



Impact of universal vaccination programmes on the epidemiology of hepatitis B: 10 years of experience in Italy

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Abstract

Ten years have elapsed since routine vaccination of infants and of 12-year-old adolescent was implemented in Italy.

In this period, evidence has accumulated on the epidemiological impact of universal immunisation.

Coverage is on average >90% and is $\geq 95\%$ in many areas of the country. Incidence of acute hepatitis B, that was already declining before 1991, was further decreased by routine vaccination programmes.

This is particularly evident in adolescents and young adults (cohorts involved by mandatory vaccination), while incidence shows little changes in older subjects according to data of the last years. Prevalence of hepatitis B virus (HBV) markers detected by sero-epidemiological studies on anonymous sera confirms both the very high coverage with hepatitis B vaccination and the virtual absence of chronic HBsAg carriers in cohorts involved by routine vaccination programmes. The system of passive surveillance on adverse events following hepatitis B vaccination supports the excellent safety record of hepatitis B vaccines.

In a hyperendemic area of Southern Italy, where a pilot programme was firstly implemented, it was also possible to document the decline of the involvement of hepatitis B in chronic liver pathologies (from 48% in 1982 to 18% in 1997).

If coverage rates are maintained at the present levels, elimination of HBV transmission in Italy may be envisaged in few decades.

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1. Introduction

Hepatitis B is one of the major threats to public health in the world. More than 350 million people are chronic carriers and 1 million die each year for diseases caused by hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection. Among them, liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma are the most important chronic consequences. For this reason, hepatitis B vaccine is also rightly considered as the first largely used vaccine against cancer.

In 1992, the World Health Assembly endorsed the recommendations of the Global Advisory Group of the Expanded Programme on Immunisation that hepatitis B vaccine be integrated into national immunisation systems of all countries by 1997.

Italy was one of the first industrialised countries to introduce a programme of routine vaccination against hepatitis B [1]. After a careful evaluation of both epidemiological and economic data [2,3], a double cohort policy of mandatory

immunisation (infant and 12-year-old children) was chosen, together with active offer of free-of-charge vaccination to high-risk groups. The aim of the programme was to reduce, and, in the long term, to eliminate the transmission of the infection by rapidly creating 24 generations of immune subjects within the first 12 years of implementation. Law n.165 introducing compulsory vaccination was issued on 27 May 1991, but it was implemented in the whole country as of the beginning of 1992. Since 10 years have now elapsed, and the end of the adolescent programme is foreseen for the year 2003 (when the first children immunised as infants will reach the year 12 of life), it seems useful to verify the impact of routine immunisation on the epidemiology of the infection by analysing the trend and the change of several indicators.

2. Steps for the control of hepatitis B through routine vaccination

When the decision to introduce a universal programme of hepatitis B vaccination is taken, the first step is to implement it and to monitor coverage. This may be accomplished

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by comparing the vaccination register (number of subjects receiving the basic immunisation course) with the number of subjects of the same age group supplied by the birth register of each municipality where the study is performed. If a significant number of irregular immigrant is present, a precise estimate of their number and of their immunisation status should be obtained in order to get the real coverage in that area. A possible verification of coverage data may be obtained by evaluating the number of subjects within a certain age group (whose vaccination status is unknown) who test positive for anti-HBs shortly after the presumed time of completion of the immunisation course.

A further short-middle term consequence of the implementation of routine vaccination is the decline of the incidence of hepatitis B in the age cohorts covered by immunisation. As to this aspect, it is particularly important to investigate the risk factors and reasons of possible cases occurring in age groups subject to mandatory or recommended vaccination. When a case occurs in a vaccinated subject, it should be investigated whether this is due to a wild type or to a mutant virus, in order to monitor the long term efficacy and effectiveness of the currently used vaccine and foresee possible need of changes in vaccine composition.

Safety issues are becoming increasingly important in the perception of the public with regard to acceptance of routine immunisation. Since frequent and minor side effects are usually reported during clinical trials preceding vaccine registration, but rare and important adverse events are seen only after a large use of the new product, it is necessary to perform a continuous post-marketing surveillance to verify the safety in the field.

In a later phase, it is important to check the changing prevalence of HBV markers in different age groups as a consequence of the implementation of immunisation programmes.

The last step consists in the verification of a decline in the incidence and prevalence of chronic liver diseases (particularly cirrhosis and primary liver cancer) consequent to the wide use of routine immunisation in different cohorts of population.

