The baseline characteristics and test results are listed in Table 1. The overall rate of RVR/cEVR was 43% in the model building set and 48% in the validation set. There were no significant differences in the clinical backgrounds between these two groups. Hepatitis C viral mutations, such as mutations in interferon-sensitivity determining region or core amino acid residues 70 and 91, were not included in the present analysis. The dataset of laboratory tests was based on the digitized records in this hospital. Continuous data was split into categorized data by increment of 10; For example, age was categorized into <30, 30–39, 40–49, 50–59, 60–69, and ≥70.

Statistical analysis

Based on this database, the recursive partitioning analysis algorithm referred to as CART was implemented to define meaningful subgroups of patients with respect to the possibility of achieving RVR/cEVR. The CART belongs to a family of nonparametric regression methods based on binary recursive partitioning of data. The software automatically explore the data to search for optimal split variables, builds a decision tree structure and finally classifies all subjects into particular subgroups that are homogeneous with respect to the outcome of interest.[18] During the CART analysis, first, the entire study population, and thereafter, all newly defined subgroups, were investigated at every step of the analysis to determine which variable at what cut-off point yielded the most significant division into two prognostic subgroups that were as homogeneous as possible with respect to estimates of RVR/cEVR possibilities. This algorithm uses the impurity function (Gini criterion function) for splitting.[19] A restriction was imposed on the tree construction such that terminal subgroups resulting from any given split must have at least 20 patients. The CART procedure stopped when either no additional significant variable was detected or when the sample size was below 20. The resulting final subgroups were most homogeneous with respect to the probability of achieving RVR/cEVR. For this analysis, data mining software Clementine version 12.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL) was utilized. SPSS 15.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL) was used for logistic regression analysis.

RESULTS

Factors associated with RVR/cEVR by standard statistical analysis

WE FIRST ANALYZED 72 variables by univariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis to find factors associated with RVR/cEVR (Table 2). Patients with RVR/cEVR were significantly younger than those without. Among histological findings, grade of steatosis and stage of fibrosis was significantly lower in RVR/cEVR. Among hematologic tests, hemoglobin and hematcrit was significantly higher in RVR/cEVR. Among blood chemistry tests, creatinine and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) was significantly higher and gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT), low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), and blood sugar were significantly lower in RVR/cEVR. The level of HCV RNA was significantly lower in RVR/cEVR. There were no significant differences in other tests.

Multivariate logistic regression analysis was performed on age, fibrosis stage, steatosis, HCVRNA, creatinine, hemoglobin, GGT, LDL-C, and blood sugar: hematcrit was not included since it is closely associated with hemoglobin. On multivariate analysis, age, grade of steatosis, level of HCV RNA, creatinine, hemoglobin, GGT, and LDL-cholesterol remained significant whereas stage of fibrosis, hemoglobin and blood sugar were not.

The CART analysis

The CART analysis was carried out on the model building set of 269 patients using the same variables as logistic regression analysis. Figure 1 shows the resulting decision tree. The CART analysis automatically selected five predictive variables to produce a total of seven subgroups of patients. The grade of steatosis was selected as the variable of initial split with an optimal cut-off of 30%. The possibility of achieving RVR/cEVR was only 18% for patients with hepatic steatosis of 30% or more compared to 47% for patients with hepatic steatosis of less than 30%. Among patients with hepatic steatosis of less than 30%, the level of serum LDL-C, with an optimal cut-off of 100 mg/dL, was selected as the variable of second split. Patients with higher LDL-C level had the higher probability of RVR/cEVR (57% vs. 32%). Among patients with LDL-C of less than 100 mg/dL, age, with an optimal cut-off of 60, was selected as the third variable of split. Younger patients had the higher probability of RVR/cEVR (49% vs. 15%). Among patients younger than 60, the blood sugar, with an optimal cut-off of 120 mg/dL, was selected as the forth variable of split. Patients with lower blood sugar level had the higher probability of RVR/cEVR (71% vs. 31%). Among patients with hepatic steatosis of less than 30% and LDL-C of 100 mg/dL or more, age, with an optimal cut-off of 50, was selected as the third variable of split, younger being the predictor of higher RVR/cEVR probability (77% vs. 50%). Among patients older than 50,

Table 1 Clinical characteristics of patients

	Model set $n = 269$	Validation set $n = 131$	*P*-value
Sex (M/F)	127/142	55/76	0.325
Age (years)	57.7 ± 10.1	57.6 ± 10.0	0.932
Body weight (kg)	59.6 ± 11.0	57.5 ± 9.5	0.094
Body mass index (kg/m^2)	23.2 ± 3.1	23.3 ± 3.8	0.934
Total protein (g/dL)	7.6 ± 0.5	7.7 ± 0.6	0.558
Albumin (g/dL)	4.2 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.3	0.349
Globulin (g/dL)	3.4 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.6	0.989
Aspartate aminotransferase (IU/L)	58.1 ± 43.1	55.8 ± 37.5	0.601
Alanine aminotransferase (IU/L)	70.9 ± 49.2	66.4 ± 52.6	0.462
Gamma-glutamyltransferase (IU/L)	49.6 ± 44.0	45.2 ± 34.4	0.33
Lactate dehydrogenase (IU/L)	289.3 ± 112.3	301.5 ± 109.3	0.417
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.71 ± 0.28	0.69 ± 0.23	0.317
Direct bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.23 ± 0.12	0.25 ± 0.10	0.147
Indirect bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.48 ± 0.21	0.44 ± 0.16	0.064
Alkaline phosphatase (IU/L)	290.9 ± 107.6	292.5 ± 107.6	0.917
Leucine aminopeptidase (IU/L)	64.3 ± 14.3	65.5 ± 12.3	0.543
Thymol turbidity test (KU)	7.1 ± 3.4	8.0 ± 3.7	0.062
Zinc sulfate turbidity test (KU)	15.4 ± 4.9	16.3 ± 5.4	0.188
Choline esterase (IU/L)	318.1 ± 81.7	321.1 ± 78.1	0.798
Ammonia (microg/dL)	39.7 ± 20.2	45.0 ± 15.6	0.668
Blood sugar (mg/dL)	125.9 ± 41.1	117.4 ± 47.9	0.081
Glycohemoglobin (%)	5.6 ± 1.6	5.4 ± 1.2	0.797
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	170.8 ± 33.9	175.6 ± 36.8	0.170
Low-density-lipoprotein-cholesterol (mg/dL)	96.5 ± 25.2	100.9 ± 28.5	0.153
High-density-lipoprotein-cholesterol (mg/dL)	54.2 ± 15.9	55.2 ± 17.4	0.612
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	108.5 ± 47.8	102.8 ± 46.4	0.306
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.72 ± 0.15	0.74 ± 0.17	0.236
Urea nitrogen (mg/dL)	14.1 ± 3.4	14.9 ± 3.9	0.123
Uric acid (mg/dL)	5.3 ± 1.2	5.2 ± 1.2	0.715
Sodium (mEq/L)	142.2 ± 2.0	142.4 ± 2.0	0.471
Potassium (mEq/L)	4.3 ± 0.3	4.3 ± 0.4	0.578
Chloride (mEq/L)	104.0 ± 2.2	104.0 ± 2.6	0.905
Calcium (mg/dL)	9.1 ± 0.4	9.2 ± 0.4	0.479
Phosphorus (mg/dL)	3.5 ± 0.5	3.5 ± 0.6	0.814
Magnesium (mg/dL)	2.2 ± 0.2	2.3 ± 0.3	0.390
Amylase (IU/L)	178.7 ± 125.8	175.1 ± 133.1	0.118
Creatine kinase (IU/L)	114.9 ± 147.6	119.3 ± 73.7	0.849
Iron (microg/dL)	104.7 ± 53.2	109 ± 37	0.726
Ferritin (ng/mL)	111.3 ± 103.3	59.7 ± 118.5	0.405
C-reactive peptide (mg/dL)	0.2 ± 1.1	0.1 ± 0.1	0.586
Immunoglobulin G (mg/dL)	1849 ± 426	1988 ± 525	0.129
Immunoglobulin M (mg/dL)	141 ± 69	205 ± 106	0.200
Immunoglobulin A (mg/dL)	323 ± 675	291 ± 81	0.784
Triiodothyronine (pg/mL)	2.3 ± 0.3	2.2 ± 0.3	0.358
Thyroxin (ng/dL)	0.9 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	0.872
Thyroid stimulating hormone (micro IU/mL)	1.8 ± 1.4	1.7 ± 0.7	0.939
White blood cell count (/microl)	5243 ± 1591	5286 ± 1101	0.843
Segmented neutrophils (%)	55.4 ± 10.8	57.0 ± 10.0	0.297
Band neutrophils (%)	1.5 ± 1.6	0.5 ± 0.6	0.250
Eosinophils (%)	2.9 ± 2.3	2.4 ± 1.4	0.127

