WHAT IS VACCINE?. HOW DOSE VACCINATION SAFE HUMAN POPULATION BY CONTROLLING VIRAL DISEASES *A Review article*.

Muhammad Gulfraz [1] ,Shiza Fatima, Hina gul[1],Umme Habiba[1], PakeezaArooj[1] and Maryam Jamila[1]

Corresponding author**;** **gulfrazsatti@uaar.edu.pk**

ABSTRACT

A vaccination is a biological preparation that gives active acquired immunity against a specific infectious disease. Vaccines are formed from kill form of microbes, its toxins and surface protein of microorganisms which causes disease. There are four types of vaccines (a) live attenuated vaccines (b) inactive vaccines (c) subunit recombinant polysaccharide and conjugated vaccines as well as (d) Toxoid vaccines. Therefore vaccines can be in the form of adjuvant, valence, excipients and preservatives. There are many types of viral vaccines for different disease such as measles, mumps, rubella, viccinia, varicella, zoster etc. The current example of viral disease is COVID 19 epidemic, which is causing serious health conditions in human population throughout the world. There have been 222,788,994 confirmed cases of COVID, with 4,600327 deathsand recorded cases were 199,314,577 as reported by WHO on September 8, 2021. To deal with this problem, experts of viral diseases from all over the world, particularly in wealthy countries, are frantically trying to create vaccines that could have the ability to treat coronavirus sufferers. However, a large portion of the world's population continues to wait for their fantasy medications to arrive in the markets.

Keywords; Vaccine, Preparation, Patient and COVID-19 virus

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1. University Institute of Biochemistry and Biotechnology PMAS- Arid Agriculture University Rawalpindi

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INTRODUCTION

The health of a country's population has an impact on its economic progress. Capital, health, and education are among the most important variables in a country's development. Investments in the domains of health and education would hasten economic development (Ahmad,2021). Individuals' contributions to production and growth will increase if they are healthy. Our way of life has come to an almost complete halt as a result of the global coronavirus epidemic, which has already inflicted immeasurable devastation and sorrow. In every corner of the globe; ; the pandemic's economic and sociological consequences will be severe and long-lasting. The pandemic has revealed that progress made in addressing poverty, hunger, good health, and well-being may be compromised unless the international community addresses global environmental threats that have the same potential to seriously undermine the systems that allow humanity and the planet to survive and thrive(Bakarey, 2021). Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, many of us are remaining at home and engaging in less social engagements. (Fedson, 2005)

Developmental economics

Vaccine development and production are both costly and susceptible to commercial failure. Many vaccine-preventable diseases, such as HIV, malaria, and tuberculosis, are primarily found in underdeveloped countries. Pharmaceutical and biotechnology firms have little incentive to develop vaccines for these diseases since the revenue potential is so small (Fig 1). Even in more wealthy nations, financial benefits are typically limited, and financial and other risks are considerable. Most vaccine development has thus far relied on government, university, and non-profit "push" funding. Many vaccines have been demonstrated to be both cost-effective and beneficial to public health in general. A number of smaller groups work on vaccine research and development(Ahmad, 2021).

An oligopoly of major producers provides vaccines on a vast scale. No health expert would publicly criticize drug corporations at this critical point with coronavirus, but many privately grumble that pharm is a significant roadblock in creating lifesaving vaccinations.Supply shortages and high healthcare costs connected with paying employees to hunt for difficult-to-find medications have also emerged from the concentration and monopolisation of medication manufacture.(Bilal and Iqbal, 2020)By 2010, five multinationals, GlaxoSmithKline,

SanofiPasteur, Pfizer, Merck, and Novartis, controlled 80 percent of the worldwide vaccine market: GlaxoSmithKline, SanofiPasteur, Pfizer, Merck, and Novartis. Vaccine development is not a priority for Novartis. The oligopoly's longevity is aided by patents on critical production processes.(Weniger *et al*., 1999)

