concentration decreased to less than 10 g/dL, and was discontinued when the Hb concentration decreased to less than 8.5 g/dL. Both Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin had to be discontinued if there was a need to discontinue one of the drugs. No ferric medicine or haematopoietic growth factors, such as epoetin alpha, or granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor, were administered.

Virologic assessment and definition of virologic response

Serum HCV RNA level was quantified using the COBAS AMPLICOR HCV MONITOR test, version 2.0 (detection range 6–5000 kIU/mL; Roche Diagnostics, Branchburg, NJ, USA) and qualitatively analysed using the COBAS AMPLICOR HCV test, version 2.0 (lower limit of detection 50 IU/mL; Roche Diagnostics). Complete early virologic response (c-EVR) was defined as the absence of detectable serum HCV RNA at treatment week 12, the late virologic response (LVR) was defined as undetectable serum HCV RNA for the first time at 13–24 weeks of treatment, and the virologic response (VR) was defined as HCV RNA negativity at week 24 and week 48. SVR was defined as the absence of detectable serum HCV RNA at week 72. Patients with less than a 2-log decrease in HCV RNA level at treatment week 12 compared with the baseline had to stop treatment according to the protocol and were regarded as nonresponders. All patients with detectable serum HCV RNA at treatment week 24 were also considered to be nonresponders and were excluded from further treatment.

Assessment of drug exposure

The amounts of Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin actually taken by each patient during the full treatment period were evaluated by reviewing the medical records. The mean doses of Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin were calculated individually as averages on the basis of body weight at baseline: Peg-IFN α-2b expressed as μg/kg/week, ribavirin expressed as mg/kg/day.

Evaluation of impact of drug exposure on virologic relapse

We evaluated the relationship between the drug exposure of both drugs and relapse by two different methods, univariate and multivariate analysis for relapse and independent evaluation of both drugs for relapse according to the degree of drug exposure. The former was performed with the factors of mean administration doses of both drugs, including the factors at baseline and the timing of HCV RNA negativiation. The latter was examined by classifying Peg-IFN α-2b exposure into five categories (up to 0.6 μg/kg; from 0.6 to less than 0.9 μg/kg; from 0.9 to less than 1.2 μg/kg; from 1.2 to less than 1.5 μg/kg; from 1.5 μg/kg) and ribavirin exposure into five categories (up to 6 mg/kg; from 6 to less than 8 mg/kg; from 8 to less than 10 mg/kg; from 10 to less than 12 mg/kg; from 12 mg/kg).

Statistical analysis

Baseline data are expressed as means ± SD or median values. Virologic response was evaluated using per protocol (PP) analysis. To analyse the difference between baseline data including drug exposure and virologic response, univariate analysis using the Mann–Whitney *U*-test or chi-square test and multivariate analysis using logistic regression analysis were performed. The significance of trends in values was determined with the Mantel–Haenszel chi-square test. A two-tailed P value <0.05 was considered significant. The analysis was conducted with SPSS version 15.0J (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS

Progress of patients and dose reduction of Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin

The progress of patients in this study is shown in Fig. 1. Of the 984 patients, 903 completed 12 weeks of treatment and the c-EVR rate was 49% (445/903), based on PP study. To analyse for relapse, 472 patients with VR were assessed, with 178 (38%) showing Peg-IFN dose reduction without discontinuation and 246 (52%) with ribavirin dose reduction without discontinuation during the full (48 weeks) treatment period. The relapse rate was 26% (125/472) in the patients with undetectable HCV RNA level at the end of treatment. No difference was found in relapse rates between the IFN naïve patients and IFN experienced patients (IFN naïve; 25%, 72/287 *vs* IFN experienced; 29%, 53/185, $P = 0.40$). The SVR rate was 43% (347/812) in the PP study.