Table 1 *Continued*

	Model set $n = 269$	Validation set $n = 131$	*P*-value
Basophiles (%)	0.6 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 0.3	0.727
Lymphocytes (%)	34.6 ± 9.6	34.0 ± 9.3	0.682
Monocytes (%)	6.6 ± 2.2	6.2 ± 2.6	0.149
Red blood cell count (10^4/microl)	458 ± 43	455 ± 47	0.643
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.4 ± 1.5	14.5 ± 1.5	0.618
Hematcrit (%)	42.7 ± 4.0	42.9 ± 4.4	0.717
Reticulocytes (%)	1.4 ± 0.4	1.4 ± 0.4	0.762
Mean corpuscular volume (fL)	93.3 ± 4.5	93.8 ± 5.41	0.466
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (pg)	31.5 ± 1.9	31.7 ± 2.3	0.583
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (g/dL)	33.8 ± 0.9	33.7 ± 1.3	0.910
Platelets (10^4/microl)	16.8 ± 5.4	16.3 ± 4.5	0.480
Prothrombin time (s)	11.7 ± 1.2	11.7 ± 0.9	0.762
Prothrombin time (activity %)	104.6 ± 14.4	102.6 ± 14.8	0.363
Prothrombin time (international normalized ratio)	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	0.387
Thrombin time (%)	97.2 ± 31.3	109 ± 31.5	0.231
Activated partial thromboplastin time (s)	29.7 ± 4.4	29.1 ± 2.7	0.260
Hepaplastin test (%)	97.8 ± 20.3	95.4 ± 19.4	0.523
Fibrinogen (%)	237 ± 44	225 ± 45	0.069
Hepatitis C virus RNA (<850/≥850 KIU/mL)	130/139	70/61	0.394
Histological grade of			
Activity (A1/A2/A3)	138/107/24	62/55/14	0.714
Fibrosis (F1/F2/F3/F4)	135/74/57/3	58/40/27/6	0.131
Steatosis (0%/1–9%/10–29%/30%≦)	89/109/37/34	49/45/21/16	0.643
Hepatitis C virus RNA negative at week 12 (yes/no)	116/153	63/68	0.349

the level of GGT, with an optimal cutoff of 40 U/L, were then selected as the fourth level of split, low levels being the predictor of higher RVR/cEVR probability (60% vs. 35%).

All five factors selected as significant variables in the CART analysis were also significantly associated with RVR/cEVR by univariate analysis (Table 2). In addition, steatosis, LDL-C, age and GGT were also independently

Table 2 Factors associated with rapid or complete early virological response by univariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis

Parameter	Category	Univariate			Multivariate		
		Odds	95% CI	*P*-value	Odds	95% CI	*P*-value
Age (years)	<50 vs. ≥50	2.65	1.51–4.65	<0.001	2.03	1.04–3.97	0.039
Fibrosis stage	F1-2 vs. F3-4	2.47	1.31–4.66	0.005	1.77	0.85–3.68	0.120
Steatosis (%)	<30 vs. ≥30	4.11	1.64–10.29	0.003	2.88	1.07–7.79	0.037
Hepatitis C virus RNA (KIU/mL)	<850 vs. ≥850	1.97	1.21–3.22	0.007	1.93	1.09–3.43	0.025
Creatinine (mg/dL)	≥0.8 vs. <0.8	3.30	1.96–5.56	<0.001	3.54	1.88–6.67	<0.001
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	≥14.5 vs. <14.5	1.76	1.08–2.87	0.023	1.38	0.74–2.57	0.320
Hematcrit (%)	≥43 vs. <43	1.75	1.07–2.84	0.003			
Gamma-glutamyltransferase (IU/L)	<40 vs. ≥40	2.06	1.26–3.37	0.004	2.45	1.32–4.56	0.005
Low-density-lipid cholesterol (mg/dL)	≥100 vs. <100	2.71	1.61–4.55	<0.001	2.21	1.21–4.06	0.010
Blood sugar (mg/dL)	<120 vs. ≥120	2.00	1.02–3.95	0.045	1.42	0.64–3.13	0.390

CI, confidence interval.

