

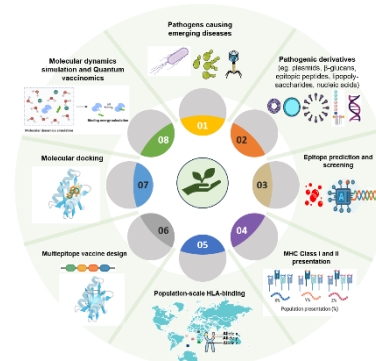
Eco-Friendly Sustainable Vaccine Designing Technology Aiding Personalised Immunotherapy

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Abstract: With the rise of pandemic and endemic cases in recent years, vaccination has been prioritised along with prophylactic therapies. The development of a vaccine candidate sometimes requires lengthy timelines of research and resources. Apart from the unpredictable side effects experienced by individuals, most of the vaccination efforts suffer from population coverage and serotype specificity. Also, lots of euthanised mammals are required for evaluating lethal doses and pharmacokinetic parameters. Worldwide genetic diversity for various human leukocyte antigens (HLAs) or alleles is one of the reasons for zone-specific clinical trials. In these cases, rigorous studies with healthy subjects are required to report statistically reasonable data. In the era of reverse vaccinology, it is now possible to predict immunoproteasomal cleavages of an antigen (upon cellular uptake) and possible nonamers produced from it. These nonamers can be identified for their allergenic, pro-inflammatory characteristics utilising machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) algorithms, integrating AI (Artificial Neural Network) driven epitope prediction with HLA-specific binding analyses. These computational tools reduce reliance on animal trials by simulating epitope interactions *in-silico*, addressing sustainable goals in peptide vaccine development for global populations. This review aims to summarise a computational workflow that can lead to an antigenic peptide as a protective immunogen in individuals.



Keywords: Sustainable vaccine development, quantum vaccinology, personalised vaccine

Contents

Biographical Information	93
1. Introduction	93
2. Computational screening of B cell and HLA-specific T cell epitopes	94
2.1 Antigenicity, allergenicity and toxicity profiling	95
3. Structural biology aiding sustainable approach for vaccine design	95
3.1 Three-dimensional (3D) structure prediction of protein and peptide	95
3.2 Molecular docking	95
3.3 Molecular dynamics simulation	96
4. Personalized edible vaccine	97
5. Limitations & future directions	97
6. Conclusion	98
Author Contribution Declaration	98
Data Availability Declaration	98
Declaration of Conflicts of Interest	98
Acknowledgements	98
References	98

1. Introduction

Enormous shifts in the pathogenic genomes have suppressed the idea of conventional vaccine therapeutics, especially inactivated whole-cell candidates.¹⁻³ While mRNA platform,⁴⁻⁵ viral vectors and recombinant protein vaccines are intended to address some technological drawbacks.⁶⁻⁷ Also, conventional vaccines are mostly targeted at infants for long-lasting immunity.⁸⁻⁹ Since clinicians would mainly refuse to add more events for infants with hectic immunisation schedules, a recently discovered vaccine candidate for an unresolved health issue may not receive the required recognition.¹⁰⁻¹² Recent studies have hypothesised that childhood cancers and rare leukaemia cases are related to vaccination.¹³⁻¹⁵ To agree with these consequences, a new branch of study termed "Adversomics" has surfaced, where the side effects of vaccinations are discussed. International Network of Special

Immunisation Services (INSIS) is a global network established to record rare adverse events of special interest (AESIs) upon COVID-19 vaccination based on the adversomics approach.¹⁶ AE-GPT is another surveillance tool built with large language models (LLMs) to identify influenza vaccine adverse effects.¹⁷

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As a sustainable goal towards more reasonable vaccine development, immunogenic,¹⁸⁻¹⁹ non-allergic,²⁰⁻²² and non-toxic²³⁻²⁴ epitopes can be screened from targeted antigens utilising an ML/DL approach.²⁵⁻²⁶ Sometimes these epitopes (mainly 9-mer) are profoundly screened targeting a population based on area, country or ethnicity.²⁷⁻³³ For investigating immunotherapeutic purposes, these peptides can be synthesised by a solid-phase approach.³⁴⁻³⁶

