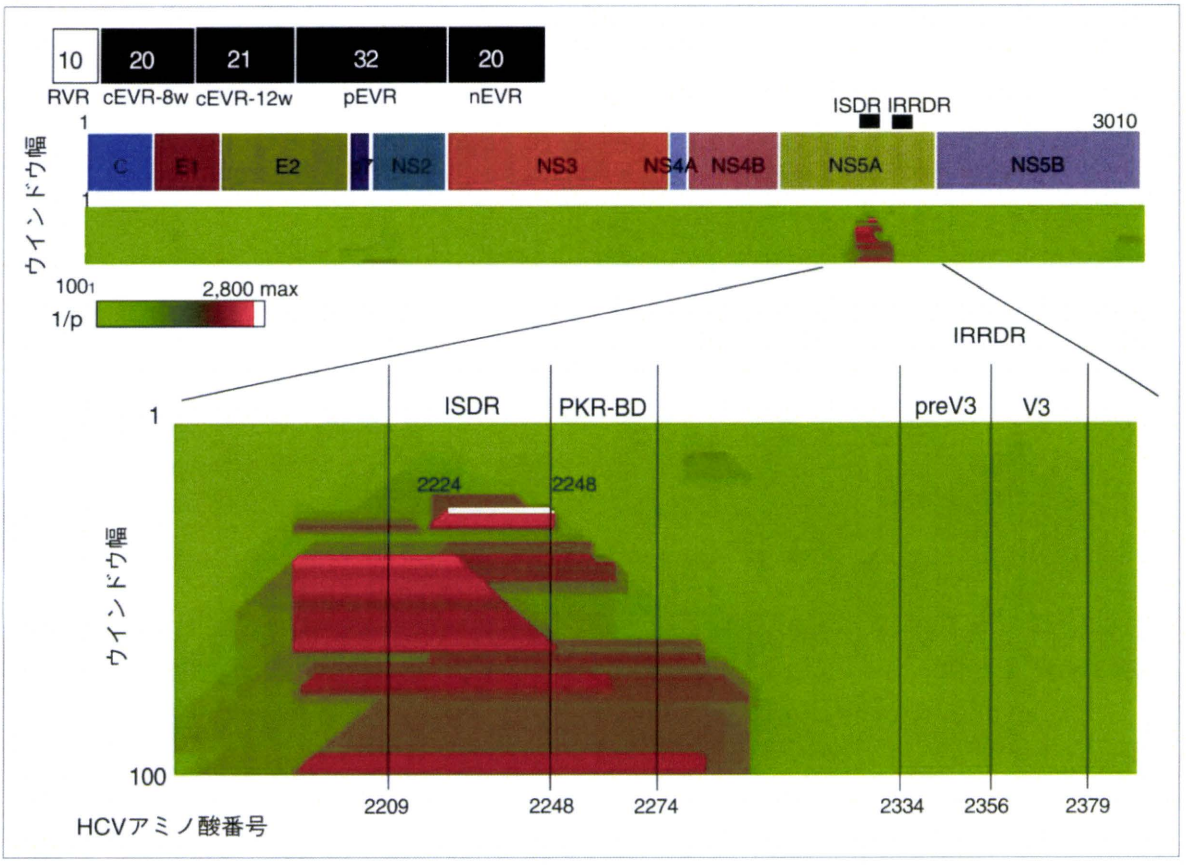

図 4-b　HCVアミノ酸の違い—RVR群 vs. 非RVR群—
スライディングウインドウ解析.

IRRDR全体には及ばないがV3領域単独で効果に関連する領域として抽出されている.

実際の同領域のアミノ酸配列と最終治療効果の関係を図 7 に示す. 解析した全症例で最も多く認められるアミノ酸を各アミノ部位のコンセンサス配列とし, そのコンセンサス配列と各症例の違いを図に示しているが, 同領域には非常に変異が多く, 変異を持たない症例がほとんど存在しないことがわかる. しかし, 変異の数が 3 個未満のものと 4 個以上の 2 群に分類すると, 図から 3 個未満ではほとんどのものが, non-SVR となり, 一方, 4 個以上のものは大半のものがSVRになっていることがわかる. すなわち同領域内の変異数が 3 個以内と 4 個以上のもので著明な反応性の違いが認められる.

ヒトIL28B遺伝子(インターフェロンλ3)多型とウイルス学的治療反応性

2009年にPEG-IFN/RBV治療効果を規定する宿主側因子として, ヒトIL28B遺伝子近傍のゲノム多型が著明な関連をすることが報告された[4)〜6)]. すなわち, 同遺伝子領域のSNP解析において, IL28B遺伝子アレルがメジャーかマイナーか, どちらのアレルを有するかによって, 治療反応性に大きな差が生じてくる. 実際の詳細な内容については, 本特集号における名古屋市立大学の松浦先生の項で詳しく述べられている. われわれは, HCV全長解析を行ったなかで同意を得られた症例において, IL28Bの多型について検索し, IL28Bの多型によって症例ごとに有するHCVアミノ酸に違いがないかを比較検討した. 図 8 に示すように, スライディングウインドウ解析を含む全長解析を用い, IL28B遺伝子多型ごとに有するHCVアミノ酸配列の違いを検討すると, コア70番変異とIL28Bの多型の間に著明な関連を認めた. すなわち治療効果の悪いウイルス学的反応性の低いIL28Bマイナーアレルを有する症例では, 治療抵抗性と関連するコア70番の変異型である

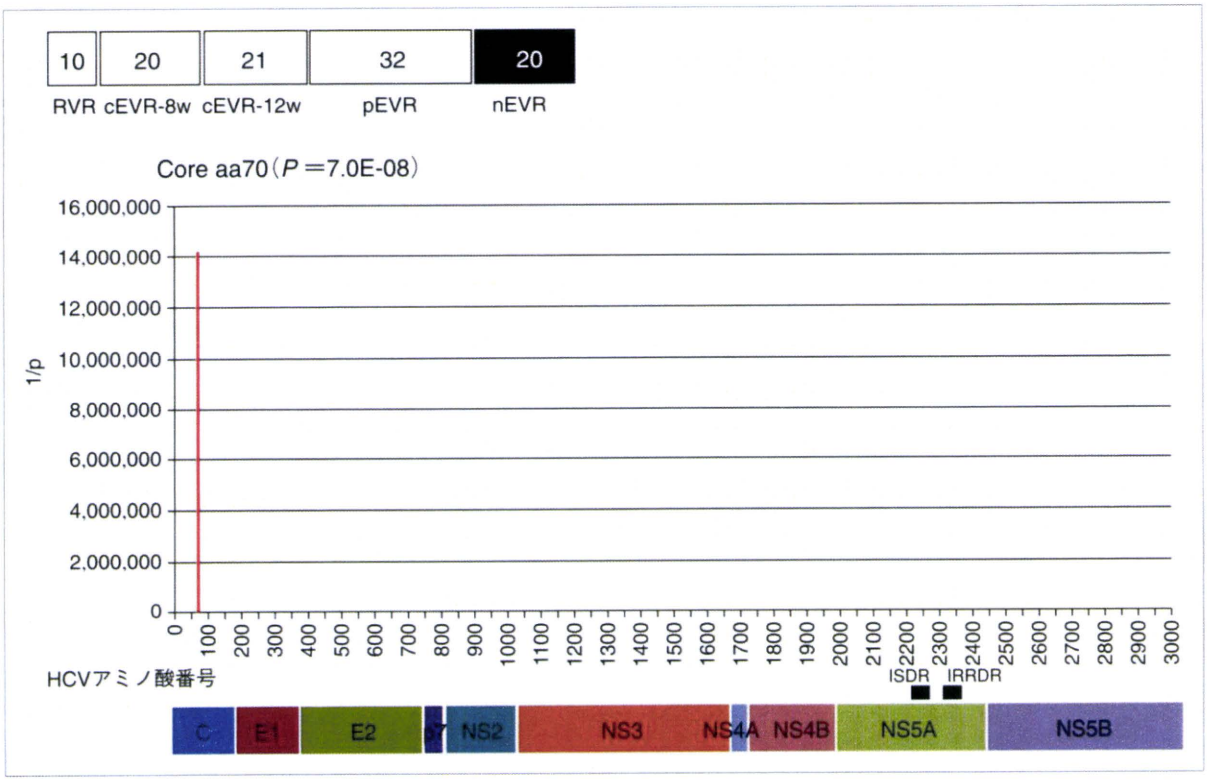

図5　HCVアミノ酸の違い—non-EVR群 vs. 非non-EVR群—
単一アミノ酸ごとの解析.

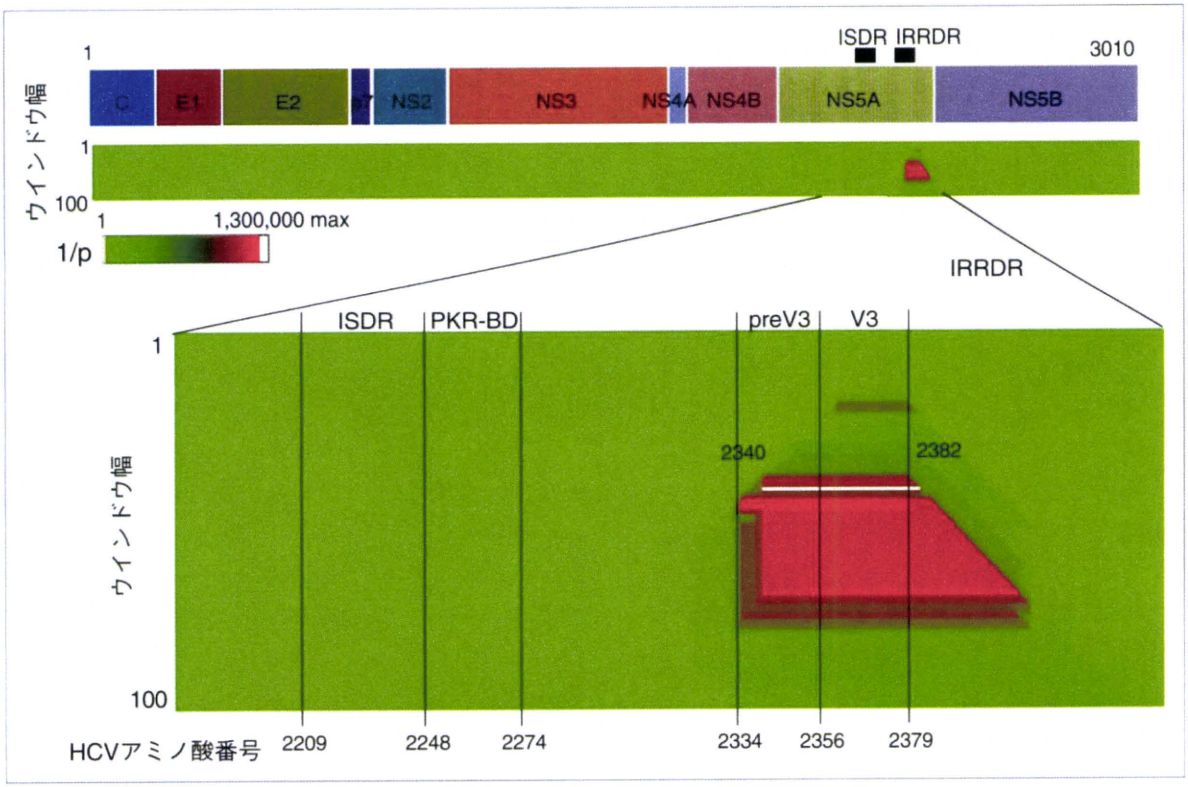

図6　HCV各アミノ酸配列の違い— SVR群 vs. non-SVR群—
スライディングウインドウ解析.

