Table 3 Multivariate analyses of factors associated with patient survival

Factor	Parameter estimate	Standard error	X	Risk ratio (95% confidence interval)	*P*-value
Age	0.0085	0.0048	3.17	1.0085 (0.9991–1.0179)	0.0749
Sex					
Male				1	
Female	–0.1390	0.0464	9.34	0.8702 (0.7936–0.9519)	0.0022
Surveillance before HCC					
No				1	
Yes	–0.0844	0.0424	3.98	0.9191 (0.8458–0.9988)	0.0459
Child–Pugh class					
A				1	
B	0.3500	0.0437	63.88	1.4190 (1.3025–1.5460)	<0.0001
C	0.6690	0.0567	115.79	1.9523 (1.7444–2.1790)	<0.0001
Tumor stage[†]					
Stage I				1	
Stage II	0.2722	0.0637	19.19	1.3128 (1.1605–1.4903)	<0.0001
Stage III	0.5559	0.0665	74.65	1.7435 (1.5326–1.9894)	<0.0001
Stage IV	1.1395	0.0707	282.81	3.1251 (2.7245–3.5956)	<0.0001
Hepatitis virus infection					
No				1	
Yes	0.0589	0.0611	0.90	1.0607 (0.9374–1.1916)	0.3424

[†]by Liver Cancer Study Group of Japan.
HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma.

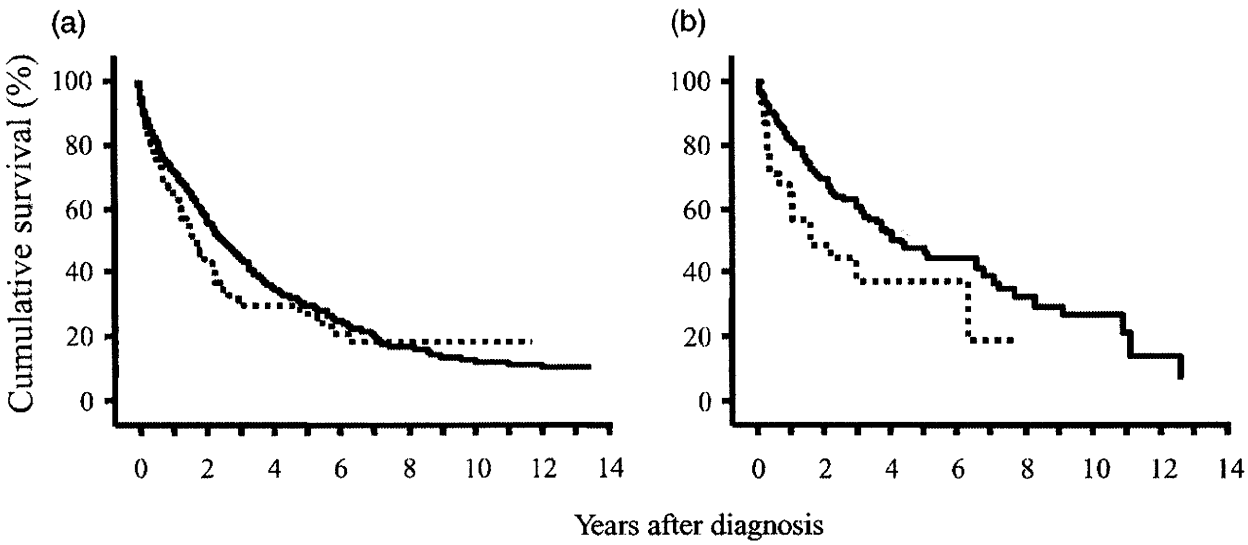

Figure 4 Survival rates of patients (—) with viral hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and patients (·····) with viral marker-negative HCC in relation to cirrhosis. (a) Survival of patients with viral HCC ($n = 777$) and patients with viral marker-negative HCC ($n = 85$), all with cirrhosis. No significant difference was observed between these two groups ($P = 0.2031$). (b) Survival of patients with viral HCC ($n = 256$) and patients with viral marker-negative HCC ($n = 34$), all without cirrhosis. Among these patients, the survival rate of patients with viral HCC was significantly higher than that of patients with viral marker-negative HCC ($P = 0.0166$).

hepatitis virus infection is found. The percentage is reportedly much higher in Western countries.[17–19]

There have been studies of the mechanism underlying development of HCC in patients with no apparent hepatitis virus infection. Few studies, however, have investigated in detail the characteristics and prognosis of patients with HCC in whom no hepatitis virus infection is detected. Some studies reported favorable survival of patients with viral marker-negative HCC, including preserved liver function and absence of multicentric carcinogenesis, in comparison with that of patients with viral

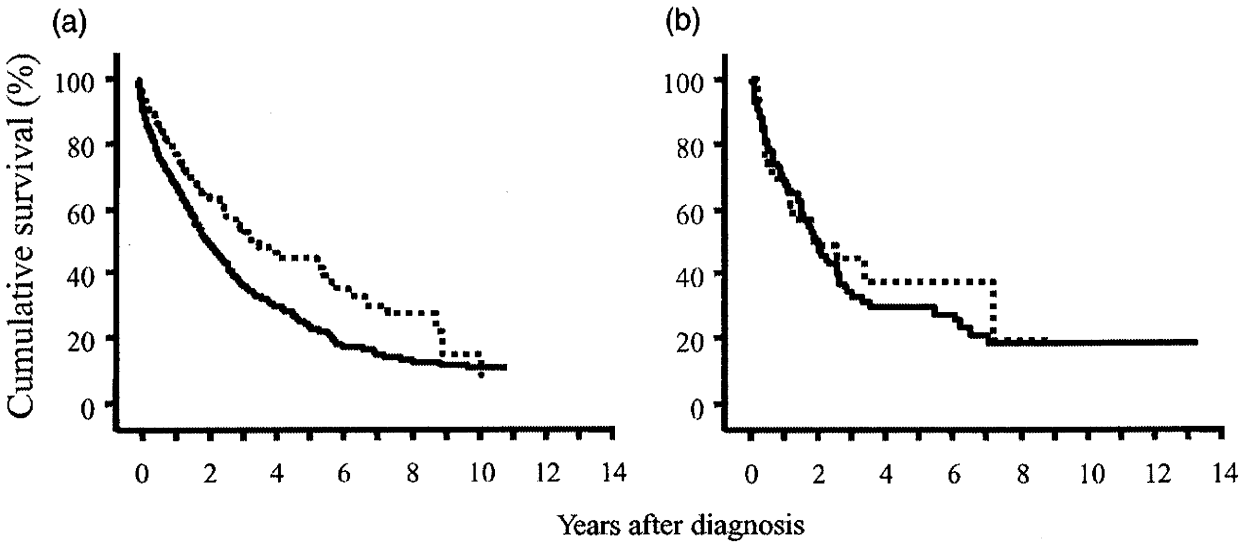

Figure 5 Survival rates of patients (—) with cirrhosis and patients (·····) without cirrhosis in relation to hepatitis virus infection. (a) Survival of patients with ($n = 777$) and without ($n = 256$) cirrhosis, all having viral hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). The survival rate of patients without cirrhosis was significantly higher than that of patients with cirrhosis ($P < 0.0001$). (b) Survival of patients with ($n = 85$) and without ($n = 34$) cirrhosis, all having viral marker-negative HCC. No significant difference was observed between these two groups ($P = 0.6205$).

HCC.[20-23] These studies, however, focused on patients who were treated by hepatic resection and do not reflect the entire population of patients with viral marker-negative HCC.

In the present study, we analyzed the characteristics and prognosis of patients with HCC in whom no hepatitis virus was detected. The infection of hepatitis virus was evaluated by means of examinations that are used routine clinical settings: serum HBV surface antigen for HBV infection, and serum HCV antibody and HCV RNA for HCV infection. These examinations do not necessarily reflect the infection with HBV or HCV accurately due to their limitation of sensitivity, especially in case of HBV infection. Some studies have reported occult HBV infection in patients with viral marker-negative HCC.[24-27] In the present study, however, we did not investigate this occult infection. Hepatitis virus infection was usually examined by routine serologic and virologic analyses (positivity for serum HBV surface antigen, HCV antibody, or HCV RNA) and further analyses for occult viral infection was not performed in daily clinical settings. The patients in whom HBV or HCV was not detected with routine examination therefore were defined as those without hepatitis virus infection. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the characteristics and prognosis of the patients with HCC who were defined as not having hepatitis viral infection.