However, poor antigen presentation and peripheral metabolism of a peptide immediately clear it from the bloodstream, limiting its goal of long-lasting immunity.^{5,37} Though these methods primitively solve personalised immunisation purposes, the derived peptides (protease-resistant) can be linked with one another (by linkers) to obtain a small protein or peptide encoding a multi-epitope vaccine with a better half-life.³⁸⁻³⁹ Proper selection of the linker residues aids in proteasomal and immunoproteasome cleavage of the designed antigenic macromolecule and targeted antibody generation.⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴ Peptide vaccine against HIV-HPV cross-protection (COVENANT) is in Phase 3 clinical trial [NCT03284866], currently being investigated in South Africa. Approximately 227 peptide vaccines against cancer, TB, HIV, HBV, HCV, HPV, CMV, multiple sclerosis, COVID-19, malaria, influenza, diabetes, Myasthenia gravis, Streptococcal infection, and Alzheimer's disease are in Phase 2 clinical trial.⁴⁵ A proposed multi-epitope vaccine, GroEL, is another example that shows efficient cross-protection against *S. Typhimurium*, *S. flexneri*, and *S. dysenteriae*.⁴⁶ Around 16 such multi-epitope peptide vaccines are reported to be in clinical-trial.⁴⁷ This approach can be further modified to target a worldwide population with multi-serotype, even multi-disease protection at one single shot, but long-term immunity may require multiple doses.⁴⁸⁻⁴⁹ While resolving the infectious disease, neo-antigenic epitopes are predicted in quite similar ways to fight against the deadliest cancer from earlier stages and have shown a clear horizon for producing personalised cancer vaccines.⁵⁰⁻⁵² Thus, a new peptide sequence with appropriate atomic coordination can be identified as an epitope, targeting newly diagnosed diseases and enhancing neutralising antibody generation.^{32,53} As a limitation of the vaccine research, antibody-dependent enhancement (ADE) of the disease may be observed in a few cases.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵ Researchers have correlated the appearance of aflucosylated IgG antibodies and ADE events as major players limiting dengue vaccination.^{54,56-57} As a part of an eco-friendly, sustainable approach, before synthesising these candidates and directly targeting them to a living system, *in-vitro* quantification of protective immunogenicity is important.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ Before targeting peptides to animals for antibody generation, *in-silico* evaluation of peptide-MHC-TCR binding affinity seems essential for tailoring a vaccine model as a personalised immunotherapy.^{45,61-63} Here, a sequence-based multi-omics approach, along with structural biology, pave our path.^{59, 64} For proper generation of immunity, integration of a modelled antigen is important through PRRs (Pattern recognition receptors), as they are known for bridging between innate and humoral immune responses.⁶⁵ Here, the structural generation

of an agonist adjuvanted vaccine model, followed by molecular docking with a retrieved structure of any targeted PRRs (TLR,⁶⁶⁻⁶⁷ CLR,⁶⁸ RLR,⁶⁹⁻⁷⁰ NLR⁷¹), can help in deciphering probable binding mechanisms and immunological pathways expected after vaccination.^{47,72} Evaluating their binding energy can screen down these complexes for molecular dynamics analysis.⁷³ This is sometimes an expensive computational approach with the requirements of high-performance supercomputers.⁷⁴ Upgradation of quantum algorithms and software may improve the idea of "Quantum vaccinomics" study.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁶ To fulfil the sustainable goal, firstly, normal mode analysis (NMA) can be performed as a coarse-graining (CG) approach evaluating complex stability in a routine manner,⁷⁷ complexes can then be evaluated for all-atom molecular dynamics with better resolutions.⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰ This approach not only emerges quantum vaccinomics profiling of a vaccine candidate but also reduces the use of animals for antibody generation, primarily identifying and calibrating personalised vaccine targets *in-silico*.⁸⁰⁻⁸⁴

