

Safety and Immunogenicity of a Replication-Incompetent Adenovirus Type 5 HIV-1 Clade B *gag/pol/nef* Vaccine in Healthy Adults

Frances H. Priddy,¹ Deborah Brown,² James Kublin,³ Kathleen Monahan,² David P. Wright,⁴ Jacob Lalezari,⁵ Steven Santiago,⁷ Michael Marmor,⁸ Michelle Lally,⁹ Richard M. Novak,¹⁰ Stephen J. Brown,⁶ Priya Kulkarni,² Sheri A. Dubey,² Lisa S. Kierstead,² Danilo R. Casimiro,² Robin Mogg,² Mark J. DiNubile,² John W. Shiver,² Randi Y. Leavitt,² Michael N. Robertson,² Devan V. Mehrotra,² and Erin Quirk,² for the Merck V520-016 Study Group^a

¹Department of Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia; ²Merck Research Laboratories, West Point, Pennsylvania; ³Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, Washington; ⁴Central Texas Clinical Research Center, Austin; ⁵Quest Clinical Research Laboratories, San Francisco, and ⁶AIDS Research Alliance, West Hollywood, California; ⁷Care Resource, Miami, Florida; ⁸New York University School of Medicine, New York; ⁹Warren Alpert Medical School of Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island; and ¹⁰University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago

Background. The safety and immunogenicity of the MRK adenovirus type 5 human immunodeficiency virus type 1 clade B *gag/pol/nef* vaccine, a replication-incompetent adenovirus type 5–vectored vaccine designed to elicit cell-mediated immunity against conserved human immunodeficiency virus proteins, was assessed in a phase 1 trial.

Methods. Healthy adults not infected with human immunodeficiency virus were enrolled in a multicenter, dose-escalating, blind, placebo-controlled study to evaluate a 3-dose homologous prime-boost regimen of the trivalent MRK adenovirus type 5 human immunodeficiency virus type 1 vaccine containing from 3×10^6 to 1×10^{11} viral particles per 1-mL dose administered on day 1, during week 4 and during week 26. Adverse events were recorded for 29 days after each intradeltoid injection. The primary immunogenicity end point was the proportion of study participants with a positive unfractionated Gag-, Pol-, or Nef-specific interferon- γ enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot response measured 4 weeks after administration of the last dose.

Results. Of 259 randomized individuals, 257 (99%) received ≥ 1 dose of vaccine or placebo and were included in the safety analyses. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot results were available for 217 study participants (84%) at week 30. No serious vaccine-related adverse events occurred. No study participant discontinued participation because of vaccine-related adverse events. The frequency of injection-site reactions was dose dependent. Vaccine doses of $\geq 3 \times 10^9$ viral particles elicited positive enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot responses to ≥ 1 vaccine component in $>60\%$ of recipients. High baseline antibody titers against adenovirus type 5 diminished enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot responses at all doses except the 3×10^{10} viral particle dose.

Conclusions. The vaccine was generally well tolerated and induced cell-mediated immune responses against human immunodeficiency virus type 1 peptides in most healthy adults. Despite these findings, vaccination in a proof-of-concept trial with use of this vaccine was discontinued because of lack of efficacy.

The HIV pandemic continues to cause devastating morbidity and mortality [1, 2]. Spread of multidrug-resistant HIV increasingly threatens the usefulness of cur-

rent antiretroviral regimens [3–10]. Safe and effective vaccines for both prevention and treatment are urgently needed [11–14]. Even if a vaccine only slowed disease progression, its potential benefit in conjunction with other prophylactic and therapeutic interventions could be substantial [15–18].

The correlate of immune protection against HIV re-

Received 19 November 2007; accepted 18 January 2008; electronically published 22 April 2008.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. Frances H. Priddy, The Hope Clinic of the Emory Vaccine Ctr., Emory University, 603 Church St., Decatur, GA 30030 (fpriddy@emory.edu).

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2008;46:1769–81

© 2008 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved.
1058-4838/2008/4611-0022\$15.00
DOI: 10.1086/587993

Presented in part: 12th Conference on Retroviruses and Opportunistic Infections, Boston, Massachusetts, February 2005 (abstract 135).

^a Members of the Merck V520-016 Study Group are listed at the end of the text.

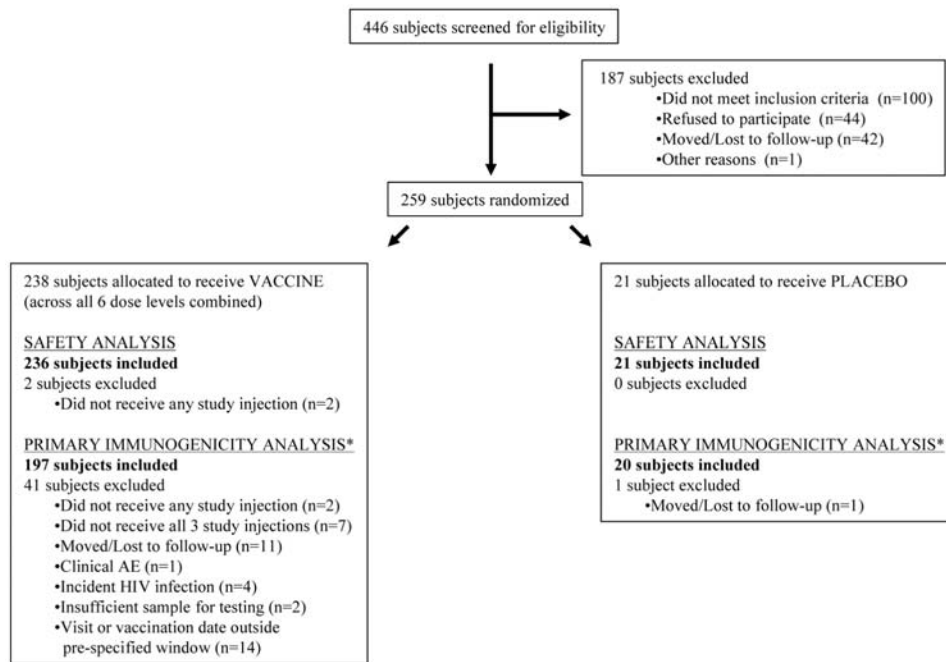


Figure 1. Randomization of study participants. *Primary immunogenicity analysis performed at week 30 (4 weeks after the third injection).

mains unknown [13, 19–24]. Virus-specific CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocytes and CD4⁺ helper T lymphocytes appear to be critical for control of simian immunodeficiency virus and HIV infections [24–26]. Vaccines eliciting cell-mediated immunity to conserved HIV peptides may be effective in both the prevention and control of natural infection [20, 22, 23, 25, 27–44]. Vaccination with attenuated adenovirus type 5 (Ad5) vectors expressing HIV-1 *gag* has variably elicited strong cytotoxic T lymphocyte responses in primate models [45–50]. Broad cell-mediated immunity responses against multiple viral determinants may be more efficacious in preventing or slowing HIV infection [12, 14, 28, 51].

We conducted a dose-ranging study of an HIV-1 vaccine, using a replication-incompetent MRKAd5 vector encoding HIV-1 *gag*, *pol*, and *nef* genes on the basis of near-consensus clade B sequences. Because immunity to Ad5 varies among populations and could affect vaccine responses [52], safety and immunogenicity were evaluated in participants with and without preexisting Ad5 immunity. During preparation of this report, enrollment in a proof-of-concept trial with use of this vaccine to prevent or modulate HIV-1 infection was suspended because of lack of efficacy.

METHODS

Vaccine Composition

The MRKAd5 HIV-1 clade B *gag/pol/nef* vaccine consists of equal parts of 3 recombinant Ad5 vectors: MRKAd5*gag* [53], MRKAd5*pol*, and MRKAd5*nef*. The E1 region of the Ad5 vector

was deleted, which rendered the virus incapable of growing in human cells, and was replaced with a transgene construct that consisted of the human cytomegalovirus promoter [54]; the HIV-1 clade B *gag*, *pol*, or *nef* open reading frame; and the bovine growth hormone poly A [55]. The open reading frames encode Gag from CAM-1, Pol (including only the reverse transcriptase and integrase gene products) from IIIB, and Nef from JRFL strains [56]. Gene sequences were codon optimized to enhance expression in mammalian cells [57]. The *pol* transgene segment was inactivated by substituting alanine codons for amino acids at enzymatically active sites [58–64], and the *nef* transgene segment was inactivated through substitutions, which prevents attachment to the cytoplasmic membrane and retrotrafficking into endosomes [51]. The vaccine was formulated in 10 mmol TRIS buffer with 10 mmol histidine, 5% sucrose, 75 mmol sodium chloride, 1 mmol magnesium chloride, 0.1 mmol EDTA, 0.5% ethanol, and 0.02% polysorbate 80 (pH 7.4). Placebo consisted of an identical vehicle.

