

OVER VIEW ON HEPATITIS B AND HEPATITIS B VACCINE

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Abstract

World Health Organization (WHO) estimates 257 million people were having chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection. Greatest HBV prevalence was found in the WHO Western Pacific Region. The Hepatitis B virus vaccine is the magnificent protection against chronic HBV infection and its complications. Globally, routine infant immunization against HBV has increased with an estimated coverage of 84% in 2017. The efficacy of therapeutic vaccine seems to improve by combination therapies.

Keywords: Hepatitis B virus infection, Vaccination, Therapeutic vaccine, Chronic hepatitis B

Introduction

Hepatitis B virus infection (HBV) is a dangerous infection that is among the top ten health problems in the world [1,2]. Since many people are unaware that they have HBV infection, it is considered one of the silent killers [3]. HBV infection is distributed by direct contact with an infected person's blood or other body fluids. Unsafe sex, as well as having a tattoo, piercing, or manicure/pedicure in areas with poor hygienic conditions for utensils like clippers and scissors, could put people in danger. HBV infection can lead to severe health issues including liver cancer, cirrhosis, and liver disease, which can lead to death [4].

About two billion individuals have been infected with HBV, whether they are chronic carriers or have had a prior infection. Fulminating hepatitis is a complication of acute hepatitis B. Chronic HBV causes 700,000 deaths per year because it can lead to hepatocellular carcinoma, liver cirrhosis, and liver disease even in the absence of cirrhosis [5, 6]. The primary marker for detecting the presence of infection is hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg). It also aids in the screening and analysis of the virus's occurrence in a particular region or within a specific group of people [7].

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), about 257 million individuals had chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection in 2015 (described as hepatitis B surface antigen [HBsAg] positive) [8].

The WHO Western Pacific Region (6.2 percent) and the WHO African Region (6.2 percent) have the highest incidence of HBV-infected people. In the WHO Eastern Mediterranean Region, HBV incidence was reported to be 3.3 percent, 2.0 percent in the WHO South-East Asia Region, and 1.6 percent in the WHO European Region. The WHO Region of the Americas [1] had the lowest prevalence of HBV-infected people (0.7 percent) [8].

In 2017, the European Union and Member States of the European Economic Area recorded 26,907 cases of HBV infection, with 9% being acute, 58% chronic, 32% 'unknown,' and 1% unable to be identified [4].

The prevalence of HBV infection in prisoners was found to range from 1.4 percent to

23.5 percent in many trials. Specifically, West and Central African prisoners had the greatest incidence of HBsAg (23.5 percent). Chronic HBV infection has also been recognized at elevated levels in Eastern and Southern Africa (5.7%), as well as Eastern European and Central Asia (10.4 percent). While North America had the lowest incidence (1.4 percent) [9].

HBV was classified as an intermediately endemic in Egypt in 2010, with prevalence ranging from 3 to 11%, mostly in males [10].

Hepatitis B virus can be passed on across generations. Hepatitis B infection in pregnant women may pass on to their unborn child during pregnancy or childbirth [11]. This is linked to a lack of understanding of hepatitis B and the absence of HBV screening in antenatal treatment units [12].

The anti-hepatitis B virus vaccination

Hepatitis B vaccine is the best defense against chronic HBV infection and its complications, and it is included in many countries' annual childhood vaccines. The HBV vaccine has been available since 1982 and became widely available after 2000, but today's adults could not have received the vaccine as children. The vaccine is highly effective, with three doses providing protection for at least 20 years. In developed countries, the vaccine has considerably reduced the incidence of HBV and its socioeconomic effects [8].

The World Health Organization advises that all babies get the HBV vaccine as soon as possible after birth, usually within 24 hours. The global coverage (third dose) of routine child HBV immunization has improved, with an average coverage of 84 percent in 2017. The widespread use of HBV vaccine can be due to the low incidence of chronic HBV infection in children under the age of five, which was reported to be 1.3 percent in 2015 [8].

Routine childhood vaccine is available in 20 (74%) of Europe's 27 countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Latvia, Luxembourg, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Poland). Vaccination is expected not only in infancy but also in older children and teenagers in 12 (60%) of these countries, including Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, France, Germany, Italy, Malta, Latvia, Romania, Poland, and Luxembourg. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom are the only countries that have not yet implemented mandatory hepatitis B vaccination. They have a low endemicity and consider hepatitis B to be a minor public health problem, so increased spending is not justified [13].

In Italy, vaccination began in 1991 for all newborns that are required to be vaccinated. Adolescents were still vaccinated during the 12th year before 2003 (12 years since the legislation went into effect) (the population born after 1979 got anti-HBV vaccine at the age of 12 years beginning in 1991) [4]. In Egypt, the chance of mother-to-child transmission can be as high as 51% [14]. The risk of maternal-fetal transmission increases when there is active hepatitis, positive HBeAg, or high viral replication [15]. Giving a newborn an injection of hepatitis B immunoglobulin (HBVIG) and the first dose of vaccination on the first day of life, on the other hand, reduces the risk of HBV infection by 10% [16]. HBV may also cause maternal mortality, particularly in developing countries [17]. In Egypt, regular HBV vaccination for children aged 2, 4, and 6 months began in 1992 [18]. These reasons support the use of HBsAg-based HBV screening in antenatal care programs [19].

