Title: A safe insect-based Chikungunya fever vaccine affords rapid and durable protection in

cynomolgus macaques

Awadalkareem Adam[1,2], Courtney Woolsey[1,3], Hannah Lu[1], Kenneth Plante[1,4], Shannon M. Wallace[5],

Leslie Rodriguez[1], Divya P. Shinde[1,4], Yingjun Cui[6], Alexander W.E. Franz[6], Saravanan Thangamani[7],

Jason E. Comer[1,3], Scott C. Weaver[1,2,3,4] and Tian Wang[1,2,3,8] *

[1] Department of Microbiology & Immunology, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX,

77555, USA.

[2] Sealy Institute for Vaccine Sciences, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX 77555, USA.

[3] Institute for Human Infections and Immunity, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX,

77555, USA.

[4] World Reference Center for Emerging Viruses and Arboviruses, Institute for Human Infections and

Immunity, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX, 77555, USA.

[5] Experimental Pathology Laboratories, Inc. Sterling, VA 20166.

[6] Department of Veterinary Pathobiology, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO 65211, USA

[7] Department of Microbiology and Immunology, SUNY Upstate Medical University, 505 Irving Avenue,

Syracuse, NY 13210, USA.

[8] Department of Pathology, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX, 77555, USA.

* Address correspondence to: Tian Wang, E-mail: ti1wang@utmb.edu; Tel: 1- 409-772-3146

Keywords: cynomolgus macaques, chikungunya virus vaccines, durable protection, T cell Immunity,

antiviral innate immunity, vaccine safety

Abstract

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV), which induces chikungunya fever and chronic arthralgia, is an emerging public health concern. Safe and efficient vaccination strategies are needed to prevent or mitigate virus-associated acute and chronic morbidities for preparation of future outbreaks. Eilat (EILV)/CHIKV, a chimeric alphavirus which contains the structural proteins of CHIKV and the non-structural proteins of EILV, does not replicate in vertebrate cells. The chimeric virus was previously reported to induce protective adaptive immunity in mice. Here, we assessed the capacity of the virus to induce quick and durable protection in cynomolgus macaques. EILV/CHIKV protected macaques from wild-type (WT) CHIKV infection one year after a single dose vaccination. Transcriptome and *in vitro* functional analyses reveal that the chimeric virus triggered toll-like receptor signaling and T cell, memory B cell and antibody responses in a dose-dependent manner. Notably, EILV/CHIKV preferentially induced more durable, robust, and broader repertoire of CHIKV-specific T cell responses, compared to a live attenuated CHIKV 181/25 vaccine strain. The insect-based chimeric virus did not cause skin hypersensitivity reactions in guinea pigs sensitized to mosquito bites. Furthermore, EILV/CHIKV induced strong neutralization antibodies and protected cynomolgus macaques from WT CHIKV infection within six days post vaccination. Transcriptome analysis also suggest that the chimeric virus induction of multiple innate immune pathways, including Toll-like receptor signaling, type I IFN and IL-12 signaling, antigen presenting cell activation, and NK receptor signaling. Our findings suggest that EILV/CHIKV is a safe, highly efficacious vaccine, and provides both rapid and long-lasting protection in cynomolgus macaques.

Introduction

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV), a reemerging mosquito-borne positive-sense RNA virus, belongs to the genus Alphavirus of the family *Togaviridae*. The virus was initially isolated in 1952 in Tanzania, and has caused epidemics in Africa, Asia, Europe, and the Americas with millions of human cases. The virus induces acute and chronic human infections with main clinical symptoms including chikungunya fever (CHIKF) and severe joint pain (1, 2). CHIKV has a 5' capped RNA genome of 11.8 kb in length that encodes four nonstructural proteins (nsP1–4) and six structural proteins, including the capsid protein (C), envelope (E) glycoproteins (E3, E2, and E1), 6K viroporin channel, and transframe proteins (TM) (3-6). There are four major lineages of CHIKV: Asian Urban (AUL), Indian Ocean (IOL), East/ Central/South African (ESCA), and West African (WA) enzootic lineages (7). An effective vaccine is needed to prevent or reduce CHIKV- associated chronic morbidity. Multiple platforms have been used for CHIKV vaccine development, including formalin-inactivated, virus-like particles (VLP), recombinant subunit, DNA, virus-vector-based, live-attenuated, and chimeric alphavirus-based vaccines(8-17). In November 2023, Ixchiq, a live attenuated CHIKV vaccines which was developed as VLA1553 (10) was approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Despite this achievement, additional CHIKV vaccination strategies are needed.

We previously reported the generation of Eilat (EILV)-CHIKV, a chimeric virus containing the structural proteins of CHIKV (E1, 6K, E2, E3 and capsid) and the non-structural (NS) proteins (nsP1, nsP2, nsP3 and nsP4) of EILV, an insect-specific alphavirus that is defective for replication in vertebrate cells (18). Like EILV, the chimeric virus replicates well in mosquito cells, but not in vertebrate cells (19, 20). A single dose of EILV/CHIKV induces cellular and humoral immunity and protects A129 IFNAR$^{-/-}$ mice from CHIKV-induced disease up to 9.5 months post vaccination. Furthermore, EILV/CHIKV completely protects cynomolgus macaques from CHIKF one month post vaccination (20, 21). However, the underlying mechanism and immune activation of EILV/CHIKV are not well understood. In this study, we characterized innate immune signaling and the longevity of EILV/CHIKV-induced T cells,

memory B cells and antibody responses and understand immune factors correlated with rapid and durable

protection following a single dose vaccination in cynomolgus macaques.

Results

A single dose of EILV/CHIKV protects cynomolgus macaques from wild-type (WT) CHIKV

infection one year after vaccination

To determine the durability of EILV/CHIKV -induced protective efficacy, 2.5- to 3.5-year-old

female cynomolgus macaques were vaccinated with a low (LD) and high dose (HD) of EILV/CHIKV.

CHIKV 181/25 or PBS (mock)- vaccinated macaques were used as controls (**Fig. 1A**). Animals were

bled at various time points post-vaccination (PV) to assess immunogenicity. At day 370 PV, macaques

were challenged with the wild-type (WT) CHIKV La Réunion strain and monitored daily for clinical

signs. None of the macaques displayed obvious signs nor swelling at the injection site. While mock-

vaccinated macaques showed fever which peaked around day 1 post challenge (PC); CHIKV 181/25 and

EILV/CHIKV -vaccinated macaques displayed normal temperature (**Fig. 1B**). Viremia peaked at day 1

PC and was 3 $\log_{10}$ higher in the mock group than EILV/CHIKV (LD and HD) and CHIKV 181/25-

vaccinated macaques. At day 4 PC, viremia was no longer detectable by plaque assay in the vaccinated

groups but remained high in the mock group. There were significantly lower levels of viral RNA in the

EILV/CHIKV HD group than the mock (**Fig. 1C, and Supplementary Fig. 1A-B**). When compared to

each other, histopathological examination revealed that the mock, CHIKV 181/25, and one of the

EILV/CHIKV LD-vaccinated macaques had equal incidence and severity of decreased lymphocytes in the

lymphoid nodules of spleen tissues at day 14 PC, which was not observed in the macaques -vaccinated

with a HD of EILV/CHIKV (**Supplementary Fig. 1C).** Overall, these results suggest that EILV/CHIKV

protects macaques from CHIKV-induced fever (CHIKF) and viremia one year PV.

EILV/CHIKV triggers potent adaptive immunity in a dose-dependent manner and preferentially

induces durable T cell immunity

To understand the underlying mechanisms of immune protection, we performed transcriptome

analysis of PBMCs of EILV/CHIKV (HD), CHIKV 181/25 and mock groups at day 4 PC. Principal

component analysis (PCA) indicated dimensional separation of the mock and vaccinated samples (**Fig.**

2A). EILV/CHIKV and CHIKV 181/25 samples clustered together, indicating similar overall expression

profiles. To identify protective signatures specific for each vaccine, we focused on differences between

EILV/CHIKV and CHIKV 181/25 vaccination for our differential expression analysis (**Fig. 2B**).

EILV/CHIKV versus CHIKV 181/25 subjects expressed higher levels of T cell-associated transcripts

(*CCR7*, *CD28*, *CD5*, *CD3G*, *CD8A*). EILV/CHIKV vaccination also robustly activated pathways

involved in T and B cell signaling including "co-stimulation by the CD28 family", "CD40 signaling",

"April mediated signaling", "B cell activating factor signaling", and "T helper (h)1" pathways.).

