

AWARENESS AND KNOWLEDGE GAPS IN VIRAL HEPATITIS B AND C: A PUBLIC HEALTH PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Treatment of acute hepatitis B within the first 24 months is generally unnecessary, as approximately 90% of infections in adults resolve spontaneously, with or without treatment. In the early stages, medical intervention plays only a limited role, though in rare cases, antibiotics may be beneficial for severe inflammation. Chronic hepatitis B treatment strategies include interferon therapy and nucleoside/nucleotide analogues. Interferon therapy, typically administered over 24–48 weeks, is associated with adverse effects such as fatigue, depression, alopecia, and hematological abnormalities, with optimal outcomes observed in patients exhibiting elevated transaminases, absence of cirrhosis, and hepatitis B e-antigen positivity. Although many remain asymptomatic, long-term infection carries significant clinical and financial burdens. Estimated early healthcare costs for children with CHC in the United States to exceed \$200 million. Complementary and herbal approaches have also been explored. Similarly, silymarin (a flavonoid extract from milk thistle) has shown promise in difficult-to-treat hepatitis cases. Although most participants demonstrated awareness of hepatitis B and C, misconceptions remained regarding transmission modes. Finally, phytochemical evaluations confirmed that phenolic compounds contribute significantly to the hepatoprotective activity of many traditional medicinal plants.

Keywords: Hepatitis, Medicinal Plants, Pakistan, Epidemiology

INTRODUCTION

The hepatic system is involved in nearly all biochemical pathways essential for human development, immune response, complement activation, and energy metabolism. Both infectious and non-infectious pathological processes can compromise hepatic function (Mohon et al., 2014). Hepatic pathology represents a substantial burden on international health systems, with hepatitis B and C viral infections comprising predominant and preventable causes of liver-related morbidity (Mishra et al., 2014).

Ethnobotany encompasses the systematic study of relationships between human populations and plant species (Ijaz et al., 2017). Throughout human civilization, medicinal plants have been utilized for their therapeutic properties. Currently, approximately 80% of the global population relies predominantly on plant-based remedies and botanical extracts for primary healthcare needs. Numerous medicinal plants and their derived compounds have demonstrated hepatoprotective properties (Thilagavathi et al., 2023). Consequently, there exists a substantial risk that traditional medicinal knowledge may be irretrievably lost, necessitating urgent conservation efforts to preserve this valuable therapeutic heritage.

Hepatitis-B virus (HBV)

The risk of HBeAg seroconversion in adolescents is higher for genotype C compared to other genotypes (Livingston et al., 2007). During the mid-1990s, the United States experienced a reduction in acute hepatitis B virus infections (Goldstein et al., 2002; Chan et al., 2004).

Diagnosis and Tests

Anti-HBc IgM represents the initial immune response marker, persisting throughout the acute phase. During the serological window period characterized by anti-HBc IgM positivity, HBsAg becomes undetectable while antibodies to hepatitis B surface antigen (anti-HBs) emerge,

indicating viral clearance and immunity development.

An increase in HBV-specific IgG antibodies in individuals exposed to significant HBV infection is encouraging. The emergence of antibodies to hepatitis B e antigen (anti-HBe) signifies seroconversion, accompanied by subsequent reduction in circulating HBV DNA concentrations. Progressive temporal changes result in diminished HBeAg detectability as the infection transitions toward immune control. Measuring HBsAg in those who have tested positive for HBV for more than six months revealed that there is an HBV carrier or an improvement in the condition of having HBV.

Young people infected via maternal-embryonic transmission may remain at this stage for several years and are less responsive to antiviral drugs, which have shown varying efficacy in different studies. The immune-active phase of chronic hepatitis B is characterized by elevated serum aminotransferases (ALT > 1.6 times the upper limit of normal on multiple occasions) and persistent viral replication (HBV DNA > 20,000 IU/mL or 10^5 copies/mL), with positive HBsAg and HBeAg serological markers. This phase represents the optimal period for HBeAg seroconversion in pediatric patients and demonstrates enhanced responsiveness to antiviral therapeutic interventions.

The non-replicative or inert HBeAg stage is described in the literature as sedentary CHB stages. The inactive carrier state is characterized by positive HBsAg with negative HBeAg serological markers. Approximately 20% of adolescents in this non-replicative phase experience reversion to the immune-active state, while 20-30% develops HBeAg-negative chronic hepatitis B with renewed viral activity (Hsu et al., 2002).