The results of our present study clearly show viral marker-negative HCC to be more advanced than viral HCC at the time of diagnosis: maximum tumor size was greater, the prevalence of vascular invasion was higher and survival rate was lower. In our previous studies showing improved survival of patients with HCC over the past few decades, the contribution of early detection of HCC to the improved patient prognosis and the importance of surveillance of patients at high risk for development of HCC were also shown.[15,28] Our present study shows a lower percentage of patients under surveillance before the detection and diagnosis of viral marker-negative HCC. In addition, among patients with viral marker-negative HCC, we observed no increase in the rate of surveillance over time, whereas, among patients with viral HCC, we observed a significant increase in the rate of surveillance. Increased awareness of the risk of HCC in patients with cirrhosis or chronic viral hepatitis could have contributed to the increase in the number of patients under surveillance. Awareness of the risk of developing HCC spread especially after the 1990s, when HCV was identified and many patients were admitted to the hospital for examination and treatment of hepatitis virus infection. In contrast, it is difficult to identify patients at high risk for development of HCC if no hepatitis virus infection is detected, especially when they do not have symptomatic liver disease such as cirrhosis. Early-stage HCC is usually asymptomatic, and early detection of HCC is difficult without periodic surveillance. Therefore, patients who are not under surveillance for HCC and who are admitted to the hospital after HCC becomes symptomatic usually have advanced-stage disease. This accounts for the significantly larger tumors and greater prevalence of vascular invasion in patients with viral marker-negative HCC than in those with viral HCC. The surveilled patients in groups with viral HCC and viral marker-negative HCC are the mixture of patients under surveillance at out liver center and those at a primary-care physician. The surveillance at a primary-care physician is likely to be less intensive than that at out liver center, and subsequently the survival rate of patients under surveillance at a primary-care physician is lower than that of patients under surveillance at our center.[15] However, the percentage of patients under surveillance at our center is exactly the same between in surveilled patients with viral HCC and in those with viral marker-negative HCC, and therefore the mixture of the two kinds of surveilled patients would not have

affected the comparison of patient survival between viral HCC and viral marker-negative HCC.

The advanced disease stage and decreased survival in association with viral marker-negative HCC versus viral HCC was marked among patients without clinically evaluated cirrhosis. We did not find a difference in survival between viral marker-negative patients with and without cirrhosis, but a significant difference was observed between these two subgroups among patients with viral HCC. The benefit of well-preserved remnant liver function did not contribute to survival of patients with viral marker-negative HCC without cirrhosis, because the HCC was advanced when it was found. Viral marker-negative HCC without cirrhosis is usually asymptomatic until the HCC progresses to an advanced stage. Although some of the patients were being followed up for abnormal liver function before the detection of HCC, most were not under surveillance for HCC. Indeed, only two of 18 patients with viral marker-negative HCC without cirrhosis were under surveillance at our liver center, whereas the other 16 patients were under surveillance of a primary-care physician. Such surveillance for HCC would typically be less intensive than at our liver center.[15]

There are several reported risk factors for the development of HCC, in addition to HBV or HCV infection. Heavy drinkers are reported to be at high risk for the development of HCC and should be under surveillance even in the absence of hepatitis virus infection.[29] Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis may be another risk factor for the development of HCC.[17,30–33] Detailed analysis of risk factors for development of HCC other than hepatitis viral infection is important to identify patients at high risk for development of HCC in the absence of the detection of hepatitis virus infection.

In conclusion, when HCC is diagnosed in patients in Japan without the detection of hepatitis virus infection, it is generally more advanced and has a poorer prognosis than that of patients with hepatitis virus infection. This could be due to the lower percentage of patients under surveillance for HCC before its detection and diagnosis. The increase in the number of patients under close surveillance has contributed to improved survival in cases of viral HCC. In contrast, it is difficult to identify patients without hepatitis virus infection that are at high risk for developing HCC. Further studies are needed to find a strategy for identifying patients that should be placed under close surveillance so that viral marker-negative HCC will be detected in the early stage. Such a strategy will be of even greater importance in other parts of the world where viral hepatitis is not a predominant cause of HCC.

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Impact of hepatitis B virus (HBV) X gene integration in liver tissue on hepatocellular carcinoma development in serologically HBV-negative chronic hepatitis C patients☆

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***Background/Aims*: We analyzed hepatitis B virus (HBV) X gene integration in hepatocytes of HBV-negative, chronic hepatitis C (CH-C) patients with mild fibrosis, and prospectively followed these patients for the development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).**

***Methods*: The study included 39 HBV-negative CH-C patients with mild fibrosis. HBV-X integration was determined by Alu-PCR analysis of liver specimens obtained by fine-needle biopsy.**

***Results*: Integration of HBV-X gene sequence into liver genome occurred in 9 of the 39 patients. Six of the 39 patients developed HCC during the 12-year follow-up period. No significant difference was found in the incidence of HCC between patients with and without HBV-X integration. However, the two patients with HBV-X integration who developed HCC did not have cirrhosis at the time when HCC was diagnosed, whereas the four patients without HBV-X integration who developed HCC did have cirrhosis.**

***Conclusions*: Our findings suggest that HBV-X integration detected at the mild fibrosis stage might not indicate a high risk for HCC. HBV-X integration may be associated with HCC development in the absence of cirrhosis. However, we did not find evidence that HBV-X integration directly plays a role in hepatocarcinogenesis in CH-C patients. Further studies will be needed to clarify this point.**

***Keywords*: HBV-X integration; Chronic hepatitis C; Hepatocellular carcinoma**

1. Introduction

Chronic viral hepatitis is a leading cause of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) worldwide [1–4]. Occult hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection, characterized by the absence of circulating HBV surface antigen [HBsAg] but presence of the HBV genome in serum or liver tissue, has been identified in hepatitis C virus (HCV)-infected patients. HBV may affect the clinical course of chronic hepatitis C (CH-C) [5] and increase the risk of hepatocarcinogenesis [6]. Pollicino reported that both integrated and free HBV–DNA sequences were highly prevalent in the liver tissue of CH-C patients with HCC compared to CH-C patients without HCC [7].

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These observations support the clinical importance of occult HBV as a carcinogenic factor in HBsAg-negative patients with CH-C. However, it remains controversial whether occult HBV increases the risk of HCC in this population [8].

Several studies have investigated the association between HBV integration and HCC in patients with both chronic HCV infection and HCC [8–10]. However, no study has prospectively evaluated whether HBV integration in liver tissue correlates with HCC development in CH-C patients. In a prospective 12-year study, we attempted to clarify whether HBV integration promotes hepatocarcinogenesis in CH-C patients.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Patients

A total of 67 HBsAg-negative, CH-C patients underwent ultrasonography (US)-guided fine-needle liver biopsy for histological evaluation between January and December 1994. Of these patients, 39 had chronic hepatitis with mild fibrosis (METAVIR score of F0 or F1) [11] and were included in the study. Clinical characteristics of these patients are summarized in Table 1. The patient group contained 30 men and 9 women with a mean age of 49.0 ± 7.6 years. All patients were negative for both serum HBsAg and HBV-DNA and were shown to have persistent HCV infection by nested reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Sixteen of thirty-nine patients had a history of blood transfusion. No patient had a history of intravenous drug use, tattooing, or acupuncture. No patient had a history of acute hepatitis B. All patients were followed from the time of liver biopsy until October 2006. They underwent periodic US examination and analysis for HCC tumor markers, including α-fetoprotein and des-γ-carboxy prothrombin every 6 months. When a suspicious liver lesion was detected by US or a tumor marker was elevated, the patient underwent further examination by imaging such as computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging, or angiography. HCC was diagnosed on the basis of typical imaging findings, which include a mosaic pattern with a halo on B-mode US images, hypervascularity on angiographic images, or a high-density mass on arterial-phase dynamic CT images with a low-density mass on portal-phase dynamic CT images obtained with a helical or multidetector raw CT scanner. All patients who developed HCC underwent a hepatectomy; all tumors were less than 3 cm in diameter when detected under this surveillance. The final diagnosis of HCC was based on histologic examination of the tumor tissue taken from resected specimens.

The study protocol conformed to the ethics guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki (1975). All patients provided written informed consent for analysis of the biopsy specimens, and the Hospital Ethics Committee approved the study.

Table 1
Clinical characteristics of the study patients ($n = 39$)

Age (years)	49.0 ± 7.6
Sex (female/male)	9(23.1)/30(76.9)[#]
History of blood transfusion	15 (38.5)
Presumed duration of HCV carriage[*]	19.0 (5–33)[##]
Alanine aminotransferase (IU/L)	60.1 ± 31.4
Aspartate aminotransferase (IU/L)	45.0 ± 23.8
Gamma glutamyl transpeptidase (mg/L)	51.2 ± 55.3
Albumin (g/dL)	4.11 ± 0.33
Total-bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.74 ± 0.33
Platelet count ($\times 10^4$/ml)	17.9 ± 6.5
HCV RNA concentration ($\times 10^3$IU/mL)	570 (3–4900)[##]
HCV genotype	
1b	25(64.1)[#]
2a	11 (28.2)[#]
2b	3 (7.7)[#]
HBV surface antigen	0
HBV surface antibody	6(15.4)[#]
HBV core antibody	25(64.1)[#]
Fibrosis stage[**]	
F0	14 (35.9)[#]
F1	25(64.1)[#]

HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus.
[*] In patients with a history of blood transfusion.
[**] According to METAVIR score.
[#] Percentages are shown in parentheses.
[##] Median; ranges are shown in parentheses.