Molecules (*EIF2AK2*, *IKBKB*, *MAP2K4*, *MAP3K1*, *MAPK1*, *TNFAIP3*, *TRAF1*) involved in the "Toll-

like Receptor (TLR) Signaling" pathway were also upregulated in subjects immunized with

EILV/CHIKV (**Fig. 2C**). Compared to the CHIKV 181/25 group, macaques immunized with

EILV/CHIKV also expressed higher levels of transcripts involved in immunoregulation (e.g., IL-10,

CTLA-4, PD-1) (**Fig. 2D**). To track changes in circulating cell populations, we employed nSolver-based

profiling of immune cell types. For the EILV/CHIKV, we detected an expected increase in T cell, $CD8^+$ T

cell, CD45, and B cell transcriptional quantities (**Fig. 2E**). Conversely, except for B cells, these cell

populations were decreased in the CHIKV 181/25 group. These results suggest EILV/CHIKV vaccination

induces a mixed T and B cell/immunoregulatory response; whereas B cell activation was more notable

following CHIKV 181/25 vaccination.

To verify results of the transcriptome analysis, we next performed *ex vivo* intracellular cytokine

staining (ICS). PBMCs of the vaccinated macaques were treated with individual peptide pools of CHIKV

capsid, E3, E2 and E1 proteins. At day 30 PV, a HD of EILV/CHIKV induced strong $CD4^+IFN\gamma^+$ and

$CD8^+IFN\gamma^+$ responses reactive to all 4 peptide pools. Compared to EILV/CHIKV HD, CHIKV 181/25

induced lower magnitude of $CD4^+IFN\gamma^+$ and $CD8^+IFN\gamma^+$ responses reactive to capsid, E3, and E1 peptide

pools (**Supplementary Fig. 2A**). At day 350 PV, $CD4^+IFN\gamma^+$ and $CD8^+IFN\gamma^+$ responses reactive to all

structural proteins remained strong in the EILV/CHIKV HD group, but CHIKV 181/25 showed

diminished levels of capsid and E1- specific CD4$^+$IFNγ$^+$ and CD8$^+$IFNγ$^+$ responses compared to the

EILV/CHIKV HD group (**Fig. 2F-G**). Notably, the EILV/CHIKV LD group had comparable levels of T

helper (h)-1 response compared to the CHIKV 181/25 group at day 7 PV but much lower Th1- responses

against the four structural protein peptide pools at day 30 PV than CHIKV 181/25 (**Supplementary Fig.**

2B.). These findings indicate dose-dependent responses in EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated subjects.

Next, we utilized conventional B-cell ELISpot to measure CHIKV-specific memory B cell

(MBC)s in PBMCs of vaccinated macaques and mock controls. Because circulating MBCs do not

actively secrete antibodies, we stimulated the PBMCs with the TLR7/8 agonist, R848, and rIL-2 *in vitro*

for 5 days to convert MBCs into antibody secreting cells (ASC)s. Ig capture antibody, CHIKV structural

protein peptide pools, CHIKV VLP, or EILV/CHIKV were all used as antigens to detect total ASCs, and

CHIKV-specific MBCs (**Fig. 3A, Supplementary Fig. 3A**). At day 30 PV, EILV/CHIKV HD and

CHIKV 181/25 both induced higher frequencies of CHIKV-specific MBCs than the mock group.

EILV/CHIKV HD induced similar levels of CHIKV-specific MBCs compared to the CHIKV 181/25

group, whereas EILV/CHIKV LD group had a lower frequency of IgG$^+$-expressing MBCs. No differences

were noted between the two groups at day 7 PV (**Supplementary Fig. 3B**). At day 350 PV, the CHIKV

181/25 group showed significantly higher frequency of IgG$^+$ expressing MBCs than the EILV/CHIKV

HD group (**Fig. 3B-C**). All vaccinated groups showed higher levels of neutralization antibodies at day

350 PV and at day 4 PC than the mock group (**Fig. 3D**). EILV/CHIKV LD induced comparable levels of

neutralization titers as CHIKV 181/25 at days 14, 30, and 384 except at day 60, which appears to be lower

compared to the latter (**Supplementary Fig. 3C**). The magnitude of E2- binding IgG antibody responses

were significantly reduced in EILV/CHIKV (LD and HD) groups compared to those of the CHIKV

181/25 group (**Fig. 3E**). To determine the protective effects of EILV/CHIKV-induced humoral

immunity, we performed adoptive transfer into AB6 mice of pooled sera from CHIKV-181/25 or

EILV/CHIKV HD groups at day 350 PV followed by infection with a lethal dose of WT CHIKV. There

were increased survival rates and reduced weight loss in the mice transferred with sera of both vaccinated

NHP groups. Mice transferred with immune sera of CHIKV-181/25-vaccinated NHPs had higher

survival (50 % vs. 20%) compared to mice transferred with EILV/CHIKV HD sera, suggesting protection

is partially mediated by humoral responses, particularly for CHIKV-181/25 (**Fig. 3F-G**). Overall,

EILV/CHIKV induced T cell and humoral immune responses in a dose -dependent manner. Compared to

CHIKV 181/25, EILV/CHIKV HD preferentially induced potent and durable T cell immunity against all

four structural proteins.

EILV/CHIKV is a safe vaccine and provides rapid protection against WT CHIKV challenge

160   To determine whether purified EILV/CHIKV, which was produced in mosquito cells, can trigger

hypersensitive reactions upon vaccination of animals sensitized to mosquito bites, we next performed a

guinea pig sensitization study. Guinea pigs were repeatedly exposed to fifty *Ades albopictus* mosquito

bites every two weeks for four times, then at day 43 were vaccinated with purified EILV/CHIKV at the

mosquito-exposed sites. *Aedes albopictus* salivary gland extract (SGE)- and PBS (mock)-injected guinea

pigs were used as positive and negative controls (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**). SGE -injected guinea pigs

showed quick skin reactions with visible swelling 30 min to 2 h after inoculation, in comparison to the

mock-injected animals; EILV/CHIKV-inoculated animals showed no obvious skin reactions.

(**Supplementary Fig. 4B-C).** Next, to determine whether EILV/CHIKV provides rapid protection

against WT CHIKV infection. Eight 2.5- to 3.5-year-old male cynomolgus macaques were immunized

i.m. with EILV/CHIKV. As the HD EILV/CHIKV proved to have stronger immunogenicity than the LD

EILV/CHIKV in the long-term study, here, we used a HD of EILV/CHIKV for vaccination. The

inactivated WT CHIKV- or PBS (mock)- vaccinated macaques were used as controls. At day 6 PV, all

animals were challenged with WT CHIKV strain La Réunion (**Fig. 4A**). Fever peaked around day 2 for

the CHIKV-infected mock group and remained high even at day 3 PC (**Fig. 4B**). Macaques- vaccinated

with the inactivated WT CHIKV or EILV/CHIKV exhibited normal and baseline body temperatures

throughout the study. Viremia titers more than 3 $\log_{10}$-fold lower in the inactivated WT CHIKV and

EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated animals compared to the mock at days 1 and 2 PC. At day 4 PC, viral titers

were diminished 3 $\log_{10}$-fold lower in the mock group but were no longer detectable in the two vaccinated

groups.. Viral RNA levels were significantly reduced in the EILV/CHIKV group compared to the mock

(**Fig. 4C-D**). Thus, EILV/CHIKV appears safe and triggers rapid protection against WT CHIKV

infection.