3. Impact of hepatitis B routine vaccination in Italy

3.1. Schedule

In Italy, all pregnant women are subject to mandatory screening for HBsAg during the third trimester of pregnancy. The Italian schedule of vaccination consists of three doses given at 3, 5 and 11–12 months of life in infants born to HBsAg negative mothers. If born to a HBsAg positive mother, the newborn is administered a dose of specific immune globulin immediately after birth together with the first dose of vaccine at a different site. The vaccination course is completed by other three doses at 1, 2 and 11–12 months of life. Twelve-year-old adolescents are given three doses of vac-

cine according to a 0, 1, 6 months schedule, either at school or at vaccination services in health districts [1].

3.2. Monitoring of coverage

Data on coverage with hepatitis B vaccine should theoretically be available through systematic collection of the number of subjects immunised reported to the Department of Prevention of each Local Health Agency, which, on turn, should report data to each Regional Health Authority.

In reality, collection of data is almost always not complete, is performed differently in the various regions of the country, and in some cases only the number of doses administered is collected, with lacking information about number of completed and incomplete vaccination courses. For these reasons, the administrative method is not a reliable system (except for some particular situations) for monitoring coverage with mandatory and recommended vaccinations in Italy.

'Ad hoc' surveys based on the cluster sampling method as defined by the World Health Organisation were therefore performed in 1993 and in 1998 on cohorts of children born in different Italian regions in 1991 and 1996, respectively [4,5]. In the last survey, data relative to compulsory vaccinations showed a very good coverage throughout the country. In particular, coverage with three doses of hepatitis B vaccines ranged from 89.1% in Molise to 100% in Val d'Aosta (Table 1).

A study was also performed in 1998 in Tuscany (a region with 3.5 million inhabitants) on more than 22,000 children and adolescent living in different municipalities representative of the entire region. Birth certificates of newborns and of 12-year olds registered in such municipalities were used to calculate the yearly number of subjects eligible for the

Table 1

Coverage with three doses of hepatitis B vaccine (95% confidence intervals) at 24 months of age in 20 Italian Regions, 1998 (source: 5)

	Mean (95% CI)
Abruzzo	94.8% (91.4–98.2)
Basilicata	99.1% (97.8–100)
Bolzano	85.6% (80.6–90.7)
Calabria	94.8% (91.7–97.9)
Campania	97.6% (81.3–93.9)
Emilia R.	97.6% (95.7–99.6)
Friuli V.G	97.6% (95.7–99.6)
Liguria	97.6% (95.3–100)
Lombardia	97.6% (95.7–99.6)
Marche	94.8% (90.4–99.1)
Molise	89.1% (82.0–96.3)
Piemonte	98.6% (95.8–100)
Puglia	93.0% (89.1–96.9)
Sardegna	95.2% (92.4–98.0)
Sicilia	91.1% (86.1–96.1)
Toscana	95.2% (92.4–98.0)
Trento	98.1% (96.3–99.9)
Umbria	98.6% (97.0–100)
Val d'Aosta	100
Veneto	97.6% (95.7–99.6)

146 study. Coverage was defined as the proportion of eligible
 147 subjects who completed the three-dose vaccination regimen
 148 within 6 months after the scheduled time of last vaccine
 149 administration according to a vaccination certificate regis-
 150 tered at local health districts. Overall, 95.0% of children
 151 and 95.4% of adolescents belonging to cohorts subject to
 152 mandatory immunisation were vaccinated between 1992 and
 153 1997 [6]. Since that time, coverage has remained virtually
 154 unchanged. This is confirmed by the last estimates of the
 155 Italian Ministry of Health (February 2002) that indicate for
 156 Tuscany a coverage of 94.7% with three doses of HB vac-
 157 cine in children <24 months of age in the year 2000 (data
 158 not shown). However, there are still some areas where cov-
 159 erage is sub-optimal; in particular, in some disadvantaged
 160 regions of the South, some adolescents escape school atten-
 161 dance and are not reached by immunisation services. More-
 162 over, these subjects belong to social classes where the risk
 163 of HBV infection is higher [7].