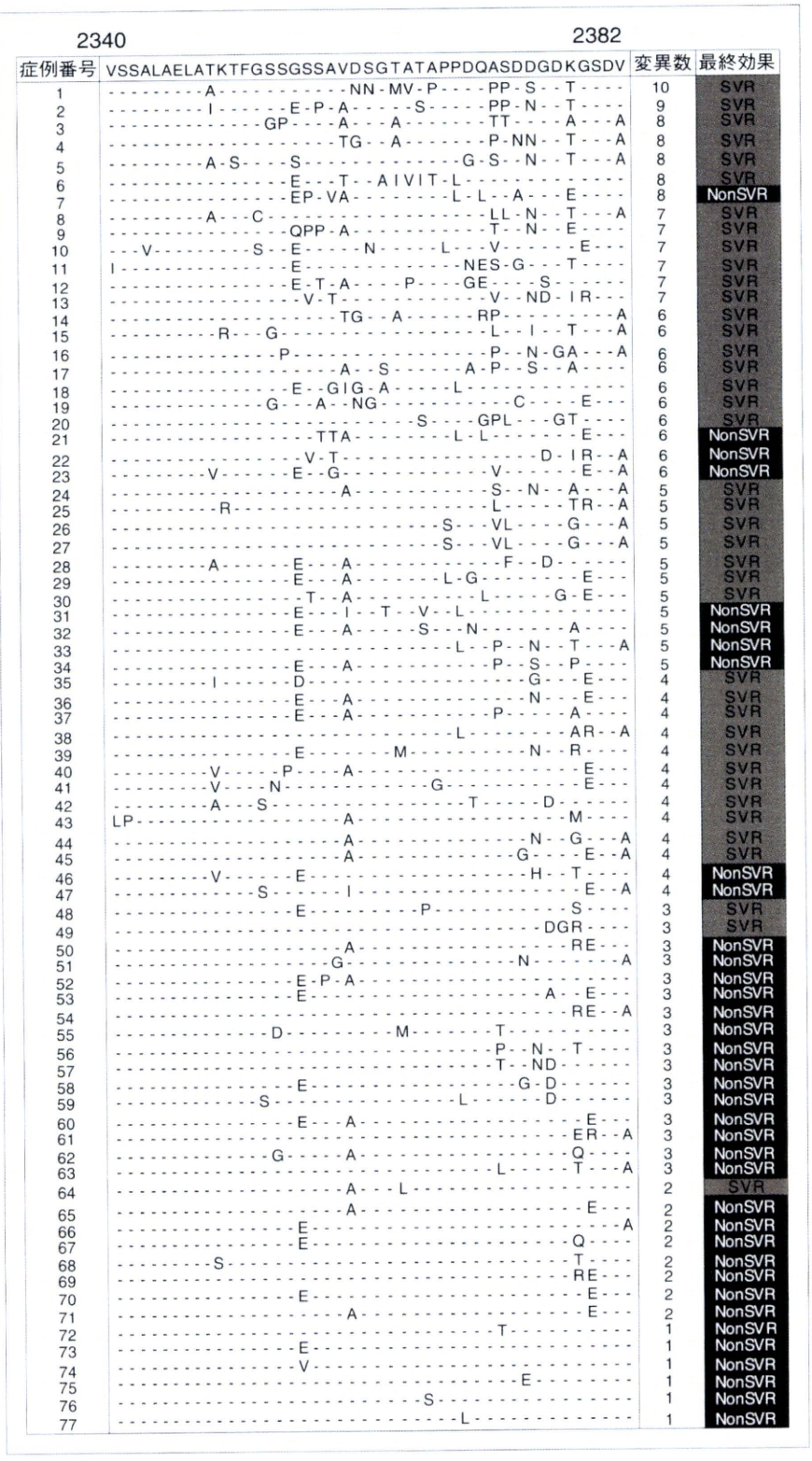

図7　NS5Aアミノ酸番号2330-2372内アミノ酸変異と最終効果

グルタミンを持つ症例が非常に多く，一方，メジャーアレルを有する症例ではコア70番野生型であるアルギニンを持つ症例が多く，宿主遺伝子とウイルス遺伝子配列には強い相関があるという驚くべき事実が明らかとなった．宿主因子とウイルス因子は相互に関連して肝炎の病態を

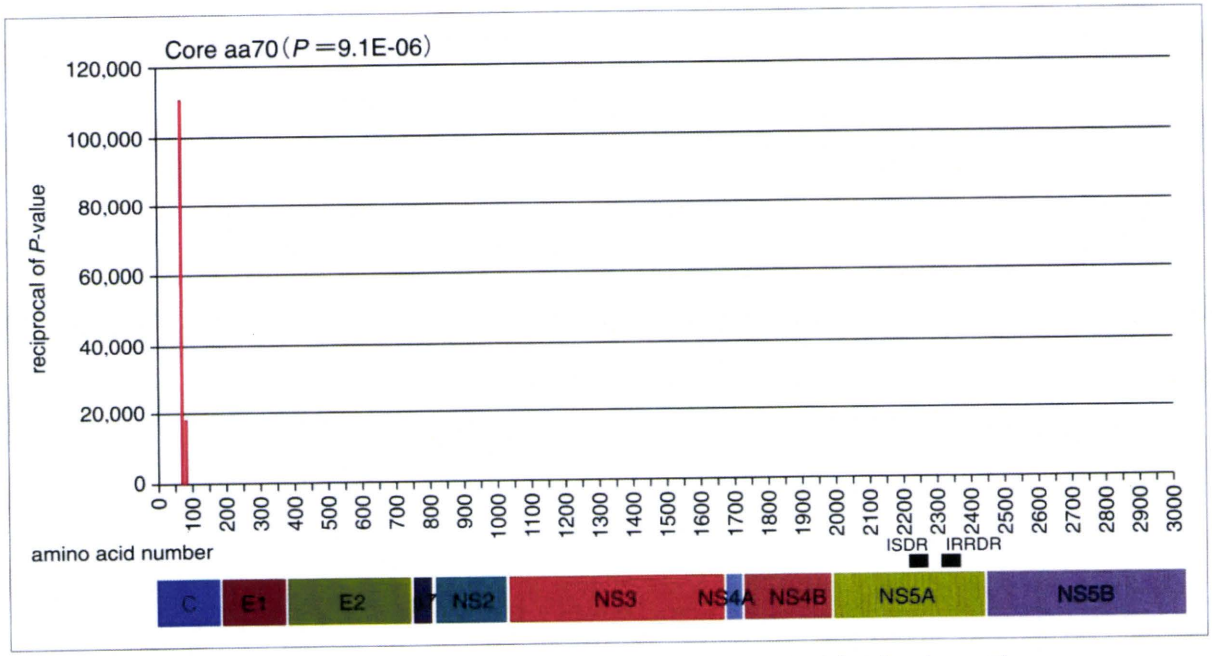

図8　IL28B SNPによって認められるHCV各アミノ酸配列の違い（N＝85）

形成すると考えられるが，ヒトのIL28B遺伝子多型がウイルス感染によって変化するとは考えにくいことから，ウイルスのコア70番アミノ酸配列が宿主遺伝子によって規定されている可能性が強く示唆された．

多変量解析による治療効果と関連する宿主・ウイルス因子の抽出

HCV全長解析を用いた解析により，PEG-IFN/RBV治療においてISDR, コア，IRRDRなどの各ウイルス因子は治療反応性と関連する重要な領域であることが示されたが，これらの因子に加えて，従来より治療効果と関連するとして知られている年齢，線維化，血小板などの臨床因子を含め，最終治療効果と関連する因子について，さらに多くの症例を対象に単変量・多変量解析を行った（表1）．単変量では年齢，BMI, F因子，γGTP, 血小板，alpha-fetoprotein（AFP），ウイルス量，ISDR, IRRDR, コア70番，IL28Bなど多数の因子が関連する因子として示される．しかしこれらのなかで，多変量解析において，年齢，ISDR変異数，IRRDR変異数，IL28B多型が治療効果に独立して関連する因子として最終的に抽出された．特に最も高いオッズ比を示す因子として，IL28BとIRRDRの2つが最も治療効果と関連することが示された．

おわりに

C型慢性肝炎の治療成績は来年以降のプロテアーゼ阻害薬の市場導入によって，現在のPEG-IFN/RBV時代からさらに大幅に改善されることが期待される．一方で，新しい治療では，貧血，皮疹など副作用の増加も懸念され，現行治療の効果を正確に予測し，どのような症例に新しい治療を導入するのかを決定していくことが臨床の場において非常に重要な問題である．

今回われわれはゲノタイプ1bのC型慢性肝炎にてHCV全翻訳領域解析を用い，PEG-IFN/RBV治療においてISDR, コア，IRRDRがそれぞれ異なるウイルス反応性を呈する集団のサブ解析にて抽出されることを明らかとした．これらの領域は治療効果と関連する部位としてそれぞれが報告されていたが[2][7][8]，治療反応性のどの部分に重要なのか不明であった．本解析によってそのことが明らかになり，一方で近年報告されたIL28BSNPとの強い関連性も示され，宿主とウイルスの重要な相互関係が明らかとなった．これらの事実は，臨床上治療効果を予測する上で非常に重要であるが，のみならずウイルス増殖のメカニズム解明の上で基礎的に重要な事実を含