Impact of drug exposure during 0–48 weeks on relapse among patients with VR

The mean dose of Peg-IFN α-2b actually taken during the full treatment period by each patient was 1.32 μg/kg/week (range, 0.49–2.16 μg/kg/week; median, 1.38 μg/kg/week) and that of ribavirin was 9.8 mg/kg/day (range, 3.3–16.2 mg/kg/day; median, 10.1 mg/kg/day) in patients with VR.

The result of univariate analysis for relapse among the patients with VR is shown in Table 2a. The degree of fibrosis, the timing of HCV RNA negativiation, Plt value and the mean doses of ribavirin were factors significantly associated with relapse, but those of Peg-IFN α-2b were not. The mean dose of ribavirin as well as the degree of fibrosis and the timing of HCV RNA negativiation was selected as a significant independent factor by multivariate logistic regression analysis (Table 2b).

Next, we analysed the relationship of the relapse rate and the mean ribavirin dose. The overall relapse rate among patients with VR was 26% (125/472). The

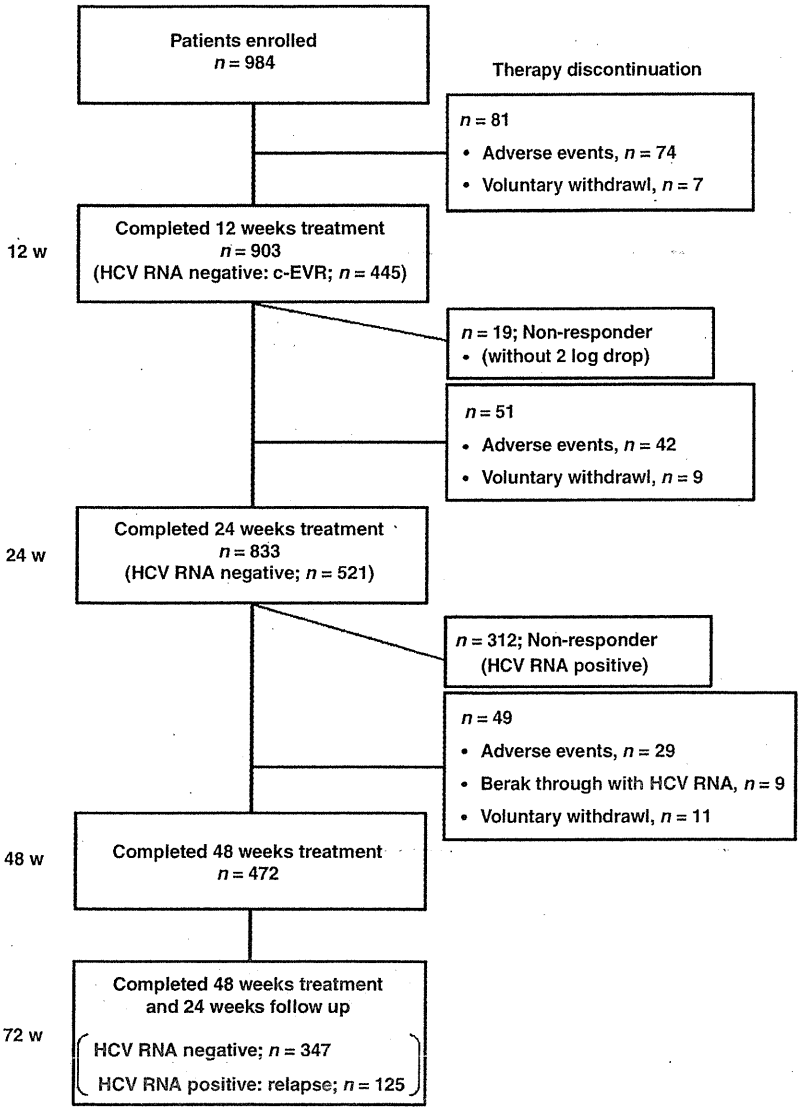

Fig. 1 Flow of patients throughout the study.