164 As an indirect way to confirm the high immune coverage
 165 against hepatitis B infection of the children, adolescent and
 166 young adults cohorts in our region, we analysed a sub-set of
 167 data in a recently performed sero-epidemiological survey to
 168 investigate the prevalence of HBV markers in Tuscany. In
 169 the year 2000, 681 sera from subjects aged 1–50 years were
 170 collected in Florence. Samples from subjects of paediatric
 171 age were obtained from the emergency service of a paediatric
 172 hospital after exclusion of subjects with immune defi-
 173 ciency or applying for acute infectious diseases. Sera from
 174 older subjects were collected in two labs performing rou-
 175 tine chemical chemistry analysis. Immune deficient subjects
 176 were excluded.

177 All samples were made anonymous by laboratory person-
 178 nel, the only available data remaining age and sex. No in-
 179 formation was available on vaccination status. The results
 180 of anti-HBs tests on samples in the age range 1–23 years,
 181 expressed as percentage of seroprotected subjects (titre \geq
 182 10 mIU/ml), are shown in Fig. 1. It is possible to note that
 183 between 1 and 4 years of age, seroprotection ranged be-

184 tween 97 and 100%. The increasing interval between im-
 185 munisation and time of blood drawing explains the progres-
 186 sive decrease in the percentage of anti-HBs positive subjects
 187 between 5 and 8 years that, however, remains at values of
 188 79–93%. The clear drop of positive subjects between 9 and
 189 11 years of age is due to the fact that such samples belong
 190 to cohorts not subject to mandatory immunisation (some of
 191 them may have been immunised under request of their par-
 192 ents). The increase from 12 to 14 years reflects the progres-
 193 sive completion of the vaccination course in adolescent co-
 194 horts. The proportion of seropositive subjects remains high
 195 between 15 and 20 years (range 79–100%), while it is no-
 196 tably lower in individuals aged 21–23 years, who belong to
 197 cohorts not subject to compulsory vaccination. Therefore,
 198 also an analysis of anonymous sera confirms the excellent
 199 level of immunity to HBV acquired by age cohorts included
 200 in the programme of mandatory immunisation.

201 3.3. Decrease in the incidence of acute hepatitis B

202 Two surveillance systems for acute hepatitis are available
 203 in Italy. The first consists in the collection of official notifi-
 204 cations for all infectious diseases at the Ministry of Health.
 205 According to the data from this surveillance system (Table 2)
 206 notified cases in Italy passed from 4124 in 1988 to 1575
 207 in 1999 (cases reported in 1987 are not completely reliable
 208 because that was the first year when differentiation among
 209 types of viral hepatitis was introduced).

210 The other system of surveillance, called Integrated Epi-
 211 demiological System of Acute Viral Hepatitis (SEIEVA) was
 212 started in 1985 with voluntary participation of local health
 213 districts throughout the country. They covered a large pro-
 214 portion of the Italian population and supplied information
 215 on type of hepatitis, on demographic characteristics of cases
 216 and on presumed sources of infection. Because the popula-
 217 tion covered was not the entire Italian population, data are
 218 expressed as rates of cases per 100,000 individuals (Fig. 2).
 219 It should be underlined that the trend of acute hepatitis B

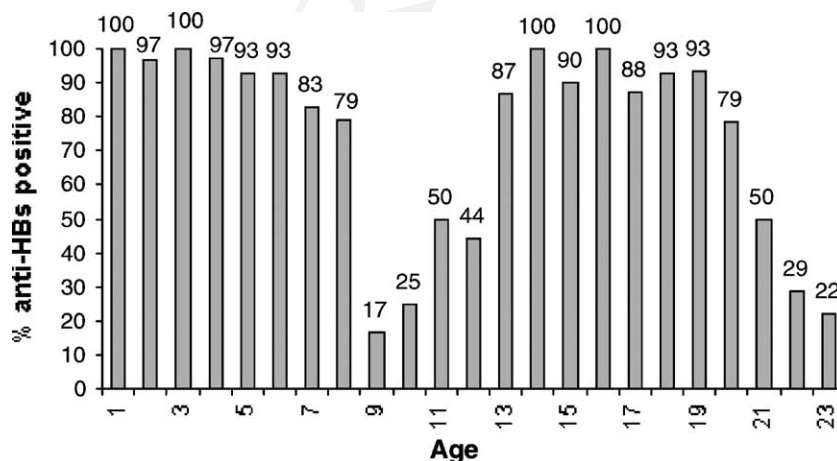


Fig. 1. Prevalence of anti-HBs reactivity (≥ 10 mIU/ml) in anonymous sera collected from subjects aged 1–23 years living in Florence (year 2000).