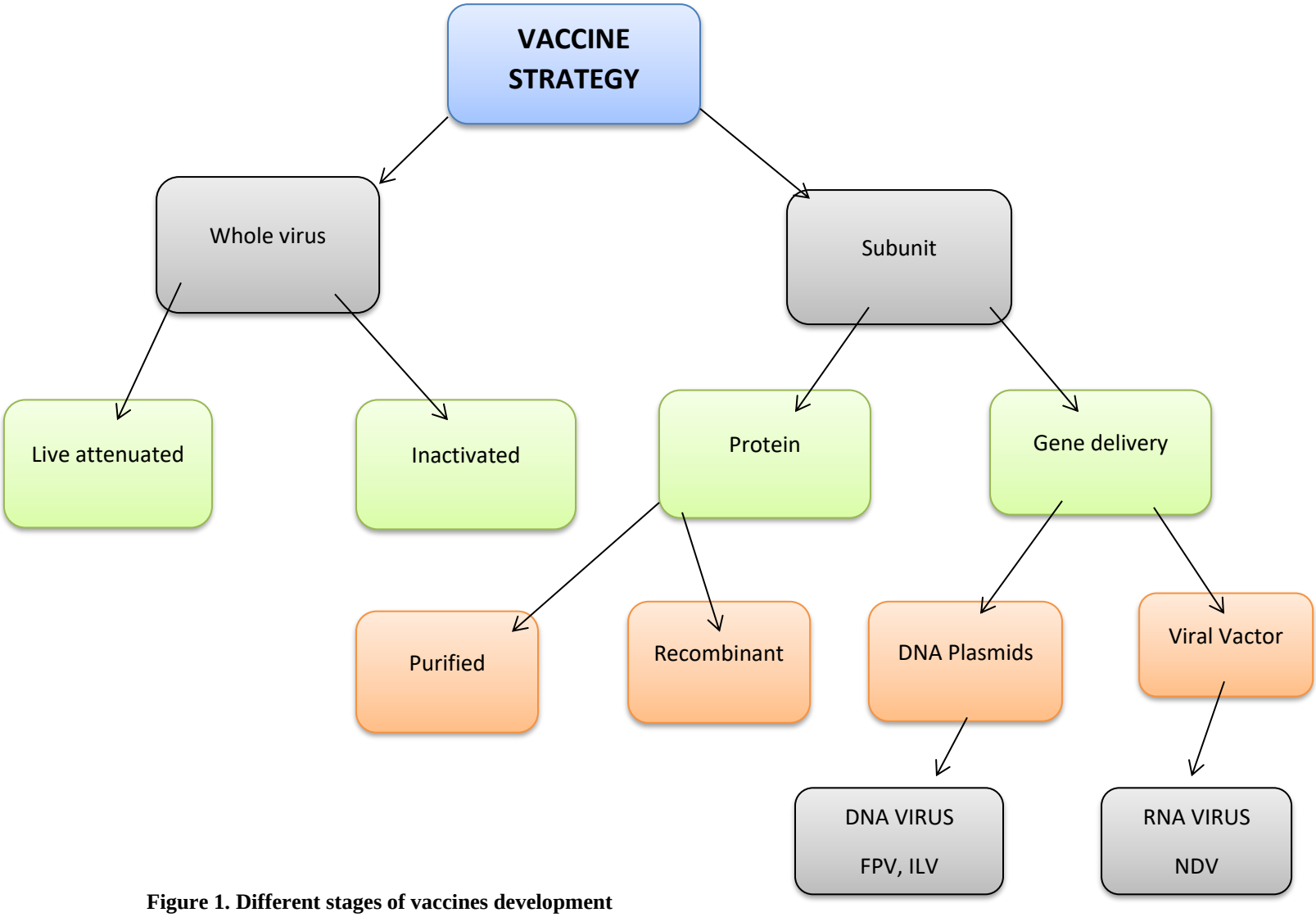

Figure 1. Different stages of vaccines development

Market incentives

Pharmaceutical firms have no financial incentive to test vaccines that benefit primarily the poor. Vaccines made for affluent countries may have short expiration dates and require refrigeration until they are delivered and given in several doses, which may be difficult to do in remote areas. In other cases, the vaccination has never been tested to check if it still works if the criteria aren't satisfied (for example, if it keeps its potency for several days without being refrigerated). Pharmaceuticals, including vaccines, are almost always developed using public funding, but profits, price, and availability control are legally handed to pharmaceutical companies. (Diane*et al*.,2017).Large pharmaceutical firms spend the majority of their income on dividends and stock buybacks, which increase CEO compensation, as well as lobbying and advertising. Investing in the Rand D at a low rate is regularly marketed as an inducement to investors. Rather of being created in-house, innovation is usually purchased along with the small businesses that created it.(Hilleman, 2020) The pharmaceutical industry's financialization focus, particularly in the United States, has been highlighted as a barrier to innovation. With accepting donations of generally unaffordable vaccine, there have been ethical concerns highlighted.(Oyarzún and Kobe, 2016)