relapse rate was 60% (9/15) in patients receiving less than 6 mg/kg/day of ribavirin, and declined to 41% (32/79) at 6–8 mg/kg/day, 27% (34/124) at 8–10 mg/kg/day, 22% (43/193) at 10–12 mg/kg/day and 11% (7/61) in patients given ≥12 mg/kg/day ($P < 0.0001$). Figure 2 shows the relationship of the relapse rate and the mean ribavirin dose for two dosage groups of Peg-IFN α-2b: the group given ≥1.4 μg/kg/week of Peg-IFN and that given <1.4 μg/kg/week (1.4 μg/kg/week was the median value). In both groups, ribavirin was dose-dependently correlated with relapse. More than 12 mg/kg/day of the mean ribavirin exposure could suppress the relapse rate to 20% (4/20) in the group given <1.4 μg/kg/week and strongly suppress it to 7% (3/41) in the group given ≥1.4 μg/kg/week of Peg-IFN.

Impact of drug exposure during 0–48 weeks on relapse according to the timing of HCV RNA negativiation

Relapse rates among patients with c-EVR

The overall relapse rate among patients with c-EVR was 19% (75/391). We separately analysed the relapse rate among the patients with c-EVR according to the degree of exposure to both drugs. Table 3a shows the relapse rates among the patients with c-EVR according to the categories of Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin doses during the full treatment period. The relapse rate showed a decline according to the increase in the dose of ribavirin ($P = 0.0002$). The relapse rate was suppressed at an average of 15% (13–16%) in the patients who received 10–12 mg/kg/day of ribavirin, and the average was only 4% for those who received more than 12 mg/kg/day

Table 2 Factors associated with relapse among the patients with virologic response

(a) Univariate analysis

Factor	Nonrelapser	Relapser	*P* value
n	347	125	
Age (years)	53.9 ± 10.7	56.2 ± 9.2	0.07
Sex (male/female)	213/134	66/59	0.09
Serum HCV RNA (kIU/mL)*	1600	1800	0.34
White blood cells (/mm^3)	5335 ± 1517	5075 ± 1428	0.08
Neutrophils (/mm^3)	2797 ± 1143	2625 ± 1021	0.17
Red blood cells (×10^4/mm^3)	450 ± 45	446 ± 50	0.25
Haemoglobin (g/dL)	14.3 ± 1.4	14.2 ± 1.5	0.45
Platelets (×10^4/mm^3)	17.6 ± 5.3	16.4 ± 5.1	0.03
AST (IU/L)	60 ± 42	58 ± 33	0.75
ALT (IU/L)	75 ± 60	71 ± 50	0.98
Histology (METAVIR)†			
Fibrosis: 0–2/3–4	222/20	74/19	0.002
Activity: 0–1/2–3	140/102	52/41	0.75
Peg-IFN dose (μg/kg/week)‡	1.33 ± 0.26	1.27 ± 0.29	0.07
Ribavirin dose (mg/kg/day)‡	10.1 ± 1.9	9.1 ± 2.1	<0.001
Virologic response§: c-EVR/LVR	316/31	75/50	<0.001

(b) Multivariate analysis

Factor	Category	Odds ratio	95% CI	*P* value
Platelets	By 1 × 10^4/mm^3	–	–	NS
Fibrosis¶	0–2/3–4	1/3.192	1.515–6.725	0.002
Ribavirin dose‡	By 1 mg/kg/day	0.790	0.696–0.896	<0.001
Virologic response§	c-EVR/LVR	1/6.290	3.385–11.690	< 0.001

AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; HCV, hepatitis C virus; c-EVR, complete early virologic response; LVR, late virologic response; NS, not significant difference Peg-IFN, pegylated interferon.
*Data shown are median values. †137 missing. ‡Mean doses during 0–48 weeks. §The timing of HCV RNA negativiation. ¶METAVIR fibrosis score.