Objectives

The primary objectives of the study were to assess the safety, tolerability, and immunogenicity of a 3-dose regimen of the vaccine administered on day 1, at week 4, and at week 26 at doses of 3×10^6 , 3×10^7 , 3×10^8 , 3×10^9 , 3×10^{10} , and 1×10^{11} total viral particles. Study participants were to be followed up for adverse events for 29 days after each dose. The primary immunogenicity end point was the proportion of study participants with a positive unfractionated Gag-, Pol-, or Nef-

Table 1. Baseline characteristics by treatment group.

Variable	Placebo recipients (n = 21)	Dose of HIV-1 MRKAd5 gag/pol/nef vaccine						Total (N = 259)
		3 × 10 ⁶ (n = 42)	3 × 10 ⁷ (n = 42)	3 × 10 ⁸ (n = 42)	3 × 10 ⁹ (n = 42)	3 × 10 ¹⁰ (n = 39)	1 × 10 ¹¹ (n = 31)	
Sex								
Female	15 (71.4)	21 (50.0)	14 (33.3)	17 (40.5)	21 (50.0)	12 (30.8)	14 (45.2)	114 (44.0)
Male	6 (28.6)	21 (50.0)	28 (66.7)	25 (59.5)	21 (50.0)	27 (69.2)	17 (54.8)	145 (56.0)
Age, median years (range)	30.0 (20–48)	32.5 (19–50)	31.5 (19–50)	33.5 (18–50)	33.5 (18–50)	40.0 (19–50)	35.0 (19–50)	34.0 (18–50)
Ethnicity								
White	17 (81.0)	36 (85.7)	30 (71.4)	32 (76.2)	28 (66.7)	30 (76.9)	27 (87.1)	200 (77.2)
Black	3 (14.3)	4 (9.5)	6 (14.3)	7 (16.7)	7 (16.7)	5 (12.8)	3 (9.7)	35 (13.5)
Hispanic	0 (0.0)	1 (2.4)	5 (11.9)	2 (4.8)	3 (7.1)	2 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	13 (5.0)
Other	1 (4.8)	1 (2.4)	1 (2.4)	1 (2.4)	4 (9.5)	2 (5.1)	1 (3.2)	11 (4.3)
Baseline anti-Ad5 antibody titer								
≤200	14 (66.7)	26 (61.9)	23 (54.8)	25 (59.5)	25 (59.5)	24 (61.5)	19 (61.3)	156 (60.2)
>200	7 (33.3)	16 (38.1)	19 (45.2)	17 (40.5)	17 (40.5)	15 (38.5)	12 (38.7)	103 (39.8)

NOTE. Data are no. (%) of patients, unless otherwise indicated. Dose units are viral particles per dose. n, No. of randomized individuals.

specific IFN- γ enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot (ELISPOT) response to 15mer HIV-1 clade B peptides with use of PBMCs obtained at week 30 (4 weeks after administration of the last dose).

Study Design

This study was a multicenter, blind, randomized, dose-escalating, placebo-controlled trial of a homologous prime-boost 3-dose regimen in HIV-seronegative adults who would be followed up for up to 78 weeks for immunogenicity and 260 weeks for safety. Healthy HIV-seronegative study participants 18–50 years old were assessed for eligibility at 25 sites in the United States. Individuals were excluded if they were considered to be

at high behavioral risk of acquiring HIV infection during the study on the basis of risk factor assessment. Individuals with chronic medical conditions, including chronic hepatitis B or C infection, were also excluded. The protocol was approved by review boards at participating centers. Written informed consent was obtained from participants. Ongoing risk assessments and preventive counseling were offered to participants during the trial.

Enrolled study participants were randomized to receive 1.0-mL injections of placebo or vaccine into the deltoid muscle. Allocation schedules were computer generated. Investigators, study participants, clinical monitors, and laboratory personnel performing the biological assays were blind to treatment as-

Table 2. Summary of pertinent data for individuals who received a diagnosis of HIV infection during the study.

HIV-infected patient	Doses received, viral particles per dose × n	Baseline anti-Ad5 titer	Study week of diagnosis ^a	Plasma HIV RNA level at diagnosis ^b	ELISPOT reactivity ^c	Gag-ELISPOT responses ^{c,d}
1	3 × 10 ¹⁰ × 3	18	42	>75,000	Positive	1676
2	3 × 10 ⁷ × 3	48	78	25,000	Negative	51
3	3 × 10 ⁷ × 3	1239	78	>75,000	Negative	35
4	3 × 10 ¹⁰ × 3	599	52	>75,000	Negative	60
5	3 × 10 ⁷ × 3	381	104	7600	Negative	24
6	3 × 10 ⁹ × 1	18	156	49,000	Positive	83

NOTE. ELISPOT, enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot.

^a Diagnosis was based on positive EIA and reflexive Western-blot results confirmed by PCR demonstration of viremia. Per protocol, EIA was to be performed at screening and week 78 but could also be performed at the investigator's discretion. Time of infection cannot be precisely determined because EIA was not periodically repeated during the study (and because of the expected but variable delay between infection and seroconversion).

^b Ultrasensitive HIV RNA levels were measured by the HIV-1 Amplicor Monitor test (Roche Diagnostics) and are reported as copies per milliliter. The dynamic range for this assay is 50–75,000 copies/mL. This study was not designed to assess virologic end points. Because serologic and PCR testing was not performed systematically throughout the study and treatment histories were unavailable, the HIV RNA levels at the time of diagnosis may not reflect the steady-state viral set point.

^c ELISPOT results are presented for the primary week 30 immunogenicity time point. A positive ELISPOT result required both ≥ 55 spot-forming cells per 10⁶ PBMCs and ≥ 4 -fold increase over the mock control. Negative reactivity indicates that responses to Gag, Pol, and Nef were all negative.

^d Responses are reported as spot-forming cells per 10⁶ PBMCs.

Table 3. Percentage of vaccination recipients with common injection site and systemic adverse events during the 29 days after any dose.

Adverse event	Percentage of patients											
	Baseline Ad5 Titer \leq 1:200				Baseline Ad5 Titer >1:200				Combined ^a			
	Placebo (n = 14)	3 × 10 ⁹ (n = 24)	3 × 10 ¹⁰ (n = 24)	1 × 10 ¹¹ (n = 19)	Placebo (n = 7)	3 × 10 ⁹ (n = 17)	3 × 10 ¹⁰ (n = 15)	1 × 10 ¹¹ (n = 12)	Placebo (n = 21)	3 × 10 ⁹ (n = 41)	3 × 10 ¹⁰ (n = 39)	1 × 10 ¹¹ (n = 31)
Injection site												
Pain	14	29	50	79	0	18	60	75	9	25	54^b	77^b
Erythema	14	0	8	16	0	18	13	42	9	7	10	26^b
Swelling	7	0	8	16	0	12	7	17	4	5	8	16^b
Pruritus	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	17	6	0	0	7
Headache	36	29	46	58	29	12	13	17	33	22	33	42 ^b
Temperature \geq 37.8°C	0	4	13	47	0	6	20	17	0	5 ^b	16	35^b
Chills	7	4	17	42	0	6	0	8	4	5	10	29^b
Fatigue	7	25	29	21	0	0	0	25	4	15	18	23^b
Diarrhea	0	13	13	21	14	12	0	8	6	12	8	16
Myalgia	0	4	8	21	0	6	7	8	0	5	8	16^b
Nausea	0	8	13	11	0	0	13	8	0	5	13^b	10^b
Nasopharyngitis	0	4	4	5	0	6	7	8	0	5	5	7
Pain	0	0	8	5	0	12	7	8	0	5	8 ^b	7^b
Arthralgia	7	13	4	11	0	0	0	0	4	8	3	6
Back pain	0	4	4	11	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	6
Muscle spasms	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
Neck pain	7	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	6
Pharyngolaryngeal pain	14	17	8	11	29	6	13	0	20	12	10	6
Rash	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	5	0	3
Cough	7	8	0	5	0	0	0	0	4	5	0	3
Diaphoresis	0	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3
Pain in extremity	0	8	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	3
Upper respiratory tract infection	7	4	4	5	14	6	7	0	10	5	5	3
Insomnia	0	0	8	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	8	0
Pharyngitis	0	0	8	0	14	6	0	0	6	2	5	0
Vomiting	0	8	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	5	3	0

NOTE. Adverse events with combined incidence \geq 5% for at least 1 of the active dose levels are displayed. Ad5, adenovirus type 5; dose units, viral particles per dose; n, no. of study participants with follow-up.