表1 PEG-IFN＋RBV療法（標準投与期間）のSVRに寄与する因子（n＝292）

		単変量解析			多変量ロジステック回帰分析		
		odds比	95%CI	*P*	odds比	95%CI	*P*
年齢	＜60/≧60	2.25	1.38～3.68	0.0012	10.3	2.2～47.6	0.0030
性別	M/F	0.647	0.404～1.038	0.0709			
BMI	＜23/≧23	2.019	1.161～3.509	0.0127	–	–	–
F因子	0～1/2～4	0.371	0.216～0.639	0.0003	–	–	–
A因子	0～1/2～3	0.600	0.348～1.034	0.0657			
Alb	＜4.1/≧4.1	1.017	0.598～1.730	0.9503			
γGTP	＜40/≧40	0.476	0.282～0.805	0.0056	–	–	–
ALT	＜62/≧62	1.448	0.879～2.386	0.1459			
AST	＜56/≧56	0.649	0.391～1.078	0.0951			
T. Chol	＜170/≧170	1.222	0.728～2.050	0.4477			
血糖	＜97/≧97	0.944	0.528～1.686	0.8445			
HbA1c	＜5.2/≧5.2	1.087	0.568～2.080	0.8005			
白血球数	＜4700/≧4700	1.168	0.704～1.938	0.5409			
好中球数	＜2300/≧2300	1.239	0.698～2.200	0.4642			
Hb	＜14/≧14	1.311	0.784～2.192	0.3027			
血小板数	＜15/≧15	2.476	1.476～4.153	0.0006	–	–	–
AFP	＜4.8/≧4.8	0.448	0.251～0.799	0.0065	–	–	–
HCV RNA（logIU/ml）	＜6.0/≧6.0	0.231	0.113～0.475	＜0.0001	–	–	–
ISDR変異数	0～1/2～	2.501	1.535～4.075	0.0002	7.989	1.651～38.663	0.0098
IRRDR変異数	≦3/≧4	7.411	2.972～18.480	＜0.0001	18.626	3.367～103.050	0.0008
Core aa70	Q/R	2.469	1.219～5.003	0.0121	–	–	–
Core aa91	L/M	0.591	0.293～1.189	0.1403			
IL28B（rs8099917）	GG＋TG/TT	7.794	2.451～24.779	0.0005	20.240	3.091～132.553	0.0017
ITPA（rs1127354）	CC/AA＋AC	1.181	0.473～2.949	0.7209			

んでおり，最終的に新しい薬剤開発の可能性も含め，C型肝炎治療において重要な足がかりとなることが期待される．

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Effect of Aging on Risk for Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Chronic Hepatitis C Virus Infection

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An increase in the aging population is an impending problem. A large cohort study was carried out to determine the influence of aging and other factors on hepatocarcinogenesis in patients treated with interferon. Biopsy-proven 2547 chronic hepatitis C patients registered at our referral center since 1992 were included. Of these, 2166 were treated with interferon-based therapy. Incidences of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) associated with interferon were analyzed by Kaplan-Meier and person-years methods for an average follow-up of 7.5 years. Factors associated with HCC risk were determined by Cox proportional hazard analysis. HCC developed in 177 interferon-treated patients. The risk for HCC depended on age at primary biopsy and increased more than 15-fold after 65 years of age. Even when stratified by stage of fibrosis, the cumulative and annual incidences of HCC were significantly higher in older patients than in younger patients ($P < 0.001$) at the same stage of fibrosis, except for cirrhosis. Progression of fibrosis over time was significantly accelerated in older patients. The impact of viral eradication on HCC prevention was less significant in older patients than in younger patients. Multivariate analysis confirmed that age, gender, liver fibrosis, liver steatosis, total cholesterol level, fasting blood sugar level, baseline and postinterferon alpha-fetoprotein level, and virological response to interferon were independent risk factors associated with HCC. Aging was the strongest risk factor for a nonvirological response to interferon-based antiviral therapy. *Conclusion:* Elderly patients are at a higher risk for HCC. Hepatitis C viral eradication had a smaller effect on hepatocarcinogenesis in older patients. Patients should therefore be identified at an earlier age and treatment should be initiated. (HEPATOLOGY 2010;52:518-527)

Primary liver cancer is the third most common cause of cancer mortality worldwide,[1] and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most frequent primary liver cancers.[2,3] Infection with hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a common cause of chronic hepatitis, which progresses to HCC in many patients.[4] The prevalence of older patients has been increasing in Japan, and this is an impending problem in other countries where viral spread has occurred more recently.[5] The number of Americans older than 65 years is expected to double by the year 2030.[6] In Western Europe, people older than 65 years already constitute 15%-18% of the population[7]; thus, aging patient who is chronically infected with HCV is

Abbreviations: AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; HBc, hepatitis B core; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; NASH, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; SVR, sustained virological response.

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one of the most important issues confronted by physicians.

Viral eradication with interferon-based therapy for chronic hepatitis C has been shown to prevent HCC by studies conducted in Japan and Italy.[8-11] However, this finding is controversial according to another study conducted in Europe and Canada,[12] in which viral eradication did not significantly reduce the risk for HCC in 479 consecutively treated patients. The likelihood of development of HCC among interferon-treated patients is difficult to determine because of the paucity of adequate long-term cohort studies. Moreover, in patients who are treated with interferon the effect of certain factors, including aging, on the risk for HCC remains unclear. Furthermore, the benefit of viral eradication with interferon-based therapy, including pegylated interferon and ribavirin combination therapy, in older patients remains unknown. To further clarify this, we conducted a large-scale, long-term cohort study and analyzed the influence of aging and other host and virological factors in patients treated with interferon.

Patients and Methods

Patients. Consecutive patients (n = 2547) chronically infected with HCV who underwent liver biopsy between 1992 and January 2008 at our referral center were enrolled. Of these, 2166 patients were treated with interferon-based antiviral therapy, whereas 381 patients did not receive interferon treatment (Fig. 1). All patients had histologically proven chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis. HCV infection was proven in all patients by identification of HCV RNA. Patients with a history of HCC, autoimmune hepatitis, or primary biliary cirrhosis were excluded. We also excluded patients who had a history of excessive alcohol consumption (50 g/day) and confirmed alcohol abstinence during follow-up. No patient was positive for hepatitis B surface antigen or antihuman immunodeficiency virus antibody. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. The study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Musashino Red Cross Hospital in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Histological Evaluation. A liver biopsy specimen was obtained laparoscopically using 13G needles. When laparoscopy was impossible, ultrasound-guided liver biopsy was performed with 15G needles (n = 254). The mean length of the specimen was 18 mm (range 12-40 mm), and the mean number of portal tracts was 17 (range 8-34). Liver biopsy specimens

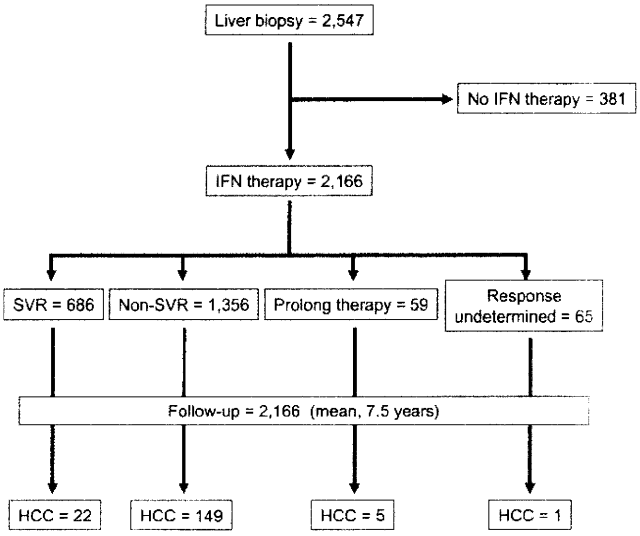

Fig. 1. Clinical outcomes of the patients enrolled in the present study. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; SVR, sustained virological response.

were scored by board-certified pathologists for stage of fibrosis and grade of inflammatory activity according to the classification of Desmet et al.[13] Additional macroscopic pathological information was obtained from laparoscopic findings. The percentage of steatosis was quantified by determining the average proportion of hepatocytes affected by steatosis. In this study, superimposed nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) was defined as a central pattern of colocalization of hepatic steatosis and hepatocyte ballooning with pericellular/perisinusoidal fibrosis or Mallory hyaline.

Interferon Treatment. Among the 2166 patients treated with interferon-based antiviral therapy, 1062 patients received interferon-alpha or beta monotherapy either for 24 weeks (n = 1003) or for 2 to 5 years (n = 59); 386 patients received interferon-alpha and ribavirin combination therapy for 24 weeks; 306 received pegylated interferon-alpha monotherapy for 48 weeks; and 412 received pegylated interferon-alpha and ribavirin combination therapy for 48 weeks. All interferon treatment was initiated within 48 weeks after liver biopsy.

Definitions of Response to Interferon Therapy. A patient negative for serum HCV RNA after the first 6 months of completion of interferon-based therapy was defined as a sustained viral responder. HCV RNA was determined by the qualitative Amplicor or TaqMan HCV assay (Roche Molecular Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan).

Data Collection and Patient Follow-up. Data on patient characteristics, biochemical data, hematological

data, virological data, histological data, and treatment details were collected at enrollment. Age was determined at primary liver biopsy. Patients were examined for HCC with abdominal ultrasonography, dynamic computed tomography, and/or magnetic resonance imaging every 3-6 months. Serum alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) levels were measured every 1-2 months. This screening program constitutes the standard of care in Japan. To evaluate the effect of interferon-induced AFP reduction on hepatocarcinogenesis, the average AFP level after interferon treatment was calculated in each patient. HCC diagnosis was confirmed with needle biopsy, surgically resected specimens, or typical radiological findings diagnosed by board-certified radiologists. Figure 1 shows the schema for patient follow-up and clinical outcomes.

The start date of follow-up was the date of primary liver biopsy and the endpoint of follow-up was the development of HCC or the latest medical attendance until January 2009. The mean follow-up period was 7.5 years (range 0.5-17 years). The factors associated with development of HCC were retrospectively analyzed.