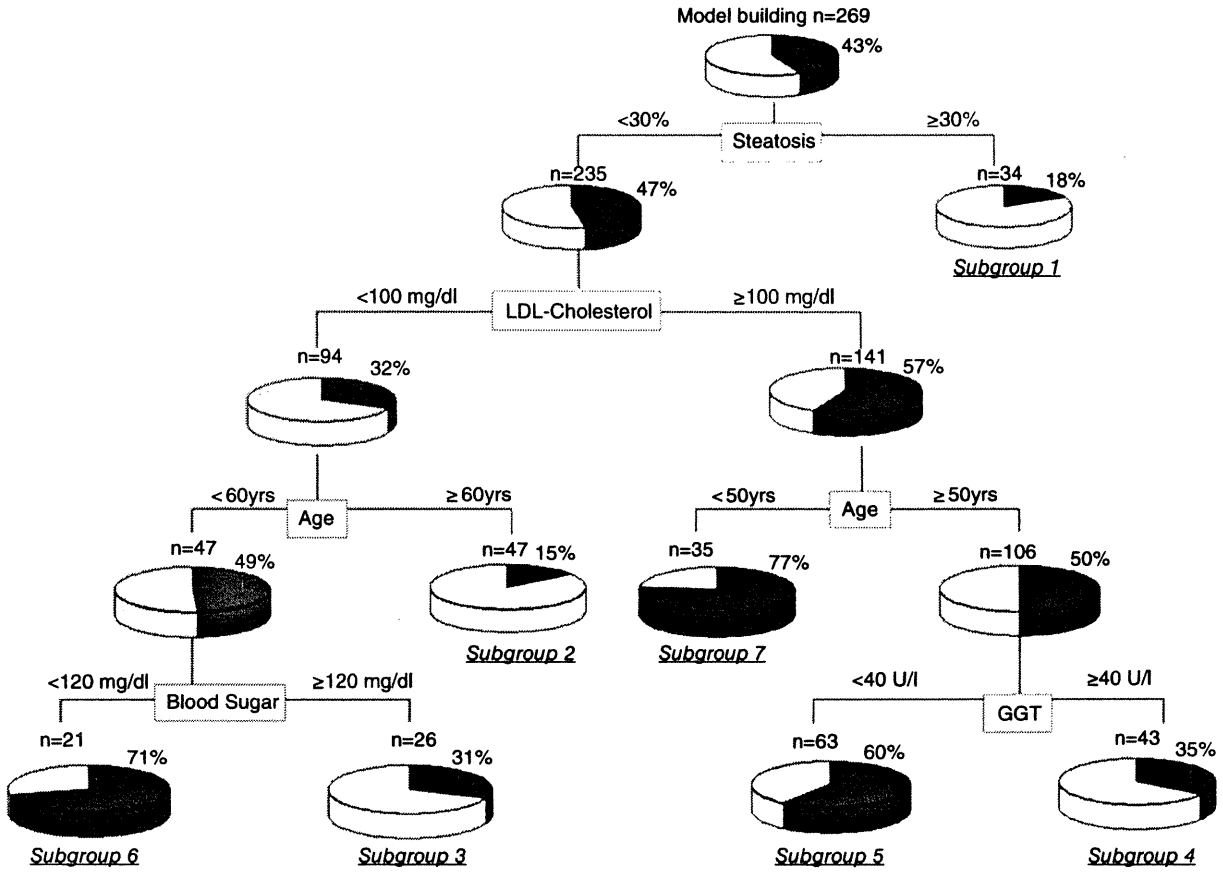

Figure 1 Classification and regression tree analysis. Boxes indicate the factors used for splitting and the cut-off value for the split. Pie charts indicate the rate of RVR/cEVR for each group of patients after splitting. Terminal subgroups of patients discriminated by the analysis are numbered from one to seven. GGT, gamma-glutamyltransferase; LDL, low-density-lipoprotein.

associated with RVR/cEVR by multivariate logistic regression analysis while blood sugar was not (Table 2). On the other hand, HCVRNA and creatinine which were significantly associated with RVR/cEVR by multivariate analysis were not selected as significant variables in CART analysis.

The probabilities of RVR/cEVR for the seven subgroups derived by this process were highly variable. The subgroup whose hepatic steatosis was less than 30%, serum LDL-C was 100 mg/dL or more and of an age less than 50 years (subgroup 7) showed the highest probability of RVR/cEVR (77%), while the subgroup whose hepatic steatosis more than 30% (subgroup 1) and the subgroup whose hepatic steatosis was less than 30% but serum LDL-C was less than 100 mg/dL and of an age greater than 60 years (subgroup 2) showed the lowest probability of RVR/cEVR (18% and 15%, respectively).

Validation of the CART analysis

The results of the CART analysis were validated with a validation dataset of 131 cases which is independent of the model building dataset. Each patient in the validation set was allocated to subgroups 1–7 using the flowchart form of the CART tree. The rates of RVR/cEVR were 20% for subgroups 1 and 2, 29% for subgroups 3, 38% for subgroup 4, 59% for subgroup 5, 71% for subgroup 6, and 85% for subgroups 7. The rates of RVR/cEVR for each subgroup of patients were closely correlated between the model building dataset and the validation dataset (Fig. 2).

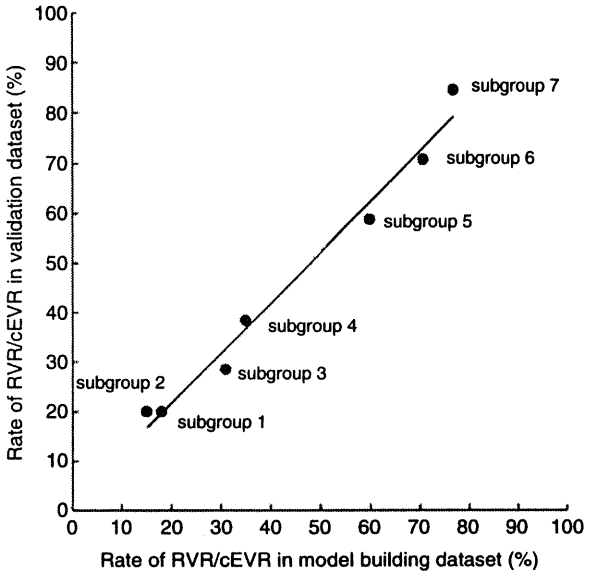

Figure 2 Validation of the classification and regression tree (CART) analysis: Subgroup stratified comparison of the rate of rapid or complete early virological response (RVR/cEVR) between the model building and validation datasets. Each patient in the validation set was allocated to subgroups 1–7 by following the flow-chart form of the CART tree and the rates of RVR/cEVR were calculated. The rate of RVR/cEVR in each subgroup was plotted. The *x*-axis represents the rate of RVR/cEVR in the model building datasets and the y-axis represents the rate of RVR/cEVR in the validation datasets. The rates of achieving RVR/cEVR in each subgroup of patients closely correlated between the model building dataset and the validation dataset ($r^2 = 0.987$).

Construction of 3 groups according to the probability of RVR/cEVR

If the seven subgroups were reconstructed into three groups according to their rate of RVR/cEVR, the rate of RVR/cEVR was 16% for low probability group (subgroup 1 and 2), 46% for intermediate probability group (subgroup 3, 4, and 5) and 75% for high probability group (subgroup 6 and 7; $P < 0.0001$).

Effect of adherence

Adherence of PEG-IFN and RBV was not included as a variable of analysis since the present study aimed to develop a pre-treatment model for the prediction of response. To analyze the possible effect of adherence on the result of CART analysis, three groups of patients divided by CART (low, intermediate and high probability group) were further stratified according to adherence of PEG-IFN and RBV. Poor adherence was defined as taking less than 80% planned dose of PEG-IFN or RBV at 12 weeks, and good adherence was defined as taking more than 80% planned dose of both PEG-IFN and RBV at 12 weeks. The result is shown in Figure 3. Among patients with good adherence, the rate of RVR/cEVR was 19% for low probability group, 52% for intermediate probability group and 77% for high probability group. Among poor adherence group, the rate of RVR/cEVR was 13% for low probability group, 41% for intermediate probability group and 73% for high probability group. Collectively, even after adjustment for adherence, 3 groups of patients divided by CART analysis still had low, intermediate and high probability of achieving RVR/cEVR, respectively.