2. Computational screening of B cell and HLA-specific T cell epitopes

Lymphocytes, such as B cells and T cells, are integral parts of the adaptive immune system and are responsible for humoral and cell-mediated immunity.⁸⁵ B cells utilise B-cell receptors (BCRs) or surface-bound immunoglobulins to recognise solvent-exposed antigens, whereas T cells respond to peptide antigens presented on MHC class I and II molecules.⁸⁶ Immune cells do not recognise whole pathogens themselves but rather certain antigenic fragments known as epitopes.⁸⁷⁻⁸⁸ The epitopes are essential to trigger immune reactions.⁸⁹ Conventional experimental techniques to map epitopes, including ELISA, peptide libraries, and X-ray crystallography, are reagent-intensive, time-consuming and usually involve animal models and toxic reagents, posing ethical and environmental concerns.⁹⁰⁻⁹¹ To overcome these constraints, the discipline has moved toward computational epitope prediction through tools. Computational screening of HLA-specific T cell and B cell epitopes is a cornerstone in the design



Figure 1: Population-specific screening of pathogenic patterns as epitopes can screen down personalised immunogenic peptides for neutralising antibody generation.

Table 1. List of tools for B cell and both T cell epitope prediction.

Method	Tool	Algorithm/Method	Reference
Linear B cell epitope prediction	BepiPred	Hidden Markov Model + propensity scale	104
	ABCPred	Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	105
	LBtope	Support Vector Machine (SVM)-based model	106
	EpiDope	Deep Neural Network	107
	BCPREDS	SVM based classifiers	108
	DiscoTope	Structural features + surface accessibility	109
Conformational B cell epitope	ElliPro	Geometric ellipsoid protrusion + residue clustering	110
	BEpro	Surface exposure + neighbouring residue info	111
	CEP	Spatial distance and accessible surface area	112
	SEPPA	Clustering of spatial neighbours + surface propensities	113
	IEDB	Consensus method combining SMM, ANN, and NetMHCpan	26
	EpiDOCK	Molecular docking with HLA molecules	114
T cell epitope prediction tools	PEPVAC	Matrix-based binding prediction	115
	EpiTOP	QSAR modelling + PLS regression	116
	MHCPred	Partial least squares (PLS), QSPR	117

of sustainable and personalized vaccines.⁹² The Human Leukocyte Antigen (HLA) complexes present protein targets of T cells as short linear epitopes on the cell surface (Figure 1 & 2). HLA class I molecules provide the epitopes of killer T cells, whereas HLA class II molecules present the epitopes of helper T cells.⁹³ Recently, IEDB (Immuno Epitope Database) is one of the well-cited platforms used for online epitope prediction.⁹⁴⁻¹⁰³ Lists of web servers useful for epitope predictions are mentioned in Table 1.

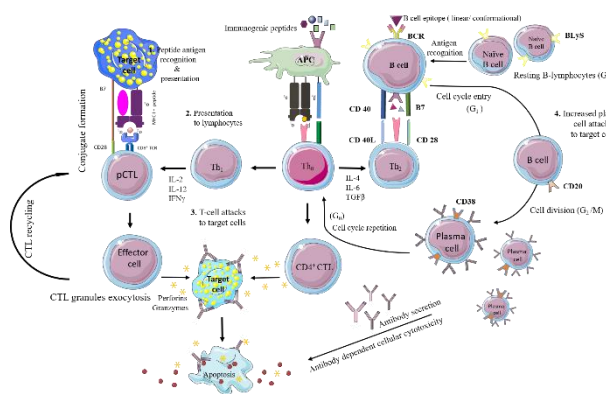


Figure 2: A diagrammatic representation of peptide antigen processing leads to the activation of adaptive immunity against targeted cells (Abbreviations on immune cells: pCTL: Precursor cytotoxic T lymphocyte, APC: Antigen-presenting cell, Th0: Naïve T Helper Cell, Th1: T Helper 1 cell, Th2: T Helper 2 cell, CD4⁺ CTL: CD4 positive Cytotoxic T Cell). Portions of this figure were also produced using Servier Medical Art (<https://smart.servier.com>). Servier Medical Art by Servier is licensed under a CC BY 4.0 Licence (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

