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15	Feature Article (essay)
16	A bioethical case against using human challenge trials for COVID-19
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22 23 24 25 26	Alannah Paparo is a final-year medical student graduating from the University of Western Australia in 2021. She has degrees in physiology and law, and her research interests are in bioethics and medical education. Alannah was born and raised in Western Australia, and looks forward to completing her internship in 2022 at Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital in Perth.
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33 34	<b>Summary of Article:</b> For now, human challenge trials are inferior to phase III trials in COVID-19 vaccine development.
35	Keywords: bioethics, COVID-19, clinical trials, medical ethics, public health
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37	Abstract
38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45	COVID-19 is a global health emergency for which vaccines are a key solution. A human challenge trial (HCT) is a way of studying vaccine efficacy where healthy volunteers are deliberately infected, in contrast to traditional phase III trials. Nearly 40 000 people worldwide have expressed willingness to participate in COVID-19 HCTs in hopes of accelerating vaccine development. This essay argues that HCTs may not only fail to deliver on this aim, but violate the bioethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and justice. For now, in the case of COVID-19, HCTs are inferior to tried-and-true phase III trials, which have already generated several vaccines at unprecedented speed.
46	Learning Points
47	1. COVID-19 is a global health emergency for which vaccines are a key solution.
48	2. The risks of human challenge trials for COVID-19 outweigh their benefits in terms of

the bioethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and justice.

3. Since traditional phase III trials have generated COVID-19 vaccines at unprecedented speed, there is currently negligible role for human challenge trials for COVID-19.

### Introduction

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- 53 A human challenge trial (HCT) is a method of studying vaccine efficacy where healthy volunteers receive a vaccine or placebo before being deliberately exposed to an infectious 54 agent [1]. Participants are quarantined in a clinical trials unit while researchers monitor their 55 immune response and symptoms. In contrast, traditional phase III trials involve several 56 57 thousand participants receiving a vaccine and being observed long-term to determine its efficacy [2]. HCTs began in the 1960s at the United Kingdom Common Cold Unit to 58 investigate and cure low-virulence coronaviruses, and have contributed most of today's 59 knowledge about these coronaviruses [3,4]. During the COVID-19 pandemic, nearly 40 000 60 people from 166 countries have volunteered to participate in HCTs through the organisation 61 1Day Sooner to help fast-track vaccine development [5]. In fact, a HCT called UK COVID 62 Challenge led by hVIVO is now underway in the United Kingdom [6]. In theory, HCTs can 63 accelerate vaccine development to save millions of lives. However, SARS-CoV-2 is a highly 64 virulent coronavirus, unlike those studied previously, with the potential to cause severe 65 disease and death with no current rescue therapy. Furthermore, phase III trials with 66 wellestablished, less ethically contentious designs have already produced vaccines at 67 68 unprecedented speed. This essay argues that HCTs for COVID-19 are not only redundant, but would challenge the bioethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and 69 justice central to medical practice and research [7]. Therefore, despite ongoing public interest, 70 HCTs are currently not scientifically or ethically justified for COVID-19 vaccine 71 development. 72
- 73 Medical ethics deals with moral dilemmas arising due to conflicts between clinicians' duties 74 towards their patients and their outcomes. Two main frameworks underlying medical ethics are utilitarianism and deontology. Utilitarianism is a branch of consequentialism which 75 argues that an act is morally "good" if it leads to good consequences for the greatest number 76 of people, or that "the end justifies the means" [9]. Conversely, deontology argues that people 77 are not means but ends in themselves [10], so clinicians have a duty to respect patients' 78 intrinsic rights. These duties and rights were elaborated by Beauchamp and Childress in 1979 79 as bioethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and justice [7]. 80 Beneficence is a duty to promote wellbeing, non-maleficence is a duty to avoid causing harm, 81 autonomy is a person's right to determine their own course, and justice refers to "fair, 82 equitable, and appropriate treatment" according to patients' needs [7]. This essay will discuss 83 84 how HCTs may breach these principles, and why the extensive planning required to make them ethically acceptable makes them less desirable than established phase III trials. 85 86

# Discussion

A study respects participants' autonomy, their right to determine their own course, if they can 87 give valid consent, where they are informed of the study's purpose, procedures, and potential 88 benefits versus harms, given sufficient opportunity to ask questions, and have their 89 understanding tested and documented [11]. However, it is challenging to fully inform 90 participants when there are many unknowns surrounding COVID-19 and its long-term 91 effects, particularly as new strains emerge [1]. Severe population risks posed by a pandemic 92 may limit participants' ability to give uncoerced consent, and emergency circumstances risk 93 deprioritising ethics as researchers rush or abbreviate consent procedures [12-14]. Offering 94 monetary compensation, even in line with unskilled labour with comparable risk, becomes 95 potentially exploitative if people participate out of a need for the money. This is especially 96 true if HCTs are conducted in countries with higher background transmission rates which 97

tend to be poorer. Whilst advocates argue deliberate infection is more ethically acceptable in countries with already high natural transmission [1], participants from these countries are more likely to accept lower sums than in wealthier countries [15]. Whilst HCTs have the potential to generate important knowledge, this cannot take priority over the autonomy of participants and communities.

