Table 4. Risk ratios for death in interferon and control groups

	All deaths			Liver-related deaths		
	Risk ratio	95% CI	*P* value	Risk ratio	95% CI	*P* value
Control group	1.00			1.00		
IFN group	0.37	0.13–1.05	0.06	0.80	0.25–2.53	0.71
Sustained virological response	0.15	0.04–0.59	0.01	0.12	0.01–1.16	0.07
Virological non-response	0.44	0.16–1.23	0.12	0.97	0.31–3.05	0.96
Sustained biochemical response	0.18	0.05–0.65	0.01	0.10	0.01–0.95	0.05
Transient biochemical response	0.24	0.07–0.87	0.03	0.50	0.11–2.21	0.36
Biochemical non-response	0.54	0.19–1.53	0.24	1.26	0.40–4.03	0.69

Age, sex, time of liver biopsy (until 1992/after 1993) and histologic staging score were adjusted in the Cox proportional hazard analysis

SMR

The SMRs in the IFN and control groups are shown in Table 5 and Fig. 3. In the control group, overall mortality was slightly higher than that in the sex- and age-matched general population (SMR, 1.40; 95% CI, 0.76–2.45). On the other hand, overall mortality in the IFN group was significantly lower compared with that of the general population (SMR, 0.73; 95% CI, 0.52–0.98). Liver-related mortality was high in the control group (SMR, 10.70; 95% CI, 4.29–22.05), and it was also high in the IFN group (SMR, 5.05; 95% CI, 3.38–7.26), although it was half of that in the control group. In the patients with sustained virological response, liver-related mortality (SMR, 0.65; 95% CI, 0.01–3.61) was very low compared with that in the control group, and it was similar to that for the general population. On the contrary, liver-related mortality was high in virological non-responders (SMR, 6.71; 95% CI, 4.46–9.70).

In terms of biochemical response, the SMRs for liver-related death of sustained and transient biochemical responders in the IFN groups were low compared with that in the control group (SMR, 0.53; 95% CI, 0.01–2.97 and SMR, 3.25; 95% CI, 0.87–8.32, respectively). In the patients with biochemical non-response, liver-related mortality was high, and was equal to that in the control group (SMR, 9.12; 95% CI, 5.84–13.57).

The IFN group showed lower liver-unrelated mortality than the general population (SMR, 0.25; 95% CI, 0.13–0.43), whereas the control group had liver-unrelated mortality similar to the general population (SMR, 0.71; 95% CI, 0.26–1.55).

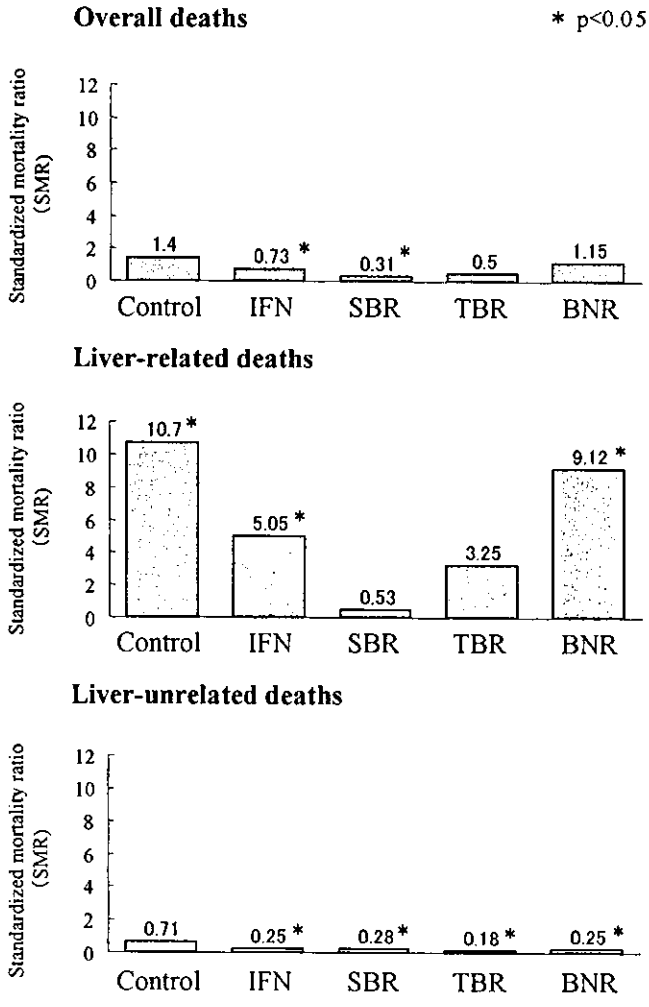

Fig. 3. Standardized mortality ratios (*SMR*s) for overall, liver-related, and liver-unrelated deaths. *SBR*, sustained biochemical response; *TBR*, transient biochemical response; *BNR*, biochemical non-response. When the SMR did not include unity, we considered the difference from the expected number of deaths to be significant

Discussion

There have been a few reports regarding the effect of IFN therapy on survival in chronic hepatitis C patients.[10,16,19] Yoshida et al.[17] reported that IFN therapy had a preventive effect on liver-related death, bringing

Table 5. Standardized mortality ratios (SMRs) in interferon and control groups

	All deaths			Liver-related deaths			Liver-unrelated deaths		
	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)
Control group	13	9.1	1.40 (0.76–2.45)	7	0.7	10.70 (4.29–22.05)	6	8.4	0.71 (0.26–1.55)
Interferon group	42	57.8	0.73 (0.52–0.98)	29	5.7	5.05 (3.38–7.26)	13	52.0	0.25 (0.13–0.43)
Sustained virological response	4	15.8	0.25 (0.07–0.65)	1	1.5	0.65 (0.01–3.61)	3	14.3	0.21 (0.04–0.61)
Virological non-response	38	41.7	0.91 (0.64–1.25)	28	4.2	6.71 (4.46–9.70)	10	37.6	0.27 (0.13–0.49)
Sustained biochemical response	6	19.5	0.31 (0.11–0.67)	1	1.9	0.53 (0.01–2.97)	5	17.6	0.28 (0.09–0.66)
Transient biochemical response	6	12.1	0.50 (0.18–1.08)	4	1.2	3.25 (0.87–8.32)	2	10.9	0.18 (0.02–0.66)
Biochemical non-response	30	26.2	1.15 (0.77–1.64)	24	2.6	9.12 (5.84–13.57)	6	23.5	0.25 (0.09–0.55)

A difference from the expected number of deaths was considered significant when the 95% confidence interval (CI) of SMR did not include unity

about improved survival of chronic hepatitis C patients, as assessed by multivariate analysis and SMR. Recently, we also reported that IFN therapy improved survival by preventing liver-related deaths in patients with chronic hepatitis C, in a multicenter, large-scale, retrospective cohort study.[20] In that study, we showed that liver-related mortality, as well as overall mortality, was much higher in untreated patients than in IFN-treated patients, as assessed by SMR. Furthermore, we found that patients showing sustained and transient biochemical responses to IFN therapy had a very low risk of death compared with untreated patients.