2.1. Antigenicity, allergenicity and toxicity profiling

Initially, the protective immunogenicity of a protein or peptide sequence can be predicted through ANTIGENpro¹⁹ and VaxiJen 2.0¹¹⁸ web servers using machine learning (ML) and Autocross covariations (ACC), respectively.¹¹⁹ Safety profiling of these protective immunogenic sequences is also important.¹²⁰⁻¹²¹ Predictors of allergenicity like AllerTOP,¹²² AllerCatPro 2.0,¹²³ AlgPred,¹²⁴ and AllergenFP¹²⁵ predict whether peptides are allergenic or non-allergenic by applying machine learning and sequence descriptors.¹²⁶⁻¹²⁸ AllerTOP v2.0 utilises ACC transformation and k-nearest neighbours classifiers, and AlgPred uses support vector machine (SVM) methods.¹²⁹ Toxicity predictor tools such as ToxinPred¹³⁰⁻¹³¹ and ToxDL¹³² predict toxicity potential based on deep learning models, composition, and physicochemical properties. ToxinPred identifies sequence-based toxicity features with SVMs, while ToxDL identifies toxicity with deep neural networks. These predictive calculations reduce experimental expenses and ethical concerns while maximizing translational success rates.

3. Structural biology aiding sustainable approach for vaccine design

Structural biology enables sustainable vaccine design by precisely targeting conserved epitopes, enhancing thermostability, and streamlining development via computational modelling, reducing resource use and improving global health access.¹³³⁻¹³⁵

3.1. Three-dimensional (3D) structure prediction of protein and peptide

Structure prediction has been challenging in bioinformatics and structural biology (Figure 3). However, Deep learning (DL) models have proven to suggest nearly accurate protein structures. Recently, AlphaFold2¹³⁶ and ColabFold¹³⁷ have

highlighted atomic-level accuracy more than conventional modelling techniques in CASP competitions.¹³⁸ Various DL models discuss the significance of strategies in model generalization.¹³⁹⁻¹⁴⁰ Evaluation metrics include model quality assessment, like 3D-equivariant graph neural networks to help improve model quality.¹⁴¹ Context-specific alignment motifs like ProALIGN enhance alignment accuracy, which is crucial for predicted structures.¹⁴² Key parameters in 3D structure prediction depend heavily on specific input parameters and intermediate representations that guide computational models. First, multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) remain foundational.¹⁴³ Like, AlphaFold2's ability to refer to residue-residue contacts related to deep MSAs.¹³⁸ Similarly, the quality and depth of MSAs are directly correlated with the accuracy of predicted distance maps.¹⁴⁰ Structural templates are another factor; here, models incorporate high-confidence templates (taken from databases like PDB or preprocessed alignments) from solved structures to produce more reliable predictions in conserved protein families.^{139,141} Neural network topologies usually contain physical limitations like bond angles, torsion angles, and steric hindrances.¹⁴⁴ According to Leman and Künze (2023), these characteristics are especially crucial for NMR-driven modelling with ROSETTA, where precise sampling of the local and global conformation is required.¹⁴⁵ ROSETTA fold integrates NMR data with computational modelling, improving its predictive confidence score.¹⁴⁶ Model quality assessment (MQA) parameters, including predicted local distance difference test (pLDDT) and predicted aligned error (PAE), are crucial for model confidence as these parameters allow users to discriminate between high- and low-certainty regions in the final predicted structures.¹⁴⁷ Finally, geometric deep learning models rely on graph representations of molecular structures with node and edge features such as residue identity, bond distance, and orientation of 3D-equivariant neural networks, making the model's stability.¹⁴¹ PEPFOLD 4 is another tool solely dedicated to peptide structure prediction. It uses the *de-novo* structure prediction method and additionally considers the Debye-Hückel ionic contribution if needed. Making the prediction more realistic than the previous versions.¹⁴⁸⁻¹⁴⁹

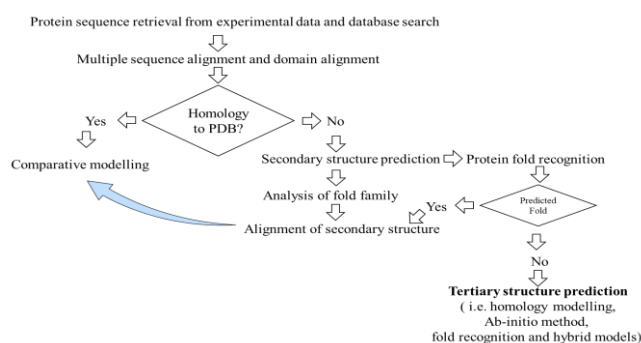


Figure 3: Critical assessment of structure prediction of protein.

