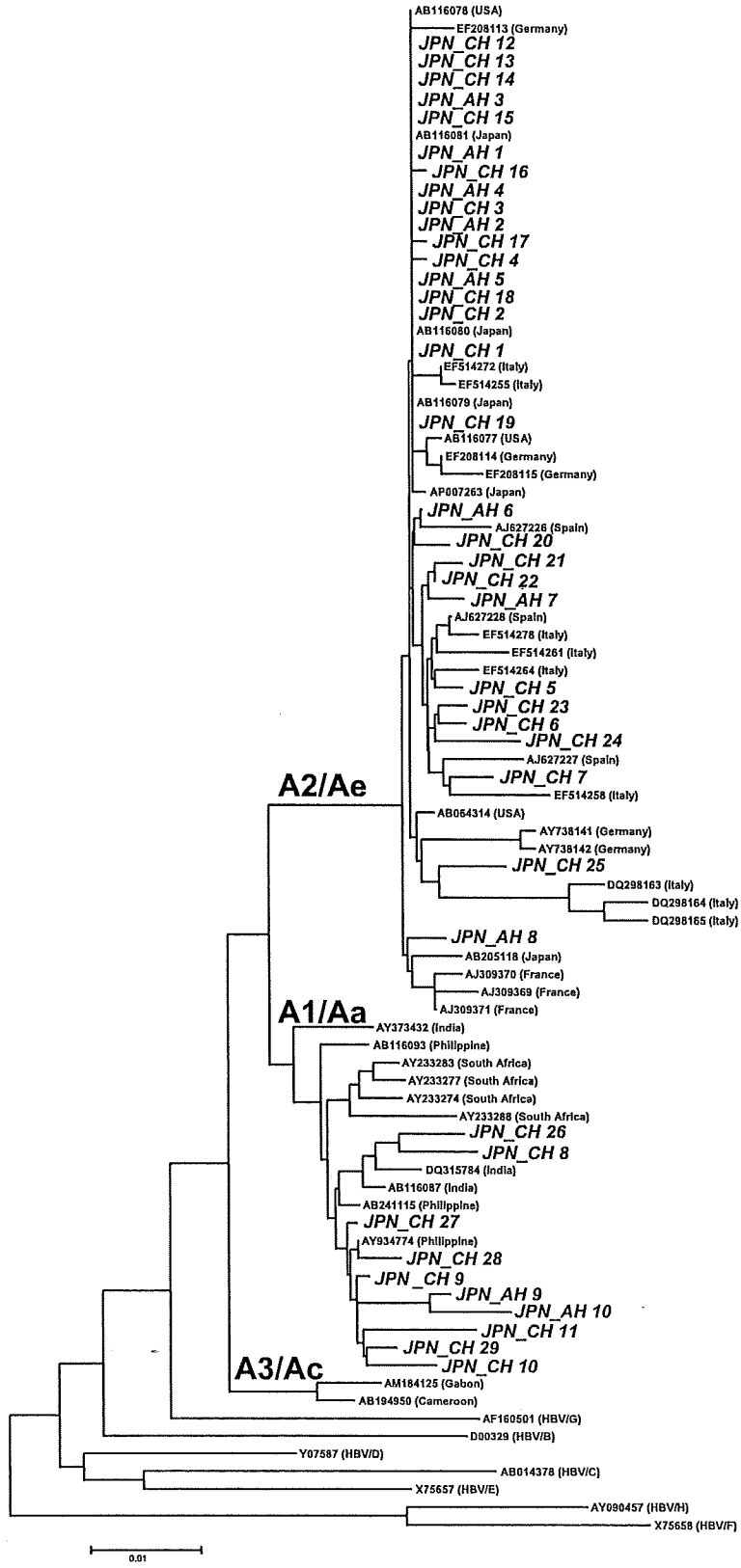

FIG. 5. Phylogenetic tree constructed based on pre-S2/S region sequences of HBV/A isolates. Those from 29 patients with chronic infection in this study are shown in boldface italic (JPN_CH1 to -29), along with 10 isolates (JPN_AH1 to -10) from patients with acute hepatitis in Japan reported in our previous study (17). Representative isolates were retrieved from the DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank databases, including 28 HBV/Ae, 10 HBV/Aa, and 2 HBV/Ac isolates and 7 HBV isolates representative of the other seven genotypes. Isolates from the databases are identified by accession numbers, followed by the country of origin. The bar at the bottom spans 0.01 nucleotide substitutions per site.

90% of patients with AIDS have markers of past or ongoing HBV infection (18). Thus, HBV carriers are more frequent in the HIV-1-positive than in the HIV-1-negative population (4, 9). Among patients with HIV infection in Japan, 6.3% are HBsAg positive, in particular, 8.3% of HIV-infected MSM (16). In this study, coinfection with HIV was found in 6 of the 44 (13.6%) patients infected with HBV/A. All of them were men. Their median age was 27.7 ± 4.1 years, and five patients were positive for HBeAg. Thus, there is a possibility that HIV-1 and HBV/A coinfections are increasing among young people in Japan, and the high rate of HBeAg positivity may be influenced by immune suppression due to HIV infection.

In the phylogenetic analysis, the HBV/A2 isolates recovered in this study were homologous to those from Europe and the United States, and some of them clustered with the Japanese isolates. On the other hand, there were HBV/A1 isolates that formed a cluster with those from the Philippines and India. Furthermore, some isolates from patients with acute hepatitis who were infected with HBV/A in Japan were highly homologous to HBV/A isolates from patients with chronic hepatitis. This invites speculation that some HBV/A isolates were introduced into Japan from foreign countries, while others have already settled down there and spread from patients with chronic infection to their contacts. HBV/A would have been infiltrating throughout Japan by these two different routes.

Clinical differences among patients infected with HBV/A, -B, and -C were observed. The mean age was lower in the patients infected with HBV/A than in those infected with HBV/B or -C. As mentioned above, AHB patients infected with HBV/A have been increasing in the younger generation in Japan, and around 10% of them would have progressed to chronic infection. This is one of the reasons why the patients infected with HBV/A are younger than those infected with HBV/B or -C. Most patients infected with HBV/B were negative for HBeAg, while a high proportion of the patients infected with HBV/A and -C had it. In particular, this difference was remarkable in the patients who were older than 40 years of age. Thus, the seroconversion rate for the loss of HBeAg among younger people may be higher in infection with HBV/B than in that with HBV/A or -C. Inactive carriers were commoner in HBV/A than in HBV/C infection, as well.

These lines of evidence indicate that the activity of hepatitis is lower in HBV/B than HBV/C infection, and patients with HBV/B seroconvert from HBeAg to anti-HBe at young ages. In addition, cirrhosis and HCC were less frequent in the patients infected with HBV/B than in those infected with HBV/C. Therefore, the prognosis would be better in the patients infected with HBV/B than in those infected with HBV/C. These results are in accord with previous reports (5, 13, 28, 42). There have been few reports on the clinical features of patients with chronic hepatitis infected with HBV/A in Japan. Chu et al. have reported the distribution of HBV genotypes with reference to clinical characteristics in the United States (6). They have shown that HBV/A and HBV/C infections are accompanied by a higher frequency of HBeAg than HBV/B infection, while HBV/B is associated with a lower rate of hepatic decompensation than HBV/A and -C. In our study, inactive carriers were commoner, while cirrhosis and HCC were found less often in HBV/A than in HBV/C infection. HBeAg was more prevalent in the patients infected with HBV/A than in those infected with HBV/B who were older than 40 years of age. Therefore, it can be said that the prognosis is better for patients infected with HBV/A than for those infected with HBV/C; it may be poorer than for those infected with HBV/B.

In conclusion, HBV/A has been increasing among CHB patients in Japan. On the basis of phylogenetic analyses, some HBV/A isolates appear to have been imported from foreign countries. They clustered with HBV/A from AHB patients and have infiltrated throughout Japan. It is very likely that acute and chronic infections with HBV/A have been increasing in Japan. Obviously, immunoprophylaxis of perinatal HBV infection, implemented since 1986 on a national basis, has been insufficient to prevent horizontal HBV/A infection diffusing among high-risk groups by transmission routes shared by HIV infection. The foreseeable spread of HBV/A infection in Japan should be prevented by universal vaccination programs extended to high-risk groups or the general population.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The study was supported in part by a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan and a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

We thank T. Kimura and K. Sato, Institutes of Immunology Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan), for determining HBV genotypes in this study and Takashi Saito, Yamagata University Hospital; Akihiro Matsumoto, Shinshu University Hospital; Yasuhiro Asahina, Musashino Red Cross Hospital; Yoshito Ito, University Hospital, Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine; Keiko Hosho, Tottori University Hospital; Morikazu Onji, Ehime University Hospital; Tatsuya Ide, Kurume University Hospital; and Hiroshi Sakugawa, Hospital, University of the Ryukyus, for their help throughout this work.

Kentaro Matsuura wrote the study protocol and the first draft of the manuscript and performed the experiments and statistical analysis. Yasuhito Tanaka contributed to the experimental work and the final version of the manuscript. Shuhei Hige, Gotaro Yamada, Yoshikazu Murawaki, Masafumi Komatsu, Tomoyuki Kuramitsu, Sumio Kawata, Eiji Tanaka, Namiki Izumi, Chiaki Okuse, Shinichi Kakumu, Takeshi Okanoue, Keisuke Hino, Yoichi Hiasa, Michio Sata, and Tatsuji Maeshiro contributed to the collection of the samples and clinical data from patients and to the final version of the manuscript. Fuminaka Sugauchi, Shunsuke Nojiri, Takashi Joh, and Yuzo Miyakawa contributed to the final version of the manuscript. Masashi Mizokami had the original idea and did the planning of the study and contributed to the final version of the manuscript. All of the authors have seen and approved the final draft of the manuscript.