Hepatitis B Prevention and Treatment

Comprehensive hepatitis B management in children integrates prevention protocols, therapeutic interventions, and vaccination

programs designed to minimize viral transmission and halt disease progression. The prevention of vertical transmission is primarily based on a combined approach of passive-active immunization, which involves administering hepatitis B immunoglobulin (HBIG) along with the hepatitis B vaccine. This combined strategy achieves prevention rates of 86-96%, compared to 66-96% for vaccination alone (Wong et al., 1984). Contemporary treatment paradigms for pediatric chronic hepatitis B emphasize viral replication control, hepatic inflammation amelioration, and prevention of cirrhotic progression and hepatocellular carcinoma development, with established FDA-approved regimens including thrice-weekly interferon alpha and daily lamivudine therapy administered over 16-24 weeks in patients aged 2-18 years (Sokal et al., 2008), although lamivudine resistance develops in approximately 20% of treated patients per year (Hu et al., 2025). Expanded therapeutic options now include tenofovir disoproxil fumarate approval for adolescents 12 years and older (Murray et al., 2012) and entecavir authorization based on phase 3 efficacy data in treatment-naïve pediatric cohorts aged 2-18 years, while nucleoside analogue therapy carries regulatory warnings for mitochondrial dysfunction, with documented adverse effects encompassing lamivudine-associated myopathy and peripheral neuropathy, adefovir and tenofovir-related nephrotoxicity, and potential pancreatitis risk (Khungar et al., 2010). Established immunization protocols mandate combined HBIG and hepatitis B vaccination within 12 hours of delivery for neonates born to HBsAg-positive mothers (ACIP, 1991), generating protective anti-HBs antibody concentrations above 10 mIU/mL in approximately 95% of vaccinated children. Although vaccine-elicited immunity wanes over time, necessitating booster doses for primary non-responders (Hennig et al., 2008). Current guidelines from the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases support antiviral

intervention during pregnancy for high-viremia patients to minimize perinatal transmission risk. Emerging vaccine technologies incorporating PGLYRP2 protein platforms demonstrate potential for improved immunogenicity and protection (Zeng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2025).

Special Considerations

As the disease progresses, the technique for obtaining the trait or the potential of the Hepatitis B (Hep-B) virus based on the usual course of chronic Hep-B in teenagers remains unpredictable. Routine hepatitis B virus genotype determination is not standard clinical practice; however, genotyping may provide therapeutic guidance for HBeAg-positive pediatric patients under consideration for interferon-based treatment. Enhanced interferon responsiveness has been documented in patients infected with genotypes A and B compared to genotype C infections. Hepatitis B virus genotype may influence hepatocellular carcinoma risk in younger populations relative to adult cohorts. Key risk factors for hepatocellular carcinoma development in pediatric patients include disease severity, histological inflammation grade, and active viral replication status as measured by HBV DNA concentrations.

Hepatocellular carcinoma can still occur after viral replication has stopped or before the HBeAg seroconversion time (Wen et al., 2004). Screening for HCC in youths is challenging. Research on hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in adults with hepatitis B virus indicates that monitoring liver health through regular ultrasounds and measuring serum alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) levels can be beneficial, with more frequent checks recommended for those with elevated AFP, cirrhosis, or a family history of HCC (EASL-EORTC, 2012).

The economic impact of chronic hepatitis B (CHB) in adolescents is considerable, driven by environmental factors such as pollution and the associated risks of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Mitigating this burden

requires antiviral treatments that target the virus's replication cycle, rather than focusing solely on managing the symptoms of viral activity. Acute hepatitis increased by 19% from 1990 worldwide, with a huge increase of 25% in sub-Saharan men aged between 55 and 59 years old (Ouyang et al., 2024). Efforts have also focused on finding average, effective, and successful elective solutions for antiviral therapy.

In recent decades, both clinical and preclinical studies have suggested that certain Chinese herbal medicines may offer therapeutic benefits in two or three treatment approaches for chronic hepatitis B (CHB). However, concerns arise regarding the evaluation of basic clinical principles and the unique and contradictory fixing components of Chinese medicines in daily practice (Zhang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012).