Table 2
Cases of viral hepatitis notified in Italy, 1982–1999 (source: Ministry of Health)

	Type				Total
	A	B	NANB	Non-specified	
1982	–	–	–	–	26.509
1983	–	–	–	–	28.251
1984	–	–	–	–	33.815
1985	–	–	–	–	18.386
1986	–	–	–	–	16.085
1987	2.007	2.189	662	10.062	14.920
1988	1.567	4.124	1.549	2.652	9.892
1989	1.295	3.915	1.510	1.510	8.230
1990	2.572	3.640	1.532	1.983	9.727
1991	2.764	3.260	1.560	1.363	8.947
1992	6.046	3.423	1.902	1.724	13.095
1993	3.308	3.344	1.788	982	9.422
1994	3.531	2.733	1.569	551	8.384
1995	1.434	2.600	1.455	390	5.879
1996	8.651	2.248	1.149	394	12.442
1997	9.952	1.996	932	303	13.183
1998	2.962	1796	845	122	5.725
1999	1.693	1575	788	101	4.157

220 notifications was already declining before the compulsory
 221 vaccination programme was introduced. The decrease was
 222 particularly evident in the age class 15–24 years, which tra-
 223 ditionally showed the highest incidence rates. The reason of
 224 such decrease have been analysed elsewhere [8]. However,
 225 a further acceleration occurred shortly after the implemen-
 226 tation of the routine immunisation programme.

227 In Tuscany, we recently collected data on notifications of
 228 acute hepatitis B and information on disease cases thanks
 229 to the collaboration of regional health authorities. Vacci-
 230 nation status and number and time of possible doses ad-
 231 ministered were collected for each notified case of acute
 232 disease.

233 Modifications of incidence between 1994 and 2001 were
 234 calculated by 5-year age groups in the age range 0–29 years,
 235 10-year age groups between 30 and 49 years, and globally
 236 over 50 years of age. The results of the study are reported
 237 in Fig. 3. It is possible to note that, while incidence rates
 238 remained virtually unchanged in the age cohorts over 25
 239 years, a clear decline was registered particularly in the age
 240 groups 15–19 years (from 7.3 to 1.3/100,000) and 20–24
 241 years (from 14.3 to 3.7/100,000). The decline in the latter age
 242 group was particularly evident in 2001, when subjects aged
 243 20 and 21 years belonged to cohorts subject to mandatory
 244 vaccination.

245 We further investigated the vaccination status of acute
 246 hepatitis B cases in the same time interval (1994–2001) and
 247 found that only five subjects had received a full immunisa-
 248 tion course (three doses). The two cases occurring in 1994
 249 regarded a 11-month-old infant and a 36-year-old woman.
 250 The former was a baby affected by Down’s syndrome who
 251 had received the second dose of vaccine later than scheduled
 252 due to a cardiac surgery intervention. It is likely that infec-
 253 tion was acquired during hospitalisation after a single dose.
 254 The woman had received the last vaccine dose in September
 255 1993, while acute disease occurred in March 1994. How-
 256 ever, an anti-HIV reactivity had been occasionally detected
 257 during hospitalisation for acute hepatitis B. One case oc-
 258 curred in the year 2000 in a 2-year-old girl of Chinese eth-
 259 nicity. She was born to a HBsAg positive mother, and re-
 260 sulted to have received three doses of vaccine at birth and
 261 at 1 and 3 months of age, respectively. No documentation
 262 existed on administration of specific immune globulin im-
 263 mediately after birth and on receipt of the fourth dose at 1
 264 year of age, as required by the Italian law. The two cases
 265 reported in 2001 regarded two men of 50 and 36 years of
 266 age, respectively. The reason for vaccination was unknown
 267 for the former, and no post-vaccination testing had been
 268 performed. The other man was an intravenous drug abuser