REFERENCES

1. **Akuta, N., F. Suzuki, M. Kobayashi, A. Tsubota, Y. Suzuki, T. Hosaka, T. Someya, S. Saitoh, Y. Arase, K. Ikeda, and H. Kumada.** 2003. The influence of hepatitis B virus genotype on the development of lamivudine resistance during long-term treatment. J. Hepatol. **38**:315–321.
2. **Alter, M. J.** 2006. Epidemiology of viral hepatitis and HIV co-infection. J. Hepatol. **44**:S6–S9.
3. **Arauz-Ruiz, P., H. Norder, B. H. Robertson, and L. O. Magnius.** 2002. Genotype H: a new Amerindian genotype of hepatitis B virus revealed in Central America. J. Gen. Virol. **83**:2059–2073.
4. **Bodsworth, N. J., D. A. Cooper, and B. Donovan.** 1991. The influence of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection on the development of the hepatitis B virus carrier state. J. Infect. Dis. **163**:1138–1140.
5. **Chu, C. J., M. Hussain, and A. S. Lok.** 2002. Hepatitis B virus genotype B is associated with earlier HBeAg seroconversion compared with hepatitis B virus genotype C. Gastroenterology **122**:1756–1762.
6. **Chu, C. J., E. B. Keeffe, S. H. Han, R. P. Perrillo, A. D. Min, C. Soldevila-Pico, W. Carey, R. S. Brown, Jr., V. A. Luketic, N. Terrault, and A. S. Lok.** 2003. Hepatitis B virus genotypes in the United States: results of a nationwide study. Gastroenterology **125**:444–451.
7. **Chu, C. J., and A. S. Lok.** 2002. Clinical significance of hepatitis B virus genotypes. Hepatology **35**:1274–1276.
8. **Ding, X., M. Mizokami, G. Yao, B. Xu, E. Orito, R. Ueda, and M. Nakanishi.** 2001. Hepatitis B virus genotype distribution among chronic hepatitis B virus carriers in Shanghai, China. Intervirology **44**:43–47.

9. **Fujii, T., H. Taguchi, H. Katano, S. Mori, T. Nakamura, N. Nojiri, K. Nakajima, K. Tadokoro, T. Juji, and A. Iwamoto.** 1999. Seroprevalence of human herpesvirus 8 in human immunodeficiency virus 1-positive and human immunodeficiency virus 1-negative populations in Japan. J. Med. Virol. **57**:159–162.
10. **Gojobori, T., K. Ishii, and M. Nei.** 1982. Estimation of average number of nucleotide substitutions when the rate of substitution varies with nucleotide. J. Mol. Evol. **18**:414–423.
11. **Hadler, S. C., F. N. Judson, P. M. O'Malley, N. L. Altman, K. Penley, S. Buchbinder, C. A. Schable, P. J. Coleman, D. N. Ostrow, and D. P. Francis.** 1991. Outcome of hepatitis B virus infection in homosexual men and its relation to prior human immunodeficiency virus infection. J. Infect. Dis. **163**:454–459.
12. **Kao, J. H.** 2002. Clinical relevance of hepatitis B viral genotypes: a case of deja vu? J. Gastroenterol. Hepatol. **17**:113–115.
13. **Kao, J. H., P. J. Chen, M. Y. Lai, and D. S. Chen.** 2000. Hepatitis B genotypes correlate with clinical outcomes in patients with chronic hepatitis B. Gastroenterology **118**:554–559.
14. **Kobayashi, M., Y. Arase, K. Ikeda, A. Tsubota, Y. Suzuki, S. Saitoh, F. Suzuki, N. Akuta, T. Someya, M. Matsuda, J. Sato, K. Takagi, Y. Miyakawa, and H. Kumada.** 2002. Viral genotypes and response to interferon in patients with acute prolonged hepatitis B virus infection of adulthood in Japan. J. Med. Virol. **68**:522–528.
15. **Koibuchi, T., A. Hitani, T. Nakamura, N. Nojiri, K. Nakajima, T. Jyuji, and A. Iwamoto.** 2001. Predominance of genotype A HBV in an HBV-HIV-1 dually positive population compared with an HIV-1-negative counterpart in Japan. J. Med. Virol. **64**:435–440.
16. **Koike, K., Y. Kikuchi, M. Kato, J. Takamatsu, Y. Shintani, T. Tsutsumi, H. Fujie, H. Miyoshi, K. Moriya, and H. Yotsuyanagi.** 2008. Prevalence of hepatitis B virus infection in Japanese patients with HIV. Hepatol. Res. **38**:310–314.
17. **Kurbanov, F., Y. Tanaka, K. Fujiwara, F. Sugauchi, D. Mbanya, L. Zekeng, N. Ndembi, C. Ngansop, L. Kaptue, T. Miura, E. Ido, M. Hayami, H. Ichimura, and M. Mizokami.** 2005. A new subtype (subgenotype) Ac (A3) of hepatitis B virus and recombination between genotypes A and E in Cameroon. J. Gen. Virol. **86**:2047–2056.
18. **Lebovics, E., B. M. Dworkin, S. K. Heier, and W. S. Rosenthal.** 1988. The hepatobiliary manifestations of human immunodeficiency virus infection. Am. J. Gastroenterol. **83**:1–7.
19. **Lok, A. S.** 1992. Natural history and control of perinatally acquired hepatitis B virus infection. Dig. Dis. **10**:46–52.
20. **Lusida, M. I., V. E. Nugrahaputra, Soetjipto, R. Handajani, M. Nagano-Fujii, M. Sasayama, T. Utsumi, and H. Hotta.** 2008. Novel subgenotypes of hepatitis B virus genotypes C and D in Papua, Indonesia. J. Clin. Microbiol. **46**:2160–2166.
21. **Mayerat, C., A. Mantegani, and P. C. Frei.** 1999. Does hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype influence the clinical outcome of HBV infection? J. Viral Hepat. **6**:299–304.
22. **Miyakawa, Y., and M. Mizokami.** 2003. Classifying hepatitis B virus genotypes. Intervirology **46**:329–338.
23. **Norder, H., B. Hammas, S. Lofdahl, A. M. Courouce, and L. O. Magnius.** 1992. Comparison of the amino acid sequences of nine different serotypes of hepatitis B surface antigen and genomic classification of the corresponding hepatitis B virus strains. J. Gen. Virol. **73**:1201–1208.
24. **Noto, H., T. Terao, S. Ryou, Y. Hirose, T. Yoshida, H. Ookubo, H. Mito, and H. Yoshizawa.** 2003. Combined passive and active immunoprophylaxis for preventing perinatal transmission of the hepatitis B virus carrier state in Shizuoka, Japan during 1980–1994. J. Gastroenterol. Hepatol. **18**:943–949.
25. **Ogawa, M., K. Hasegawa, T. Naritomi, N. Torii, and N. Hayashi.** 2002. Clinical features and viral sequences of various genotypes of hepatitis B virus compared among patients with acute hepatitis B. Hepatol. Res. **23**:167–177.
26. **Okamoto, H., F. Tsuda, H. Sakugawa, R. I. Sastrosoewignjo, M. Imai, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mayumi.** 1988. Typing hepatitis B virus by homology in nucleotide sequence: comparison of surface antigen subtypes. J. Gen. Virol. **69**:2575–2583.
27. **Orito, E., T. Ichida, H. Sakugawa, M. Sata, N. Horiike, K. Hino, K. Okita, T. Okanoue, S. Iino, E. Tanaka, K. Suzuki, H. Watanabe, S. Hige, and M. Mizokami.** 2001. Geographic distribution of hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype in patients with chronic HBV infection in Japan. Hepatology **34**:590–594.
28. **Orito, E., M. Mizokami, H. Sakugawa, K. Michitaka, K. Ishikawa, T. Ichida, T. Okanoue, H. Yotsuyanagi, S. Iino, et al.** 2001. A case-control study for clinical and molecular biological differences between hepatitis B viruses of genotypes B and C. Hepatology **33**:218–223.
29. **Ozasa, A., Y. Tanaka, E. Orito, M. Sugiyama, J. H. Kang, S. Hige, T. Kuramitsu, K. Suzuki, E. Tanaka, S. Okada, H. Tokita, Y. Asahina, K. Inoue, S. Kakumu, T. Okanoue, Y. Murawaki, K. Hino, M. Onji, H. Yatsuhashi, H. Sakugawa, Y. Miyakawa, R. Ueda, and M. Mizokami.** 2006. Influence of genotypes and precore mutations on fulminant or chronic outcome of acute hepatitis B virus infection. Hepatology **44**:326–334.
30. **Saitou, N., and M. Nei.** 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. Mol. Biol. Evol. **4**:406–425.
31. **Sakamoto, T., Y. Tanaka, E. Orito, J. Co, J. Clavio, F. Sugauchi, K. Ito, A. Ozasa, A. Quino, R. Ueda, J. Sollano, and M. Mizokami.** 2006. Novel subtypes (subgenotypes) of hepatitis B virus genotypes B and C among chronic liver disease patients in the Philippines. J. Gen. Virol. **87**:1873–1882.
32. **Sakamoto, T., Y. Tanaka, J. Simonetti, C. Osiowy, M. L. Borresen, A. Koch, F. Kurbanov, M. Sugiyama, G. Y. Minuk, B. J. McMahon, T. Joh, and M. Mizokami.** 2007. Classification of hepatitis B virus genotype B into 2 major types based on characterization of a novel subgenotype in Arctic indigenous populations. J. Infect. Dis. **196**:1487–1492.
33. **Salmon-Ceron, D., C. Lewden, P. Morlat, S. Bevilacqua, E. Jougla, F. Bonnet, L. Heripret, D. Costagliola, T. May, and G. Chene.** 2005. Liver disease as a major cause of death among HIV infected patients: role of hepatitis C and B viruses and alcohol. J. Hepatol. **42**:799–805.
34. **Sherlock, S. D. J.** 1997. Virus hepatitis, p. 265–392. *In* S. D. J. Sherlock (ed.), Diseases of the liver and biliary system, 10th ed. Blackwell Scientific Publications, London, United Kingdom.
35. **Shibayama, T., G. Masuda, A. Ajisawa, K. Hiruma, F. Tsuda, T. Nishizawa, M. Takahashi, and H. Okamoto.** 2005. Characterization of seven genotypes (A to E, G and H) of hepatitis B virus recovered from Japanese patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus type 1. J. Med. Virol. **76**:24–32.
36. **Shin, I. T., Y. Tanaka, Y. Tateno, and M. Mizokami.** 2008. Development and public release of a comprehensive hepatitis virus database. Hepatol Res. **38**:234–243.
37. **Stuyver, L., S. De Gendt, C. Van Geyt, F. Zoulim, M. Fried, R. F. Schinazi, and R. Rossau.** 2000. A new genotype of hepatitis B virus: complete genome and phylogenetic relatedness. J. Gen. Virol. **81**:67–74.
38. **Sugauchi, F., H. Kumada, S. A. Acharya, S. M. Shrestha, M. T. Gamutan, M. Khan, R. G. Gish, Y. Tanaka, T. Kato, E. Orito, R. Ueda, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mizokami.** 2004. Epidemiological and sequence differences between two subtypes (Ae and Aa) of hepatitis B virus genotype A. J. Gen. Virol. **85**: 811–820.
39. **Sugauchi, F., E. Orito, T. Ichida, H. Kato, H. Sakugawa, S. Kakumu, T. Ishida, A. Chutaputti, C. L. Lai, R. G. Gish, R. Ueda, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mizokami.** 2003. Epidemiologic and virologic characteristics of hepatitis B virus genotype B having the recombination with genotype C. Gastroenterology **124**:925–932.
40. **Sugauchi, F., E. Orito, T. Ichida, H. Kato, H. Sakugawa, S. Kakumu, T. Ishida, A. Chutaputti, C. L. Lai, R. Ueda, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mizokami.** 2002. Hepatitis B virus of genotype B with or without recombination with genotype C over the precore region plus the core gene. J. Virol. **76**:5985–5992.
41. **Sugauchi, F., E. Orito, T. Ohno, Y. Tanaka, A. Ozasa, J. H. Kang, J. Toyoda, T. Kuramitsu, K. Suzuki, E. Tanaka, Y. Akahane, T. Ichida, N. Izumi, K. Inoue, H. Hoshino, S. Iino, H. Yotsuyanagi, S. Kakumu, E. Tomita, T. Okanoue, S. Nishiguchi, Y. Murawaki, K. Hino, M. Onji, H. Yatsuhashi, M. Sata, Y. Miyakawa, R. Ueda, and M. Mizokami.** 2006. Spatial and chronological differences in hepatitis B virus genotypes from patients with acute hepatitis B in Japan. Hepatol. Res. **36**:107–114.
42. **Sumi, H., O. Yokosuka, N. Seki, M. Arai, F. Imazeki, T. Kurihara, T. Kanda, K. Fukai, M. Kato, and H. Saisho.** 2003. Influence of hepatitis B virus genotypes on the progression of chronic type B liver disease. Hepatology **37**:19–26.
43. **Suzuki, Y., M. Kobayashi, K. Ikeda, F. Suzuki, Y. Arfase, N. Akuta, T. Hosaka, S. Saitoh, T. Someya, M. Matsuda, J. Sato, S. Watabiki, Y. Miyakawa, and H. Kumada.** 2005. Persistence of acute infection with hepatitis B virus genotype A and treatment in Japan. J. Med. Virol. **76**:33–39.
44. **Tanaka, Y., I. Hasegawa, T. Kato, E. Orito, N. Hirashima, S. K. Acharya, R. G. Gish, A. Kramvis, M. C. Kew, N. Yoshihara, S. M. Shrestha, M. Khan, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mizokami.** 2004. A case-control study for differences among hepatitis B virus infections of genotypes A (subtypes Aa and Ae) and D. Hepatology **40**:747–755.
45. **Tanaka, Y., E. Orito, M. F. Yuen, M. Mukaide, F. Sugauchi, K. Ito, A. Ozasa, T. Sakamoto, F. Kurbanov, C. L. Lai, and M. Mizokami.** 2005. Two subtypes (subgenotypes) of hepatitis B virus genotype C: a novel subtyping assay based on restriction fragment length polymorphism. Hepatol. Res. **33**:216–224.
46. **Usuda, S., H. Okamoto, H. Iwanari, K. Baba, F. Tsuda, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mayumi.** 1999. Serological detection of hepatitis B virus genotypes by ELISA with monoclonal antibodies to type-specific epitopes in the preS2-region product. J. Virol. Methods **80**:97–112.
47. **Usuda, S., H. Okamoto, T. Tanaka, K. Kidd-Ljunggren, P. V. Holland, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mayumi.** 2000. Differentiation of hepatitis B virus genotypes D and E by ELISA using monoclonal antibodies to epitopes on the preS2-region product. J. Virol. Methods **87**:81–89.
48. **Weinbaum, C. M., K. M. Sabin, and S. S. Santibanez.** 2005. Hepatitis B, hepatitis C, and HIV in correctional populations: a review of epidemiology and prevention. AIDS **19**(Suppl. 3):S41–S46.
49. **Yotsuyanagi, H., C. Okuse, K. Yasuda, E. Orito, S. Nishiguchi, J. Toyoda, E. Tomita, K. Hino, K. Okita, S. Murashima, M. Sata, H. Hoshino, Y. Miyakawa, and S. Iino.** 2005. Distinct geographic distributions of hepatitis B virus genotypes in patients with acute infection in Japan. J. Med. Virol. **77**:39–46.