In this study, we evaluated the effect of IFN therapy on survival in patients over 60 years of age with histologically proven chronic hepatitis C, by SMR and by risk ratio calculated by Cox proportional hazard regression analysis. Compared with the general population, liver-related mortality was high in the IFN-treated patients (SMR, 5.05), but it was much lower than that in the control group (SMR, 10.70). Yoshida et al.[17] also examined the effect of IFN therapy on liver-related mortality in chronic hepatitis C patients over 60 years of age in their large-scale retrospective cohort study, and reported that the SMR for liver-related death in IFN-treated patients was much lower than that in the untreated patients, which was consistent with our result. In our IFN group, sustained virological responders and sustained biochemical responders had very low liver-related mortality (SMR, 0.65 and 0.53, respectively), which was equal to that in the sex- and age-matched general population. Multivariate regression analysis also showed that IFN therapy reduced the risk of liver-related death in sustained virological responders by 88% and in sustained biochemical responders by 90%. The overall mortality in the control group was not high (SMR, 1.40), whereas that in the IFN group was significantly lower in comparison with the sex- and age-matched general population (SMR, 0.73). These results may reflect a selection bias due to the nature of the liver biopsy procedure, which was undergone by all of the patients in our study. This kind of selection bias may occur, as aged patients sometimes have illnesses other than liver disease, which make a liver biopsy difficult. Furthermore, IFN-treated patients had a significantly lower risk of liver-unrelated mortality compared with the untreated patients. It seems likely that this may be attributed not to the beneficial effect of IFN therapy on liver-unrelated mortality but to a selection bias in using IFN; only the patients who had no serious diseases, such as cardiovascular disease, received IFN therapy. However, our study indicated that IFN therapy could reduce liver-related mortality, particularly in patients with sustained virological or biochemical response.

In the patients with a transient biochemical response, liver-related mortality was low when compared with the

control group, as assessed by SMR. The SMR of the transient biochemical responders (3.25; 95% CI, 0.87–8.32), which included unity, was lower than that in the control patients (10.70; 95% CI, 4.29–22.05). Similarly, the risk ratio for liver-related death in transient biochemical responders was 0.50, although this was not significant. On the other hand, SMR, as well as the risk of liver-related death estimated by multivariate analysis in the biochemical non-responders (SMR, 9.12; adjusted risk ratio, 1.26), was similar to that in the control patients. These data suggest that a reduction in liver-related mortality by IFN therapy can be expected in patients showing a transient biochemical response. Retreatment or long-term treatment with IFN might lead to an improved survival rate in transient biochemical responders, although such treatment may not be easy with some aged patients.

There was no difference between the baseline characteristics of the IFN and control groups, except for the age distribution. However, because our study was a retrospective cohort study, it had some limitations. Because the time at liver biopsy in the control group was earlier than that in the IFN group, lead-time bias may have existed. The survival of the IFN group could be higher than that of the control group. To minimize this bias, 5-year time-specific mortality rates for the general population were prepared in the SMR analysis. Furthermore, the time at liver biopsy was included as a variable for the multivariate analysis. Another limitation of our study is the small number of patients in the control group compared with the IFN group. This limitation may also be overcome by calculating the SMRs of the IFN and control groups, representing the ratio of the observed number of deaths to the expected number of deaths, calculated after taking sex-, calendar time-, and cause-specific mortality rates for the general population into consideration. The beneficial effect of IFN therapy on survival in the aged patients with chronic hepatitis C resulting from the SMR analysis was consistent with that of the Cox proportional hazard regression analysis.

In conclusion, we showed in this study that IFN therapy reduced liver-related mortality in aged patients with chronic hepatitis C, especially in those exhibiting a biochemical response and in those showing a sustained virological response. IFN therapy is recommended for aged patients with chronic hepatitis C in whom a biochemical response or a sustained virological response can be expected, after screening for diseases other than chronic hepatitis C.

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Journal of Gastroenterology

Editorial

Phlebotomy: a promising treatment for chronic hepatitis C

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A significant reduction in serum alanine aminotransferase levels after 3-month iron reduction therapy for chronic hepatitis C: a multicenter, prospective, randomized, controlled trial in Japan

YANO M, HAYASHI H, YOSHIOKA K, et al.

Iron overload and chronic liver disease

The liver is an iron-rich organ, which contains approximately 30% of the total iron storage for the body.[1] Hereditary hemochromatosis, which is a common genetic disorder of iron metabolism, leads to liver injury and fibrosis, and eventually to hepatic failure and hepatocellular carcinoma.[2] Acquired excessive iron storage in the liver is known to be associated with several types of chronic liver disease such as chronic viral hepatitis, porphyria cutanea tarda, postportocaval shunting, alcoholic liver disease, and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. These diseases are classified as iron overload disorders/syndromes.[2]

Iron overload results in hepatocyte injury. For example, in mice that are chronically fed an iron-rich diet, an elevation in serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels was observed.[3] In patients receiving frequent blood transfusions because of acquired anemia, elevated ALT levels were seen only at hepatic iron concentrations of more than 300μM/g.[4] These findings demonstrate that iron itself possesses hepatotoxicity, and iron overload may aggravate several chronic liver diseases.

How does iron overload induce hepatotoxicity?

In hepatocytes, the most toxic type of reactive oxygen species (ROS), the hydroxy radical (·OH), appears in the presence of ferrous iron (Fenton reaction). Once this ROS is generated in hepatocytes, the levels of a number of antioxidants (catalase, glutathione peroxidase, superoxide dismutase, etc.) increase, which leads to a decrease in ROS.[5,6] However, when the formation of ROS exceeds the capacity of the antioxidant system, the lipid membranes of organelles are oxidized by the ROS, cell function is impaired, and subsequent apoptosis/necrosis takes place.[5,6] Forced iron overload results in increased hepatic hydroperoxides, malondialdehyde and hydroxynonenal, which are markers of lipid peroxidation.[7] The presence of ROS also modulates inflammatory responses through the activation of nuclear factor kappa B.[5] Moreover, increases in lipid peroxidation due to chronic iron overload lead to the formation of 8-hydroxy-2′-deoxyguanosine,[8,9] mitochondrial DNA aberration,[10] and p53 or c-*myc* mutation,[11] which may eventually lead to hepatocarcinogenesis. Thus, hepatocyte toxicity caused by iron overload is primarily attributed to the enhancement of ROS formation and resultant lipid peroxidation.

Iron also activates Kupffer cells, promotes the release of proinflammatory cytokines and ROS generation, and damages hepatocytes in a paracrine manner.[6,12] In hepatic stellate cells, iron enhances collagen synthesis and promotes the progression of hepatic fibrosis.[6,12] It is thought that these iron-induced pathological changes are deeply related to an increased formation of ROS. In animal models employing the chronic administration of an iron-containing diet, antioxidant supplementation significantly prevents the progression of hepatic fibrosis.[13,14]

The relationship between iron storage and HCV

It has already been demonstrated that hepatic iron accumulation is strongly associated with the pathogenesis of chronic hepatitis C. Serum ferritin levels and hepatic iron concentrations were significantly higher in hepatitis C virus (HCV)-positive patients than in hepatitis B virus (HBV)-positive patients.[15] Successful interferon therapy reversed enhanced hepatic iron accumulation and lipid peroxidation.[16] These findings support the

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hypothesis that HCV itself might contribute to hepatic iron accumulation. Although the precise mechanism remains unclear, HCV may directly or indirectly influence the expression of iron regulatory proteins, which in turn play a central role in the maintenance of iron intracellular homeostasis.[17]

Because the HCV core protein enhances the formation of ROS,[10,18] hepatic iron overload may accelerate ROS-induced hepatocyte injury caused by persistent HCV infection. In fact, in chronic hepatitis C patients carrying the hereditary hemochromatosis gene (*HFE*) mutation referred to as C282Y, serum ferritin levels were found to be higher, hepatocyte iron staining was more commonly observed, and hepatic fibrosis was more advanced than in homozygous normal patients with chronic hepatitis C.[19–22] Therefore, it is quite reasonable to hypothesize that iron reduction therapy, including phlebotomy and dietary iron restriction, may ameliorate the activity of chronic hepatitis C and prevent its progression to cirrhosis.