^a Combined across baseline Ad5 strata with use of a weighted average that was based on observed stratum sizes in the trial (60.2% had Ad5 titers \leq 200; 39.8% had Ad5 titers >200).

^b One-tailed $P < .025$ for given dose versus placebo was based on a Cochran-Armitage trend test. Combined incidence is shown in bold if the P value remained $< .025$ after applying a multiplicity adjustment for the given dose level. Statistical comparisons were not performed within Ad5 strata because of small sample sizes.

signments. Study participants were initially enrolled in successive dose-escalating stages, allowing safety data from 6–8 participants at each dose level to be reviewed by an independent safety evaluation committee before participants were enrolled in the next higher dose group. Study participants were randomized to receive vaccine or placebo. Randomization with use of permuted blocks in the subsequent open-enrollment stage was stratified by baseline neutralizing anti-Ad5 antibody titers, to ensure adequate representation of study participants with low (\leq 200) and high ($>$ 200) titers across groups.

For 5 days after each dose, study participants were to record the largest diameter of induration or erythema at the injection site. A vaccine report card was used to track daily temperatures and physical complaints for 29 days after each dose. Fever was defined as a temperature of \geq 37.8°C. Surveillance for shedding

MRKAd5 was to be performed during the 2-week postdose period by collecting pharyngeal samples for culture from study participants developing symptoms compatible with a viral respiratory tract infection and by collecting urine samples for culture from study participants experiencing symptoms of urinary tract infection or with asymptomatic hematuria or pyuria [65].

Immunologic and Virologic Assays

Unfractionated IFN- γ ELISPOT assays with 15mer HIV-1 peptide pools were performed to detect HIV-specific T cell responses [66, 67]. Clade B peptides homologous to the vaccine strain were used, except where specified. A positive ELISPOT response was defined as \geq 55 spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs

Table 4. ELISPOT response rates at week 30 by antigen pool and dose level.

Antigen and dose level, viral particles per dose	Baseline Ad5 titer ≤200			Baseline Ad5 titer >200			Combined ^a	
	<i>n</i>	Responders, %	Geometric mean ELISPOT, spot-forming cells per 10 ⁶ PBMCs	<i>n</i>	Responders, %	Geometric mean ELISPOT, spot-forming cells per 10 ⁶ PBMCs	Responders, %	Geometric mean ELISPOT, spot-forming cells per 10 ⁶ PBMCs
Gag								
Placebo	14	0.0	26	6	0.0	18	0.0	22
3×10 ⁶	25	32.0	81	10	0.0	21	19.3 ^b	47 ^b
3×10 ⁷	15	60.0	115	18	0.0	26	36.1 ^b	64 ^b
3×10 ⁸	23	47.8	176	15	6.7	44	31.4 ^b	101 ^b
3×10 ⁹	17	70.6	224	15	40.0	77	58.4 ^b	147
3×10 ¹⁰	22	72.7	144	10	70.0	179	71.6 ^b	157 ^b
1×10 ¹¹	16	68.8	331	11	45.5	106	59.5 ^b	210 ^b
Pol								
Placebo	14	0.0	57	6	0.0	34	0.0	46
3×10 ⁶	25	0.0	78	10	0.0	43	0.0	62
3×10 ⁷	15	20.0	98	18	0.0	54	12.0 ^b	77
3×10 ⁸	23	43.5	189	15	0.0	71	26.2 ^b	128 ^b
3×10 ⁹	17	47.1	241	15	20.0	87	36.3 ^b	160 ^b
3×10 ¹⁰	22	59.1	225	10	40.0	155	51.5 ^b	194 ^b
1×10 ¹¹	16	87.5	462	11	45.5	189	70.7 ^b	323 ^b
Nef								
Placebo	14	0.0	21	6	0.0	16	0.0	18
3×10 ⁶	25	16.0	47	10	0.0	24	9.6	36 ^b
3×10 ⁷	15	13.3	55	18	0.0	20	8.0	37 ^b
3×10 ⁸	23	39.1	125	15	0.0	37	23.5 ^b	77 ^b
3×10 ⁹	17	58.8	143	15	26.7	60	46.0 ^b	101 ^b
3×10 ¹⁰	22	68.2	122	10	60.0	150	64.9 ^b	132 ^b
1×10 ¹¹	16	62.5	226	11	45.5	70	55.7 ^b	142 ^b

NOTE. A parallel modified intention-to-treat analysis including all participants who received ≥1 dose yielded similar results. ELISPOT, enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot; *n*, no. of study participants who were HIV seronegative through week 78, received all 3 doses, did not commit any major protocol violations, and had evaluable immunogenicity data at week 30.

^a Combined across baseline adenovirus type 5 (Ad5) strata using a weighted average based on observed stratum sizes in the trial (60.2% had Ad5 titers ≤200; 39.8% had Ad5 titers >200).

^b One-tailed *P* < .025 for given dose versus placebo was based on a Cochran-Armitage trend test. *P* values for geometric mean ELISPOT responses were computed using an analogous trend test. ELISPOT responder is defined as ≥55 spot-forming cells per 10⁶ PBMC and ≥4-fold increase over the nonantigen control; Pol responder is defined as responder to either Pol-1 or Pol-2 peptide pool. Overall, 173 (80%) of the 217 study participants included in the per-protocol immunogenicity analysis at week 30 had PBMCs processed under less than optimal conditions [66]. Statistical comparisons were not performed within Ad5 strata because of small sample sizes.

and a ≥4-fold increase over responses with use of the non-antigen control [67, 68]. Unless otherwise indicated, reported geometric mean ELISPOT responses include all study participants tested, regardless of whether their ELISPOT result was categorized as positive or negative. The T cell phenotype underlying the ELISPOT response was identified as CD4 and/or CD8 by intracellular cytokine staining [69]. Neutralizing antibody titers against Ad5 were measured using serial dilutions of serum obtained ≤45 days before the first injection and were measured periodically thereafter [70].

HIV-1/2 EIAs (Abbott Laboratories) were to be performed at baseline, at week 78, and at the discretion of the investigator. Western blots were reflexively performed after positive EIA results. Plasma from study participants with indeterminate or

positive immunoblots was tested for HIV by PCR (Amplicor 1.5; Roche Diagnostics).

Statistical Analyses

Safety. All study participants receiving ≥1 dose were included in the safety assessment. The proportions of study participants with adverse events ≤29 days after each dose were summarized by treatment group for each baseline anti-Ad5 antibody stratum. For the combined strata, summary statistics were calculated using a weighted average of the observed stratum-specific percentages, with weights proportional to the overall stratum sizes. Frequencies of specific adverse events in the vaccine and placebo groups were compared by the Cochran-Armitage trend

