Table 2 Univariate analysis to identify the factors of SVR

Factors	Negative of HCV RNA after 24 weeks		*p* value
	(−)	(+)	
No. of patients	214 (52.3%)	195	
Gender			
Male	157 (61.3%)	99	<0.00001
Female	57 (37.3%)	96	
Age			
Median (range)	52.5 (18–75)	58 (20–74)	<0.00001
<60 years	155 (58.1%)	112	0.0018
60 years≤	59 (41.5%)	83	
Age: <60 years			
Male	118 (63.4%)	68	0.010
Female	37 (45.7%)	44	
Age: 60 years≤			
Male	39 (55.7%)	31	0.0011
Female	20 (27.8%)	52	
F stage			
F0–2	190 (58.5%)	135	0.000013
F3–4	25 (29.8%)	59	
Grade (A factor)			
A0–1	138 (56.8%)	104	0.130
A2–3	81 (48.5%)	86	
HCV RNA load 0 week (KIU/mL)			
Median (range)	1300 (100–5000<)	1700 (130–5000<)	0.016
ALT 0 week (IU/L)			
Median (range)	66 (16–391)	67 (19–504)	0.892
BMI			
Median (range)	23.0 (17.3–32.4)	23.25 (16.1–33.9)	0.714
Alb (g/dL)			
Median (range)	4.0 (3.2–5.2)	3.8 (3.0–4.8)	0.0088
LDL-C (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	94.5 (31–185)	97.5 (30–182)	0.611
T-Chol (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	169.5 (85–257)	170 (103–273)	0.511
PLT count ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)			
Median (range)	18.2 (8.7–39.9)	15.1 (8.0–31.9)	<0.00001
<15	54 (36.5%)	94	<0.00001
15≤	160 (61.3%)	101	
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
0–1	156 (48.6%)	165	0.0054
2≤	58 (65.9%)	30	
Amino acid substitution of core 70			
Wild	166 (57.0%)	125	0.0031
Mutant	48 (40.7%)	70	
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
Wild	141 (56.2%)	110	0.054
Mutant	73 (46.2%)	85	
PEG-IFN adherence			
<80%	35 (42.2%)	48	0.063
80%≤	154 (53.8%)	132	
Ribavirin adherence			
<80%	55 (43.3%)	72	0.048
80%≤	132 (54.5%)	110	

Table 3 Multivariate logistic regression analysis to identify independent predictive factors of RVR, cEVR, and SVR

	Odds ratio	95% CI	*p* value
RVR factors selected by stepwise method			
F stage			
F0–2/F3–4	2.924	0.988–8.696	0.053
HCV RNA load 0 week (KIU/mL)			
<1000/1000≤	2.151	1.130–4.082	0.020
ALT 0 week (IU/L)			
<60/60≤	2.165	1.127–4.149	0.020
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
2≤/0–1	2.371	1.187–4.735	0.014
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
W/M	2.137	1.021–4.464	0.044
cEVR factors selected by stepwise method			
Gender			
Male/female	1.912	1.209–3.021	0.0055
F stage			
F0–2/F3–4	2.079	1.133–3.817	0.018
HCV RNA load 0 week (KIU/mL)			
<1000/1000≤	1.608	1.002–2.577	0.049
PLT count ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)			
15≤/<15	1.427	0.882–2.309	0.148
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
2≤/0–1	2.512	1.407–4.485	0.0018
Amino acid substitution of core 70			
W/M	2.513	1.508–4.184	0.0004
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
W/M	1.965	1.241–3.115	0.004
SVR factors selected by stepwise method			
Gender			
Male/female	3.704	2.132–6.410	<0.0001
F stage			
F0–2/F3–4	1.812	0.888–3.690	0.103
HCV RNA load0 week (KIU/mL)			
<1000/1000≤	2.024	1.163–3.534	0.013
PLT count ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)			
15≤/<15	2.469	1.394–4.372	0.0019
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
2≤/0–1	2.148	1.107–4.170	0.024
Amino acid substitution of core 70			
W/M	2.415	1.316–4.444	0.0045
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
W/M	1.433	0.828–2.481	0.199
PEG adherence (%)			
80≤/<80	1.562	0.834–2.926	0.164

W Wild, *M* Mutant

was a wild type but only 16% in patients with mutant at core 70. In female patients, no or one aa substitution in ISDR and $<15 \times 10^4$/mm^3 of PLT count, the SVR rates were as low as 10 or 8%, irrespective of aa substitution at core 70. SVR was only 24% in patients with substitution of core aa 70 even when the PLT count was $\geq 15 \times 10^4$/mm^3. In this study, the combination analysis of PLT count, ISDR, and core aa substitution was useful for predicting non-SVR.

