Journal of Pediatric Sciences

Peginterferon Treatment in Children:

A Review of Chronic Hepatitis B And Chronic Hepatitis C Treatment

Makbule EREN

Journal of Pediatric Sciences; 2009; 1; e4

REVIEW ARTICLE

Peginterferon Treatment in Children: A Review of Chronic Hepatitis B and Chronic Hepatitis C Treatment

Makbule EREN

Abstract: Despite of extensive blood product screening and national immunization programs, chronic hepatitis B and C infections continues to be a global problem with high mortality, morbidity and economic impact. Even though acquisition of these infections mostly occurs in childhood, major problems appear in adulthood. Cirrhosis and HCC are two major expected late events related to chronic hepatitis B and C infections. Rarely, children may also face these complications. To avoid these complications and increase the life expectancy in adults treatment of these two type infections should be started in childhood with appropriate patient selection. In contrast to children, adults are luckier in terms of treatment alternatives. They have the chance to use more potent antivirals with higher genetic barrier and pegylated form of interferons. Recently, the use of pegylated interferon and ribavirin combinations has been approved in children in Chronic HCV infection. However, chronic hepatitis B treatment in children is still dependent on the use of one type antiviral drug and conventional interferon. Treatment in early ages with an antiviral agent that has limited genetic barrier may block the chance of treatment or reduce the response rate in adulthood in chronic hepatitis B infection. In this article we aimed to review the efficacy and safety of conventional and pegylated interferons, for the treatment of Hepatitis C and B infections in children.

Key words: Peginterferon, Chronic Hepatitis, Children Received: 01/09/2009; Accepted: 06/11/2009

Introduction

Interferons (INF) are naturally produced proteins. Most of the nucleated cells are capable of both secreting and responding to INF which makes the interferon system a powerful defense system against pathogens and an essential component of innate immunity [1]. Alfa, beta and gamma INF's are the three types of identified interferons. Each class has different activities with some overlaps. Alfa interferon's (2a and 2b) are the interferons that are used in hepatitis B and C treatment. They have antiviral and immunomodulatory effects. They also blocks denovo virus production and potentiate the infected cell death [2]. The exact antiviral mechanisms of INF's are not well known; however, some hypothesizes are proposed: Main action of INF is carried out through interferon stimulated gene (ISG) products [3]. There are hundredths of ISG's. A subtype of ISG is virus stress induced gene (VSIG). Same genes can be stimulated by various viral proteins and double stranded RNA [4]. Interferon binds to a common receptor side on the target cell and stimulates the transcription of VSIG through triggering the formation of interferon stimulated gene factor 3 (ISGF3), which in turn stimulates the secretion of different effector proteins like matrix proteins, protein kinase and RNA

specific adenosine deaminase [5-8]. Several types of these proteins inhibit not only distinct steps of viral virion replication but also assembly [9]. Immunomodulatory effect of INF's has been studied with different viral infections. They modulate the cytokine response of T helper 1 cells. Interferon increases the INF gamma production, reflecting T helper 1 activity [10]. Sustained serum INF gamma ends up with higher sustained viral response in HCV patients, explaining the activity of INF in HCV infected patients. Pegylated INF- α 2a and α 2b (pegINF- $\alpha 2a$ and pegINF- $\alpha 2b)$ are two available pegylated forms that differ from conventional interferons by having a molecule of polyethyleneglycole attached to

Corresponding Author: Makbule EREN, MDEskisehir Osmangazi University, Medical Faculty, Department of Pediatrics, Section of Gastroenterology and Hepatoogy, Medical School of Eskisehir Osmangazi Univerity 26480, Eskisehir, Turkey E-mail: <u>makbule99@yahoo.com</u> Tel: 90 2222392979-2734, 2700, 2703 Fax: 90 2222393774 JPS 2

them. Pegylation improves the pharmacokinetics of conventional INF core protein: It enables prolong absorption, limited distribution, longer half life and sustained serum concentration which makes once a week dose regimen possible. The absorption half life of conventional INF is 2.3 hours (both for $\alpha 2a$ and $\alpha 2b$) whereas it is 50 hours for pegINF. Desired steady state serum concentration is reached at 12 weeks of therapy [5].

Conventional INF is metabolized in kidneys during reabsorption at proximal tubules. Further break down may occur at the level of cellular receptors [5,11,12]. In contrast, pegINF is metabolized primarily by the liver. However, metabolic byproducts are eliminated in the urine; therefore, in end stage renal disease dose adjustment is necessary for both type of INF's [5]. Furthermore, pegylation prolongs the half life and the effectiveness of INF. Half life of conventional INF is 4-16 hours. This rapid elimination from the serum needs recurrent injection (three times a week s.c) to establish appropriate serum levels. By contrast, the half life of pegINF's ranges between 61-110 hours. Consequently, prolonged absorption, delayed elimination time and higher maximum serum levels enable a more steady state serum concentration requiring only once a week injection compared to three times injection/week of conventional INF and provides higher treatment responses. This also explains the superiority of pegINF over conventional INF in the treatment of viral hepatitis [5, 12]. Both types of peginterferons are licensed and have been used either as monotherapy or combined with antivirals like lamuvudine or ribavirine in the treatment of hepatitis B or C in adults. But pharmacokinetics in children is not thoroughly studied. Schwarz et al. [13] measured the serum concentration of pegINF-α2a in 14 children at 24, 92, 168 hours at week one, and then 4, 8, 12, 24, 40, 48 weeks of treatment. Pegylated interferon dose in this study was adjusted according to body surface area. They observed that steady state was reached at week 12, simulating adult results.

Interferons show their antiviral effects through two mechanisms: First they inhibit directly viral DNA replication and activate antiviral enzymes [14]. Second they exaggerate immune response against viruses by increasing major histocompatibility antigens type 1, thereby stimulating the activity of T helper and Natural killer cells [14, 15]. In the field of pediatric gastroenterology major clinical indications of INF's are chronic viral hepatitis due to HCV and HBV infections.

Chronic Hepatitis C infection:

Most of the knowledge of INF's came from the treatment of HCV infected patients. HCV is an RNA virus from flaviviridea family and around 170 million people are infected with HCV around the world. Estimated seroprevelance of HCV in the United States is 0.2 % in children younger than 12 years of age, and 0.4% between 12-19 years of age [16]. Moreover, 20-30 % of infected adults suffer from progressive disease, one of the leading indications of liver transplantation. Although screening program has decreased the risk, blood and blood products transfusion are still the main source of infection in adults. In children main acquisition route is mother to infant transmission [17]; 50% of perinatally infected children undergo spontaneous seroclearence, 19%-40.1% being in the first 2 year and 14.9 % after 15 years [16,18]. Although, 20-50% of chronic HCV infected adults progress to liver failure or hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) clinically significant liver disease is rare in children. Children have less inflammation, fibrosis and steatosis compared to adults, presumably due to shorter duration of infection [17]. Yet 5-10% of the vertically infected children develop fibrosis or cirrhosis or even HCC [19-23]. Inflammation is correlated with ALT level, fibrosis and duration of infection rather than the acquisition age. By contrast, fibrosis is correlated neither with age nor duration [17].

