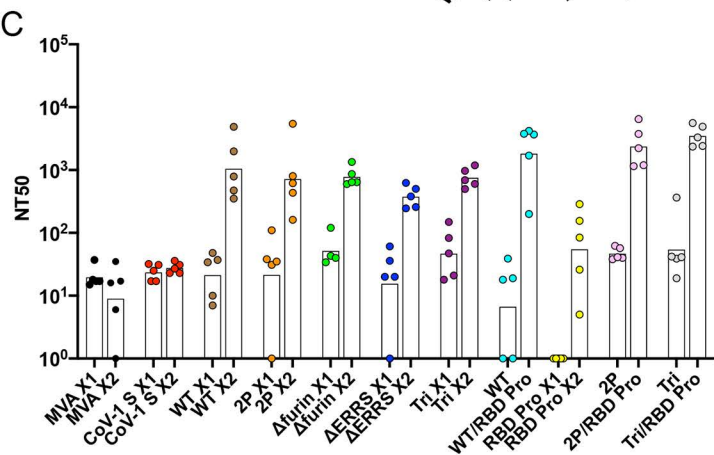
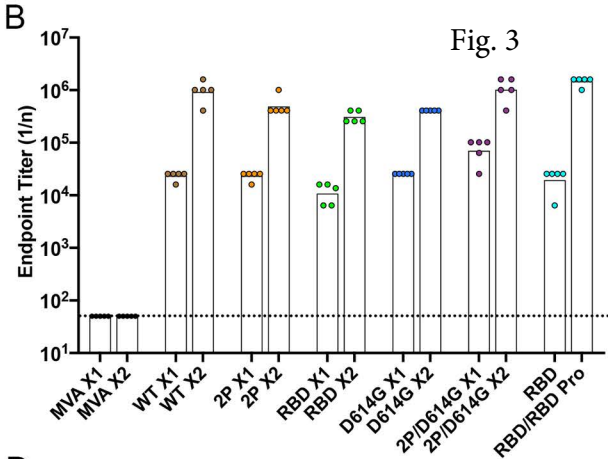
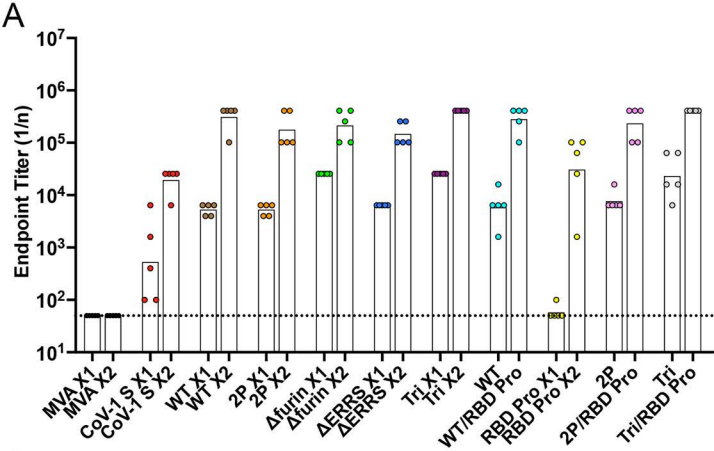


Fig. 4