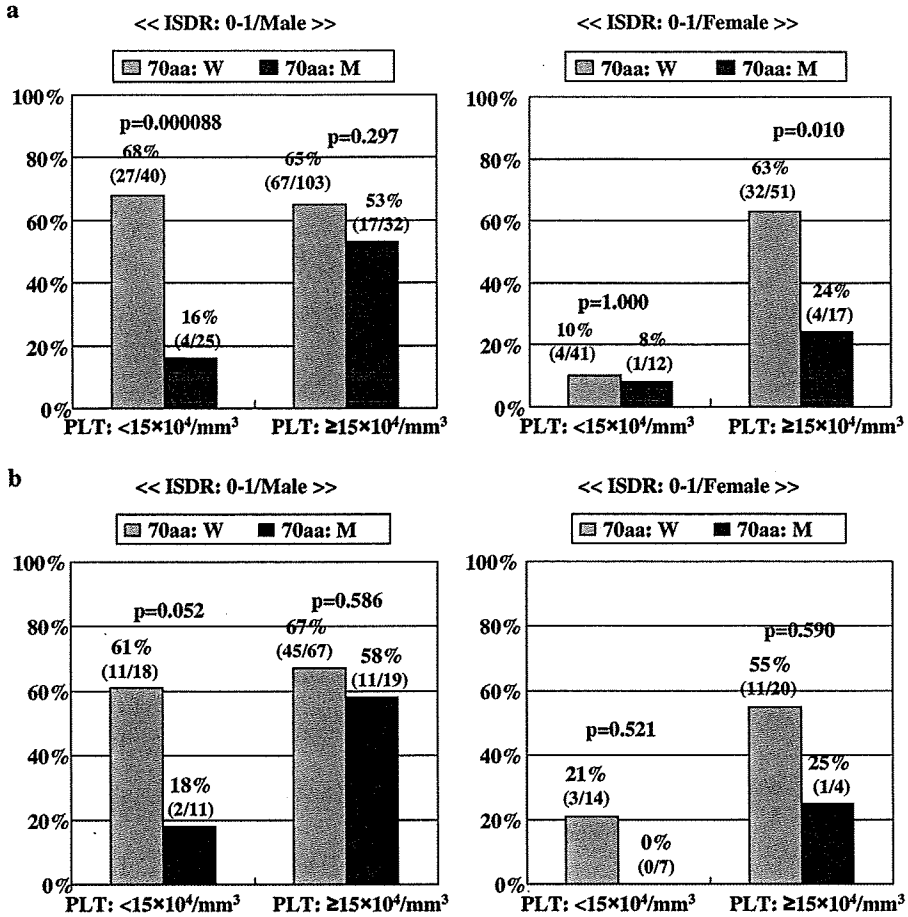

Fig. 2 Relationship between SVR rate and amino acid substitutions in the ISDR and core amino acids 70 and 91, PLT counts and gender difference. The two figures of **a** show the results of *Study 1* and the two figures of **b** show the results of *Study 2*. In male patients with no or only one amino acid (aa) substitution in the ISDR and PLT count of less than $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, the SVR rate was 68% in those with wild type core aa 70, but only 16% in patients with mutant type of core aa 70, which is significantly different ($p = 0.000088$). There were no significant differences between wild type and mutant type of core aa 70 in the patients with no or one aa substitution in the ISDR and PLT count of over $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$. By contrast, in female patients with no or one aa substitution in the ISDR, there were no significant differences between wild type and mutant type of core aa 70 with PLT count of less than $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, but there were significant differences between wild type and mutant type of core aa 70 with PLT counts of less than $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$ (**a**). For the patients maintaining over 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV, in males having no or one aa substitution in the ISDR and PLT counts of less than $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, a wild type of core aa 70 could predict SVR with a positive predictive value (PPV) of 61% and negative predictive value (NPV) of 82% ($p = 0.052$). However, in male patients with PLT counts of over $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, core aa 70 was not a useful marker for predicting SVR and non-SVR. The number of female patients with no or one aa substitution in ISDR was too small to reach a definite conclusion (**b**)

Study design 2

The basic features of 201 patients achieving 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV are as follows: the females were significantly ($p = 0.00006$) older than the males. Iron deposition in liver tissue, alcohol abuse, BMI, serum albumin level, serum ferritin level, and PLT count were significantly higher in males than females. Inflammatory activity was significantly ($p = 0.046$) higher in females than males (data not shown).

AA substitutions in the ISDR were as follows; in males 33 (22.3%) had two or more aa substitutions, in females 8 (15.1%) had two or more aa substitutions. The analysis of core aa position 70 and 91 sequences showed no significant differences in aa substitutions of either core aa 70 or 91 between males and females (data not shown).

In patients less than 60 years of age, SVR rate was significantly higher ($p = 0.0042$) in males than females, but no significant difference was noted between males and females over 60 years old. However, the number of patients over 60 years was small (Table 4).

Table 4 Univariate analysis to identify the significantly different factors between SVR and non-SVR (201 patients received over 80% adherences of both PEG-IFN and RBV)

Factors	Negative of HCV RNA after 24 weeks		*p* value
	(−)	(+)	
No. of patients	111 (55.2%)	90	
Gender			
Male	93 (62.8%)	55	0.00037
Female	18 (34.0%)	35	
Age			
Median (range)	51 (18–70)	56 (23–74)	0.00025
<60 years	91 (60.3%)	60	0.014
60 years≤	20 (40.0%)	30	
Age: <60 years			
Male	79 (66.4%)	40	0.0042
Female	12 (37.5%)	20	
Age: 60 years≤			
Male	14 (48.3%)	15	0.243
Female	6 (28.6%)	15	
F stage			
F0–2	103 (60.9%)	67	0.0012
F3–4	8 (25.8%)	23	
Grade (A factor)			
A0–1	80 (59.3%)	55	0.189
A2–3	31 (47.0%)	35	
HCV RNA load 0 week (KIU/mL)			
Median (range)	1300 (110–5000<)	1280 (130–5000<)	0.351
ALT 0 week (IU/L)			
Median (range)	74 (16–268)	67.5 (19–504)	0.752
BMI			
Median (range)	23.1 (17.3–31.0)	23.6 (16.1–33.9)	0.626
Alb (g/dL)			
Median (range)	3.95 (3.3–5.2)	3.9 (3.0–4.8)	0.079
LDL-C (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	96 (31–185)	97.5 (30–182)	0.865
T-Chol (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	170 (85–248)	170 (105–273)	0.624
PLT count ($\times 10^4/mm^3$)			
Median (range)	18.9 (8.7–30.9)	15.55 (7.2–28.4)	0.00003
<15	23 (35.9%)	41	0.00024
15≤	88 (64.2%)	49	
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
0–1	84 (52.5%)	76	0.159
2≤	27 (65.9%)	14	
Amino acid substitution of core 70			
Wild	91 (61.5%)	57	0.0037
Mutant	20 (37.7%)	33	
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
Wild	73 (60.3%)	48	0.083
Mutant	38 (47.5%)	42	

Virological responses and aa substitution

The rates of RVR, cEVR, LVR, ETR and SVR in males and females were 12.5 versus 11.3% ($p = 1.000$), 59.6 versus 43.4% ($p = 0.053$), 74.3 versus 50.0% ($p = 0.0018$), 76.2 versus 66.7% ($p = 0.198$), and 62.8 versus 34.0% ($p = 0.00037$), respectively (data not shown). The backgrounds and characteristics of SVR and non SVR patients are shown in Table 4. There were significant differences in gender (male vs. female; $p = 0.00037$), age (<60 years vs. ≥60 years; $p = 0.014$), F stage (F0-2 vs. F3,4; $p = 0.0012$), PLT count ($<15 \times 10^4/mm^3$ vs. $15 \times 10^4/mm^3 \leq$; $p = 0.00024$), and substitution of core aa 70 (wild type vs. mutant, p = 0.0037) between SVR and non-SVR patients. The distribution of fatty change in liver tissue (≤10% vs. 11–33% vs. 34%≤; $p = 0.046$) and the grade of HOMA-IR (1.7 vs. 3.9, $p = 0.0018$) were significantly different between SVR and non-SVR (data not described in Table 4).

Factors affecting SVR by multivariate logistic regression analysis

Male gender ($p = 0.0006$), mild fibrosis stage ($p = 0.027$), and wild type of core aa 70 ($p = 0.043$) were independent predictors of SVR.

Valuable markers for predictions of sustained virological response to peginterferon and ribavirin therapy

Two or more aa mutations in the ISDR, wild type core aa 70, $\geq 15 \times 10^4/mm^3$ of PLT count, and male gender were selected statistically as independent predictors of SVR. We show here SVR rates of the patients having over 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV (Fig. 2b). In males having no or one aa substitution in the ISRD and PLT count of $<15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, wild type core aa 70 could predict SVR with a positive predictive value (PPV) of 61% and negative predictive value (NPV) of 82% ($p = 0.052$). In females, the SVR rate was very low in those who had substitution of core aa 70, but there was no significant difference between patients with wild type and substitution of core aa 70. The number of female patients was too small to provide a definite conclusion.

Discussion

The present multivariate logistic regression analysis revealed that male gender, low HCV RNA load, high PLT count, and two or more aa mutations in the ISDR and wild type core aa 70 were independent predictors for SVR. PLT count significantly decreased corresponding to the progression to the stage of liver fibrosis in CHC [9, 30, 31].

It has been considered that the low adherence level to PEG-IFN/RBV is a major cause of a significantly lower SVR rate in females and older patients [32]. The percentage of patients having over 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV was significantly lower in females than males, however, differences in the adherence to PEG-IFN/RBV between males and females were not independent predictive factors of non-SVR.