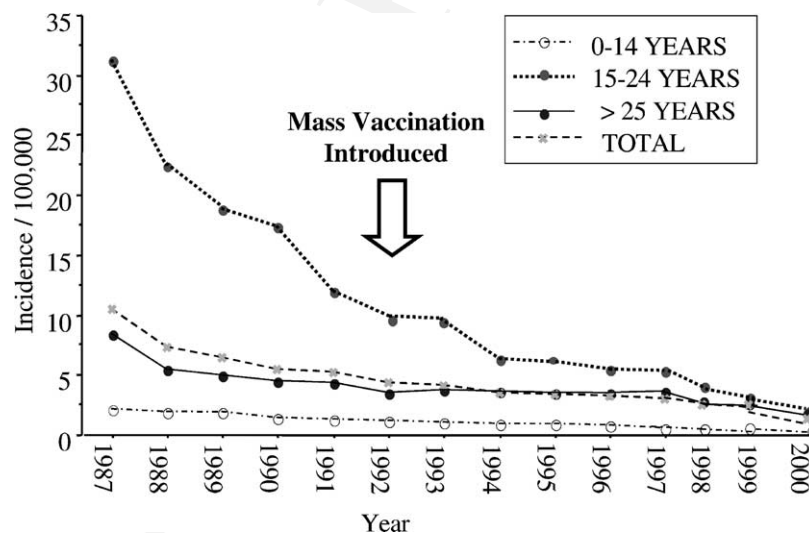


Fig. 2. Incidence of acute viral hepatitis B in Italy by age groups (Data from SEIEVA—Integrated Epidemiological System of Acute Viral Hepatitis).

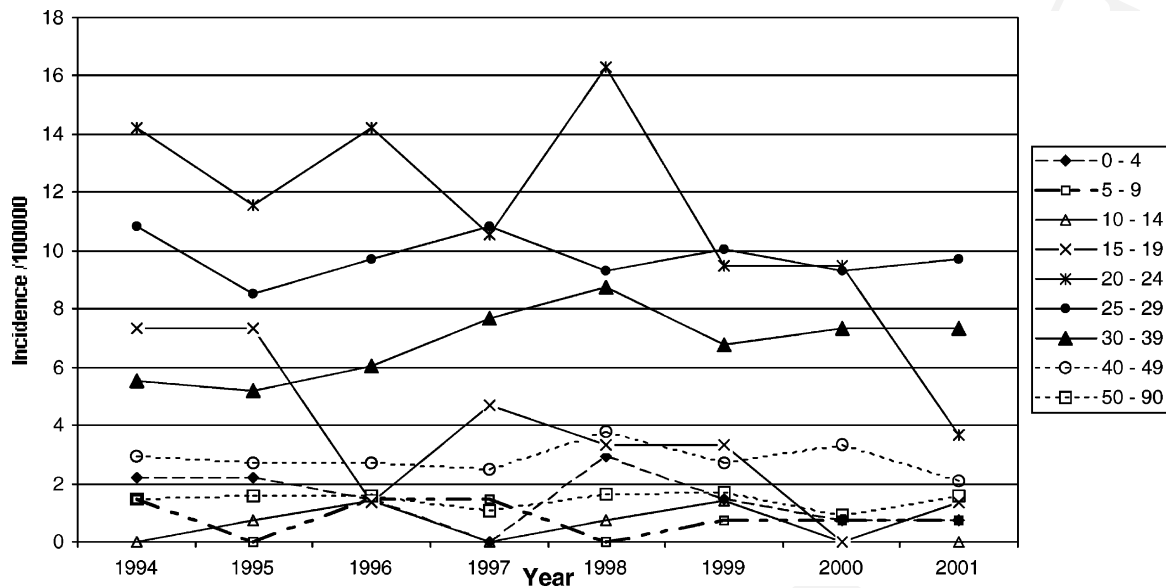


Fig. 3. Incidence of acute hepatitis B by age in Tuscany, Central Italy (1994–2001).

269 without post-vaccination testing. Samples from these two
 270 subjects were sent to the National Institute of Health (Isti-
 271 tuto Superiore di Sanità) for molecular sequencing (results
 272 not yet available). Overall, it is possible to conclude that no
 273 evidence exists of a secondary failure of vaccination in Tus-
 274 cany in the last 8 years. Primary non-response seems the
 275 most likely reason for cases occurring in adult age.