2.2. Sample preparation

DNA was extracted from liver tissues obtained at liver biopsy on 1994 with a DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. All samples were stored at −80 °C and carefully handled to avoid contamination with nucleic acids.

2.3. Detection of viral–host junctions

A PCR-based technique, Alu-PCR, one of the most effective procedures to detect junctions between integrated HBV-DNA and human DNA, was used to amplify viral–host junctions using 100 ng of genomic DNA [12–14] (Table 2). The sensitivity study for this PCR was performed using human hepatoma cell line Huh-2 cells that contain 1 copy per cell of integrated HBV (kindly provided by Dr. K Koike from Department of Gene Research, Cancer Institute, Tokyo) [15]. Amplified PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis on 1.0% agarose gel and transferred to a Hybond-N^+ nylon membrane (Amersham Pharmacia, Buckinghamshire, UK). About 3.2 kb of the HBV X genome (HBV-X) was amplified according to the method of Günther et al. [16]. HBV-specific bands were then detected by hybridization with a DIG labeled HBV probe (Roche, Mannheim, Germany).

2.4. Direct sequencing

The amplified viral/host junctions were purified with an Easy Trap Kit (Takara, Otsu, Japan) and sequenced using a Prism Taq DyeDeoxy Terminator cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Products were precipitated with ethanol and analyzed with a 377 Prism DNA Sequencer (Applied Biosystems Inc.). To identify the HBV-X integration site, we used BLAST (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) to compare sequences adjacent to the integrated HBV-DNA with the human genome.

2.5. Other serological and virological tests

HBV surface antigen, surface antibody, and core antibody were measured with ARCHITECT HBsAg QT, ARCHITECT anti-HBs, and ARCHITECT anti-HBc, respectively (Abbott Japan, Tokyo, Japan). Serum HBV-DNA was measured by the Amplicor HBV test (detection limit, 400 copies/mL; Roche Diagnostics, Branchburg, NJ). HCV genotype was determined by PCR with genotype-specific primers [17,18]. HCV RNA concentration was measured by a quantitative PCR assay (detection limit, 5000 copies/mL; Amplicor GT-HCV Monitor, Version 2.0; Roche Molecular Systems, Pleasanton, CA).

2.6. Statistical analyses

Data are expressed as means ± SD or the median and range. Differences in the proportion of patients with and without HBV-X integration were analyzed by χ^2 test. Differences in quantitative values were analyzed by Mann–Whitney U test. For the incidence of HCC

Table 2
Sequences of primers for detection of viral–host junctions

Primer name	Primer sequence	HBV portion and note
UP5	5′-CAGUGCCAAGUGUUUGCUGACGCCAAAGUGCUGGGAUUA-3′	Alu-sense
T3-515	5′-AUUAACCCUCACUAAAGCCUCGAUAGAUYRYRCCAYUGCAC-3′	Alu-antisense
UP6	5′-CAAGTGTTTGCTGACGCCAAAG-3′	Alu-sense (tag)
midT3	5′-ATTAACCCTCACTAAAGCCTCG-3′	Alu-antisense (tag)
pUTP	5′-ACAUGAACCUUUACCCCGUUGC-3′	1131–1152 HB1 (HBV-X)
MD37	5′-TGCCAAGTGTTTGCTGACGC-3′	1174–1193 HB2 (HBV-X)
MD60	5′-CTGCCGATCCATACTGCGGAAC-3′	1258–1279 HB3 (HBV-X)

Numbering of nucleotides is according to Ono et al. [31]. U = dUTP; Y = (C,T); R = (A,G).

development, the date of the initial liver biopsy was defined as time zero. Data pertaining to patients who did not develop HCC were censored. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to calculate the incidence of HCC, and the log-rank test was used to analyze differences. The JMP statistical software package, version 4.0, (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) was used for all statistical analyses. All p values were derived from two-tailed tests, and $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Integration of hepatitis B viral genome and patient characteristics

The sensitivity of the PCR amplification was first determined with hepatoma cell line Huh-2 cells. When we made a tenfold serial dilution of Huh-2 cells with normal human PBMC without a history of liver disease, we could detect viral–host junctions at about 100 copies per reaction by the PCR (Fig. 1a).

We amplified virus–host DNA junctions from the liver of CH-C patients and detected several bands on 1.0%-agarose gels (Fig. 1b). Sequencing these PCR products revealed HBV-X integration in 9 of the 39 (23.1%) patients. Nineteen viral–host junctions were detected in these 9 patients. In 4 of these 9 patients, multiple integration sites (range, 2–6) were present. For example, 6 viral–host junctions were detected in patient 15, and the adjacent host sequences were from 6 different chromosomes (red circle, Fig. 2). In the other 5 cases, a single integration site was detected. The sites of HBV-X integration are shown in Fig. 2.

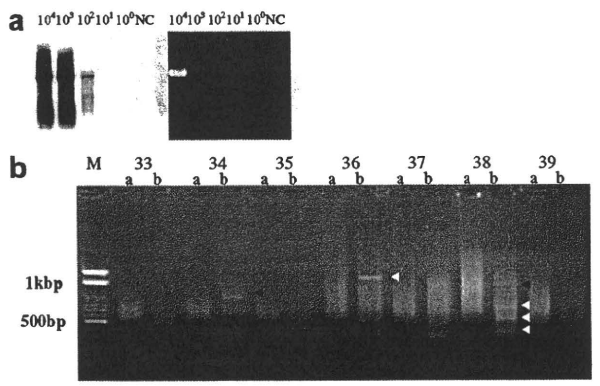

Fig. 1. The detection of HBV-X–host junction by Alu-PCR analysis. (a) The sensitivity study of Alu-PCR method. Serially diluted genomic DNA contained with HBV integrant was amplified by using HBV-X and Alu antisense primer pair. Left is Southern blot analysis from the gel electropheresis (right). (b) The numbers indicate the individual patients, and a and b indicate the primer pair used for amplification (a, HBV-X primer and Alu sense; b, HBV-X primer and Alu antisense). The PCR strategy and the primer sequences used in this study were previously described [12–14]. Arrowheads indicate PCR products with HBV-X–host junctional sequences (white) and without HBV-X–host junctions (black).

Clinical characteristics of patients with and without HBV-X integration are summarized in Table 3. There were no differences in the clinical characteristics. During the observation period, 4 of 9 (44.4%) patients with HBV-X integration and 13 of 30 (43.3%) patients without HBV-X integration received interferon monotherapy. These percentages did not differ significantly.

3.2. Host genome sequences at sites of HBV-X integration

The sites of host integration were divided into two groups: (1) genes already known and/or fully characterized but not previously shown to be involved in carcinogenesis (1 integration site; T cell lymphoma invasion and metastasis 1 [TIAMI] in Patient 8), and (2) unknown open reading frames (ORFs) or genes belonging to a known gene family but not functionally characterized (18 integration sites). The HBV genome ORF was integrated in both the same and opposite orientations of the host gene and both proximal to and into host genes (Table 4).

3.3. Development of HCC

Over the 12-year follow-up period, HCC developed in 6 of the 39 (15.4%) patients. HCC developed in 4 of the 30 (13.3%) patients without HBV-X integration and in 2 of the 9 (22.2%) patients with HBV-X integration (Fig. 3). The difference in the incidence of HCC between patients with and without HBV-X integration was not significant ($p = 0.8041$). Patient age, sex, and histologic data at the time of HBV-X integration analysis and at the time of HCC diagnosis are shown in Table 5. All patients who developed HCC were males. Age at the time HCC developed did not differ between patients