EILV/CHIKV stimulates a rapid type I interferon (IFN) response, robust natural killer (NK) cell

expansion, and potent adaptive immunity within a week post-vaccination

185   To understand the immune mechanisms of rapid host protection, we analyzed transcriptomes of

PBMCs of EILV/CHIKV- or mock-immunized macaque at day 7 PV. PCA revealed distinct

transcriptional profiles for mock) and EILV/CHIKV groups (**Fig. 5A**). During the vaccination phase,

subjects administered EILV/CHIKV expressed higher levels of transcripts associated with NK and T cell

differentiation and cytotoxicity (*KLRK1*, *GZMB*, *EOMES*, *GZMH*, *GNLY*) (**Fig. 5B**). *HLA-DPA1* was also

highly expressed in EILV/CHIKV subjects and encodes for an MHC class II protein that plays a central

role in adaptive immunity by presenting peptides derived from extracellular proteins. Eomes is

predominantly expressed in immature NK cells and regulates the differentiation of CD8$^+$ T cells into

effector and memory cells; this molecule also regulates the thymic differentiation of NK T cells and their

commitment to a memory KLRG1$^+$iNKT phenotype in the periphery. We also observed a general

increase in expression of interferon (IFN)-related and Th1-associated transcripts, although these narrowly

failed to reach statistical significance: log FC 1.1 *IFNG* (P =0.1898); 1.19 *IFNGR1* (P =0.4269); 1.54

IFNGR2 (P =0.1339); 1.19 *IL12RB1* (P =0.1883); 1.34 *IL12RB2* (P =0.1854); 1.43 *JAK1* (P =0.1699);

1.38 *JAK2* (P =0.2142); 1.36 *STAT1* (P =0.0856); and 1.51 *STAT4* (P =0.2214) (**Table S1**). However,

pathway analysis demonstrated an increase in IFN and IL-12 signaling (**Fig. 5C**). The most significantly

upregulated pathways in vaccinated subjects included NK cell signaling, Th1, and Th2 pathways. B cell

receptor signaling pathways were also upregulated (e.g., "signaling by the BCR", "April mediated

signaling, B cell activating factor pathway", **Fig. 5D**). Consistent with our differential expression and

pathway enrichment analyses, digital cell quantitation indicated higher predicted quantities of NK, Th1,

cytotoxic T cells, and B cells. Lower predicted quantities of neutrophils were noted in vaccinated versus

mock subjects.

We next measured the production of serum cytokines in the vaccinated macaques and controls. At

day 1 PC, the EILV/CHIKV group showed higher levels of IFN-β, IL-12, IL-23, GM-CSF, and

proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1β, TNF-α, and IFN-γ) than the inactivated WT CHIKV group. At days 2

and 4 PC, the cytokines were higher in the inactivated WT CHIKV group than EILV/CHIKV group (**Fig.**

5E-G). Thus, EILV/CHIKV primed NHPs to induce quicker and higher type I IFN, IL-12, IL-23, GM-

CSF, and proinflammatory cytokine responses than the inactivated WT CHIKV group. Interestingly,

EILV/CHIKV LD vaccination also induced increased levels of expression of IL-1β, IL-6, IL-12, TNF-α

and TGF-β either higher or comparable than the CHIKV 181/25 group at days 1 and 2 PV

(**Supplementary Fig. 6**). These results together with the transcriptome analysis support EILV/CHIKV as

a potent inducer of innate cytokine responses. At day 4 PC, NK cell but not NK T cell expansion was

noted in both the inactivated WT CHIKV and EILV/CHIKV groups and was more than 63% higher in the

latter group (**Fig. 6A-B**).   Furthermore, EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated macaques showed a trend of stronger

neutralization titers and higher E2 binding IgG responses at day 4 PC (**Fig. 6C-D**). Lastly, both the

inactivated WT CHIKV and EILV/CHIKV -vaccination boosts Th-1 responses reactive towards all

structural proteins at day 4 PC compared to the mock group (**Fig. 6E**). Overall, EILV/CHIKV induces

quicker type I IFN and proinflammatory cytokine responses, more robust NK cell expansion and

neutralization antibody titers, and comparable levels of Th1 responses compared to the inactivated WT

CHIKV in response to WT CHIKV infection one week PV.

Discussion:

EILV/CHIKV induces robust adaptive immunity in mice and protects host from WT CHIKV-

induced diseases 9.5 months post vaccination (20). The underlying immune mechanisms of host

protection have not been clearly defined. Here, we evaluated the long-term protective efficacy of

EILV/CHIKV vaccination in cynomolgus macaques and assessed its immunogenicity longitudinally. A

single dose of EILV/CHIKV protected cynomolgus macaques against CHIKF one year after vaccination.

Transcriptome analysis of PBMCs revealed the induction of multiple immune pathways, including TLR,

T cell, and B cell signaling pathways in macaques 1 year post EILV/CHIKV vaccination followed by WT

CHIKV challenge. T/B cell functional analysis supported these findings and further suggests that

EILV/CHIKV-stimulates adaptive immunity in a dose-dependent manner.

Adaptive immunity including T cells, B cells, and antibody responses provide durable and

specific responses against viral infection. Mature B and T cells, and B cell-mediated neutralization

antibody responses contribute to host protection against CHIKV infection (22-24). Among T cells,

CHIKV-specific $CD8^+$ T cells are known to protect mice from WT CHIKV induced footpad swelling, to

reduce inflammation, (25) and to accelerate viral clearance in lymphoid tissues (26, 27). Although

EILV/CHIKV and the live attenuated CHIKV 181/25 both provided durable protection against CHIKF,

the two vaccines induced differential T and B cell immune responses. EILV/CHIKV (HD) induced

superior T cell immunity that was sustained 1 year after vaccination; whereas the frequency of CHIKV-

specific memory B cells and E2-binding antibodies declined after 1 year, though comparable levels of

Nab titers were sustained. In contrast, CHIKV 181/25, induced potent and durable memory B cell and

CHIKV-specific antibodies as reported (23). However, it induced much lower T cell responses, which

diminished at one year PV. Notably, passive immunization studies with immune sera of CHIKV 181/25

and EILV/CHIKV groups one year PV confirmed the differences in humoral immunity between the two

groups. Furthermore, the partial protection from WT CHIKV infection in AB6 mice suggests other

immune factors, such as $CD8^+$ T cells also contribute to control of WT CHIKV infection.

EILV/CHIKV- vaccination induced potent and durable $CD8^+$ T cell responses against CHIKV

structural proteins (Capsid, E3, E2, and E1) at 1 year PV. In comparison, CHIKV 181/25-vaccinated

macaques had lower levels of $CD8^+$ T cell response reactive to capsid, E3 and E1 at 1 month and only

detectable levels of E1-specific $CD8^+$ T cell responses at 1 year PV. $CD8^+$ T cell epitope specificity can

influence infection outcome. For example, CHIKV-specific $CD8^+$ T cells preferentially target E1 and E2

proteins upon infection(28, 29). More evidence suggests that CHIKV capsid protein also contains

immunodominant epitopes for both B and T cells. Indeed, a low frequency of CHIKV capsid -specific T

cells in the aged animals were reported to be associated with virus persistence in CHIKV-LR strain-

infected rhesus macaques (30, 31). Vaccines expressing a combination of structural proteins or the entire

structural protein of CHIKV have been shown to induce more potent CD8+ T cell- mediated responses

(28, 32) and this has been used as a strategies to optimize vaccine immunogenicity and increase the

potency of cellular and subsequent humoral immune responses (33-35). Thus, a potent, durable and

broader repertoires of CD8+ T cells contribute to EILV/CHIKV-induced long-lasting protection against

CHIKF.

EILV/CHIKV also protected macaques rapidly from CHIKF 6 days post a single vaccination.

Transcriptome analysis of PBMCs from EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated macaques at 1 week suggest induction

of multiple innate immune pathways, including TLR signaling, type I IFN and IL-12 signaling, antigen

presenting cell (APC) activation, NK receptor signaling, Th1, Th2 and B cell signaling pathway. During

CHIKV infection, viral RNA is identified by pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), including TLRs 3, 7,

and 8, RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs), and melanoma differentiation-associated gene 5 (MDA5). which

triggers the synthesis of pro-inflammatory cytokines and type I IFNs (36, 37). Type I IFNs contribute to

viral clearance and the control of virus-mediated inflammation, protecting humans and mice against

CHIKV infection, and greater expression of IL-12 and IFN-α is correlated with lower viral loads in acute

CHIKF patients(38, 39). Cytokine analysis of sera of vaccinated macaques upon WT CHIKV infection

suggest increased production of type I IFN and IL-12 in both inactivated WT CHIKV and EILV/CHIKV

groups and the latter group had a quicker kinetics of induction. Enhanced levels of inflammatory

mediators such as IL-1β, GM-CSF, IL-23 are often associated with CHIKV-induced inflammation

responses (38, 40). Here, we noticed induction of these cytokines at an early stage of CHIKV infection in

both vaccinated groups, with the EILV/CHIKV group exhibiting faster kinetics. The induction of these

inflammatory cytokines in addition to IFN-I and IL-12 are more likely to be associated with NK cell

expansion and activation in EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated macaques. Indeed, we observed increased

activation of NK cells in both inactivated WT CHIKV and EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated groups and a higher

magnitude in the latter group at day 4 PC. NK cells contribute to control of acute CHIKV infection by

subset-specific expansion. and dysregulation of NK receptor expression correlates with CHIKV-induced

chronic diseases (41, 42). Furthermore, induction of the above innate cytokines could lead to the

activation of adaptive immunity. For example, IL-1β and IL-23 act either as signal 3 cytokines for T cell

priming or regulating APC function and CD8$^+$ T cell responses (43, 44).   Consequently, EILV/CHIKV-

vaccinated macaques showed higher levels of neutralization titers and strong Th-1 prone immune

responses at day 4 PC. Lastly, neutralization antibodies could trigger the antibody-dependent cytotoxicity

responses mediated by NK cells and CD8$^+$ T cells to control CHIKV infection (45). In summary,

EILV/CHIKV -induced type I IFN, NK cell activation, Th-1 responses and neutralization antibodies

responses contribute to its rapid protection against CHIKF.