A recent report from Japan showed six or more mutations in the variable region 3 (V3) of nonstructural protein 5A (NS5A) plus upstream flanking region NS5A (aa 2334–2379), referred to as the IFN/RBV resistance determining region (IRRDR), was a useful marker for predicting SVR, but the ISDR sequence was not valuable for predicting SVR [33]. However, the number of subjects in that study was too small ($n = 45$) to reach an acceptable conclusion.

To elucidate the factors affecting low SVR rate in older female patients, we performed a multivariate logistic regression analysis using patients who achieved ≥80% adherence to both PEG-IFN and RBV. Male gender, stage of mild liver fibrosis, and wild type core aa 70 were independent predictors of SVR. In this study, blood concentration of RBV was determined in fewer than 50% of cases during treatment. Thus we cannot exclude the possibility of the effect of the blood concentration of RBV during treatment on the low SVR rate in females and older patients.

From the present analysis, it was clear that ALT, BMI, Alb, T. Chol, and adherence to RBV differed significantly between males and females, however, these factors were not independent predictors of SVR. There is a report that steatosis is an important cofactor that reduces the SVR rate in genotype 1 infected patients [34], however, such an effect was not seen in this study. Thus we could not identify the factors associated with a significantly lower SVR rate in females than males.

In the present multivariate logistic regression analyses, patients having wild type core aa 91 had significantly higher rates of RVR and cEVR, but not SVR, and patients with wild type core aa 70 had significantly higher rates of cEVR and SVR, but not RVR. Patients having two or more aa substitutions in the ISDR had significantly higher rates of RVR, cEVR, and SVR. Although several possibilities have been considered concerning the effects of aa substitutions of core protein on SVR in PEG-IFN/RBV therapy for CHC patients, the exact mechanisms have not yet been elucidated.

Recent reports have indicated that low serum IP-10 (interferon-γ inducible protein 10 kDa) [35], a higher HCV-specific CD8 cell proliferation potential [36], and a high ratio of Th1/Th2 [37] are good predictors of SVR to

PEG-IFN/RBV therapy. These results indicate the importance of immunological status and immunological response to treatment in patients difficult to treat with PEG-IFN/RBV therapy for CHC.

The present univariate analyses revealed that there were many factors relating to RVR, cEVR, and SVR including LDL-C, HOMA-IR, fatty change in liver tissue, and hyaluronic acid, however some of these factors had not been examined in some participating institutes. We consider that we must perform a prospective mass study using many factors including immunological aspects, viral factors, disease status, and therapeutic aspects to elucidate the reason that older female patients are resistant to a combination of PEG-IFN and RBV therapy in CHC with a high viral load genotype 1b.

In conclusion, our results demonstrated that wild type core aa 70, two or more aa mutations in the ISDR, low viral load, high PLT counts, and male gender are useful markers for predicting SVR.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Successful hepatitis B vaccination in liver transplant recipients with donor-specific hyporesponsiveness

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Summary

Currently, patients are prescribed lifelong treatment with hepatitis B immunoglobulin (HBIg) after liver transplantation (LT) for hepatitis B virus (HBV)-related diseases in order to prevent reinfection with HBV. Active immunization with an HBV vaccine would be a preferable alternative; however, the immunosuppressive environment in LT recipients is believed to elicit a poor response to vaccination. Minimizing the exposure of the HBV-infected LT recipients to immunosuppressants would be beneficial in inducing adaptive immunity against HBV by vaccination. In this study, in addition to efforts to minimize immunosuppression, prophylaxis with HBV vaccination combined with continuous HBIg administration was performed in 17 LT recipients who had undergone transplantation attributable to HBV-related diseases. During the observation period, the overall response rate to HBV vaccination was 64.7%. The immune status of the recipients was evaluated by a mixed lymphocyte reaction assay in response to allostimulation. Patients showing a donor-specific hyporesponse with a well-maintained response to the third-party stimulus always achieved a sustained immune response to the vaccine, whereas patients showing a hyporesponse to both the donor and the third-party stimulus were unable to do so. Thus, inducing an anti-donor-specific immunosuppressive status by minimizing immunosuppression should enable post-transplant HBV vaccination to be a promising prophylactic strategy.

Introduction

Patients face a high risk of endogenous hepatitis B virus (HBV) reinfection in the absence of postoperative prophylaxis after liver transplantation (LT) caused by HBV-related disease. Combined treatment with either a nucleoside or nucleotide analog and hepatitis B immunoglobulins (HBIg) has been the gold standard for prophylaxis of HBV reinfection after LT [1–3]. According to current recommendations, HBIg should be administered indefinitely after LT [4–6]. However, indefinite prophylaxis with HBIg has substantial drawbacks, such as increasing costs [7] and the risk of emergence of HBV envelope protein mutations [8,9]. Therefore, induction of an active immune response against the hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), leading to the continuous production of specific antibodies would be

an enormous advantage, and it would eliminate the need for lifelong replacement with HBIg [10,11].

Several groups have attempted vaccination of LT recipients against HBV [11–20]. In most of these studies, relatively low seroconversion rates as well as serum anti-HBs concentrations were observed among chronic HBV-infected LT recipients; only a minority of vaccinees developed stable antibody levels >100 IU/l, the maintenance of which is required for prevention of HBV reinfection [21]. The poor response to vaccination was probably because of the immunosuppressive environment in LT recipients. Minimizing the exposure of HBV-infected LT recipients to immunosuppressants appears to be beneficial in inducing adaptive immunity against HBV by vaccination; however, the relevance of the immune status of LT recipients to the outcome of HBV vaccination remains to be elucidated.

In this study, prophylactic HBV vaccination combined with continuous HBIg administration was performed in 17 LT recipients who had undergone transplantation because of an HBV-related disease and had not experienced signs of recurrence for at least 12 months after treatment with HBIg. The immune status of these patients was evaluated by a mixed lymphocyte reaction (MLR) assay in response to anti-donor and third-party allostimulation using an intracellular carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE)-labeling technique.

Patients and methods

Patients

In this study, we included 17 living donor LT recipients at the Hiroshima University Hospital. All patients had normal liver function without any virologic and biochemical evidence of HBV recurrence. The following were the inclusion criteria: (i) at least 3 months of HBIg plus lamivudine (100 mg/day) with/without adefovir (10 mg/day) administration and (ii) no findings of recurrent infection and negativity for HBsAg and hepatitis B viral deoxyribonucleic acid (HBV DNA) (by PCR) at the time of vaccination. For prophylaxis against reinfection, all transplanted patients were on a stable schedule of 1000–2000 IU of intravenous HBIg every 4 weeks in order to maintain an anti-HBs titer of >100 IU/l. We attempted to minimize immunosuppression in all patients with good liver function by adopting the policy of tapering off the immunosuppressants. The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Hiroshima University, and all patients provided informed consent before entering into the trial. None of the vaccinees showed clinical evidence of recurrence of HBV graft infection and the episode of rejection throughout the follow-up period, and all of them were persistently negative for both HBsAg and HBV DNA, except for one vaccinee (Patient #3) who showed temporarily positive for HBV DNA.