J Gastroenterol (2009) 44:952–963
DOI 10.1007/s00535-009-0087-x

ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Predictive values of amino acid sequences of the core and NS5A regions in antiviral therapy for hepatitis C: a Japanese multi-center study

Takeshi Okanoue · Yoshito Itoh · Hiroaki Hashimoto · Kohichiroh Yasui · Masahito Minami · Tetsuo Takehara · Eiji Tanaka · Morikazu Onji · Joji Toyota · Kazuaki Chayama · Kentaro Yoshioka · Namiki Izumi · Norio Akuta · Hiromitsu Kumada

Received: 31 March 2009 / Accepted: 20 April 2009 / Published online: 11 June 2009

Abstract
Background Chronic hepatitis C (CHC) genotype 1b patients with high viral load are resistant to peginterferon (PEG-IFN) and ribavirin (RBV) combination therapy, especially older and female patients.
Methods To elucidate the factors affecting early and sustained viral responses (EVR and SVR), 409 genotype 1b patients CHC with high viral loads who had received 48 weeks of PEG-IFN/RBV therapy were enrolled. The amino acid (aa) sequences of the HCV core at positions 70 and 91 and of the interferon sensitivity determining region (ISDR) were analyzed. Host factors, viral factors, and treatment-related factors were subjected to multivariate analysis.
Results Male gender, low HCV RNA load, high platelet count, two or more aa mutations of ISDR, and wild type of core aa 70 were independent predictive factors for SVR. In patients with over 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV, male gender, mild fibrosis stage, and wild type of core aa 70 were independent predictors for SVR.
Conclusions Independent predictive factors for SVR were: no aa substitution at core aa 70, two or more aa mutations in the ISDR, low viral load, high values of platelet count, mild liver fibrosis and male gender.

T. Okanoue (✉)
Hepatology Center, Saiseikai Suita Hospital,
1-2 Kawazonocho, Suita 564-0013, Japan
e-mail: okanoue@suita.saiseikai.or.jp

T. Okanoue · Y. Itoh · H. Hashimoto · K. Yasui · M. Minami
Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology,
Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine,
Kawaramachi-Hirokoji Kamigyo-Ku,
Kyoto 602-8566, Japan

Y. Itoh
e-mail: yitoh@koto.kpu-m.ac.jp

H. Hashimoto
e-mail: road1820@yahoo.co.jp

K. Yasui
e-mail: yasuik@koto.kpu-m.ac.jp

M. Minami
e-mail: minami@koto.kpu-m.ac.jp

T. Takehara
Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology,
Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine,
2-2 Yamadaoka, Suita 565-0871, Japan
e-mail: takehara@gh.med.osaka-u.ac.jp

E. Tanaka
Department of Medicine, Shinshu University School
of Medicine, 3-1-1 Asahi, Matsumoto 390-8621, Japan
e-mail: etanaka@shinshu-u.ac.jp

M. Onji
Department of Gastroenterology, Ehime University,
454 Shizukawa, Tohon, Ehime 791-0295, Japan
e-mail: onjimori@m.med.ehime-u.ac.jp

J. Toyota
Departmet of Gastroenterology, Sapporo-Kosei General
Hospital, Kita Sanjyo, Chuo-ku, Sapporo 060-0033, Japan
e-mail: joji.toyota@ja_hokkaidoukouseiren.or.jp

K. Chayama
Department of Medicine and Molecular Science,
Graduate School of Science, Hiroshima University,
1-2-3 Kasumi, Minami-ku, Hiroshima,
Hiroshima 734-8551, Japan
e-mail: chayama@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

K. Yoshioka
Department of Hepato-Biliary-Pancreas, Fujita Health Science,
Kutsukake-cho, Toyoake 470-1192, Japan
e-mail: kyoshiok@fujita-hu.ac.jp

Keywords Chronic hepatitis C · Peginterferon and ribavirin · Core amino acid · Interferon sensitivity determining region

Abbreviations

CHC	Chronic hepatitis C
PEG-IFN	Peginterferon
RBV	Ribavirin
RVR	Rapid viral response
cEVR	Complete early viral response
LVR	Late viral response
ETR	End of treatment response
NR	Non response
SVR	Sustained viral response
ISDR	Interferon sensitivity determining region
Aa	Amino acid
ALT	Alanine aminotransferase
PLT	Platelet
HCC	Hepatocellular carcinoma

Introduction

A combination of pegylated interferon (PEG-IFN) and ribavirin (RBV) therapy for 48 weeks achieves a sustained viral response (SVR) rate of 40–50% in chronic hepatitis C (CHC) patients with a high viral load of genotype 1 [1–4]. The dose-reduction rate and the frequency of discontinuation of this treatment are high in aged patients [5]. The SVR rate of the therapy is lower in females than males, especially in older patients in Japan [6].