The main way HCTs achieve their proposed benefit of advancing vaccine development faster 103 104 than phase III trials is in settings of low transmission, where natural infection rates are too low for larger trials to progress [11]. However, with the widespread transmission of 105 COVID19, phase III trials have successfully generated several vaccines at record speed, 106 which has rendered HCTs redundant in the COVID-19 vaccine development effort. It is 107 unclear whether organisations such as the United States Food and Drug Administration would 108 even consider HCT data in licensing decisions, with policies mandating late phase clinical 109 trials involving thousands of participants including those who are elderly and have 110 comorbidities [16]. Researchers also need up to two years to agree on an HCT model, 111 develop and manufacture a challenge strain, gain approval for human use, and conduct dose-112 escalation studies to determine the target dose to elicit the minimum level of illness required 113 114 to determine primary outcomes. This process may be too slow for a global health emergency [16]. To be ethically acceptable, low risk challenge strains must be used in healthy young 115 adults to have the lowest possible risk of severe complications [8], but this could produce 116 results less applicable to higher risk groups infected with higher risk strains [1]. There are no 117 guaranteed direct benefits to participants apart from a vaccine possibly being effective. So 118 far, vaccines have mainly been effective in preventing severe symptoms rather than 119 transmission [17], although volunteers may overestimate benefits due to the "preventative 120 misconception" that infection will confer some immunity regardless [18]. HCTs ultimately 121 offer marginal benefits compared to phase III trials but pose substantial risks. 122

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HCTs pose several unique harms compared to traditional trials. In their defence, HCTs incorporate harm-minimising measures such as only infecting 10-50 participants compared to several thousand in phase III trials, and only recruiting healthy young adults more likely to develop self-limiting disease but who would be monitored, isolated, treated, and compensated [18]. Despite this, participants would still incur several risks without direct benefit such as invasive procedures, frequent bodily fluid sampling, and extended quarantine. Furthermore, participants may still develop severe disease (particularly with emerging strains [18]) or longterm consequences such as stroke [19], respiratory deficits [1], and "long COVID" [20]. There have not yet been any human deaths in HCTs, thanks to the availability of rescue therapies, so COVID-related deaths in HCTs without reliable rescue therapies could erode public trust in vaccine research. Although HCTs have previously been conducted on influenza, which lacks rescue therapy, COVID-19 is 10 times as lethal [21]. Supporters have argued that healthy young adults should be able to consent to HCTs as they can for kidney donation, since COVID-19 infection carries the same mortality of 0.01% [13,22,23]. However, a well-understood procedure which has been performed for decades with a high success rate is not readily comparable to deliberate infection with a poorly understood virus. HCTs are also unique in putting third parties at risk of unintentional transmission from participants, which could trigger man-made outbreaks [1]. Even if HCTs were conducted, larger trials would still be needed because adverse effects, such as cerebral venous sinus thrombosis and immune thrombocytopaenic purpura linked to the Vaxzevria (AstraZeneca, University of Oxford, UK) vaccine, may only emerge once thousands have been vaccinated [18]. HCTs offer limited social and scientific benefits despite substantial risks compared with

alternative trial designs, and their benefits are further diminished by the time and resources

required to mitigate their risks.

Vaccination helps achieve justice by protecting whole populations from disease and reversing 147 negative social and economic impacts. HCTs indeed have the potential to rapidly evaluate 148 several hundred vaccines and weed out less promising candidates before investing in larger 149 trials. However, HCTs are logistically difficult, time-consuming, and expensive to conduct 150 151 ethically and justly. Years of planning is required to develop a challenge strain, address ethical concerns, then rigorously justify the need for HCTs in protocols, trial registers, and 152 articles [16]. Extensive dialogue needs to occur between all stakeholders (for example, 153 scientists, ethicists, prospective participants, community representatives, other countries) 154 regarding design, standards for data collection and dissemination, community acceptance, 155 and how results will affect future research, practice, vaccine licensure, and manufacturing [1]. 156 Shortcutting these procedures risks eroding public trust and fuelling hesitancy if vaccine 157 development is considered too hasty [18]. Once approved, HCTs themselves would require 158 enormous resources including suitable sites, trained staff, personal protective equipment, 159 emergency medical services, regular staff testing, and purpose-built facilities to contain the 160 virus in an enclosed environment with single negative pressure, filtered, externally vented 161 rooms with separate wastewater systems. Countries with high background transmission 162 where HCTs would be conducted tend to have strained health systems, so HCTs may divert 163 scarce resources away from their pandemic response [24]. Furthermore, these communities 164 may face higher transmission risk due to systemic injustices (for example, increased 165 incarceration, overcrowding, limited access to medical care) [24], which HCTs could be seen 166 as exploiting. Whilst HCTs are well-intentioned, the practical reality of conducting them may 167 undermine the pursuit of justice in the COVID-19 pandemic. 168

# Conclusion

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170 COVID-19 is a global health emergency for which vaccines are a key part of the solution.

171 Governments and communities have placed high urgency and expectations on vaccine

development, perhaps with the erroneous belief that "anything is better than nothing", which

173 risks deprioritising human safety and wellbeing in research [24]. HCTs are a way of

evaluating vaccine safety and efficacy by deliberately infecting a small number of

participants with a low-virulence challenge strain of SARS-CoV-2. Despite ongoing public

interest in HCTs, they have a limited role to play in the COVID-19 pandemic considering

traditional phase III trials have already generated several effective vaccines. Furthermore,

when examined against the four principles underlying contemporary medical ethics –

autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and justice – the ethical risks of HCTs would

arguably outweigh their benefits for the COVID-19 pandemic. HCTs would not be impossible

to conduct ethically, but the time it would take, considering that we already have several

vaccines, means they have been left in the dust.

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