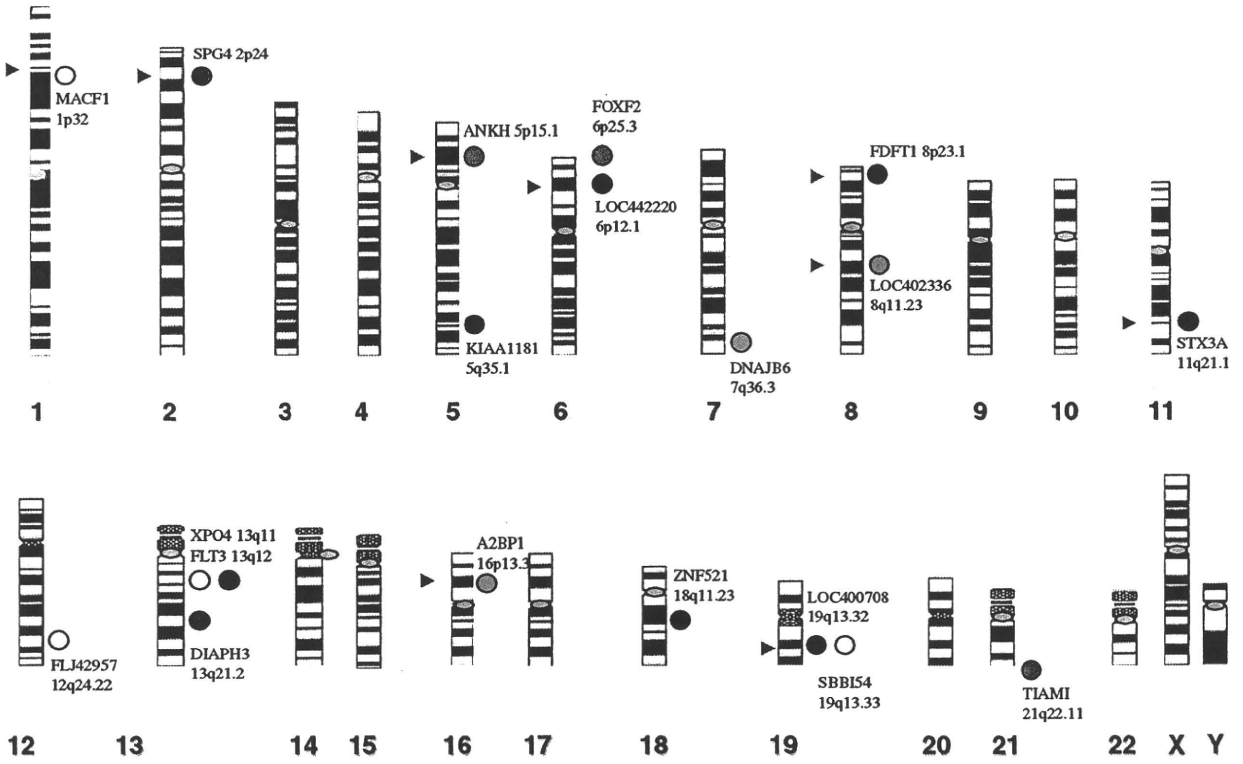

Fig. 2. Chromosomal distribution of HBV-X integration sites. Circles indicate viral integration sites, and the circle color denotes the sample. For example, the three white spots indicate three viral integration sites detected in the same specimen. Gene names and chromosomal localizations are also noted. Red arrowheads indicate DNA fragile sites [32].

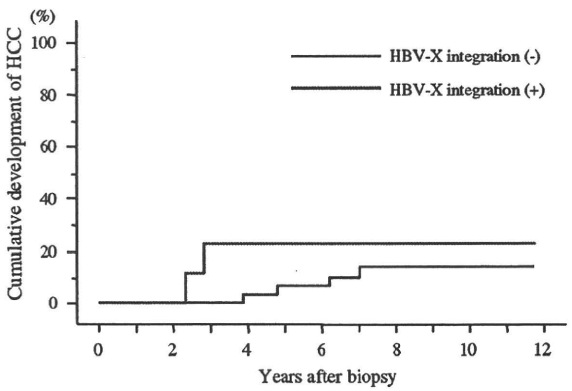

Fig. 3. Kaplan–Meier curves for the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). The blue and red lines represent the incidence of HCC in patients with and without HBV-X integration, respectively. No significant difference was observed between the two groups ($p = 0.8041$).

with and without HBV-X integration. Five of 6 patients who developed HCC (except for patient No. 34) had received interferon therapy, but all of them remained HCV positive. All 4 patients without HBV-X integration who developed HCC had cirrhosis at the time HCC was diagnosed. In contrast, the fibrosis stage was moderate or mild (F1 or F2) in the 2 patients with HBV-X integration who developed HCC. No patient was positive for the circulating low-level HBV–DNA analyzed with a highly sensitive HBV–DNA detection method (detection limit, 35 copies/mL; COBAS Taq-Man HBV test, Roche Diagnostics) at the time of HCC diagnosis [19].

We attempted to detect HBV–host junction by the same Alu-PCR method in resected HCC materials that developed in 4 patients (patients #9, 21, 34, and 38) using paraffin-embedded samples. HBV-X integration was detected in HCC materials of none of 4 patients (data not shown).

4. Discussion

This is the first prospective study to analyze HBV integration into the host hepatocyte genome of CH-C patients with mild fibrosis and then to follow these patients over a long period for the development of HCC. Previous studies investigated HBV integration in HCC tissue of patients chronically infected with HCV [8–10] or in HCC tissue of patients without hepatitis virus infection [20]. However, in these studies, HBV integration was analyzed in cancerous and non-cancerous tissue after the development of HCC, and thus the effect of HBV integration on the development of HCC in CH-C patients was not investigated.

Table 3
Characteristics of patients with and without HBV-X–DNA integration

	HBV-X–DNA integration (−) ($n = 30$)	HBV-X–DNA integration (+) ($n = 9$)
Age (years)	48.9 ± 7.6	49.6 ± 7.7
Sex (female/male)	6 (20.0)/24 (80.0)#	3 (33.3)/6 (66.7)#
History of blood transfusion	11(36.7)#	4 (44.4)#
Presumed duration of HCV carriage*	19.0 (5–33)##	22.5 (12–33)##
Alanine aminotransferase (IU/L)	60.0 ± 31.8	60.4 ± 31.8
Aspartate aminotransferase (IU/L)	46.2 ± 25.9	41.0 ± 15.8
Gamma glutamyl transpeptidase (mg/L)	49.5 ± 39.0	34.6 ± 29.2
Albumin (g/dL)	4.08 ± 0.37	4.22 ± 0.14
Total-bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.70 ± 0.33	0.84 ± 0.33
Platelet count ($\times 10^4$/ml)	18.0 ± 5.3	17.6 ± 9.9
HCV RNA concentration ($\times 10^3$IU/mL)	790 (3–4900)##	320 (3–2100)##
HCV genotype		
1b	19(63.3)#	6 (66.7)#
2a	8 (26.7)#	3 (33.3)#
2b	3 (10.0)#	0
HBs antibody (+)	4(13.3)#	2 (22.2)#
HBc antibody (+)	20 (66.7)#	5 (55.6)#
Fibrosis stage**		
F0	10 (33.3)#	4 (44.4)#
F1	20 (66.7)#	5 (55.6)#

HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus.
* In patients with a history of blood transfusion.
** According to METAVIR score.
# Percentages are shown in parentheses.
Median; ranges are shown in parentheses.

Table 4
Genes and sequences of HBV-X–DNA integration sites

No.	Supercontig	Position	Orientation	Chromosomal localization	Name	Location	Name/function
8.	NT034880	1375087	Same	6p25.3	FOXF2	39 kb upstream	Forkhead box F2
8.	NT086666	14245273	Opposite	5p15.1	ANKH	177 kb upstream	Ankylosis, progressive homolog
8.	NT011512	18351760	Same	21q22.11	TIAM1	21.5 kb upstream	T-cell lymphoma invasion and metastasis 1
15.	NT_022184	11183657	Same	2p24	SPG4	Intronic seq	Spastic paraplegia 4 (autosomal dominant; spastin)
15.	NT_024524	41428064	Same	13q21.2	DIAPH3	Intronic seq	Diaphanous homolog 3 (*Drosophila*)
15.	NT011109	19337933	Same	19q13.32	LOC400708	3.1 kb upstream	Similar to Serine/threonine protein phosphatase 5 (PP5)
15.	NT_077531	4155242	Opposite	8p23.1	FDFT1	Intronic seq	Farnesyl-diphosphate farnesyltransferase 1
15.	NT_010966	4345775	Opposite	18q11.2	ZNF521	23 kb upstream	Zinc finger protein 521
15.	NT_007592	46424722	Same	6p12.1	LOC442220	5.3 kb upstream	Similar to nitrogen fixation cluster-like
21.	NT_023133	17103986	Opposite	5q35.1	KIAA1181	38 kb downstream	Endoplasmic reticulum-golgi intermediate compartment 32 kDa protein
22.	NT011109	23275592	Same	19q13.33	SBBI54	Intronic seq	Hypothetical transmembrane protein SBBI54
23.	NT008183	6327145	Opposite	8q11.23	LOC402336	16.9 kb upstream	Similar to L21 ribosomal protein
24.	NT_024524	2436145	Opposite	13q11	XPO4	12.6 kb upstream	Exportin 4
27.	NT_007741	2000247	Opposite	7q36.3	DNAJB6	4 kb downstream	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily B, member 6 Homo sapiens
27.	NT086834	6475804	Opposite	16p13.3	A2BP1	31.9 kb upstream	Ataxin 2-binding protein 1
36.	NT_033903	4799121	Opposite	11q21.1	STX3A	29 kb downstream	Syntaxin3A
38.	NT_009775	7468765	Opposite	12q24.22	FLJ42957	71 kb downstream	FLJ42957 protein
38.	NT_024524	9545675	Opposite	13q12	FLT3	20 kb downstream	Fms-related tyrosine kinase 3
38.	NT004511	9911738	Opposite	1p32	MACF1	Intronic seq	Microtubule-actin crosslinking factor 1

In three studies of HCV-related HCC, the rates of HBV integration in tumor tissue are discrepant: 55.6% (10 out of 18 cases) [8], 29.4% (10 out of 34 cases) [10], and 0% (0 out of 21 cases) [9]. Clonal expansion of hepatocytes containing integrated HBV in association with cancer progression may increase the detection rate of HBV integration. Conversely, clonal expansion of cancerous hepatocytes without HBV integration may decrease the

Table 5
Cases of HCC development

No.	Sex	Age at biopsy	Fibrosis at biopsy	Interval between biopsy and HCC development	Age at HCC development	Fibrosis at HCC development[a]	HBV-X–DNA integration
7.	M	61	F1	4y.	65	F4	(−)
9.	M	57	F1	5y.	62	F4	(−)
21.	M	56	F1	3y.	64	F2	(+)
28.	M	56	F1	5y.	61	F4	(−)
34.	M	47	F1	7y.	54	F4	(−)
38.	M	55	F0	2y.	57	F1	(+)

[a] Non-cancerous tissue.

detection of HBV integration. Therefore, hepatocyte clonal expansion may account for discrepancies in the rates of HBV integration between studies. In contrast, clonal expansion of hepatocytes is unlikely in cases of CH-C with mild fibrosis but without HCC. The prevalence of HBV-X integration in our patient population (23.1%), therefore, represents the actual rate of HBV-X integration in CH-C patients. The number of HBV-X -host integration sites in these patients was smaller than patients with chronic hepatitis B and similar to patients with acute hepatitis B in our previous study with the same detection method for HBV integration [13].