Change in Fibrosis Staging Over Time. To evaluate change in fibrosis staging over time, 271 patients who had not achieved a sustained virological response (SVR) with interferon therapy underwent a sequential biopsy after the initial biopsy. The interval between the paired biopsies was on average 4.8 years (range 0.7-14 years). The yearly rate of progression of fibrosis was calculated as the change in fibrosis staging divided by the time between paired biopsies.

Statistical Analysis. Categorical data were compared by the chi-square test and Fisher's exact test. Distributions of continuous variables were analyzed with Student's t test or the Mann-Whitney U test for two groups. All tests of significance were two-tailed and a P value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. The cumulative incidence curve was determined with the Kaplan-Meier method and differences among groups were assessed using the log-rank test. Factors associated with HCC risk and virological response to interferon therapy were determined by the Cox proportional hazard model and logistic regression analysis, respectively. To depict the role of aging in developing risk for HCC, the multivariate Cox proportional hazard model was used after adjusting for stage of liver fibrosis, steatosis, and virological response to interferon. A polynomial regression was used to fit risk ratios for segments of the age distribution. Statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software version 11.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL).

Results

Patient Characteristics. Patient characteristics at the time of enrollment are shown in Table 1. The distribution of stages of liver fibrosis differed between younger and older patients, indicating the need to adjust for stage of liver fibrosis when comparing the two subgroups.

Response to Interferon Therapy. The response to interferon therapy was determined in 2042 (97.2%) of the interferon-treated patients, excluding those who received prolonged interferon treatment at the endpoint. SVR rates are shown in Table 1. The percentage of patients showing SVR was significantly lower in older patients ($\geq$65 years) than in younger patients (<65 years) ($P < 0.001$). Overall response rates to the different types of interferon therapy were as follows: interferon monotherapy, 31.5% (312/992); interferon-alpha and ribavirin combination therapy, 28.6% (108/378); pegylated interferon-alpha monotherapy, 37.9% (108/285); and pegylated interferon-alpha and ribavirin combination therapy, 41.1% (159/387). Response rates in genotype-1 patients (n = 1347) were 20.6% (114/554), 17.9% (29/162), 18.9% (56/297), and 36.8% (123/334), and those in nongenotype-1 patients (n = 565) were 52.2% (163/312), 63.1% (77/122), 65.0% (52/80), and 70.6% (36/51). Overall response rates of interferon and pegylated interferon monotherapy seem to be high because of the high response rates in the nongenotype-1 patients treated with these regimens.

Overall Cumulative Incidence of HCC. During follow-up, HCC developed in 177 interferon-treated patients (Fig. 1). The cumulative incidence of HCC 5, 10, and 15 years after interferon therapy was 4.7%, 11.6%, and 15.5%, respectively. The cumulative incidence in SVR patients was 2.1%, 4.3%, and 4.3%, respectively, which was significantly lower than that in non-SVR patients (5.8%, 14.9%, and 20.2%, respectively; log-rank test, $P < 0.001$).

Effect of Aging on Risk for HCC. The risk ratio determined by multivariate Cox proportional hazards analysis after adjustment for stage of liver fibrosis, degree of liver steatosis, and virological response to interferon demonstrated that the risk for HCC after interferon treatment was age-dependent and increased predominantly when the age at primary liver biopsy was >65 years (Fig. 2A). Hence, we defined older patients as those $\geq$65 years of age at primary liver biopsy and younger patients as those aged <65 years. As shown in Fig. 2B, the cumulative incidence of HCC was significantly higher in older patients than in younger patients (log-rank test, $P < 0.001$).

Table 1. Characteristics of Patients Enrolled in the Present Study

Characteristics	Total	<65 year	≥65 year	P Value*
Patients, n	2166	1614	552	
Sex, n (%)				<0.001†
Male	1080 (49.9)	840 (52.0)	240 (43.6)	
Female	1086 (50.1)	774 (48.0)	312 (56.4)	
Age (SD), year	55.4 (12.1)	51.1 (10.8)	68.4 (2.9)	<0.001‡
BMI (SD), kg/m^2	23.3 (3.1)	23.4 (3.0)	23.3 (3.1)	0.9‡
Fibrosis stage, n (%)				<0.001†
F0	27 (1.3)	24 (1.5)	3 (0.5)	
F1	860 (39.7)	704 (43.6)	156 (28.2)	
F2	733 (33.8)	515 (31.9)	218 (39.5)	
F3	444 (20.5)	301 (18.6)	143 (25.9)	
F4	102 (4.7)	70 (4.3)	32 (5.8)	
%Severe steatosis (≥10%)	27.6	27.1	29.3	0.4†
ALT level (SD), IU/L	95 (18)	101 (119)	76 (58)	<0.001‡
HCV load (SD), KIU/mL	880 (1046)	861 (1016)	924 (1116)	0.2‡
HCV genotype, n (%)				<0.001†
1a	7 (0.3)	5 (0.3)	2 (0.4)	
1b	1414 (69.6)	1036 (68.9)	378 (71.3)	
2a	373 (18.3)	273 (18.2)	100 (18.9)	
2b	211 (10.4)	164 (10.9)	47 (8.9)	
Others	28 (1.4)	25 (1.7)	3 (0.6)	
Duration (SD), year	7.5 (4.4)	8.1 (4.4)	5.8 (3.7)	<0.001‡
IFN regimen, n (%)				<0.001†
IFN mono	1062 (49.0)	833 (51.6)	229 (41.5)	
PEG-IFN mono	306 (14.1)	200 (12.4)	106 (19.2)	
IFN + RBV	386 (17.8)	291 (18.0)	95 (17.2)	
PEG-IFN + RBV	412 (19.0)	290 (18.0)	122 (22.1)	
SVR, n (%)	686 (33.6)§	565 (36.6)‖	121 (24.3)¶	<0.001‡

Unless otherwise indicated, data are given as the mean (SD).

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IFN, interferon; N/A, not applicable; PEG, pegylated; RBV, ribavirin; SVR, sustained virological response.

*Comparison between <65 years and ≥65 years.

†Chi-squared test.

‡Student *t* test.

§Virological responses were determined in 2042 patients.

‖Virological responses were determined in 1545 patients.

¶Virological responses were determined in 497 patients.

As shown in Fig. 2C-E, even when stratified by stage of fibrosis the cumulative incidences among patients at stages F0/F1, F2, and F3 were significantly greater in older patients than in younger patients (log-rank test, $P < 0.001$). These differences were not significant among patients with cirrhosis (Fig. 2F, log-rank test, $P = 0.7$).

The annual incidence of HCC after interferon treatment was calculated by the person-years method (Table 2); it increased with the degree of liver fibrosis from 0.2% (F0 or F1) to 4.6% (F4) and was higher among older patients at the same stage of liver fibrosis.

Among the 177 patients with HCC, 92 showed evidence of a single blood transfusion. We analyzed the relationship between duration of infection and age in these 92 patients. A significant and strong negative correlation was found between the interval from blood transfusion to development of HCC and the age of the patients at the time of blood transfusion ($r = -0.74$, $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 3A). The mean duration of chronic infection was 22.0 years in patients who had received blood transfusion at >40 years of age, which was significantly shorter than that in patients who received it at ≤40 years of age (40.6 years, $P < 0.001$).

The presence of cirrhosis at the time of development of HCC, which was defined as having any of the following criteria, was evaluated: (1) histological evidence for cirrhosis, (2) findings of cirrhosis in any radiological study, or (3) presence of marked portal hypertension (i.e., presence of esophagogastric varices). Following this, 142 of the 177 with HCC (80.2%) were diagnosed as having cirrhosis, of which 42 were diagnosed histologically, 69 radiologically, and 31 based on the presence of marked portal hypertension. No significant difference was found in the proportion of patients with cirrhosis between older and younger patients, at the rate of 78.3% (94/120) in older