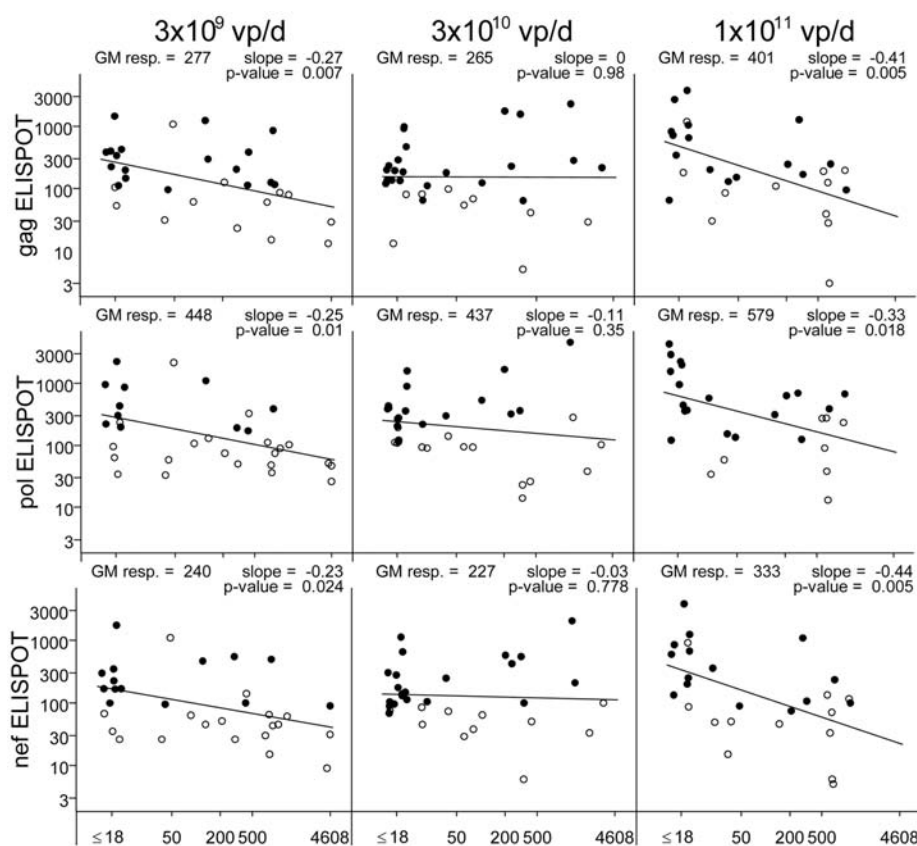


Figure 2. Quantitative enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot (ELISPOT) response (spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs) at study week 30 versus baseline anti-adenovirus type 5 (Ad5) antibody titer by antigen and dose level. A positive ELISPOT response is defined as ≥ 55 spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs and a ≥ 4 -fold increase over the nonantigen control. Y-axis, ELISPOT responses presented as spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs. GM resp, geometric mean spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs of the positive ELISPOT responders only; vp/d, viral particles per dose.

test, starting with all the vaccine groups and sequentially excluding the highest remaining vaccine dose group as long as the difference versus placebo yielded a 1-tailed P value $< .025$. To gauge which adverse events were likely to represent true signals rather than type 1 errors, P values were deemed to be statistically significant only if they remained $< .025$ after a multiplicity adjustment [71].

Immunogenicity. A per-protocol rather than intention-to-treat approach was prespecified as the primary analysis, so that immune responses could be assessed under idealized conditions. Study participants without major protocol violations were included in the immunogenicity analyses. The proportion of ELISPOT responders was summarized by treatment arm at each time point [72]. Study week 30 was prespecified as the primary time point, because it was 4 weeks after the last vaccination. Differences in the frequencies of week 30 ELISPOT responders between a given vaccine dose group and the placebo group were analyzed using the Cochran-Armitage trend test. A 1-tailed P value $< .025$ was considered to be statistically significant; a multiplicity adjustment was not required, because a given dose was formally compared with placebo only if results

of the trend tests for each higher dose were statistically significant [73].

RESULTS

From 1 May 2003 through 29 June 2004, 446 study participants were screened for eligibility (figure 1). Of 259 randomized study participants, 257 received ≥ 1 dose of vaccine or placebo. Two study participants randomized to vaccine groups did not receive any doses. All treated study participants were included in the safety analysis. The 212 vaccinated study participants randomized in the open-enrollment stage were stratified by baseline anti-Ad5 titers at entry. The placebo and vaccine groups were generally comparable in age, ethnicity, and baseline anti-Ad5 titer, although the placebo group had a higher proportion of women (table 1). Overall, 40% of study participants had baseline anti-Ad5 titers > 200 .

Before week 30, 12 vaccine recipients and 1 placebo recipient discontinued participation in the study because of loss to follow-up (12 study participants) or an adverse clinical event (fatal head trauma in 1 vaccine recipient). No individuals discontin-

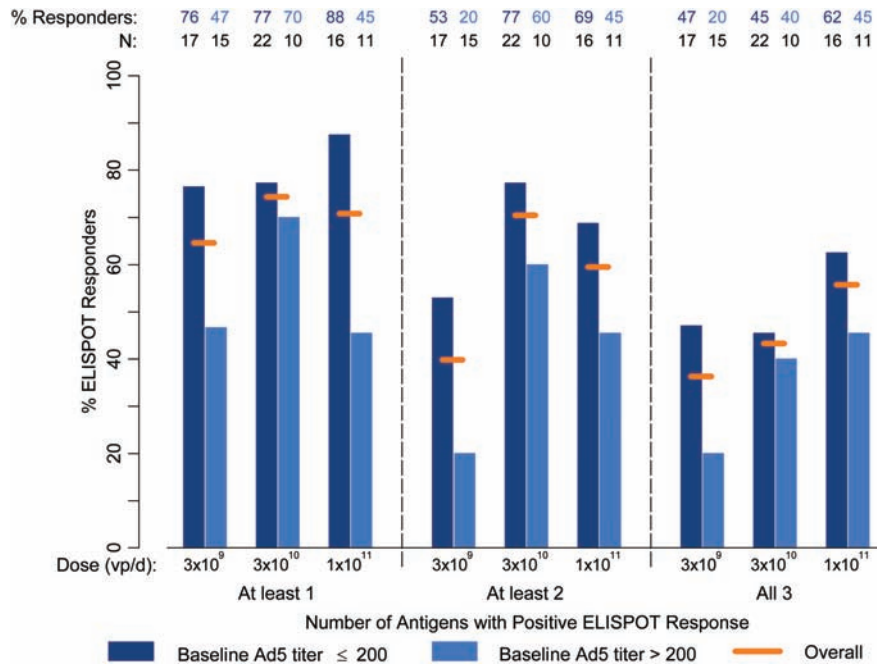


Figure 3. Frequency of positive enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot (ELISPOT) responders to ≥ 1 , ≥ 2 , and all 3 protein pools encoded by the 3 vaccine transgenes at week 30. A positive ELISPOT response is defined as ≥ 55 spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs and a ≥ 4 -fold increase over the nonantigen control. The data for the “Overall” entry were combined across baseline adenovirus type 5 (Ad5) strata with use of a weighted average that was based on observed stratum sizes in the trial (60.2% with anti-Ad5 titers ≤ 200 ; 39.8% with anti-Ad5 titers > 200). *N*, number of study participants with evaluable immunogenicity data; vp/d, viral particles per dose.

ued participation because of vaccine-related adverse events. Of 259 randomized subjects, ELISPOT results were available for 244 study participants (94%) at some point after randomization, including 217 study participants (84%) with data at the primary week 30 immunogenicity time point. A total of 229 study participants (88%) completed 78 weeks of the study and entered the long-term safety follow-up phase.

Six vaccine recipients received a diagnosis of HIV infection during the study (table 2). Four of these study participants were excluded from the immunogenicity analysis, but the 2 subjects who received a diagnosis of HIV infection after week 78 were included in the analysis. In retrospect, all 6 study participants reported high-risk behavior during the study period.

Safety and Tolerability

No vaccine-related serious adverse events occurred in any group (95% CI, 0%-1.6%). The frequencies of injection-site reactions and systemic adverse events in the 3×10^6 , 3×10^7 , and 3×10^8 viral particles vaccine groups were similar to the corresponding rates in the placebo group. Injection-site reactions that consisted primarily of local pain, erythema, and swelling occurred more frequently in vaccine recipients of the 2 highest doses than in placebo recipients (table 3). Most study participants who received doses of 3×10^{10} viral particles and

1×10^{11} viral particles experienced injection-site discomfort. Fever, headache, and fatigue occurred more commonly among recipients of the higher vaccine doses than among those who received the placebo, especially in the 1×10^{11} viral particles dose group. Fever and nausea were more common among recipients of the 3×10^{10} and 1×10^{11} viral particles doses than among those who received the placebo. Most documented temperatures in these dose groups (in 35 of 38 subjects [92%]) were $< 38.9^\circ\text{C}$. The proportions of study participants with local reactions remained fairly constant after each injection, whereas the incidence of systemic adverse events generally decreased with subsequent doses. Preexisting Ad5 immunity did not appear to affect the frequency of injection-site reactions. Participants with low baseline anti-Ad5 titers had numerically higher rates of systemic adverse events than did participants with high baseline anti-Ad5 titers.

Abnormal laboratory results in vaccine recipients at all doses developed at similar rates as in placebo recipients. From 305 adenoviral culture specimens obtained from 155 study participants, 1 urine specimen from a vaccine recipient in the 3×10^9 viral particles dose group yielded Ad5; DNA was insufficient to determine whether the isolate was a vaccine strain.