3.2. Molecular docking

Molecular docking is a computational method that predicts an optimal peptide orientation in the MHC binding groove (Figure 4).¹⁵⁰ Computational methods like Rosetta FlexPepDock, and AutoDock tools provide nearly realistic modelling strategies for flexible peptide-MHC interactions.¹⁵¹⁻¹⁵⁴ Rosetta's scoring function evaluates peptide backends and side-chain positions, providing low-energy binding poses as probable candidates.¹⁵¹ Recent docking research shows a high correlation between experimentally measured peptide-MHC affinities and those calculated by docking procedures.¹⁵⁵ Application of flexible docking to peptides, such as

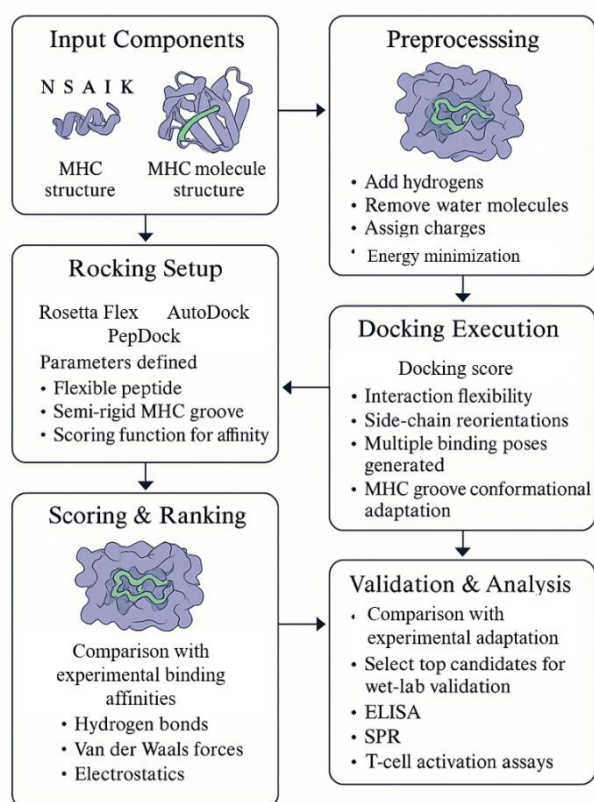


Figure 4: Molecular docking workflow.

in Rosetta FlexPepDock, is particularly relevant in view of the MHC groove plasticity.¹⁵⁶ Successful docking predictions enable candidates among peptides to be ranked for subsequent experimental validation, thereby optimising resource utilisation (Table 2).

Table 2. Molecular docking tools for performing protein-peptide docking.

Category	Tool	Input	Applications	References
Template based Docking	GalaxyPepDock	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Best when TM-score >0.7; tested on PepBind dataset	157
	PepComposer	Binding site information	Suitable for small peptides (tested on LEADS-PEP)	158
	InterPep2-Refined	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Slightly better than GalaxyPepDock	159
	HADDOCK	Protein structure + Peptide ensemble + Ambiguous site info	Suitable for ambiguous binding site info	160
	HPEPDOCK-local	Protein structure + Peptide ensemble + Binding site info	Higher success if the binding site known	161
	AutoDock Vina	Protein structure + Peptide sequence + Binding site coordinates	Best for short peptides (<5 residues)	153
Local Docking	DINC 2.0	Protein structure + Peptide conformation + Binding site info	Suitable for peptides up to 8 residues	162
	PepCrawler	Initial coarse structure of complex	Refinement tool for peptides <15 residues	163
	Rosetta FlexPepDock	Coarse peptide-protein complex	Refinement tool; best when initial RMSD <5 Å	164
	MDockPeP	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Suitable for peptides <15 residues	165
	MDockPeP2	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Peptides up to 29 residues	166
	pepATTRACT	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Small and large peptides	167
Global Docking	CABS-dock	Peptide sequence + protein structure	Best when peptide secondary structure known	168
	PIPER-	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Suitable for large peptides (>15 residues)	169
	FlexPepDock			
	AutoDock	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Suitable for large peptides (>15 residues)	170
	CrankPep			
	patchMAN	Protein structure + Peptide sequence	Outperforms AlphaFold in some datasets	171