Treatment of this global problem is mainly based on INF's and ribavirin which is a guanosin analog with antiviral effect. Studies on adult population have shown that pegINF with or without ribavirin are more effective than conventional INF with or without ribavirin combination [24-26]. Food and drug administration (FDA) approved pegINF- α 2a for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C infection in adults in October 2002. Before and after this approval both peginterferon monotherapy or peginterferon– ribavirin combination have been studied extensively. Treatment end points include sustained biochemical response, histological response, biochemical and virological response at the end of the treatment (48 week). These responses can be described as follow [27]:

- Sustained viral response (SVR): Defined as undetectable serum HCV RNA (below 50 IU/ml) at 24 week after treatment cessation [28, 29],
- 2. End of treatment response (ETR):
- Clearance of HCV RNA at the end of treatment, 3. *Biochemical response (BR):*
- Normalization of ALT or decrease ALT levels below the upper limit,
- 4. *Histological response (HR):*2 points decrease of inflammation score compared to pre-treatment scores.

Since the histological response accompanies with virologic response, the ultimate goal of treatment is to achieve SVR.

Considerable better biochemical responses (38-45%), ETR (60-69%), SVR (30-39%) and histological responses (88%) have been observed with pegINF- $\alpha 2a$ in adults compared to conventional INF- α 2a where biochemical responses are reported to be 9-25%, ETR 12-28 %, SVR 3-39%. Adverse effects are also shown to be similar to INF- α 2a group [30]. However, the compliance is better in pegINF group. Studies showed that peginterferon increased the odds of sustained response also in genotype 1 patients: Sustained was virologic response (SVR) 13-31% with peginterferon alfa- 2a compared to 0-15% in conventional INF in genotype 1 [24,25,30]. Even patients without response or with relapse may experience histological improvement at a rate of 36%. In adults 180 µg /kg dosing regimens is associated with best outcome.

In an attempt to increase the response both conventional INF and pegINF were combined with ribavirin (INF: 3-6 MIU /three times a week s.c., pegINF-a 2a 180 µg, pegINF- a 2b 1,5 µg /kg/once a week s.c, Ribavirin: 800-1200mg/day p.o divided in two dose). Addition of ribavirin to INF enabled a ETR rate of 52% and SVR rate of 44%. Whereas combining pegINF with ribavirin increased SVR to 51-71% (depending on genotype, viral load and drug dose). Overall SVR was 51% in genotype 1 patients with a dose of 180 μ g /week pegINF- α 2a and 1000-1200 mg/day ribavirin. By contrast, in non genotype 1 HCV SVR was achieved in 77% of patient. Furthermore, analysis of the effect of viral load demonstrated that SVR was 46% in high viral load, 61% in low viral load in genotype1 patients, SVR was as high as 49-52% in compensated cirrhotic patients [10,25,31-35]. Therefore, currently recommended therapy for Chronic HCV infection in adults consists of pegINF and ribavirin combination [27, 29].

In the adults treatment durations, cost effectivity, factors affecting the outcome and the difference among two types of pegylated form have been recently studied and some statements have been achieved: Genotype 1, high viral HCV load, high ALT caution (pretreatment ALT average divide by upper normal limit (UNL) are poor prognostic factors for both INF and pegINF treatment. 180µg/kg PEG IFN alfa 2a and 1-1,5µg/kg once a week dosing regimens are reported to be associated with best outcome [30, 29,36]. According to results of IDEAL clinical trail which has been recently published, 1µg regimen was as effective as 1,5 µg. This issue is may be important in terms of adverse events [36]. But appropriate dosing regimen has to be studied in details in children.

Treatment duration for genotype 1 and non genotype 1 (mainly 2 and 3) are handled separately: 48 weeks treatment duration seems mandatory for genotype 1 patients providing some situations: those genotype 1 patients who attain an early virologic response (EVR; at least 2 log decrease in HCV RNA compared to pretreatment levels) should be treated for 48 weeks. Failure to decrease HCV RNA at least 2 log at 12 weeks of treatment is strongly associated with non response [26, 27, 37]. Therapy should be discontinued earlier for these patients. On the other hand, EVR doesn't have any clinical utility in genotype 2 or 3 patients. Most of these patients respond to treatment before 12 weeks. And a standard 24 weeks treatment is advised in these patients. In an attempt to further decrease the treatment duration earlier time points such as rapid virologic response (RVR) has also been studied. Rapid virologic response is defined as undetectable HCV RNA with PCR at treatment week 4. In genotype 1 patients who achieve RVR, 24 week treatment seems enough in some studies [38]. But still the statement: Genotype 2 or 3 patients achieving RVR can be treated for 12-16 week is not sufficiently supported yet. Furthermore, although 12-16 week duration seems comparable with standard 24 week schedule in RVR attained patients, it is associated with high relapse rate [29, 39-42].

Cost effectivity of pegINF- ribavirin combination has been studied in adults by extrapolating the long term outcome of treatment with Markov model [29] and it has been found to be cost effective compared to conventional INF and ribavirin combination [43,44]. PegINF-ribavirin therapy showed a 0.9 year increase in life expectancy and cost saving of \$3761 in life time medical cost with a further increase when a genotype analysis is performed and treatment is defined according to this [5].

Two types of pegylated interferons have been compared in a few trials. While increasing the pharmacokinetic properties of the interferon core protein, pegylation leads to a decrease in its biological activity in invitro studies. For example, biologic activity of pegINF- α 2b is just 28% of the original interferon alfa 2b core protein. This is further decreased in pegINF- $\alpha 2a$ (7%). The importance of this invitro difference has been studied invivo: After a dose of 180 µg maximum serum concentration was reached at 48-168 hours with pegINF- α 2a and remained stable by time, whereas 78% of the pegINF- α 2b treated patients $(1 \mu g / kg)$ had undetectable drug concentration at 168 hours [45]. Silva et al. [46] report that there is a 16 fold higher drug serum exposure with pegINF- α 2a compared to pegINF- α 2b. But despite this higher drug exposure with pegINF- $\alpha 2a$, interferon induced gene response and virologic response at week 8 were significantly better with pegINF- α 2b. [46]. The impact of these findings on SVR has been recently studied in a large scale, multicenter randomized control trials.

Authors compared 180 µg pegINF- α 2a with two different dosing regimen of pegINF- α 2b (1 µg /kg or 1, 5 µg /kg): Both types of pegINF were found to be equally effective in terms of SVR. Moreover, patients who received 1 µg/kg pegINF- α 2b achieved comparable SVR with those who received 1, 5 µg /kg, which may be important in terms of adverse events [36].

Due to the hope of spontaneous sereoclereance and presence of milder liver disease, treatment of HCV in children has been an issue of argument. Yet severe fibrosis or cirrhosis and HCC has been reported also in children and since treatment increases the life expectation in adults chronic HCV infection is also treated in children above 2 years of age [11, 43]. But clinical trials do not include hundreds or thousands of patients as in adults. So unfortunately most of the statements are projected from adults to children and are not as strong as adults.