Around 30% of HCV carriers have serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels within the upper limit of normal ranges [7, 8] and HCV carriers with persistently normal serum ALT (PNALT) and serum platelet (PLT) counts of over $15 \times 10^4/mm^3$ show low grade hepatic fibrosis and good prognosis [9]. Before treating HCV carriers, it is very important to predict non-response to PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy because of its medical cost, adverse effects, and its impact on the long term quality of life.

N. Izumi
Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Musashino Red Cross Hospital, Sakaiminamimachi, Musashino 180-8610, Japan
e-mail: nizumi@musashino.jrc.or.jp

N. Akuta · H. Kumada
Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital, Kajigaya, Takatsu-ku, Kawasaki 213-8587, Japan

N. Akuta
e-mail: akuta-gi@umin.ac.jp

H. Kumada
e-mail: kumahiro@toranomon.gr.jp

There are many factors affecting response to IFN monotherapy and PEG-IFN/RBV therapy, including body mass index (BMI) [10, 11], steatosis [12, 13], insulin resistance [14], stage of liver fibrosis [15, 16], total cholesterol (T. Chol), triglyceride (TG), adherence to both PEG-IFN and RBV [17], race [18, 19], age [1, 2, 20], and viral factors including serum quantity of HCV RNA, HCV genotype and substitution of amino acids (aa) in the interferon sensitivity determining region (ISDR, 2209–2248) of the nonstructural protein 5A (NS5A) [21] and in the core protein [22, 23]. Early viral response is an important predictive factor in PEG-IFN/RBV therapy for CHC patients with genotype 1 and high viral loads [24–27].

The aim of this study was to elucidate the valuable predictive factors of SVR in Japanese patients with HCV genotype 1b high viral loads following 48 weeks of PEG-IFN/RBV therapy, focusing on the relationship between aa substitutions in the ISDR and at core aa 70 and 91 and early viral kinetics.

Patients and methods

Selection of patients

This retrospective study was conducted at 15 clinical sites in Japan which are part of the Study Group of Optimal Treatment of Viral Hepatitis supported by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Japan. Eligible subjects were CHC patients, who (1) had received liver biopsy; (2) were genotype 1b with high viral load ($\geq$100 KIU/ml by Cobas Amplicor Hepatitis C Virus Test, version 2.0) at the start of PEG-IFN/RBV therapy; (3) received weekly injections of PEG-IFN-α-2b (PEG-INTRON; Shering-Plough, Kenilworth, NJ) of 1.5 μg/kg bw and oral administration of RBV (Rebetol; Shering-Plough) for 48 weeks. The amount of RBV was adjusted based on the subject's body weight; (600 mg for $\leq$60 kg bw, 800 mg for 60–80 kg bw, 1,000 mg for > 80 kg bw); (4) were examined serially for quantitative and qualitative HCV RNA; and (5) the aa sequences at positions 70 and 91 in the core region and of the ISDR in the NS5A had been determined in pretreatment sera.

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, autoimmune hepatitis, primary biliary cirrhosis, hemochromatosis, and Wilson's disease were excluded. Histopathological diagnosis was based on the scoring system of Desmet et al. [28]. The definition of alcohol abuse included patients having a history of more than 100 kg of total ethanol intake. Complete blood counts, liver function tests, serum lipids, serum ferritin, serum fibrosis markers, fasting plasma glucose (FPG), and immune reactive insulin (IRI) were examined in most cases. Written informed consent was obtained from all

patients before treatment, and the protocol was approved by the ethics committees in each site.

Study design

Four hundred and nine patients who completed 48 weeks of treatment and were followed for more than 24 weeks after treatment were enrolled in the first study (*Study design 1*).

To elucidate the effect of aa substitution of HCV core and in the ISDR on HCV dynamics, including a rapid viral response (RVR), complete early viral response (cEVR), a late viral response (LVR) and SVR, according to gender and age (<60 years ≥ 60 years), 201 of the 409 patients maintaining over 80% adherences to both PEG-IFN and RBV were enrolled in the second study (*Study design 2*).

Nucleotide sequencing of the core and NA5A gene

The nucleotide sequences encoding aa 1–191 (HCV core) and aa 2209–2248 (ISDR) were analyzed by direct sequencing as described by Akuta et al. [22, 27] and Enomoto et al. [21]. In brief, RNA was extracted from the sera and converted to cDNA and two nested rounds of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were performed. Primers used in the PCR were as follows; (a) Nucleotide sequences of the core region: the first-round PCR was performed with CC11 (sense) and e14 (antisense) primers [22, 27], and the second-round PCR with CC9 (sense) and e14 (antisense) primers [22, 27]. (b) Nucleotide sequences of the ISDR in NS5A: the first-round PCR was performed with ISDR1 (sense) and ISDR2 (antisense) primers [21], and the second-round PCR with ISDR3 (sense) and ISDR4 (antisense) primers [21]. These sequences were compared with the consensus sequence of genotype 1b (HCV-J) [29]. Wild types virus encoded arginine and leucine at aa 70 and 91, respectively, and the aa substitutions were glutamine or histidine at aa 70 and methionine at aa 91.

Viral kinetic study

Serum HCV RNA levels were measured by PCR (Amplicor HCV RNA kit, version 2.0, Roche Diagnostics) using samples taken before treatment and at 4, 12, 24, and 48 weeks after the therapy. SVR was defined as HCV RNA negativity by qualitative analysis by PCR at 24 weeks after the treatment. RVR was defined as HCV RNA negativity at 4 weeks, cEVR as HCV RNA negativity at 12 weeks, LVR as HCV RNA negativity during 13–24 weeks and an end of treatment response (ETR) as HCV RNA negativity at the end of treatment. Patients who remained positive for HCV RNA at the end of the treatment and at 24 weeks after the therapy were defined as non-responders (NR).

Adherences to PEG-IFN and RBV

Adherences to PEG-IFN and RBV were assessed by separately calculating the actual doses of PEG-IFN and RBV received as percentages of the intended dosages. Adherences to PEG-IFN and RBV were divided into two groups; 80%≤ and <80%.

Statistical analysis

All data analyses were conducted using the SAS version 9.1.3 statistical analysis packages (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). Individual characteristics between groups were evaluated by Mann–Whitney U test for numerical variables or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables. Variables exhibiting values of $p < 0.1$ in the univariate analysis were subjected to stepwise multivariate logistic regression analysis. The grade of steatosis and iron deposition in liver tissue, BMI, albumin (Alb), low density lipoprotein-cholesterol (LDL-C), homeostasis model assesment-insulin resistance (HOMA-IR), ferritin, and hyaluronic acid were excluded from multivariate logistic regression analysis because of the absence of those data in more than 10% of the patients. All p values of $p < 0.05$ by the two-tailed test were considered statistically significant.

Results

Study design 1

Baseline backgrounds, characteristics and adherences of peginterferon and ribavirin in males and females

The treatment outcome of PEG-IFN and RBV combination therapy depends on gender in Japanese patients, so in addition to aa substitutions in the ISDR in NS5A [21] or at HCV core 70 and 91 [22, 27], we compared the baseline characteristics according to gender (Table 1). Males were younger and the grade of hepatic inflammation was milder in males. The serum levels of LDL-C, PLT count, and aa substitutions of ISDR and at core 70 and 91 did not differ significantly different between males and females. The frequency of no alcohol abuse was significantly ($p < 0.0001$) higher in females than males (Some of them are not described in Table 1).

The rates of over 80% adherences to PEG-IFN and RBV were significantly lower ($p = 0.0066$, $p < 0.00001$, respectively) in females than males. Only in those above 60 years did the rate of over 80% adherence to PEG-IFN not differ significantly between males and females, but the rate of over 80% adherence to RBV was significantly lower ($p = 0.035$) in females than males (Table 1).

Table 1 Backgrounds and characteristics of male and female patients

Factors	Gender		*p* value
	Male	Female	
No. of patients	256 (62.6%)	153 (37.4%)	
Age			
Median (range)	53 (18–73)	59 (23–75)	0.00001
F stage			
F0–2	206 (80.5%)	119 (77.8%)	0.592
F3–4	50 (19.5%)	34 (22.2%)	
Grade (A factor)			
A0–1	163 (63. 7%)	79 (51.6%)	0.026
A2–3	93 (36.3%)	74 (48.4%)	
HCV RNA load 0 week (KIU/mL)			
Median (range)	1500 (100–5000 <)	1280 (100–5000<)	0.384
ALT 0 week (IU/L)			
Median (range)	74.5 (16–504)	59 (19–391)	0.001
BMI			
Median (range)	23.6 (17.5–31.2)	22.1 (16.1–33.9)	0.00033
Alb (g/dL)			
Median (range)	4.0 (3.0–5.2)	3.8 (3.0–4.8)	0.011
LDL-C (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	97 (30–185)	90 (34–174)	0.612
T-Chol (mg/dL)			
Median (range)	167 (85–273)	176 (114–261)	0.0016
PLT count ($\times 10^4/mm^3$)			
Median (range)	17.0 (8.0–31.9)	16.4 (8.1–39.9)	0.350
Amino acid mutation of ISDR			
0–1	200 (78.1%)	121 (79.1%)	0.608
2≤	56 (21.9%)	32 (20.9%)	
Amino acid substitution of core 70			
Wild	177 (69.1%)	114 (74.5%)	0.261
Mutant	79 (30.9%)	39 (25.5%)	
Amino acid substitution of core 91			
Wild	153 (59.8%)	98 (64.1%)	0.403
Mutant	103 (40.2%)	55 (35.9%)	
PEG-IFN adherence			
<80%	41 (17.7%)	42 (30.4%)	0.0066
80%≤	190 (82.3%)	96 (69.6%)	
Ribavirin adherence			
<80%	54 (23.6%)	73 (52.1%)	<0.00001
80%≤	175 (76.4%)	67 (47.9%)	
Age: <60 years			
PEG adherence			
<80%	30 (17.8%)	23 (31.5%)	0.027
80%≤	139 (82.2%)	50 (68.5%)	
Ribavirin adherence			
<80%	27 (16.2%)	31 (42.5%)	0.000029
80%≤	140 (83.8%)	42 (57.5%)	
Age: 60 years≤			
PEG adherence			
<80%	11 (17.7%)	19 (29.2%)	0.147
80%≤	51 (82.3%)	46 (70.8%)	
Ribavirin adherence			
<80%	27 (43.5%)	42 (62.7%)	0.035
80%≤	35 (56.5%)	25 (37.3%)	