Infection in cynomolgus macaques induces viremia, acute disease signs and viral persistence in

some tissues, which are similar to clinical symptoms reported in humans. The cynomolgus macaque has

been considered an ideal preclinical model to evaluate the efficacy and safety of CHIKV vaccines (46,

47). In both long- and short-term protection studies, we observed minimal to mild pathological changes

in the lymphoid organs of the vaccinated and mock macaques following WT CHIKV infection and the

differences between the two groups were minimal. In particular, long-lasting CHIKV disease signs were

not observed in the mock group upon WT CHIKV infection as previously reported (48). This is due to

the inoculation dose we used in this study, which is directly associated with virological and clinical

outcomes (48).

Vaccine produced in mosquito cell line has a risk of causing hypersensitivity reactions due to its

potential contamination with mosquito antigens. We previously reported a two-step protocol for

improving the purity of EILV/CHIKV. The purified virus was shown to cause minimal histopathology

changes and Th-1 cytokine induction in a mouse model of hypersensitivity model (21). Due to its

similarities with humans in immune system, anatomy and physiology, guinea pig has been considered to

be more similar to humans than between mouse models and humans and thus a more feasible model to

assess hypersensitivity(49, 50). Here, we found that EILV/CHIKV did not cause skin hypersensitivity

reactions in a guinea pig sensitization model, indicating its favorable safety profile.

Formalin-inactivated CHIKV vaccine is safe and induces robust immunity and strong protection.

However, its development was terminated due to high manufacturing costs (51). The live-attenuated

181/25 CHIKV vaccine developed in the 1980s is also highly immunogenic and induces strong

protection. However, Phase II clinical trials reported 8% of vaccinees developed arthralgia due to an

unstable attenuation (11, 51), which is based on two mutations derived from the WT parent strain with a

high risk of reversion that are hard to optimize by genetic engineering (52, 53). Genetic stability is a

valid concern for any live attenuated vaccines for CHIKV, including the licensed Ixchiq vaccine.

In summary, the results from this study suggest that EILV/CHIKV is a safe, highly efficacious

vaccine, and provides rapid and long-lasting protection in cynomolgus macaques after a single dose via

induction of antiviral innate immunity and durable T cell immunity.

Materials and Methods

Sex as a biological variable: Both male and female cynomolgus macaques and mice were used

in this study. Due to animal availability during the pandemic, single sex (either female or male) macaques

were used on the long-term and short-term protection studies respectively. Female guinea pigs were used

for skin hypersensitivity study. It's unknown whether the findings are relevant to male guinea pigs.

Animal studies: 2.5 to 3.5- year-old female and male Mauritian cynomolgus macaques (*Macaca*

fascicularis) were purchased from Worldwide Primates, Inc. (Miami, FL). All animals screened negative

for TB, SIV, simian T lymphotropic virus, herpes B virus, *T. Cruzi*, SRV, and CHIKV. Six- to seven-

week-old C57BL/6 (B6) mice deficient in the IFN-α/β receptor (AB6) were bred and maintained at the

University of Texas Medical Branch (UTMB). Cynomolgus macaques were vaccinated intramuscularly

(i.m) with□a low dose [LD, 1.3×10^6 plaque forming unit (PFU)] or□high dose (HD, 1.3×10^8 PFU) of

the EILV/CHIKV, or 3.1×10^5 PFU of CHIKV 181/25, 5×10^5 PFU of the inactivated wild-type (WT)

CHIKV Martinique strain, or PBS. Two weeks before challenge, subjects were bled via the femoral vein.

Prior to challenge, each NHP was implanted intraabdominally with a DST micro-T temperature logger

(Star-Oddi, Garðabær, Iceland) programed to take a temperature reading every 15 minutes. Macaques

were challenged with 1.0×10^5 PFU of the WT-CHIKV La Réunion (LR) strain at days 6 or 370 post

vaccination (PV). For passive immunization studies, AB6 mice were transferred intraperitoneally (i.p.)

with diluted sera from mock or vaccinated macaques 24 h before challenge with $1x10^3$ PFU WT CHIKV

Martinique strain. Infected animals were monitored daily for clinical signs.

Virus stocks: EILV/CHIKV was propagated in C7/10 mosquito cells and viral stocks were

purified using a two-step procedure as described previously (21). CHIKV LR and Martinique strain

stocks were kindly provided by Dr. Trevor Brasel at UTMB. Formalin-inactivation of WT-CHIKV was

performed as described previously (20). Briefly, a CHIKV Martinique stock was diluted 1:10 in DMEM

media and inactivated by the addition of 20 µl of 10% formaldehyde (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) to a final

concentration of 0.1% (v/v), or mock-inactivated by the addition of an equivalent volume of PBS. Virus

suspensions were incubated at 37°C with mixing twice daily for 3 days, followed by incubation at 4°C

with mixing twice daily for 4 days. Formaldehyde was neutralized by the addition of 3.5% (w/v) sodium

metabisulfite (Sigma) to a final concentration of 0.035% (w/v). Inactivation was confirmed by plaque

assay.

Blood collection and peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) isolation: Blood was

collected by femoral venipuncture into EDTA in serum separator/lithium heparin vacutainer tubes (BD

Biosciences). Blood tubes were centrifuged at 3000 rpm at 4°C for 15 min first and the upper layer was

collected. For PBMC isolation, heparin-treated blood was diluted 1:1 with sterile PBS and carefully

layered onto Ficoll-Paque (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Sweden). The tubes were centrifuged at 400 x g

for 30 min at 20°C, and then the mononuclear cells were transferred to a sterile centrifuge tube. Cells

were washed twice with PBS and resuspend in RPMI medium supplemented with 10% FBS, and 1% l-

glutamine (Thermo Fisher). Cells were cryopreserved and stored in freezing medium (10% DMSO/ 90%

FBS) in liquid nitrogen tank.

Plaque assay: Vero cells were seeded in 12-well plates and incubated at 37□°C, 5% CO2 for 16

h. Serum samples were serially diluted in DMEM with 2% FBS and 100 μl of diluted samples were used

to infect the monolayers. Plates were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO2 for 1 h. After the incubation, 0.4%

agarose overlay medium was added to the infected cells. The plates were incubated at 37□°C with 5%

CO2 for 48 h. Plates were fixed with 10% formaldehyde for 30 min. Cells were stained with 0.25%

crystal violet for 3 min, then rinsed with H_2O. The plaques were counted and calculated as PFU /mL.

Quantitative PCR (Q-PCR): Blood cells were re-suspended in Trizol (Invitrogen) for RNA

extraction. Complementary (c) DNA was synthesized by using a qScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad,

Hercules, CA). The sequence of the primer sets for CHIKV capsid protein, cytokines and PCR reaction

conditions were described previously (21, 54, 55). The PCR assay was performed in the CFX96 real-time

PCR system (Bio-Rad). Gene expression was calculated using the formula $2^{\wedge -[C_t^{(target\ gene)} - C_t^{(\beta-actin)}]}$ as

described before (56).

NanoString sample preparation: Targeted transcriptomics was performed on PBMC samples

from macaques. Nonhuman primate (NHP) V2_Immunology reporter and capture probe sets (NanoString

Technologies) were hybridized with ~100 ng of each RNA sample for ~24 h at 65°C. The RNA:probeset

complexes were subsequently loaded onto an nCounter microfluidics cartridge and assayed using a

NanoString nCounter SPRINT Profiler. Samples with an image binding density < 0.2 were re-analyzed

with a higher concentration of RNA to meet quality control criteria.