Phlebotomy for chronic hepatitis C

The beneficial effects of phlebotomy for patients with chronic hepatitis C have been previously reported. Hayashi et al.[23] reported that in 10 patients who underwent phlebotomy, serum ALT levels decreased in all patients (from 152 ± 49 to 55 ± 32 U/l). According to a report by Kato et al.,[24] serum ALT levels significantly improved in 34 patients after 6-year iron reduction therapy (from 150 ± 73 to 35 ± 11 U/l). A randomized controlled study reported by Yano et al.[25] (in this issue of the *Journal of Gastroenterology*) is noteworthy due to its clarification of the efficacy of phlebotomy for the improvement of serum ALT levels in Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis C. Although long-term histological changes were not investigated in the present study, it is expected that sustained improvement in ALT levels would reverse the progression of fibrosis.

This study[25] also demonstrated the high level of safety of phlebotomy for chronic hepatitis C patients. Clinicians occasionally hesitate to introduce interferon therapy, especially in elderly chronic hepatitis C patients and patients with disease complicated by hematological abnormalities, diabetes mellitus, severe systemic arteriosclerosis, and other disorders. The results of 6-month interferon/ribavirin combination therapy remain unsatisfactory for Japanese patients suffering from chronic HCV infection. Therefore, we expect that phlebotomy would be a useful and safe therapy to employ as a substitute for long-term interferon administration.

Further perspectives

It will be important to investigate whether long-term phlebotomy might prevent the progression of hepatic fibrosis and the emergence of hepatocellular carcinoma. A related issue would be the potential of phlebotomy therapy to induce the regression of hepatic fibrosis and to prevent progression to hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with HCV-related cirrhosis. To solve these questions, further long-term randomized controlled studies are needed. Moreover, in Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis C, the association between *HFE* gene mutation and the development of hepatic fibrosis and hepatocellular carcinoma should be investigated.

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Ribavirin-Induced Pure Red-Cell Aplasia during Treatment of Chronic Hepatitis C

TO THE EDITOR: Interferon and ribavirin in combination are the standard treatment for chronic hepatitis C. Hematologic abnormalities, including thrombocytopenia and anemia, are major side effects.[1] Ribavirin is closely associated with hemolytic anemia.[2] We report a case of severe anemia due to acute pure red-cell aplasia during combination therapy, which rapidly improved after the discontinuation of ribavirin.

A 61-year-old man was admitted for treatment of chronic hepatitis C. He had received a blood transfusion after hemorrhoidectomy at the age of 30 years. Abnormal results on liver-function tests and antibody to hepatitis C virus (HCV) had been detected at a health checkup when the man was 55 years of age. His body weight was 75 kg, and physical examination showed only mild hepatomegaly. Laboratory tests demonstrated elevated alanine aminotransferase levels. The hemoglobin level and reticulocyte count were normal. A test for HCV RNA by the polymerase chain reaction was positive at a level above 850,000 IU per milliliter; the genotype was 1b. A liver biopsy showed chronic inflammation with portal fibrosis.

Treatment with interferon alfa-2b (Intron A, 6 million units) and ribavirin (Rebetol, 800 mg) was started. Eight weeks after the initiation of the treatment, the ribavirin dose was reduced to 600 mg per day because the hemoglobin level had decreased from 15.5 g per deciliter to 8.0 g per deciliter. Three weeks later, however, the hemoglobin level dropped to 6.0 g per deciliter even after the reduction in the dose of ribavirin. The reticulocyte count dropped from 7.8×10^4 per microliter to 0.2×10^4 per microliter. During the treatment, no changes in the indirect bilirubin, lactate dehydrogenase, or haptoglobin level were observed.

Bone marrow examination at week 12 showed mild hypocellularity without any morphologic abnormalities and a selective depletion of erythroid precursor cells (Fig. 1). On the basis of these findings, a diagnosis of acute pure red-cell aplasia was made, and ribavirin was discontinued. Thereafter, the anemia and reticulocytopenia improved and had normalized by week 24. Administration of interferon was continued for 24 weeks and resulted in a sustained virologic response.

Acute pure red-cell aplasia is characterized by rapidly progressive anemia with reticulocytopenia and is caused by viral infection, certain drugs, and nutritional disorders.[3] Ribavirin induced dose-related anemia, erythroid hypoplasia, and vacuolization of erythroid precursors in rhesus monkeys, which disappeared after the discontinuation of ribavirin.[4,5] We believe that our patient had acute pure red-cell aplasia caused by ribavirin used in the treatment of chronic hepatitis C. When anemia develops during treatment with interferon and ribavirin, the possibility of ribavirin-induced pure red-cell aplasia should be considered, and careful monitoring of the reticulocyte count is needed.

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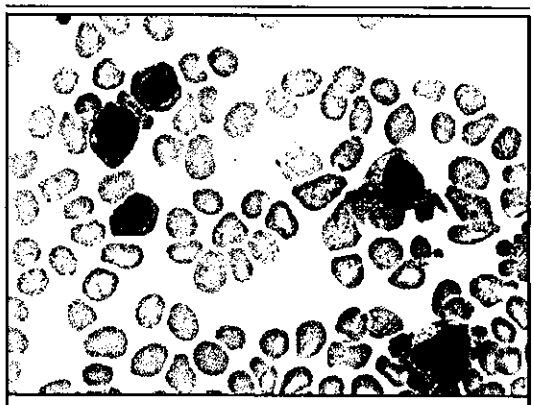

Figure 1. Findings on Microscopical Examination of Bone Marrow 12 Weeks after the Initiation of Combination Treatment with Interferon and Ribavirin (Wright–Giemsa Stain, ×1000).

The nuclear cell count was 8.6×10^4 per microliter (normal range, 10×10^4 to 25×10^4 per microliter), and the ratio of myeloid to erythroid precursors was 5.8 (normal range, 2 to 4). No morphologic abnormalities were found in precursor cells.