Four pregnancies were reported among vaccine recipients during the first 78 weeks of the study. Two resulted in the delivery of healthy full-term newborns at study weeks 104 and

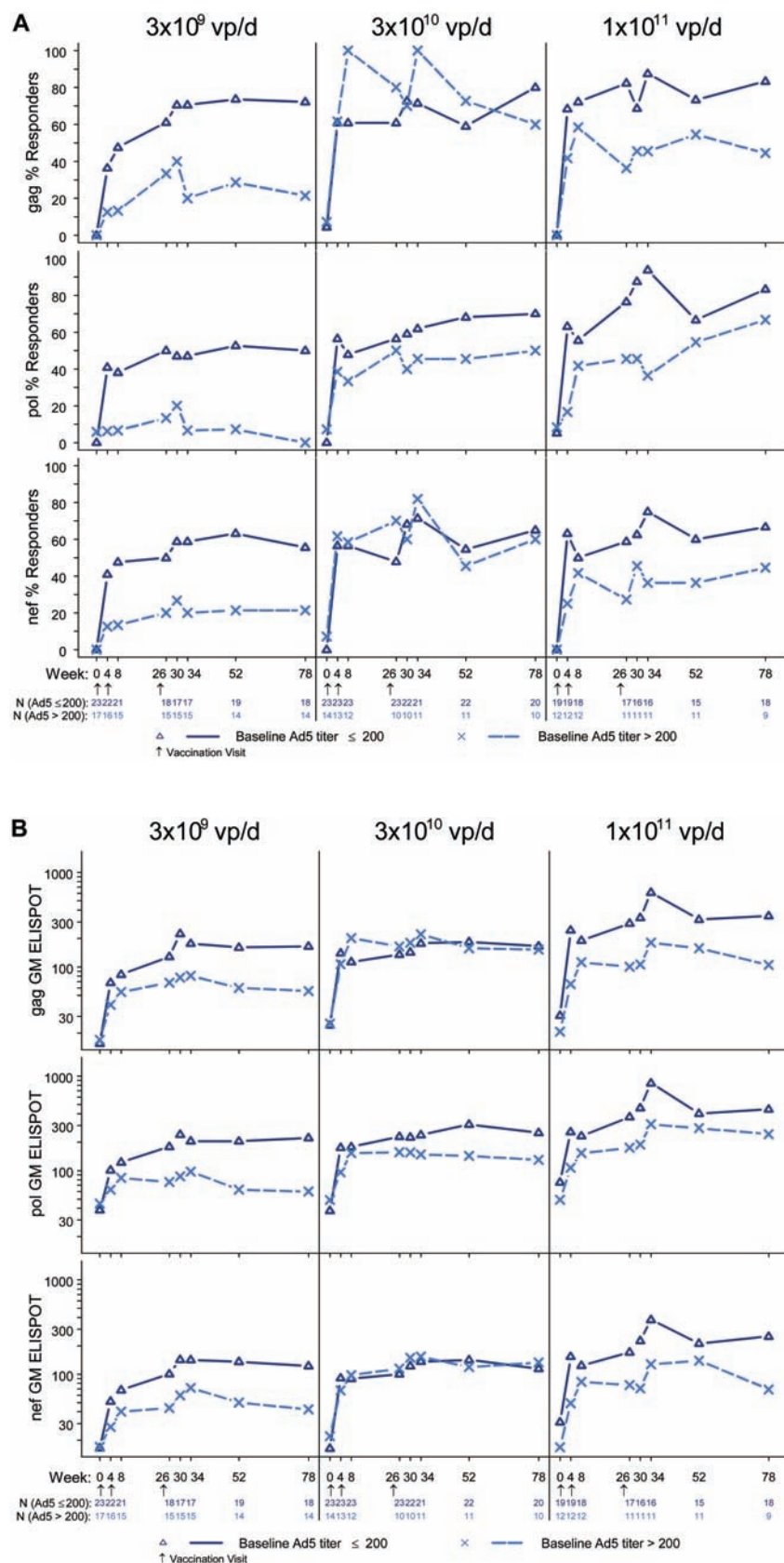


Figure 4. A, Frequency of positive enzyme-linked immunosorbent spot (ELISPOT) responders by dose level, study week, and baseline antiadenovirus type 5 (Ad5) antibody strata. B, Geometric mean ELISPOT responses (spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs) by dose level, study week, and baseline anti-Ad5 antibody strata. Y-axis, ELISPOT responses presented as spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs. A positive ELISPOT response is defined as ≥ 55 spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs and a ≥ 4 -fold increase over the nonantigen control. GM, geometric mean ELISPOT (spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs) responses; vp/d, viral particles per dose.

118, 1 resulted in an elective abortion at 8 weeks of gestation at study week 33, and 1 resulted in a spontaneous abortion at 10 weeks of gestation at study week 32.

Immunogenicity

Vaccine induced ELISPOT responses against proteins encoded by all 3 transgenes in a dose-dependent fashion (table 4). In the highest 3 dose groups at the primary immunogenicity time point, the frequencies of positive ELISPOT responders and the ELISPOT geometric mean spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs combined across baseline anti-Ad5 strata were significantly higher than in the placebo group for each peptide pool. In the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose group, 23 (72%) of 32 subjects had positive ELISPOT responses to ≥ 2 peptide pools at the primary immunogenicity time point 4 weeks after the third vaccination, with 14 subjects (44%) responding to all 3 transgene products. The 1×10^{11} viral particles dose did not increase the frequency of ELISPOT responders compared with the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose. Among ELISPOT responders, geometric mean responses had a range of 200–579 spot-forming cells per 10^6 PBMCs in a dose-dependent manner. T cell responses differentiated by intracellular cytokine staining identified both CD8⁺ and CD4⁺ cells, with the former cell type predominating. In a convenience sample of 57 study participants with a positive week 30 clade B Gag-ELISPOT tested for cross-clade Gag reactivity, 35 (61%) had positive clade A responses, and 38 (67%) had positive clade C responses.

ELISPOT immune responses were attenuated in study participants with high versus low baseline anti-Ad5 antibody titers (figure 2). The effect of preexisting Ad5 immunity appeared to be partially overcome with higher vaccine doses (figure 3). Statistically significant ($P < .05$) inverse associations were found between Gag-ELISPOT responses and baseline Ad5 titers in the 3×10^9 and 1×10^{11} dose groups ($P < .05$) but not in the 3×10^{10} dose group. Similar trends were seen for Pol and Nef responses. Although preexisting Ad5 immunity attenuated responses to the vaccine in the higher 1×10^{11} viral particles dose group but not in the lower 3×10^{10} viral particles dose group, geometric mean baseline anti-Ad5 titers were essentially identical in both dose groups. Postvaccination anti-Ad5 titers increased to similarly high levels in vaccine recipients who received 3 doses of $\geq 3 \times 10^8$ viral particles per dose.

ELISPOT responses were generally durable, persisting near levels achieved at week 30 for at least 78 weeks, regardless of baseline anti-Ad5 status (figure 4). The second and third immunizations resulted in increased geometric mean ELISPOT responses, but responses after the third dose subsequently decreased to levels comparable to levels before this dose.

Postvaccination EIA results were available by week 78 in 207 (88%) of 236 vaccine recipients. Overall, 55 (27%) of the 207 evaluable study participants had positive EIA results but neg-

ative PCR results. The frequencies of EIA positivity were directly related to vaccine dose and were inversely related to baseline anti-Ad5 immunity. For example, among recipients of the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose, 20 (91%) of 22 versus 3 (23%) of 13 had positive EIA results in the low versus high baseline Ad5 immunity strata. Indeterminate results were seen in 54 (98%) of 55 EIA-positive vaccine recipients with available Western-blot interpretations; the most commonly observed bands were p24, p40, and p55. Equivocally positive Western-blot results occurred in 1 study participant, who had an indeterminate result when retested 3 weeks later.

DISCUSSION

In this phase 1 trial, the MRKAd5 trivalent vaccine was generally well tolerated. The frequencies of adverse events were dose related. The vaccine was immunogenic in healthy HIV-seronegative adults. In general, higher doses of vaccine induced immune responses to multiple HIV-1 peptides. Response rates to Gag proteins elicited by the trivalent vaccine were similar to historical results with the monovalent Ad5 vaccine, indicating that addition of *pol* and *nef* transgene vectors did not interfere with response to the *gag* vector [46]. The proportion of study participants with ELISPOT responses to the *gag* transgene 4 weeks after the third injection was greater than placebo at doses as low as 3×10^6 viral particles, but consistent responses to the *pol* and *nef* transgenes were not observed with low-dose vaccine. Quantitative ELISPOT responses elicited by all vaccine doses were stable from week 30 to at least week 78.