Vaccination protocol

All participants received a yeast-derived recombinant, adsorbed HBV vaccine (Bimmugen®; Chemotherapy and Serotherapy Laboratories Inc., Kumamoto, Japan) subcutaneously every 4 weeks at a dose of 10–20 μg (0.5–1.0 ml) in combination with HBIg and lamivudine/adefovir. HBIg immunoprophylaxis was continued during primary immunization (dose, 1000–2000 IU every 4 weeks). The response to vaccination was defined as (i) a confirmed increase in the anti-HBs titer to >100 IU/l that could not be explained by HBIg administration and (ii) sustained anti-HBs titer to >100 IU/l after discontinuation of combined administration of the vaccine and HBIg. If the anti-HBs titer exceeded the responsive increasing level, HBIg substitution and vaccine administration were discontinued. Lamivudine/adefovir prophylaxis was additionally discontinued, if the anti-HBs titer was maintained effectively without HBIg administration. The vaccine was continuously and indefinitely administered till acquired immunity was elicited.

Serologic markers and virologic assays

Serum HBsAg, hepatitis Be antigen (HBeAg), hepatitis B core antibody (HBcAb), and anti-HBsAb were measured monthly using an enzyme-linked immunoassay (Abbott Diagnostics, Chicago, IL, USA). HBV DNA was detected by the Amplicor HBV monitor test (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan). The measurement range of the assay is $10^{2.6}$–$10^{7.6}$ copies/ml (2.6–7.6 log copies/ml). These quantitative assays of HBV DNA were performed at the Special Reference Laboratory, Tokyo, Japan. Positive levels of HBV DNA were defined as levels >2.6 log copies/ml. HBV recurrence was diagnosed on the basis of appearance of HBsAg or HBV DNA.

Immune monitoring by *in vitro* CFSE-MLR assay

For patients who showed completely normal liver function, CFSE-MLR was performed to determine whether immunosuppression could be further minimized. In patients with hyporesponse of anti-donor T cells, immunosuppression was successfully reduced.

For CFSE-MLR, the peripheral blood mononuclear cells prepared from the blood of the LT recipients (autologous control), donors, and healthy volunteers with same blood type as the donors (third-party control) for use as the stimulator cells were irradiated with 30 Gy and those obtained from the recipients for use as the responder cells

were labeled with 5 μM CFSE (Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, USA), as described previously [22]. The stimulator and responder cells (2×10^6 each) were incubated in 24-well flat-bottomed plates (BD Labware, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) in a total volume of 2 ml of culture medium at 37 °C under 5% CO_2 for 5 days. After culture for MLR, the harvested cells were stained with either phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-human CD4 or PE-conjugated anti-human CD8 monoclonal antibodies (mAbs; BD Pharmingen, San Diego, CA, USA) and subjected to analysis by flow cytometry (FCM). All analyses were performed on a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, CA, USA). Dead cells were excluded from the analysis by forward scatter or propidium iodide gating. T-cell proliferation was visualized by serial-halving of the fluorescence intensity of CFSE. $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell proliferation and stimulation index (SI) were quantified using a previously described method [23,24]. Briefly, the number of division precursors was extrapolated from the number of daughter cells of each division, and the number of mitotic events in each $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell subset was calculated. Using these values, the mitotic index was calculated by dividing the total number of mitotic events by the total number of precursors. The SIs of allogeneic combinations were calculated by dividing the mitotic index of a particular allogeneic combination by that of self-control.

Statistical analysis

The values are presented as the median and the range. The Mann–Whitney *U*-test was performed to analyze whether the age of the vaccinees at the time of vaccination, the time elapsed since LT, the anti-HBsAb titers at the start of the vaccination, the median tacrolimus trough levels, and the SI in anti-donor and anti-third-party MLR differed significantly between the good and poor responders and also between the moderate and poor responders. A Fisher's exact test was performed to determine whether there were differences between both the above groups with regard to gender, indication for LT, ratio of HBV DNA and HBeAg negative before LT, ratio of donor HBc and HBsAb positive before LT, and immunosuppressive monotherapy at the time of vaccine administration. *P*-values below 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Demographics

A total of 17 HBV vaccinees (four female- and 13 male subjects; age range, 20–65 years; median age, 49 years) participated in this study. The demographic and clinical data of the participants are shown in Table 1. Of them, 14 patients underwent LT for HBV-related cirrhosis and three underwent transplantation for HBV-related fulminant hepatic failure. Among the 17 vaccinees, five (29.4%) had been HBV DNA positive before LT with levels >2.6/ml, and five (29.4%) had been HBeAg positive before LT. Immunosuppressive treatment comprised either cyclosporine or tacrolimus monotherapy in 11 patients (64.7%) and additional steroid therapy (methylprednisolone, 2–4 mg/day) in six patients. Steroids were withdrawn at after a median duration of 13 months (range, 1–50 months) after LT. At the time of vaccination, a median duration of 21 months (range, 3–41 months) had elapsed since LT. The median follow-up time after commencement of vaccination was 26 months (range, 8–72 months). At the start of vaccination, a median anti-HBsAb titer was 161.4 (range, 37.7–328.4) IU/l.

Response to vaccination

During the observation period, 11 of the 17 HBV vaccinees (64.7%) achieved a sustained immune response to the HBV vaccine, which was defined as a confirmed increase in the anti-HBs titer to >100 IU/l that could not be explained by HBIg administration and no decrease in the anti-HBs titer to <100 IU/l even after discontinuation of combined administration of the vaccine and HBIg (Table 1). Within 1 year, 5/11 responders responded to the vaccine, and other six responded after 1 year from the commencement of vaccination (Fig. 1a and b). The other six HBV vaccinees did not respond to the vaccine during the study period (Fig. 1c). When the subjects were divided into three distinct groups, i.e., patients who responded to the vaccine within 1 year after commencement of vaccination (good responders), patients who responded to the vaccine after 1 year since commencement of vaccination (moderate responders), and patients who did not respond to the vaccine within 1 year and still remain receiving the vaccine (poor responders), the following factors did not exhibit statistically significant differences between the good and poor responders and also between the moderate and poor responders: age, gender, indication for LT, HBV viremia, donor HBcAb and HBsAb before LT, immunosuppressive regimen and tacrolimus trough levels and anti-HBsAb titers at the time of vaccination, duration between vaccination and transplantation and also duration between steroid withdrawal and transplantation. (Table 2) (Fig. 2).

Estimation of immunosuppressive status during vaccination by CFSE-MLR assay

Eleven patients (#1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 17) and their donors consented to be subjected to an

Table 1. The demographic and clinical characteristics of patients.