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Interferon treatment improves survival in chronic hepatitis C patients showing biochemical as well as virological responses by preventing liver-related death

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SUMMARY. Interferon therapy for chronic hepatitis C reduces the risk of hepatocellular carcinoma, especially among virological and biochemical responders. However, little is known about the effect of interferon therapy on mortality. We studied the long-term effect of interferon therapy on mortality in patients with chronic hepatitis C. For this retrospective cohort study, 2954 patients with chronic hepatitis C were recruited, of whom 2698 received interferon therapy and 256 did not. The effect of interferon therapy on survival was assessed by standardized mortality ratio (SMR) based on published mortality data for the general Japanese population and by risk ratio calculated by proportional hazard regression. Over 6.0 ± 2.2 years follow-up, death from liver-related diseases was observed in 69 (68%) of 101 deaths among interferon-treated patients and in 42 (81%) of 52 deaths among untreated patients. Compared with the general population, overall mortality was high among untreated patients (SMR: 2.7; 95% CI: 2.0–3.6) but not among interferon-treated patients (SMR: 0.9; 95% CI: 0.7–1.1). Liver-related mortality was extremely high among untreated patients (SMR: 22.2; 95% CI: 16.0–30.0) and less among interferon-treated patients (SMR: 5.5; 95% CI: 4.3–6.9). The risk of death from all causes was lower for interferon-treated than untreated patients (risk ratio: 0.47; 95% CI: 0.261–0.836; $P = 0.01$). The risk of death from liver-related diseases was significantly lower for sustained virological responders (risk ratio: 0.04; 95% CI: 0.005–0.301; $P = 0.002$) compared with untreated patients, but not for nonsustained virological responders. Sustained biochemical responders (risk ratio: 0.03; 95% CI: 0.004–0.230; $P < 0.001$) and transient biochemical responders (risk ratio: 0.18; 95% CI: 0.063–0.532; $P = 0.002$) showed a significantly reduced risk of death from liver-related death, whereas biochemical nonresponders did not. Hence interferon treatment improved survival in chronic hepatitis C patients showing a biochemical as well as a virological response by preventing liver-related deaths.

Keywords: chronic hepatitis C, interferon, liver-related mortality, multivariate analysis, standardized mortality ratio.

Abbreviations: HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; SMR, standardized mortality ratio.

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection rarely resolves spontaneously once it becomes chronic [1]. Consequently, most patients in Japan with chronic HCV infection are likely to progress steadily to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), which develops approximately 30 years after blood transfusion [2–4]. HCC is one of the most common malignancies, especially in Southeast Asia, and a major cause of death for patients with chronic HCV infection. In the early 1990s, interferon was introduced worldwide as a therapy for patients with chronic hepatitis C and was effective in inducing normalization of serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) [5,6], eliminating HCV RNA [7,8], and improving liver histological findings [9–11] in patients with chronic hepatitis C.

To evaluate the effect of interferon therapy on the incidence of HCC and the risk of mortality for chronic hepatitis C patients, a randomized controlled trial is needed. However, a prospective randomized trial with untreated control patients is ethically impossible, because interferon therapy has already been established as a standard treatment for patients with chronic hepatitis C. Therefore, almost all chronic hepatitis C patients, except for cases with medical conditions such as depression, autoimmune disease and severe diabetes mellitus, have been treated with interferon in Japan. Recently, several investigators have reported this therapy as being effective for reducing the incidence of HCC among patients who showed normalization of ALT during and after interferon therapy, as well as among those in whom HCV was eradicated [12–17]. However, a reduced risk of HCC does not necessarily lead to improvement in survival. Indeed, little is known about the effects of interferon therapy on the mortality of patients with chronic hepatitis C. Several investigators [14, 18–23] have tried to evaluate the impact of interferon therapy on mortality. Four of these studies indicated that interferon therapy significantly reduced the mortality of compensated HCV-related cirrhotic patients [18,20] or of chronic hepatitis C patients including patients with compensated cirrhosis [21,23]. However, lack of analysis on response to interferon [18,20–23] or lack of information on disease-specific mortality [20,21] has made it difficult to evaluate the benefits of interferon for survival. Recently, Yoshida *et al.* [24] demonstrated that interferon therapy improved survival by preventing liver-related deaths of chronic hepatitis C patients showing a sustained virological response . However, whether a biochemical response to interferon therapy results in a reduced risk of mortality has not been investigated.

We conducted a multi-centre, large-scale, retrospective cohort study of patients with chronic hepatitis C, who had been enrolled at the end of 1997 at participating hospitals in order to analyse the effect of interferon therapy on the incidence of HCC. The aim of the present study was to examine the effect of interferon therapy on the mortality and causes of death among chronic hepatitis C patients.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Patients

We recruited chronic hepatitis C patients from four previous studies which were conducted to assess the effect of interferon therapy on the incidence of HCC [12,14,15,17]. All patients meeting the following criteria were included in this study: (i) histological diagnosis of chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis; (ii) no history of clinical signs at entry into the study of complications of cirrhosis, i.e. ascites, jaundice, encephalopathy, or variceal bleeding; (iii) no evidence of HCC at entry into the study as assessed by ultrasonography and/or computed tomography; (iv) absence of serum hepatitis B surface antigen; (v) absence of co-existing liver diseases such as autoimmune hepatitis or primary biliary cirrhosis; (vi) absence of excessive alcohol consumption (>80 g/day); and (vii) absence of human immunodeficiency virus antibodies, as described previously [12,14,15,17]. A total of 3025 patients who met these criteria and whose initial sera tested positive for anti-HCV as determined by either first- or second-generation ELISA (Ortho Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) and HCV RNA were included in the study. The sera of patients who had been diagnosed as non-A, non-B hepatitis before anti-HCV testing became available (i.e. before 1989) had been frozen at −80 °C and were retrospectively assayed.

Of the 3025 chronic hepatitis C patients, 2762 had received interferon after 1987, when interferon became available in Japan. Interferon-treated patients received a 4–12-month course of interferon therapy, which was initiated within 1 month of liver biopsy. The remaining 263 patients did not undergo interferon therapy or any other antiviral therapy, including almost all patients with biopsy-proven chronic hepatitis who had refused interferon treatment due to adverse effects, lack of time for therapy, or their inability to undergo treatment as a consequence of depression, severe diabetes mellitus or other medical conditions.

Criteria for biochemical and virological responses to interferon therapy

The biochemical response during the follow-up up to 6 months after the completion of interferon therapy was defined according to previously described criteria with minor modifications [8,9]. In the sustained response group, ALT levels decreased to the normal range during therapy and remained within that range up to 24 weeks after therapy without any abnormal elevation. In the transient response group, ALT levels decreased to the normal range by the end of therapy, remained normal during therapy but returned to abnormal levels during the 24 weeks following interferon therapy. In the no-response group, ALT levels did not decrease to the normal range, or fluctuated during therapy and the subsequent 24 weeks. Both biochemical transient

and nonresponders were designated as nonsustained biochemical responders.

A sustained virological response was defined as HCV RNA negativity at more than 6 months after the cessation of interferon therapy. Patients showing positive HCV RNA at the same time were designated as nonsustained virological responders.

Histological evaluation

Liver biopsy was carried out before interferon therapy in all cases. Specimens were fixed in formaldehyde and embedded in paraffin. The sections were stained with haematoxylin-eosin and Azan-Mallory and analysed by two pathologists without any knowledge of the clinical and laboratory data. Histological findings were scored according to the classification of Desmet *et al.* [25].

Follow-up

The starting date of the follow-up for both the interferon-treated and untreated groups was defined as the date of liver biopsy. Biochemical examinations including α-fetoprotein and abdominal ultrasonography were carried out before interferon therapy and every 3–6 months thereafter at the outpatient clinic of the respective hospitals. The end of the follow-up was the date of death or the latest confirmation of survival. Follow-up data on the patients were obtained from the participating hospitals. Follow-up data that were not available from the hospitals were collected from the resident registry of the local municipal office. Death from liver-related disease was defined as death from HCC, liver failure determined by the presence of one or more of ascites, jaundice and hepatic encephalopathy, or variceal bleeding diagnosed on the basis of endoscopic findings of patients presenting with upper gastrointestinal haemorrhage.