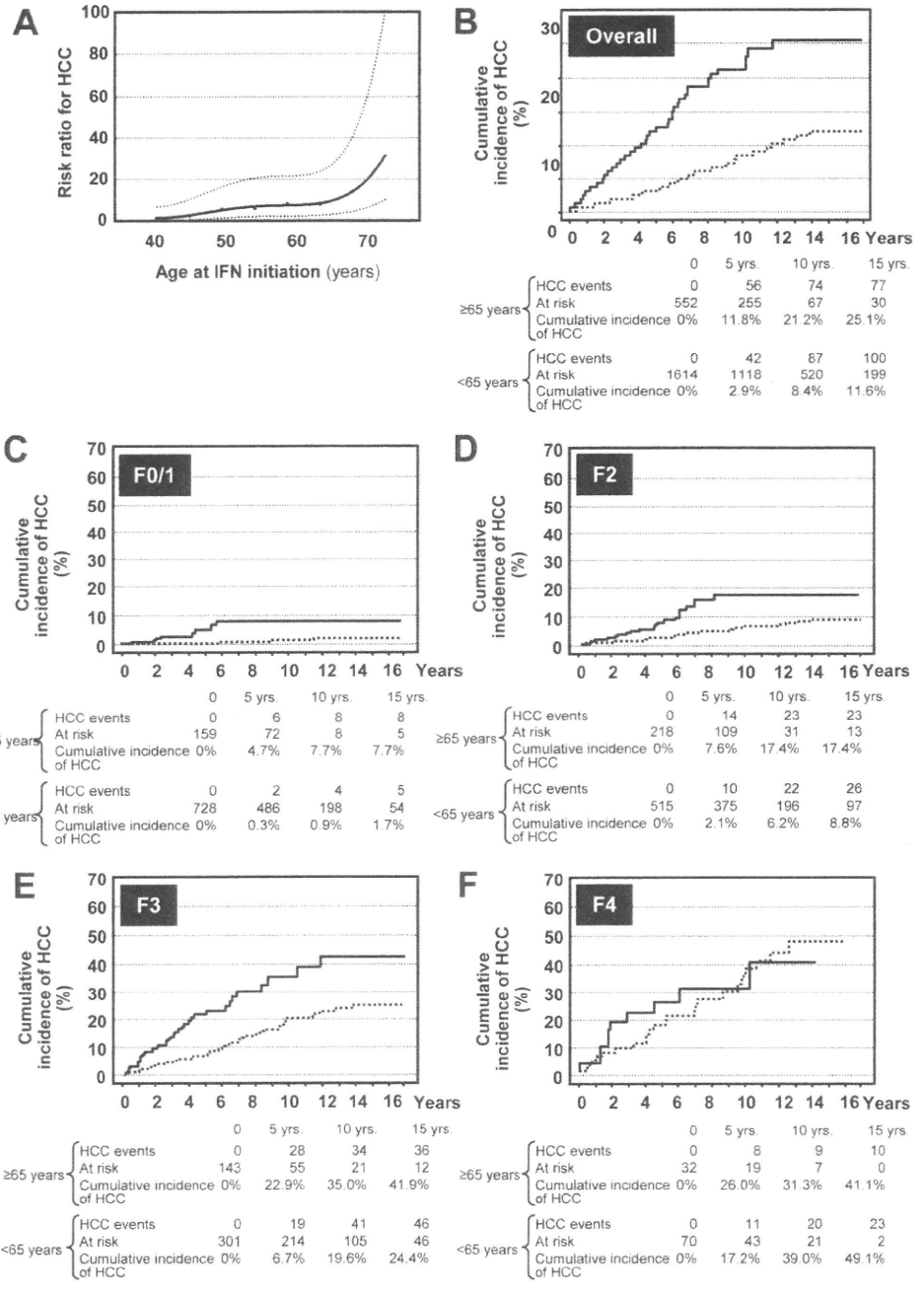

Fig. 2. Effect of aging on the risk for HCC. (A) Risk ratio (solid line) and 95% CI (dotted lines) for the risk of HCC according to age. To show the age-dependent relationship, a multivariate Cox proportional hazard model was used after adjustment for gender, stage of liver fibrosis, body mass index, and virological response to interferon therapy. Curves were fitted using polynomial regression. (B-F) Cumulative incidence of HCC after interferon therapy among younger (<65 years, n = 552, dotted line) and older patients (≥65 years, n = 1614, solid line). (B) Overall data, $P < 0.001$. (C) Patients with stage F0 or F1 liver fibrosis (no or mild fibrosis with portal expansion), $P < 0.001$. (D) Patients with stage F2 liver fibrosis (bridging fibrosis without architectural distortion), $P < 0.001$. (E) Patients with stage F3 liver fibrosis (bridging fibrosis with architectural distortion), $P < 0.001$. (F) Patients with stage F4 liver fibrosis (cirrhosis), $P = 0.7$. All P values were obtained by the log-rank test. The numbers of HCC events and patients at risk at each timepoint are shown below the graphs.

patients and 84.2% (48/57) in younger patients ($P = 0.36$, comparison at the age of HCC development).

Influence of Aging on Progression in Fibrosis Staging Over Time. In 271 patients who underwent paired biopsies, fibrosis staging progressed in 69 patients (25.5%), remained unchanged in 154 (56.8%), and regressed in 48 patients (17.7%). The overall rate of progression of fibrosis in these patients was 0.06 ± 0.02 fibrosis stages per year. Progression of fibrosis over time was significantly accelerated in older patients than in younger patients (0.21 ± 0.10 versus 0.03 ± 0.21 fibrosis stages per year, $P = 0.03$, Mann-Whitney U test) (Fig. 3B).

Effect of Viral Eradication on Risk for HCC in Older Patients. As shown in Fig. 4, the effect of viral eradication on the prevention of HCC was less significant in older patients than in younger patients. The annual incidence was higher among older patients than among younger patients with the same virological response (Table 2).

Influence of Liver Steatosis on Risk for HCC. The cumulative incidence of HCC after interferon therapy was significantly higher in patients with severe steatosis (≥10%) than in those with milder steatosis (at 5, 10, and 15 years: 8.6%, 19.1%, 32.0% versus 1.8%, 4.8%, 7.0%, respectively, log-rank test, $P < 0.001$).

Table 2. Annual Incidence of HCC After IFN Treatment

Factors	Total	<65 Years	≥65 Years
Fibrosis stage			
F0/F1	0.2%	0.1%	0.9%
F2	0.8%	0.6%	1.7%
F3	2.5%	1.8%	4.6%
F4	4.6%	4.4%	5.1%
Total	1.1%	0.8%	2.4%
Degree of liver steatosis			
<10%	0.5%	0.2%	1.4%
≥10%	2.0%	1.8%	3.0%
Virological response			
SVR	0.4%	0.2%	1.3%
Non-SVR	1.4%	1.0%	2.9%

Data were calculated by the person-years method. IFN, interferon; SVR, sustained virological response.

The annual incidence was higher in older patients than in younger patients with the same degree of liver steatosis (Table 2). In patients with severe steatosis (≥10%), superimposed NASH was diagnosed in 6.0% (26/435). Overall, superimposed NASH was significantly associated with hepatocarcinogenesis on univariate analysis (risk ratio, 4.1; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.8-9.4; $P < 0.001$), but not on multivariate analysis. Superimposed NASH was significantly associated with high body mass index (27.2 ± 4.6 kg/m^2 versus 23.0 ± 3.1 kg/m^2, $P < 0.001$), hyperglycemia (186 ± 67 mg/dL versus 115 ± 39 mg/dL, $P < 0.001$), and advanced fibrosis (F3) (risk ratio, 2.9; 95% CI, 1.4-6.0; $P = 0.005$).

Factors Associated with Hepatocarcinogenesis After Interferon Therapy. Univariate analysis demonstrated factors that increase the risk ratio for the development of HCC (Table 3). Multivariate analysis using Cox proportional hazards regression confirmed that aging was one of the most significant independent factors associated with the development of HCC after interferon therapy. In this analysis, advanced fibrosis, presence of steatosis, male gender, lower total cholesterol level, higher fasting blood sugar level, higher baseline AFP level, insignificant improvement of mean AFP level after interferon therapy, and nonresponse to interferon therapy were also significantly associated with risk for HCC (Table 3).

We identified 22 patients in whom HCC developed even after achieving SVR. Univariate and multivariate logistic regression analyses indicated that both liver steatosis and aging were independently associated with the development of HCC among patients who achieved SVR (n = 686) (Table 4). Anti-HBc was detected in only 4 out of 22 patients and the age distribution was similar among anti-HBc-positive and anti-HBc-negative patients.

Response to Interferon Therapy in Older Patients. Multivariate logistic regression analysis confirmed that aging, female gender, severe liver fibrosis, extremely severe liver steatosis, genotype-1, high HCV load, and nonuse of pegylated interferon and ribavirin were independent risk factors for non-SVR (Supporting Table 1). The odds ratio, determined by multivariate logistic regression analysis after adjustment for these factors, demonstrated that the risk for non-SVR was age-dependent (Supporting Fig. 1). It was also ≈2.5 times higher in patients aged ≥65 years than in those aged <35 years.

In patients with genotype-1b and a high viral load who were treated with pegylated interferon and ribavirin combination therapy, the SVR rate was significantly lower in older patients than in younger patients (<49 years, 59.3%; 50-59 years, 50.5%; 60-65 years, 27.3%; ≥65 years, 25.2%; intention-to-treat analysis). Multivariate logistic regression analysis showed that

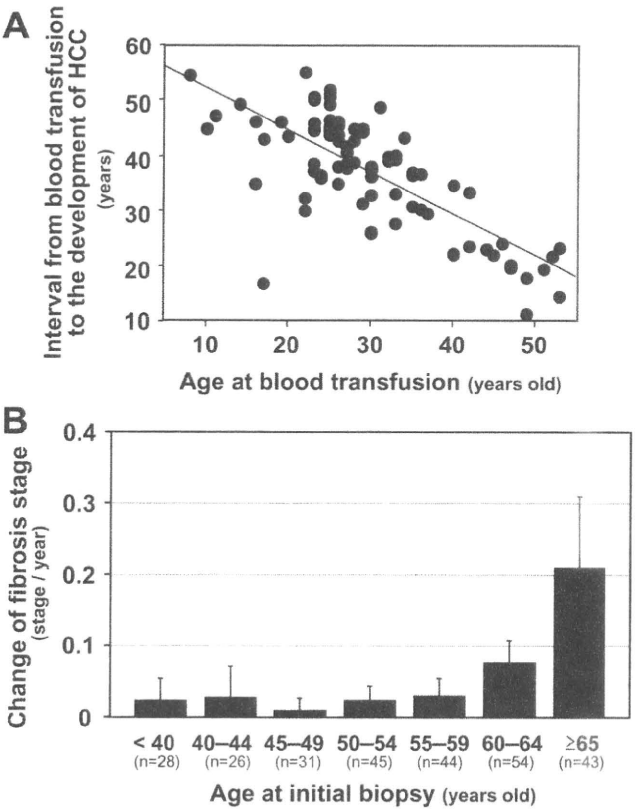

Fig. 3. (A) Relationship between the interval from blood transfusion to development of HCC and the age at blood transfusion (n = 92). A significant and strong negative correlation was observed ($r = -0.74$, $P < 0.001$). (B) Change in fibrosis staging over time. A total of 271 patients who had not achieved SVR by interferon therapy underwent a sequential biopsy after the initial biopsy. The yearly rate of progression of fibrosis was calculated as the change in fibrosis stage divided by the time between the paired biopsies. The yearly rate of progression of fibrosis was significantly higher in older patients (≥65 years) than in younger patients (<65 years) ($P = 0.03$, Mann-Whitney U test).