DISCUSSION

IN THE PRESENT study, we performed the CART analysis and built a simple decision tree model for the pre-treatment prediction of response to PEG-IFN plus

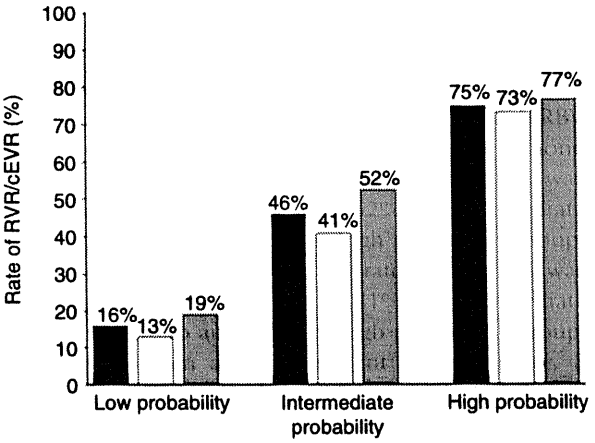

Figure 3 The rate of rapid or complete early virological response (RVR/cEVR) between the classification and regression tree (CART) groups stratified by adherence. The three groups of patients divided by CART (low, intermediate and high probability group) were further stratified according to adherence of peg-interferon (PEG-IFN) plus ribavirin (RBV). Black, white and gray boxes in the bar chart indicate total patients, patients with poor adherence (taking less than 80% planned dose of PEG-IFN or RBV at 12 weeks), and good adherence (taking more than 80% planned dose of both PEG-IFN and RBV at 12 weeks), respectively. Even after adjustment for adherence, 3 groups of patients divided by CART analysis still had low, intermediate and high probability of achieving RVR/cEVR, respectively.

RBV therapy. The analysis highlighted five host variables relevant to response: steatosis, LDL-C, age, blood sugar and GGT. Classification of patients based on these variables identified subgroups of patients with high probabilities of achieving RVR/cEVR among difficult to treat chronic hepatitis C patients. The reproducibility of the model was confirmed by the independent validation datasets. According to the result of the CART, patients were categorized into 3 groups: the rate of RVR/cEVR was 16% for low probability group, 46% for intermediate probability group and 75% for high probability group. The result of the CART analysis could be readily applicable to clinical practice because patients could be allocated to specific subgroups with a defined rate of response simply by following the flow-chart form. Although an early disappearance of serum HCV RNA is the prerequisite for achieving SVR, no reliable baseline predictors of response to PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy are established to date. Thus, this model may have the potential to support decisions in patient selection for PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy or to tailor treatment strategies for individual patients. Moreover, our result may provide a rationale for treating metabolic factors to improve the efficacy of antiviral therapy.

Among variables relevant to the prediction of RVR/cEVR, the grade of hepatic steatosis was selected as the variable of the first split. Previous studies suggested that steatosis induces resistance to IFN and RBV combination therapy[20,21] along with underlining metabolic factors such as insulin resistance or obesity.[21-24] In the present study, the grade of steatosis correlated positively with BMI and serum glucose level (data not shown) suggesting the etiologic role of metabolic factors. In addition, serum glucose level was selected as a predictor of RVR/cEVR at the fourth level of split. Serum GGT, which is associated with obesity,[25] insulin resistance[26] and response to IFN therapy,[27-30] was also selected as a predictor of RVR/cEVR at fourth level of splitting which may emphasize the importance of metabolic factors in therapeutic resistance. These findings raise the possibility that treatment of these metabolic factors may improve the virological response to the PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy. This hypothesis should be examined by a prospective study.

We and others have reported that steatosis, obesity and insulin resistance are associated with the progression of fibrosis,[17,31-33] which can interfere indirectly with the effect of IFN on hepatocytes. Other possible mechanisms of resistance by steatosis or metabolic factors include dysregulation of adipocytokines[34] or oxidative stress which may inhibit intracellular IFN signaling pathway.[35] Despite these findings, the precise mechanism of resistance is not established and further investigation is needed.

Another factor relevant in the prediction of RVR/cEVR was LDL-C. LDL-C was selected as the second factor for splitting by CART, and was an independent predictor of RVR/cEVR by logistic regression analysis. LDL-C recently has attracted attention as a novel predictor of response to IFN or PEG-IFN plus RBV.[30,36,37] Since *in vitro* study showed that LDL-C receptor acts as a receptor for HCV and LDL-C competitively inhibit the binding of HCV,[38] high level of serum LDL-C may inhibit HCV entry to hepatocytes and attenuate replication. LDL-C and its receptor may be a future therapeutic target.

Not all factors selected as significant variables in the CART analysis were also significantly associated with response by standard statistical analysis: blood sugar was associated with response by univariate analysis but not by multivariate logistic regression analysis On the other hand, HCVRNA and creatinine which were significantly associated with RVR/cEVR by multivariate analysis were not selected as significant variables in CART analysis. These differences may indicate both the unique feature and the limitations of the CART analysis. To note, blood sugar was significantly associated with RVR/cEVR within specialized subgroups of patients defined by the CART analysis: in subgroup of patients with steatosis <30%, LDL-C <100 mg/dL and younger than 60, which indicate the unique feature of the CART analysis that it could visualize significant predictors that specifically apply to selected patients. The limitation is that not all significant factors may be adopted in the decision tree since we applied the rule to stop CART procedure when the sample size was below 20. This rule was applied to avoid the generation of over-fit model which may lack universality. Therefore, it is possible that HCVRNA or creatinine may become a significant variable in the CART analysis if larger number of patients were included in the analysis. Stage of fibrosis was significantly associated with response to therapy by univariate analysis but not by multivariate analysis and not selected as a significant variable in the CART analysis. The possible reason is that advanced fibrosis is associated with older age as a confounding factor.

CART analyses are gaining acceptance in medical research in addition to biomedical field. Recent publications include the prediction of aggressive prostate cancer,[8] diabetic vascular complications,[19] prognosis of melanoma,[7,39] response to preoperative radiotherapy for rectal tumor,[9] prognostic groups in colorectal carcinoma,[12] and outcome after liver failure.[11] An advantage

of CART over traditional regression models is that it can identify prognostic subgroups that are useful in clinical practice. Because the results of CART analysis are presented as a decision tree, which is intuitive, they can be readily interpreted by medical professionals without any specific knowledge of statistics. The most important consideration is that five variables used in the decision tree were clinical parameters that are readily available by the usual work-up of patients before therapy. Especially, glucose, GGT and LDL-C are simple biochemical markers that are easily measured at a low cost. Using this model, we can rapidly develop an estimate of the response before treatment, which may facilitate clinical decision making.

In conclusion, we built a pre-treatment model for the prediction of virological response in PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy. Because this decision tree model was made up of simple host factors such as steatosis, LDL-C, age, blood sugar and GGT, it can be easily applied to clinical practice. This model may have the potential to support decisions in patient selection for PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy based on the possibility of response against a potential risk of adverse events or costs, and may provide a rationale for treating metabolic factors to improve the efficacy of antiviral therapy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

THIS STUDY WAS supported by a grant-in-aid from Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Japan. There exist no conflicts of interest.

