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Experimental Success in Marburg Virus Vaccination

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Abstract:

The Marburg virus (MRV), classified within the Filoviridae family, was initially identified in 1967, precipitating Marburg virus disease (MARV), a severe and often fatal hemorrhagic fever. With its pronounced infectiousness, high mortality rate, and proclivity for epidemic outbreaks, MARV stands as a formidable public health menace. Despite extensive sporadic outbreaks and its designation as a priority disease, the quest for efficacious drugs or vaccines against MRV remains an ongoing challenge. Nonetheless, the relentless pursuit of scientific inquiry, augmented by the innovative application of immunoinformatics, is propelling forward vaccine development endeavors. Current vaccine candidates, spanning from VSV-based formulations to virus-like particle vaccines, exhibit encouraging outcomes in preclinical and clinical evaluations, boasting notable efficacy and safety profiles. Furthermore, the exploration of multivalent vaccine strategies, designed to target a spectrum of hemorrhagic fever viruses, holds promise in fortifying pandemic preparedness efforts.

Immunoinformatics assumes a pivotal role in this context, offering predictive insights into vaccine candidate selection and optimization, thereby facilitating expedited development tailored to diverse demographic cohorts. The integration of computational modeling techniques into vaccine development paradigms represents a transformative avenue for effectively controlling MRV outbreaks on a global scale. Sustained collaboration and continued research endeavors are imperative to fully harness the potential of these advancements in confronting the formidable challenge posed by the lethal Marburg virus and safeguarding global public health.

Keywords: Marburg virus, vaccine, Marburg virus disease

Introduction

The Marburg virus (MRV) was first identified in 1967 in Marburg. It is included, along with the Ebola virus, among the viruses of the filoviridae family (1, 2). MRV causes Marburg virus disease (MARV), which is a highly fatal hemorrhagic fever (2). As of 2023, 17 sporadic outbreaks of MARV have been described. The virus is characterized by its high infectiousness, which, combined with its high mortality rate and tendency to create epidemic outbreaks, led to its inclusion on the list of priority diseases in 2018 (3-5). Infection occurs via the droplet route, and the virus can transmit both from animals to humans and from humans to humans (4). At the moment, there is no effective drug or vaccine to protect against MRV. The search for a suitable vaccine is being aided by immunoinformatics, which makes it possible to select a highly immunogenic antigen, create a safe formulation, and target a specific population (3, 6). Vaccines currently in clinical trials, whether in animals or humans, are mainly based on the glycoprotein (GP) of the MRV envelope, and the main differences are in the vectors used (7, 8). The aim of this study is to present the current progress in Marburg virus vaccine research.

Marburg Virus

MRV is an enveloped, single-stranded RNA virus of the filovirus family. The Marburg Musoke-Angola variant was isolated from the largest epidemic outbreak. During the epidemic in Angola, 252 were described as having a mortality rate of 88% (1, 9). The virus is transmitted both zonally and interpersonally, probably through saliva, urine, and bat feces (5, 9). Its genome contains 7 genes arranged linearly, and among them, we can distinguish a glycoprotein (5). It is the main target of experimental vaccines against MRV (7, 8, 10). GP is the only protein on the cell surface, plays a big role in pathogenesis, affects immunogenicity, and produces neutralizing antibodies (5, 9).

Marburg virus-induced hemorrhagic fever

The virus first attacks macrophages and dendritic cells, followed by endothelial cells. The incubation time ranges from 3 to 21 days. There are three phases of MARV (5, 11). Phase one – the generalization phase begins with flu-like symptoms (5). Phase two - early organ phase with a high fever and neurological symptoms. In 75% of patients, there are hemorrhagic symptoms, among which can be indicated bloody vomiting, bloody diarrhea, and tarry stools.

At the time of a late-stage infection, either the patient progresses to the late organ stage or dies (5, 11). Phase three – the convalescence phase often leads to kidney failure and multi-organ dysfunction (11). Typically, death occurs within 8–16 days of the onset of the first symptoms, most likely because of shock and multi-organ damage (5).