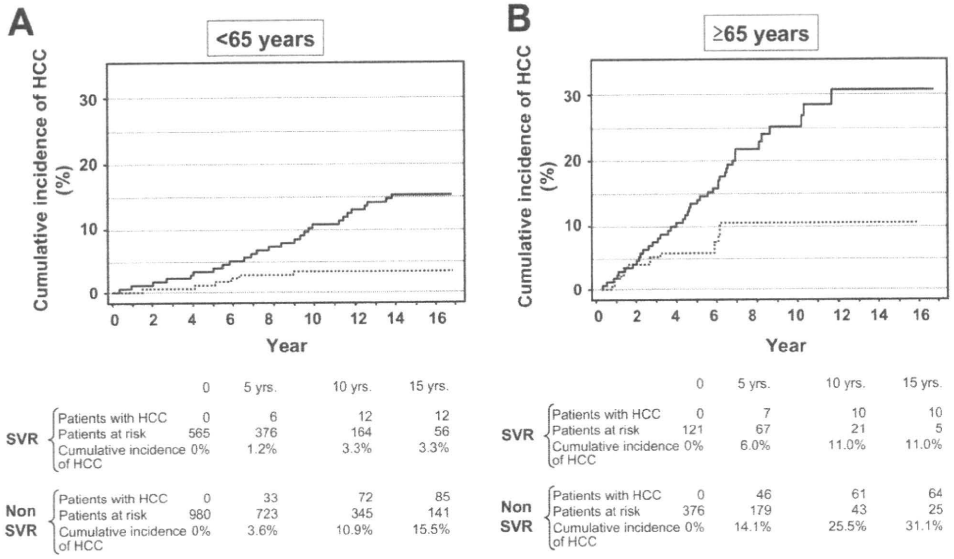

Fig. 4. Cumulative incidence of HCC after interferon therapy among SVRs (dotted lines) and non-SVRs (solid lines) according to age. (A) Younger patients (<65 years). The cumulative incidence of HCC was significantly higher in SVR than in non-SVR (log-rank test, $P < 0.001$). (B) Older patients (≥65 years). The cumulative incidence of HCC was significantly higher in SVR than in non-SVR (log-rank test, $P = 0.02$). However, the difference between SVR and non-SVR was less in older patients than in younger patients. The number of HCC events and patients at risk at each timepoint are shown below the graphs.

aging was the strongest independent factor contributing to SVR in these patients (data not shown). The odds ratio for the risk of non-SVR was 1.8 for each additional 10 years of age (95% CI, 1.5-2.3, $P < 0.001$).

Discussion

In this large cohort study we demonstrated that aging is significantly associated with the development of HCC in patients treated with interferon. The risk ratio increased predominantly in patients older than 65 years, which was more than 15 times that in patients in their 20s. Aging is becoming the most critical risk factor for the development of HCC. Although liver fibrosis was also an important risk factor, we clearly demonstrated that the risk for hepatocarcinogenesis after interferon treatment was significantly higher in older patients at each stage of liver fibrosis except for cirrhosis. Hence, physicians should be aware that older patients can develop HCC regardless of the stage of fibrosis.

Because the present study included a large cohort, it was difficult to determine the duration of infection in all patients, and this might have affected the risk determination for HCC development. Therefore, we analyzed the relationship between duration of chronic infection and HCC development in patients who underwent a single blood transfusion. We found a significant and strong negative correlation between the interval from blood transfusion to development of HCC and the age of the patients at the time of blood transfusion. Consistent with our results, a previous report with posttransfusion HCV demonstrated that the age of patients, rather than the duration of HCV infection, was more significant for HCC development.[14-16] Therefore, older age and not duration of infection is more likely to influence hepatocarcinogenesis. Moreover, our analysis of sequential biopsy specimens demonstrated that the progression rate of liver fibrosis significantly accelerated in patients aged >65 years. Hence, the progression of fibrosis along with aging may also contribute to the increased risk for hepatocarcinogenesis in older patients.

We further demonstrated that liver steatosis was an independent risk factor for the development of HCC, which was not mentioned in previous reports.[8-11] The presence of steatosis is related to both viral (genotype-3 or HCV core protein) and host metabolic factors.[17,18] In our cohort, most superimposed NASH was associated with host metabolic factors such as high body mass index and hyperglycemia, whereas infection of genotype-3 was only noted in two patients. In vitro experiments have suggested an association between liver steatosis induced by HCV core protein and hepatocarcinogenesis,[19] and have proposed virus-associated steatohepatitis as a new aspect of chronic hepatitis C.[20,21] Because steatosis was likely to be related to hepatocarcinogenesis, patients with chronic hepatitis C, whose liver histology shows superimposed NASH,

Table 3. Factors Associated with HCC After IFN Therapy

	Univariate Analysis		Multivariate Analysis	
Risk Factor Value	Risk Ratio (95% CI)	*P* Value	Risk Ratio (95% CI)	*P* Value
Age (by every 10 year)	2.2 (1.8-2.7)	<0.001	3.0 (1.9-4.8)	<0.001
Sex				
Female	1		1	
Male	1.2 (0.9-1.6)	0.2	2.0 (1.0-3.8)	0.04
BMI (by every 10 kg/m^2)	2.0 (1.2-1.3)	0.005	1.1 (0.4-3.5)	0.8
Fibrosis stage				
F0/F1/F2	1		1	
F3/F4	5.4 (3.9-7.5)	<0.001	2.5 (1.2-4.9)	0.01
Degree of steatosis				
<10%	1		1	
≥10%	4.5 (3.0-6.9)	<0.001	3.5 (1.9-6.4)	<0.001
Esophagogastric varices				
No	1		1	
Yes	3.3 (2.0-5.3)	<0.001	1.6 (0.6-4.4)	0.3
Virological response				
SVR	1		1	
Non-SVR	3.3 (2.1-5.2)	<0.001	2.6 (1.2-5.5)	0.001
Genotype				
Non-1	1		1	
1	1.7 (1.2-2.5)	0.006	1.0 (0.5-2.3)	0.9
Albumin (by every 1 g/dL)	0.2 (0.1-0.3)	<0.001	0.6 (0.2-2.2)	0.3
ALT (by every 100 IU/L)	1.0 (0.9-1.0)	0.8	0.4 (0.1-1.8)	0.6
AST (by every 100 IU/L)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	0.001	1.1 (0.6-1.8)	0.8
γ-GTP (by every 100 IU/L)	1.3 (1.1-1.6)	0.009	0.6 (0.3-1.6)	0.3
ALP (by every 100 IU/L)	1.3 (1.2-1.5)	<0.001	0.6 (0.3-1.2)	0.2
Total bilirubin (by every 1 mg/dL)	1.6 (1.3-2.1)	<0.001	1.2 (0.6-2.7)	0.6
Total cholesterol (by every 100 mg/dL)	0.3 (0.2-0.6)	<0.001	0.2 (0.1-0.6)	0.006
Triglyceride (by every 100 mg/dL)	0.8 (0.5-1.1)	0.2	0.1 (0.02-1.1)	0.08
Fasting blood sugar (by every 100 mg/dL)	1.8 (1.5-2.2)	<0.001	1.1 (1.0-1.1)	0.04
WBC (by every 100/μL)	0.1 (0.03-0.3)	<0.001	0.1 (0.01-2.2)	0.2
RBC (by every 10^6/μL)	0.5 (0.4-0.7)	<0.001	1.8 (0.7-4.4)	0.2
Platelet counts (by every 10^6/μL)	0.3 (0.2-0.4)	<0.001	0.6 (0.3-1.5)	0.3
Baseline AFP (by every 10 ng/mL)	1.0 (0.9-1.1)	0.2	1.3 (1.0-1.7)	0.04
Post IFN AFP (by every 10 ng/mL)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	<0.001	1.9 (1.5-2.4)	<0.001
HCV load (by every 100 KIU/mL)	1.0 (0.9-1.0)	0.4	1.0 (1.0-1.1)	0.06
IFN regimen				
IFN monotherapy	1		1	
IFN + RBV (24 W)	1.2 (0.8-1.8)	0.4	1.5 (0.7-3.2)	0.3
PEG-IFN monotherapy (48 W)	1.1 (0.6-1.9)	0.8	1.5 (0.4-5.5)	0.6
PEG-IFN + RBV	0.4 (0.2-0.9)	0.03	1.0 (0.3-3.1)	0.9

Risk ratios for development of HCC were calculated by Cox proportional hazards regression analysis. AFP, alpha fetoprotein; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspirate aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; γ-GTP, gamma-glutamyltranspeptidase; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; IFN, interferon; PEG, pegylated; RBC, red blood cell counts; RBV, ribavirin; SVR, sustained virological response; WBC, white blood cell count.

may be at a higher risk of developing HCC. Further study is necessary to confirm this association in a clinical situation. Because several developed countries are in the midst of a growing obesity epidemic, the risk related to obesity cannot be ignored in patients with chronic hepatitis C who are treated with interferon.

Several retrospective cohort studies have been conducted to evaluate the effect of interferon on the incidence of HCC among patients with chronic hepatitis C.[8-11] Our results, obtained from one of the largest cohort studies, confirm the efficacy of viral eradication in preventing HCC. In one study conducted in a Western population, no statistically significant reduction was found in the development of HCC among patients with SVR compared with those without SVR (adjusted hazard ratio, 0.46; 95% CI, 0.12-1.70; $P = 0.25$).[12] Because relatively few occurrences of HCC were observed in this cohort, and the duration of follow-up was shorter, the differences in HCC development between patients with and without SVR might be less pronounced.

Interestingly, our results demonstrated that the risk for HCC remains even after achieving SVR in older patients, confirming the findings of previous studies conducted with a smaller number of patients.[22,23] The cumulative incidence of HCC during the first 5 years

Table 4. Factors Associated with Development of HCC After Achieving SVR

Risk Factor	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	*P*-value
Univariate analysis		
Age (by every 10 year)	3.2 (1.8-5.5)	<0.001
Sex		
Female	1	
Male	3.0 (1.0-8.8)	0.04
Fibrosis stage		
F0/F1/F2	1	
F3/F4	5.9 (2.5-14.0)	<0.001
Degree of steatosis		
<10%	1	
≥10%	5.5 (2.0-15.2)	0.001
BMI (by every 10 kg/m^2)	3.2 (0.8-12.6)	0.09
ALT (by every 10 IU/L)	0.9 (0.7-1.3)	0.7
AST (by every 10 IU/L)	1.1 (0.9-1.4)	0.3
Genotype		
Non-1	1	
1	1.2 (0.6-3.0)	0.5
HCV load (by every 100 KIU/mL)	0.9 (0.8-1.0)	0.2
IFN regimen		
IFN monotherapy	1	
IFN + RBV (24 W)	0.7 (0.2-2.3)	0.5
PEG-IFN monotherapy (48 W)	0.8 (0.2-3.6)	0.8
PEG-IFN + RBV	0.3 (0.03-2.0)	0.2
Multivariate analysis		
Age (by every 10 year)	2.7 (1.5-5.1)	0.002
Sex		
Female	1	
Male	4.1 (0.9-18.9)	0.06
Fibrosis stage		
F0/F1/F2	1	
F3/F4	2.6 (0.9-7.5)	0.08
Degree of steatosis		
<10%	1	
≥10%	5.6 (1.9-16.5)	0.002

Odds ratios for SVR were calculated by logistic regression analysis.

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IFN, interferon; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; PEG, pegylated; RBV, ribavirin; SVR, sustained virological response.

after completion of interferon therapy was similar between SVR and non-SVR patients in the older age group, and the risk for HCC remained for 9 years after eradication of HCV in our patients. Therefore, HCC patients with SVR who have a risk factor should be screened for at least 5-10 years after the completion of interferon therapy.