Vaccination for people at higher risk for contracting hepatitis B virus infection

If they had evidence of completion of the vaccine sequence or serological tests of immunity against infection, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention stressed the value of blood screening for HBV and eventual anti-HBV vaccination in the prison community for those persons who underwent medical assessment in prison [20]. Despite the fact that vaccination against HBV has been recommended in prisons since the vaccine became available in 1982, only a few countries routinely vaccinate inmates [21].

In October 1991, an Italian ministerial decree proposed HBV vaccine for people at risk, including inmates. Vaccination is required at months 0, 1, and 2 at the moment. There is an extended calendar for HBV immunization for people who are homeless (0, 7, and 21 days) with a booster at 12 months, which results in better adherence and seroconversion rates than standard services. Inmates' failure to comply with the screening scheme is one of the key reasons that they are not vaccinated. Noncompliance is likely due to a combination of personal and institutional factors, including a lack of information and understanding (perceived risk) about viral hepatitis and transmission pathways, a lack of motivation and/or awareness of the protocol, and a fear of stigma from prison personnel and colleagues [22].

Van Herck et al. [23] noticed that an accelerated (0, 1, 2, and 12 months) or superaccelerated (0, 7, 21 days, and after 12 months) plan would result in a faster response and a 10 IU/L rise in anti-hepatitis B surface (HBs) antibodies. For groups at high risk of infection, the most accelerated software is needed for rapid seroconversion and immediate defense in the short term. Since no long-term safety proof for these more accelerated programs has been published, a fourth dose per month is still needed.

Stasi et al. [24] evaluated 1,075 subjects screened for HBV serum markers, 67.9% were susceptible to infection and needed to be vaccinated, of these 82% agreed to be vaccinated. Five hundred and fifty-five inmates (95.1%) got the first vaccinated dose, and 404 (83%) undertook the third dose at day twenty-one.

Almasio et al. [22] proposed HBV vaccination for refugees in the following groups: those from particularly endemic countries, opioid addicts, non-immunized inmates, partners of infected individuals, and patients with chronic liver disease unrelated to

HBV. All of these classes, in particular, should be given accelerated vaccination to ensure a high level of compliance and prevent dropouts.

In comparison to standard vaccine schedules, Wright et al. [25] emphasized the value of an extended vaccination cycle (0, 7, 21 days) with a booster at 12 months for homeless subjects, which results in better completion rates and equivalent seroconversion rates.

The investigators argued that HBV vaccine is a cost-effective measure in many unvaccinated high-risk individuals, and that it is a suitable complement to national immunization systems. HBV vaccine was only used in national immunization services in the Netherlands in 2011. Pregnant women should be screened for HBV infection at their first prenatal meeting, according to the US Preventive Services Task Force [26].

A recent study by Catherine and Piroth [27] strongly recommended HBV vaccination in people living with HIV, based on currently available evidence about HBV vaccination in people living with HIV, according to their key characteristics and vaccine and therapeutic context, in accordance with international recommendations on HBV vaccination in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected populations. A seroconversion of anti-HBs antibodies >10 IU/mL indicates a positive response to vaccination. In HIV-infected populations, double-dose rescue vaccine for at least three doses tends to cause improved HBV immunization, as does annual anti-HBs antibody titer monitoring [28, 29].

Beyond the current therapy for chronic hepatitis B virus infection

Treatment is indicated in all adults, teenagers, and children with chronic HBV infection and compensated or decompensated cirrhosis, regardless of hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) status, or HBV DNA levels, according to WHO recommendations for HBV prevention, care, and treatment. Adults with chronic HBV infection that do not have clinical symptoms of cirrhosis but are over the age of 30 who have persistently elevated ALT levels and excessive levels of HBV replication (HBV DNA $>20,000$ IU/mL), regardless of HBeAg status, are advised to seek treatment. These recommendations are based on a public policy perspective, and they took viability and efficacy into account [30].

Current antiviral agents, such as tenofovir and entecavir, have a low chance of resistance, have a viral suppression rate of over 99 percent, and have a high tolerability rate. Several lines of evidence indicate that long-term complete inhibition of HBV replication by nucleosides/nucleotides (NUC) leads to better long-term outcomes, including a lower chance of developing liver cirrhosis, hepatocellular insufficiency, and hepatocellular carcinoma [31, 32], as well as histologically confirmed reversal of liver fibrosis. The drawbacks include the treatment's indefinite duration, low rate of HBeAg failure, and seroconversion to anti-HBs [33].

HBV medications that cause long-term repression of HBV-DNA, HBeAg negativity, and cccDNA eradication are also being tested. Interferon causes immunomodulation and cccDNA transcription repression, but antiviral drugs that target various stages of the HBV life cycle are now being developed. Drugs that target cccDNA are being investigated, including inhibitors of cccDNA production, transcription inhibitors, and drugs that disturb or degrade cccDNA [34]. Other drugs currently in development include inhibitors of virus translocation in the cytoplasm or nucleocapsid assembly to DNA, as well as inhibitors of HBeAg release [35].