Results of clinical trials and metaanalysises revealed 48-50% biochemical response and 36-47% SVR with INF for 6 months duration in children [47-51]. Jacobson et al. [52] rewieved the literature concerning HCV infected children treated with conventional INF monotherapy between 1990 and 2000. They reached to 12 clinical trial and 7 abstracts, only four having control group and reviewed the results of 366 treated and 105 untreated children. Although some variations were observed in terms of treatment duration (6-1 year) and INF dose (3-1.75 MUI/m), they observed that SVR did not differ among interferon types (INF-α2a, INF-α2b or Lymphoblastoid form), duration of treatment and dosage. When the studies were pooled; ETR was 54% (0-91%) and SVR was 36% (0-73%). Although ETR was better in children, SVR responses were consistent with adults' rates (9-25%, 3-39% respectively) [30]. In this study 71 out of 91 children were infected with genotype 1. Among none- genotype 1 patients 70% showed sustained response, 15% relapsed and 15% did not respond. In contrast 27% of the genotype 1 patient achieved sustained virologic response, 25% had relapsed and 48% did not respond. In another study SVR was attained in 80% of genotype 2 patients and in 30.4% of genotype 1 patients, confirming that viral genotype is a predictor of response and genotype 1 is a poor response factor for INF treatment also in children [47]. On the other hand, Matsuko et al. [53] observed only a 26 % SVR with conventional INF even though the patients were genotype 3 and 4. In several other studies regarding INF- α 2a in which predominant patient genotype was genotype 1 biochemical response rate was 50-65%, ETR was 53-65% and SVR was 20-53% [11,48,54]. In these studies with limited patient (12-20) most of the responders were genotype 1. So genotype one may not be a poor prognostic indication for INF treatment in children in contrast to adults.

Thirthyfour HCV infected child were treated with conventional INF- α for 6 months and evaluated for SVR at least 6 months after treatment cessation [47]. Sixteen patients (47%) had SVR with accompanying histologic response. Fifteen out of these 16 responders (93.8%) achieved RVR and remain in complete response state at the end of fallow up. So loss of viremia at 1 months of treatment seems as a strong predictor for long term response also in children. But this needs further studies including genotype analyses. As in adults INF (3-5MIU/m) was combined with ribavirin (15 mg/kg) and SVR was increased to 49-64 % [32, 55-58].

Observing the superiority of pegINF over conventional INF without any additional adverse effect of pegINF in adults encouraged the pediatricians to use pegINF in the management of HCV. Approval for children came much later at December 12, 2008 for pegINF- α 2b and ribavirin combination. Schwarz et al. [13] studied the efficacy of PegINF monotherapy in children between 2-8 years of age. 180 μ g /1.73 m² pegINF- α 2a (dose adjusted according to body surface area) was given to 14 child with chronic HCV infection for 48 week period. And patients were evaluated for SVR at 72nd week. Forty six percent of the patients were genotype 1 and most of the patient had mild liver disease without marked inflammation and fibrosis. Six out of 14 (43%) patients attained SVR at week 72. This was better than the adult results (30-39%). HCV RNA was undetectable in 57% of patient at week 24 and in 50% at week 48 (ETR). The superiority of 6 months pegINF monotherapy on conventional INF plus ribavirin treatment with same duration was supported in other child studies and at the end of 6 months of fallow up after 6 months treatment SVR was 50-61% among all of the patients and %53 in genotype 1 (18/34) [59, 60]. So considering the side effects of ribavirin authors advised pegINF monotherapy [13].

On the other hand recently pegINF- α 2b plus ribavirin combination was approved by FDA in the treatment of HCV infection in children [61]. In an open label pilot study Jara et al [28] evaluated the efficacy of pegINF- α 2b (1 µg /kg/week s.c once a week) and ribavirin (15 mg/kg/day) combination. Three out of 30 patients had genotype three and the remaining 27 had genotype 1 or 4. Overall 15 patients (50%); all of the three genotype 3 patients and the rest being genotype 1or 4 achieved SVR. Twelve out of 15 patients who were HCV RNA negative at 24 week completed the 48 week treatment and 11 attained SVR. None of the 10 patients who were still HCV RNA positive at 24 week of treatment achieved SVR. 26 patient were genotype one with 20 being naive. And 11 of these naive patients (55%) attained SVR. In this study EVR was a predictor of SVR. All SVR attained patients had EVR at week 12. While the established profile in adults is that; EVR suggest ETR but it does not strongly suggest SVR. Only 65-75% of patient with EVR achieves ultimately SVR in adults.

Chronic Hepatitis B infection:

Approximately 5% of world population is infected with HBV virus. Route of transmission can be vertical (transplasental or perinatal) or horizontal. Perinatal transmission accounts for nearly half of the chronic infections [4]. Transplasental transmission accounts for %2.4-15 percent of infants born to infected mother [62]. Although transplasental transmission can not be interrupted by vaccine, implantation of routine hepatitis B vaccination into national immunization programmes has led to decline in the prevalence of Hepatitis B infection worldwide [63,64]. According to center of disease control and prevention (CDC) incidence rate of acute HBV infection declined from 3/100000 population to 0.34 /100000 and chronic infection rate decreased from 10 to 1% in some eastern countries [65-68]. There is also a chance of spontaneous seroconversion being 2% /year of children less than 3 years of age and 5% /year of children above 3 years of age [69,71]. Yet HBV infection is a global problem and 25% of HBV carriers who are infected in infancy die from HCC or liver cirrhosis [62, 63]. In adults annual incidence of HCC in asymptomatic HBV carriers is 0.1% but it reaches to 3-6% in HBV related cirrhosis. Eight-17 % of HBeAg positive chronic hepatitis B patient and 13%-33% of Hbe Ag negative develop cirrhosis in five years [70]. Although acquisition starts in childhood, infection is mainly asymptomatic in children and complications become apparent in adulthood. But it is also a childhood problem because 95 % of vertically infected neonates, 25-50% of children aged between 1-5 years and 6-10 % of acutely infected children unfortunately progress to chronic hepatitis B [19, 71]. Probability of developing chronic hepatitis is inversely proportional with age at time of acquisition. Hepatocellular carcinoma and cirrhosis develops more frequently in patients who acquire the infection in early childhood than who acquire later in life. Furthermore complications may appear also in childhood [11, 12]. In an Italian study development of cirrhosis was observed in 3.4 % of HBs Ag carrier children during a mean fallow up of 4 years duration [65]. Although it is rare, HCC may also develop even in childhood [72]. In one study 2% of Caucasian children developed HCC at their long term fallow up [73].

Presence of HBsAg in serum for at least 6 months is defined as chronic hepatitis B infection. In its natural

course three phases of chronic hepatitis B has been identified: Immunotolerant phase, immunoclearence (seroconversion) phase and post seroconversion phase (replicative or nonreplicative)

The immunotolarent phase is characterized with positive HBsAg, HBeAg and high HBV DNA and normal aminotransferases. It is the phase where immune system does not react against virus. Most of the perinatally infected children are in this phase and may stay for a long period until adulthood. But some may progress to immunoclearence phase where they have elevated aminotransferases with positive HBsAg, HBeAg, high HBV DNA and negative anti HBs and anti HBe. Prominent liver damage occurs in the seroconversion phase and it may be permanent and severe enough to progress to cirrhosis. Moreover in spite of HBe seroconversion HBV DNA integration may occur and HCC develop insidiously [62, 72]. Some of the patient in immunoclerence phase sequentially normalize aminotransferases, undergo a spontaneous HbeAg clearance, HBeAg seroconversion and anti Hbe formation with decreased HBV DNA and become inactive carriers. Some of the inactive carriers may lose also HBsAg in the future. But a fraction of them regain active replication with hepatic inflammation progression, elevated aminotransferases and high DNA levels though HBeAg is negative and antiHBe is positive. This situation is known as HbeAg negative hepatitis B infection and it is much more strongly associated with HCC [74]. The inactive carrier state is relatively stable and reactivation of HBV after anti HBeAg seroconversion is rare in children [74, 73]. But still progression of fibrosis has been observed. Treatment response is based of biochemical, virologic and histological response. Response to treatment occurs in three steps: First achieving undetectable DNA with PCR, second loss of HBeAg and seroconversion of anti Hbe and last step loss of HBsAg. The later occurs very rarely. There is still a risk of reactivation at the first two phases.