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Hepatology Research 2010 doi: 10.1111/j.1872-034X.2010.00692.x

Original Article

Hepatic steatosis in chronic hepatitis C is a significant risk factor for developing hepatocellular carcinoma independent of age, sex, obesity, fibrosis stage and response to interferon therapy

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Aim: Hepatic steatosis is linked to development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in non-viral liver disease such as non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. The present study aimed to assess whether hepatic steatosis is associated with the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C.

Methods: We studied a retrospective cohort of 1279 patients with chronic hepatitis C who received interferon (IFN) therapy between 1994 and 2005 at a single regional hospital in Japan. Of these patients, 393 had a sustained virological response (SVR) and 886 had non-SVR to IFN therapy. After IFN therapy, these patients were screened for development of HCC every 6 months. The average period of observation was 4.5 years.

Results: HCC developed in 68 patients. The annual incidence of HCC was 2.73% for patients with a steatosis grade of 10% or greater and 0.69% for patients with a steatosis grade of 0–9%. On multivariate analysis, higher grade of steatosis was a significant risk factor for HCC independent of older age, male sex, higher body mass index (BMI), advanced fibrosis stage and non-SVR to IFN therapy. The adjusted risk ratio of hepatic steatosis was 3.04 (confidence interval 1.82–5.06, $P < 0.0001$), which was higher than that of older age (1.09), male sex (2.12), non-SVR to IFN (2.43) and higher BMI (1.69).

Conclusion: Hepatic steatosis is a significant risk factor for development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C independent of other known risk factors, which suggest the possibility that amelioration of hepatic steatosis may prevent hepatocarcinogenesis.

Key words: body mass index, fibrosis, sex, hepatocellular carcinoma, interferon, steatosis, virological response.

INTRODUCTION

HEPATOCELLULAR CARCINOMA (HCC) is one of the most common cancers worldwide and its incidence has been increasing. This recent increase in HCC incidence may likely be attributed to the higher prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection.[1]

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease is characterized by hepatic steatosis with or without inflammation in the absence of excessive alcohol consumption. Several studies have indicated the etiological association between NAFLD and development of HCC.[2–4] Other studies have shown that obesity or diabetes, a common etiology of non-alcoholic hepatic steatosis, is associated with development of HCC.[5–7] Although the mechanism of carcinogenesis in NAFLD has not been determined, an animal model showed that obesity-related hepatic steatosis leads to the development of hepatic

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Received 23 January 2010; revision 10 May 2010; accepted 21 May 2010.

hyperplasia, suggesting the possibility that hepatic steatosis is a pre-malignant condition.[8]

Another important etiological agent for HCC is HCV infection. Because steatosis is a common pathological feature of HCV-infected patients,[9] the important question is whether steatosis influences the progression of liver disease in hepatitis C, by analogy with NAFLD. Several studies, including ours[10] indicated that hepatic steatosis promotes the progression of hepatic fibrosis.[11–15] The association between hepatic steatosis and the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C has been proposed[16] and was confirmed in two studies[17,18] while another study failed to show such an association.[19] The present study was conducted to analyze the association between hepatic steatosis and development of HCC in a large cohort of chronic hepatitis C patients, which enabled to adjust for known risk factors for HCC.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 1437 chronic hepatitis C patients were treated with interferon (IFN) at Musashino Red Cross Hospital between October 1994 and October 2005. Among them, 1279 patients who fulfilled the following inclusion criteria were enrolled in this study: (i) positive for HCV RNA by reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction before IFN therapy; (ii) absence of other causes of liver disease, such as co-infection with hepatitis B virus, autoimmune hepatitis or primary biliary cirrhosis; (iii) had undergone liver biopsy within the 12 months prior to IFN treatment; (iv) were followed for more than 1 year after the completion of IFN therapy; and (v) absence of HCC during and within 1 year after the completion of therapy. A total of 158 patients were excluded: two patients who were positive for hepatitis B surface antigen, 97 patients lacking liver biopsy, 53 patients with less than 1 year's duration of follow up, and six patients who developed HCC within 1 year of the completion of IFN therapy. The study protocol conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the institutional ethics review committee.

Patients were followed up by regular visits to our hospital every 1–3 months. Six patients died of liver-unrelated disease (two patients with gastric cancer and one patient each with lung cancer, colon cancer, pancreatic cancer and leukemia). There were 122 patients who were lost to follow up because of relocation. We included their data in the analysis, censored at the time of their last visit. The start of follow up was defined as the date of completion of first IFN therapy and the end of follow up was defined as the date of diagnosis of HCC or the date of the last visit. The average period of follow up was 4.5 years.

Clinical characteristics and laboratory data were collected at the most recent time point before liver biopsy. Diabetes mellitus was diagnosed based on a fasting plasma glucose concentration that exceeded 126 mg/dL, a casual plasma glucose concentration that exceeded 200 mg/dL, or the need for insulin or oral antihyperglycemic drugs. Information regarding alcohol consumption was obtained through an interview. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated using the following formula: weight in kilograms/height in meters squared. The baseline clinical features of patients at enrollment are summarized in Table 1.

Histological examination

Liver biopsy specimens were obtained from all patients before therapy. The median length of liver biopsy specimens was 13 mm (range 10–42 mm) and median number of portal tracts was 11 (range 4–30). Histological findings were re-evaluated recently by three independent pathologists who were blinded to the clinical details to ensure consistency over time. Fibrosis and activity were scored according to the METAVIR scoring system.[20] Fibrosis was staged on a scale of 0–4: F0 (no fibrosis); F1 (mild fibrosis: portal fibrosis without septa); F2 (moderate fibrosis: few septa); F3 (severe fibrosis: numerous septa without cirrhosis); and F4 (cirrhosis). Activity of necroinflammation was graded on a scale of 0–3: A0 (no activity); A1 (mild activity); A2 (moderate activity); and A3 (severe activity). Percentage of steatosis was quantified by determining the average proportion of hepatocytes affected by steatosis and graded on a scale of 0%, 1–9%, 10–29% and 30% or greater as reported previously.[10] All three pathologists assigned the same scale in 85% of cases for fibrosis staging, 87% for inflammation grading and 95% for steatosis grading. If there was discordance, the scores assigned by two pathologists were used for the analysis.