HBV integration is detected in approximately 90% of liver tumor samples from patients with HBsAg [21]. HBV insertional mutagenesis is an important step in many cases of hepatocarcinogenesis in patients with chronic HBV infection. Chromosomal inversions, translocations, or micro deletions can occur at the integration sites, causing tumors to develop in some patients [22,23]. Several tumor-associated genes have been identified adjacent to HBV integration sites [24,25]. However, HBV does not integrate in or near a tumor-associated gene in most HBV-infected individuals. Rather, HBV–DNA integrates randomly into host DNA in HBV-related HCC [21,26,27]. This random integration also appears in patients with HCV-related HCC, although one study suggested that HBV–DNA integrates into tumor-associated genes of some HCC patients without HBsAg [8].

In the present study of CH-C patients without HCC, the HBV-X integration sites were distributed across the genome with little similarity and the host sequences adjacent to the viral genome were divergent. These data are consistent with our previous results on HBV-infected patients with the same detection method for HBV-X integration [14]. In the present study, we did not detect HBV-X integration into genes associated with carcinogenesis. Because HBV–DNA integrates randomly into host DNA and the number of HBV-integration sites was smaller in CH-C patients compared to chronic hepatitis B patients [13], the likelihood of HBV integrating into genes associated with carcinogenesis would be considerably low.

We analyzed HBV-X integration in CH-C patients with mild fibrosis and prospectively observed the patient group for 12 years. There was no statistically significant difference in the incidence of HCC between patients with and without HBV-X integration. Taken together with results from clinical observations and genetic analyses, these data suggest that testing HBV-X integration at a mild fibrosis stage may not predict the likelihood of CH-C patients developing hepatocarcinogenesis. However, the lack of statistical significance in the incidence of HCC could be partly because of the small number of study patients. Future studies with a larger patient population may detect patients with HBV integration in tumor-associated genes and a higher incidence of HCC development in CH-C patients with HBV integration.

In the present study, there was no cirrhosis in non-cancerous liver tissue surrounding the tumor at the time of HCC development, and fibrosis was not severe (stage F1 or F2) in patients with HBV-X integration. In contrast, all 4 HCC patients without HBV-X integration had cirrhosis (stage F4). In addition, the interval between the analysis of HBV-X integration and HCC development was shorter in patients with HBV-X integration than those without HBV-X integration. The stage of fibrosis, especially the presence of cirrhosis, is related closely to the incidence of HCV-related HCC [28], and most patients with HCV-related HCC have cirrhosis [10,29]. Our results showed that HCC develops in the absence of cirrhosis in some CH-C patients with HBV-X integration, and this may suggest the possibility that HBV-X integration may play a role in accelerated hepatocarcinogenesis in some cases. However, we did not detect HBV-X integration in paraffin-embedded resected HCC materials of both 2 patients with HBV-X integration at liver biopsy (patients #21 and #38). Although this can be partly due to the use of paraffin-embedded materials for analyses of integration (unfortunately frozen section was not available), we did not find the evidence that HBV-X integration directly played a role in hepatocarcinogenesis in the present study.

There are several limitations of the study. The detection of HBV integration with PCR using Alu repeats may limit the identification of HBV-X sequence integration sites that are far away from the priming site,

therefore, restricting the sensitivity of the assay as the amplicon size increases. In addition, detection of HBV integration only using the X gene-specific primers makes infeasible identification of integration sites of other virus gene sequences. Further, integrated HBV genome can limit or negate entirely the HBV X primer-binding site, because HBV sequences may be deleted upon integration. The Alu-PCR method used in the present study, therefore, may underestimate the integration of HBV in CH-C patients.

In summary, HBV-X integration was detected in 9 of 39 CH-C patients and the number of HBV-X–host integration sites in these patients was similar to patients with acute hepatitis B. They were distributed across the genome with little similarity. In the prospective observation of CH-C patients over 12 years, HBV-X integration detected at the mild fibrosis stage might not indicate a high risk for HCC during the course of CH-C. Although HBV-X integration may be associated with HCC development in the absence of cirrhosis, we did not find evidence that HBV-X integration directly plays a role for hepatocarcinogenesis in this patient population. Further studies with more sensitive and reliable method than Alu-PCR method for the detection of HBV integration are needed to elucidate the association between HBV integration and HCC development in CH-C patients without cirrhosis. Also, the analyses for HBV integration in frozen sections of resected HCC materials from CH-C patients in whom HBV integration was detected at the mild fibrosis stage may provide the evidence for direct association between HBV integration and accelerated hepatocarcinogenesis in this population. In addition, the association between genotype of integrated HBV and hepatocarcinogenesis in this population should also be investigated in the future, because the potential incidence of HCC reportedly differs according to HBV genotype in case of HBV-infected patients [30].

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jhep.2007.08.016.

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Original Article

Guidelines for the antiviral therapy of hepatitis C virus carriers with normal serum aminotransferase based on platelet counts

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Aim: We aimed to identify the candidates for antiviral therapy, among patients who are hepatitis C virus (HCV) carriers with normal serum aminotransferase (ALT), focused on the inhibition of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).

Methods: Four hundred and sixty-four HCV carriers with normal serum ALT and 129 HCV carriers with persistently normal ALT (PNALT) and platelet (PLT) counts ≥150 000/μL who received liver biopsies were enrolled. HCV carriers with normal serum ALT were divided into four groups according to their ALT levels (≤30 U/L or 31–40 U/L) and PLT counts (≥150 000/μL or <150 000/μL).

Results: In 129 HCV carriers with PNALT, the rate of progression of fibrosis stage was 0.05/year and no HCC was detected during the follow up for 10 years. Approximately 20% of patients with ALT ≤40 U/L and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL were at stage F2–3; however, approximately 50% of patients with ALT ≤ 40 U/L and PLT counts <150 000/μL were at stage F2–4. An algorithm for the management of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT was advocated based on ALT and PLT counts.

Conclusion: The combination of ALT and PLT counts is useful for evaluating the fibrosis stage in HCV carriers with normal serum ALT. Most patients with PLT counts <150 000/μL are candidates for antiviral therapy, especially those with ALT levels ≥31 U/L when we focus on the inhibition of the development of HCC.

Key words: antiviral therapy, chronic hepatitis C, hepatitis C virus carriers, normal serum aminotransferase, platelet count

INTRODUCTION

HEPATOCELLULAR CARCINOMA (HCC) caused by hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection usually develops in patients with advanced chronic hepatitis (CH) or liver cirrhosis. The antiviral treatment for chronic hepatitis C (CH-C) is useful for inhibiting hepatic inflammation and progression of hepatic fibrosis, and consequently the development of HCC.[1–6]

Serum aminotransferase (ALT) levels are within the normal ranges in 20–40% of patients with chronic HCV infection,[7–11] defining the upper limit of normal serum ALT as ≤40 U/L. Significant hepatic fibrosis (≥F2 by the METAVIR classification) has been demonstrated in 5–30% of such patients.[9,12–16] We reported previously

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that HCV carriers with persistently normal ALT (PNALT) had histological features ranging from normal to minimal CH[17,18]; they showed slow progression of liver fibrosis and were at very low risk of developing HCC.[18]

The National Institute of Health Consensus Development Conference reported that HCV carriers with normal serum ALT are candidates for antiviral therapy.[19] A controlled study for the treatment of HCV carriers with PNALT with pegylated interferon alpha and ribavirin (PEG-IFN/Riba) for 48 weeks led to the eradication of HCV RNA in 40% of patients with genotype 1 and high viral load,[20] which is similar to the results of CH-C patients with elevated ALT levels.[21,22] However, it remains controversial whether these patients are candidates for antiviral therapy because of the limited efficacy of treatment, post-treatment flare-up, various side-effects, high cost of treatment, and their good prognoses.