Finally, modern immunomodulators are in a later stage of development. HBV-specific immunomodulators, anti-programmed cell death protein 1, and therapeutic vaccines that improve the immune response are among them [36].

Vaccine therapy for chronic hepatitis B virus infection

HBV persistence is caused by a complex relationship between the virus and the host, which results in suboptimal immune responses such as cell-mediated immunity and dendritic cell dysfunction, as well as cytokine synthesis imbalance [37].

In chronic HBV-infected patients, therapeutic vaccination will trigger anti-HBV immune responses that remove and/or cure infected hepatocytes without causing host cell damage, preventing viral distribution to new hepatocytes and confirming long-term viral control [38]. Different vaccination doses and frequencies, as well as prime-boost, are used to stimulate T-cell responses with therapeutic vaccination, as are DNA or peptide vaccines, vector or cell-based vaccines, and finally a mixture of heat, X, and polymerase antigens in addition to HBeAg [38, 39].

Thirty-two chronic HBeAg carriers of chronic hepatitis and observable HBV DNA were given three normal doses of the GenHevacB vaccine at one-month intervals in one of the first clinical studies on HBV vaccine therapy. Twelve patients (37.5%) had undetectable HBV DNA six months after the first injection, while three others had substantial decreases in HBV DNA titers.

And after a typical course of interferon, eight of the 15 responders also had undetectable HBV replication. Thirteen of the 17 non-responder to the vaccine were given interferon, but only three of them were able to stop HBV replication. Finally, 53% of HBV patients had HBV DNA that was undetectable [40]. Lai et al. [41] recently vaccinated 20 chronic HBV compromised antigen-negative patients with HBsAg 1,000 IU/mL in a study. Seven vaccine doses were given every eight weeks, and HBsAg and anti-HBs levels were tracked for 48 weeks after vaccination. The vaccine resulted in a substantial reduction in HBsAg in these patients.

Bian et al. [42] looked at whether preS1-polypeptide vaccine could be used to treat chronic HBV patients. They discovered that L-preS1 HBsAg's domain has a high immunogenicity for both B-cell and T-cell responses. Furthermore, anti-preS1 induced by preS1-polypeptide cleared HBV DNA in carrier mice and prevented HBV infection/reinfection of hepatocytes, implying that subsequent HBsAg vaccination could induce anti-HBs seroconversion in HBV carrier mice.

Zouli et al. [43] studied the stability, immunogenicity, and efficacy of TG1050 in chronic HBV-infected patients in a phase I clinical trial. TG1050 is an adenovirus-5-based vaccine that contains HBV polymerase as well as central and surface antigen domains. There were two steps of this study: a single dose cohort and a multiple dose cohort. In both cohorts, TG1050 was well tolerated, and it was correlated with an HBV-specific cellular immune response.

Boni et al. [44] evaluated the effectiveness and protection of GS-4774 in viremic HBV-contaminated patients in a phase II clinical trial. Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate was given to both of these patients, either with or without GS-4774. GS-4774 is a preventive vaccine made from yeast. GS-4774 mediated interferon-producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in a murine model and cells from chronic HBV-infected patients [45].

Boni et al. [44] discovered that vaccination would boost the immune response by increasing the development of interferon-, tumor necrosis factor, and interleukin 2 by CD8 T cells exposed to antigenic peptides, with little effect on CD4 T cells, and that GS-4774 could be used in conjunction with other antiviral treatments to boost the immune response. Al Mahtab et al. [46] compared the effectiveness of a preventive vaccine (NASVAC) containing both HBsAg and hepatitis B core antigen to pegylated interferon in a total of 160 chronic HBV-infected patients in a phase III clinical trial. At 24 weeks of follow-up, the viral load in the NASVAC community was slightly lower than in the pegylated interferon group. HBeAg clearance was also higher in the NASVAC group relative to the pegylated-IFN group, but there was a small development into cirrhosis in the NASVAC group compared to the pegylated-IFN group.

In a pilot trial, Brillanti et al. [47] randomly allocated five patients with HBeAg-negative chronic HBV infection to undergo HBV vaccine therapy: three doses of 40 mcg yeast-derived recombinant hepatitis B vaccine (HBVAXPro) given one month apart, while five patients received nucleos(t)ide analog therapy only. The presence of HBsAg and HBV DNA was determined six months later. The vaccine therapy increased HBsAg loss and anti-HBs seroconversion in the HBVAXPro community.

Conclusion

The best defense against chronic HBV infection and its complications is the HBV vaccine. Routine HBV immunization of infants has improved globally, with an average coverage of 84 percent in 2017, but more work is required in many countries to implement this coverage and guarantee national policies for individuals at high risk of HBV infection. Several lines of evidence suggest that therapeutic vaccines have shown promise in murine and human trials, but further multicenter research clinical tests are needed to confirm these findings. Combination treatments seem to boost the potency of therapeutic vaccines that increase T-cell tolerance.

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