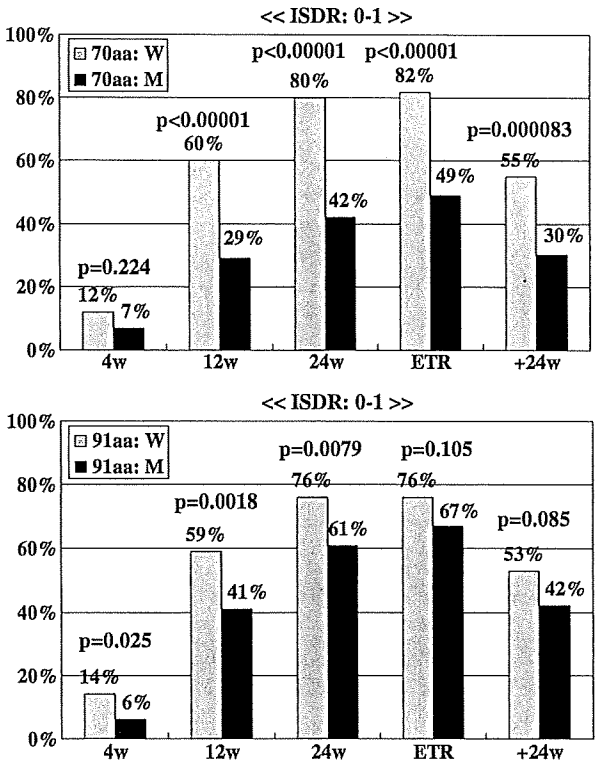

Fig. 1 Relationship between time course of serum HCV RNA negativity and amino acid substitutions in the ISDR and core amino acids 70 and 91. For cases with no or only one amino acid (aa) change in the ISDR, the rates of cEVR, LVR, ETR and SVR were significantly higher in patients with wild type core aa 70 but only the rates of RVR, cEVR, and LVR were significantly higher in patients with wild type core aa 91

Amino acid substitutions

There were no significant differences in the frequency of aa substitutions in the ISDR between males and females. Core aa substitutions at positions 70 and 91 were as follows; 291 (71.1%) were wild type and 118 (28.9%) were mutant at core aa 70, and 251 (61.4%) were wild type and 158 (38.6%) were mutant at core aa 91. There were no significant differences between males and females and between patients below and above 60 years of age.

Virological responses and aa substitutions

The rate of RVR did not differ significantly between males and females. However, more male patients showed HCV RNA negativity at 12 weeks (males vs. females; 60.7 vs. 48.4%, $p = 0.018$), 24 weeks (76.8 vs. 64.2%, $p = 0.0078$) and 48 weeks (78.2 vs. 68.6%, $p = 0.049$), and the proportion of male patients in SVR was significantly higher than that of females (61.3 vs. 37.3%, $p < 0.00001$).

RVR, cEVR and SVR rates were significantly higher in patients with two or more aa mutations in the ISDR compared to patients having no or one aa substitution in that region (20 vs. 11%, $p = 0.044$; 71 vs. 52%, $p = 0.0021$; 66 vs. 49%, $p = 0.0054$, respectively). AA substitution at core position 70 resulted in significantly lower rate of cEVR, LVR, ETR, and SVR (40 vs. 63%, $p = 0.000037$; 51 vs. 81%, $p < 0.00001$; 56 vs. 83%, 41 vs. 57%; $p < 0.00001$, $p = 0.0031$, respectively). Although the patients with the wild type aa at core 91 showed significantly higher rates of RVR and cEVR, the rate of SVR was not significantly higher in those patients ($p = 0.054$).

SVR rates were 30% for patients with no or one aa substitution in the ISDR and the core aa 70 substitution, and were significantly lower compared to those with the wild type aa core 70 (Fig. 1). These findings were not confirmed in patients with no or one aa substitution in the ISDR and the core aa 91 substitution (Fig. 1).

Factors affecting SVR by univariate analysis

Univariate analysis identified nine parameters that influenced non-SVR significantly: female gender, older age, advanced staged liver fibrosis, high viral load, low serum Alb level, low PLT count, no or one aa substitution in the ISDR, aa substitution at core aa 70, and low adherence to RBV (Table 2). The frequency of steatosis and HOMA-IR were significantly ($p = 0.0057$, $p < 0.00001$, respectively) lower in patients with SVR compared with non-SVR (data not shown). However, these factors were not entered in the multivariate analysis because of the absence of the data in many cases.

Factors affecting RVR, cEVR, and SVR by multivariate logistic regression analysis

Multivariate analysis identified four parameters that influenced RVR independently: low HCV RNA load, low serum ALT level, two or more aa mutations in the ISDR and the wild type aa at core position 91 (Table 3).

Concerning cEVR, male gender, mild fibrosis stage, low HCV RNA load, two or more aa mutations in the ISDR, and the wild type aa at core positions 70 and 91 were independent predictors (Table 3).

Concerning SVR, male gender ($p < 0.0001$), low HCV RNA load ($p = 0.013$), high PLT count ($p = 0.0019$), two or more aa mutations in the ISDR ($p = 0.024$), and wild type core aa 70 ($p = 0.0045$) were found to be independent predictors (Table 3).

The predictive values of the combination of gender, PLT count, ISDR and core aa 70 are shown in Fig. 2a. In male patients having PLT of $<15 \times 10^4/mm^3$, and, no or one aa substitution in the ISDR, the SVR rate was 68% when core 70

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.

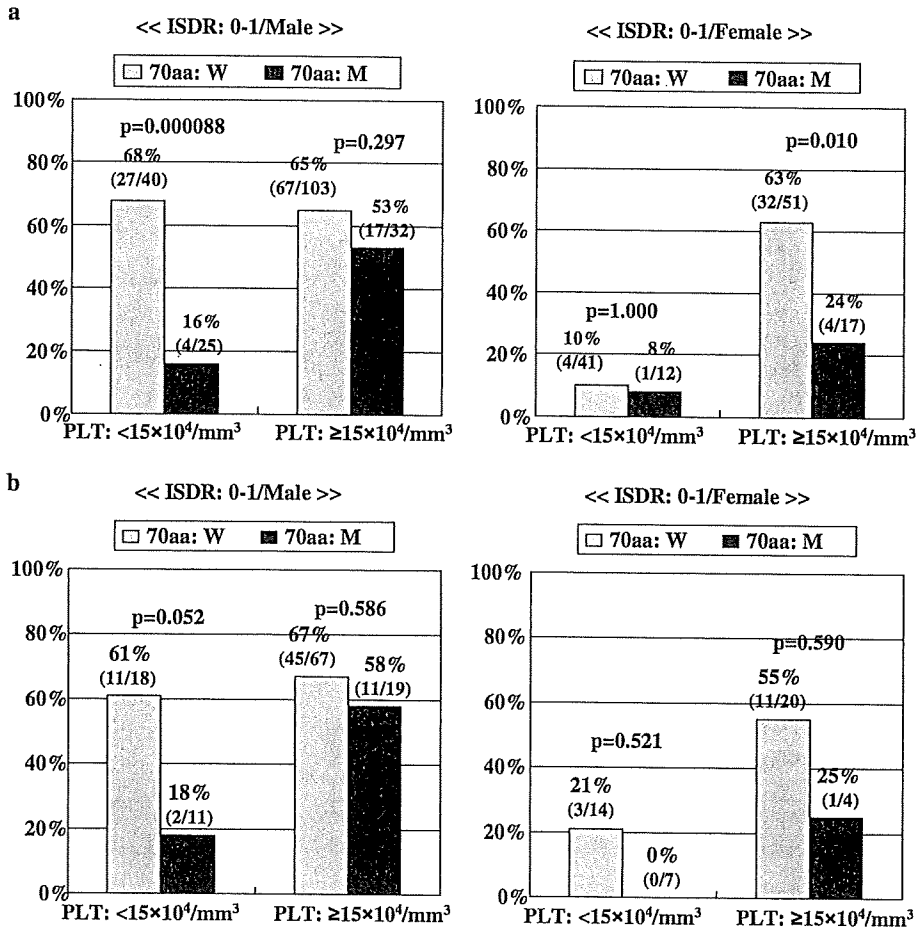

Fig. 2 Relationship between SVR rate and amino acid substitutions in the ISDR and core amino acids 70 and 91, PLT counts and gender difference. The two figures of **a** show the results of *Study 1* and the two figures of **b** show the results of *Study 2*. In male patients with no or only one amino 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.

Acknowledgments We express our thanks to other members of the Study Group of Optimal Treatment of Viral Hepatitis; Hideyuki Nomura, Shin-Kokura Hospital; Yoshiyuki Ueno, University of Tohoku; Hisataka Moriwaki, Gifu University; Makoto Oketani, Kagoshima University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences; Masataka Seike, Oita University; Hiroshi Yotsuyanagi, The University of Tokyo. This study was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Japan.