In many Western countries, the upper limits of normal serum ALT are below 40 U/L;[23] however, a recent report from Italy demonstrated that the upper limit in healthy individuals was less than 30 U/L for men and 19 U/L for women.[24] We attempted to draft therapeutic guidelines for the treatment of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT. The biochemical and histological analyses were performed in HCV carriers with serum ALT levels below 40 U/L. These patients were divided into two groups based on ALT levels and then further divided into two subgroups according to their platelet (PLT) counts. We proposed an algorithm for the treatment of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT, taking into consideration the risk of progression to cirrhosis and the development of HCC. The present study demonstrated that the ranges of serum ALT and PLT counts are useful for deciding the indication of antiviral therapy for HCV carriers with normal serum ALT.

METHODS

Eligibility and definition

TWELVE HEPATOLOGISTS BELONGING to the Japanese Study Group of the Standard Antiviral Therapy for Viral Hepatitis, supported by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, which was settled on April 2004, participated in the study. Hiromitsu Kumada (Toranomon Hospital, Tokyo, Japan) serves as a chief and Takeshi Okanoue served as a researcher responsible for drafting the guidelines for the treatment of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT. In the present study, we tentatively defined the upper limit of the normal serum ALT as ≤40 U/L.

Patients with hepatitis B virus surface antigen, previous IFN treatment, history of heavy alcohol abuse, antinuclear antibody or antismooth muscle antibody, overt diabetes mellitus, or obesity (body mass index; ≥25 kg/m^2) were excluded from the study.

All of the patients underwent liver biopsy (≥2.0 cm in length) within 6 months prior to antiviral therapy, at which time their serum ALT levels were ≤40 U/L. Informed consent was obtained from every patient prior to liver biopsy and antiviral therapy.

Another study was conducted from January 1990 to August 2004 at Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine (Kyoto, Japan). HCV carriers with PNALT were defined by serum ALT levels ≤30 U/L on at least three different occasions over a 12-month period and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL as reported previously.[18]

Study design

Among the 580 HCV carriers with normal serum ALT (≤40 U/L), 116 patients were excluded from the study because of insufficient data. Thus, 464 patients who received antiviral therapy from 1995 to 2004 were enrolled in this study (Table 1). Formalin-fixed liver specimens were stained with hematoxylin–eosin, and with Masson's trichrome. The liver specimens ($n = 262$) were also stained with Perls' Prussian blue to study hepatic iron loading. The histological findings were scored according to the classification proposed by Desmet *et al.*[25] and Ishak *et al.*[26] Steatosis was defined as fat droplets in >10% of hepatocytes. The degree of iron loading was assessed using a Perls' score of 0–4+, based on the scoring system of MacSween *et al.*[27]

The serum ALT, blood glucose level, immunoreactive insulin (IRI), serum ferritin, PLT count, serum hyaluronic acid, amount of serum HCV RNA, and the HCV genotype were examined. The homeostasis model assessment–insulin resistance was calculated as follows: plasma fasting glucose (mg/dL) × IRI (ng/mL) ÷ 405. The serum HCV RNA levels were determined using an Amplicor GT HCV monitor (Roche Diagnostic Systems, Tokyo, Japan). HCV genotype 1 (G1) and 2 (G2) were determined by a serologic genotyping assay.[28] G1 and G2 in this assay correspond to genotype 1 (1a, 1b) and 2 (2a, 2b) proposed by Simmonds *et al.*[29]

All the patients received IFN monotherapy or IFN/Riba combination therapy for 12–36 weeks. The average

Table 1 Baseline of hepatitis C virus patients with normal serum aminotransferase (ALT) received antiviral therapy

	ALT ≤ 30 U/L (group A)	ALT 31–40 U/L (group B)	*P*-value
No. patients	255	209	
Age	51.6 ± 13.0	53.5 ± 13.2	0.548*
Sex (male/female)	112/143	117/92	0.01**
BMI (kg/m^2)	21.6 ± 2.9	22.8 ± 3.0	<0.001*
HOMA-IR	2.5 ± 3.2	5.2 ± 6.5	0.093*
Genotype: 1/2/others	127/127/1	112/96/1	0.881**
Viral load: low/high	138/117	99/110	0.203**
G1 (low/high)	114/125		
G2 (low/high)	161/62		
Histology			
F stage (0/1/2/3/4)	29/166/48/11/1	22/122/57/6/2	0.169**
Grade (0/1/2/3)	25/187/41/2	7/159/43/0	0.046**
Fatty change† 0–1/2–4	232/23	161/48	0.033**
Iron load‡ 0/1–4	101/15	97/19	0.458**
Ferritin (ng/mL)	83.9 ± 103.7	118.8 ± 135.3	0.006*
PLT count (/μL)	19.2 ± 5.4	18.4 ± 6.1	0.059*
≥150 000/<150 000	204/51	141/68	0.002**
Hyaluronate (ng/mL)	60.8 ± 73.7	69.1 ± 73.0	0.249*
Duration of antiviral therapy (weeks)	25.6 ± 12.0	26.1 ± 12.1	0.297*
Effects of therapy			
SVR/non-SVR	142/113	99/110	0.075**

*P-values were calculated by Mann–Whitney-*U*-test. **Fisher-exact-test. †0: no fatty change, 1: ≤10%, 2: 11–33%, 3: 34–66%, 4: ≥67% of hepatocyte; ‡no stain by 400×, 1: few stains by 250×, 2: stains by 100×, 3: stains by 25×, 4: stains by 10×. There were significant differences in sex distribution ($P = 0.01$), BMI ($P = 0.01$), frequency of steatosis ($P = 0.033$), serum ferritin level ($P = 0.006$), grade of hepatic inflammation ($P = 0.046$), incidence of fatty change ($P = 0.033$), serum ferritin level ($P = 0.006$), and the incidence of low PLT counts ($P = 0.002$) between groups A and B. Values are expressed as mean ± SD.
ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment-insulin resistance; PLT, platelet; SVR, sustained viral responders.

duration of therapy between 1995 and 2003 was 26 weeks for IFN monotherapy and 24 weeks for IFN/Riba combination therapy. In principle, 6–10 MU IFN was administered daily for 2 weeks and three times per week subsequently. The daily dosage of ribavirin was 600–1000 mg depending on body weight. Sustained viral responders (SVR) were defined as patients who were negative for serum HCV RNA 6 months after the completion of antiviral therapy.

All of the patients were divided into two groups (group A: ALT ≤ 30 U/L, group B: 31 U/L ≤ ALT ≤ 40 U/L) which were further divided into two subgroups based on PLT counts: group A-1 and B-1 (PLT counts ≥150 000/μL) and groups A-2 and B-2 (PLT counts <150 000/μL).

One hundred and twenty-nine HCV carriers with PNALT were enrolled to determine their long-term prognosis. These patients showed normal serum ALT levels (≤30 U/L) over a 12-month period on least three different occasions (PLT counts ≥150 000/μL, and body mass index [BMI] <25 kg/m^2). Thirty-nine patients received serial liver biopsies. The mean follow-up period of the 129 patients was 7.2 ± 3.2 years on 15 November 2006.

Statistical analyses

Data are expressed as mean ± SD. We compared continuous variables using the Mann–Whitney *U*-test. A frequency analysis and comparison between the groups were performed using the χ^2-test or Fisher's exact test and the Mann–Whitney *U*-test. ANOVA and Tukey's HSD procedure was used to determine the difference between multiple groups. All tests were two-tailed and *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered significant. All statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Package of Services Solutions software, version 11.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

Table 2 Baseline of hepatitis C virus patients with less than 30 U/L aminotransferase who received antiviral therapy

	PLT ≥ 150 000/mL (group A-1)	PLT < 150 000/mL (group A-2)	*P*-value
No. patients	204	51	
Age	48.4 ± 12.7	58.7 ± 7.5	<0.001*
Sex (male/female)	90/114	22/29	1.000**
BMI (kg/m^2)	21.6 ± 3.0	21.3 ± 2.4	0.514*
HOMA-IR	2.8 ± 3.5	1.2 ± 0.8	0.598*
Genotype: 1/2/others	101/101/2	25/26/0	0.952**
Viral load: low/high	112/92	26/25	0.574**
Histology			
F stage (0/1/2/3/4)	29/142/27/6/0	1/25/21/3/1	<0.001**
Grade (0–1/2,3)	179/25	33/18	<0.001**
Fatty change† 0–1/2–4	188/16	44/7	0.582**
Iron load‡ 0/1–4	82/12	17/3	0.762**
Ferritin (ng/mL)	86.0 ± 112.1	73.9 ± 46.6	0.204*
PLT count (/μL)	21.0 ± 4.4	12.1 ± 2.5	<0.001*
Hyaluronate (ng/mL)	41.8 ± 56.1	112.5 ± 109.9	<0.001*
Duration of antiviral therapy (weeks)	25.7 ± 10.3	27.0 ± 9.9	0.503*
Effects of therapy			
SVR/non-SVR	115/89	27/24	0.66**

**P*-values were calculated by Mann–Whitney-*U*-test. ***Fisher-exact-test. †0: no fatty change, 1: ≤10%, 2: 11–33%, 3: 34–66%, 4: ≥67% of hepatocyte; ‡no stain by 400×, 1: few stains by 250×, 2: stains by 100×, 3: stains by 25×, 4: stains by 10×. There were significant differences in age ($P < 0.001$), distribution of F stage ($P < 0.001$), grade of inflammatory activity ($P < 0.001$), PLT count ($P < 0.001$), and serum-hyaluronic acid ($P < 0.001$) between groups A-1 and A-2. Frequency of F2–4 patients was 16.2% in group A-1 and 51.6% in group A-2. Values are expressed as mean ± SD.