Progression of liver damage and HCC has been associated with persistent viral replication and clinical histological improvement accompanies and suppression of viral replication. Viral replication is measured with serum HBV DNA and HbeAg. Loss of HBeAg, appearance of anti HBe and disappearance of HBV DNA is the main virologic event modifying the course of liver disease. Clearance of HBeAg, achieved either with treatment or not decreases the complications and increases survival [76]. The optimal goal of antiviral treatment is to clear HBsAg permanently. But even in adults the current treatment alternatives are not sufficient to achieve this 1. So current treatment goal is to prolong survival and improve long term outcomes in adults by preventing progression of liver injury through reducing viral replication, in childhood.

American Association for the Study of Liver Disease (AASLD) and European Association for the study of liver (EASL) published treatment guidelines for adults and recommended that patient should be monitored at least for 6 months for HBsAg positivity: Those who are in replicative state of immunoclerence phase (ALT level at least 2 times upper limit of normal, HBV DNA above 20.000 IU/ml should be treated [29,76,77]. However consensus guidelines for the treatment of Hepatitis B infection in children have not been established yet. But reviewers recommends treatment for children over 2 years of age with documented chronic Hepatitis B infection (presence of HbsAg for 3-6 months) evidence of replication (positive HbeAg and HBV DNA above 20.000 or 10⁵) and ALT consistently elevated at least 1,5-2 times of upper normal level [71,78]. Since it is uncommon in children there is no data on treatment of HbeAg negative children [71]. Since patients in immuntolerant phase have low probability of seroconversion and poor response to treatment, even compared to patients in immunoclerence phase with low HBV DNA, there is no need to treat these patients [70].

Currently seven drugs are approved in adults for the treatment of Hepatitis B infection: INF, PegINF, lamuvidine (LAM), telbuvidine, entacavir, tenofovir and adefovir. But treatment alternatives are not as rich as adults in children. Only lamuvudine and conventional INF has been licensed in children.

Lamuvidine is a good antiviral agent but is not as potent as the other antiviral drugs. Moreover, LAM is associated with a high viral resistance compared to some other antiviral agents. Telbuvidine is also a potent antiviral drug but it is associated with high viral resistance (%10 in 1 year), slightly better than LAM. Entacavir and tenofovir are potent antiviral drugs with a higher genetic barrier (lower viral resistance) and are preferred antivirals. But neither entecavir nor tenofovir is approved by FDA for children [70, 79]. Therefore, currently only LAM can be used as antiviral agent in children.

Response to treatment is evaluated differently in INF and nucleoside analog treatments:

Virologic response is defined as decline in HBV DNA levels bellow 2000 IU/ml at 24 weeks of therapy on interferon therapy whereas it was defined as undetectable HBV DNA with real time PCR assay within 48 weeks of antiviral therapy [80].

Serologic response is defined as HBeAg seroconversion and appearance of anti HBe on both types of therapy.

Primary none response; is defined as less than 1 log IU/ml decrease in HBV DNA level from baseline at

3 months of treatment for both type of treatment modalities. Ideal end point of treatment is sustained HBsAg loss with or without seroconversion of anti HBs. The other end points include:

- 1. Durable HbeAg seroconversion in HbeAg positive patients.
- 2. In case of not achieved HbeAg seroconversion, sustained undetectable HBV DNA either under nucleoside analog treatment or after interferon treatment.

Durable complete virologic response rate was observed in 23-65% of children and response with LAM was prominent in preschool children [51,81,82]. Lamuvudin is easier to administer, cheap, has no serious side effect but it has 2 drawbacks: one induction of YMDD mutation, second uncertainty about the duration of treatment. Hartman et al. [83] reported that LAM is effective in decreasing HBV DNA levels in previously none responders to INF. 44% (8 of 18) of their patient remained HBV DNA cleared at 1 year of treatment. But LAM resistance was as high as 65% at the end of one year which was unacceptable. Furthermore, same authors reported the long term results of these groups of patient after 4 year of fallow up under LAM treatment: Additional 4 patients (18%) achieved seroconversion and a gradual decline in the participant's number has been observed duo to low compliance. So in long term, LAM did not improve the seroconversion and needs long period so compliance is weak [84].

Adult studies have shown that LAM treatment over one year not only increase the rate of seroconversion but also LAM resistance: Prolonging the LAM treatment 24 months after 52 weeks of treatment brings an additional 23% HBV DNA clearance. But Longer LAM treatment was associated with a higher YMDD mutations as high as 15-17% at first year, 27-38% at 2nd year, 40-49% at 3th year and 47-65% at 4th year [85-90].

Another disadvantage of LAM is cross resistance with many new agents such as entecavir and telbuvudin. Entacavir response is lower and viral resistance is higher in LAM resistant patients compared to nucleoside naive wild type HBV infected patients. 6% of LAM resistant patients are also resistant to entecavir [91]. So emergence of mutant strains under LAM, which is the only approved antiviral in children, restricts the long term use of LAM and further blocks the chance of treatment with other more potent antiviral drugs in adulthood.

In an attempt to overcome above mentioned problems and increase treatment outcomes, INF's were introduced. A significant benefit of INF therapy has been observed in chronic HBV infected patient especially in those with high ALT levels (> 2 times and lower DNA levels similar to adults). Recommended dose of conventional INF' is 5-10 MIU/m² 3 times a week for 4-6 months. They have been used as monotherapy or combined with LAM, sequentially or simultaneously. In all of these studies early responses seem superior but in long term, results are nearly similar to untreated groups. Durable complete response with INF in children differs between 37-56% [51, 71, 76, 81, 92].

Bortolotti et al. [73] evaluated long term outcomes of a total of 107 children with chronic hepatitis B infection who were treated with INF-a 2a. Hbe Ag clearance was reported to be 32%, 12 months after the end of treatment. All responders were HbeAg negative at the end of 5 years. Moreover 50% of the non responders cleared HBeAg at 69 months after treatment cessation. But during a mean of 69 months fallow up 60% of the INF treated group and 65% of untreated patients had HBeAg clearance and seroconversion. This study demonstrated that INF treatment accelerates the natural course of hepatitis B rather than adding an additional treatment success. However 25% of treated patient cleared also HBsAg which couldn't be observed in any of the untreated patient.

Vo Thi Diem [92] compared the long term results of 37 INF- α 2a treated and untreated patients. During a mean fallow up of 5 years HbeAg and HBsAg clearance rates did not differ between treated and untreated group (54.1% and 8.1% versus 35.1% and 2.7%, respectively) After 7 year follow up, cumulative HBeAg clearance were 53.5% compared with 33.5% in untreated patient being statistically insignificant. In terms of HbeAg seroconversion children with elevated baseline ALT responded better than ALT normal groups in treatment group; whereas it didn't differ in untreated children. Moreover, 7 year cumulative HBsAg clearance was 8.9% in treated group and 4.0% in untreated group.