3.3. Molecular dynamics simulation

3.3.1. Normal Mode Analysis

Normal Mode Analysis (NMA) is a powerful computational tool for studying protein flexibility (Figure 5).⁷⁷ This helps researchers uncover slow, large-scale motions that are often crucial for a protein's biological function. There are different ways to perform NMA, ranging from highly detailed (all-atom) models to simpler, more efficient methods like the Gaussian Network Model (GNM) and Anisotropic Network Model (ANM).¹⁷² Among these, the C α -based coarse-grained approach is particularly popular because it strikes a balance between accuracy and speed.¹⁷³ Focusing only on the alpha carbon atoms (the backbone's key points) simplifies the calculations while still capturing the most important large-scale movements of the protein (Table 3). This makes it a practical choice for studying big proteins or large molecular complexes without sacrificing essential insights.¹⁷⁴⁻¹⁷⁸

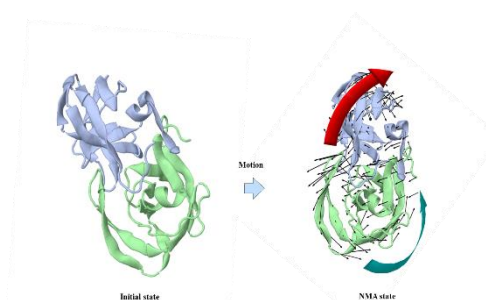


Figure 5: NMA display of HIV-1 Protease" ID ProteaseHIV on C-alpha based coarse-graining (CG) as the example provided by the Imods webserver (<https://imods.iqf.csic.es>)

3.3.2. All-atom molecular dynamics simulation

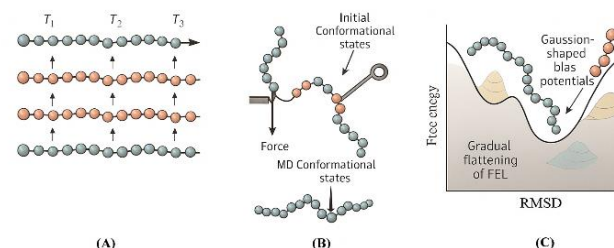


Figure 6: Different sampling techniques on all-atom molecular dynamics study: **(A)** Replica exchange MD: parallel simulations at different temperatures (or other thermodynamic parameters) at low conformational sampling to overcome energy barriers. i.e. Periodic exchange of conformations ($T_1 < T_2 < T_3 < T_4$). **(B)** Steered MD: a mechanical force is applied to a part of the molecule (e.g. ligand or domain) to induce a conformational change. **(C)** Metadynamics: a history-dependent biasing potential is aided along selected collective variables to accelerate escape from metastable states.

While docking provides static complexes, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations facilitate tracking of the temporal dynamics of peptide–MHC complexes.^{124,150} Computational packages like GROMACS, AMBER, and CHARMM facilitate an atomic investigation of peptide flexibility, hydrogen bonding interactions, solvent exposure, and conformational stability.¹⁸²⁻¹⁸⁴ Root mean square deviation (RMSD), root mean square fluctuation (RMSF), and radius of gyration (Rg) analyses supplement the outcomes of docking studies and identify stable binding conformations.¹⁸² Improved sampling techniques, including replica exchange molecular dynamics (REMD),¹⁸⁵ steered molecular dynamics (SMD)¹⁸⁶ and metadynamics,¹⁸⁷ enable crossing energy barriers and sampling of rare but biologically relevant peptide conformations (Figure 6). Free energy estimation techniques, including MM/PBSA and MM/GBSA, enable estimation of binding affinity and provide thermodynamic validation.¹⁸⁸ Molecular dynamics is therefore a bridge between computational prediction and biological paradigms.