BMI, body mass index; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment–insulin resistance; PLT, platelet counts; SVR, sustained viral responders.

RESULTS

Demographic, clinical, and histological features of 464 HCV carriers with normal serum ALT

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF the 464 HCV carriers with normal serum ALT are shown in Table 1. There were significant differences in sex, frequency of steatosis, serum ferritin levels, BMI, and the incidence of low PLT counts (<150 000/μL) between groups A and B.

There were significant differences in age, fibrosis (F) stage, inflammatory activity, PLT counts, and serum hyaluronate between groups A-1 and A-2 (Table 2). The frequency of stage F2–4 patients was 16.2% in group A-1, and 49.0% in group A-2 (Table 2). In group B, there were significant differences in age, F stage, PLT counts, and serum hyaluronate between groups B-1 and B-2 (Table 3). There were no F4 patients in group A-1 and B-1, and the frequency of F3 patients was very low compared with those in groups A-2 and B-2 (2.6% *vs* 7.6%). The PLT counts decreased in proportion to the progression of liver fibrosis as follows; F0 ($n = 51$); $20.7 \pm 5.2 \times 10^4$/μL, F1 ($n = 288$); $19.8 \pm 5.6 \times 10^4$/μL, F2 ($n = 105$); $16.9 \pm 5.3 \times 10^4$/μL, F3 ($n = 17$); $15.9 \pm 4.6 \times 10^4$/μL, and F4 ($n = 3$); $11.3 \pm 3.8 \times 10^4$/μL.

Of the 464 patients, the frequency of the F0–1 stages was 80.1% and that of the F2–4 stages was 19.9% in patients with PLT counts ≥150 000/μL, and it was 50.4% and 49.6%, respectively, in patients with PLT counts <150 000/μL. In patients with PLT counts $\geq 17.0 \times 10^4$/μL, 80.8% were in stages F0–1 and 19.2% were in stages F2–4, and in patients with PLT counts $< 17.0 \times 10^4$/μL, 60.1% were in stages F0–1 and 39.9% were in stages F2–4.

The SVR rates of IFN therapy were 52.4% in F0–1 patients, 49.5% in F2–4 patients ($P = 0.896$ by Fisher's exact test), and 58.0% and 43.8% ($P = 0.592$) in IFN/Riba therapy, respectively.

In patients with genotype 1b and high viral load, the SVR rate was 12.5%. The SVR rate in genotype 2 patients was 60.4% in the IFN group and 67.7% in the IFN/Riba combination therapy group.

Table 3 Baseline of hepatitis C virus carriers with 31–40 U/L aminotransferase who received antiviral therapy

	PLT ≥ 150 000/mL (group B-1)	PLT < 150 000/mL (group B-2)	*P*-value
No. patients	141	68	
Age	48.2 ± 11.9	57.9 ± 7.5	<0.001*
Sex (male/female)	80/61	37/31	0.751**
BMI (kg/m^2)	22.9 ± 3.1	22.7 ± 2.6	0.08*
HOMA-IR	3.0 ± 2.0	8.2 ± 9.5	0.8.8*
Genotype: 1/2/others	82/58/1	30/38/0	0.095**
Viral load: low/high	64/77	35/33	0.542**
Histology			
F stage (0/1/2/3/4)	17/91/31/2/0	4/30/26/6/2	<0.001**
Grade (0–1/2,3)	116/25	50/18	0.114**
Fatty change† 0–1/2–4	111/30	50/18	0.10**
Iron load‡ 0/1–4	67/12	30/7	0.762**
Ferritin (ng/mL)	114.4 ± 116.1	127.2 ± 167.8	0.869*
PLT count (/μL)	21.5 ± 4.9	12.2 ± 2.1	<0.001*
Hyaluronate (ng/mL)	46.9 ± 35.4	100.7 ± 0.98.1	<0.001*
Administration of IFN (weeks)	26.1 ± 11.9	27.7 ± 11.4	0.983*
Effects of therapy			
SVR/non-SVR	64/77	35/33	0.409**

*P-values were calculated by Mann–Whitney-*U*-test. **Fisher-exact-test. †0: no fatty change, 1: ≤10%, 2: 11–33%, 3: 34–66%, 4: ≥67% of hepatocyte; ‡no stain by 400×, 1: few stains by 250×, 2: stains by 100×, 3: stains by 25×, 4: stains by 10×. In group B, there were significant differences in age ($P < 0.001$), distribution of F stage ($P < 0.001$), PLT count ($P < 0.001$), and hyaluronic acid ($P < 0.001$) between B-1 and B-2. Frequency of F2–4 was 23.4% in B-1and 50.0% in B-2, respectively. Values are expressed as mean ± SD.
BMI, body mass index; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment-insulin resistance; IFN, interferon; PLT, platelet counts; SVR, sustained viral responders.

Demographic, clinical, and histological features of 129 HCV carriers with PNALT

The demographic and clinical features of the 129 HCV carriers with PNALT who were followed up for 7.2 years are shown in Table 4. Normal liver histology was noted in 17 patients, 102 showed minimal to mild CH, and 10 had moderate CH. Steatosis was seen in 7% and iron loading was noted in 12%.[18]

Of the 78 patients followed longer than 7 years (mean follow-up period; 10.4 ± 3.1 years), 11 (14%) had continuously normal ALT (G-1), 43 (55%) showed a transient elevation of ALT (G-2), and 24 (31%) changed to CH with continuously elevated ALT (G-3).

Thirty-nine patients received repeated liver biopsies (2–4 times). Of the 39 patients, six were in G-1, 17 were in G-2, and 16 were in G-3. The intervals between the first biopsy and the last biopsy in these three groups were 7.1, 7.8, and 7.2 years, respectively. The progression of the F stage was noted in two of six in G-1, six of 17 in G-2, and seven of 16 in G-3. The median rates of fibrosis progression per year for these three groups were 0.05, 0.05, and 0.08 fibrosis unit. HCC was not detected in any patients during the follow-up periods.

Guidelines for the antiviral therapy of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT focused on the inhibition of the development of HCC

Considering the risk of progression to liver cirrhosis and the development of HCC, as well as the expected efficacy and various side-effects of antiviral therapy, an algorithm is needed for the management of HCV carriers with normal serum ALT. The progression rate of liver fibrosis stage was 0.05/year in HCV carriers with PNALT. The annual incidence of HCC in CH-C patients has been reported to be 0.5% at stages F0–F1, 1–2% at stage F2, 3–5% at stage F3, and 7% at stage F4.[4]

In principle, follow up without antiviral treatment is recommended for HCV carriers with PNALT (ALT ≤30 U/L) and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL, particularly in older patients (i.e. >65 years old), because over 90% show normal or minimal liver damage with good prognoses. However, antiviral therapy is not contraindicated for such patients since roughly 40% are infected with HCV genotype 2,[18] which suggests a high rate of SVR to the therapy with PEG-IFN/Riba.

As for the indication of antiviral therapy for HCV carriers with normal serum ALT (≤40 U/L), the PLT

Table 4 Characteristics of 129 HCV carriers with persistently normal ALT who received liver biopsy

	$n = 129$	Follow up over 5 years ($n = 78$)
Follow-up period (years)	7.2 ± 3.2	10.4 ± 3.1
Age (years)	48 (21–77)	45 (29–71)
Male ($n = 24$)	49.8 ± 16.4	42.3 ± 14.9
Female ($n = 105$)	47.2 ± 12.5	46.6 ± 11.6
Sex (male/female)	24/105	10/68
ALT (U/L)	8–30	9–30
Male ($n = 24$)	22.5 ± 5.7	21.1 ± 5.4
Female ($n = 105$)	21.6 ± 4.8	22.3 ± 5.1
PLT ($\times 10^4$/mL)	15–31	15–31
Ferritin (ng/mL)	5–225	5–225
Male ($n = 24$)	76.2 ± 53.5	84.6 ± 59.2
Female ($n = 105$)	60.0 ± 43.3	66.6 ± 52.5
HCV genotype	G1 ($n = 58$), G2 ($n = 45$) Mixed and unclassified ($n = 16$)	
BMI (kg/m^2)	16–27	16–27
Male	22.2 ± 1.7	21.9 ± 1.9
Female	21.3 ± 2.2	21.0 ± 2.4

Values are expressed as mean ± SD.
ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; HCV, hepatitis C virus; PLT, platelet.

count is a good indicator for discriminating as to whether or not they have minimal to mild fibrosis or moderate to advanced fibrosis. Serum hyaluronate levels were significantly higher in HCV carriers with 31–40 U/L ALT having less than 150 000/μL PLT (Table 3). Advanced hepatic F stage, an elevated ALT level, old age (>65 years old), and sex (male) are important risk factors for the development of HCC.[6,18,30] We advocated an algorithm for such patients (Fig. 1) taking into consideration the risk of the progression to cirrhosis and the development of HCC. Therapy with PEG-IFN/Riba is the first-line treatment; therapy for 48 weeks is recommended for genotype 1 patients with high viral load and 12–24 weeks therapy for genotypes 2 and 1 with low viral load.