References

1. Manns MP, McHutchinson JG, Gordon SC, Rustgi VK, Shiffman M, Reindollar R, et al. Peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin for initial treatment of chronic hepatitis C: a randomized trial. Lancet. 2001;358:958–65.
2. Fried MW, Shiffman ML, Reddy KR, Smith C, Marinos G, Gonzales FL, et al. Peginterferon alfa-2a plus ribavirin for chronic hepatitis C virus infection. N Engl J Med. 2002;347:975–82.
3. Hadziyannis S, Sette H Jr, Morgan TR, Balan V, Diago M, Marcellin P, et al. Peginterferon-alfa-2a plus ribavirin combination therapy in chronic hepatitis C. a randomized study of treatment duration and ribavirin dose. Ann Intern Med. 2004;40:346–55.
4. Hiramatsu N, Kurashige N, Oze T, Takehara T, Tamura S, Kasahara A, et al. Early decline of hemoglobin can predict progression of hemolytic anemia during pegylated interferon and ribavirin combination therapy in patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatol Res. 2008;38:52–9.
5. Honda T, Katano Y, Urano F, Murayama M, Hayashi K, Ishigami M, et al. Efficacy of ribavirin plus interferon-α in patients aged 60 years with chronic hepatitis C. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2007;22:989–95.
6. Sezaki H, Suzuki F, Kawamura Y, Yatsuji H, Hosaka T, Akuta N, et al. Poor response to pegylated interferon and ribavirin in older women infected with hepatitis C virus of genotype 1b in high viral load. Dig Dis Sci 2009;54:1317–24
7. Puoti C, Castellacci R, Montagness F, Zaltron S, Stornaiuolo G, Bergami N, et al. Histological and virological features and follow-up of HCV carriers with normal aminotransferase levels: the Italian Study of the Asymptomatic C Carriers (ISACC). J Hepatol. 2002;37:117–23.
8. Hui CK, Belaye T, Montegrande K, Wright TL. A comparison in the progression of liver fibrosis in chronic hepatitis C between persistently normal and elevated transaminase. J Hepatol. 2003;38:511–7.
9. Okanoue T, Makiyama A, Nakayama M, Sumida Y, Mitsuyoshi H, Nakajima T, et al. A follow-up study to determine the value of liver biopsy and need for antiviral therapy for hepatitis C virus carriers with persistently normal serum aminotransferase. J Hepatol. 2005;43:599–605.
10. Bressler BL, Guindi M, Tomlinson G, Heathcote J. High body mass index in an independent risk factor for non response to antiviral treatment in chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology. 2003;38:639–44.
11. Walsh MJ, Jonsson JR, Richardson MM, Lipka GM, Purdi DM, Clouston AD, et al. Non-response to antiviral therapy is associated with obesity and increased hepatic expression of suppressor of cytokine signaling 3 in patients with chronic hepatitis C, viral genotype 1. Gut. 2006;55:604–9.
12. Patton HM, Patel K, Behling C, Bylund C, Blatt LM, Vallee M, et al. The impact of steatosis on disease progression and early and sustained treatment response in chronic hepatitis C patients. J Hepatol. 2004;40:484–90.
13. Asselah T, Rubbia-Brandt L, Marcellin M, Negro F. Steatosis in chronic hepatitis C: why does it really matter? Gut. 2006; 55:123–30.
14. Romero-Gomez M, Del Mar Viloria M, Andrade RJ, Salmeron J, Diago M, Fernandez-Rodriguez CM, et al. Insulin resistance impairs sustained response rate to peginterferon plus ribavirin in chronic hepatitis C patients. Gastroenterology. 2005;128: 636–41.
15. Bruno S, Camma C, Di Marco V, Rumi M, Vinci M, Cammozzi M, et al. Peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin for native patients with genotype 1 chronic hepatitis C: a randomized controlled trial. J Hepatol. 2004;41:474–81.
16. Everson GT, Hoefs JC, Seeff LB, Bonkovsky HL, Naishadham D, Shiffman ML, et al. Impact of disease severity on outcome of antiviral therapy for chronic hepatitis C: lessons from the HALT-C trial. Hepatology. 2006;44:1675–84.
17. McHutchison JG, Manns M, Patel K, Poynard T, Lindsay KL, Trepo C, et al. Adherence to combination therapy enhances sustained response in genotype-1-infected patients with chronic hepatitis C. Gastroenterology. 2002;123:1061–9.
18. Jeffers LJ, Cassidy W, Howell CD, Hu S, Reddy R. Peginterferon alfa-2a (40kd) and ribavirin for black American patients with chronic HCV genotype 1. Hepatology. 2004;39:1702–6.
19. Muir AJ, Bornstein JD, Killenberg PG, Atlantic Coast Hepatitis Treatment Group. Peginterferon alfa 2b and ribavirin for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C in blacks and non-Hispanic whites. N Engl J Med. 2004;350:2265–71.
20. Poynard T, Marcellin P, Lee SS, Niederau C, Minuk GS, Ideo G, et al. Randomized trial of interferon alpha 2b plus ribavirin for 48 weeks or 24 weeks versus interferon alpha 2b plus placebo for 48 weeks for treatment for chronic infection with hepatitis C virus. International Hepatitis Interventional Therapy Group (IHIT). Lancet. 1998;352:1426–32.
21. Enomoto N, Sakuma I, Asahina Y, Kurosaki M, Murakami T, Yamamoto C, et al. Mutations in the nonstructural protein 5 A gene and response to interferon in patients with chronic hepatitis C virus 1b infection. N Engl J Med. 1996;334:77–81.
22. Akuta N, Suzuki F, Sezaki H, Suzuki Y, Hosaka T, Someya T, et al. Association of amino acid substitution pattern in core protein of hepatitis C virus genotype 1b high viral load and non-virological response in interferon-ribavirin combination therapy. Intervirology. 2005;48:372–80.
23. Donlin MJ, Cannon NA, Yao E, Li J, Wahed A, Taylor MW, et al. Pretreatment sequence diversity differences in the

full-length hepatitis C virus open reading frame correlate with early response to therapy. J Virol. 2007;81:8211–24.
24. Davis GL, Wong JB, McHutchison JG, Manns MP, Harvey J, Albrecht J. Early virologic response to treatment with peginterferon alfa-2b plus ribavirin in patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology. 2003;38:645–52.
25. Ferenci P, Fried MW, Shiffman ML, Smith CI, Marinos G, Goncales FL, et al. Predicting sustained virological responses in chronic hepatitis C patients treated with peginterferon alfa-2a ribavirin. J Hepatol. 2005;43:425–33.
26. Moucari R, Ripault M-P, Oules V, Martinot-Peignoux M, Asselah T, Boyer N, et al. High predictive value of early viral kinetics in retreatment with peginterferon and ribavirin of chronic hepatitis C patients non-responders to standard combination therapy. J Hepatol. 2007;46:596–604.
27. Akuta N, Suzuki F, Kawamura Y, Yatsuji H, Sezaki H, Suzuki Y, et al. Predictive factors of early and sustained responses to peginterferon plus ribavirin combination therapy in Japanese patients infected with hepatitis C virus genotype 1a: amino acid substitutions in the core region and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol level. J Hepatol. 2007;46:403–10.
28. Desmet VJ, Gerber M, Hoofnagle JH, Manna M, Scheuer PJ. Classification of chronic hepatitis: grading and staging. Hepatology. 1994;19:1513–20.
29. Kato N, Hijikata M, Ootsuyama Y, Nakagawa M, Ohkoshi S, Sugimura T, et al. Molecular cloning of the human hepatitis C virus genome from Japanese patients with non-A, non-B hepatitis. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 1990;87:9524–8.
30. Okanoue T, Itoh Y, Minami M, Sakamoto S, Yasui K, Sakamoto M, et al. Interferon therapy lowers the rate of progression to hepatocellualr carcinoma in chronic hepatitis C but not significantly in an advanced stage: a retrospective study in 1148 patients. J Hepatol. 1999;30:653–9.
31. Okanoue T, Itoh Y, Minami M, Hashimoto H, Yasui K, Yotsuyanagi H, et al. Guidelines for the antiviral therapy of hepatitis C virus carriers with normal serum aminotransferase based on platelet count. Hepatol Res. 2008;38:27–36.
32. Iwasaki Y, Ikeda H, Araki Y, Osawa T, Kita K, Ando M, et al. Limitation of combination therapy of interferon and ribavirin for older patients with chronic hepatitis. Hepatology. 2006;43:54–63.
33. El-Shamy A, Nagano-Fujii M, Sasase N, Imoto S, Kim SR, Hotta H. Sequence variation in hepatitis C virus nonstructural protein 5A predicts clinical outcome of pegylated interferon/ribavirin combination therapy. Hepatology. 2008;48:38–47.
34. Patton HM, Patel K, Behling C, Bylund D, Blatt LM, Vallee M, et al. The impact of steatosis on disease progression and early and sustained treatment response in chronic hepatitis C patients. J Hepatol. 2004;40:484–90.
35. Lagging M, Romero A, Westin J, Norkrans G, Dhillon AP, Palwlosky JM, et al. IP-10 predicts viral response and therapeutic outcome in difficult-to-treat patients with HCV genotype 1 infection. Hepatology. 2006;44:1617–25.
36. Pilli M, Zerbini A, Penna A, Orlandini A, Lukasiewicz E, Pawlotsky JM, et al. HCV-specific T-cell response in relation to viral kinetics and treatment outcome (DITTO-HCV Project). Gastroenterology. 2007;133:1132–43.
37. Shirakawa H, Matsumoto A, Joshita S, Komatsu M, Tanaka N, Umemura T, et al. Pretreatment prediction of virological response to peginterferon plus ribabirin therapy in chronic hepatitis C patients using viral and host factors. Hepatology. 2008; 48:1753–60.