Five untreated patients were observed for over 162 months, which corresponded to the longest period of observation of those treated with interferon. In these subjects, only the follow-up data up to 162 months were considered. Seventy-one patients whose follow-up period was shorter than 12 months were excluded from the study. The final numbers of study subjects were 2698 for the interferon-treated group and 256 for the untreated group.

Informed consent was obtained from each patient included in the study. The study protocol was in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975 (revised in 1983) and approved by the Ethical Committee of the Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine.

Statistical analysis

The chi-square test was used to compare the frequency of gender between the interferon-treated and untreated groups. The difference in age at liver biopsy and ALT between the two groups, expressed as median, was assessed for significance with the Student's *t*-test. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare the distribution of age at liver biopsy and histological staging. Cumulative survival curves were determined with the Kaplan–Meier method, and the log-rank test was used to compare the cumulative survival rates.

The observed number of deaths was compared with the expected number, which was calculated by applying sex, 5-year age, 5-year calendar time, and cause-specific mortality rates for the general population in Japan, as prepared by the Statistics and Information Department, Japan Ministry of Health and Welfare [26]. The standardized mortality ratio (SMR) was expressed by dividing the observed number of deaths by the expected number of deaths. The standard error and the 95% CI of SMR were estimated by assuming Poisson's distribution, and differences in mortality between the study cohort and the general population were considered to be significant if the CI did not include unity.

Survival was also analysed by using Cox proportional hazards regression controlling for age (continuous variable), gender, stages of liver fibrosis (stage: 0/1/2/3/4) and time at liver biopsy (1991/1992). Risk ratios attributable to biochemical sustained, transient and no responses and to virological sustained and nonsustained responses were calculated in comparison with no treatment by using dummy variables.

Data analysis was performed with the SAS/PC statistical package (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). All reported *P*-values were two-sided and $P < 0.05$ was considered to be significant.

RESULTS

Patient characteristics at entry

Of the 2698 patients treated with interferon, 901 (33.3%) had a sustained biochemical response, 701 (26.0%) a transient biochemical response and the remaining 1096 patients (40.6%) were classified as biochemical nonresponders. Serum HCV RNA remained negative at more than 6 months after cessation of interferon therapy in 738 (81.9%) of the sustained biochemical responders, designated as sustained virological responders, whereas serum HCV RNA remained positive in 133 (14.8%). Serum HCV RNA was not examined after the termination of interferon therapy in 30 sustained biochemical responders, who were excluded from the analysis according to virological responses to interferon. Positive HCV RNA after interferon therapy was detected in all of the biochemical transient and nonresponders.

The demographic and clinical features of interferon-treated patients according to virological and biochemical responses to interferon and of untreated patients at the time of enrolment are summarized in Table 1. Untreated patients were significantly older than interferon-treated patients ($P = 0.04$), but frequency distribution of age at liver biopsy

Table 1 Characteristics of interferon-treated patients according to virological and biochemical responses to interferon and of untreated patients

	Interferon-treated							
	Virological response		Biochemical response					
	SVR (n = 738)	non-SVR (n = 1930)	SBR (n = 901)	TBR (n = 701)	BNR (n = 1096)	Total (n = 2698)	Untreated (n = 256)	P-value
Median age (range)	51 (20–72)	54 (20–76)	52 (20–73)	53 (20–75)	54 (20–76)	53 (20–76)	54 (21–72)	0.04
Age at biopsy (%)								
≤49	337 (45.7)	687 (35.6)	392 (43.5)	277 (39.5)	369 (33.7)	1038 (38.5)	75 (29.3)	0.12
50–59	240 (32.5)	759 (39.3)	303 (33.6)	280 (39.9)	428 (39.1)	1011 (37.5)	123 (48.9)	
≥60	161 (21.8)	484 (25.1)	206 (22.9)	144 (20.5)	299 (27.3)	649 (24.1)	58 (22.7)	
Sex (M/F)	507/231	1210/720	595/306	440/261	703/393	1738/960	157/99	0.32
Median ALT (U/L), SD	91	92	87	79	103	92	98	0.57
(range)	(7–1110)	(11–1195)	(7–1110)	(13–1195)	(13–828)	(7–1195)	(9–563)	
Stage of fibrosis (%)								
0	5 (0.7)	11 (0.6)	7 (0.8)	4 (0.6)	5 (0.9)	16 (0.6)	9 (3.5)	0.34
1	259 (35.1)	476 (24.7)	337 (37.4)	228 (32.5)	190 (17.3)	755 (28.0)	84 (32.8)	
2	263 (35.6)	614 (31.8)	297 (33.0)	238 (34.0)	349 (31.8)	884 (32.8)	40 (15.6)	
3	189 (25.6)	725 (37.6)	235 (26.1)	209 (29.8)	471 (43.0)	915 (33.9)	93 (36.3)	
4	22 (3.0)	104 (5.4)	25 (2.8)	22 (3.1)	81 (7.4)	128 (4.7)	30 (11.7)	

SVR, sustained virological responders; SBR, sustained biochemical responders; TBR, transient biochemical responders; BNR, biochemical nonresponders; ALT, alanine aminotransferase.

and the stages of liver fibrosis, gender and ALT did not differ significantly. In sustained biochemical responders, the ratio of male patients and median ALT levels were significantly higher for patients with HCV eradication than for those without it ($P < 0.001$, each), whereas median age and the frequency distribution of the stages of liver fibrosis were not significantly different between the two groups.

Follow-up data

The mean period of observation (total cases: 6.0 ± 2.2 years) of the interferon-treated and untreated patients was 5.8 and 8.0 years, respectively, with the former being significantly shorter than the latter ($P = 0.0001$) because interferon therapy was not introduced in Japan until 1987.

Table 2 Follow-up data for interferon-treated patients according to virological and biochemical responses to interferon and for untreated patients

	Interferon-treated						
	Virological response		Biochemical response				
	SVR (n = 738)	non-SVR (n = 1930)	SBR (n = 901)	TBR (n = 701)	BNR (n = 1096)	Total (n = 2698)	Untreated (n = 256)
Mean period of observation, year (SD)	5.7 (2.0)	5.8 (1.9)	5.6 (2.0)	5.7 (1.8)	5.9 (1.9)	5.8 (1.9)	8.0 (3.4)
No. of deaths	7	94	10	10	81	101	52
Liver-related deaths	1	68	1	5	63	69	42
Death from HCC	1	57	1	4	53	58	31
Death from other liver diseases	0	11	0	1	10	11	11
Liver-unrelated deaths	9	26	9	5	18	32	10

SVR, sustained virological responders; SBR, sustained biochemical responders; TBR, transient biochemical responders; BNR, biochemical nonresponders; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma.

The sustained virological responders, nonsustained virological responders, sustained biochemical responders, transient biochemical responders and biochemical nonresponders were observed for a mean of 5.7, 5.8, 5.6, 5.7 and 5.9 years, respectively (Table 2).

We identified 153 deaths from all causes during the follow-up. The 153 patients who died consisted of 10 sustained biochemical responders (seven of whom were sustained virological responders and three of whom were sustained biochemical responders without HCV eradication), 10 transient biochemical responders, 81 biochemical nonresponders and 52 cases without interferon treatment. Death from all causes did not occur in 30 sustained biochemical responders whose serum HCV RNA was not examined after cessation of interferon therapy. Death from liver-related disease was identified in 111 (73%) of the 153 patients who died: only one death (10%) from liver-related disease (death from HCC) was found among sustained responders with HCV eradication, five (50%) among transient biochemical responders (death from HCC in four cases), 63 (78%) among biochemical nonresponders (death from HCC in 53 cases) and 42 (81%) among untreated patients (death from HCC in 31 cases) (Table 2).