Iorio et al. [51] evaluated the long term outcome of hepatitis B infection in INF treated (41) and untreated (67) children for a median period of 12 years (5-24 years). Patients received INF-α 2b or lymphoblastoid INF for 6-12 months. Complete response (HBeAg clearance and undetectable HBV DNA) was observed in 80% of the treated patients; whereas it was observed in 69.3% of the untreated group. After 6 years rate of response in treated and untreated patients overlapped (63.4% vs. 62.7 %). So HbeAg clearance did not changed at long term. Although 6 untreated (9.7%) and 4 (9.8%) treated child achieved HBsAg clearance, difference was insignificant.

No considerable difference was observed even between sequentially administered LAM - INF α combination and simultaneously administered INF α – LAM combination (29,6% vs. 42,8%) [93].

Childhood infections, since they are mostly in immunotolerant phase, are the predictors of non response to INF. Other poor responsive factors are Asian ethnicity, male sex, immunosupression duo to disease (HIV) or treatment, coexistence of HDV infection, HbeAg negative chronic hepatitis B, low serum ALT, high level of serum HBV DNA, mild liver necroinflamation [94,95]. Advantages of INF are low probability of resistance and fix treatment duration. Disadvantages are the need to multiple injections, cost and side effects.

Reproduction of the pegINF improved the virological, biochemical and histological outcome in HBV hepatitis in adults. PegIFN's have been studied extensively and were found to be superior to conventional IFN's in terms of ALT normalization, HbeAg clearance and HBV DNA response in adults [96]. Monotherapies with pegINF was superior to LAM plus pegINF combination or LAM monotherapy in terms of HBeAg seroconversion (32%, 27%, and 19% respectively) [95,96]. At short term, at the end of 52 week treatment HbeAg loss was observed in 63% in pegINF and LAM combination in contrast to 28% of LAM monotherapy. In long term (3 years) sustained virologic response (HBeAg clearance) was 29% in combination and 9% in LAM monotherapy [86]. Studies show that pegINF-LAM combination is superior to LAM monotherapy but it does not provide any additional benefit on pegINF monotherapy (35% vs. 36% respectively) [97].

Furthermore comparing conventional INF- α 2a and pegINF- α 2a revealed pegINF superiority over INF in terms of combined outcome of HbeAg seroconversion, ALT normalization and HBV DNA response (24%,12% respectively). But Liver histology improvement is not different between pegINF monotherapy groups and LAM groups [97]. Dose discontinuation was more prevalent in pegINF group compared to LAM group [96]. Quality of life scores decreased during treatment but returned to normal in PEG group compared to LAM group.

PegINF's were extensively studied in adults. In children there is only one preliminary report evaluating the rapid viral response of pegINF treatment in children (98). They reported a favorable outcome at 4 weeks of the treatment ($100\mu g /m^2/week$) in terms of HBV DNA suppression and antiHBe seroconversion. They observed HBV DNA disappearance in 6 out of 13 children without any side effect. But long term effect and end of treatment effects needs to be evaluated and compared to conventional INF [98]. Nevertheless

9

pegINF is not approved in Chronic HBV infection in children.

Safety and Adverse Events:

All adverse events with pegINF are reported to be reversible and similar to conventional IFN based protocols (table 1). Most frequently observed adverse event is flue like syndrome which is characterized by fever, fatigue, myalgia, abdominal pain, nausea,

Table 1: Adverse effects of pegINF treatment [26,28,30,47,82]

Adverse event	%
Flue like syndrome	83
General malaise	79
Headache	42
Leucopenia	17
Alopecia	17
Decreased appetite	76
Constipation	10
Erythema at injection side	33
Weight loss	66.6
Weight loss >5% of baseline	23.3
Irritability	33.3
Dizziness	23.3
Anxiety	6.6
Infection	80
Thrombocytopenia	4-6 (Adult)
Depression	16-30 (Adult)
Antithyroid antibodies	13.3
Hyperthyroidism	6.6

vomiting, and headache [28, 47, 82]. Fever was more prominent in pegINF-2a. Whereas neutropenia was observed more frequently in peg INF-a2b [54]. Side effects of INF unique to pediatric population are weight loss and decrease in linear growth [16, 46, 53]. Weight loss is shown to be observed in %4.8-20 of children at 24 week but it returned to normal at 48 week of the treatment [28]. Although growth was disturbed in 22 of 26 children by 1.6 cm compared to the growth velocity to the 50 percentile of their matched age and sex growth catch up was attained 6 months after treatment [28]. Mild behavioral problems are observed nearly in all children and continued through the treatment protocol. Most of the adverse events are observed to be transient. Dose modifications are required most commonly for anemia due to the use of ribavirin in HCV treatment, neutropenia, weight loss hyperthyroidism [28]. Therapy and may be discontinued prematurely in case of signs of depression and uncontrolled hyperthyroidism [28].

The association of HCV with none organ specific

autoantibody (NOSA) and autoimmune disease are well known. HCV patients have more NOSA than HBV patients. Most found autoantibodies are SMA that fallowed by ANA, LKM. Moreover, 34% of HCV infected patients are found to have NOSA and NOSA positive patients respond to treatment poorly than NOSA negative patients (18% vs. 55%, respectively) [99]. Presence of LKM is associated with ALT flares during INF treatment [100]. Moreover, INF treatment either pegylated or not induces further NOSA production (18%) [100]. One of the prominent adverse effects of pegINF or conventional INF treatment is throid dysfunction. In addition, clinicians should be aware of the fact that HCV infection itself may increase the tendency toward thyroid dysfunction. Nonimmune, subclinic hypothyroidism are seen in untreated HCV infected children more than controls (11.1% vs. 2.7%) [101]. The risk of developing autoimmune thyroid disease and the impact of both conventional and pegINF in chronic HCV infected children have been studied in recent study [100]. In this study, 15.5% of 123 interferon treated children (of these, 21 received INF monotherapy, 40 received INF combined with ribavirin, and 62 treated with pegINF- α 2b) developed thyroid dysfunction. Overall, 14 patient and 7 out of 62 pegINF- α 2b/ ribavirin treated children developed thyroid peroxides antibody during the treatment. Moreover, none of the other two group but 3 out of the pegINF group continued to posses this antibody 12 months after the treatment. Although none of the children demonstrated clinically significant hypo or hyperthyroidism signs, 6 children needed L-Thyroxin and 2 needed this treatment even after 12 months after the cessation of the treatment.

PED-C Trial is an ongoing multicenter study, evaluating the efficacy and safety of pegINF in children with 11 participating center. Recently, participating centers published histopathological features of liver biopsies from 121 children but safety and efficacy results for this study are not published yet [17, 102].

PegINF treatment also seems promising in the treatment of HCV in children. Concerning ETR and SVR either combined with ribavirin or not, response rates are comparable and may be better than adults. Since combination of pegINF with ribavirin increases response rates, currently recommended treatment consists of pegINF and ribavirin combination. However, clinical utility of EVR, RVR and the effect of genotype or viral load are not as accurate as adults and needs to be evaluated in further large scale clinical trials. Other than the deviation from linear growth and weight loss, no additional adverse events have been observed in children. The other adverse events are comparable with adults. FDA approved the use of pegINF- α 2b; however, further studies are needed to evaluate the difference of the two pegylated forms.