Dig Dis Sci
DOI 10.1007/s10620-009-0954-6

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Fucosylated Fraction of Alpha-Fetoprotein as a Predictor of Prognosis in Patients with Hepatocellular Carcinoma After Curative Treatment

Yasushi Tamura · Masato Igarashi · Takeshi Suda · Toshifumi Wakai · Yoshio Shirai · Takeji Umemura · Eiji Tanaka · Satoru Kakizaki · Hitoshi Takagi · Yoichi Hiasa · Morikazu Onji · Yutaka Aoyagi

Received: 6 April 2009 / Accepted: 10 August 2009

Abstract
Aim The aim of this study was to evaluate the clinical usefulness of measuring the *Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive fraction of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP-L3) for prognostic predictor in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).
Methods A total of 477 HCC patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy or hepatectomy were enrolled. Overall survival and recurrence-free survival were respectively evaluated retrospectively and prospectively. Multivariate analyses of clinical prognostic factors were performed by Cox's stepwise proportional hazard model.
Results AFP-L3 status was a statistically significant independent prognostic factor of long-term survival ($P = 0.013$) and recurrence-free survival ($P = 0.006$) in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy. In contrast, AFP-L3 did not affect prognosis in patients who underwent hepatectomy.
Conclusions AFP-L3 had different impacts on prognosis in patients with HCC who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy and hepatectomy. Our results suggest that AFP-L3 positivity ($\geq$15%) might be a promising indicator for choosing therapeutic modalities in HCC patients.

Keywords Alpha-fetoprotein · AFP-L3 · DCP (des-γ-carboxy prothrombin) · Hepatocellular carcinoma · Prognostic factor

Y. Tamura · M. Igarashi · T. Suda · Y. Aoyagi (✉)
Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Niigata University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, 757 Asahimachi Dori-1-Bancho, Chuo-ku, Niigata 951-8122, Japan
e-mail: aoy@med.niigata-u.ac.jp

T. Wakai · Y. Shirai
Division of Digestive and General Surgery, Niigata University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Niigata, Japan

T. Umemura · E. Tanaka
Department of Internal Medicine, Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Shinsyu University School of Medicine, Matsumoto, Japan

S. Kakizaki · H. Takagi
Department of Medicine and Molecular Science, Gunma University Graduate School of Medicine, Maebashi, Japan

Y. Hiasa · M. Onji
Department of Gastroenterology and Metabology, Ehime University Graduate School of Medicine, Ehime, Japan

Introduction

Hepatectomy is a generally accepted method that improves the long-term outcome in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [1]. However, patients with HCC frequently have coexisting liver cirrhosis with impaired hepatic functional reserve, and this may prevent surgical intervention. On the other hand, percutaneous ablative therapies, including percutaneous ethanol injection (PEI), microwave coagulation therapy (MCT), and percutaneous radiofrequency ablation (RFA), have been developed and applied as alternative therapeutic options in cases of small HCC [2–8]. Recently, RFA has been performed as a first-line therapeutic option for early stage HCC; its survival outcomes are similar to those of hepatectomy [6–8]. However, a method for making the correct choice among therapeutic modalities to suit individual patients with early stage HCC remains to be determined.

The *Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive fraction of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP-L3) has been reported to be a specific marker for HCC [9–11]. Moreover, its level predicts the

Published online: 03 September 2009

malignant potential of HCC with subsequent unfavorable prognosis after treatment [12–16]. However, there have been few reports of the relationship between AFP-L3 status and prognosis in subgroups of HCC patients receiving different therapeutic modalities, such as hepatectomy and percutaneous ablative therapy.

The aim of this collaborative retrospective and prospective study was to evaluate the clinical usefulness of measuring AFP-L3 for prognostic predictor in patients with HCC after curative treatment.

Patients and Methods

Study Design

A total of 336 HCC patients underwent curative treatment at four participating hospitals (Niigata University Hospital, Ehime University Hospital, Shinsyu University Hospital, and Gunma University Hospital) from January 1998 to March 2005 and were investigated retrospectively. Of these patients, 232 underwent percutaneous ablative therapy and 104 underwent hepatectomy. Percutaneous ablative therapy comprised PEI in 90 patients, MCT in four patients, and RFA in 138 patients. Long-term survival data on these patients were confirmed as of the end of March 2005.

To evaluate the prognostic influence of AFP-L3 in two subgroups comparable for tumor extension, we prospectively investigated 189 patients diagnosed with early stage HCC initially at four hospitals from April 2005 to October 2007. We considered patients who had multiple (up to three) tumors measuring 3 cm or less in diameter as having early stage HCC. Forty-eight of 189 patients were excluded in this study, as they were received transcatheter treatment. As a result, 141 HCC patients, 99 who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy and 42 who underwent hepatectomy, were enrolled in the prospective study. Percutaneous ablative therapy comprised PEI in ten patients, MCT in two patients, and RFA in 87 patients. In these 141 patients, HCC recurrence was assessed by imaging modalities every 3 or 4 months after treatment and recurrence free survival was evaluated as of the end of December 2007. Informed consent was obtained from each patient, and the study protocol conformed with the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki, as reflected in the a priori approval by our institution's human research committee.

Diagnosis of HCC and Laboratory Examination

In our study, the diagnosis was based essentially on imaging findings together with increments of tumor marker levels. We employed methods such as computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging, and CT during hepatic arteriography, considering hyperattenuation in the arterial phase with washout in the late phase to be a typical feature of HCC. In nine cases that showed atypical features on imaging, ultrasound-guided biopsies were performed.

Hepatic functional reserve was ranked by the criteria of the Child-Pugh scoring system. Serum alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) and des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin (DCP) were determined at each hospital by using commercially available kits. AFP-L3 percentage was measured at each hospital by liquid-binding assay (Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd, Osaka, Japan) [17]. AFP, AFP-L3, and DCP were measured in the same serum before treatment. Cut-off values for positivity for AFP, AFP-L3, and DCP were set at 20 ng/ml, 15%, and 40 mAU/ml, respectively, based on previous studies [18–20].

Treatment

Therapeutic modalities for individual patients were chosen according to hepatic functional reserve, tumor multiplicity, and tumor size. Percutaneous local ablative therapies were performed under a US-guided procedure, and its efficacy was evaluated with dynamic CT within a few days after treatment. Complete ablation of HCC was defined as non-enhancement of the lesion with surrounding liver parenchyma. Patients received additional sessions of an ablative therapy until the treatment was judged as complete. During the study, a Cool-tip RF System attached to a 200-W power generator (Radionics, Burlington, Massachusetts, USA) was the main device used for RFA treatment and Microtaze OT-110M (Alfresa-Pharma Co., Inc., Osaka, Japan) was used for MCT.

Statistical Analysis

Differences in the proportions of the independent binary variables were determined by Fisher's exact test. Continuous variables were compared by Student's *t*-test. Univariate survival and recurrence-free survival were determined by the Kaplan–Meier method. Log-rank test was used to test for equality of long-term survival and recurrence-free survival between the groups. Multivariate analyses of prognostic factors in the clinical features were performed by using Cox's stepwise proportional hazard model. The factors included for multivariate analyses were patient age, gender (female/male), HBsAg (negative/positive), Anti-HCV (negative/positive), Child-Pugh class (A/B, C), AFP (ng/ml) ($<20/\geq 20$), DCP (mAU/ml) ($<40/\geq 40$), AFP-L3 (%) ($<15/\geq 15$), tumor size (cm) ($<3/\geq 3$ or $\leq 2/>2$), and number of tumors (single/multiple). Statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 15.0 software (SPSS Japan Inc. Tokyo, Japan). A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Results

Retrospective Study

Clinical Features of Patients Classified by Therapeutic Modality

A total of 336 HCC patients who underwent hepatectomy and percutaneous ablative therapy were investigated retrospectively. Patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy were characterized by older age ($P < 0.05$), positivity for antibody to hepatitis C virus (anti-HCV) ($P < 0.05$), and advanced Child-Pugh classification ($P < 0.05$). In contrast, patients who underwent hepatectomy were characterized by positivity for hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) ($P < 0.05$), AFP-L3 ($P < 0.05$), and DCP ($P < 0.05$) elevation, as well as large tumor size ($P < 0.05$). No significant differences were observed between the two groups in terms of gender, AFP level, or number of tumors (Table 1A).

Univariate and Multivariate Analyses of the Factors Predicting Long-Term Patient Survival

The median observation time after treatment was 38.3 months (range, 1.0–146.2 months). Of the 232 patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy, 172 were alive and 60 had died from HCC, hepatic failure, and/or complications of cirrhosis. Of the 104 HCC patients who underwent hepatectomy, 68 were alive and 36 had died. The median survival time was 69.0 months in patients who had undergone percutaneous ablative therapy and 114.9 months in those who had undergone hepatectomy.

In the univariate analysis, anti-HCV status ($P = 0.034$), AFP status ($P = 0.007$), AFP-L3 status ($P = 0.001$), tumor size ($P = 0.001$), and number of tumors ($P = 0.045$) were significant prognostic factors of long-term survival in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy. AFP status ($P = 0.011$), tumor size ($P = 0.006$), and number of tumors ($P < 0.001$) were significant prognostic factors in patients who underwent hepatectomy (Table 2).