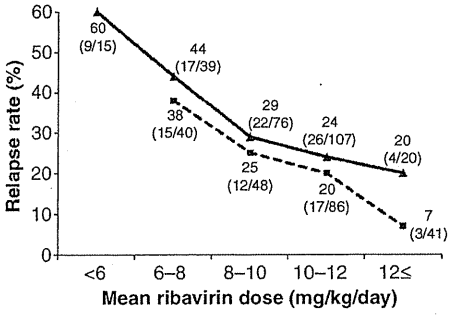

Fig. 2 Relapse rate according to Peg-IFN α-2b and ribavirin doses during treatment of patients who completed treatment, which was stratified with the mean ribavirin doses. (-▲-) Group with the mean Peg-IFN dose <1.4 μg/kg/week; (-■-) Group with the mean Peg-IFN dose ≥1.4 μg/kg/week. The ribavirin dose was dose-dependently correlated with the virologic relapse in both groups ($P < 0.0001$). There was no significant difference between the two Peg-IFN α-2b-dose groups ($P = 0.17$).

of ribavirin. In contrast, the relapse rate was not affected by the dose of Peg-IFN α-2b when the patients were given more than 0.9 μg/kg/week of Peg-IFN α-2b. On the other hand, with respect to patients with rapid virologic response (RVR) defined as the absence of detectable serum HCV RNA at treatment week 4 ($n = 41$), none showed relapse and all attained SVR irrespective of the dose of Peg-IFN α-2b or ribavirin (prevalence of patients: the mean dose of Peg-IFN α-2b; <0.9 : 0.9–1.2 : 1.2–1.5 : 1.5 μg/kg/week ≤ =7 : 17 : 34 : 42%, the mean dose of ribavirin; <8 : 8–10 : 10–12 : 12 mg/kg/day ≤ =15 : 24 : 41 : 20%).

Relapse rates among patients with LVR

Among the patients with LVR, the ribavirin exposure during treatment was also the factor correlated adversely with the relapse rate ($P = 0.03$). However, the overall relapse rate was 62% (50/81), which was much higher than that of the c-EVR patients ($P < 0.0001$) and 45% (5/11) of patients with LVR relapsed even in the group given more than 12 mg/kg/day of the average ribavirin dose (Table 3b).

Table 3 Relapse rate according to Peg-IFN and ribavirin doses during week 0–48 for patients with c-EVR and LVR who completed 48 weeks of treatment

(a) C-EVR

Peg-IFN dose (μg/kg/week)†	Ribavirin dose (mg/kg/day)*									
	12≤		10–12		8–10		<8		Total	
≥1.5	0%	(0/28)	13%	(4/31)	14%	(3/21)	29%	(5/17)	12%	(12/97)
1.2–1.5	20%	(2/10)	16%	(16/100)	25%	(16/65)	23%	(7/30)	20%	(41/205)
0.9–1.2	0%	(0/7)	13%	(2/15)	15%	(2/13)	38%	(6/16)	20%	(10/51)
<0.9	0%	(0/5)	15%	(2/13)	55%	(6/11)	44%	(4/9)	32%	(12/38)
Total	4%	(2/50)	15%	(24/159)	25%	(27/110)	31%	(22/72)	19%	(75/391)

(b) LVR

Peg-IFN dose (μg/kg/week)§	Ribavirin dose (mg/kg/day)‡									
	12≤		10–12		8–10		<8		Total	
≥1.5	43%	(3/7)	50%	(1/2)	100%	(2/2)	100%	(4/4)	67%	(10/15)
1.2–1.5		(1/1)	60%	(12/20)	29%	(2/7)	82%	(9/11)	62%	(24/39)
<1.2	33%	(1/3)	50%	(6/12)	60%	(3/5)	86%	(6/7)	59%	(16/27)
Total	45%	(5/11)	56%	(19/34)	50%	(7/14)	86%	(19/22)	62%	(50/81)

Peg-IFN, pegylated interferon; c-EVR, complete early virologic response; LVR, late virologic response.
*$P = 0.0002$ for comparison of the four ribavirin groups. †$P = 0.08$ for comparison of the four Peg-IFN groups. ‡$P = 0.03$ for comparison of the four ribavirin groups. §$P = 0.57$ for comparison of the three Peg-IFN groups.