Cumulative survival

The cumulative survival rates from all causes of death were found to be significantly higher for interferon-treated than for untreated patients ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 1a) The respective 5-year survival rates of interferon-treated and untreated groups were 97.8 and 95.3%, and the 10-year survival rates 87.2 and 77.1%. The cumulative survival rates for sustained virological responders were significantly higher than for nonsustained virological responders ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 1b), with 5-year survival rates of 99.5 and 97.1%, and 10-year survival rates of 97.8 and 81.9%, respectively. The cumulative survival rates for sustained biochemical responders were significantly higher than for nonsustained biochemical responders ($P < 0.001$). When nonsustained biochemical responders were divided into transient biochemical responders and biochemical nonresponders, the cumulative survival rates for the transient biochemical responders were significantly higher than for the biochemical nonresponders ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 1c). The respective cumulative survival rates for sustained biochemical responders, transient biochemical responders and biochemical nonresponders were 99.2, 99.1 and 95.8% at the end of the fifth year and 97.8, 97.6 and 72.6% at the end of the 10th year. Among sustained biochemical responders, the cumulative survival rates for sustained virological responders and sustained biochemical responders without HCV eradication were 99.5 and 99.2% at the end of fifth year and 97.8 and 99.2% at the end of the 10th year, showing no statistical significance ($P = 0.18$).

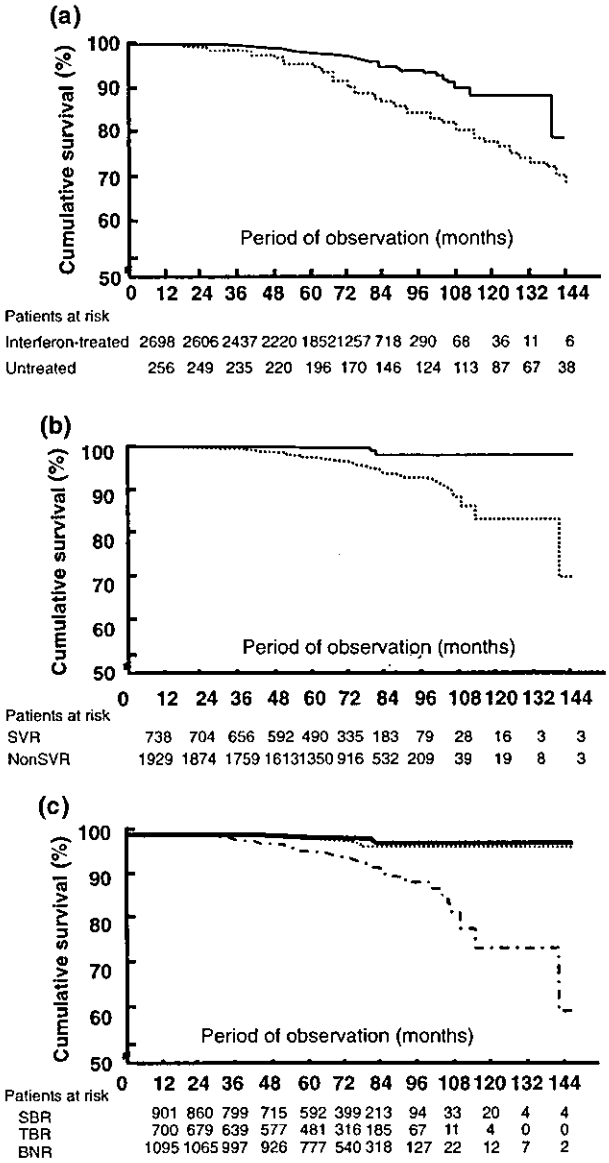

Fig. 1 Cumulative survival rates from all causes of death for patients with chronic hepatitis C. (a) For interferon-treated patients (solid line) and untreated patients (dotted line). (b) According to the virological response to interferon therapy: sustained virological responders (SVR) (solid line) and nonsustained virological responders (non-SVR) (dotted line). (c) In terms of the biochemical responses to interferon, sustained biochemical responders (SBR) (solid line), transient biochemical responders (TBR) (dotted line) and biochemical nonresponders (BNR) (dash-and-dot line).

Standardized mortality ratio

Differences in mortality among interferon-treated and untreated patients from the general population were further assessed by calculating SMR, the ratio of the observed number of deaths to the expected number. Overall mortality

Table 3 Standardized mortality ratios (SMR) in patients with chronic hepatitis C according to virological and biochemical responses to interferon

	Overall deaths			Liver-related deaths			Liver-unrelated deaths		
	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)	Observed	Expected	SMR (95% CI)
Untreated	52	19.2	2.7 (2.0–3.6)	42	1.9	22.2 (16.0–30.0)	10	17.3	0.6 (0.3–1.1)
Interferon-treated	101	112.7	0.9 (0.7–1.1)	69	12.6	5.5 (4.3–6.9)	32	100.0	0.3 (0.2–0.5)
Virological response									
Sustained (HCV RNA negative)	7	29.8	0.2 (0.1–0.5)	1	3.3	0.3 (0.0–1.7)	6	26.5	0.2 (0.1–0.5)
Nonsustained (HCV RNA positive)	94	82.2	1.1 (0.9–1.4)	68	9.2	7.4 (5.8–9.4)	26	73.0	0.4 (0.2–0.5)
Biochemical response									
Sustained response	10	36.5	0.3 (0.1–0.5)	1	4.0	0.3 (0.0–1.4)	9	32.5	0.3 (0.1–0.5)
Transient response	10	27.5	0.4 (0.2–0.7)	5	3.2	1.6 (0.5–3.7)	5	24.3	0.2 (0.1–0.5)
No response	81	48.8	1.7 (1.3–2.1)	63	5.4	11.6 (8.9–14.9)	18	43.3	0.4 (0.3–0.7)

Difference from the expected number of deaths was considered significant if 95% CI of SMR did not include unity.

for untreated patients (SMR: 2.7; 95% CI: 2.0–3.6) but not for the interferon-treated patients (SMR: 0.9; 95% CI: 0.7–1.1) was significantly higher than for the general population. Liver-related mortality was high for untreated patients (SMR: 22.2; 95% CI: 16.0–30.0) and also for interferon-treated patients, although to a lesser degree (SMR: 5.5; 95% CI: 4.3–6.9) (Table 3). For sustained virological responders overall mortality was low (SMR: 0.2; 95% CI: 0.1–0.5), and liver-related mortality (SMR: 0.3; 95% CI: 0.0–1.7) was equivalent to that for the general population. In contrast, liver-related mortality was high for nonsustained virological responders (SMR: 7.4; 95% CI: 5.8–9.4).