Multivariate analysis by Cox's stepwise proportional hazard model revealed that tumor size ($P = 0.018$) and AFP-L3 status ($P = 0.013$) were significant independent prognostic factors for long-term survival in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy. Tumor size ($P = 0.013$) and number of tumors ($P = 0.004$) were significant independent prognostic factors in patients who underwent hepatectomy (Table 3). We showed the long-term survival curves of two groups (with or without AFP-L3 elevation) in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy and in those who underwent hepatectomy (Fig. 1). No significant difference in survival was observed

Table 1 Clinical features of patients with HCC classified by therapeutic modality in the retrospective and prospective studies

Variables	Percutaneous ablation ($n = 232$)	Hepatectomy ($n = 104$)
(A) Retrospective study		
Age (median, range)	68 (39–89)	65 (35–81)*
Gender		
Male	145 (62.5%)	66 (63.5%)
Female	87 (37.5%)	38 (36.5%)
HBsAg		
Negative	209 (90.1%)	73 (70.2%)
Positive	23 (9.9%)	31 (29.8%)*
Anti-HCV		
Negative	28 (12.1%)	45 (43.3%)
Positive	204 (87.9%)	59 (56.7%)*
Child-Pugh class		
A	177 (76.3%)	95 (91.3%)
B and C	55 (23.7%)	9 (8.7%)*
AFP (ng/ml)		
<20	65 (28.0%)	22 (21.2%)
≥20	167 (72.0%)	82 (78.8%)
DCP (mAU/ml)		
<40	149 (67.4%)	48 (51.1%)
≥40	72 (32.6%)	46 (48.9%)*
AFP-L3 (%)		
<15	181 (78.0%)	61 (58.7%)
≥15	51 (22.0%)	43 (41.3%)*
Tumor size (cm)		
<3	185 (79.7%)	33 (31.7%)
≥3	47 (20.3%)	71 (68.3%)*
Tumor number		
Single	148 (63.8%)	75 (72.1%)
Multiple	84 (36.2%)	29 (27.9%)

Variables	Percutaneous ablation ($n = 99$)	Hepatectomy ($n = 42$)
(B) Prospective study		
Age (median, range)	69 (36–85)	65 (40–80)
Gender		
Male	66 (66.7%)	24 (57.1%)
Female	33 (33.3%)	18 (42.9%)
HBsAg		
Negative	85 (85.9%)	29 (69.0%)
Positive	14 (14.1%)	13 (31.0%)*
Anti-HCV		
Negative	27 (27.3%)	15 (35.7%)
Positive	72 (72.7%)	27 (64.3%)
Child-Pugh class		
A	79 (79.8%)	39 (92.9%)
B and C	20 (20.2%)	3 (7.1%)

Table 1 continued

Variables	Percutaneous ablation ($n = 99$)	Hepatectomy ($n = 42$)
AFP (ng/ml)		
<20	64 (64.6%)	22 (52.40%)
≥20	35 (35.4%)	20 (47.6%)
DCP (mAU/ml)		
<40	63 (63.6%)	27 (64.3%)
≥40	35 (35.4%)	15 (35.7%)
AFP-L3 (%)		
<15	85 (85.9%)	33 (78.6%)
≥15	14 (14.1%)	9 (21.4%)
Tumor size (cm)		
≤2	63 (63.6%)	27 (64.3%)
>2	36 (36.4%)	15 (35.7%)
Tumor number		
Single	78 (78.8%)	34 (81.0%)
Multiple	21 (21.2%)	8 (19.0%)

HBsAg hepatitis B surface antigen, *HCV* hepatitis C virus, *AFP* alpha-fetoprotein, *DCP* des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin. Percentages are shown in parentheses

* $P < 0.05$ between groups by Fisher's exact test and Student's *t*-test

between the two AFP-L3 groups in patients who underwent hepatectomy ($P = 0.308$). In contrast, patients in the ablative therapy group whose AFP-L3 levels were below 15% lived significantly longer than those whose values were more than 15% ($P = 0.001$).

Prospective Study

Clinical Features of Patients with Early Stage HCC Classified by Therapeutic Modality

A total of 141 patients with early stage HCC were evaluated prospectively. Patients who underwent hepatectomy were characterized by positive for hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) ($P < 0.05$). No significant differences were observed in age, gender, anti-HCV positivity, AFP status, AFP-L3 status, DCP status tumor size, and number of tumors between the two groups. Patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapies tended to have an advanced Child-Pugh classification ($P = 0.055$) (Table 1B).

Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of the Factors Predicting Recurrence-Free Survival in Patients with Early Stage HCC

The median follow-up time after treatment was 12.0 months (range, 1.0–30.5 months). Among the 99 patients who underwent percutaneous ablation, recurrences were observed in 36 (36.4%). Among the 42 patients who underwent hepatectomy, recurrences were observed in six (14.3%).

In the univariate analysis, we found no significant difference in recurrence-free survival rates by pretreatment variables in patients who underwent percutaneous ablation, although AFP-L3 elevation ($P = 0.054$) tended to decrease recurrence-free survival. In contrast, tumor size ($P = 0.038$) and number of tumors ($P = 0.034$) were significant prognostic factors in patients who underwent hepatectomy (Table 2).

Although this prospective study was conducted over a short period of time, multivariate analysis of prognostic factors among the clinical features was performed and Cox's stepwise proportional hazard model revealed that HBsAg status ($P = 0.033$), DCP status ($P = 0.011$), and AFP-L3 status ($P = 0.006$) were significant independent prognostic factors of recurrence-free survival in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapies. On the other hand, we found no significant independent prognostic factors in patients who underwent hepatectomy (Table 3).

We showed recurrence-free survival rates between two groups—with or without AFP-L3 elevation—among

Table 2 Univariate analysis of the factors predicting long-term survival in the retrospective study and recurrence-free survival in the prospective study for patients who underwent percutaneous ablation and in those who underwent hepatectomy

Variables	Long-term survival		Recurrence-free survival	
	Percutaneous ablation *P*-value	Hepatectomy *P*-value	Percutaneous ablation *P*-value	Hepatectomy *P*-value
Gender (female/male)	0.907	0.525	0.225	0.194
HBsAg (negative/positive)	0.139	0.801	0.151	0.314
Anti-HCV (negative/positive)	0.034	0.963	0.194	0.171
Child-Pugh class (A/B,C)	0.083	0.235	0.293	0.487
AFP (ng/ml) (<20/≥20)	0.007	0.011	0.117	0.994
DCP (mAU/ml) (<40/≥40)	0.328	0.153	0.075	0.059
AFP-L3 (%) (<15/≥15)	0.001	0.308	0.054	0.530
Tumor size (cm) (<3/≥3)	0.001	0.006	0.063	0.038
Tumor number (single/multiple)	0.045	<0.001	0.667	0.034

HBsAg hepatitis B surface antigen, *HCV* hepatitis C virus, *AFP* alpha-fetoprotein, *DCP* des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin. *P*-value was calculated using Log-rank test

Table 3 Multivariate analysis of factors predicting long-term survival in the retrospective study and recurrence-free survival in the prospective study for patients who underwent percutaneous ablation and in those who underwent hepatectomy

Long-term survival			Recurrence-free survival		
Variables	Hazard ratio (95% CI)	*P*-value	Variables	Hazard ratio (95% CI)	*P*-value
Percutaneous ablation			Percutaneous ablation		
AFP-L3 (%)			HBsAg		
<15	1		Negative	1	
≥15	2.098 (1.169–3.765)	0.013	Positive	2.823 (1.090–7.310)	0.033
Tumor size (cm)			DCP		
<3	1		<40 (mAU/ml)	1	
≥3	1.998 (1.123–3.553)	0.018	≥40 (mAU/ml)	2.767 (1.267–6.046)	0.011
			AFP-L3		
			<15 (%)	1	
			≥15 (%)	3.463 (1.437–8.347)	0.006
Hepatectomy			Hepatectomy		
Tumor size (cm)			Tumor number		
<3	1		Single	1	
≥3	6.162 (1.457–26.064)	0.013	Multiple	4.654 (0.936–23.149)	0.060
Tumor number					
Single	1				
Multiple	3.170 (1.442–6.921)	0.004			

Hazard ratio and *P*-value were calculated using Cox's stepwise proportional hazard model

CI confidence interval, *AFP* alpha-fetoprotein, *HBsAg* hepatitis B surface antigen, *DCP* des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin

patients with early stage HCC who underwent percutaneous ablation and patients who underwent hepatectomy (Fig. 1). No significant difference was observed between groups with or without AFP-L3 elevation ($P = 0.53$) in patients who underwent hepatectomy. In contrast, a close-to-significant ($P = 0.054$) difference was observed between the groups of patients with and without AFP-L3 elevation who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy.

In summary, the results of the retrospective and prospective studies demonstrated that AFP-L3 status was a statistically significant prognostic factor of long-term survival and recurrence-free survival in patients who underwent percutaneous ablative therapy, but did not affect prognosis in patients who underwent hepatectomy.

Discussion

AFP-L3, a fucosylated species of AFP, is the product of alpha 1-6 fucosyltransferase (FUT8) in the presence of GDP-fucose. Our previous result revealed that FUT8 levels in HCC tissue were higher than those in the surrounding non-cancerous tissues and that FUT8 levels of HCC tissue increased in accordance with tumor dedifferentiation [21]. Several reports have shown the relationship between AFP-L3 status and histologic grade in HCC. Miyaaki et al. [16] showed that the frequency of poorly differentiated HCC was significantly higher in AFP-L3-positive patients than in AFP-L3-negative patients. Oka et al. [14] reported that AFP-L3-positive HCC was characterized by portal vein invasion and poorer differentiation, and that tumors in AFP-L3-positive HCC were advanced, even if they were small and the patient had a low serum AFP concentration. These results indicate the relationship between increased AFP-L3 level and increased degree of malignant behavior of HCC tissue.

Recurrence after treatment is an important factor affecting prognosis. Vascular invasion is an established adverse prognostic indicator of recurrence of HCC [22, 23]. Yamashita et al. [24] suggested that portal vein invasion is associated with AFP-L3 positivity, and that there is a strong possibility of intrahepatic invasion when there is positive conversion of this marker. Hayashi et al. [13] reported the relationship between AFP-L3 status and pattern of recurrence in patients with HCC. In their report, intrahepatic metastasis was significantly more common in AFP-L3-positive patients than in negative patients, although the recurrence rate of multicentric tumors did not differ significantly between the two groups with or without AFP-L3 elevation. From this point of view, hepatectomy—especially anatomical resection, which can remove venous tumor thrombi together with the primary lesion—is more suitable than local ablative therapies for the treatment of AFP-L3-positive patients.