Patient	Age*	Gender	Underlying disease	HBV DNA before LT	Recipient HBeAg before LT	Donor HBcAb before LT	Donor HBsAb before LT	Time of vaccination†	Time of steroid withdrawal†	Duration of follow-up‡	Immuno-suppressive drugs*	Tac/CsA trough level (ng/ml)*	Anti-HBsAb titer (IU/l)*
Patients who responded to the vaccine within 1 year after commencement of vaccination (good responders)													
1	62	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	Negative	41	3	34	CsA 50 mg	39.3 (CsA)	152.6
2	54	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	NA	26	2	35	CsA 50 mg	15.0 (CsA)	189.1
3	58	M	Cirrhosis	6.4	Positive	Negative	Negative	9	2	43	Tac 2 mg	4.6	161.0
4	43	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	3.4	Negative	Negative	NA	35	45	20	Tac 3 mg + mPSL 2 mg	1.5	220.6
5	57	M	Fulminant	<2.6	Negative	Negative	Negative	9	1	15	Tac 2 mg	3.4	37.7
Patients who responded to the vaccine after 1 year since commencement of vaccination (moderate responders)													
6	34	M	Fulminant	<2.6	Negative	NA	NA	3	7	72	Tac 6 mg + mPSL 4 mg	4.2	152.1
7	38	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	NA	35	7	49	Tac 1 mg	4.4	146.6
8	57	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	Negative	40	50	31	Tac 2 mg + mPSL 4 mg	4.4	68.3
9	46	F	Cirrhosis/HCC	4.6	Positive	Negative	Positive	17	2	33	Tac 3 mg	4.7	93.4
10	46	F	Cirrhosis	<2.6	Negative	Positive	Positive	20	1	22	Tac 1 mg	4.2	214.9
11	53	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	Positive	Positive	13	4	15	Tac 2 mg	4.2	160.5
Patients who did not respond to the vaccine during the study period (poor responders)													
12	20	M	Fulminant	>7.6	Positive	Negative	Positive	18	29	20	Tac 3 mg + mPSL 2 mg	5.0	222.7
13	46	M	Cirrhosis	<2.6	Negative	Negative	Negative	16	1	20	Tac 1 mg	6.6	188.9
14	58	F	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	NA	18	20	11	Tac 2 mg + mPSL 2 mg	1.5	92.3
15	65	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	4.5	Positive	NA	NA	12	21	13	Tac 4 mg + mPSL 4 mg	8.0	328.4
16	45	F	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Negative	NA	Negative	25	23	8	Tac 0.5 mg	3.7	193.3
17	54	M	Cirrhosis/HCC	<2.6	Positive	Positive	Positive	13	1	9	Tac 2 mg	2.9	122.2

LT, liver transplantation; Tac, tacrolimus; CsA, cyclosporine; mPSL, methylprednisolone; NA, not available.

*At the time of vaccination.

†Months after liver transplantation.

‡Months after commencement of vaccination.

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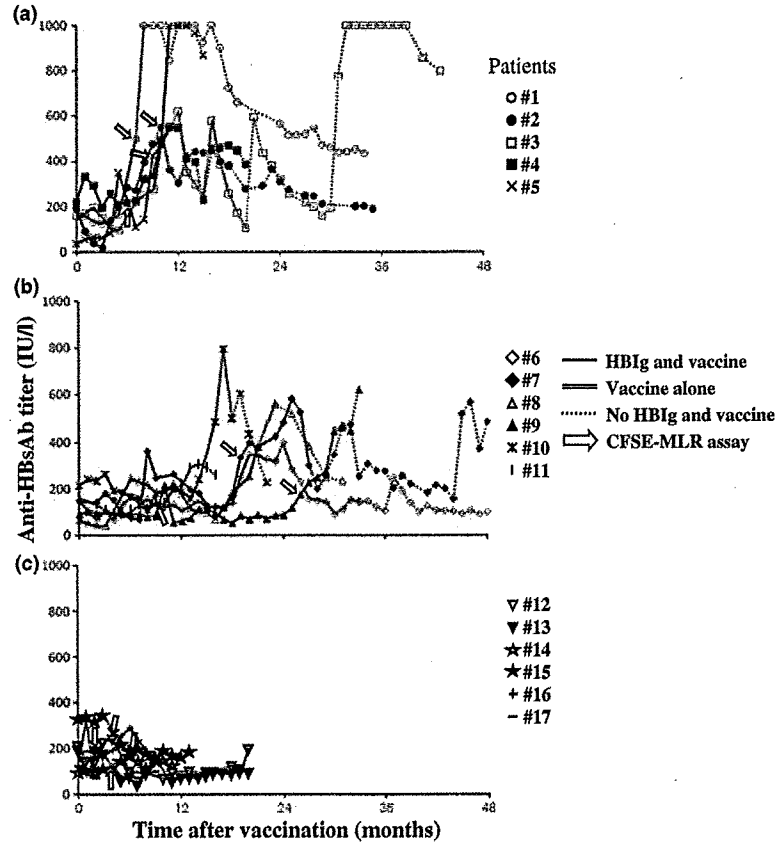

Figure 1 Anti-HBs titer kinetics in patients who responded to the vaccine within 1 year after commencement of vaccination (good responders) (a), in patients who responded to the vaccine after 1 year since the commencement of vaccination (moderate responders) (b), and in patients who did not respond to the vaccine (poor responders) (c).

Table 2. Age, gender, indication for LT, HBV viremia, immunosuppresive regimen, duration between vaccination and transplantation, and duration between steroid withdrawal and transplantation.

	Good responders (n = 5)	Moderate responders (n = 6)	Poor responders (n = 6)	P-value
Age at vaccination (years)*	55 (43–62)	46 (34–57)	48 (20–65)	NS
Gender (male/female)	5/0	4/2	4/2	NS
Indication for LT (fulminant hepatitis/cirrhosis)	1/4	1/5	1/5	NS
HBV DNA before LT (positive/negative)	2/3	2/4	2/4	NS
Recipient HBeAg before LT (positive/negative)	1/4	1/5	3/3	NS
Donor HBcAb before LT (positive/negative)	0/3	2/1	1/2	NS
Donor HBsAb before LT (positive/negative)	0/3	3/1	2/2	NS
CsA or Tac monotherapy/combination with steroid†	4/1	4/2	3/3	NS
Duration between vaccination and transplantation (months)*	24 (9–41)	21 (3–40)	17 (12–25)	NS
Duration between steroid withdrawal and transplantation (months)*	11 (1–45)	12 (1–50)	16 (1–29)	NS
Anti-HBsAb titer (IU/l)*†	152 (38–221)	139 (93–215)	191 (92–328)	NS

NS, not significant; LT, liver transplantation; CsA, cyclosporine A; Tac, tacrolimus.
*Median (range).
†At the time of vaccination.

MLR assay using a CFSE-labeling technique. In all the seven patients who responded to the HBV vaccine, limited $CD4^+$ T-cell proliferation was observed in the anti-donor MLR assay as compared with the anti-third-party MLR assay, i.e., a hyporesponse in the anti-donor MLR assay and a normal response in the anti-third-party MLR assay (Fig. 3). In these patients, the average of SIs for $CD4^+$ T cells in response to anti-third-party stimulation was >2 (average value in healthy volunteers without any immunosuppressive treatment). In contrast,

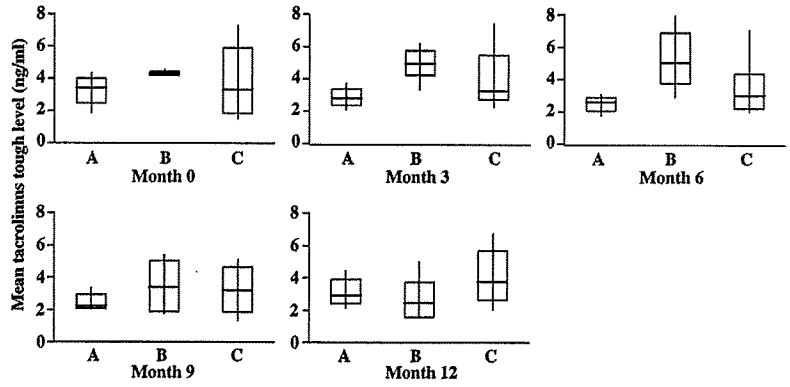

Figure 2 Tacrolimus trough levels in patients who responded to the vaccine within 1 year after commencement of vaccination (good responders) (A), in patients who responded to the vaccine after 1 year since the commencement of vaccination (moderate responders) (B), and in patients who did not respond to the vaccine (poor responders) (C). The Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used to compare the tacrolimus trough levels between the good and moderate responders with those of poor responders. The box plot represents the 25th to 75th percentile, the dark line is the median, and the extended bars represent the 10th to the 90th percentile. Statistical analyses at none of the time-points at 0, 3, 6, 9 and 12 months were significant.