276 3.4. Importance of mutant viruses

277 Viral mutations reflect attempts by the virus to evade the
 278 mechanisms that potentially endanger its existence and to
 279 survive in a hostile environment. HBV mutants may be nat-
 280 urally occurring or originate under the pressure of the host's
 281 immune system or as a reaction against introduced antibodies
 282 [9]. Several immune escape mutants have been described,
 283 the most frequent of which involves the second loop of the
 284 *a* determinant (substitution glycine–arginine at amino acid
 285 145: G145R mutant). G145R was described as responsible of
 286 breakthrough infections in passively/actively immunised in-
 287 fants born to HBsAg/HBeAg positive mothers [10] and dur-
 288 ing passive immune prophylaxis after transplantation [11].
 289 From a public health point of view, the problem is to verify
 290 whether these mutants tend to spread and to become the pre-
 291 dominant population of circulating viruses. In that case, a
 292 change in the composition of currently used vaccines should
 293 be envisaged. A recently published study performed in Italy
 294 was intended to address such problem [12]. The research in-
 295 volved 522 children born to HBsAg positive mothers from
 296 1985 to 1994 in three public hospital in the Campania re-
 297 gion. All babies were immunised with passive plus active
 298 prophylaxis immediately after birth. Among mothers whose
 299 complete serological status at delivery was traceable, 8.3%
 300 were also HBeAg positive.

In 1998/99, 17/522 children (3.3%) had acquired an
 asymptomatic infection as shown by the presence of anti-
 HBc alone ($n = 14$; none of them was HBV-DNA positive)
 or with simultaneous presence of HBsAg ($n = 3$). Two of
 the three carrier children had a wild type HBV (subtype
 ayw) similar to that of the respective mother. The third
 child had a double mutation within the 'a' determinant and
 high level of anti-HBs. His mother had a wild type HBV
 (subtype ayw).

Five to 14 years after immunisation, 79% of children
 still had protective levels of anti-HBs. The authors of this
 large study on subjects belonging to a risk group where
 vaccine-induced escape mutants were firstly identified con-
 clude that HBV mutants does not raise concern at present
 about the efficacy of universal vaccination programmes in
 Italy. Nevertheless, it is important to maintain a careful
 surveillance on the possible expansion of already known
 variants and emergence of new mutants, particularly as im-
 mune populations grow in number.

3.5. Surveillance on adverse events

In clinical trials preceding registration, all commercially
 available hepatitis B vaccines proved to be safe, and to cause
 minor side effects in proportion not superior to those reg-
 istered in subjects receiving placebo, except for local pain,
 that was reported in up to 30% of vaccinees [13–15].

As for all vaccines, only frequent adverse events can be
 identified during phase 2 and phase 3 clinical trials, while
 rare effects ($<1/1000$ doses) can only be evaluated during
 post-marketing surveillance [16].

The occurrence of anaphylaxis after hepatitis B vaccina-
 tion is proven, although it is a rare event ($1/600,000$ doses
 distributed). However, no fatal case is reported.

333 A number of other adverse events have been reported as
334 temporarily associated with hepatitis B vaccination. Most of
335 them are represented by chronic syndromes with unknown
336 or partially known aetiology. Media attention is frequently
337 attracted by these allegations, causing a fall in the confi-
338 dence of the public in hepatitis B immunisation. However,
339 it must be distinguished between hypothesis generation and
340 hypothesis testing. It should also be considered that when a
341 possible association between vaccination and adverse event
342 is suggested by surveillance data, case reports and case se-
343 ries, we only see one side of the overall picture. As a matter
344 of fact, we do not know whether the same event is occurring
345 also in non-immunised subjects, and how many vaccinees
346 are not experiencing the adverse event.

347 The recent allegations on the possible relationship be-
348 tween hepatitis B vaccination and demyelinating diseases
349 like multiple sclerosis (MS) that had a large echo in France
350 (where they caused a dramatic drop of coverage) had only
351 a very limited impact in Italy.

352 The US Institute of Medicine recently reviewed the data
353 of nine epidemiological studies and concluded that evidence
354 favoured rejection of a causal relationship between hepatis-
355 tis B vaccine administered to adults and incident multiple
356 sclerosis or multiple sclerosis relapse.

357 Data of passive surveillance on adverse events following
358 hepatitis B vaccination collected by the Italian Ministry of
359 Health for the years 1991–1996 show that seven cases of
360 paraesthesia, three cases of brachial plexus neuropathy, two
361 cases of Guillain-Barré and one case of convulsions were
362 reported as temporarily associated with immunisation. If we
363 consider these figures vis-a-vis the millions of doses admin-
364 istered each year in the country, we can understand that the
365 record of safety of hepatitis B vaccines is impressive. For
366 these reasons, in September 1999 the Ministry of Health
367 stated that, in view of a merely hypothetical and unproven
368 damage, hepatitis B vaccination showed to be highly effec-
369 tive, and, therefore, the recommendation to immunise all
370 infants and adolescents remained unchanged.