Screening for HCC

At enrollment, no patient had HCC or any suspicious lesion on abdominal ultrasonography or computed tomography. Patients were examined for HCC by abdominal ultrasonography or computed tomography at least every 6 months. Suspicious lesions were examined further by a triphasic contrast-enhanced computerized tomography or magnetic resonance imaging,

Table 1 Clinical characteristics of patients

Male, *n* (%)	643 (50%)
Age (years)	54.2 ± 11.9
BMI (kg/m^2)	23.4 ± 3.1
Alcohol consumption ≥20 g/day, *n* (%)	44 (3%)
Diabetes Mellitus, *n* (%)	197 (15%)
AST level (IU/L)	68.9 ± 45.3
ALT level (IU/L)	92.9 ± 75.9
GGT level (IU/L)	41.2 ± 38.2
Platelet count (×10^{10}/L)	16.4 ± 5.2
HCV genotype, *n* (%)	
1b	873 (68.2%)
2a	236 (18.4%)
2b	139 (10.9%)
3	2 (0.2%)
Not determined	29 (2.3%)
Histological findings	
Grade of activity, *n* (%)	
A0	154 (12%)
A1	574 (45%)
A2	441 (34%)
A3	110 (9%)
Stage of fibrosis, *n* (%)	
F0	24 (2%)
F1	591 (46%)
F2	378 (30%)
F3	242 (19%)
F4	44 (3%)
Grade of steatosis, *n* (%)	
0%	384 (30%)
1–9%	543 (42%)
10–29%	215 (17%)
≥30%	137 (11%)
SVR to interferon therapy, *n* (%)	393 (31%)
Development of HCC, *n* (%)	68 (5%)

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; GGT, γ-glutamyltransferase; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; SVR, sustained virological response.

angiography or tumor biopsy to confirm the diagnosis. Diagnostic criteria of HCC on radiological findings were hyper-vascularity at angiography or hyper-attenuation at triphasic contrast-enhanced computerized tomography or magnetic resonance imaging during the hepatic arterial phase.

Statistical analysis

The SPSS software package ver. 15.0 was used for statistical analysis. Categorical data were analyzed using Fisher's exact test. Continuous variables were compared with Student's *t*-test. The time for the development of HCC was defined as the time from the completion of IFN therapy to the time of diagnosis. Annual incidence of HCC was calculated using the person-years method. Effect of hepatic steatosis on time to development of HCC was analyzed by the Kaplan–Meier method and log–rank test, after stratification by age, sex, BMI, degree of fibrosis and response to IFN therapy, as well as multivariate analysis using Cox proportional hazards regression analysis. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Background factors for steatosis

PATIENTS WITH A steatosis grade of 10% or greater were older (53.6 ± 12.6 vs 56.0 ± 9.8, $P = 0.001$), had a higher BMI (23.0 ± 3.0 vs 24.6 ± 3.3, $P < 0.0001$), higher frequency of diabetes (12% vs 24%, $P < 0.0001$), higher serum levels of aspartate aminotransferase (AST) (66 ± 46 vs 75 ± 43, $P = 0.002$), γ-glutamyltransferase (GGT) (37 ± 52 vs 52 ± 33, $P < 0.0001$), total cholesterol (173 ± 32 vs 179 ± 33, $P = 0.005$), triglycerides (123 ± 56 vs 145 ± 68, $P < 0.0001$), and a lower serum level of albumin (4.2 ± 0.3 vs 4.1 ± 0.3, $P = 0.005$) and lower platelet counts (16.6 ± 5.2 vs 15.7 ± 5.1, $P = 0.007$). Histological grade of activity (A2–3: 39% vs 54%, $P < 0.0001$), and stage of fibrosis (F3–4: 18% vs 34%, $P < 0.0001$) were higher. The proportion of non-sustained virological response (SVR) to IFN also was higher (35% vs 19%, $P < 0.0001$). These results indicate that hepatic steatosis in hepatitis C is related to metabolic factors and associated with other risk factors for the development of HCC such as older age, advanced stage of fibrosis, and non-SVR to IFN therapy.

Factors associated with the development of HCC

Hepatocellular carcinoma developed in 68 patients during follow up. An overall annual incidence of HCC development was 1.19% by person-years. The annual incidence of HCC development by person-years was higher in patients with higher grade of steatosis: 0.45% for patients without steatosis, 0.78% for patients with 1–9% of steatosis, 2.30% for patients with 10–29% of steatosis, and 3.56% for patients with 30% of steatosis. The relative risk of hepatic steatosis (grade of ≥10%) for HCC development was 4.39 (95% confidence interval 2.66–7.26, $P < 0.0001$). The difference remained significant, even after stratification for other risk factors such as IFN therapy, stage of fibrosis, age, sex and BMI (Fig. 1). When analyzed by the multivariate Cox proportional

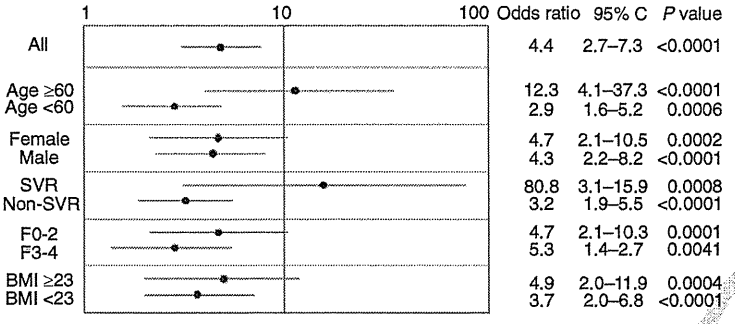


Figure 1 Relative risk differences of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) among patients with and without steatosis. The relative risk of hepatic steatosis (grade ≥10%) for HCC development was analyzed, after stratification for other risk factors such as interferon (IFN) therapy, stage of fibrosis, age, sex and body mass index (BMI). SVR, sustained virological response.

hazards regression method, a higher grade of steatosis, older age, male sex, higher BMI, an advanced stage of fibrosis and non-SVR to IFN therapy were independent risk factors associated with the development of HCC (Table 2). The adjusted risk ratio of hepatic steatosis was 3.04 (95% confidence interval 1.82–5.06, $P < 0.0001$). The presence of diabetes and consumption of ethanol were not significant. Figure 2(a) shows the Kaplan–Meier curve of the time to development of HCC in the entire cohort. The cumulative incidence of HCC was significantly higher with hepatic steatosis of 10% or greater. To adjust for other risk factors, patients were stratified according to response to IFN therapy, stage of fibrosis, age, sex and BMI. The difference remained significant, even after stratification for these confounding factors (Fig. 2b–f). Three patients died after the development of HCC. All were over 60 years old, and had significant steatosis. The impact of hepatic steatosis on the survival rate could not be analyzed due to the small number of death.

DISCUSSION

IN THIS STUDY, we have shown that the presence of significant steatosis is an independent risk factor for the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C. Our study involved the largest number of patients, compared to previous reports, and this enabled us to adjust for

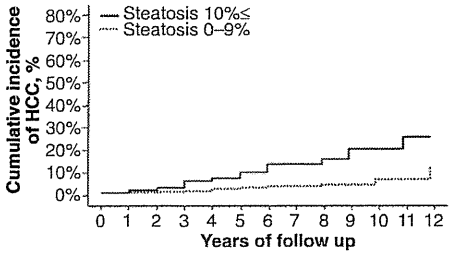
Table 2 Multivariate analysis of risk factors for hepatocellular carcinoma

Predictor		Odds ratio (95% CI)	*P*-value
Age	By every 10 years	1.09 (1.05–1.13)	<0.0001
Sex	Male vs female	2.12 (1.28–3.51)	0.004
Stage of fibrosis	F3–4 vs F0–2	4.30 (2.59–7.14)	<0.0001
Grade of steatosis	≥10% vs <10%	3.04 (1.82–5.06)	<0.0001
Response to IFN	Non-SVR vs SVR	2.43 (1.13–5.23)	0.023
Diabetes	Present vs absent	0.75 (0.42–1.33)	0.319
Ethanol consumption (g/day)	≥20 vs <20	0.50 (0.07–3.60)	0.478
BMI (kg/m2)	≥23 vs <23	1.69 (1.02–2.86)	0.043

BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; IFN, interferon; SVR, sustained virological response.