4. Personalized edible vaccines

Edible vaccines are tools of sustainable and eco-friendly advancement in immunisation, utilising genetically modified plants to produce protective antigens that safely stimulate immune responses (Figure 7).¹⁸⁹ Crops like potatoes, bananas, lettuce, corn, soybeans, rice, and legumes contribute to a greener alternative in combating diseases such as cholera, hepatitis, measles, and diarrhoea.¹⁹⁰ This technology is currently being applied to design multi-epitope vaccines against viral disease and gastrointestinal infection.¹⁹¹⁻¹⁹² The mRNA vaccine delivery platform plays a critical role in the personalisation of edible vaccines, allowing for scalable antigen expression when introduced into plant chloroplasts, such as those of lettuce. Upon

ingestion, these vaccines trigger both mucosal and systemic immunity in mice.¹⁹³⁻¹⁹⁴ Additionally, microalgae like *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* are gaining recognition as efficient platforms for edible vaccine development for their fast biomass production and chloroplast-based protein expression capabilities.¹⁹⁵ As part of SARS-CoV-2 vaccine research, the TOMAVAC study demonstrates that tomatoes (genetically engineered) to express the SARS-CoV-2 S1 protein can safely induce systemic and mucosal immune responses in mice and humans.¹⁹⁶ Plant-derived vaccines also expressed reasonable efficacy in hepatocellular and prostate cancer therapeutics.¹⁹⁷⁻¹⁹⁸ As a part of the limitation, the production of edible vaccines faces several challenges, including regulatory uncertainties, scalability issues, dosage control, and potential consumer scepticism. Additionally, integration of biotechnology in food crops raises ethical and environmental concerns, potentially limiting public acceptance and widespread application.¹⁹⁹

5. Limitations & future directions

Personalised vaccines are a potential breakthrough due to the emergence of precision medicine, which depends on the availability of high-fidelity human genome sequences and objective biological data.^{64,200} Impactful genomic changes that drive human evolution, disease, and genetic diversity remain incompletely understood due to technical challenges, especially in repetitive regions.²⁰¹ Hyper-personalisation of a vaccine candidate mainly suffers from biased datasets,²⁰²⁻²⁰³ lack of personalisation markers^{64,204-205} and high-performance computational resources.²⁰⁶⁻²⁰⁸ Targeting Killer cell

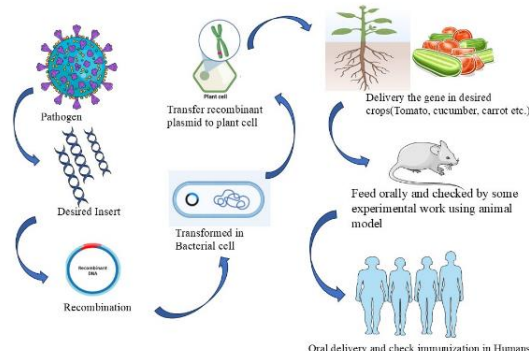


Figure 7: Diagrammatic representation for the applications of edible vaccines using genetically modified plants and algae.

immunoglobulin-like receptor (KIR) genes can be developed, which will revisit the allele selection and design of the vaccine peptide.²⁰⁹⁻²¹¹ However, targeting KIR genes for vaccination purposes would be critical due to the high sequence homology between activating and inhibitory receptors, necessitating

Table 4. Vaccine candidates in clinical trials developed using computational and AI-driven approaches.