371 3.6. Changing prevalence of HBV markers and first 372 impact on chronic liver disease

373 The previously cited sero-epidemiological study per-
374 formed on sera collected from 681 subjects in Florence in
375 the year 2000 was mainly intended to verify the trend of
376 HBV markers after implementation of routine vaccination
377 programmes.

378 Anti-HBc prevalence analysed by 10-year age group be-
379 tween 1 and 50 years showed that infection with HBV is
380 extremely rare up to 20 years of age (no reactivity (0/239)
381 between 1 and 10 years, and 0.9% (1/206) reactive sam-
382 ples in the 11–20-year age group). On the other hand, in
383 the age groups 21–40 years, 9.3% of subjects (15/161) were
384 anti-HBc positive, and the prevalence rose to 17.3% (13/75)
385 in the 41–50 age group. The difference between age cohorts
386 subject to mandatory vaccination (1–20 years) and not in-

387 volved in routine immunisation (21–50 years) is statistically
388 highly significant ($P = 0.0001$).

389 With regard to HBsAg prevalence, only 6/644 (0.9%)
390 tested samples resulted reactive, and all of them were indi-
391 viduals not belonging to cohorts subject to compulsory im-
392 munisation.

393 A clear decline of HBV markers after implementation
394 of routine hepatitis B vaccination was demonstrated in
395 Afragola, an hyperendemic area in the Campania region,
396 where a pilot project of universal infant hepatitis B vaccina-
397 tion was introduced in 1983. Incidence of acute hepatitis B
398 before vaccination was 63/100,000; anti-HBc and HBsAg
399 prevalence rates were 66.9 and 13.4%, respectively.

400 In 1997, 15 years after the implementation of the pro-
401 gramme, the incidence had dropped to 3/1000,000 popula-
402 tion. Anti-HBc prevalence declined to 34.2%; HBsAg preva-
403 lence was only 3.7%, and the change was particularly evi-
404 dent in young children and adolescents (from 6.8% in 1982
405 to 0.7% in 1997) [17].

406 Since chronic consequences of HBV carriage develop
407 over a long time interval, it is too early to document the im-
408 pact of routine vaccination on chronic active hepatitis, cir-
409 rhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.

410 However, in the previously cited study in Afragola, it was
411 possible to demonstrate that HBV was involved in 48% of
412 chronic liver pathologies in 1982, but only in 18% in 1997
413 [17].

414 4. Conclusions

415 Since Italy was the first industrialised country to intro-
416 duce universal hepatitis B vaccination in a double cohort
417 of population (infant + adolescent), the surveillance on the
418 changing epidemiology of HBV infection and related dis-
419 eases may be of interest also for other countries. In the 10
420 years of implementation, a set of data has become available
421 to document the impact of immunisation programmes.

422 A high coverage with three doses of vaccine in both co-
423 horts was documented since the first years after introduc-
424 tion of routine vaccination [5,6]. Coverage with hepatitis B
425 in infants and adolescents is on average >90%, and exceeds
426 95% in many areas of Italy. Sero-epidemiological data on
427 anonymous sera collected in Tuscany confirm the high level
428 of protection in the cohorts subject to mandatory vaccina-
429 tion.

430 Surveillance on acute hepatitis B cases consistently shows
431 a decline of notifications, especially in the 15–24 years age
432 group. Data from Tuscany and from the rest of Italy show
433 the virtual absence of acute HB cases in subjects belong-
434 ing to compulsorily vaccinated cohorts who completed the
435 immunisation course.

436 In Tuscany, no case of reactivity for HBsAg was detected
437 in age groups covered by universal immunisation, and only
438 one sample was anti-HBc positive in a series of samples
439 collected in the year 2000. The difference between immu-

nised and non-immunised cohorts was statistically highly significant. Long-term surveillance on children born to HBsAg positive mothers shows the occurrence of a very limited number of asymptomatic and almost always self-limiting infections in vaccinees. At present, mutant viruses do not pose a threat to universal vaccination programmes in the country.

However, the steady incidence in older age groups, and the demonstration of the role of sexual and iatrogenic exposures [18] stress the importance to complement routine immunisation with non-immunological preventive measures.

In conclusion, the data presented in our paper consistently demonstrate the deep epidemiological impact ‘on the field’ of 10 years of implementation of the universal vaccination programme against hepatitis B in Italy and confirm that elimination of HBV transmission in the country in the middle-long term is a feasible goal.

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