Impact of dose reduction after week 12 on relapse among patients with c-EVR

Among c-EVR patients with no or little reduction of Peg-IFN α-2b (the average dose ≥1.2 μg/kg/week) during the first 12 weeks, no significant difference was found in the relapse rate between those whose average dose of Peg-IFN α-2b was reduced to 0.6–1.2 μg/kg/week during 12–48 weeks (17%, 7/41) and those without reduction of Peg-IFN α-2b (average dose ≥1.2 μg/kg/week) (18%, 53/295) ($P = 0.86$) (Table 4a). Reducing the dose of Peg-IFN α-2b after week 12 in patients in whom HCV RNA had already become undetectable before week 12 did not appear to adversely influence virologic relapse when the average dose of Peg-IFN α-2b was more than 0.6 μg/kg/week during 12–48 weeks, irrespective of the mean dose of Peg-IFN α-2b during the first 12 weeks. On the other hand, the ribavirin dose reduction after week 12 tended to affect the relapse rate in patients given ≥10 mg/kg/day of the ribavirin dose during the first 12 weeks (Table 4b).

Impact of drug exposure during 0–48 weeks on relapse among VR patients with advanced fibrosis

In the evaluation of the 39 patients with VR with progression of fibrosis or cirrhosis (METAVIR fibrosis score 3 or 4) enrolled in this study, ribavirin exposure during treatment significantly correlated with relapse (nonrelapser, 10.5 ± 2.1 mg/kg/day *vs* relapser, 8.8 ± 2.3 mg/kg/day; $P = 0.007$). Among patients with advanced fibrosis (score 3–4), the relapse rate in patients given ≥10 mg/kg/day of the average ribavirin dose was significantly low (36%, 9/25) in comparison with that in patients given <10 mg/kg/day of ribavirin (71%, 10/14) ($P = 0.048$).

DISCUSSION

Previous studies have suggested that reducing the ribavirin dose within the first 12–20 weeks of treatment in patients with HCV genotype 1 was associated with a decline of SVR [7,13,14]. However, Shiffman *et al.* [8] recently reported that reducing the mean dose of ribavirin during the first 20 weeks of treatment had little impact on relapse for patients with CH-C genotype 1 and that SVR may not be adversely affected as long as the total cumulative ribavirin dose remains above 60%. As the reason for the inconsistency in the impact of reducing ribavirin on the antiviral effect, it was suggested that sample sizes of the previous studies were insufficient to assess the impact of reducing the dose of ribavirin independent of Peg-IFN. However, in Shiffman's study, while the impact of reducing the dose of Peg-IFN or ribavirin on SVR was indeed closely examined independently of each other with a large sample size, the subjects were limited to patients with advanced fibrosis or cirrhosis and prior nonresponse to Peg-IFN ± ribavirin who were enrolled in the Hepatitis Antiviral Long-term Treatment Against Cirrhosis (HALT-C) trial. Reddy *et al.* [15] analysed the drug exposure retrospectively for 569 CH-C patients with genotype 1 enrolled in clinical trials of Peg-IFN α-2a plus

Table 4 Relapse rate according to drug doses during week 0–12 and 12–48 for patients with c-EVR who completed 48 weeks of treatment

(a) Peg-IFN

Peg-IFN dose (mean, μg/kg/week)		12–48 weeks ≥1.2	0.9–1.2	0.6–0.9	<0.6
0–12 weeks	≥1.2	18% (53/295)	17% (5/30)	18% (2/11)	(1/1)
	0.9–1.2	–	22% (4/18)	33% (4/12)	60% (3/5)
	<0.9	(0/1)	(0/1)	17% (2/12)	20% (1/5)
Total*		18% (53/296)	18% (9/49)	23% (8/35)	45% (5/11)