Transcriptional analysis: Analysis was performed on samples at 7 days post-vaccination or 4

days post infection. nCounter .RCC files were imported into NanoString nSolver 4.0 software. To

compensate for varying RNA inputs and reaction efficiency, an array of housekeeping genes and spiked-in

positive and negative controls were used to normalize the raw read counts. As both sample input and

reaction efficiency were expected to affect all probes uniformly, normalization for run-to-run and sample-

to-sample variability was performed by dividing counts within a lane by the geometric mean of the

reference/normalizer probes from the same lane (i.e., all probes/count levels within a lane are adjusted by

the same factor). The ideal normalization genes were automatically determined by selecting those that

minimize the pairwise variation statistic and are selected using the widely used geNorm algorithm. The

data were analyzed with NanoString nSolver Advanced Analysis 2.0 package for differential expression

and to generate principal component analysis (PCA), heatmap, and cell-type trend plots. Human

annotations were added for each mRNA to perform immune cell profiling within nSolver and generate the

cell-type scores. Normalized data (fold change values and Benjamini–Hochberg adjusted p-values) were

exported as an .xlsx file (**Table S1**) and imported into GraphPad Prism version 10.0.1 to generate

heatmaps. Figures were prepared using Adobe Illustrator 2024. Any differentially expressed transcripts

with a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) corrected p-value less than 0.05 were deemed

significant unless otherwise stated. Enrichment of differentially expressed transcripts was performed

using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (Qiagen). Samples were filtered for immunity-specific canonical

signaling pathways.

Peptide pools: Fifteen amino acid (aa) peptides overlapping 12 aa spanning the structural

proteins of CHIKV were purchased from Sigma and were divided into 4 overlapping peptide pools,

including core (peptides 1-53), E3 (peptides 54-77), E2 (peptides 78-211), and E1 (peptides 212-343).

Intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) and flow cytometry: Cryopreserved PBMCs were thawed

and washed once with RPMI medium containing 10% FBS. Cells were incubated with individual

CHIKV peptide pools (2μg/ml) for 6 h in the presence of BD GolgiPlug (BD Bioscience). Cells were

harvested and stained with antibodies for CD3, CD4, or CD8, fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA), and

permeabilized with 0.5% saponin before adding anti-IFN-γ (e-Biosciences). PBMCs were also stained for

the following cell surface markers: CD56 (clone: SP34-2; BD Biosciences) and CD3 (clone: TULY56;

eBioscience) for 30 min at 4ºC, washed and fixed in 2% PFA. Samples were processed with a C6 Flow

Cytometer instrument. Dead cells were excluded on the basis of forward and side light scatter. Data were

analyzed with a CFlow Plus Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences).

CHIKV IgG ELISA: ELISA plates were coated with 50 ng/well recombinant CHIKV E2 protein

(SinoBiological, USA) overnight at 4°C. The plates were washed twice with PBS, containing 0.05%

Tween-20 (PBS-T) and then blocked with 2% PBS-T for 1.5 h at 1.5 h at room temperature (RT). Sera

were diluted 1:200 in blocking buffer and 50 µl were added per well for 1 h at RT. Plates were washed

five times with PBS-T. Goat anti-monkey IgG (Fitzgerald, USA) coupled to horseradish peroxidase

(HRP) was added as the secondary antibody at a 1:25000 dilution for 1 h at RT. Color was developed

with TMB substrate (Thermo Scientific) and the intensity was read at an absorbance of 450 nm.

Plaque reduction neutralization assay: Fifty percent plaque-reduction neutralization tests

(PRNT50) were performed on Vero cells. Briefly, NHP sera were heat-inactivated at 56°C for 30 min

then serially diluted (2-fold dilutions) in 2% FBS MEM media. CHIKV 181/25 stock was diluted to 800

PFU/ml. Then 150 µL of the diluted sera were mixed with 150 µL of virus stock, incubated at 37°C for 60

min. Afterwards, 250 µl of each sera/virus mixture was added to Vero cells, and incubated for 1 h at

37°C, with rocking every 15 min. Then MEM/0.4% agarose overlay media was added to each well, and

incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 until plaques appeared (about 48 h). Plates were fixed with 10%

formaldehyde and stained with 0.25% crystal violet. The plaques were counted and the PRNT titers

calculated as the highest dilution of serum that inhibited 50% of plaques.

B cell ELISPOT assay: ELISpot assays were performed as previously described (57) with some

modifications. Briefly, PBMCs were stimulated with 1µg/ml R848 and 10 ng/ml recombinant human IL-2

(Mabtech In, OH). Millipore ELISPOT plates (Millipore Ltd, Darmstadt, Germany) were coated with

CHIKV peptide pools (15 µg/ml), or CHIKV E2 recombinant protein (SinoBiological, USA, 15 ug/ml),

EILV/CHIKV (1 x 10^8 PFU/ well), CHIKV VLP (The Native Antigen Company, Oxford, UK, 15 µg/ml),

or anti-human Ig capture Ab (Mabtech). The stimulated PBMCs were harvested, washed, and added in

duplicates to assess total IgG ASCs or CHIKV- specific B cells. Plates were incubated overnight at 37˚C,

followed by incubation with biotin conjugated anti-human IgG (Mabtech) for 2 h at room temperature,

then 100 µL/well streptavidin-ALP was added for 1 h. Plates were developed with BCIP/NBT-Plus

substrate until distinct spots emerge. After washing, the plates were scanned using an ImmunoSpot 4.0

analyzer and the spots were counted with ImmunoSpot software (Cellular Technology Ltd, Cleveland,

OH).

IFN-γ ELISPOT: Monkey anti-IFN-γ capture Ab pre-coated plates (Mabtech) were washed

twice and blocked with RPMI media containing 10% FBS for 30 min. PBMCs were stimulated in

duplicates with CHIKV peptide pools (2μg/ml) for 24 h at 37°C. PBMCs stimulated with anti-CD3

(1μg/ml, e-Biosciences) or medium alone were used as controls. This was followed by incubation with

biotin-conjugated anti-IFN-γ for 2 h at room temperature, and then conjugated streptavidin-HRP for 60

minutes. Plates were developed with TMB substrate, followed by washing and scanning using an

ImmunoSpot 4.0 analyzer. The spots were counted with ImmunoSpot software (Cellular Technology Ltd,

Cleveland, OH) to determine the spot-forming cells (SFC) per 10^6 PBMCs.

Cytokine bead arrays: Sera of infected NHPs were inactivated with 5 megarads Mrads in a

Cobalt-60 irradiator at Galveston National Lab (GNL, UTMB) before used for cytokines, chemokines,

and growth factors measurement using LegendPlex bead-based multiplex technology and NHP

inflammation 13-plex kits (BioLegend). Serum samples were processed in duplicate at a 1:4 dilution

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Following bead staining and washing, at least 3,900 bead

events were collected on an Aurora cytometer (Cytek) using SpectroFlo software. The raw .fcs files were

exported and analyzed with BioLegend's cloud-based Qognit data analysis software. The concentration

data based on standard curves were exported to Microsoft Excel to calculate average fold-change values

over the mock group average baseline.

Statistical analysis: Survival curve comparison was performed using GraphPad Prism software

10.0.1, which uses the log-rank test. Values for viral load, cytokine production, antibody titers, memory B

cell frequency, and T cell responses were compared using Prism software (GraphPad) statistical analysis

and were presented as means ± SEM. *P* values of these experiments were calculated with a non-paired

Student's t test.

Study approval: All animal studies were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee at UTMB (protocol # 1704031A and #1904041).

Data and materials availability:

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials.

Acknowledgements:

This study was supported by National Institute of Health grants R01AI127744 (T.W.), R01

NS125778 (T.W.), and R01 AI176670 (T.W.). H.L. was a recipient of a summer internship from NIAID

T35 training grant (AI078878, PI: T.W.). We thank Drs. Elena Frolova and Ilya Frolov for providing

EILV/CHIKV stocks, Ms. Grace Rafael and Yunmei Yun for technical assistance , Terry Juelich for

preparation of inactivated sera samples for cytokine analysis and Dr. Linsey Yeager for assisting in

manuscript preparation. We also thank Drs. Doug Brining, John Lowry, Andrew Kocsis, Erin Lee,

Thomas Geisbert, and Chad Mire for their constructive suggestions of the study and the technical support

of the animal staff team at the Galveston National Laboratory.