DISCUSSION

OUR PREVIOUS STUDY in 129 HCV carriers with PNALT demonstrated a predominance of females, higher frequency of genotype 2, minimal to mild liver histology, and very slow progression of hepatic fibrosis.[18] However, over 30% of these patients advanced to CH-C with elevated ALT levels during the 7-year follow up.

There are many reports concerning the natural course of liver fibrosis in CH-C patients, including those who are HCV carriers with normal serum ALT.[19,31–39] More than half of CH-C patients show progression of F stage from F1 to F2–4 within 10 years, and it was reported that the progression of liver fibrosis in HCV carriers with normal serum ALT was more rapid than was observed in the present study.[23] The main reason for the discrepancy between the report by Puoti *et al.*[23] and our results might be due to the definitions used for the normal range of serum ALT. In our previous study, the patients were HCV carriers with PNALT (ALT ≤ 30 U/L) and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL. On the other hand, the patients in the study by Puoti *et al.* had ALT levels ≤40 U/L, irrespective of PLT counts, in which cirrhotic patients might be included.[23] However, recent studies have demonstrated that normal ALT levels are less than 30 U/L[24] or 25 U/L in men[40] and less than 19 U/L[24] or 22 U/L in women.[40]

The present study demonstrated that the different distribution of hepatic F stage became remarkable when the A and B groups were divided into two subgroups according to their PLT counts. In HCV carriers with ALT levels ≤30 U/L, the frequency of stages F2–3 was 16.2% among those with PLT counts ≥150 000/μL; however, the frequency of stages F2–3 was 49.0% in those with PLT counts <150 000/μL. Conversely, in HCV carriers with ALT levels between 31 and 40 U/L, the frequency of stages F2–4 was 23.4% among those with PLT counts ≥150 000/μL and 50.0% in those with PLT counts <150 000/μL. The PLT count is a useful marker in dis-

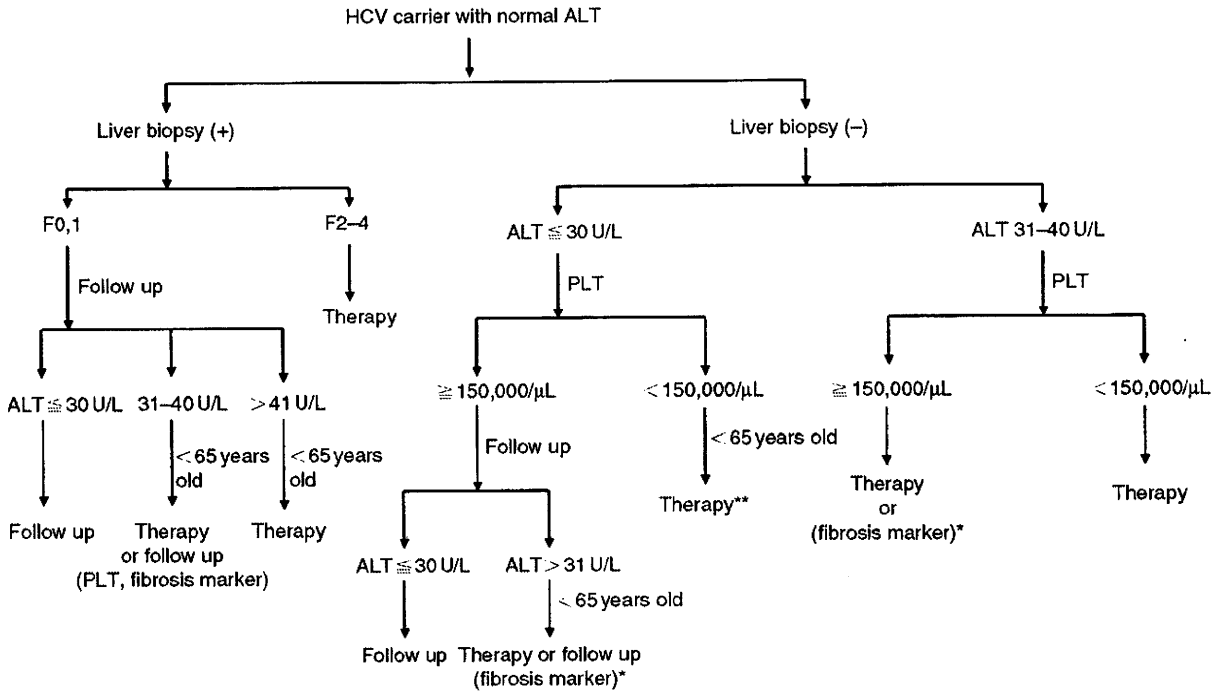

Figure 1 Algorithm for the management of hepatitis C virus (HCV) carriers with normal serum aminotransferase (ALT, ≤40 U/L) focused on the inhibition of the development of hepatocellular carcinoma. In patients who underwent liver biopsy, F0 and F1 patients younger than 65 years are candidates for antiviral therapy, especially those with genotype 2 after the elevation of serum ALT levels. In patients who did not undergo liver biopsy, ALT and platelet (PLT) levels are good indicators for determining candidates for antiviral therapy. Older patients (>65 years) and/or patients having uncontrolled hypertension, diabetes mellitus, or anemia should not be treated with pegylated interferon and ribavirin. Combination therapy with pegylated interferon and ribavirin for 48 weeks is recommended for patients with genotype 1 and high viral load, and 12–24 weeks therapy is suggested for patients with genotype 2 and genotype 1 with low viral load. *,**Serum fibrosis markers, such as hyaluronate, might be useful to decide whether patients are candidates for antiviral therapy or not.

criminating between stages F0–1 and F2–4 F in HCV carriers with normal serum ALT (≤40 U/L). In the present study, the mean PLT count in F2 and F3 patients was 16.9 ± 5.3 (×10⁴/μL) and 15.9 ± 4.6 (×10⁴/μL), respectively. The distribution of the F stage was not significantly different between patients with PLT counts ≥15 × 10⁴/μL versus <15 × 10⁴/μL and ≥17 × 10⁴/μL versus <17 × 10⁴/μL.

The SVR rate for genotype 1 patients with high viral load treated with either IFN monotherapy or IFN/Riba were 12.5% and 37.7%, respectively. In genotype 2 patients with high viral load, the SVR rate in the present study was better than the data of Japanese CH-C patients with elevated ALT levels in our previous paper.[6] It was not reasonable to compare the SVR rates between HCV carriers with normal serum ALT and CH-C with elevated ALT in the present study, because the total dosage of IFN and the duration of treatment were significantly different.

The annual incidence of HCC is correlated with the progression of liver fibrosis, that is, the stage of liver disease.[2–4,6] Sustained low serum ALT levels are also associated with a lower incidence of HCC.[2,6,41] PEG-IFN/Riba therapy is expensive and induces various side-effects. The present results indicate that most HCV carriers with normal serum ALT (≤40 U/L) and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL have minimal to mild liver damage, indicating a low risk for the progression to cirrhosis and the development of HCC. This was more remarkable in patients with ALT levels ≤30 U/L and PLT counts ≥150 000/μL. However, nearly half of the patients with PLT count <150 000/μL have F2 or F3 F stages, indicating a certain risk for the progression to cirrhosis and the development of HCC. Fibrosis

progression is associated with age, baseline and follow-up ALT levels, inflammatory activity and steatosis in the initial liver biopsy, and alcohol consumption.[42] The present results indicate that most HCV carriers with PNALT have a good prognosis and a low risk of developing HCC.

Liver biopsy is a useful procedure for identifying the stage of liver fibrosis; however, it is invasive and may sometimes cause complications.[43,44] The error rate of predicting the F stage with this procedure can be estimated to be as high as 20%.[45] Recently introduced biochemical markers, such as FibroTest,[46] and FibroScan,[47–49] are excellent procedures for identifying liver fibrosis stage in CH-C patients.[50] The combined use of FibroScan and FibroTest is useful for accurately estimating moderate to severe liver fibrosis in most patients with CH-C, but not in F0 and F1 patients.[51]

Recently, Alberti proposed an individualized management algorithm for HCV carriers with PNALT with or without liver biopsy in which HCV genotype, patient age, motivation to receive antiviral therapy, and factors influencing side-effects were included.[52] The algorithm using a combination of serum ALT levels and PLT counts in the present study is simple, but it is useful because it focuses mainly on the inhibition of the progression to cirrhosis and the development of HCC.

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