(b) Ribavirin

Ribavirin dose (mean, mg/kg/day)		12–48 weeks ≥12	10–12	8–10	<8
0–12 weeks	≥12	4% (2/47)	13% (3/23)	13% (1/8)	33% (1/3)
	10–12	–	15% (18/123)	22% (12/54)	20% (5/25)
	8–10	–	(1/1)	26% (10/38)	26% (10/39)
	<8	–	–	–	40% (12/30)
Total†		4% (2/47)	15% (22/147)	23% (23/100)	29% (28/97)

c-EVR, complete early virologic response; Peg-IFN, pegylated interferon.
*$P = 0.18$ for comparison of the four Peg-IFN groups. †$P < 0.0001$ for comparison of the four ribavirin groups.

ribavirin, and concluded that SVR was not affected adversely by ribavirin reduction unless the cumulative ribavirin exposure was less than 60%. This supported Shiffman's data, but in Reddy's study, the stepwise reduction in ribavirin dose was shown to be associated with a stepwise increase in relapse rate from 19% to 54%. Thus, the impact of ribavirin drug exposure on the antiviral effect (relapse) in patients with CH-C genotype 1 remains unclear. Further examination is needed to determine whether or not ribavirin can be reduced to a certain degree without adversely affecting virologic relapse or SVR in Peg-IFN and ribavirin combination therapy for CH-C genotype 1.

In order to raise the SVR rate in patients with genotype 1, two strategies are possible: one is enhancing the virologic response of HCV RNA negativity and another is reducing relapse. In Peg-IFN plus ribavirin treatment, raising the doses of either or both drugs (dose-up strategy) is the only way to enhance the virologic response of HCV RNA negativity, but this is always accompanied by a high risk and the discontinuation rate can increase with the dose-up of drug, although the virologic response among patients completing the therapy can be improved [16,17]. Therefore, in this study, we tried to manage the drug dose to reduce relapse in virologic responders with HCV RNA negativity. Large-scale clinical trials [1,2,9–12] have revealed that adding ribavirin to IFN or Peg-IFN monotherapy for patients with CH-C reduced the relapse rate from approximately 50% to under 20%. Bronowicki *et al.* [18] examined the effect of ribavirin on CH-C genotype 1 in Peg-IFN α-2a plus ribavirin treatment by randomizing patients with HCV RNA negativity by week 24 into two groups, one continuing with ribavirin and the other receiving Peg-IFN α-2a alone after week 24. As a result, the virologic responders who stopped ribavirin treatment at week 24 were found to have a significantly higher rate of breakthroughs during therapy and higher relapse rates after therapy in comparison with those who received Peg-IFN plus ribavirin for the full treatment period (relapse rate; 42% vs. 29%, $P = 0.02$). These findings indicate that ribavirin plays a very important role in reducing relapse. However, the relationship between ribavirin dose and relapse rate has not been examined in detail. Considering that ribavirin has little influence on HCV RNA negativiation [1,2,9–12], its dose impact on the antiviral effect should be carefully examined, not for the SVR rate of all patients, but for the relapse rate of patients responding to Peg-IFN plus ribavirin, as evaluating of ribavirin by SVR including HCV RNA negativiation cannot differentiate it from the strong influence of the Peg-IFN effect, which affects HCV RNA negativiation dose-dependently [19]. Here, we examined the correlation between the average dose of drugs and the virologic relapse for patients responding to the treatment.

We performed univariate and multivariate analysis for relapse among the factors of mean administration doses of both drugs, including baseline factors and the timing of HCV RNA negativiation. We found exposure to ribavirin dose, timing of HCV RNA negativiation and the degree of liver fibrosis to be the independent factors affecting the virologic relapse in patients with VR. This indicates that management

of the ribavirin dose, which is the variable factor, unlike baseline factors, plays an important role in suppressing the virologic relapse in patients with CH-C genotype 1 treated by Peg-IFN plus ribavirin treatment. This suggests that maintaining the ribavirin dose should lower the relapse rate even in patients with advanced fibrosis who are liable to relapse. In fact, among patients with advanced fibrosis (METAVIR score 3–4), the relapse rate in those given ≥10 mg/kg/day of the average ribavirin dose was significantly lower than that in patients given <10 mg/kg/day of ribavirin (36% vs. 71%). However, the sample size was too small for subsequent analysis with stratification. Further study is needed to clarify the impact of ribavirin dose on viral relapse in patients with progression of fibrosis.