Author contributions:

A.A., C.W., H.L., K.P., L.R., D.M., and Y.C. performed the experiments. A.A., C.W., S.W., and T.W.

designed the experiments. Y.C., A.W.E.F., S.T., and J.C. provided critical reagents and supplies, A.A.,

C.W., H.L., S.W., L.R., D.M., J.C., and T.W. analyzed the data. A.A., C.W., and T.W. wrote the initial

draft of the manuscript and other coauthors provided editorial comments.

Competing interests:

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

1.   S. C. Weaver, N. L. Forrester, Chikungunya: Evolutionary history and recent epidemic spread.

486   *Antiviral Res* **120**, 32-39 (2015).

487   2.   M. C. Robinson, An epidemic of virus disease in Southern Province, Tanganyika Territory, in

488   1952-53. I. Clinical features. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* **49**, 28-32 (1955).

489   3.   J. Jose, J. E. Snyder, R. J. Kuhn, A structural and functional perspective of alphavirus replication

490   and assembly. *Future Microbiol* **4**, 837-856 (2009).

491   4.   X. F. Li *et al.*, Complete genome sequence of a chikungunya virus isolated in Guangdong, China.

492   *J Virol* **86**, 8904-8905 (2012).

493   5.   J. V. Melton *et al.*, Alphavirus 6K proteins form ion channels. *J Biol Chem* **277**, 46923-46931

494   (2002).

495   6.   M. V. Rangel *et al.*, Emerging Chikungunya Virus Variants at the E1-E1 Interglycoprotein Spike

496   Interface Impact Virus Attachment and Inflammation. *J Virol* **96**, e0158621 (2022).

497   7.   A. B. Schneider *et al.*, Updated Phylogeny of Chikungunya Virus Suggests Lineage-Specific

498   RNA Architecture. *Viruses* **11** (2019).

499   8.   W. Akahata *et al.*, A virus-like particle vaccine for epidemic Chikungunya virus protects

500   nonhuman primates against infection. *Nat Med* **16**, 334-338 (2010).

501   9.   K. Ramsauer *et al.*, Immunogenicity, safety, and tolerability of a recombinant measles-virus-

502   based chikungunya vaccine: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, active-comparator,

503   first-in-man trial. *Lancet Infect Dis* **15**, 519-527 (2015).

504   10.   R. McMahon *et al.*, A randomized, double-blinded Phase 3 study to demonstrate lot-to-lot

505   consistency and to confirm immunogenicity and safety of the live-attenuated chikungunya virus

506   vaccine candidate VLA1553 in healthy adultsdagger. *J Travel Med* **31** (2024).

507   11.   R. Gorchakov *et al.*, Attenuation of Chikungunya virus vaccine strain 181/clone 25 is determined

508   by two amino acid substitutions in the E2 envelope glycoprotein. *J Virol* **86**, 6084-6096 (2012).

509   12.   H. Chu *et al.*, Deciphering the protective role of adaptive immunity to CHIKV/IRES a novel

510   candidate vaccine against Chikungunya in the A129 mouse model. *Vaccine* **31**, 3353-3360

511   (2013).

512   13.   A. Chattopadhyay, E. Wang, R. Seymour, S. C. Weaver, J. K. Rose, A chimeric

513   vesiculo/alphavirus is an effective alphavirus vaccine. *J Virol* **87**, 395-402 (2013).

514   14.   E. Wang *et al.*, Chimeric alphavirus vaccine candidates for chikungunya. *Vaccine* **26**, 5030-5039

515   (2008).

516   15.   V. R. Harrison, K. H. Eckels, P. J. Bartelloni, C. Hampton, Production and evaluation of a

517   formalin-killed Chikungunya vaccine. *J Immunol* **107**, 643-647 (1971).

518   16.   M. P. Amaral *et al.*, Prime-boost with Chikungunya virus E2 envelope protein combined with

519   Poly (I:C) induces specific humoral and cellular immune responses. *Curr Res Immunol* **2**, 23-31

520   (2021).

521   17.   K. Muthumani *et al.*, Immunogenicity of novel consensus-based DNA vaccines against

522   Chikungunya virus. *Vaccine* **26**, 5128-5134 (2008).

523   18.   F. Nasar *et al.*, Eilat virus, a unique alphavirus with host range restricted to insects by RNA

524   replication. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**, 14622-14627 (2012).

525   19.   F. Nasar, R. V. Gorchakov, R. B. Tesh, S. C. Weaver, Eilat virus host range restriction is present

526   at multiple levels of the virus life cycle. *J Virol* **89**, 1404-1418 (2015).

527   20.   J. H. Erasmus *et al.*, A chikungunya fever vaccine utilizing an insect-specific virus platform. *Nat*

528   *Med* **23**, 192-199 (2017).

529   21.   A. Adam *et al.*, Optimized production and immunogenicity of an insect virus-based chikungunya

530   virus candidate vaccine in cell culture and animal models. *Emerg Microbes Infect* **10**, 305-316

531   (2021).

532   22.   C. L. Chua, I. C. Sam, C. W. Chiam, Y. F. Chan, The neutralizing role of IgM during early

533   Chikungunya virus infection. *PLoS One* **12**, e0171989 (2017).

534   23.   D. W. Hawman *et al.*, Pathogenic Chikungunya Virus Evades B Cell Responses to Establish

535   Persistence. *Cell Rep* **16**, 1326-1338 (2016).

536   24.   R. L. Seymour, A. P. Adams, G. Leal, M. D. Alcorn, S. C. Weaver, A Rodent Model of

537   Chikungunya Virus Infection in RAG1 -/- Mice, with Features of Persistence, for Vaccine Safety

538   Evaluation. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **9**, e0003800 (2015).

539   25.   R. M. Broeckel *et al.*, Vaccine-Induced Skewing of T Cell Responses Protects Against

540   Chikungunya Virus Disease. *Front Immunol* **10**, 2563 (2019).

541   26.   B. J. Davenport *et al.*, Chikungunya Virus Evades Antiviral CD8(+) T Cell Responses To

542   Establish Persistent Infection in Joint-Associated Tissues. *J Virol* **94** (2020).

543   27.   C. M. Poh, Y. H. Chan, L. F. P. Ng, Role of T Cells in Chikungunya Virus Infection and Utilizing

544   Their Potential in Anti-Viral Immunity. *Front Immunol* **11**, 287 (2020).

545   28.   J. Garcia-Arriaza *et al.*, A novel poxvirus-based vaccine, MVA-CHIKV, is highly immunogenic

546   and protects mice against chikungunya infection. *J Virol* **88**, 3527-3547 (2014).

547   29.   N. Ge *et al.*, An mRNA vaccine encoding Chikungunya virus E2-E1 protein elicits robust

548   neutralizing antibody responses and CTL immune responses. *Virol Sin* **37**, 266-276 (2022).

549   30.   J. J. Hoarau *et al.*, Identical strength of the T cell responses against E2, nsP1 and capsid CHIKV

550   proteins in recovered and chronic patients after the epidemics of 2005-2006 in La Reunion Island.

551   *PLoS One* **8**, e84695 (2013).

552   31.   I. Messaoudi *et al.*, Chikungunya virus infection results in higher and persistent viral replication

553   in aged rhesus macaques due to defects in anti-viral immunity. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **7**, e2343

554   (2013).

555   32.   S. W. Metz *et al.*, Chikungunya virus-like particles are more immunogenic in a lethal AG129

556   mouse model compared to glycoprotein E1 or E2 subunits. *Vaccine* **31**, 6092-6096 (2013).

557   33.   S. Ma *et al.*, Development of a novel multi-epitope vaccine based on capsid and envelope protein

558   against Chikungunya virus. *J Biomol Struct Dyn* 10.1080/07391102.2023.2240059, 1-13 (2023).

559   34.   S. K. Tsai *et al.*, Antigenicity and immunogenicity of chikungunya virus-like particles from

560   mosquito cells. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* **107**, 219-232 (2023).

561   35.   S. Brandler *et al.*, A recombinant measles vaccine expressing chikungunya virus-like particles is

562   strongly immunogenic and protects mice from lethal challenge with chikungunya virus. *Vaccine*

563   **31**, 3718-3725 (2013).

564   36.   P. A. Rudd *et al.*, Interferon response factors 3 and 7 protect against Chikungunya virus

565   hemorrhagic fever and shock. *J Virol* **86**, 9888-9898 (2012).

566   37.   C. Schilte *et al.*, Cutting edge: independent roles for IRF-3 and IRF-7 in hematopoietic and

567   nonhematopoietic cells during host response to Chikungunya infection. *J Immunol* **188**, 2967-

568   2971 (2012).