Sustained and transient biochemical responders showed a low overall mortality compared with that for the general population (SMR: 0.3; 95% CI: 0.1–0.5, and SMR: 0.4; 95% CI: 0.2–0.7, respectively), whereas overall mortality was high for biochemical nonresponders (SMR: 1.7; 95% CI: 1.3–2.1). Liver-related mortality was not high for sustained and transient biochemical responders (SMR: 0.3; 95% CI: 0.0–1.4, and SMR: 1.6; 95% CI: 0.5–3.7, respectively) compared with that for the general population, but it was high for biochemical nonresponders (SMR: 11.6; 95% CI: 8.9–14.9) (Table 3). Overall and liver-related mortality for sustained biochemical responders without HCV eradication was equivalent to that for the general population (SMR: 0.5; 95% CI: 0.1–1.5, and SMR: 0.0; 95% CI: 0.0–6.1, respectively).

Interferon-treated patients had a statistically lower risk of liver-unrelated death than the general population (SMR: 0.3; 95% CI: 0.2–0.5), whereas untreated patients did not (SMR: 0.6; 95% CI: 0.3–1.1).

Multivariate analysis

The effect of interferon on the risk of death was assessed by Cox proportional hazards regression controlling for age, gender, score of liver fibrosis and time at liver biopsy. Interferon therapy significantly reduced the risk of overall death to a ratio of only 0.47, in comparison with no treatment. When patients were classified according to virological responses to interferon, sustained virological responders showed reduced risks of overall death (risk ratio: 0.14; 95% CI: 0.056–0.352; $P < 0.001$) and liver-related death (risk ratio: 0.04; 95% CI: 0.005–0.301; $P = 0.002$) compared with untreated patients, whereas nonsustained virological responders did not. Similarly, sustained biochemical responders showed a lower risk of death from all causes (risk ratio: 0.16; 95% CI: 0.069–0.354; $P < 0.001$) and liver-related diseases (risk ratio: 0.03; 95% CI: 0.004–0.230; $P < 0.001$). Transient biochemical responders had a high, but still significantly reduced risk of overall death (risk ratio: 0.19; 95% CI: 0.083–0.445; $P < 0.001$) and liver-related death (risk ratio: 0.18; 95% CI: 0.063–0.532; $P = 0.002$), whereas the risk for nonresponders and untreated patients did not

Table 4 Risk of death in patients with chronic hepatitis C according to virological and biochemical responses to interferon

	All causes of deaths			Liver-related deaths		
	Risk ratio	95% CI	*P*-value	Risk ratio	95% CI	*P*-value
Untreated	1.00			1.00		
Interferon-treated	0.47	0.261–0.836	0.010	0.59	0.312–1.097	0.095
Virological response						
Sustained (HCV RNA negative)	0.14	0.056–0.352	<0.001	0.04	0.005–0.301	0.002
Nonsustained (HCV RNA positive)	0.59	0.327–1.057	0.08	0.76	0.402–1.417	0.380
Biochemical response						
Sustained response	0.16	0.069–0.354	<0.001	0.03	0.004–0.230	<0.001
Transient response	0.19	0.083–0.445	<0.001	0.18	0.063–0.532	0.002
No response	0.78	0.432–1.393	0.394	1.02	0.543–1.900	0.962

Adjusted for age, sex, score of liver fibrosis and period at liver biopsy.

change (Table 4). The risk of overall death for sustained biochemical responders without HCV eradication was lower than for untreated patients, although it did not reach a statistical significance (risk ratio: 0.31; 95% CI: 0.09–1.07; $P = 0.06$).

DISCUSSION

We previously demonstrated that interferon treatment could reduce the risk of HCC development in patients with chronic hepatitis C [12]. Following this, five retrospective studies [13–17] showed a similar effect of interferon on the risk of HCC, especially for virological and biochemical responders. These results suggest that interferon therapy for chronic hepatitis C can prevent the development of HCC, possibly leading to improvement in long-term survival. However, only a few previous studies have assessed the effects of interferon therapy on survival [18–24], and whether interferon therapy also reduces mortality from liver-related disease in patients with chronic HCV infection has not been thoroughly investigated. It is also still unclear what type of response to interferon results in the improvement of long-term survival.

To evaluate the effect of interferon therapy on the risk of mortality for chronic hepatitis C patients, a randomized controlled trial should be carried out. However, a prospective randomized trial with untreated control patients is ethically impossible, because interferon therapy has already been established as the standard modality for patients with chronic hepatitis C. Only two randomized controlled trials of a small number of HCV-related cirrhotic cases have evaluated the effect of interferon therapy on mortality [19,21], but with discrepant results. In contrast, large-scale prospective and retrospective cohort studies [23,24] indicate that interferon therapy for HCV-related cirrhosis or chronic hepatitis C improves long-term survival. In particular, Yoshida *et al.* [24] demonstrated in their recent retrospective cohort study that interferon therapy improved survival of chronic hepatitis C patients by preventing liver-related deaths. However, its beneficial effect was considered to be limited to patients with a sustained virological response.

As ours is a retrospective cohort study, it may be subject to several biases. The interferon-treated and untreated groups had different demographic characteristics, including age and gender. These factors were adjusted for multivariate regression analysis and considered when calculating SMR by applying the corresponding mortality for the general population. Severity of chronic liver disease was adjusted by using the stage of liver fibrosis for multivariate analysis. As the time of liver biopsy of untreated patients was earlier than for interferon-treated patients, mortality for untreated patients may be generally higher than for interferon-treated patients. To avoid this bias, we adjusted the time at liver biopsy for multivariate analysis, and 5-year time-specific mortality rates for the general population were prepared in the SMR analysis. Moreover, the number of untreated patients was small, because most Japanese chronic hepatitis C patients, except for cases with medical problems, have been treated with interferon. However, the relatively small number of untreated patients in comparison with the large number of interferon-treated patients is not likely to have resulted in a substantial overestimation of the effect of interferon therapy on survival as several of the biases already mentioned were controlled in the analyses.

When we compared the observed mortality with the expected mortality for the matched general population by calculating SMR, we were able to demonstrate that chronic hepatitis C patients had higher overall and liver-related mortality than the general population, and that the majority of deaths were liver-related. However, interferon-treated patients had a significantly lower risk of liver-unrelated mortality, whereas untreated patients did not. This may represent a selection bias in the use of interferon therapy, which included patients with no medical problems

except for having chronic liver diseases. However, our multivariate regression analysis clearly showed that interferon therapy reduced the risk of liver-related death in virological responders by 96% and in biochemical responders by 82–97%. These findings indicate that a significant reduction in the risk of death from all causes for patients treated with interferon, shown in the analysis of SMR, was not caused by a selection bias but is mainly attributable to the prevention of liver-related death by interferon therapy.

Our multivariate analysis made it clear that the risks of overall and liver-related deaths for chronic hepatitis C patients displaying a sustained virological response were 86 and 96% lower than for untreated patients. The risk reduction for sustained biochemical responders was almost equal to that for sustained virological responders. Similarly, the SMR analyses showed that liver-related mortality for these patients was equivalent to that for the general population. Thus, and as expected, when patients treated with interferon belong to the sustained virological or biochemical response group, they appear to have the highest long-term survival rate.

Of nonsustained virological responders, the risk of death from all causes and liver-related diseases for transient biochemical responders was significantly lower than for untreated patients, but higher than for sustained biochemical and virological responders. The same effects of interferon therapy on survival were observed in the SMR analyses. Although the follow-up period was not sufficiently long for a reliable and accurate examination of mortality, we would like to emphasize that the risk of death from all causes and liver-related diseases was significantly lower for chronic hepatitis C patients for whom interferon was effective in normalizing ALT than for patients who did not receive interferon, even when HCV was not eradicated. However, the risk of death from all causes and liver-related diseases was not reduced in biochemical nonresponders.