NEW VACCINE CONCEPTS

Particles that look like viruses

VLPs (viral like particles) are recurring structures with a high density of viral capsid proteins that are well structured. Because of the high concentration of capsid proteins, there are many conformational viral epitopes, which can elicit strong immune responses. VLPs are formed by the self-assembly of viral capsid proteins in the absence of any infectious nucleic acids from the virus. They may be a safer alternative to the attenuated viruses commonly used for immunisation due to their full inability to replicate.(Dongarwar and Hamisu, 2021).VLPs have been shown to elicit strong immune responses even in the absence of an adjuvant. The virion's structural proteins are frequently arranged in a compact, well-ordered form that is considered to be recognised as a PAMP. As a result, one way to enhance the immunogenicity of viral antigens is to distribute them in multimeric form and as virus-like particles (VLPs). VLPs produced from enveloped and non-enveloped viruses can be used to immunise against the same virus or can be modified to incorporate epitopes from another pathogen. VLPs are regarded highly safe because

they do not contain any genetic material and have a higher immunogenicity.Recombinant viruses have been used as vectors for protein production and vaccination for decades. The list of viral families being studied as vaccination vectors is simply too extensive to list here, and the topic has recently been explored elsewhere. Viruses can be changed to enhance their safety and immunogenicity by eliminating virulence factors, switching envelope proteins to change tropism, and removing non-essential genes to increase coding capacity. The antigen is formed in the setting of a genuine viral infection, which induces innate immune responses that are required for the full development of adaptive humoral and T cell immunity.(Koirala*et al*., 2020).Potential disadvantages include competition with the vector's immune-dominant antigens or loss of efficacy in the face of pre-existing immunity to the vector. Although it is not required for cell culture replication, the non-structural protein NSs is a crucial virulence factor that governs the host's immune response. By applying reverse genetics to attenuated strains and proving safety and immunogenicity in mice and lambs, several organisations have created viruses that lack NSs.(Oyarzún and Kobe, 2016)

Recombinant proteins and synthetic peptides

Using recombinant methods or chemical synthesis to deliver a viral antigen is a safe strategy to elicit immune responses.Recombinant protein vaccines can have other benefits in addition to safety: First, manufacturing does not need pathogen manipulation, which eliminates the possibility of inadvertent escape as well as the challenges of bio-safety and bio-containment. Second, even with minimal information about the disease, vaccine candidates can be developed. Third, subunit vaccines can be used to bypass the immune system's natural predilection for highly variable epitopes and direct immune responses to conserved, broadly protective epitopes. Fourth, because particular antigens elicit responses distinct from those evoked by natural infection, these vaccination methods might be used as DIVA (Differentiating Infected from Vaccinated Animals) vaccines with a serological test to distinguish infected from vaccinated animals. (Leroux-Roels*et al*., 2011)The fundamental problem of subunit vaccines is that they are frequently poor immunogens because they do not detect Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns (PAMPs) and so do not trigger innate immune responses, which are required for the full development of acquired immunity. They must be administered in an immunogenic form and/or

be accompanied with a potent agonist to increase immune responses to conserved epitopes.(Wallis *et al*., 2019)

Nucleic acid vaccines

DNA vaccines provide a number of advantages for vaccines against novel viruses: plasmids expressing a viral antigen may be produced fast, even if only a portion of the pathogen's sequence is known. When antigen is generated in vivo, it triggers both humoral and cell-mediated immune responses. DNA vaccines are more stable than other types of vaccines and can be produced in big quantities in a short amount of time at a cheaper cost, both of which are crucial characteristics for a vaccine that must be used in remote locations. DNA vaccines are also considered to be highly safe, perfect for DIVA applications, and immune to anti-vector immunity. (Maiyegun*et al*., 2021)The major barrier to the development of DNA vaccines is their low immunogenicity. DNA vaccines are frequently used in combination with other immunisation platforms in prime-boost methods. Replicon vaccines are made up of defective RNA genomes that are capable of replicating and expressing encoded proteins but not of forming infectious virus particles. Antigen-specific humoral and cellular immune responses can be induced by using these plasmids to encode a viral antigen. These discoveries spurred a flurry of research into DNA-based vaccines for a number of illnesses, including influenza, HIV, and the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCM).RNA-based vaccines have gained popularity in recent years due to the limitations of DNA vectors. They are inexpensive and can be mass-produced fast, much like DNA-based vaccines.(Oyarzun and Kobe, 2016; Leitner,2020)

However, RNA's fragility and poor in vivo dispersion have historically restricted its application. Several structural modification methods have been utilised to increase the intracellular stability of RNA molecules. Because RNA, unlike DNA, does not require targeting to and entrance into the nucleus, cell entry is the most significant barrier that RNA vaccines must overcome. This can be addressed by including polycationic carrier molecules into the formulation, which can condense and protect the RNA while also allowing its fast absorption by cells.(May,2005).