Hepatitis B infection is still a global problem. Most of the children are in immunotolerant phase and need no treatment for years. In order to improove quality of life and reduce the cost for the treatment of late complications associated with the infection, the treatment of children with hepatitis B infection in immunoclerence phase is critical. In contrast to adults, treatment of chronic hepatitis B is very effete in children. Lamuvidine, the only antiviral agent that is licensed in children, cannot provide sufficient response due to mutation reasons. Even INF treatment is not different from untreated follow ups in long term. So, clinical trials offering new treatment alternatives are warranted. PegINF's have been proven safe in hepatitis c infected children and it can be one of the options also in chronic hepatitis B as documented in one preliminary report [98].

REFERENCES

1. Levy DE. Whence interferon? Variety in the production of interferon in response to viral infection. J Exp Med. 2002;195:15-8.

2. Neumann AU, Lam NP, Dahari H et al. Hepatitis C virus dynamic in vivo and the antivirfacaefy of interferon- therapy. Science 1999;282:103–7.

3. Sen GC, Sarkar SN. The interferon-stimulated genes: targets of direct signaling by interferons, double-stranded RNA, and viruses.Curr Top Microbiol Immunol. 2007;316:233-50.

4. Sen GC. Viruses and interferons. Annu Rev Microbiol. 2001;55:255-81.

5. Matthews SJ, McCoy C. Peginterferon alfa-2a: a review of approved and investigational uses. Clin Ther. 2004; 26: 991-1025.

6. Bigger CB, Brasky KM, Lanford RE. DNA microarray analysis of chimpanzee liver during acute resolving hepatitis C virus refection. J Virol. 2001; 75: 7059-66.

7. Su AI, Pezacki JP, Wodicka et al. Genomic analysis of the host response to hepatitis C virus infection. Proc Natl Acad 2002;99:15669-74.

8. Terenzi F, Saikia P, Sen GC. Interferon-inducible protein, P56, inhibits HPV DNA replication by binding to the viral protein E1. EMBO J 2008; 27:3311-21.

9. Wang C, Pflugheber J, Sumpter R Jr et al. Alpha Interferon Induces Distinct Translational Control Programs To Suppress Hepatitis C Virus RNA Replication. Journal Of Virology, 2003;77:3898–912.

10. Kamal SM, Fehr J, Roesler B, Peters T, Rasenack JW. Peginterferon alone or with ribavirin enhances HCV-specific CD4 T-helper 1 responses in patients

with chronic hepatitis C. Gastroenterology 2002;123:1070-83.

11. Glue P, Fang JW, Rouzier-Panis R et al. Pegylated interferon-alpha 2b: Pharmacokinetics, pharmaco- dynamics, safety, and preliminary efficacy data. Clin Pharmacol Ther 2000;68:556-67.

12. Modi MW, Fulton JS, Buckmann DK et al. Clearance of pegylated (40 KDA) interferon alfa-2a (PEGASYS TM) is primarily hepatic. Hepatology. 2000; 32:371A. Abstract 848.

13. Schwarz KB, Mohan P, Narkewicz MR et al. Safety, efficacy and pharmacokinetics of peginterferon alpha2a (40 kd) in children with chronic hepatitis C. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2006;43:499-505.

14. Marcellin P, Boyer N. Chronic viral hepatitis Best Practice & Research Clinical Gastroenterology 2003; 17: 259–75.

15. Carey I, Vergani D. The role of viral-specific immune responses on the outcome of chronic hepatitis B(HBV) infection in children: new insights into immunopathology.J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr. 2007;45:15-8.

16. Casiraghi MA, De Paschale M, Romano L et al. Long-term outcome (35 years) of hepatitis C after acquisition of infection through mini transfusions of blood given at birth. Hepatology 2004;39 :90-6.

17. Goodman ZD, Makhlouf HR, Liu L et al. Pathology of chronic hepatitis C in children: liver biopsyfindings in the Peds-C Trial. Hepatology 2008;47:836-43

18. Zhang M, Rosenberg PS, Brown DL et al. Second Multicenter Hemophilia Cohort Study. Correlates of spontaneous clearance of hepatitis C virus among people with hemophilia. Blood 2006;107:892-97.

19. Slowik MK, Jhaveri R. Hepatitis B and C viruses in infants and young children.Semin Pediatr Infect Dis 2005;16:296-305.

20. González-Peralta RP, Langham MR Jr, Andres JM et al. Hepatocellular carcinoma in 2 young adolescents with chronic hepatitis C. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2009; 48(5):630-35.

21. Ko JS, Choe YH, Kim EJ, Lee EH, Jang JJ, Seo JK. Interferon-alpha treatment of chronic hepatitis C in children with hemophilia. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2001;32:41-44.

22. Badizadegan K, Jonas MM, Ott MJ, Nelson SP,Perez-Atatyde AR. Histopathology of the liver in children with chronic hepatitis C viral infection. Hepatology 1998;28 :1416–23.

23. Strickland DK, Jenkins JJ, Hudson MM. Hepatitis C Infection and Hepatocellular Carcinoma After Treatment of Childhood Cancer Journal of Pediatric Hematology/Oncology 2001; 23 : 527-29.

24. Reddy KR, Wright TL, Pockros PJ et al. Efficacy and safety of pegylated (40-kd) interferon alpha-2a

compared with interferon alpha-2a in noncirrhotic patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology 2001; 33: 433-38.

25. Heathcote EJ, Shiffman ML, Cooksley WG et al. Peginterferon alfa-2a in patients with chronic hepatitis C and cirrhosis. N Engl J Med 2000; 343:1673-80.

26. Fried MW, Shiffman ML, Reddy KR et al. Peginterferon alfa-2a plus ribavirin for chronic hepatitis C virus infection. N Engl J Med 2002; 347: 975-82.

27. Boyer JL, Chang EB, Collyar DE et al. National Institutes of Health Consensus Development Conference statement Management of Hepatitis C. HIV Clin Trials. 2003;4:55-75.

28. Jara P, Hierro L, de la Vega A et al. Efficacy and safety of peginterferon-alpha2b and ribavirin combination therapy in children with chronic hepatitis C infection. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2008;27:142-8.

29. Ghany MG, Strader DB, Thomas DL, Seeff LB. Diagnosis, Management, and Treatment of Hepatitis C:An Update. Hepatology 2009;49: 1335-74.

30. Zeuzem S, Feinman SV, Rasenack J et al. Peginterferon alfa-2a in patients with chronic hepatitis C. N Engl J Med 2000;7;343:1666-72.

31. Helbling B, Jochum W, Stamenic I et al. HCVrelated advanced fibrosis/cirrhosis: randomized controlled trial of pegylated interferon alpha-2a and ribavirin. J Viral Hepat 2006;13:762-69.

32. Gonzalez-Peralta RP. Treatment of chronic hepatitis C in children. Pediatr Transplantation 2004: 8: 639–643.

33. Manns MP, McHutchison JG, Gordon SC et al.Peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin compared with interferon alfa-2bplus ribavirin for initial treatment of chronic hepatitis C: A randomised trial. Lancet 2001: 358 (9286): 958–65.

34. Hadziyannis SJ, Papatheodoridis GV. Peginterferonalpha 2a (40 kDa) for chronic hepatitis C. Expert Opin Pharmacother. 2003;4:541-51.