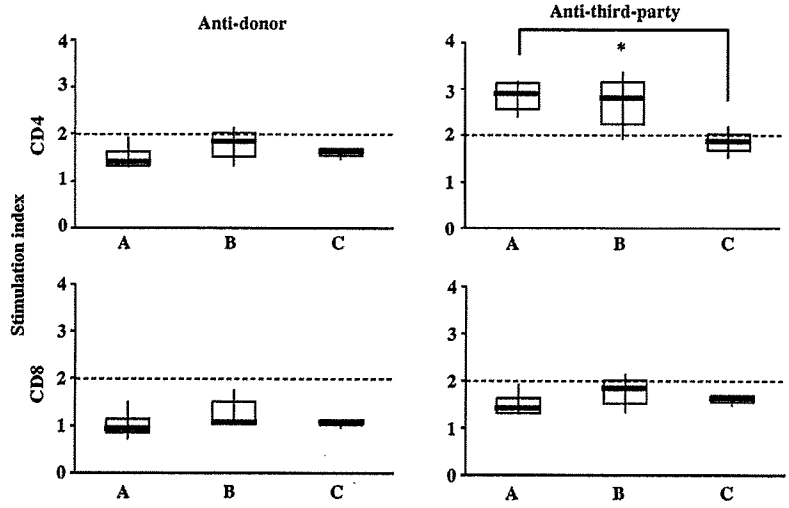

Figure 3 Stimulation indices (SIs) of each of the $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell subsets in the anti-donor and anti-third-party MLR in patients who responded to the vaccine within 1 year after commencement of vaccination (good responders) (A), in patients who responded to the vaccine after 1 year since the commencement of vaccination (moderate responders) (B), and in patients who did not respond to the vaccine (poor responders) (C). $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell proliferation and their SIs were quantified as follows. The number of division precursors was extrapolated from the number of daughter cells of each division, and the number of mitotic events in each of the $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell subsets was calculated. Using these values, the mitotic index was calculated by dividing the total number of mitotic events by the total number of precursors. The SIs of allogeneic combinations were calculated by dividing the mitotic index of a particular allogeneic combination by that of the self control. The Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used to compare the tacrolimus trough levels between the good and moderate responders with those of poor responders. The box plot represents the 25th to 75th percentile, the dark line is the median, and the extended bars represent the 10th to the 90th percentile. $*P = 0.04$.

in the four patients who did not respond to the HBV vaccine, limited $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell proliferation was observed in both the anti-donor and the anti-third-party MLR assay, i.e., a hyporesponse in both cases. In these patients, the average of SIs for $CD4^+$ T cells in response to both anti-donor and anti-third-party stimulation was <2. Thus, the SIs for $CD4^+$ T cells in response to anti-third-party stimulation in good responders was higher than that of poor responders ($P = 0.04$) (Fig. 3).

Discussion

The strategy of HB vaccination after LT to achieve protective immunity and to allow discontinuation of long-term HBIg administration has been investigated in a number of studies [7,11,12,15–20]. However, those attempts to immunize these patients with HB vaccine have been equivocal and generally less than successful. It is common practice to immunize these patients against hepatitis B; however, the response of LT recipients could be below adequate standard. Although the currently available HBV vaccines are extremely safe and have an efficacy of more than 90% in the general population, it has been reported that the response rate is slightly lower in obese individuals, smokers, and men and is significantly lower in patients with cirrhosis or chronic renal failure, patients undergoing long-term hemodialysis, organ transplant recipients, and immunocompromised patients [21]. In particular, because of the impairment in T-cell-dependent functions in cirrhotic patients, the results of vaccination in transplant candidates have been very disappointing [25–29]. Moreover, even in responder patients, immunosuppressive treatment frequently leads to a decrease in the serum antibody titers after transplantation [21]. Among the previous HBV vaccination trials in multiple institutions, most of the results did not show significant promise with regard to HBV vaccine response rates. Each vaccination protocol differed with respect to the dose of vaccine, the time of commencement and frequency of vaccination, the route of vaccination, combination with HBIg, and the immunosuppressive regimen at the time of vaccination. It has been reported that successful vaccination is attributed to the long time-interval that had elapsed after transplant, which allowed them to markedly reduce the immunosuppressive therapy [11]. It has also been proposed that the administration of the vaccine through the intradermal route in preference to the intramuscular route might prove to be more responsive to HB vaccination, because the epidermis is known to be rich with antigen-presenting cells, making it an appropriate target for vaccine delivery [18]. Based on these hypotheses in this study, vaccination through the intradermal route was administered to the LT recipients against HBV with an effort to minimize immunosuppression. In addition to the different vaccination protocols, the difference in the immune status of the subjects likely influences their HBV vaccine response.

In order to evaluate the immune status of the LT recipient vaccinees, we employed a MLR assay using a CFSE-labeling technique [22]. CFSE stably stains intracellular proteins without toxicity, and the fluorescence of each stained cell segregates equally to the daughter cells upon cell division, resulting in sequential halving of cellular fluorescence intensity with each successive generation [30]. When analyzed by FCM, this sequential halving of fluorescence is visualized as distinct peaks or populations of cells and can be used to track cell division in populations of proliferating cells. This, then, allows phenotypic analysis of the proliferating cells and determination of the number of cells produced in each generation by multicolor FCM analysis, i.e., the number of viable $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ responder T cells that proliferate in response to allostimulation can be quantified separately. The lack of proliferation of $CD4^+$ T cells in anti-donor MLR reflects the suppression of the anti-donor response [22]. In this study, all of the good responders showed a normal response of the anti-third-party $CD4^+$ T cells (Fig. 3). In contrast, the poor responders showed a hyporesponse of both anti-donor and anti-third-party $CD4^+$ T cells, suggesting an excessively immunosuppressive state. The development of an effective immune response to HB vaccination requires coordinated immune activity comprising the interaction of T cells, cytokines, antigen-presenting cells, and B cells [31]. It is important to note that these immunocompetent cells can be sufficiently activated to acquire immune activity at the time of vaccination even in a state of immunosuppression. T-cell interaction should lead to (i) activation of anti-HBsAg-specific T cells in order to achieve a successful response to vaccination and (ii) suppression of anti-donor-specific T cells to avoid transplant rejection. Patients showing a donor-specific hyporesponse with a well-maintained response to the third-party stimulus always achieved a sustained immune response to the vaccine in this study; based on this observation, we propose a concept that inducing anti-donor-specific immunosuppressive status by minimizing immunosuppression enables post-transplant HBV vaccination to become a promising prophylactic strategy, although further studies are needed to establish the optimal HBV vaccination protocol. A larger and prospective trial might be required to evaluate whether or not the MLR response can actually predict successful HBV vaccination. The higher rate of response to vaccination than that of this study has been shown in a previous report [17]. An adjuvant preparation of vaccine that used in the previous study is thought to attribute to the successful induction of a strong response. It remains to elucidate whether patients with hyporesponse to both anti-donor and anti-third-party $CD4^+$ T cells can respond to such an adjuvant preparation of vaccine.