Conjugate vaccines

Antigens, both polysaccharide and protein-based, are found in vaccines containing live, attenuated, or inactivated pathogens. It's possible, though, that just a few number of them are

required to elicit protective immunity. This logic has been extended to proteins by the realisation that each protein contains hundreds of possible immunogenic epitopes, not all of which are necessary. (May, 2005)As a result, peptide-based vaccinations have aroused attention. Antigenic epitopes on a protein, on the other hand, are more than just a string of amino acids since the peptides used must mimic the structure of the immunogenic epitope in the native protein. For identifying and mapping the conformation of immunogenic epitopes inside proteins, computational modelling has shown to be a valuable technique. Because peptide or polysaccharide-based vaccines are less immunogenic than those present on the surface of a pathogen, they must be given with an adjuvant. (Sing *et al*.,2021)Another method is to conjugate the antigen to a second 'helper' protein or polysaccharide that has been proven to increase immunogenicity; however, the immune response may be misdirected to the helper molecule. To get around this problem, some people use carrier systems like liposomes to separate the target and helper parts of the vaccination, or they use precise matching and orientation of the target and helper sections of the vaccine.(Metz*et al*., 2009).

Cellular vaccines

Due to the history of success of vaccination using live attenuated viruses, inactivated viruses, or bacteria, attempts to adopt a similar methodology to vaccine against cancer were undertaken. Attenuated tumour cells have been provided to induce an immune response against particular kinds of tumors. Whole cell vaccines have been utilised in two ways: autologous and allogeneic. Autologous cell vaccines have been investigated in cancers such as lung, colorectal, melanoma, kidney, and prostate cancer. Autologous cell vaccines, on the other hand, are limited to a few types and stages of cancer due to the need to prepare a large portion of the patient's tumours.(Sorochi*et al*., 2021).To increase immune activation, several whole cell vaccines have been genetically designed to stimulate the production of cytokines, chemokines, and co-stimulatory molecules. The patient's own immune cells, especially dendritic cells, are used in another kind of cellular vaccination. Tumor-associated antigens or nuclei are loaded into a patient's autologous dendritic cells while they are being treated with immunoadjuvants to create dendritic cell vaccines. Dendritic cell vaccines have been tried in clinical trials against prostate, melanoma, kidney, and glioma cancers.This vaccination regimen involves the collection of the patient's peripheral blood mononuclear cells, as well as cell culture processing and reinfusion,

which are both time-consuming and expensive operations. While these cell-based methods are fascinating, they do not appear to contribute to the shift away from live and attenuated vaccines toward vaccines with reduced complexity and manufacturing costs that are better suited to treating large populations while lowering health-care costs.(Oyarzún and Kobe, 2016)

Recombinant bacteria as vaccine vectors

In addition to being commonly utilised to make recombinant subunit vaccines, bacteria can be used as vectors for in vivo delivery of antigens or DNA. This platform's potential benefits include cheap cost and simplicity of scaling-up manufacturing, the availability of well-characterized attenuated strains, the vector's stimulation of innate immunity, and effective transport to antigen-presenting cells.Listeria, Salmonella, Lactococcus, and Bordetella are among the genera being investigated as vaccine vectors. Recombinant bacteria can be utilized as live vaccines, inactivated germs, or even bacterial ghosts with no cytoplasm. In mice, recombinant Lactococcuslacti expressing the SARS-coronavirus N protein has been demonstrated to produce antibodies.(Wallis *et al*., 2019)

Vaccines against Bioterrorism

The potential use of biological organisms as weapons of war or vehicles for terrorism has piqued the curiosity of both the lay and scientific press in recent months. Movies like Outbreak, famous books like The Cobra Event and The Eleventh Plague, and numerous press accounts of groups like the Aum Shinrikyo cult in Japan have raised public awareness of the threat posed by biological agents used for nefarious purposes. Military and civilian law enforcement organizations have begun training crisis-response teams in order to prepare for biological disasters. The possibility of a biological attack is now frequently considered in "war-gaming" exercises and counter-terrorism planning by agencies such as the Department of Defense (DoD), the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), and others. Despite our best efforts and diplomatic precautions, the risk of biological agents being utilized in warfare or terrorism looks to be very significant. The relatively low level of technological skill and cost necessary to manufacture a biological weapon compared to other weapons of mass destruction are among the reasons for this such as hemical and nuclear arms. With this in mind, it appears unlikely that enhanced awareness, advanced surveillance and speedy crisis response will completely prevent

all biological aggression attempts(Wirsity*et al*., 2021). As a result, vaccines will likely continue to be one of the greatest defenses, especially in a military setting, and this will necessitate the development of new and improved vaccines and therapies against the relatively small number of effective biological warfare agents. Although civilian planners are unlikely to use such vaccines in the near future, they may explore vaccination as a consequence management strategy following a biological terrorist attack on civilians in select instances.(Hilleman, 2002)