569   38.   W. P. Bezerra *et al.*, Innate immune response in patients with acute Chikungunya disease. *Med*

570   *Microbiol Immunol* **212**, 279-290 (2023).

571   39.   L. E. Cook *et al.*, Distinct Roles of Interferon Alpha and Beta in Controlling Chikungunya Virus

572   Replication and Modulating Neutrophil-Mediated Inflammation. *J Virol* **94** (2019).

573   40.   X. Liu *et al.*, Interleukin-17 Contributes to Chikungunya Virus-Induced Disease. *mBio* **13**,

574   e0028922 (2022).

575   41.   S. Thanapati *et al.*, Impaired NK cell functionality and increased TNF-alpha production as

576   biomarkers of chronic chikungunya arthritis and rheumatoid arthritis. *Hum Immunol* **78**, 370-374

577   (2017).

578   42.   S. Thanapati, M. A. Ganu, A. S. Tripathy, Differential inhibitory and activating NK cell receptor

579   levels and NK/NKT-like cell functionality in chronic and recovered stages of chikungunya. *PLoS*

580   *One* **12**, e0188342 (2017).

581   43.   G. Trinchieri, Interleukin-12 and the regulation of innate resistance and adaptive immunity. *Nat*

582   *Rev Immunol* **3**, 133-146 (2003).

44.   I. K. Pang, T. Ichinohe, A. Iwasaki, IL-1R signaling in dendritic cells replaces pattern-recognition

receptors in promoting CD8(+) T cell responses to influenza A virus. *Nat Immunol* **14**, 246-253

(2013).

45.   C. Li *et al.*, The Host Restriction Factor Interferon-Inducible Transmembrane Protein 3 Inhibits

Vaccinia Virus Infection. *Front Immunol* **9**, 228 (2018).

46.   R. Broeckel, N. Haese, I. Messaoudi, D. N. Streblow, Nonhuman Primate Models of

Chikungunya Virus Infection and Disease (CHIKV NHP Model). *Pathogens* **4**, 662-681 (2015).

47.   N. N. Haese *et al.*, Animal Models of Chikungunya Virus Infection and Disease. *J Infect Dis* **214**,

S482-S487 (2016).

48.   K. Labadie *et al.*, Chikungunya disease in nonhuman primates involves long-term viral

persistence in macrophages. *J Clin Invest* **120**, 894-906 (2010).

49.   M. W. Chase, H. C. Maguire, Jr., Studies on the sensitization of animals with simple chemical

compounds. XIV. Further studies on sensitization of guinea pigs with picric acid. *Int Arch Allergy*

Appl Immunol **45**, 513-542 (1973).

50.   F. L. Ricciardolo, F. Nijkamp, V. De Rose, G. Folkerts, The guinea pig as an animal model for

asthma. *Curr Drug Targets* **9**, 452-465 (2008).

51.   M. Schwameis, N. Buchtele, P. P. Wadowski, C. Schoergenhofer, B. Jilma, Chikungunya

vaccines in development. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* **12**, 716-731 (2016).

52.   R. Edelman *et al.*, Phase II safety and immunogenicity study of live chikungunya virus vaccine

TSI-GSD-218. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **62**, 681-685 (2000).

53.   C. M. Weiss, H. Liu, K. K. Riemersma, E. E. Ball, L. L. Coffey, Engineering a fidelity-variant

live-attenuated vaccine for chikungunya virus. *NPJ Vaccines* **5**, 97 (2020).

54.   D. L. A. Esposito, B. Fonseca, Sensitivity and detection of chikungunya viral genetic material

using several PCR-based approaches. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop* **50**, 465-469 (2017).

55.   I. Riedmaier, A. Tichopad, M. Reiter, M. W. Pfaffl, H. H. Meyer, Influence of testosterone and a

608   novel SARM on gene expression in whole blood of Macaca fascicularis. *J Steroid Biochem Mol*

609   *Biol* **114**, 167-173 (2009).

610   56.   T. Welte *et al.*, Vgamma4+ T cells regulate host immune response to West Nile virus infection.

611   *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* **63**, 183-192 (2011).

612   57.   A. Adam *et al.*, Multiplexed FluoroSpot for the Analysis of Dengue Virus- and Zika Virus-

613   Specific and Cross-Reactive Memory B Cells. *J Immunol* **201**, 3804-3814 (2018).

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. EILV/CHIKV protects cynomolgus macaques from WT CHIKV infection one

year after a single dose vaccination. NHPs were vaccinated with a low (LD) or high doses (HD) of

EILV/CHIKV, CHIKV 181/25 or PBS (mock). At day 350, all animals were implanted with electronic

data loggers as temperature sensor and challenged subcutaneously with 1.0×10^5 PFU of WT La Reunion

strain of CHIKV at day 370. **A.** Study design and vaccination timeline. **B.** Body temperature changes

were recorded every 15 min and reported as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) starting 7 days

before to 14 days after infection with WT CHIKV strain La Réunion. **C**. Viremia were measured by

plaque assays at indicated days post-challenge (PC). UD: Undetectable. Data are presented as means ±

SEM.

Figure 2. Transcriptome and T cell functional analysis of PBMCs one year after vaccination

and challenge of cynomolgus macaques. A-E. Transcriptional changes of PBMCs of vaccinated

macaques and mock controls at day 4 PC. **A.** Principal component analysis (PCA) of all normalized

transcripts to visualize the relatedness of samples via dimensional reduction. Each dot represents an

individual RNA sample for mock (pink; n=3), EILV/CHIKV (gray; n =3), and CHIKV 181/25 (aqua; n=3)

groups. Samples that cluster are considered overall more similar, whereas distant samples are considered

overall more distinct. **B.** Heatmap of the most differentially expressed mRNAs in each group. Transcripts

with a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05 were sorted by log fold change values for

EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated compared to CHIKV 181/25-immunized subjects. Red indicates increased

expression; blue indicates decreased expression. **C.** Bar plot of the most significant signaling pathways in

EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated compared to mock-immunized subjects. Any differentially expressed transcripts

with a Benjamini-Hochberg corrected $P < 0.1$ were deemed significant for enrichment. Pathways were

sorted by statistical significance (a higher -log (P) indicates higher significance). Red indicates increased

expression; blue indicates decreased expression. **D**. Heatmap of the most upregulated pathways in each

group; samples were sorted by z-score for EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated compared to CHIKV 181/25-

immunized subjects. Yellow/green indicates increased expression, blue/purple indicates decreased

expression. **E.** Dot plots depicting predicted cell type trend scores for mock (pink; n=3), EILV/CHIKV

(gray; n=3), and CHIKV 181/25 (aqua; n=3) groups. Values were derived from transcriptional signatures

indicative for a particular cell subset. **F-G.** PBMCs of day 350 vaccinated NHPs were cultured *ex vivo*

with CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide pools for 6 h, and stained for IFN-γ, CD3, CD4, or CD8.

Total number of IFN-γ^+ CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells is shown. $***P < 0.001$, $**P < 0.01$, or $*P < 0.05$

compared to mock. $^{####}P < 0.001$, $^{##}P < 0.01$, or $^{#}P < 0.05$ compared to CHIKV 181/25.

647   **Figure 3. Memory B cell (MBC) and antibody responses in EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated**

macaques. A-C. CHIKV-specific MBC responses by ELISPOT analysis. PBMCs of day 30 (**A**) and day

350 (**B-C**) vaccinated NHPs were stimulated for 7 d with R848 plus rIL-2 and seeded onto ELISPOT

plates coated with CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide pools (**A**), total IgG or CHIKV recombinant E2

protein (**B-C**). **A & C**. Frequencies of CHIKV-specific antibody secreting cells (ASC)s per 10^6 input

cells in MBC cultures from the subject. **B.** Images of total IgG-ASCs, CHIKV peptide-specific or CHIKV

E2 protein- specific MBCs, are shown. **D.** Serum neutralizing activity against CHIKV 181/25 was

measured by a plaque reduction neutralization test (PRNT). **E.** CHIKV E2 binding IgG responses at

indicate time points by ELISA. **F-G.** Passive immunization study. Pooled sera collected at day 350 PV

of macaques were diluted 1:2 in PBS and transferred to 6-week-old AB6 mice 24 h before infection with

a LD100 dose of WT CHIKV. Mice were monitored daily for morbidity. **F**. Survival rate. **G**. Percent

weight loss compared to prior infection. $***P < 0.001$, $**P < 0.01$, or $*P < 0.05$ compared to mock. $^{####}P$

< 0.001, $^{##}P < 0.01$, or $^{#}P < 0.05$ compared to CHIKV 181/25.