HCV Epidemiology and Expected Antiquity

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection represents a major global health burden, affecting an estimated 170 million individuals worldwide. In the United States alone, approximately seven million adults and around 100,000 children are thought to be infected (Jonas, 2003). Data from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey estimated a seroprevalence of 0.2–0.4% among children, corresponding to about 132,000 HCV antibody-positive cases (Alter et al., 1994). Of these, 23,000 to 42,000 children were chronically infected, with an additional 7,200 new pediatric cases occurring annually (Jhaveri et al., 2006). In the United States, the most common circulating hepatitis B virus strains are genotypes 1a and 1b, followed by genotypes 2 and 3, while genotypes 4 through 6 are reported less frequently (Luban et al., 2007). Before 1992, most pediatric infections were linked to contaminated blood transfusions or blood-derived products, with an estimated risk of 0.001–0.01% per unit transfused (Luban et al., 2007). In the post-screening era, vertical transmission has become the leading route of new pediatric infections (Jhaveri et al., 2006;

Granot et al., 2015). United States data demonstrate that 57.3% of perinatally infected infants clear HCV by age three, rising to 65.9% by age five, highlighting the critical importance of early screening and follow-up protocols (Voeller et al., 2025). According to Mock et al. (2005), only about one-third of infants born to HCV-infected mothers acquire the virus in utero. Additionally, HCV has been identified in breast milk (Lin et al., 1995) and colostrum (Kumar & Shahul, 1998). HCV transmission rates were elevated in young infants who were exposed to breast milk containing HCV RNA (Ruiz-Extremera et al., 2000). Majority evaluations have not shown a relationship between transmission and the treatment method (Granovsky et al., 1998; Resti et al., 1998). Unlike the hepatitis B virus, children infected with HCV exhibit a higher likelihood of spontaneous viral clearance. Approximately 25–40% of infants who acquired HCV through vertical transmission show undetectable HCV RNA levels by the age of 2–3 years (Resti et al., 2003a), while 6–12% of children near 7 years had an undetectable HCV RNA level (Resti et al., 2003b; Yeung et al., 2008). A more plausible undetectable viral load occurred with genotype 3 HCV disease. (Bortolotti et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009) reported that among 42 adolescents with persistent HCV infection and baseline RNA levels below 4.5×10^4 IU/mL, a high proportion achieved undetectable viral loads.. However, adolescents who contracted HCV through parenteral transmission surprisingly had a viral load that remained detectable. In up to 30 years of longitudinal follow-up, viral load reached 11% (Casiraghi et al., 2004) and 30–45% in a study of infants' contaminated with a positive blood product for HCV RNA (Vogt et al., 1999) or infected blood products in clinical practice separately (Locasciulli et al., 1997). Adolescents presenting with elevated serum aminotransferase levels at disease onset were more likely to experience significant biochemical improvement

(Resti et al., 2003b), and the appearance of viraemia differed compared to those with normal serum aminotransferases (Farmand et al., 2012). Clinical presentation of pediatric HCV infection varies significantly, with approximately 80% of infected children remaining asymptomatic due to consistently elevated viral activity (Gan et al., 2025), while 10-20% present with overt signs and symptoms of hepatic dysfunction, and progression to an elevated aspartate aminotransferase to alanine aminotransferase ratio (AST>ALT) may indicate cirrhotic transformation in chronic hepatitis C patients (Schwarz et al., 2011). While cirrhosis occurs in only 1-2% of children with HCV infection, progression to end-stage liver disease generally takes 20-40 years. Rare cases of hepatocellular carcinoma have been reported in adolescents, including a 14-year-old African American patient with genotype 1a infection who developed terminal liver disease. In this case, alpha-fetoprotein levels rose from 7.9 to 76.6 ng/mL over four months, ultimately necessitating hepatectomy for solitary hepatic lesions (Alter et al., 2000; Gonzalez-Peralta et al., 2009). Patients who achieve a sustained virological response have a markedly lower risk of hepatocellular carcinoma compared to those who do not clear the virus, highlighting the critical role of antiviral therapy in suitable candidates (Nishiguchi et al., 1995, 2001).

Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic approaches for hepatitis C virus infection follow established guidelines from the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (2009) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2013), with screening recommended for adolescents and young adults with clinical histories of hepatitis, unexplained serum aminotransferase elevation, HIV coinfection, intravenous drug use, sexual assault, multiple sexual partners, or maternal HCV infection, as well as children adopted internationally or refugees from regions with

high HCV prevalence, such as Africa, Eastern Europe, Russia, China, and Southeast Asia (Ghany et al., 2009; CDC, 2013; American Academy of Pediatrics, 2015). After obtaining positive or indeterminate HCV antibody results, HCV RNA testing is recommended to confirm chronic infection, since the presence of RNA indicates ongoing viral replication (Ghany et al., 2009). In infants born to HCV-positive mothers, maternal antibodies can remain for up to 18 months, making HCV antibody testing at 18 months necessary to differentiate between passively acquired antibodies and actual infection (American Academy of Pediatrics, 1998). A reactive HCV antibody test without detectable RNA may reflect either spontaneous viral clearance or a resolved infection. False-negative antibody results can occur in immunocompromised individuals, such as those with advanced HIV, hemodialysis patients, or transplant recipients. Therefore, concurrent HCV RNA testing is necessary for accurate diagnosis, as viral RNA can be detected within 10-14 days after infection.

Prevention and Treatment

Adolescents and young adults need to be vaccinated against hepatitis A and hepatitis B, but effective vaccination rates remain low. The incidence of chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) disease in more settled children and adolescents revolves around the organization of high-risk practices. Risk factors include sexual activity with multiple partners, intravenous drug use, and intranasal cocaine use involving shared equipment. While tattooing and body piercing are not inherently linked to HCV transmission, the use of shared or non-sterile needles for these practices should be avoided (Murray et al., 2003). The primary goal of HCV therapy is to achieve a sustained virologic response (SVR), defined as the absence of detectable HCV RNA in peripheral blood 24 weeks after completing treatment. Although loss of SVR may occur in rare cases, studies demonstrate that more than

99% of patients who reach SVR maintain undetectable serum HCV RNA (Nelson et al., 2009).

The treatment of pediatric HCV infection has largely followed the same clinical guidelines established for adults. Early clinical studies in adolescents have examined the efficacy and safety of these agents. In limited, uncontrolled trials of stepwise triple interferon therapy, SVR rates in young patients ranged from 30–60%, notably higher than the 8–35% observed in adults (Jacobson et al., 2002).

In a study evaluating delayed-response interferon following either the initial dose or one week after pegylated interferon alpha-2a (PEG-IFN α -2a), children aged 2–8 years with HCV achieved an overall SVR rate of 43%, including 46% among those with genotype 1 (Schwarz et al., 2006). In 2025, pegylated interferon became the initial treatment procedure (Zhou et al., 2025). An open-label trial assessing PEG-IFN α -2b in combination with oral ribavirin (RV) in children and adolescents aged 2–17 years with HCV genotype 1 reported an SVR rate of 48%. Approval for pediatric use in the United States was granted on the basis of this single uncontrolled study (Wirth et al., 2005).

The standard FDA-approved treatment for chronic hepatitis C in children involves pegylated interferon alpha-2a or alpha-2b combined with ribavirin, administered for 24 weeks in patients with genotypes 2 and 3 and for 48 weeks in those with genotypes 1 and 4 (Mack et al., 2012). The PEDS-C trial, a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study, showed that adding ribavirin to pegylated interferon alpha-2a significantly improved sustained virological response compared to monotherapy, independent of age, aminotransferase levels, or histological severity, with the greatest benefit in children with chronic hepatitis C and HCV RNA <600,000 IU/mL (Schwarz et al., 2011). A systematic review and meta-analysis of eight trials including 438 children (aged 3–18 years) treated

with pegylated interferon alpha-2a or alpha-2b plus ribavirin found genotype-specific outcomes: SVR rates were 89% for genotypes 2 and 3, compared to about 52% for genotypes 1 and 4 (Druyts et al., 2013). Combination therapy yields sustained virological response rates approaching 100% in children with HCV genotypes 2 and 3, whereas those with genotypes 1 and 4 exhibit response rates of 45–55%. Common side effects include general symptoms like flu-like illness, muscle pain, low white blood cell counts, anemia, and low platelet counts. More severe complications can arise, such as thyroid issues, hair loss, and neuropsychiatric effects, which may include changes in mood, irritability, anxiety, depression, and thoughts of suicide (Schwarz et al., 2011; Granot et al., 2015). Rare neurological complications, including spastic diplegia, have been reported in association with interferon alpha therapy in pediatric patients (Wörle et al., 1999; Jonas et al., 2012). The medications were also evaluated in pediatric trials, although for a limited time (Brown, 2009). Nevertheless, both were later withdrawn due to severe adverse effects, including telaprevir-associated rash and Stevens-Johnson syndrome and boceprevir-related dyspepsia. Current therapeutic strategies prioritize DAAs, which, owing to their high efficacy, form the cornerstone of the WHO's target to eliminate hepatitis C by 2030 (di Marco et al., 2025).