Figure 2 Cumulative incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) among patients with steatosis (solid line) and without steatosis (dotted line), stratified by other risk factors. The cumulative incidence of HCC was (a) significantly higher in patients with a steatosis grade of 10% or greater ($P < 0.0001$ by the log–rank test), even after (b) stratification by the response to interferon therapy ($P < 0.0001$ for sustained virological response [SVR] and non-SVR by the log–rank test), (c) stratification by the stage of fibrosis ($P < 0.0001$ for F0–2 and $P = 0.0036$ for F3–4 by the log–rank test), (d) stratification by age ($P = 0.0001$ for age ≥60 and $P < 0.0001$ for age <60 by the log–rank test), (e) stratification by sex ($P < 0.0001$ for men and women by the log–rank test), and (f) stratification by body mass index (BMI) ($P < 0.0001$ for BMI ≥23 kg/m^2 and <23 kg/m^2 by the log–rank test). The number of patients at risk is shown below each graph.

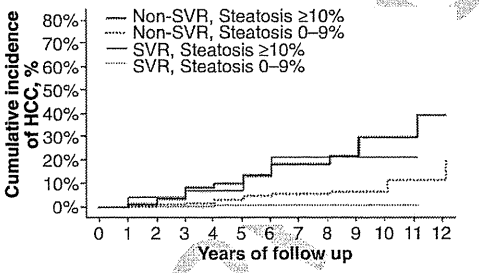
(a) **Entire cohort**



Number of patients at risk

Steatosis 0–9%	927	824	620	503	320	227	161	117	77	49	27	10
Steatosis ≥10%	352	271	207	157	113	83	54	48	32	17	9	1

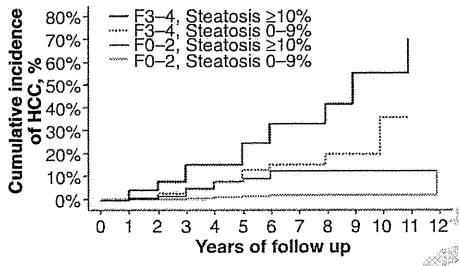
(b) **Stratified by response to IFN therapy**



Number of patients at risk

SVR												
Steatosis 0–9%	326	254	204	153	81	55	33	21	15	10	5	0
Steatosis ≥10%	67	50	34	22	14	10	4	4	4	2	2	0
Non-SVR												
Steatosis 0–9%	601	507	416	350	239	172	128	96	62	39	22	10
Steatosis ≥10%	285	221	173	135	99	73	50	44	28	15	7	1

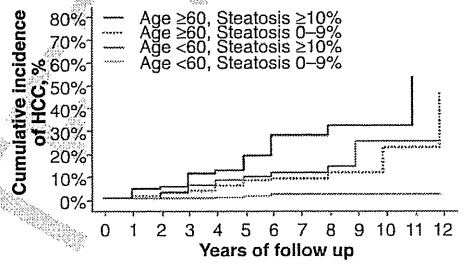
(c) **Stratified by stage of fibrosis**



Number of patients at risk

F0–2												
Steatosis 0–9%	759	623	509	415	266	188	137	99	64	39	25	10
Steatosis ≥10%	234	190	146	107	77	55	37	32	19	11	6	1
F3–4												
Steatosis 0–9%	118	81	61	50	36	28	17	16	13	6	3	0
Steatosis ≥10%	168	138	111	88	54	39	23	18	13	10	2	0

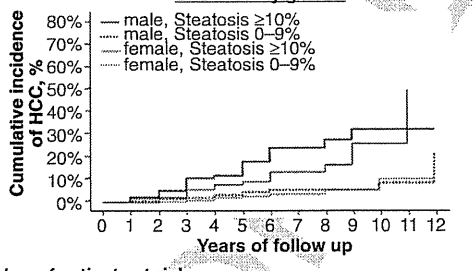
(d) **Stratified by age**



Number of patients at risk

Age <60												
Steatosis 0–9%	549	457	367	298	188	148	111	83	53	33	19	7
Steatosis ≥10%	193	154	111	83	61	48	34	31	23	12	6	1
Age ≥60												
Steatosis 0–9%	378	304	253	205	132	79	50	34	24	16	8	3
Steatosis ≥10%	159	117	96	74	52	35	20	17	9	5	3	0

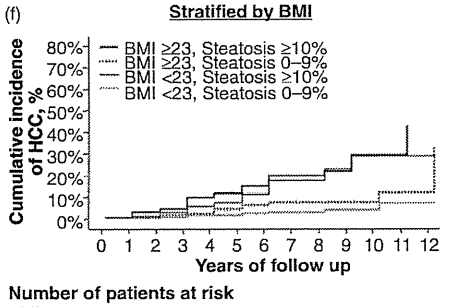
(e) **Stratified by gender**



Number of patients at risk

Male												
Steatosis 0–9%	470	389	319	265	169	126	90	65	46	30	17	7
Steatosis ≥10%	173	134	98	73	54	40	21	21	15	8	6	1
Female												
Steatosis 0–9%	457	372	301	238	151	101	71	52	31	19	10	3
Steatosis ≥10%	179	137	109	84	59	43	33	27	17	9	3	0

(f) **Stratified by BMI**



Number of patients at risk

BMI ≥23												
Steatosis 0–9%	417	346	269	213	129	94	66	49	31	19	8	4
Steatosis ≥10%	226	176	137	101	71	55	34	33	20	10	5	0
BMI <23												
Steatosis 0–9%	510	415	351	290	191	133	95	68	46	30	19	6
Steatosis ≥10%	126	95	70	56	42	28	20	15	12	7	4	1

other known risk factors for HCC. The impact of steatosis on HCC development remained significant even after adjusting for other risk factors such as older age, male sex, higher BMI, advanced fibrosis and non-SVR to IFN therapy. These findings indicate the need of intensive surveillance for HCC in patients with significant steatosis and provide an argument for therapeutic interventions aimed at reducing steatosis, in order to reduce the risk of HCC.