Biological warfare agents are classified in three ways: (1) operationally, as lethal or incapacitating agents with or without secondary transmission potential; (2) by intended target, as antipersonnel, antianimal, antiplant, or antimateriel; and (3) by type, as replicating pathogens, toxins, or bio modulators.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Different information accessible for clinically developing vaccines, their effects on the human body, and their market values has been compiled into a single text for readers' instant awareness. A vaccine takes an average of 12-36 months to make before it is ready for distribution. Vaccines are complex biological products that take a long time to manufacture and test. Successful manufacturing of high-quality vaccines necessitates international standardization of starting materials, production and quality control testing, and the establishment of high expectations for regulatory oversight of the entire manufacturing process from beginning to end, all while acknowledging that this field is still in its infancy. All components, manufacturing processes, testing methods, reagents, and standards must adhere to the Good Manufacturing Practices guidelines (GMP). To ensure vaccine identity, purity, sterility, efficacy, and safety, these stringent quality standards include ad hoc pharmaceutical quality systems, quality assurance measures and processes, numerous quality controls at each stage, and a suitable infrastructure and activity separation. Production lead times for complex multivalent vaccinations might exceed 36 months. Two of the six vaccines are now being tested in humans (Yang *et al*.,2016). Five are created by infecting human fetal cells (factories) with adenoviruses that carry genes from SARS-CoV-2, the virus that causes COVID-19. The sixth vaccine, which could enter human trials this summer, is a protein subunit vaccine.(Bilal and Iqbal, 2020).

Different stages of Vaccine development

Vaccines development

Vaccine development is the process of taking a new antigen or immunogenic found during the research phase and turning it into a finished vaccine that can be tested in preclinical and clinical studies to establish the vaccine's safety and efficacy.

The stages of a vaccine's development are as follows:

Exploratory stage

Basic lab research and the identification of natural or synthetic antigens, which alert the body to hazardous microorganisms, often lasts 2-4 years during the exploratory phase (Bollmann). If the vaccine proves to be effective in the exploratory phase, it will be tested on animals.

Human clinical trials are divided into three phases: phase I, phase II, and phase III, with official regulatory approval necessary in some countries for any of these studies.

Pre-clinical stage

A medication candidate may also be examined in lab animals at this stage before going on to Phase I trials. Vaccines like the oral polio vaccine were first tested for adverse effects and immunogenicity in monkeys, non-human primates, and lab mice. Before a vaccine is approved, it must undergo a clinical study to establish its safety and efficacy. High throughput screening and identification of the right antigen to trigger an immunological response may be included in preclinical investigations of vaccine candidate medicines.

Clinical development

Clinical development is divided into three stages. Small groups of people are given the experimental vaccine during Phase I. The clinical research is expanded in Phase II, and the vaccine is given to persons who have characteristics (such as age and physical health) that are similar to those who will benefit from the new vaccine (Fig 2). Thousands of people are given the vaccine in Phase III, and it is examined for efficacy and safety. After a vaccine is approved and licensed, it is subjected to Phase IV formal, ongoing trials.In order to evaluate the vaccine candidate's safety, the Phase I research entails introducing it to healthy persons. In order to

evaluate the vaccine candidate's safety, the Phase I research entails introducing it to healthy persons. Healthy volunteers are enrolled in a Phase I immunization trial and are given either the candidate vaccine, a "control" therapy (such as a placebo or an adjuvant-containing cocktail), or a proven vaccine (which might be intended to protect against a different pathogen). The major goal of the test is to look for signs of safety (no adverse events) and evidence of an immunological response.(Leroux-Roels *et al*., 2011)