Positive ELISPOT responses in vaccine recipients with high preimmunization Ad5 titers were more common with higher doses. At the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose, ELISPOT responses were nearly equivalent in the low and high baseline anti-Ad5 strata. High preexisting Ad5 immunity did not dampen responses to the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose to the same degree as to the higher 1×10^{11} viral particles dose, possibly reflecting biological or assay variability versus a ceiling on the optimum dose of Ad5 vector. Because baseline and postvaccination Ad5 titers were comparable in study participants receiving the 3×10^{10} and 1×10^{11} viral particles doses, it is unlikely that antibodies to the MRKAd5 vector boosted by the 1×10^{11} viral particles dose accounted for the difference in immunogenicity between the 3×10^{10} and 1×10^{11} viral particles dose groups with high preexisting Ad5 immunity.

Positive EIA results were common in vaccine recipients. Vaccine dose and baseline Ad5 immunity were major determinants of vaccine-induced EIA positivity. In EIA-positive uninfected study participants, Western blots were typically indeterminate, with a characteristic band pattern directed at *gag*-encoded proteins. Although enrollment was restricted to adults with presumably low-risk behavior, 6 vaccine recipients received a diagnosis of HIV-1 infection during the study to date, under-

scoring the difficulty of identifying a low-risk population for vaccine trials. Although no cases of HIV infection were recognized in placebo recipients, the composite vaccine group was ~10 times larger than the placebo group. Of the 6 vaccine recipients infected during the time of the study, 3 study participants (50%) had high preexisting anti-Ad5 titers, 2 study participants (33%) received a full series of high-dose vaccine, and 5 study participants (83%) had negative or weakly positive ELISPOT responses. The predictive value of ELISPOT reactivity for clinical efficacy has not been established.

The trivalent vaccine induced broad cell-mediated immunity against HIV-1 clade B consensus peptides, with a predominant CD8-cell phenotype. Additional data are necessary to confirm whether this vaccine consistently elicits cell-mediated immunity to non-clade B peptides in different populations [74–77]. On the basis of its balance of tolerability and immunogenicity, the 3×10^{10} viral particles dose was carried forward into phase 2 trials evaluating whether the trivalent vaccine would be effective in the prevention and/or control of HIV-1 infection.

Despite the favorable immunogenicity of the vaccine candidate, enrollment in the proof-of-concept STEP trial that used this exact vaccine was recently stopped after a preplanned interim review by the Data and Safety Monitoring Board, because a futility analysis indicated that the study was unlikely to yield evidence of efficacy [78]. The STEP study was being conducted in areas of the world where HIV-1 infection caused by clade B predominates. The vaccine reduced neither the incidence of HIV acquisition nor the viral load set point in those who became infected. The disappointing results of the phase 2 trial, juxtaposed with our promising phase 1 data, highlight the challenges of developing an effective HIV-1 vaccine that targets cell-mediated immunity, especially the lack of reliable correlation between primate models versus human study participants and the unsolved challenge of identifying immune correlates of protection against HIV infection [48–50, 79–82]. The discordance between the observed immunologic responses in our study and the preliminary efficacy findings from STEP indicate that the specific T cell responses elicited by vaccination were inadequate to prevent or modulate infection. Vaccine-induced activation of Ad5-primed T cells could theoretically increase susceptibility to HIV infection [81]. Strategies building on Ad5-vectored HIV-1 vaccines, such as heterologous prime-boost regimens or combination vaccines eliciting both cell-mediated and neutralizing humoral responses, may yet prove rewarding as the field of HIV vaccinology moves forward [83]. We hope that the ongoing analyses of the STEP results will provide instructive answers to many critical questions [84].

V520-016 PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS

D. M. Asmuth (Sacramento, California); S. J. Brown (West Hollywood, California); S. P. Buchbinder (San Francisco, Cal-

ifornia); C. Creticos (Chicago, Illinois); J. Currier (Los Angeles, California); G. Drusano (Albany, New York); S. Edupuganti (Chapel Hill, North Carolina); M. B. Feinberg (Atlanta, Georgia); C. del Rio (Atlanta, Georgia); S. E. Frey (St. Louis, Missouri); T. J. Friel (Allentown, Pennsylvania); C. Harro (Baltimore, Maryland); J. Jacobson (New York, New York); S. R. Kaster (Wenatchee, Washington); M. C. Keefer (Rochester, New York); J. Lalezari (San Francisco, California); M. Lally (Providence, Rhode Island); R. L. Liporace (Albany, New York); M. Marmor (New York, New York); J. McElrath (Seattle, Washington); D. Mildvan (New York, New York); A. Myers (Phoenix, Arizona); R. M. Novak (Chicago, Illinois); S. D. Parker (Birmingham, Alabama); P. Piliero (Albany, New York); F. H. Priddy (Atlanta, Georgia); E. Quinlivan (Chapel Hill, North Carolina); S. Santiago (Miami, Florida); P. W. Spearman (Nashville, Tennessee); R. Tucker (deceased) (Wenatchee, Washington); C. J. Whitener (Hershey, Pennsylvania); D. P. Wright (Austin, Texas); P. F. Wright (Nashville, Tennessee).

Acknowledgments

We thank the study participants and staff at the study sites for their dedication to the development of an HIV-1 vaccine. We immensely appreciate the invaluable contributions of Scott Thaler (deceased), Jon Condra, Adam Finnefrock, Robin Isaacs, Andrew Bett, Keith Gottesdiener, Joann DiLullo, Karyn Davis, and the entire Protocol 016 team.

Financial support. Merck sponsored and funded this study. This work was also supported in part by the Center for AIDS Research (P30 AI27742) from the National Institute on Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, to the New York University School of Medicine).

Manuscript preparation. The study was designed, managed, and analyzed by Merck Research Laboratories, in conjunction with external investigators. All authors had access to study data on request. This report was principally drafted by F.H.P., E.Q., R.M., D.V.M., and M.J.D. and was critically reviewed and ultimately approved by each coauthor in its essentially final form. The sponsor also reviewed the penultimate draft of the manuscript.

Potential conflicts of interest. Current (indicated in the affiliations footnote) and former employees (J.K. and P.K.) of Merck may own stock or stock options in the company. F.P. is employed by the International AIDS Vaccine Initiative and has previously received fees from Merck for serving on safety advisory committees for phase 1 HIV-1 vaccine trials. M.M. and M.L. have received grant support from Merck related to its HIV-1 vaccine program; M.L. has also received honoraria from Merck for lectures about other Merck vaccines.

References

1. Beyrer C. HIV epidemiology update and transmission factors: risks and risk contexts—16th International AIDS Conference epidemiology plenary. *Clin Infect Dis* **2007**; 44:981–7.
2. UNAIDS/WHO AIDS epidemic update: global summary of the AIDS epidemic. December **2006**. Available at: http://data.unaids.org/pub/EpiReport/2006/02-Global_Summary_2006_EpiUpdate_eng.pdf. Accessed 6 April 2007.
3. Barreto CC, Nishyia A, Araujo LV, Ferreira JE, Busch MP, Sabino EC. Trends in antiretroviral drug resistance and clade distributions among HIV-1-infected blood donors in Sao Paulo, Brazil. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2006**; 41:338–41.
4. Bezemer D, de Ronde A, Prins M, et al. Evolution of transmitted HIV-1 with drug-resistance mutations in the absence of therapy:

- effects on CD4⁺ T-cell count and HIV-1 RNA load. *Antivir Ther* **2006**; 11:173–8.
5. Kijak GH, Pampuro SE, Avila MM, et al. Resistance profiles to antiretroviral drugs in HIV-1 drug-naive patients in Argentina. *Antivir Ther* **2001**; 6:71–7.
 6. Richman DD, Morton SC, Wrin T, et al. The prevalence of antiretroviral drug resistance in the United States. *AIDS* **2004**; 18:1393–401.
 7. Tozzi V, Zaccarelli M, Bonfigli S, et al. Drug-class-wide resistance to antiretrovirals in HIV-infected patients failing therapy: prevalence, risk factors and virological outcome. *Antivir Ther* **2006**; 11:553–60.
 8. Truong HH, Grant RM, McFarland W, et al. Routine surveillance for the detection of acute and recent HIV infections and transmission of antiretroviral resistance. *AIDS* **2006**; 20:2193–7.
 9. Turner D, Wainberg MA. HIV transmission and primary drug resistance. *AIDS Rev* **2006**; 8:17–23.
 10. Viani RM, Peralta L, Aldrovandi G, et al. Prevalence of primary HIV-1 drug resistance among recently infected adolescents: a multicenter adolescent medicine trials network for HIV/AIDS interventions study. *J Infect Dis* **2006**; 194:1505–9.
 11. Executive summary and recommendations from the WHO/UNAIDS/IAVI expert group consultation on Phase IIB-TOC trials as a novel strategy for evaluation of preventive HIV vaccines, 31 January–2 February 2006, IAVI, New York, USA. *AIDS* **2007**; 21:539–46.
 12. Duerr A, Wasserheit JN, Corey L. HIV vaccines: new frontiers in vaccine development. *Clin Infect Dis* **2006**; 43:500–11.
 13. Nathanson N, Mathieson BJ. Biological considerations in the development of a human immunodeficiency virus vaccine. *J Infect Dis* **2000**; 182:579–89.
 14. Shiver JW, Emini EA. Recent advances in the development of HIV-1 vaccines using replication-incompetent adenovirus vectors. *Annu Rev Med* **2004**; 55:355–72.
 15. John R, Arango-Jaramillo S, Self S, Schwartz DH. Modeling partially effective HIV vaccines in vitro. *J Infect Dis* **2004**; 189:616–23.
 16. Gray RH, Li X, Wawer MJ, et al. Stochastic simulation of the impact of antiretroviral therapy and HIV vaccines on HIV transmission; Rakai, Uganda. *AIDS* **2003**; 17:1941–51.
 17. McCormick AW, Walensky RP, Lipsitch M, et al. The effect of antiretroviral therapy on secondary transmission of HIV among men who have sex with men. *Clin Infect Dis* **2007**; 44:1115–22.
 18. Gray RH, Kigozi G, Serwadda D, et al. Male circumcision for HIV prevention in men in Rakai, Uganda: a randomised trial. *Lancet* **2007**; 369:657–66.
 19. Berkley SF, Koff WC. Scientific and policy challenges to development of an AIDS vaccine. *Lancet* **2007**; 370:94–101.
 20. Harrer T, Harrer E, Kalams SA, et al. Strong cytotoxic T-cell and weak neutralizing antibody responses in a subset of persons with stable nonprogressing HIV type 1 infection. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* **1996**; 12:585–92.
 21. Jennes W, Vuylsteke B, Borget MY, et al. HIV-specific T helper responses and frequency of exposure among HIV-exposed seronegative female sex workers in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire. *J Infect Dis* **2004**; 189: 602–10.
 22. Klein MR, van Baalen CA, Holwerda AM, et al. Kinetics of Gag-specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte responses during the clinical course of HIV-1 infection: a longitudinal analysis of rapid progressors and long-term asymptomatics. *J Exp Med* **1995**; 181:1365–72.
 23. Rosenberg ES, Billingsley JM, Caliendo AM, et al. Vigorous HIV-1-specific CD4⁺ T cell responses associated with control of viremia. *Science* **1997**; 278:1447–50.
 24. Schmitz JE, Kuroda MJ, Santra S, et al. Control of viremia in simian immunodeficiency virus infection by CD8⁺ lymphocytes. *Science* **1999**; 283:857–60.
 25. Jin X, Bauer DE, Tuttleton SE, et al. Dramatic rise in plasma viremia after CD8⁺ T cell depletion in simian immunodeficiency virus-infected macaques. *J Exp Med* **1999**; 189:991–8.
 26. Matano T, Shibata R, Siemon C, Connors M, Lane HC, Martin MA. Administration of an anti-CD8 monoclonal antibody interferes with the clearance of chimeric simian/human immunodeficiency virus during primary infections of rhesus macaques. *J Virol* **1998**; 72:164–9.
 27. Altfeld M, Kalife ET, Qi Y, et al. HLA alleles associated with delayed progression to AIDS contribute strongly to the initial CD8⁺ T-cell response against HIV-1. *PLoS Med* **2006**; 3:e403.
 28. Barouch DH, Kunstman J, Glowczwskie J, et al. Viral escape from dominant simian immunodeficiency virus epitope-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes in DNA-vaccinated rhesus monkeys. *J Virol* **2003**; 77:7367–75.
 29. Ogg GS, Kostense S, Klein MR, et al. Longitudinal phenotypic analysis of human immunodeficiency virus type 1-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes: correlation with disease progression. *J Virol* **1999**; 73: 9153–60.
 30. Pontesilli O, Klein MR, Kerkhof-Garde SR, et al. Longitudinal analysis of human immunodeficiency virus type 1-specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte responses: a predominant gag-specific response is associated with nonprogressive infection. *J Infect Dis* **1998**; 178:1008–18.
 31. van Baalen CA, Pontesilli O, Huisman RC, et al. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 rev- and tat-specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte frequencies inversely correlate with rapid progression to AIDS. *J Gen Virol* **1997**; 78:1913–8.
 32. Barouch DH, Santra S, Kuroda MJ, et al. Reduction of simian-human immunodeficiency virus 89.6P viremia in rhesus monkeys by recombinant modified vaccinia virus Ankara vaccination. *J Virol* **2001**; 75: 5151–8.
 33. Belshe RB, Stevens C, Gorse GJ, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of a canarypox-vectored human immunodeficiency virus type 1 vaccine with or without gp120: a phase 2 study in higher- and lower-risk volunteers. *J Infect Dis* **2001**; 183:1343–52.
 34. Evans TG, Keefer MC, Weinhold KJ, et al. A canarypox vaccine expressing multiple human immunodeficiency virus type 1 genes given alone or with rgp120 elicits broad and durable CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocyte responses in seronegative volunteers. *J Infect Dis* **1999**; 180: 290–8.
 35. Fang ZY, Kuli-Zade I, Spearman P. Efficient human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-1 Gag-Env pseudovirion formation elicited from mammalian cells by a canarypox HIV vaccine candidate. *J Infect Dis* **1999**; 180:1122–32.
 36. Fleury B, Janvier G, Pialoux G, et al. Memory cytotoxic T lymphocyte responses in human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)-negative volunteers immunized with a recombinant canarypox expressing gp 160 of HIV-1 and boosted with a recombinant gp160. *J Infect Dis* **1996**; 174:734–8.
 37. Goepfert PA, Horton H, McElrath MJ, et al. High-dose recombinant canarypox vaccine expressing HIV-1 protein in seronegative human subjects. *J Infect Dis* **2005**; 192:1249–59.
 38. Gupta K, Hudgens M, Corey L, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of a high-titered canarypox vaccine in combination with rgp120 in a diverse population of HIV-1-uninfected adults: AIDS Vaccine Evaluation Group Protocol 022A. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2002**; 29: 254–61.
 39. Hel Z, Tsai WP, Thornton A, et al. Potentiation of simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV)-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses by a DNA-SIV and NYVAC-SIV prime/boost regimen. *J Immunol* **2001**; 167:7180–91.
 40. Hel Z, Nacsa J, Tryniszewska E, et al. Containment of simian immunodeficiency virus infection in vaccinated macaques: correlation with the magnitude of virus-specific pre- and postchallenge CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses. *J Immunol* **2002**; 169:4778–87.
 41. Shen L, Chen ZW, Miller MD, et al. Recombinant virus vaccine-induced SIV-specific CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocytes. *Science* **1991**; 252: 440–3.
 42. Amara RR, Villinger F, Altman JD, et al. Control of a mucosal challenge and prevention of AIDS by a multiprotein DNA/MVA vaccine. *Vaccine* **2002**; 20:1949–55.
 43. Hanke T, Samuel RV, Blanchard TJ, et al. Effective induction of simian immunodeficiency virus-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes in macaques