It has been reported that coffee consumption has a protective effect against hepatocarcinogenesis[24,25] and liver disease progression in patients with chronic HCV infection.[26] Because we could not review coffee consumption in all the patients and fewer data were available in the previous literature as to whether a habitual change of reducing coffee consumption occurs in older patients, it is unclear whether increased risk for HCC in older patients is an effect of this habitual change in older patients. However, the majority (68%) of Japanese patients who have HCV (n = 1058) drink less than 1 cup of coffee per day, and only 7.6% consume more than 3 cups of coffee per day.[27] Therefore, it is unlikely that a habitual change in older patients affects the increased risk for hepatocarcinogenesis in older patients.

Recently, it was reported that interferon therapy might be less effective in preventing HCC among patients with chronic hepatitis C who are positive for anti-HBc antibody,[28] but this finding is still controversial.[29,30] In the present study, anti-HBc was only detected in 4 of 22 patients in whom HCC developed after viral eradication, and age distribution was similar among anti-HBc-positive and anti-HBc-negative patients. Because no significant difference in mean age was found between anti-HBc-positive and anti-HBc-negative patients in the recent study conducted in Japan,[28] it is unlikely that previous exposure to hepatitis B virus or occult hepatitis B virus infection is responsible for the difference in risk for HCC between younger and elderly patients found in the present study.

In conclusion, aging has become one of the most important risk factors for HCC. Even after stratification by stage of fibrosis, the risk for HCC after antiviral treatment was significantly higher in older patients, and HCV eradication had a smaller effect on HCC-free survival in older patients. Patients with HCV should therefore be identified at an earlier age and antiviral treatment should be initiated. The present results have potentially important clinical implications for physicians that may influence their decisions about the treatment strategy in individual patients.

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Original Article

Changes in hepatitis C viral load during first 14 days can predict the undetectable time point of serum viral load by pegylated interferon and ribavirin therapy

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Aim: In the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, pegylated interferon (PEG-IFN) and ribavirin combination therapy must be continued for an adequate duration to improve the rate of sustained virological response. We attempted to predict the time point at which serum hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA are undetectable during combination therapy.

Methods: Patients with HCV genotype 1b were enrolled in a model preparation ($n = 35$) and a validation group ($n = 70$). All patients received PEG-IFN-α-2b/ribavirin combination therapy for at least 48 weeks, and serological samples were screened a minimum of 17 times during the therapy. Serum HCV RNA were measured by the Abbott RealTime HCV assay. Using the HCV dynamics model described by Neumann *et al.*, we used multiple linear regression analysis to select factors that affected the undetectable time point.

Results: Difference in viral load between weeks 1 and 2 was the only predictive factor for the undetectable time point of serum HCV RNA ($r^2 = 0.67$, $P < 0.0005$), and we derived the following prediction equation: undetectable time point (week) = 13.495 × (viral load at day 14 [log IU/mL] − viral load at day 7 [log IU/mL]) + 25.456. The equation was applicable to the validation group.

Conclusion: We created a formula for predicting the undetectable time point from viral load measurements early in PEG-IFN-α-2b/ribavirin combination therapy. An early response reflects sensitivity to therapy, and the estimation of an undetectable time point would be useful for determining the optimal duration of treatment for chronic hepatitis C patients.

Key words: hepatitis C, interferon, kinetics, real-time polymerase chain reaction, undetectable time point

INTRODUCTION

INTERFERON (IFN)-BASED therapy is the main form of therapy for chronic hepatitis C, but it requires a long-term period to complete, typically lasting at least 48 weeks for hepatitis C virus (HCV) genotypes 1 and 4. The final therapeutic effect is eradication of HCV, which is referred to as a sustained virological response (SVR). Although combination therapy with pegylated (PEG)-IFN-α and ribavirin is now established as the standard treatment for chronic HCV infection genotype 1b, the SVR rate in these patients is still approximately 50%.[1–3] Moreover, it is difficult to know the treatment outcomes during treatment and follow-up period.

Various factors have been investigated to predict the treatment efficacy before initiation of therapy, including pretreatment viral load,[4] viral genotype,[5] and gene sequences, such as IFN sensitivity determining region,[6] and host factors, including sex, age, fibrosis stage and race.[7,8] These factors cannot be modified by therapy and are unfortunately not completely reliable for predicting therapeutic response. However, other studies have documented the importance of the period when HCV is cleared from the serum (we define this as the

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"undetectable time point").[9–13] When an undetectable time point is achieved within 4 weeks of therapy initiation, the SVR rate is high. In contrast, the later the undetectable time point, the lower the SVR rate. One disadvantage with this prediction method during therapy is that SVR cannot be predicted until serum viral clearance. If one can predict the undetectable time point early during the treatment, physicians can modify and optimize the ongoing treatment.

There are various patterns of patient response to IFN therapy. In clinical settings, the following three response patterns are observed: (i) SVR; (ii) non-virological response (NVR), in which viral loads continue to be detected during therapy; and (iii) relapse, in which viral loads transiently drop below the detection limit but become detectable again after the end of therapy.[8] Mathematical models have been developed for analyzing therapy-induced changes in HCV viral load. Neumann *et al.*[14] introduced a model for IFN monotherapy in 1998, and a pharmacokinetic model for PEG-IFN has been developed by Powers *et al.*[15] These models are very useful for understanding the therapeutic effects of IFN on HCV.

In recent years, techniques to quantify serum viral RNA levels have advanced. The detection limit and the dynamic range of the quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay are lower and wider than those of Amplicor PCR assay.[16,17] As a result, the real-time PCR assay can show us the more accurate viral dynamics. In the present study, we used the model of Powers *et al.*[15] and real-time PCR to measure serum viral loads. Our aim was to ascertain whether it is possible to predict the undetectable time point during the early stage of PEG-IFN-α-2b/ribavirin combination therapy for genotype 1b patients with a high viral load, which is the most difficult-to-treat phenotype of HCV.

METHODS

Patients

THE MODEL PREPARATION group comprised 35 patients with biopsy-proven chronic hepatitis C who were treated at the Musashino Red Cross Hospital from 2000–2001. All patients had HCV genotype 1b and a high viral load (>100 000 IU/mL) as determined by the Amplicor-HCV Monitor Assay (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan). Patients with other liver disease, such as liver cirrhosis, autoimmune hepatitis or alcoholic liver injury, were excluded. None of the patients had hepatitis B virus-related antigens, antibodies or anti-HIV antibodies. At the time of enrollment, it was confirmed that none of the patients were taking drugs that could affect their immune system. The dosage of ursodeoxycholic acid and glycyrrhizin was not changed during therapy.

The model validation group comprised 70 patients with biopsy-proven chronic hepatitis C who were treated at the Musashino Red Cross Hospital from 2004–2006. As with the model preparation group, all patients had HCV genotype 1b and a high viral load, and patients with liver cirrhosis or alcoholic liver injury were excluded. None of the patients had hepatitis B virus-related antigens, antibodies or anti-HIV antibodies.

Informed consent was obtained from all patients in writing. The present study was approved by the Ethics Review Board of Musashino Red Cross Hospital in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Treatment protocol

All patients received at least 48 weeks of PEG-IFN-α-2b (PegIntron; Schering-Plough, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) and ribavirin (Rebetol; Schering-Plough) combination therapy. In the model validation group, if viral clearance was not achieved by week 12, combination therapy was prolonged to 72 weeks. PEG-IFN-α-2b (1.5 μg/kg per week) was administrated s.c. Ribavirin was administrated p.o. at 600 mg/day twice daily to patients weighing less than 60 kg, and 800 mg/day was given to patients weighing between 60 and 80 kg. The dosage of PEG-IFN-α-2b was reduced to 0.75 μg/kg per week when white blood cells, neutrophils or platelets dropped below 1500, 750 or $80 \times 10^3/mm^3$, respectively. When hemoglobin concentration dropped below 10 g/dL, the dosage of ribavirin was reduced from 600 to 400 mg/day for patients weighing less than 60 kg, and from 800 to 600 mg/day for patients weighing between 60 and 80 kg. Both drugs were discontinued when white blood cells, neutrophils, platelets or hemoglobin levels dropped below $1000/mm^3$, $500/mm^3$, $50 \times 10^3/mm^3$ or 8.5 g/dL, respectively.

HCV dynamics in serum

To analyze viral dynamics, serum samples were collected from each patient according to the following schedule with respect to the start of PEG-IFN-α2b/ribavirin combination therapy: immediately before and at 4, 8 h, and 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 14 and 28 days after the therapy was started; and then at 4-week intervals until completion of the therapy. HCV viral loads were measured in all serum samples using the Abbott RealTi*m*e HCV assay (Abbott Molecular, Des Plaines, IL, USA) at an Abbott laboratory in the USA.[16] The dynamic range

was 1.08–8 $\log_{10}$ IU/mL. The assay is standardized to the 2nd World Health Organization (WHO) International Standard for HCV RNA (National Institute for Biological Standards and Control code 96/798). Nucleic acid extraction was performed on 0.5-mL samples using an Abbott *m2000sp* (Abbott Molecular). The Abbott *m2000rt* (Abbott Molecular) was used for reverse transcription, PCR amplification and detection/quantification. A single-stranded linear probe was used as the HCV probe.

Definitions of response to therapy

The undetectable time point was defined as the first time the viral load dropped below the detection limit (1.08 $\log_{10}$ IU/mL) during therapy. Patients with SVR had no detectable viral load 6 months after the end of PEG-IFN-α-2b/ribavirin combination therapy. Patients in relapse had no detectable viral load at the end of therapy but had a detectable viral load 6 months after the end of therapy. Patients with NVR had a detectable viral load throughout the treatment period.

Calculation of the HCV dynamic parameters

Hepatitis C virus dynamic parameters (c, δ, ε, T_0 and V_0) were calculated from viral loads with equations for HCV dynamics.[15] The parameter c is the constant viral death rate, δ is the death rate of infected cells, ε is the effect of PEG-IFN on blocking production of virus from infected cells, and T_0 and V_0 are the numbers of uninfected cells and virus at the start of therapy, respectively.

Statistical analysis

SAS ver. 9.13 was used for the statistical analysis. *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered significant.