In conclusion, the findings reported here indicate that interferon therapy improves long-term survival in chronic hepatitis C patients showing a biochemical as well as a virological response by preventing liver-related deaths.

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Prediction of treatment outcome with daily high-dose IFN α-2b plus ribavirin in patients with chronic hepatitis C with genotype 1b and high HCV RNA levels: relationship of baseline viral levels and viral dynamics during and after therapy

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Abstract

Data on 334 patients with HCV genotype 1b and high viral levels were extracted from two multicenter double-blind studies conducted in Japan comparing IFN α-2b plus ribavirin ($n = 209$) with IFN α-2b alone ($n = 125$) for 24 weeks. HCV RNA assay was conducted before and 4, 12, and 24 weeks after the start and 4, 12, and 24 weeks after the end of treatment. Both sustained viral response (SVR) rate and relapse rate after the end of treatment were analyzed in relation to baseline viral levels and the time of first disappearance of virus. In the combination treatment group, the percentage of patients who were HCV RNA-negative within 4 weeks decreased with increase in baseline viral levels (i.e. 42%, 15%, and 11% were HCV RNA-negative in the groups exhibiting <500, 500 to <850, and ≥850 kcopies/mL, respectively). In the IFN monotherapy group, the response rates were lower at 13%, 15%, and 1%, respectively. Disappearance of virus within 12 weeks after the start of combination treatment was indicative of higher probability of SVR. The risk of relapse was more highly correlated with the timing of initial viral disappearance than with baseline HCV levels; it was 4.8 and 10.3 times higher in patients who became HCV-negative at 4–12 and 13–24 weeks compared with in those who were HCV-negative within 4 weeks.

Keywords: Chronic hepatitis C; Interferon α-2b; Ribavirin; Multicenter randomized double-blind study

1. Introduction

Global consensus obtains that PEG-interferon (PEG-IFN) plus ribavirin combination therapy is the treatment of choice

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for chronic hepatitis C (CHC). That the duration of treatment should be 12 months for hepatitis C virus (HCV) genotype 1 and 6 months for other genotypes is also nearing consensus [1,2]. High-dose daily IFN monotherapy in patients with CHC was originally reported from Japan [3], and since then several reports of better efficacy using high-dose daily IFN therapy similar to that used in Japan plus ribavirin have appeared in both the USA and Europe [4–12].

Recently, much attention has been focused on the relationship between the timing of HCV RNA negativity and antiviral efficacy of IFN therapy. Many reports have investigated this relationship in patients receiving IFN or PEG-IFN and ribavirin combination therapy [13–18]. In Japan, the age of patients with CHC is increasing, and both nonresponders to previous IFN therapy and IFN-treatment-naïve patients usually are given high doses of IFN. In two Japanese studies of high-dose IFN therapy, SVR including in patients with HCV with genotype other than 1 was observed in 27.5% (316/1148) [19] and 30.6% (313/1022) [20], respectively, whereas in the USA and Europe where IFN 3 MIU is normally administered three times/week, SVR was observed in 6–19% even in patients undergoing treatment for 1 year [21–23]. For this reason, Japanese nonresponders to prior IFN therapy cannot be considered the same as non-Japanese patients, and hence direct application of the results of trials conducted outside Japan to Japanese patients is of limited use.

It has also been reported that reducing HCV relapse after the end of treatment enhances the efficacy of combination therapy [24]. Longer-term combination treatment has been confirmed to reduce the rate of HCV relapse after the end of drug administration [22,23], but the mechanism of this effect is not clear. The present study was performed to examine the relationship between the timing of disappearance of HCV RNA and HCV eradication in Japanese patients receiving IFN plus ribavirin combination therapy. Moreover, we attempted to clarify factors related to relapse after the end of treatment by analyzing the relationship between the time of HCV eradication and baseline HCV levels.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Patient selection

Two randomized comparative studies of IFN α-2b plus ribavirin were conducted using IFN (-2b monotherapy as control; 1 in patients with HCV genotype 1b CHC with high viral levels (the most difficult CHC patients to treat) [25] and 1 in nonresponders and relapsers to previous IFN therapy [26] who are thus in urgent medical need. No bias was observed in patient distribution between groups in these studies (data not shown). Both studies were conducted after approval by the institutional review boards of each medical institution and informed consent was obtained in writing from each patient. IFN α-2b (Intron A, Schering Plough, Kenilworth, NJ) was administered six times/week for 2 weeks at a dose of 6 or 10 MIU and then three times/week for 22 weeks at a dose of 6 MIU. Ribavirin (Rebetol, Schering Plough, Kenilworth, NJ) was administered for 24 weeks at a dose of 600 mg/day (three capsules) in patients weighing <60 kg and 800 mg/day (four capsules) in those whose weight was ≥60 kg. The control group received IFN (-2b together with ribavirin placebo capsules. From these two clinical studies, we extracted data on patients with HCV genotype 1 and high viral levels and retrospectively analyzed the time of initial HCV RNA negativity, the percentage of patients with sustained viral negativity after the end of treatment, and the percentage of patients who relapsed after the end of treatment. The database subjected to retrospective analysis included data on sex, age, body weight, extent and activity of liver tissue lesion, history of IFN therapy, HCV RNA level, aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), hemoglobin, white blood cells (WBC), red blood cells (RBC), platelet count, and serum creatinine. Virological response was defined as qualitative negative by qualitative Amplicor assay (Mitsubishi Kagaku BCL, Tokyo, Japan). In addition, HCV quantitative analysis was conducted by Amplicor HCV monitor method (Mitsubishi Kagaku BCL, Tokyo, Japan) with a detection limit of 100 copies/mL.

Qualitative and quantitative analyses of HCV RNA were performed immediately before and 4, 12, and 24 weeks after the start and 4, 12, and 24 weeks after the end of treatment. Viral levels ≥100 kcopies/mL were considered high. Genotype was determined immediately before the start of treatment by RT-PCR (Mitsubishi Kagaku BCL, Tokyo, Japan). All liver tissue was evaluated by the same examiner.

2.2. Enrollment and exclusion criteria

Enrollment criteria for the two studies were: (1) abnormal ALT and HCV RNA-positive in tests conducted within 12 weeks before the start of treatment; (2) HCV genotype 1, and HCV genotype 2 nonresponders and relapsers to prior IFN therapy; (3) age 20–64 years; (4) hemoglobin ≥12 g/dL and platelet count ≥100,000 mm^{-3} within 12 weeks before the start of treatment; (5) availability to stay in hospital for 4 weeks after the start of treatment; and (6) agreement to take contraceptive measures during and for 6 months after the end of treatment. Patients with the following characteristics were excluded: (1) pregnant or possibly pregnant and lactating women; (2) depression tendency; (3) severe complications; (4) hepatitis C complicated by other types of hepatitis; (5) liver cirrhosis or cancer as diagnosed in tests conducted within 12 weeks before the start of treatment; (6) history of hepatic encephalopathy, rupture of esophageal varices, or ascites; (7) HIV coinfection; (8) taken antiviral therapy or immunotherapy within 12 weeks before the start of treatment; (9) previous ribavirin therapy; and (10) history of allergy to IFN or nucleoside analogues.