Authorship

HT, KC, and HO: designed research. HT and YT: performed research. HT, KI, KI, MS, TI, YU, MO, MB,

HT, TI, and TA: collected data. HT, YT, and HO: analyzed data. HT and HO: wrote the paper.

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Original Article

Chronic hepatitis C in patients co-infected with human immunodeficiency virus in Japan: a retrospective multicenter analysis

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Aim: A nationwide survey in Japan revealed that nearly one-fifth of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-positive patients are co-infected with hepatitis C virus (HCV). We conducted a study to further analyze the features of liver disease in HIV–HCV co-infected patients.

Methods: We analyzed 297 patients from eight hospitals belonging to the HIV/AIDS Network of Japan.

Results: HCV genotypes 1, 2, 3, 4 and mixed genotypes were detected in 55.2, 13.7, 18.9, 0.9 and 11.3% of patients, respectively, in contrast to the fact that only genotypes 1 and 2 are detected in HCV mono-infected patients in Japan. This is compatible with the transmission of HCV through imported blood products contaminated by HCV. Sixteen of 297 HIV–HCV co-infected patients had advanced liver disease accompanied by ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or hepatocellular carcinoma. The average age of such patients was 41.1 ± 14.0 years, which was much younger than that of HCV mono-infected patients with the same complications. The progression speed of liver disease estimated from the changes in the levels of serum albumin, bilirubin, or platelet was slower in patients who achieved sustained virological response with interferon treatment than in those who did not receive it. The overall sustained virological response rate to interferon treatment was 43.3%.

Conclusions: Our findings suggest that liver disease is more advanced in HIV–HCV co-infected patients than in HCV mono-infected patients, and interferon treatment may retard the progression of liver disease in such patients.

Key words: acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, chronic liver disease, genotype, interferon therapy

INTRODUCTION

THE PROGNOSIS OF human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection has markedly improved since the introduction of hyperactive anti-retroviral therapy (HAART).[1,2] Opportunistic infection has been prevented or properly managed, resulting in lower mortality rates. Liver disease, in particular related to hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection, has now become the main cause of mortality among HIV-infected patients on HAART in Western countries.[3,4] A national survey among Japanese HIV-infected patients with coagulation disorders has shown that the mortality rate related to HCV-related liver disease after 1997 was twofold that before 1997.[5] In Japan, therefore, HCV infection may also be a major cause of death in HIV–HCV co-infected patients. However, there has been no extensive analysis of liver disease in HIV–HCV co-infected patients in Japan.

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Interferon (IFN) treatment in combination with ribavirin administration, which is now the first choice for HCV mono-infected patients,[6] is also a standard treatment for chronic hepatitis in HIV–HCV co-infected patients. Eradication of HCV is assumed to improve liver function, and normalization of serum aminotransferase (ALT) levels by IFN treatment may retard the progression of liver disease in HIV–HCV co-infected patients, even if they are on HAART. However, in general, the response rate to IFN treatment is lower in HIV–HCV co-infected patients than in HCV mono-infected patients.[7] The effects of IFN treatment on liver function and prognosis in HIV–HCV co-infected patients in Japan are yet undefined.

In 2004, we conducted a nationwide survey to determine the prevalence of HCV infection in HIV-infected patients by distributing a questionnaire to the hospitals in the HIV/AIDS Network of Japan, which revealed that 935 (19.2%) of 4877 HIV-positive patients were also positive for anti-HCV antibody.[8] In this study, we analyzed the progression of liver diseases and the impact of IFN treatment on the parameters of liver function in HIV–HCV co-infected patients in a multicenter retrospective study.

METHODS

Registry of patients with HIV–HCV co-infection

THE QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING the current state of HIV–HCV co-infection was sent to the 366 hospitals in the HIV/AIDS Network of Japan in 2004, sponsored by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. One hundred seventy-six hospitals (48.1%) responded. The results, already published,[8] showed that HIV–HCV co-infected patients are concentrated in particular hospitals in big cities around Japan. Among these hospitals, we chose three hospitals in the Tokyo metropolitan area, and one each in the Hokkaido, Chubu, Osaka, Chugoku and Kyushu areas. These eight hospitals belong to the HIV/AIDS Network and had more HIV–HCV co-infected patients than other hospitals.

In the study, the following information was obtained from the hospitals regarding each HIV–HCV co-infected patient who visited the hospitals at least once between January and December in 2004: (1) age and sex of HIV-positive patients with anti-HCV; (2) possible transmission routes of HIV; (3) history of habitual alcohol intake; (4) date of the first and last visits; (5) counts of white blood cells, CD4-positive lymphocytes and platelets at the first and last visits; (6) levels of serum albumin and bilirubin at the first and last visits; (7) levels of HIV-RNA and HCV-RNA at the first and last visits; (8) history of IFN treatment with or without ribavirin; (9) history of HAART; and (10) history of jaundice, ascites, hepatic encephalopathy and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). The study sheets were completed by the physicians in charge and sent to the Department of Internal Medicine, University of Tokyo.

Ethical issues

The protocol of the current survey was approved by the ethical committee of each institution, and written informed consent was obtained from each patient.

Statistical analysis

The collected data were analyzed using Mann–Whitney's *U*-test whenever appropriate. *P*-values less than 0.05 were regarded as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Clinical backgrounds of registered patients

FROM THE EIGHT hospitals, 297 patients were registered. The number, age, sex, estimated transmission routes and history of habitual alcohol intake are shown in Table 1. Two hundred and ninety (97.6%) were male patients. The mean age of the patients was 37.9 ± 10.3.

HCV genotype was determined in 212 patients. One hundred seventeen (55.2%) patients were infected by genotype 1 HCV. Infection by genotypes 2, 3 or 4 HCV was found in 29 (13.7%), 40 (18.9%) and 2 (0.9%) patients, respectively. Twenty-four (11.3%) patients were infected by HCV of mixed genotypes. In the remaining 85 patients, the genotype was indeterminable or undetermined. The mean ages of patients infected by different HCV genotypes were similar (Table 1).

In 259 (87.2%) of 297 registered patients, HIV was most probably transmitted through the administration of blood products. Other transmission routes were sexual contacts among men who have sex with men (MSM) (4.0%), heterosexual contacts (3.0%) and intravenous drug use (IDU) (0.3%). Habitual alcohol consumption was noted in only one patient with genotype 1 HCV (0.6%).