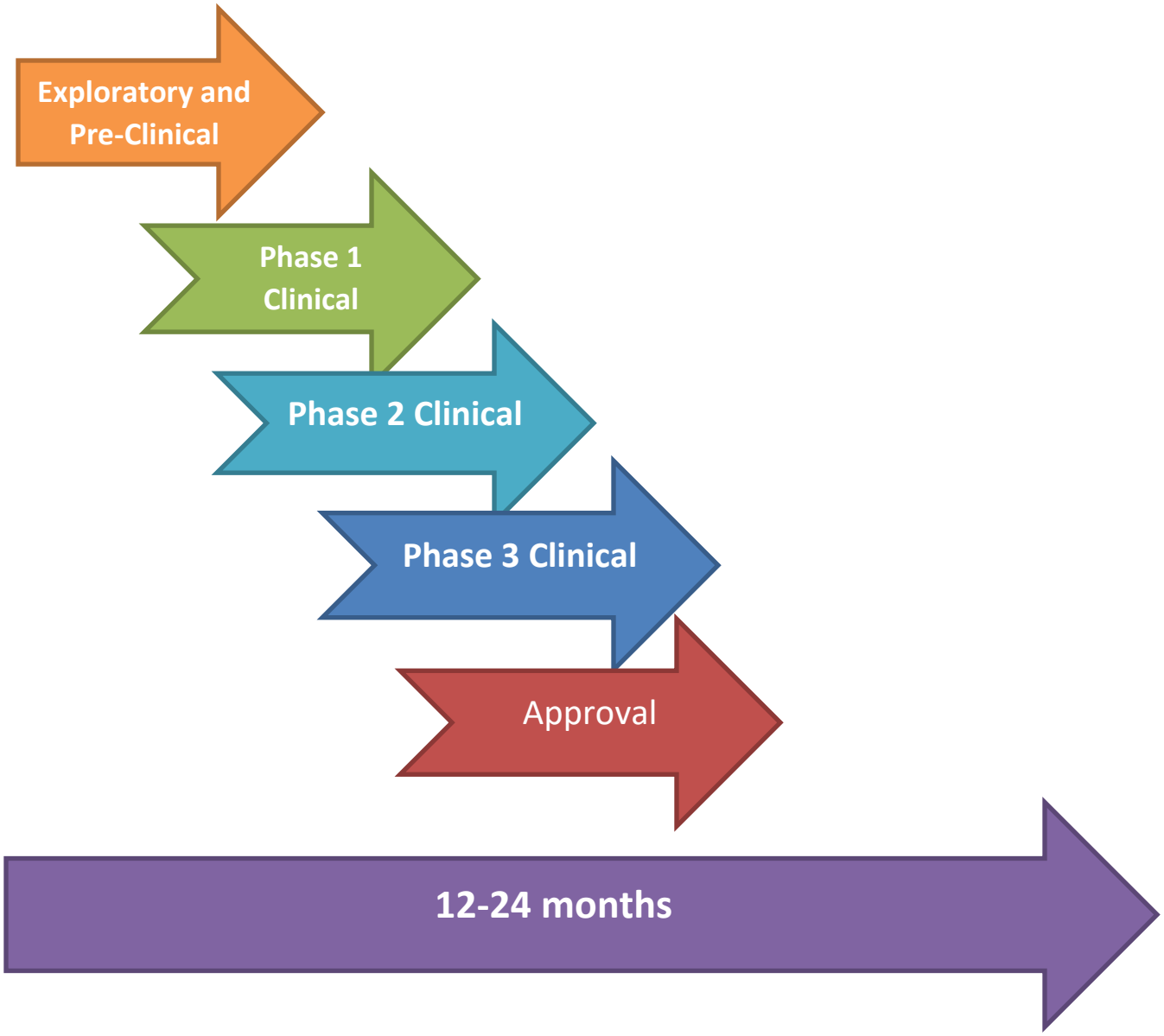

Figure 2. Clincal trial of vaccines

Regulatory review and approval

Nearly every stage of vaccine development, manufacture, and marketing clearance involves regulatory difficulties. Regulations apply from the time a vaccine is designed and clinically tested, through manufacture, and distribution to the general public (May, 2005).

Manufacturing

Vaccine production is a lengthy process. Vaccines take anything from 7 to 36 months to manufacture, package, and deliver to those in need. It entails testing each batch of vaccination at each stage of its trip, as well as repeated quality monitoring of batches by various authorities throughout the world (Lerous-Roels*et al*.,2011)

Quality control

Vaccine quality control used to rely on a range of testing procedures to guarantee that the products were safe and effective. These techniques were created for vaccines whose safety and efficacy were determined after years of research. However, as vaccine manufacturing technology has advanced. Tests can now detect potential risks with a sensitivity that wasn't conceivable just a few years ago, and a growing number of physicochemical approaches allows for considerably improved product characterization. Vaccine regulation includes a number of different measures in addition to sophisticated tests to verify safety. These include supplier audits for characterization of starting materials, cell banking, seed lot systems, adherence to GMP principles, independent release of vaccines on a lot-by-lot basis by national regulatory authorities, and enhanced pre- and post-marketing surveillance for possible adverse events after immunization.(Metz *et al*., 2009)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Successful vaccine manufacturing necessitates international standardization of starting materials, production and quality control testing, and the establishment of high expectations for regulatory oversight of the entire manufacturing process from start to finish, all while acknowledging that this field is constantly changing. 1. All components, production processes, testing methods, reagents, and standards must adhere to the Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP). Pharmaceutical quality systems, quality assurance techniques and processes, multiple quality

controls at each level give guarantee vaccine identity, purity, sterility, efficacy and safety, and suitable infrastructure are all part of these stringent quality criteria (Sorochi*et al*.,2021)

- The vaccine's efficacy or performance is determined by a number of factors, including the disease itself (for some diseases vaccination performs better than for others)
- The vaccination strain (some vaccines are specific to, or at least most effective against, particular strains of the disease)
- Whether the immunization schedule was followed correctly.
- A person's unique reaction to vaccination; some people are "non-responders" to specific vaccines, meaning they do not produce antibodies even after being properly vaccinated.
- Ethnicity, age, or genetic susceptibility, to name a few.