- by using a multiepitope gene and DNA prime-modified vaccinia virus Ankara boost vaccination regimen. *J Virol* **1999**;73:7524–32.
44. Nixon DF, Townsend AR, Elvin JG, Rizza CR, Gallwey J, McMichael AJ. HIV-1 gag-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes defined with recombinant vaccinia virus and synthetic peptides. *Nature* **1988**;336:484–7.
 45. Catanzaro AT, Koup RA, Roederer M, et al. Phase I safety and immunogenicity evaluation of a multiclade HIV-1 candidate vaccine delivered by a replication-defective recombinant adenovirus vector. *J Infect Dis* **2006**;194:1638–49.
 46. Harvey BG, Maroni J, O'Donoghue KA, et al. Safety of local delivery of low- and intermediate-dose adenovirus gene transfer vectors to individuals with a spectrum of morbid conditions. *Hum Gene Ther* **2002**;13:15–63.
 47. Santra S, Seaman MS, Xu L, et al. Replication-defective adenovirus serotype 5 vectors elicit durable cellular and humoral immune responses in nonhuman primates. *J Virol* **2005**;79:6516–22.
 48. Casimiro DR, Chen L, Fu TM, et al. Comparative immunogenicity in rhesus monkeys of DNA plasmid, recombinant vaccinia virus, and replication-defective adenovirus vectors expressing a human immunodeficiency virus type 1 gag gene. *J Virol* **2003**;77:6305–13.
 49. Shiver JW, Fu TM, Chen L, et al. Replication-incompetent adenoviral vaccine vector elicits effective anti-immunodeficiency-virus immunity. *Nature* **2002**;415:331–5.
 50. Casimiro DR, Wang F, Schleif WA, et al. Attenuation of simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239 infection by prophylactic immunization with DNA and recombinant adenoviral vaccine vectors expressing Gag. *J Virol* **2005**;79:15547–55.
 51. Liang X, Fu TM, Xie H, Emini EA, Shiver JW. Development of HIV-1 Nef vaccine components: immunogenicity study of Nef mutants lacking myristoylation and dileucine motif in mice. *Vaccine* **2002**;20:3413–21.
 52. Sprangers MC, Lakhai W, Koudstaal W, et al. Quantifying adenovirus-neutralizing antibodies by luciferase transgene detection: addressing pre-existing immunity to vaccine and gene therapy vectors. *J Clin Microbiol* **2003**;41:5046–52.
 53. Youil R, Toner TJ, Su Q, et al. Comparative analysis of the effects of packaging signal, transgene orientation, promoters, polyadenylation signals, and E3 region on growth properties of first-generation adenoviruses. *Hum Gene Ther* **2003**;14:1017–34.
 54. Chapman BS, Thayer RM, Vincent KA, Haigwood NL. Effect of intron A from human cytomegalovirus (Towne) immediate-early gene on heterologous expression in mammalian cells. *Nucleic Acids Res* **1991**;19:3979–86.
 55. Goodwin EC, Rottman FM. The 3'-flanking sequence of the bovine growth hormone gene contains novel elements required for efficient and accurate polyadenylation. *J Biol Chem* **1992**;267:16330–4.
 56. Myers G, Korber B, Hahn BH, et al, eds. *Human retroviruses and AIDS 1995: a compilation and analysis of nucleic acid and amino acid sequences*. Los Alamos, NM: Theoretical Biology and Biophysics Group, Los Alamos National Laboratory, **1995**.
 57. Lathe R. Synthetic oligonucleotide probes deduced from amino acid sequence data: theoretical and practical considerations. *J Mol Biol* **1985**;183:1–12.
 58. Davies JF, Hostomska Z, Hostomsky Z, Jordan SR, Matthews DA. Crystal structure of the ribonuclease H domain of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase. *Science* **1991**;252:88–95.
 59. Larder BA, Purifoy DJ, Powell KL, Darby G. Site-specific mutagenesis of AIDS virus reverse transcriptase. *Nature* **1987**;327:716–7.
 60. Larder BA, Kemp SD, Purifoy DJ. Infectious potential of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase mutants with altered inhibitor sensitivity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **1989**;86:4803–7.
 61. Leavitt AD, Shiue L, Varmus HE. Site-directed mutagenesis of HIV-1 integrase demonstrates differential effects on integrase functions in vitro. *J Biol Chem* **1993**;268:2113–9.
 62. Mizrahi V, Usdin MT, Harington A, Dudding LR. Site-directed mutagenesis of the conserved Asp-443 and Asp-498 carboxy-terminal residues of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase. *Nucleic Acids Res* **1990**;18:5359–63.
 63. Schatz O, Cromme FV, Gruninger-Leitch F, Le Grice SF. Point mutations in conserved amino acid residues within the C-terminal domain of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase specifically repress RNase H function. *FEBS Lett* **1989**;257:311–4.
 64. Wiskerchen M, Muesing MA. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 integrase: effects of mutations on viral ability to integrate, direct viral gene expression from unintegrated viral DNA templates, and sustain viral propagation in primary cells. *J Virol* **1995**;69:376–86.
 65. Wang F, Patel DK, Antonello JM, et al. Development of an adenovirus-shedding assay for the detection of adenoviral vector-based vaccine and gene therapy products in clinical specimens. *Hum Gene Ther* **2003**;14:25–36.
 66. Kierstead L, Dubey S, Meryer B, et al. Enhanced rates and magnitude of immune responses detected against an HIV vaccine: effect of using an optimized process for isolating PBMC. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* **2007**;23:86–92.
 67. Dubey S, Clair J, Fu Tong-Ming, et al. Detection of HIV vaccine-induced cell-mediated immunity in HIV seronegative clinical trial participants using an optimized and validated ELISPOT assay. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2007**;45:20–7.
 68. Fu TM, Dubey SA, Mehrotra DV, et al. Evaluation of cellular immune responses in subjects chronically infected with HIV type 1. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* **2007**;23:67–76.
 69. Trigona WL, Clair JH, Persaud N, et al. Intracellular staining for HIV-specific IFN- γ production: statistical analyses establish reproducibility and criteria for distinguishing positive responses. *J Interferon Cytokine Res* **2003**;23:369–77.
 70. Aste-Amezaga M, Bett AJ, Wang F, et al. Quantitative adenovirus neutralization assays based on the secreted alkaline phosphatase reporter gene: application in epidemiologic studies and in the design of adenovector vaccines. *Hum Gene Ther* **2004**;15:293–304.
 71. Mehrotra DV, Heyse JF. Use of the false discovery rate for evaluating clinical safety data. *Stat Methods Med Res* **2004**;13:227–38.
 72. Mogg R, Fan F, Li X, et al. Statistical cross-validation of Merck's IFN- γ ELISpot assay positivity criterion. In: *Proceedings of the AIDS Vaccine Conference (New York)*. **2003**.
 73. Tukey JW, Ciminera JL, Heyse JF. Testing the statistical certainty of a response to increasing doses of a drug. *Biometrics* **1985**;41:295–301.
 74. Nabel G, Makgoba W, Esparza J. HIV-1 diversity and vaccine development. *Science* **2002**;296:2335 [letter].
 75. Montefiori DC, Metch B, McElrath MJ, Self S, Weinhold KJ, Corey L. Demographic factors that influence the neutralizing antibody response in recipients of recombinant HIV-1 gp120 vaccines. *J Infect Dis* **2004**;190:1962–9.
 76. Coplan PM, Gupta SB, Dubey SA, et al. Cross-reactivity of anti-HIV-1 T-cell immune responses among the major HIV-1 clades in HIV-1-positive individuals from 4 continents. *J Infect Dis* **2005**;191:1427–34.
 77. Gupta SB, Mast CT, Wolfe ND, et al. Cross-clade reactivity of HIV-1-specific T-cell responses in HIV-1-infected individuals from Botswana and Cameroon. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2006**;42:135–9.
 78. National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease/National Institutes of Health/Department of Health and Human Services. An update regarding the HVTN 502 and HVTN 503 HIV vaccine trials, **2007**. Available at: http://www3.niaid.nih.gov/news/newsreleases/2007/step_state_ment.htm and http://www3.niaid.nih.gov/news/newsreleases/2007/step_update.htm. Accessed 23 October 2007.
 79. Sadoff JC, Wittes J. Correlates, surrogates, and vaccines. *J Infect Dis* **2007**;196:1279–81.
 80. Wilson NA, Reed J, Napoe GS, et al. Vaccine-induced cellular immune responses reduce plasma viral concentrations after repeated low-dose challenge with pathogenic simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239. *J Virol* **2006**;80:5875–85.
 81. Strapans SI, Barry AP, Silvestri G, et al. Enhanced SIV replication and accelerated progression to AIDS in macaques primed to mount

- a CD4 T cell response to the SIV envelope protein. PNAS **2004**; 101: 13026–31.
82. Feinberg MB, Moore JP. AIDS vaccine models: challenging challenge viruses. Nature Med **2002**; 8:207–10.
83. Steinbrook R. One step forward, two steps back—will there ever be an AIDS vaccine? N Engl J Med **2007**; 357:2653–5.
84. National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease/National Institutes of Health/Department of Health and Human Services. An update regarding the HVTN 502 and HVTN 503 HIV vaccine trials, **2007**. Available at: <http://www.hvtn.org/science/1107.html>. Accessed 14 November 2007.