Outcomes of IFN treatment in HIV–HCV co-infected patients

Serum HCV-RNA levels were available both at the first visit and registry to the study (i.e. the end of observa-

Table 1 Demography, transmission route and HCV genotypes in HIV–HCV co-infected patients

HCV genotype	Number (%)	HCV sub-genotypes	Viral load† (High : Low)	Age	Sex (Male : Female)	Transmission route				
						Transfusion	MSM	Hetero-sexual	IDU	Others
1	117 (55.2)	1a 31, 1b 43, 1a+1b 31, undetermined 12	31:11	38.3 ± 10.4	114:3	102	7	1	0	7
2	29 (13.7)	2a 16, 2b 11, undetermined 2	5:5	39.8 ± 9.5	29:0	24	1	1	0	3
3	40 (18.9)	3a 40	12:2	36.1 ± 8.9	40:0	38	0	0	0	2
4	2 (0.9)	4a 2	2:0	38.5 ± 2.1	2:0	2	0	0	0	0
Mixed	24 (11.3)	2a+3a 6, 1b+3a 3, others 15	11:0	38.7 ± 8.7	24:0	24	0	0	0	0
Others	85	Undetermined 85	6:1	36.2 ± 11.5	81:4	69	4	7	1	4
Total	297		67:19	37.9 ± 10.3	290:7	259 (87.2%)	12 (4.0%)	9 (3.0%)	1 (0.3%)	16 (5.5%)

†Viral loads are available in only a subset of patients. High viral load: more than 1 Meq/mL by branched DNA-probe assay or more than 100 KIU/mL by Amplicor monitor assay.
HCV, hepatitis C virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; IDU, intravenous drug users; MSM, men who have sex with men.

tion) in 158 patients. Of these 158, 60 patients (38.0%) received IFN treatment for HCV, and 35 of these 60 patients did it in combination with ribavirin. Those who did not complete the scheduled treatment were excluded from the current analysis.

As shown in Table 2, 26 (43.3%), 11 (18.4%) and 23 (38.3%) of the treated patients achieved sustained virological response (SVR), end-of-treatment virological response (ETR) and no virological response (NR), respectively. The SVR rate in patients with each genotype is shown in Table 2. The SVR rate in the patients who underwent IFN treatment in combination with ribavirin was 31.4% in total. The SVR rate in patients with each genotype who underwent IFN/ribavirin combination therapy is shown in Table 2.

All of the 26 patients who achieved SVR remained negative for serum HCV-RNA in the further follow-up periods. In contrast, none of the patients with ETR or NR became negative for serum HCV-RNA in the follow-up periods. In five patients who did not receive IFN treatment, HCV-RNA was negative at the end of the observation period, although it was positive at least twice before the registry. The profiles of the five patients are shown in Table 3.

Changes in liver function and associated complications (Table 4)

As mentioned above, the data on liver function and serum HCV-RNA positivity were available both at the first visit and registry (end of observation) in 158 of the 297 registered patients. The mean observation period was 9.5 ± 5.0 and 8.2 ± 8.2 years in the IFN-treated and IFN-untreated patients, respectively. Unfortunately, few, if any, patients underwent liver biopsy, because most HIV–HCV co-infected patients had coagulation disorders.

The annual change in the serum albumin concentration was +0.05 ± 0.42 g/dL in the IFN-treated patients, and −0.80 ± 0.82 g/dL in the non-IFN-treated patients. The annual change in the serum bilirubin concentration was +0.08 ± 0.38 mg/dL in the IFN-treated patients, while it was +0.15 ± 0.15 mg/dL in the non-IFN-treated patients. Among the IFN-treated patients, the serum bilirubin concentration decreased by 0.02 ± 0.08 mg/dL in the patients who achieved SVR, which was significantly larger than that in the non-IFN-treated patients at the end of the observation ($P < 0.05$). The annual changes in platelet counts were +0.06 ± 1.13 ($\times 10^4/\mu l$) in the IFN-treated patients and −0.94 ± 0.95 ($\times 10^4/\mu l$) in the non-IFN-treated patients. The change in platelet

Table 2 Virological response to interferon treatment in HIV–HCV co-infected patients

Genotype	Viral load (High : Low)†	Response			Total
		SVR	ETR	NR	
(a) Response to interferon treatment in total (with or without ribavirin)					
1	9:6	7 (33.3%)	1	13	21
2	5:3	4 (40.0%)	2	4	10
3	5:1	5 (62.5%)	1	2	8
4	1:0	0	1	0	1
Mixed	5:1	2 (33.3%)	3	1	6
Others	6:2	8 (57.1%)	3	3	14
Total	31:13	26 (43.4%)	11	23	60
(b) Response to ribavirin/interferon combination therapy including peginterferon					
1	8:2	2 (15.3%)	0	11	13
2	1:2	1 (25.0%)	0	3	4
3	4:1	4 (66.7%)	1	1	6
4	1:0	0	1	0	1
Mixed	4:1	1 (20.0%)	3	1	5
Others	3:0	3 (50.0%)	1	2	6
Total	21:6	11 (31.4%)	6	18	35

†Viral loads are available in only a subset of patients. High viral load: more than 1 Meq/mL by Branched DNA-probe assay or more than 100 KIU/mL by Amplicor monitor assay.
ETR, end of treatment virological response; NR, no virological response; SVR, sustained virological response.

counts in the patients who achieved SVR was significantly larger than that in the non-IFN-treated patients ($P < 0.05$, Table 4).

No symptoms of hepatic failure (ascites or hepatic encephalopathy) were observed in the 60 IFN-treated patients while they were observed in six of the 98 non-IFN-treated patients. HCC was found in one IFN-treated patient after SVR, while it was found in two non-IFN-treated patients (Table 4).

Impact of HAART on liver function and associated complications (Table 5)

Information on HAART was available in 292 patients. The mean observation periods were 8.4 ± 4.2 years in 234 patients on HAART, and 9.8 ± 6.0 years in 58 patients not on HAART. Changes in the levels of albumin, bilirubin or platelet were similar between the two groups (statistically not significant). The morbidities of hepatic decompensation symptoms (ascites and hepatic encephalopathy) and HCC were not significantly different between the two groups. In total, nine patients had hepatic decompensation and seven had HCC, and the average age of such patients was 41.1 ± 14.0 years, which was much younger than that of HCV mono-infected patients with the same complications.[9]

DISCUSSION

IN THE CURRENT study, the features of liver disease in HIV–HCV co-infected patients in Japan were analyzed. The determination of HCV genotypes revealed that genotype 3 or 4, which is rarely seen in HCV mono-infected patients in Japan,[10] was found in a substantial fraction of HIV-infected patients. In addition, some of these patients were infected with HCV of mixed genotypes. These results are compatible with the fact that HCV is transmitted through imported blood products that were contaminated by HCV, as is the case with HIV infection.[11] Infection by HCV of mixed genotypes may reflect frequent administrations of blood products of different lots.

We evaluated the response rate to IFN treatment in HIV–HCV co-infected patients in Japan. Because the IFN treatment protocol varied between facilities, it was not easy to evaluate the effects of the treatments including IFN in this cohort. However, the regimen of ribavirin/IFN combination therapy was similar between the hospitals: the treatment period was 24 weeks in patients with HCV genotypes 2 and 3, and 48 weeks in those with HCV of other genotypes when either pegylated or standard IFN in combination with ribavirin was used.[12] Therefore, it may be possible to estimate the effect