Vaccine candidate	Developer	Clinical trial phase	Computational/AI Contribution	Reference
mRNA-1273 (Spikevax)	Moderna	Phase 4 (approved; post-marketing surveillance ongoing)	<i>In-silico</i> antigen design using prototype pathogen preparedness model; structure-based spike protein modelling	221
BNT162b2 (Comirnaty)	Pfizer-BioNTech	Phase 4 (approved; surveillance ongoing)	Bioinformatics-based mRNA optimization and epitope prediction; computational immune profiling	222
INO-4800	Inovio Pharmaceuticals	Phase 2/3	Designed using AI-based SynCon® platform for DNA vaccine antigen generation; CELLECTRA® delivery system optimized via computational modelling	223
UB-612	Vaxxinity	Phase 3 (as of 2023)	Epitope-based peptide design using structural modelling and AI-driven multi-epitope optimization	224
EpiVax's epitope-based vaccines (e.g., for influenza, HPV)	EpiVax Inc.	Various stages (preclinical to early Phase 1 for selected candidates)	AI-powered immunoinformatics platforms (EpiMatrix™, JanusMatrix™) used for epitope prediction and immunogenicity filtering	225

careful re-evaluation of sequencing strategies to distinguish their functional outcomes.²¹² Nevertheless, correcting HLA allele bias in predictive models is essential to facilitate global equity and studies have established that pan-allele models based on machine learning can perform worse for underrepresented HLA alleles, most of which occur in non-European populations.²¹³ Implementation of bactoneuron-based multicellular ANN architecture for vaccine design may help in reducing computation cost and computational carbon footprints.²¹⁴⁻²¹⁵ However, it may be possible to retrain or adapt FDA-recommended models such as Tox-GAN and AnimalGAN (originally developed to predict toxicity from unknown chemical compounds), extended for immunotherapeutic applications. Platforms like C-IMMSIM, a fast-responding web server capable of predicting both T and B cell responses (including danger signals) as well as probable antibody generation from a given protein sequence, have shown promising correlation with *in-vivo* data.²¹⁶⁻²¹⁷ Future tools can be developed using agent-based modelling (ABM) integrated with cellular automata (CA) frameworks to simulate complex immune interactions at both the cellular and systemic levels.²¹⁸⁻²²⁰ Integrating computational biology and artificial intelligence (AI) has transformed vaccine development, enabling faster and more precise immunogen design. These approaches have facilitated antigen selection, epitope prediction, and structural modelling, both approved and in clinical progress, that have employed computational and AI-based workflows (Table 4). Prominent cases include **mRNA-1273 (Moderna)**²²¹ and **BNT162b2 (Pfizer-BioNTech)**,²²² *in-silico* modelling, and bioinformatics-accelerated COVID-19 vaccine development. **INO-4800**²²³ leveraged AI-driven platforms like SynCon® and CELLECTRA® for DNA vaccine design, while **UB-612**²²⁴ used AI-assisted epitope modelling. **EpiVax**²²⁵ has applied machine learning-based immunoinformatics tools (EpiMatrix™, JanusMatrix™) across various vaccine pipelines. Collectively, these examples highlight how AI and computational tools reduce development time, improve safety and efficacy predictions, and enable rational, scalable vaccine design, which is especially vital for emerging infectious diseases. Their clinical progression underscores the growing role of *in silico* methods as a validated and essential component of modern vaccinology.²²¹⁻²²⁵

6. Conclusion

The integration of AI-driven computational tools with vaccine design represents a transformative shift toward sustainable, precise, and globally applicable immunisation strategies.²²⁶ By implementing reverse vaccinology and predictive models for immunogenicity, toxicity, and HLA binding affinity, researchers can significantly streamline the vaccine discovery process, minimising both the time and ethical concerns associated with animal testing. The ability to simulate immune responses *in-silico*, identify population-specific epitopes, and predict proteasomal processing and antigen presentation holds immense promise for developing broad-spectrum and personalised edible vaccines. This review underscores the potential of a holistic computational workflow to translate antigenic peptides into viable protective immunogens, accelerating the path from antigen identification to clinical readiness in a more ethical, efficient, and globally inclusive manner.

Author Contribution Declaration

All authors contributed equally to the conception, design, and execution of the research work. They were collectively involved in planning the experimental strategy, analyzing the results, drafting the manuscript, and approving the final version for submission.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Data Availability Declaration

No newly data was generated.

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