The following are important factors to consider when determining the efficacy of a vaccination programmer:

1. Carefulmodeling to predict the impact of an immunization campaign on disease epidemiology in the medium to long term
2. Ongoing surveillance for the relevant disease following the introduction of a new vaccine
3. Maintaining high immunization rates, even when a disease has become rare.

Vaccines for more than 20 life-threatening diseases are now available, allowing individuals of all ages to enjoy longer, healthier lives. Every year, vaccines prevent 2-4 million deaths from diseases such as diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis, influenza, and measles. Immunization is an indisputable human right and an important component of primary health care. It's also one of the most cost-effective health investments available. Vaccines are also important for preventing and controlling infectious disease outbreaks. They are essential in the fight against antimicrobial resistance and support global health security(Wirsiy*et al.*,2021). Despite significant advances, far too many people around the world – including approximately 20 million infants each year – lack adequate immunization access. Progress has slowed or even reversed in some nations, and there is a serious danger that complacency will destroy previous successes (Wallis*et al*.,2019)

Vaccines contain pure materials obtained from dead or inactivated organisms. Vaccines come in a variety of shapes and sizes. These are many approaches of reducing the risk of sickness while maintaining the ability to elicit a positive immunological response.Monovalent (also known as

univalent) and multivalent (also known as multivalent) vaccines are available (also called polyvalent). A monovalent vaccine is intended to protect against a single antigen or microbe. A multivalent or polyvalent vaccine protects against two or more strains of the same microbe, or two or more germs altogether.A multivalent vaccine's valiancy might be indicated by a Greek or Latin prefix (e.g., tetravalent or quadrivalent). In rare cases, a monovalent vaccination may be useful for inducing a strong immune response fast. When two or more vaccinations are mixed in the same formulation, it's possible that they'll create problems.(Sing*et al*.,2021)This is especially frequent with live attenuated vaccines, when one vaccine component is more strong than the others, limiting the growth and immune response to the others. The number of serotype 2 viruses in the trivalent Sabin polio vaccine has to be reduced to avoid interfering with the "take" of the serotype 1 and 3 viruses. Current dengue vaccines, in which the DEN-3 serotype predominates and inhibits the response to the DEN-1, 2, and 4 serotypes, have been discovered to have this issue.People who have had a severe reaction to adsorbed tetanus toxoid may be given the basic vaccination instead when it's time for a booster.(Yang *et al*., 2016)

Preservatives may be added to vaccines to avoid contamination by bacteria or fungi.
Preservatives may be utilized at many phases of vaccine manufacture, and the most advanced measurement methods may identify residues of them in the completed product, just as they may in the environment.

In addition to the active vaccine, the following excipients and residual production chemicals are included or may be present in vaccine formulations:

- Adjuvants are employed, such as aluminum salts or gels.
- Adjuvants are included to vaccines to stimulate a faster, more powerful, and longer-lasting immune response, allowing for a lower vaccination dose.
- Antibiotics are used in certain vaccinations to prevent bacteria from growing during manufacturing and storage.
- Because influenza and yellow fever vaccinations are made from chicken eggs, they include egg protein. Other proteins might be present as well.
- Toxoid vaccinations utilize formaldehyde to inactivate bacterial products.
- Stabilizers like monosodium glutamate (MSG) and 2-phenoxyethanol are used in a few vaccines to keep them stable whether they're exposed to heat, light, acidity, or humidity.

- Thiomersal is a mercury-based antibiotic that is added to multidoseimmunisation vials to prevent contamination and the growth of potentially harmful pathogens.

Epidemic response

In the past, pharmaceutical firms' commercial dominance has caused epidemic solutions to be delayed. As a prerequisite of manufacturing vaccines, manufacturers have successfully negotiated favorable arrangements with governments, including market assurances and indemnity(Maiyegun*et al*., 2021). This has resulted in months of delay in certain epidemic responses and the complete absence of reactions in other pandemics. Some intellectual property problems, such as in the instance of rVSV-ZEBOV, also impede vaccine research for epidemic preparation.