660   **Figure 4. Rapid protection by EILV/CHIKV vaccination of cynomolgus macaques.** NHPs

were implanted with electronic data loggers as temperature sensor and bled 14 days before vaccination.

NHPs were vaccinated with 1.3 x10^8 PFU EILV/CHIKV (n =3), 5 x10^5 PFU inactivated WT CHIKV

(n=3) or PBS (mock, n=2). At day 6 PV, NHPs were challenged subcutaneously with 10^5 PFU of WT La

Reunion strain of CHIKV. **A.** Study design and vaccination timeline. **B.** Body temperature changes were

recorded every 15 min and reported as hourly mean $\pm$ SEM starting 8 days before to 14 days after the

challenge with WT CHIKV. **C-D**. Viremia were measured by plaque assays (**C**) or Q-PCR (**D**) at

indicated days PC. Undetectable: UD. ** $P < 0.01$ compared to mock group. Unpaired, 2-tailed

Student's t test was used to determine the differences. Data are presented as means ± SEM.

Figure 5. Transcriptional changes and sera cytokine production in vaccinated macaques. A-

E. Transcriptional changes of PBMCs in EILV/CHIKV- vaccinated macaques and mock controls at day 7

PV. (**A**) PCA of all normalized transcripts to visualize the relatedness of samples via dimensional

reduction. Each dot represents an individual RNA sample for mock (pink; n=3) and EILV/CHIKV (gray;

n=3) groups. Samples that cluster are considered overall more similar, whereas distant samples are

considered overall more distinct. (**B**) Heatmap of the most differentially expressed mRNAs in

EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated compared to the mock-immunized subjects; sorted by statistical significance

(Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted $P < 0.05$). Red indicates increased expression, white indicates no change

in expression, blue indicates decreased expression. (**C**) Bar plot of the most significant signaling

pathways in EILV/CHIKV-vaccinated compared to mock-immunized subjects. Any differentially

expressed transcripts with a Benjamini-Hochberg corrected $P < 0.1$ were deemed significant for

enrichment purposes. Pathways are sorted by statistical significance (a higher -log(p-value) indicates

higher significance). Red indicates increased expression, blue indicates decreased expression. (**D**) Dot

plots depicting predicted cell type trend scores for mock (pink; n=3) and EILV/CHIKV (gray; n=3)

groups. Values were derived from transcriptional signatures indicative for a particular cell subset. **E-G.**

Sera cytokines were measured by nonhuman primate inflammation 13-plex kits at indicated time points

PC. Data are presented as fold increases compared to the mock group.

Figure 6. EILV/CHIKV-induced protective innate and adaptive immunity in macaques. A-

B. NHPs were vaccinated with EILV/CHIKV, inactivated WT CHIKV or PBS (mock).   At day 6 PV,

NHPs were challenged subcutaneously with 10^5 PFU of the WT La Reunion strain of CHIKV. At day 4

PC, cells expressing NK cell markers were analyzed. Percent positive (**A**) or total number (**B**) of NK or

NK T cells in PBMCs are shown. **C.** Serum neutralizing activity against CHIKV 181/25 was measured by

PRNT. **D.** CHIKV E2 binding IgG responses at indicate time points by ELISA. **E.** ELISPOT

quantification of peripheral T cell responses. PBMCs of macaques collected at day 4 PC were stimulated

with CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide pools for 24 h. SFCs were measured by IFN-γ ELISPOT.

Data are shown as # of SFC per 10^6 cells. $**P < 0.01$, or $*P < 0.05$ compared to mock. $^{##}P < 0.01$

compared to CHIKV 181/25.

 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Supplementary Figure 1. Viremia and histopathology of CHIKV-infected macaques 1 year

post vaccination. A-B. Viremia was measured by Q-PCR at indicated days post-challenge (PC). ** *P <*

0.01 or * *P < 0.05* compared to mock group. Unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test was used to determine the

differences. Data are presented as means ± standard error of the mean (SEM). **C.** Representative images

of H& E-stained spleens of vaccinated macaques at day 14 PC. Comparatively, minimal to mild

decreased lymphocytes in lymphoid nodules (arrows) were observed in some animals.

Supplementary Figure 2. CHIKV-specific T cell responses in vaccinated macaques. A.

PBMCs of day 30 vaccinated NHPs were cultured *ex vivo* with CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide

pools for 6 h, and stained for IFN-γ, CD3, CD4, or CD8. Total number of IFN-γ$^+$ CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells

is shown. **B.** ELISPOT quantification of peripheral T cell responses. PBMCs of day 7 and day 30

vaccinated NHPs were stimulated with CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide pools for 24 h. Spot

forming cells (SFC) were measured by IFN-γ ELISPOT. Data are shown as # of SFC per 10^6 cells. ** *P <*

0.01, or * *P < 0.05* compared to mock. $^{###}$ *P < 0.001,* $^{##}$ *P < 0.01,* or $^{#}$ *P < 0.05* compared to CHIKV 181/25.

Supplementary Figure 3. CHIKV specific memory B cell and antibody responses in EILV/CHIKV-

vaccinated NHPs in long-term protection study. A-B. CHIKV-specific memory B cell (MBC)

responses by ELISPOT analysis. PBMCs of day 30 (**A**) and day 7 (**B**) vaccinated NHPs were stimulated

for 7 d with R848 plus rIL-2 and seeded onto ELISPOT plates coated with (**A**) CHIKV VLP and

EILV/CHIKV or (**B**) CHIKV capsid, E3, E2 and E1 peptide pools. The frequencies of CHIKV-specific

ASCs per 10^6 input cells in MBC cultures from the subject. **C.** Neutralizing activity against CHIKV

181/25 in sera collected at various time points PV was measured by PRNT. $^{##}$ *P < 0.01,* or $^{#}$ *P < 0.05*

compared to CHIKV 181/25.

Supplementary Figure 4. Hypersensitivity assay in a guinea pig model. Guinea pigs were

sensitized by exposure to female *Ae. albopictus* mosquitoes four times during a 14-day period. On day 43,

animals were injected i.d. on footpad with 20µg SGE protein, 1.3 x 10^8 PFU of EILV/CHIKV or PBS

(mock). 30 min to 2 h after challenge, skin reactions were assessed. **A.** Study design. **B.** Representative

image of skin reactions at 2 h post injection on day 43. **C.** Skin swelling was measured via 30 min post

inoculation. ***$P < 0.001$ compared to mock. $^{\#\#}P < 0.01$ compared to SGE group.

Supplementary Figure 5. EILV/CHIKV induced innate cytokine responses. NHPs were

vaccinated with a LD EILV/CHIKV (n =4), CHIKV 181/25 (n =3) or PBS (mock, n= 3). **A-E.** On days

1, and 2 PV, blood cytokines levels were determined by Q-PCR assay. Data are presented as means ±

SEM of fold increase compared to the mock group. $^{\#}P < 0.01$ compared to CHIKV 181/25.

Supplementary Methods:

Histopathology: At day 14 PC, spleens were collected from all animals scheduled for euthanasia

and placed in 10% formalin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) before embedment in an

optimal cutting temperature compound. H&E staining was performed at the Histopathology Laboratory

Core of UTMB. Slides were examined by a board-certified pathologist at the Experimental Pathology

Laboratories, Inc. (EPL®) in Sterling, Virginia.

Aedes albopictus **salivary gland protein extract:** Around a hundred salivary glands from 6-day

old sugar-fed *Ae. albopictus* females, (strain: Lake Charles, LA) were dissected in droplets of PBS as

described before (1). Dissected salivary glands were then combined and ground in protein lysis buffer (50

mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100). The resulting salivary gland

extract was kept on ice and for storage frozen at – 80 C.

Guinea pig sensitization study: 6 to 8-week-old female Dunkin Hartley albino Guinea pigs were

purchased from Charles River (Wilmington, MA). Animals were sensitized with 50 females *Ae.*

albopictus mosquitoes for 4 times on a 14-day interval. On day 43, guinea pigs were injected

intradermally (i.d.) at the mosquito probing/feeding area with 20 µg *Ae. albopictus* SGE, $1.3x \ 10^8$ PFU of

purified EILV/CHIKV, or PBS-G (mock). 30 min to 2 h following injection, inoculation sites were

assessed via measurements of site swelling and imaging.

A

B

C

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6