The association between hepatic steatosis and the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C has been proposed and the possible mechanism has been discussed.[16] There are several cohort studies on this topic but their results are conflicting. The first report included 20 patients with SVR to IFN, 51 patients with non-SVR to IFN and 90 patients who did not receive IFN therapy.[17] In this cohort of 161 patients, older age, absence of IFN therapy, cirrhosis and steatosis were associated with HCC development. Another study involved 25 patients with HCC and an equal number of patients who did not develop HCC, matched for age, sex, HCV genotype and stage of fibrosis.[19] In this study, only ALT and albumin were identified as predictors of HCC and steatosis was not. The authors acknowledged the small size of the cohort as a limitation and emphasized the need for larger cohort studies. The third study analyzed explanted liver from cirrhotic patients who underwent liver transplantation and included 32 patients with HCC and 62 patients without HCC.[18] The authors found that older age, higher α-fetoprotein levels and steatosis were significantly associated with HCC. The major advantage of this study was the standardization of fibrosis stage to cirrhosis. On the other hand, a limitation was the retrospective nature of the study; steatosis was evaluated after the diagnosis of HCC, when cirrhosis already was present (fibrosis stage F4). Because steatosis has been reported to decrease once cirrhosis has developed, this study may have underestimated the grade of steatosis present prior to the development of HCC. Thus, we cannot simply apply their findings to a clinical setting where biopsies are usually obtained before the development of cirrhosis and years before the development of HCC. Based on that background, the principal aim of this study was to analyze the association between hepatic steatosis and the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C patients, adjusting for known risk factors. We found that steatosis was an independent risk factor by the multivariate Cox proportional hazards regression analysis and by the Kaplan–Meier method and log-rank test after stratification by other risk factors. To our surprise, the adjusted risk ratio of hepatic steatosis was higher than that of older age, male sex, non-SVR to IFN and higher BMI.

How steatosis contributes to the development of HCC remains unclear. Several studies including ours,[10] indicated that hepatic steatosis promotes the progression of hepatic fibrosis,[11–15] which potentiates the risk of HCC indirectly. On the other hand, the ob/ob mouse model of NAFLD showed that hepatic neoplasia developed in the absence of advanced fibrosis, supporting the concept that metabolic abnormalities related to obesity initiate the neoplastic process.[8] Leptin, an adipocytokine related to steatosis in chronic hepatitis C,[21] was shown recently to be mitogenic in human liver[22] and thus may be a link between steatosis and HCC development. Otherwise, steatosis may be responsible for increased lipid peroxidation and reactive oxygen species which induce genetic damage.[23–25] Another study showed that mice transgenic for the HCV core gene developed hepatic steatosis early in life and thereafter HCC which indicates that the HCV core protein has a chief role in the development of both steatosis and HCC development.[26] The precise mechanism of the association between steatosis and carcinogenesis needs further investigation.

The higher incidence of HCC in patients with significant steatosis has important clinical implications. The most important question is whether therapeutic interventions aimed at reducing steatosis could reduce the risk of HCC in chronic hepatitis C. Because the adjusted risk ratio of hepatic steatosis was higher than that of older age, male sex, non-SVR to IFN and higher BMI, we hypothesize that modification of lifestyle and the amelioration of hepatic steatosis may efficiently prevent hepatocarcinogenesis in patients having concomitant risk factors. Apparently, further prospective studies focusing on this point are necessary. Weight reduction may provide an important treatment strategy because one study indicated that weight reduction in chronic hepatitis C leads to a reduction in steatosis and an improvement in fibrosis despite the persistence of HCV infection.[27] Alternatively, insulin resistance may be another target of therapy because a study showed that the administration of pioglitazone led to metabolic and histological improvement in subjects with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis.[28] A limitation of the present study was that data for the plasma insulin concentration was not available and thus insulin resistance could not be assessed. Whether insulin resistance plays a role in hepatocarcinogenesis or its amelioration could improve steatosis and ultimately prevent development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C awaits future investigation.

Another important finding of the present study was that steatosis was a significant risk factor for the development of HCC in patients with SVR to IFN therapy. Thus, steatosis may play a role in carcinogenesis in patients who have cleared HCV. Several studies have shown that the incidence of HCC is reduced but not eliminated in those with SVR to IFN.[29-31] Because the predictors of HCC development in SVR patients have not been established to date, steatosis may be used to identify patients who need intensive surveillance and long-term follow up, even after the clearance of HCV. In conclusion, we showed that hepatic steatosis is significantly associated with the development of HCC in chronic hepatitis C independent of age, sex, BMI, degree of fibrosis and response to previous IFN therapy. Steatosis may be a useful marker for identifying patients at higher risk for HCC. Further studies are needed to evaluate the hypothesis that therapeutic interventions aimed at reducing steatosis may prevent hepatocarcinogenesis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THIS STUDY WAS supported by a Grant-in-Aid from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Japan.

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Analysis of the Complete Open Reading Frame of Hepatitis C Virus in Genotype 2a Infection Reveals Critical Sites Influencing the Response to Peginterferon and Ribavirin Therapy.

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Short title: PEG-IFN/RBV response in HCV-2a

This study was supported in part by a grant-in-aid scientific research fund of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture number 20390206 and in part by a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of Japan (H19-kanen-002).

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Abbreviations

EVR: Early Virological response

IFN: Interferon

IRF-1: Interferon Regulatory Factor 1

IRRDR: Interferon Ribavirin Resistance Determinant Region

ISDR: Interferon Sensitivity Determinant Region

ORF: Open Reading Frame

PEG-IFN: Pegylated-Interferon

PePHD: PKR -eIF2 Phosphorylation Homology Domain

PKR-BD: Double-Stranded RNA-activated Protein Kinase Binding Domain

RBV: Ribavirin

RVR: Rapid Virological Response

SVR: Sustained Virological Response

ABSTRACT

Purpose: A proportion of patients infected with genotype 2a hepatitis C virus (HCV) cannot achieve a sustained virological response (SVR) to pegylated-interferon plus ribavirin therapy (PEG-IFN/RBV) but the reason remains unclear. The present study aimed to clarify the possible correlation between viral sequence variations and final outcome.

Methods: The pretreatment complete open reading frame (ORF) sequences of genotype 2a HCV were determined by direct sequencing for two independent groups of patients (43 patients as test; group 1 and 35 as validation; group 2), and the correlation with the final outcome was explored.

Results: Patients with SVR (n=58) and with non-SVR (n=20) differed significantly in pretreatment HCV RNA level ($p=0.002$), fibrosis score ($p=0.047$), and cumulative ribavirin dosage ($p=0.003$). By comparison of all amino acid positions in the complete HCV ORFs, threonine at amino acid (aa) 110 in the core region was remarkably frequent in SVR ($p=0.01$ for group 1, $p=0.004$ for group 2, and $p=5E-05$ for combined). A sliding window analysis revealed that the total numbers of amino acid variations within the NS5A aa 2258 to 2306 region were significantly high in SVR compared to non-SVR patients ($p=0.01$ for group 1, $p=0.006$ for group 2, and $p=0.0006$ for combined). Multivariate analyses revealed that core aa 110 ($p=0.02$), NS5A aa 2258-2306 ($p=0.03$), and cumulative ribavirin dosage ($p=0.02$) were identified as independent variables associated with the final outcome.

Conclusions: The outcome of PEG-IFN/RBV therapy is significantly influenced by variation in the core and NS5A regions in genotype 2a HCV infection.