VSV-based vaccine

Vaccines containing recombinant vesicular stomatitis virus (rVSV) are already being used to protect against the Ebola virus in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (7). Of interest among researchers is the cross-reactivity within other viruses in the filoviridae group. The rVSV-ZEBOV vaccine was created to combat the Ebola virus, as mentioned earlier, of the Zaire species. Upon analyzing cross-reactions, it was discovered that, on average, 42.5% of antibodies recognize the glycoprotein (GP) of other viruses, including Ebola, Ebola-Bundibugyo, and Ebola-Sudan. Additionally, four antibodies reactive against MRV have been identified (7). A vaccine also based on rVSV targeting the GP of MRV is in clinical trials. A vaccine based on vesicular stomatitis virus binding to the GP of MRV (VSV-MARV) provides uniform protection in primates (other than humans) (12, 13). VSV-MARV can be called a sister to the rVSV-ZEBOV due to its considerable similarity. GP is a viral antigen, a single dose of vaccines based on it protects monkeys, but to be effective, it must be administered 28 days before provocation (12). For further studies, human homologs were used, which were inoculated and then provoked after 7 or 14 days. A strong immune response and immediate induction of inflammatory response genes were observed, protecting 100%. On the other hand, vaccination 3 days before provocation, provided 75% survival, indicating its suitability for use during an epidemic during which the priority is to provide rapid protection (12, 13). In comparison, a previous study showed the effectiveness of a single dose when administered 35 days before provocation (12). The success, indicating the vaccine's rapid effect, prompted the idea of testing the efficacy of VSV-MARV with a smaller dose. 100% protection was achieved when the vaccine was administered 28 days before the MRV provocation. This is important because, with limited capacity, more people can be protected with a single vial (14). Because of the additional information indicating safety and high efficacy at a low dose, the VSV-MARV vaccine is a promising candidate to combat the deadly virus. However, it requires human clinical trials to confirm its efficacy. Nevertheless, the information gathered so far points to its possible use as an interventional vaccine (12, 15).

Virus-like particle vaccine

The MVA-MARV-VLP vaccine combines the features of the Modified Vaccinia virus Ankara (MVA) vaccine vector and the authentic conformation of virus-like particles (VLPs) containing the envelope GP and matrix protein (VP40) of MRV. Thanks to the presentation of antigens in their native conformation, the vaccine has high immunogenicity. However, it requires several doses to protect against death. More importantly, it only protects against death without protecting against disease (8, 16).

Replication-defective chimpanzee adenovirus type 3 (ChAd3)-vectored vaccine

The vaccine, which uses replication-deficient chimpanzee adenovirus type 3 (ChAd3) and GP MRV (ChAd3-MARV) as the vector, is characterized by the safety of the vector, as confirmed by previous studies. In studies conducted on macaques, 100% protection was achieved, as was its durability 1 year after a single vaccination (10). The vaccine is currently in clinical trials evaluating its efficacy in humans. Results indicate a sustained antibody response in 70% of participants 48 weeks after vaccination. Although it requires further clinical trials in emergencies, it may be considered an emergency vaccine (17, 18).

Multivalent vaccine

The co-occurrence of many different hemorrhagic fever viruses in one area is an undeniable problem. A vaccine effective against multiple infectious agents significantly reduces the risk of a pandemic, and in the case of hemorrhagic fever viruses, recent research has focused on vaccines targeting a specific disease. In animal studies (mice, guinea pigs, and primates other than people), a cellular and humoral response was achieved with a multivalent vaccine targeting Ebola and Marburg viruses (19).

The impact of immunoinformatics on vaccine development

Immunoinformatics makes it possible to predict the role of specific proteins in a vaccine. On this basis, it has been possible to select three proteins that play a major role in the formation of infectious particles: VP24, VP30, and the envelope GP (6). The accuracy of the prediction is confirmed by the fact that clinical trials are being conducted on vaccines based on GP MRV (8, 10, 12). Modeling can accurately identify epitopes that are highly antigenic, safe, and non-allergenic. In addition, they indicate that the adjuvant in this case is proposed as beta-defensin-3, creating a formulation for a stable, potentially effective vaccine (3, 20). The main advantage of computerized vaccine design is that it can be tailored to a specific population. In addition, computer models reduce the time needed to create them (3). The role of informatics does not end with the creation of the vaccine; thanks to them, we can compare different vaccination strategies and choose the one that most effectively controls MRV outbreaks (21).

Conclusions

Given the threat posed by the Marburg virus, we urgently need a tool to protect people from contracting the disease. Immunoinformatics plays a crucial role in predicting vaccine efficacy, identifying antigenic epitopes, and streamlining formulation processes. Its ability to customize vaccines, reduce development time, and inform vaccination strategies enhances our capacity to combat infectious diseases effectively. Currently, the first human vaccine trials are already underway giving us real hopes of presenting a safe and effective vaccine to protect people from the effects of hemorrhagic fever soon.

Authors` Contributions:

Conceptualization, M.D. Literature review, M.D. and A.N.; Writing – Abstract, M.D.; Writing – Marburg Virus A.N.; Writing – Marburg virus-induced hemorrhagic fever M.D.; Writing – VSV-based vaccine A.N.; Writing – Virus-like particle vaccine A.N.; Writing – Replication-defective chimpanzee adenovirus type 3 (ChAd3)-vectored vaccine M.D.; Writing - Multivalent vaccine M.D.; Writing - The impact of immunoinformatics on vaccine development A.N.; Writing – Conclusions M.D. and AN.; Editing and reviewing M.D.

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