RESULTS

Baseline patient characteristics

TABLE 1 SHOWS the baseline characteristics of the patients. The SVR rate was 60% and 27 patients accomplished undetectable serum HCV until 24 weeks after the therapy was started. The therapy was discontinued in three of the 35 patients because of a reduction in

Table 1 Patient characteristics at baseline

	Model preparation group ($n = 35$)	Model verification group ($n = 70$)
Age (years)	52.1 ± 9.9	57.8 ± 11
Sex (male/female)	24/11	36/34
BMI	23.7 ± 2.9	23.9 ± 3.7
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.7 ± 1.2	14.2 ± 1.6
Platelet count ($\times 10^3/\mu L$)	17.9 ± 4.8	15.5 ± 5.2
Albumin (g/dL)	4.2 ± 0.33	3.92 ± 0.048
ALT (U/L)	91.7 ± 64	80.0 ± 7.4
Liver histology (Metavir score)		
A (0/1/2/3/4/not measured)	0/17/13/5/0/0	0/40/26/2/0/2
F (0/1/2/3/4/not measured)	0/17/15/3/0/0	2/23/25/18/0/2
Viral load (log IU/mL)		
At pretreatment	5.49 ± 0.52	5.54 ± 0.92
At 7th day of treatment	4.05 ± 0.98	4.75 ± 1.05
at 14th day of treatment	3.23 ± 1.41	4.23 ± 1.29
Durations of therapy		
(48 weeks/72 weeks/dropout)	32/0/3	45/7/18
Drug adherence†		
(PEG-IFN/ribavirin/both/non-)	7/5/2/21	6/21/30/13
Outcome (SVR/relapse/NVR)	21/6/8	20/26/24
Actual undetectable time point‡		
(14/28 days/8/12/16/20/24/28/32 weeks/therapy end)	3/7/8/4/1/2/2/0/0	2/2/12/14/4/4/2/2/4

†NVR cases were excluded.
‡Patients numbers with dose reduction during the therapy.
BMI, body mass index; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; PEG-IFN, pegylated interferon; SVR, sustained virological response; NVR, non-virological response.

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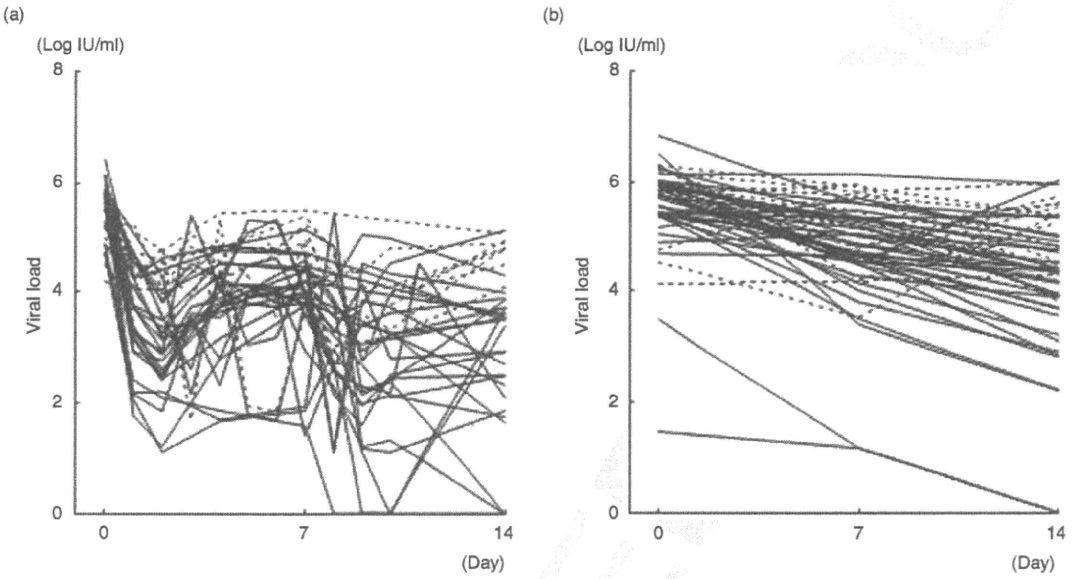

Figure 1 Early hepatitis C virus (HCV) dynamics of model preparation group (a) and of model validation group (b). The patients with incomplete blood collection were excluded from the figure of the model validation group. Solid line, dynamics of those who accomplished undetectable serum HCV until the therapy ended; dotted line, of those in whom serum HCV was detected through the whole therapy.

the hemoglobin concentration, a reduction in the neutrophil count and a worsening of depressive symptoms. In comparison to the model preparation group, there were more NVR patients, and the SVR rate was 29% in the model validation group. There were six patients who accomplished undetectable serum HCV after 24 weeks, and the latest patients achieved it 40 weeks after the therapy started. More patients had advanced hepatic fibrosis in the model validation group than in the model preparation group. Eighteen patients discontinued the combination therapy for various reasons, for example, decreased neutrophil count. The early HCV dynamics of both group are shown in Figure 1.

Undetectable time point prediction

From the model preparation group, 29 patients were analyzed and six patients were excluded for the following reasons: therapy was discontinued before viral clearance in one patient, PEG-IFN dosage was decreased before viral clearance in three patients, viral load increased during therapy in one patient, and an incomplete series of samples were obtained from one patient.

First, we hypothesized that the HCV dynamic parameters have a possibility to predict the undetectable time point. HCV dynamic parameters were calculated with three dataset patterns of viral loads, as follows: (i) immediately before and at 4, 8 h, and 1, 2, 4, 7 and 8 days; (ii) before and at 8 h, and 1, 2, 4 and 7 days; and (iii) before and at 4, 8 h, and 1, 2, 4 and 7 days after the therapy was started. Unfortunately, no significant factors for prediction of the undetectable time points were detected in these HCV dynamic parameters (Table 2), even when adding parameters of age and sex.

Next, we investigated the possibility using early-stage treatment dynamics. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted for viral load, and changes in viral load up to day 14 as the explanatory variables and undetectable time points as the objective variables. Among various factors which became significant alone, the decrease in viral load from day 7 to 14 was found to be the best predictor for the undetectable time points by multiple linear regression analysis ($r^2 = 0.67$, Table 3). Then, whole datasets were analyzed again including HCV dynamic parameters, sex, age, viral loads and viral

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Table 2 Calculated HCV-dynamic parameters of model preparation group

Dataset	Dataset 1† median (range)	*P*	Dataset 2‡ median (range)	*P*	Dataset 3§ median (range)	*P*
c	0.77 (0.032–5.21)	0.73	1.54 (0.0515–7.58)	0.37	2.75 (0.040–6.19)	0.85
δ	0.0033 (0–0.69)	0.76	0.013 (0–0.99)	0.094	0.053 (0–0.70)	0.91
ε	0.28 (0.023–0.84)	0.30	0.067 (0.0083–0.72)	0.038	0.28 (0.023–0.71)	0.18
T_0	0.36 (0.0001–0.95)	0.63	0.415 (0.0049–0.98)	0.23	0.36 (0.007–0.90)	0.21
V_0	5.49 (4.40–6.69)	0.53	4.99 (4.10–6.48)	0.090	5.29 (4.30–6.69)	0.29
R^2	0.012		0.090		0.056	

†Dataset 1: serum hepatitis C virus (HCV) load immediately before and at 4, 8 h, and 1, 2, 4, 7, 8 days after the therapy was started.
‡Dataset 2: serum HCV load before and at 8 h, and 1, 2, 4, 7 days after the therapy was started.
§Dataset 3: serum HCV load before and at 4, 8 h, and 1, 2, 4, 7 days after the therapy was started.

load changes. The results showed that only the change in viral load from day 7 to 14 was associated with the prediction of the undetectable time point ($r^2 = 0.67$). Finally, prediction in each patient was valid (Cook's D = 0.046, mean, data not shown), and we derived the following prediction formula:

$$\text{Undetectable time point (week)} = 13.495 \times (\text{viral load at day 14 [log IU/mL]} - \text{viral load at day 7 [log IU/mL]}) + 25.456.$$

The degree of decrease in viral load from day 7 to 14 for the model preparation group and the actual

Table 3 Early viral dynamics of model preparation group, correlation to undetectable time point and the result of multiple linear regression analysis

	Viral load (log IU/mL)	Spearman's rank correlation test coefficient (*P*-value)	Multiple linear regression analysis r^2 (*P*-value)
Pretreatment (0 days)	5.48 ± 0.30	0.27 (0.28)	Excluded
4 h	5.66 ± 0.22	0.045 (0.82)	Excluded
8 h	5.55 ± 0.19	0.026 (0.89)	Excluded
1 day	3.74 ± 0.75	0.68 (<0.001)	Excluded
2 days	3.20 ± 0.76	0.66 (<0.001)	Excluded
4 days	4.01 ± 0.74	0.56 (0.002)	Excluded
7 days	4.05 ± 0.75	0.77 (<0.001)	Excluded
8 days	3.34 ± 0.80	0.67 (<0.001)	Excluded
14 days	3.52 ± 0.95	0.87 (<0.001)	Excluded
Subtracted values of viral load (log scale)			
1 day – 0 days	−1.78 ± 0.88	0.59 (0.001)	Excluded
2 days – 0 days	−2.18 ± 0.79	0.53 (0.003)	Excluded
4 days – 0 days	−1.46 ± 0.65	0.72 (0.000)	Excluded
7 day – 0 days	−1.38 ± 0.80	0.38 (0.049)	Excluded
14 days – 0 days	−2.24 ± 1.17	0.83 (0.000)	Excluded
2 days – 1 day	−0.55 ± 0.13	0.085 (0.67)	Excluded
4 days – 1 day	0.17 ± 0.25	0.22 (0.27)	Excluded
7 days – 1 day	0.44 ± 0.46	0.27 (0.19)	Excluded
14 days – 1 day	−0.42 ± 0.46	0.76 (<0.001)	Excluded
4 days – 2 days	0.61 ± 0.23	0.12 (0.54)	Excluded
7 days – 2 days	0.86 ± 0.50	0.12 (0.56)	Excluded
14 days – 2 days	0.11 ± 0.44	0.76 (<0.001)	Excluded
7 days – 4 days	−0.11 ± 0.17	0.047 (0.82)	Excluded
14 days – 4 days	−0.7 ± 0.37	0.78 (<0.001)	Excluded
14 days – 7 days	−0.86 ± 0.50	0.76 (<0.001)	0.667 (<0.0005)