Treatment decisions for pediatric chronic hepatitis C must consider contraindications and patient-specific factors, as children who previously failed interferon-based therapy without achieving sustained virological response may still respond to pegylated interferon combined with ribavirin retreatment regimens. The broad range of adverse effects linked to pegylated interferon alpha-2a and ribavirin therapy can negatively impact treatment efficacy and tolerability, particularly in patients with advanced liver disease. Additionally, end-stage liver or kidney

disease is typically considered an absolute contraindication for interferon-based treatments (Masci et al., 2003). The creation of new therapeutic agents that offer better safety profiles and increased efficacy marks a significant progress in the management of hepatitis C. Risk-benefit analysis suggests that children with HCV genotypes 2 and 3, youth patients with genotype 1 infection, and those with normal serum aminotransferases—who typically demonstrate milder hepatic pathology, higher spontaneous clearance rates, and reduced risk of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma progression—may benefit from deferring treatment until more effective antiviral therapies with fewer adverse effects become available. Promising results from phase II and III clinical trials with direct-acting antivirals beyond first-generation protease inhibitors, telaprevir and boceprevir in adult populations demonstrate significantly shorter treatment durations and higher sustained virological response rates. Modern combination therapies that incorporate NS3/4A protease inhibitors, such as simeprevir, alongside NS5B RNA polymerase inhibitors like sofosbuvir, have demonstrated improved response rates and shorter treatment durations. These therapies can be used with or without interferon alpha and ribavirin in patients with both treatment-experienced genotype 1 HCV- and naïve infections (Everson et al., 2014; Fried et al., 2013). These regimens demonstrate markedly improved tolerability profiles, with adverse effects limited primarily to mild constitutional symptoms including fatigue, depression, and nausea (Lawitz et al., 2014). Fixed-dose combination therapy with sofosbuvir and the NS5A inhibitor ledipasvir achieves sustained virological response rates of 95-100% in genotype 1 infections following 12 weeks of treatment, either as monotherapy or combined with 8-12 weeks of ribavirin in treatment-experienced adults or those with compensated cirrhosis (Gentile et al., 2014). As of September 2016, ten direct-acting antivirals

(DAAs) have been granted regulatory approval and are organized into six therapeutic classes, targeting different HCV genotype-specific treatment algorithms. These therapeutic advancements are expected to establish new treatment paradigms for pediatric patients in the near future. Until DAAs receive pediatric approval, children with HCV infection should be managed using FDA-approved adult formulations only in cases of high-risk progressive liver disease. Concurrently, ongoing pharmacokinetic and safety studies are essential to establish appropriate pediatric dosing regimens. Emerging CRISPR-based technologies utilizing genomic analysis and historical clinical data offer potential for enhanced disease staging assessment and personalized treatment approaches (Adlat et al., 2025)

Special Deliberations and Arguments

Children with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) exhibit different transmission modes, viral load dynamics, and liver fibrosis progression compared to adults (Murray et al., 2005). It is generally believed that young individuals with vertical transmission of HCV face a risk of developing cirrhosis and HCC in adulthood. The advancements in hepatitis C treatment are ongoing, and direct-acting antivirals (DAAs) have emerged as highly effective cures, even for HCV-infected adults with compensated cirrhosis. The liver's histological condition prior to treatment does not significantly affect the treatment response. A DAA-based combination, consisting of sofosbuvir [400 mg] and ledipasvir [90 mg] in a single tablet, received approval for adult use in the United States in 2014, and clinical trials are currently underway to evaluate its tolerability and efficacy in children (Afdhal et al., 2014).

CONCLUSION

We compiled representative clinical data from the field of liver diseases to facilitate a comprehensive assessment. To establish a reliable dataset, pharmacodynamic information on the studied plant species was collected, with a focus

on materials relevant to hepatoprotection. Preliminary phytochemical analysis revealed that phenolic compounds were at least partly responsible for the bioactivity of several extracts, particularly in their potential to inhibit malignant cell growth. However, these findings highlight the need for further validation through rigorous in vitro and in vivo studies to confirm both the efficacy and safety of the hepatoprotective effects.

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