Demand

Vaccines make up just 2% to 3% of the worldwide pharmaceutical business, but they are growing at a pace of 10-15% each year, far faster than other medications (as of 2010). Vaccine demand is increasing in emerging nations, due in part to international vaccine funders (UNICEF purchased half of all vaccine doses worldwide in 2012). Vaccines are becoming the financial engine of the pharmaceutical industry, and new business models may develop as a result. Vaccines are being sold in the same manner as pharmaceuticals.Vaccines give public-private partnerships, governments, and philanthropic donors and foundations new financial opportunities (such as GAVI and CEPI). Thanks to philanthropic funding, vaccines are now being pushed out to large emerging markets less than 10 or 20 years after they are developed, and for the duration of the patent owner's patent validity term.**(**Hilleman, 2020; Koirala et al.,2021**).** Vaccinations that are newer are much more costly than previous vaccines. Vaccines are becoming more profitable in lower-income nations. The financial component of vaccine development is one of the most difficult aspects: Many vaccine-preventable diseases, such as HIV, malaria, and tuberculosis, are primarily found in underdeveloped countries. Pharmaceutical and biotechnology firms have little incentive to develop vaccines for these diseases since the revenue potential is so small.(Dongawar and Hamisu,2021).

Veterinary Vaccine

Animal vaccination is used to prevent illness in animals as well as disease transmission to humans. Both dogs and livestock are vaccinated on a regular basis. In certain situations, wild populations may be vaccinated. It has been used to decrease rabies in raccoons by spreading vaccine-laced food in disease-prone areas. In regions where rabies is present, rabies vaccination of dogs may be required by law. Vaccinations for dogs include canine distemper, canine parvovirus, infectious canine hepatitis, adenovirus-2, leptospirosis, bordatella, canine para influenza virus, and Lyme disease.Veterinary vaccines have been given to people, whether on purpose or by mistake, resulting in disease outbreaks, most notably brucellosis. However, such incidents are seldom recorded, and little study on the safety and effectiveness of such therapies has been conducted. Since the advent of aerosol vaccination in veterinary clinics for companion animals in recent years, human exposure to diseases that are not normally carried in humans, such as Bordetellabronchiseptica, has definitely increased. In certain cases, like as rabies, animal immunisation against a disease can be hundreds of times less expensive than human vaccination. (Bakarey,2021).

DIVA vaccines

Infected and vaccinated animals can be differentiated using DIVA (Differentiation of Infected from Vaccinated Animals) vaccines, also known as SIVA (Segregation of Infected from Vaccinated Animals). In the field, microorganisms contain at least one epitope fewer than DIVA vaccines. With the use of a diagnostic test that identifies antibodies against that epitope, we can make that distinction. J.T. van Oirschot and colleagues at the Lelystad-based Central Veterinary Institute, produced the first DIVA vaccinations (previously known as marker vaccines, and since 1999 known as DIVA vaccines) and companion diagnostic tests.They detected deletions in the viral genomes of some current pseudorabies (also known as Aujeszky's sickness) vaccines (among which was the gE gene). In the same vein, DIVA vaccines and diagnostic assays for bovine herpesvirus 1 infections have been created(Koirala*et al*., 2020). In a number of countries, the DIVA technique has successfully eradicated the pseudorabies virus. Swine populations were aggressively vaccinated and monitored using a companion diagnostic test, with unhealthy pigs being killed. The virus that infects cattle is known as bovine herpesvirus 1. Furthermore, DIVA vaccines are commonly used in clinical practise. The DIVA principle has been used to a number of infectious diseases, including classical swine fever, avian influenza,

Actinobacilluspleuropneumonia, and Salmonella infections in pigs, among others. (Sing *et al*.,2021; Wenige*et al.*,1999; Wirsiy*et al*.,2021).

CONCLUSION

Vaccines are an important part of the protective measures for uniformed military members. Licensed anthrax, smallpox, and plague immunizations are available. The Department of Defense recently initiated an anthrax immunisation campaign across the military, and other anti-biological warfare vaccines may be deployed in the future to protect soldiers, sailors, airmen, and marines. Finally, vaccines against other biological agents, as well as improved vaccines against the agents mentioned above, are at various stages of research. Because the nature of the threat is less explicitly defined, using these immunizations in a civilian setting is more problematic.Vaccines for anthrax and smallpox, for example, may be effective in the post-exposure prophylaxis and management of exposed civilian populations. It can be difficult to develop vaccines for developing infectious diseases. Several recently established vaccination approaches can exactly address these difficulties. Subunit vaccinations, which only contain a fraction of the pathogen's antigens, can produce different protective responses than afflicted animals.Because they contain no infectious disease, there are no severe bio-safety measures, no risk of unintended escape during production, no residual pathogenicity, and no reversion. Using well-defined vaccination platforms with a lengthy track record of safety and efficacy against similar diseases can assist speed up vaccine development for novel and potentially emerging viruses. Each vaccination platform offers advantages and disadvantages that are mostly related to the balance of safety and immunogenicity, as well as the ability to be used multiple times. In order to improve vaccination approaches' safety and immunological qualities

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