35. Craxi A, Licata A. Clinical trial results of peginterferons in combination with ribavirin. Semin Liver Dis 2003;23:35-46.

36. McHutchison JG, Lawitz EJ, Shiffman ML et al.Peginterferon alfa-2b or alfa-2a with ribavirin for treatment of hepatitis C infection. N Engl J Med 2009;361:580-93.

37. Davis GL, Wong JB, McHutchison JG, Manns MP, Harvey J, Albrecht J. Early virologic response to treatment with peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin in patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology 2003;38: 645-52.

38. Zeuzem S, Buti M, Ferenci P et al. Efficacy of 24 weeks treatment with peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin in patients with chronic hepatitis C infected

with genotype 1 and low pretreatment viremia. J Hepatol 2006;44:97-103.

39. Dalgard O, Bjøro K, Hellum KB et al. Treatment with pegylated interferon and ribavarin in HCV infection with genotype 2 or 3 for 14 weeks: a pilot study. Hepatology 2004;40: 1260-65.

40. Mangia A, Santoro R, Minerva N et al. Peginterferon alfa-2b and ribavirin for 12 vs. 24 weeks in HCV genotype 2 or 3. N Engl J Med 2005;352:2609-17.

41. Von Wagner M, Huber M, Berg T et al. Peginterferon-alpha-2a (40KD) and ribavirin for 16 or 24 weeks in patients with genotype 2 or 3 chronic hepatitis C. Gastroenterology 2005;129:522-27.

42. Yu ML, Dai CY, Huang JF et al. A randomised study of peginterferon and ribavirin for 16 versus 24 weeks in patients with genotype 2 chronic hepatitis C. Gut 2007;56:553-59.

43. Siebert U, Sroczynski G, Aidelsburger P et al. Clinical effectiveness and cost effectiveness of tailoring chronic hepatitis C treatment with peginterferon alpha-2b plus ribavirin to HCV genotype and early viral response: a decision analysis based on german guidelines. Pharmacoeconomics 2009;27:341-54.

44. Shepherd J, Brodin H, Cave C, Waugh N, Price A, Gabbay J. Pegylated interferon alpha-2a and -2b in combination with ribavirin in the treatment of chronic hepatitis C: a systematic review and economic evaluation. Health Technol Assess 2004;8: 1-148.

45. Bruno R, Sacchi P, Ciappina V et al. Pharmacokinetics of peginterferon alfa-2A (40 kd, Pegasys) compared to peginterferon alfa-2b (12kd, Pegintron) in naive patients with chronic hepatitis C (CHC). *38th Annual Meeting of the European Association for the Study* of Liver, 2003; Abstract Number: 4203.

46. Silva M, Poo J, Wagner F et al. A randomised trial to compare the pharmacokinetic, pharmacodynamic, and antiviral effects of peginterferon alfa-2b and peginterferon alfa-2a in patients with chronic hepatitis C (COMPARE). J Hepatol 2006;45: 204-13.

47. Nakashima E, Fujisawa T, Kimura A et al. Efficacy of interferon-alpha treatment in Japanese children with chronic hepatitis C. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2003; 18:411-14.

48. Mozer-Lisewska I, Słuzewski W, Ali Youseif K, Figlerowicz M, Kowala-Piaskowska A. Virus genotype 1b and long-term response to interferon alpha monotherapy in children with chronic hepatitis C Eur J Pediatr 2003; 162: 755–59.

49. Di Ciommo V, Russo P, Ravà L, Caprino L. Interferon alpha in the treatment of chronic hepatitis C

in children: a meta-analysis [correction of metanalysis] J Viral Hepat. 2003;10:210-14.

50. Bortolotti F, Giacchino R, Vajro P et al. Recombinant Interferon Alfa therapy in children with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology 1995; 22: 1623–27.

51. Iorio R, Pensati P, Porzio S, Fariello I, Guida S, Vegnente A. Lymphoblastoid interferon alfa treatment in chronic hepatitis C. Arch Dis Child 1996; 74:152–56.

52. Jacobson KR, Murray K, Zellos A, Schwarz KB. An analysis of published trials of interferon monotherapy in children withchronic hepatitis C. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2002;34:52-8.

53. Matsuoka S, Mori K, Nakano O et al. Efficacy of interferons in treating children with chronic hepatitis C. Eur J Pediatr 1997; 156: 704-08.

54. Jonas MM, Ott MJ, Nelson SP, Badizadegan K, Perez-Atayde AR. Interferon-alpha treatment of chronic hepatitis C virus infection in children. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1998;17:241-46.

55. Gonzalez-Peralta RP, Kelly DA, Haber B, et al. Interferon alfa-2b in combination with ribavirin for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C in children. Hepatology 2002: 42:1010-18.

56. Lackner H, Moser A, Deutsch J et al. Interferonalpha and ribavirin in treating children and young adults with chronic hepatitis C after malignancy. Pediatrics 2000: 106: 53–56.

57. Christensson B, Wiebe T, Akesson A, Widell A. Interferonalpha and ribavirin treatment of hepatitis C in children with malignancy in remission. Clin Infect Dis 2000: 30: 585–86.

58. Wirth S, Lang T, Gehring S, Gerner P. Recombinant alfainterferon plus ribavirin therapy in children and adolescents with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology 2002: 36: 1280–84.

59. Figlerowicz M, Sluzewski W, Kowala-Piaskowska A, Mozer- Lisewska I. Interferon alpha and ribavirin in the treatment of children with chronic hepatitis C. Eur J Pediat 2004;163:265-67.

60. Suoglu OD, Elkabes B, Sokucu S, Saner G. Does interferon and ribavirin combination therapy increase the rate of treatment response in children with hepatitis C. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2002;34:199-206.

61. FDA Approval of PEGINTRON(TM) and REBETOL(R) Combination Therapy for Treating Pediatric Hepatitis C. Schering-Plough News Release,December 12, 2008. Available at: www.schering-plough.com/news/news_article.aspx?re qid=1235583.

62. Huang HP, Tsuei DJ, Wang KJ et al. Differential integration rates of hepatitis B virus DNA in the liver of children with chronic hepatitis B virus infection and hepatocellular carcinoma. Journal of Gastroenterology

and Hepatology 2005; 20, 1206-14.

63. Danielsson N, Fakakovikaetau T, Szegedi E. Improved immunization practices reduce childhood hepatitis B infection in Tonga. Vaccine 2009 16;27:4462-67.

64. Shepard CW, Finelli L, Fiore AE, Bell BP. Epidemiology of Hepatitis B and Hepatitis B Virus Infection in United States Children. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2005;24: 755–60.

65. Chang MH. Hepatitis B virus infection. Seminars in Fetal & Neonatal Medicine 2007; 12:160-67.

66. Chen HL, Chang MH, Ni YH et al. Seroepidemiology of hepatitis B virus infection in children: ten years of mass vaccination in Taiwan. JAMA 1996; 276:906-908.

67. Ni YH, Chang MH, Huang LM et al. Hepatitis B virus infection in children and adolescents in a hyperendemic area: 15 years after mass hepatitis B vaccination. Ann Intern Med 2001;135 :796-800.

68. Chang MH, Chen CJ, Lai MS, Hsu HM, Wu TC, Kong MS. Universal hepatitis B vaccination in Taiwan and the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma in children. N Engl J Med 1997; 336 :1855-59.

69. Niederau C, Heintges T, Lange S et al. Long-Term Follow-Up Of HbeAg-Positive Patients Treated With Interferon Alfa For Chronic Hepatitis B. N Engl J Med 1996;334 (22):1422-27.

70. Di Marca V, Craxi A. Chronic hepatitis B:who to treat and which choice of treatment.Expert Rev. Anti Infect Ther 2009; 7, 281-91.

71. Elisofon SA, Jonas MM, MDa, Hepatitis B and C in Children:Current Treatment and Future Strategies. Clin Liver Dis. 2006;10:133–148.

72. Wen WH, Chang MH, Hsu HY, Ni YH, Chen HL. The development of hepatocellular carcinoma among prospectively followed children with chronic hepatitis b virus infection. J Pediatr 2004;144:397-99.

73. Bortolotti F, Jara P, Barbera C et al. Long term effect of alpha interferon in children with chronic hepatitis B. Gut 2000; 46: 715–718

74. Hellera S, Valencia-Mayoralb P. Treatment of Viral Hepatitis in Children. Archives of Medical Research 2007;38:702-10.

75. Bortolotti F, Guido M, Bartolacci S, Cadrobbi P, Crivellaro C, Noventa F, Morsica G, Moriondo M, Gatta A.Chronic Hepatitis B in Children After e Antigen Seroclearance: Final Report of a 29-Year Longitudinal Study. Hepatology 2006;43:556-62.

76. Dienstag JL. Hepatitis B virus infection. T New England J of Medicine 2008; 359; 14: 1486-500

77. Holomán J, Glasa J. EASL clinical practice guidelines. J Hepatol. 2009;51:821-2.

78. Shah U, Kelly D, Chang MH et al. Management of Chronic Hepatitis B in Children J Pediatr

Gastroenterol Nutr 2009; 48:399-404

79. Degertekin B, Lok SF. Update on viral hepatitis: Current Opinion in Gastroenterology 2009;25:180–85.

80. EASL Clinical Practice Guidlines: Management of chronic hepatitis B. Journal of Hepatology 2009; 50:227-42.

81. Choe BH, Lee JH, Jang YC et al. Long-term Therapeutic Efficacy of Lamivudine Compared With Interferon-a in Children with Chronic Hepatitis B: The Younger the Better. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2007; 44:92–8.

82. Jonas MM, Mizerski J, Badia IB et al. International Pediatric Lamivudine Investigator Group. Clinical trial of lamivudine in children with chronic hepatitis B. N Engl J Med. 2002;346:1706-13.

83. Hartman C, Berkowitz D, Shouval D et al. Lamivudine treatment for chronic hepatitis B infection in children unresponsive to interferon Pediatr Infect Dis J, 2003;22 :224–8

84. Hartman C, Berkowitz D, Eshach-Adiv O et al. Lamivudine Therapy for Chronic Hepatitis B Infection in Children Unresponsive to Interferon JPGN 2006; 43 (4): 494-498.

85. Liaw YF, Leung NW, Chang TT, Guan R, Tai DI, Ng KY, Chien RN, Dent J, Roman L, Edmundson S, Lai CL.Effects of extended lamivudine therapy in Asian patients with chronic hepatitis B. Asia Hepatitis Lamivudine Study Group. Gastroenterology 2000; 119:172-80.

86. Leung NW, Lai CL, Chang TT, Guan R, Lee CM, Ng KY, Lim SG, Wu PC, Dent JC, Edmundson S, Condreay LD, Chien RN. Extended lamivudine treatment in patients with chronic hepatitis B enhances hepatitis B e antigen seroconversion rates: results after 3 years of therapy. Hepatology 2001;33:1527-32.

87. Chang TT, Lai CL, Chien RN, Guan R, Lim SG, Lee CM, Ng KY, Nicholls GJ, Dent JC, Leung NW. Four years of lamivudine treatment in Chinese patients with chronic hepatitis B. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2004;19:1276-1282.

88. Lok AS, Lai CL, Leung N, et al. Long-term safety of lamivudine treatment in patients with chronic hepatitis B. Gastroenterology 2003;125:1714-22

89. Price N, Boxall EH. Treatment Of Children Persistently Infected With Hepatitis B Virus: Seroconversion Or Suppression Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 2007; 60, 1189–1192.

90. Sokal EM, Kelly DA, Mizerski J et al. Long-term lamivudine therapy for children with HBeAg-positive chronic hepatitis B. Hepatology. 2006;43:225-32.

91. Sherman M, Yurdaydin C, Sollano J et al. Entecavir for treatment of lamivudine-refractory, HBeAg-positive chronic hepatitis B.Gastroenterology 2006;130:2039-49. **92.** Vo Thi Diem H, Bourgois A, Bontems P et al.Chronic hepatitis B infection: long term comparison of children receiving interferon alpha and untreated controls. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2005;40:141-5.

93. Akman SA, Okcu SC, Halicioğlu O et al. Therapeutic efficacy of sequential and simultaneous treatments with interferon-alpha and lamivudine in children with chronic hepatitis B. Pediatr Int 2007;49:848-52.

94. Yilmaz A, Akcam M, Gelen T, Artan R. Lamivudine and high-dose interferon alpha 2a combination treatment in naïve HBeAg-positive immunoactive chronic hepatitis B in children: an East Mediterranean center's experience. Eur J Pediatr. 2007;166:195-99.

95. Lau GK, Piratvisuth T, Luo KX et al.Peginterferon Alfa-2a HBeAg-Positive Chronic Hepatitis B Study Group.Peginterferon Alfa-2a, lamivudine, and the combination for HBeAg-positive chronic hepatitis B. N Engl J Med 2005 30;352:2682-

96. Shepherd J, Jones J, Takeda A, Davidson P, Price A. Adefovir dipivoxil and pegylated interferon alfa-2a for the treatment of chronic hepatitis B: a systematic review and economic evaluation. Health Technol Assess. 2006;10:1-183.

97. Janssen HL, van Zonneveld M, Senturk H et al. Pegylated interferon alfa-2b alone or in combination with lamivudine for HBeAg-positive chronic hepatitis B: a randomised trial. Lancet. 2005;365:123-29.

98. Pawłowska M, Halota W. Rapid viral response during treatment of chronic hepatitis B with pegylated interferon alfa-2a in children--preliminary report. Przegl Epidemiol 2007;61:427-31.

99. Muratori P, Muratori L, Guidi M et al. Clinical impact of non-organ-specific autoantibodies on the response to combined antiviral treatment in patients with hepatitis C. Clin Infect Dis 2005;15;40:501-7.

100. Gehring S, Kullmer U, Koeppelmann S, Gerner P, Wintermeyer P, Wirth S. Prevalence of autoantibodies and the risk of autoimmune thyroid disease in children with chronic hepatitis C virus infection treated with interferon-alpha. World J Gastroenterol. 2006 28;12:5787-92.

101. Indolfi G, Stagi S, Bartolini E et al. Thyroid function and anti-thyroid autoantibodies in untreated children with vertically acquired chronic hepatitis C virus infection. Clin Endocrinol 2008;68:117-21.

102. Murray KF, Rodrigue JR, González-Peralta RP et al. Design of the PEDS-C trial: pegylated interferon +/-ribavirin for children with chronic hepatitis C Clin Trials 2007; 4; 661.