The relapse rate among patients with c-EVR showed a decline according to the increase in ribavirin dose during treatment week 0–48 and was not affected by the Peg-IFN α-2b dose when the patients were given more than 0.9 μg/kg/week of Peg-IFN α-2b. Among the patients with c-EVR, none with RVR had a relapse and all attained SVR irrespective of the dose of Peg-IFN α-2b or ribavirin. Examination of the impact of dose reduction after week 12 on relapse among patients with c-EVR showed that the ribavirin dose reduction after week 12 tended to affect the relapse rate in patients given ≥10 mg/kg/day of the ribavirin dose during the first 12 weeks, while the Peg-IFN α-2b dose after week 12 could be reduced without any increase in relapse rate in patients given more than 0.6 μg/kg/week of the average dose of Peg-IFN α-2b. On the other hand, maintaining the ribavirin did not lead to reduce the relapse rate in patients with LVR. About half relapsed even when given ≥12 mg/kg/day of the average ribavirin dose. This suggested that the relapse rate could not be reduced by management of the ribavirin dose in patients with LVR. Extended therapy should be chosen in LVR patients as shown in the previous studies [20–23].

Shiffman *et al.* [24] recently reported that maintaining the Hb level with epoetin alpha did not enhance SVR if ribavirin was started at the standard dose (800–1400 mg/day, mean dose 13.3 mg/kg/day), although discontinuance and the reduction rates of ribavirin were decreased and a higher mean dose of ribavirin was administered in comparison with those treated with Peg-IFN plus ribavirin without epoetin. If these findings apply to patients with CH-C genotype 1, this would suggest that the ribavirin dose does not need to be maintained during treatment with Peg-IFN plus ribavirin, which would not agree with our findings. However, closer examination of the Shiffman *et al.* study shows that Peg-IFN plus a higher dose of ribavirin (1000–1600 mg/day, mean dose 15.2 mg/kg/day) with epoetin was found to suppress the relapse rate and enhance SVR. These data agree with ours with respect to the point that higher doses of ribavirin are associated with a lower relapse rate. What differs is the ribavirin dose needed to suppress the relapse. This is likely to be due to ethnic differences between the subjects. In Shiffman's study, approximately 40% were African-Americans in whom the virologic response is well established as being significantly lower than those of other ethnic groups [25,26], while in our study, all subjects were Japanese. In the African-Americans treated with Peg-IFN plus standard-dose ribavirin, the relapse rate (calculated from 48% of ETR and 19% of SVR) was 60%, while 18% relapse (from 38% of ETR and 31% of SVR) occurred in those given Peg-IFN plus high-dose ribavirin. The relapse rate of patients with c-EVR in our study was 19%, which was very close to that for those with Peg-IFN plus high-dose ribavirin in Shiffman's study. Ribavirin does not have a direct antiviral action against HCV [27,28], and is considered to play an important role in accelerating HCV-infected cell clearance [29] and eradicating them completely when an immune response against infected cells is induced by IFN or Peg-IFN [30,31]. Therefore, the difference between patients who are easy or difficult to treat due to ethnic differences or differences in response to Peg-IFN can result in the need for different doses of ribavirin to suppress the relapse rate in patients with CH-C genotype 1.

In conclusion, our results have demonstrated that ribavirin is dose-dependently correlated with a relapse in patients with CH-C genotype 1 responding to Peg-IFN plus ribavirin. Maintaining a high dose (≥12 mg/kg/day) of ribavirin during the full treatment period could strongly suppress the relapse in such patients, while Peg-IFN α-2b could be reduced without affecting relapse in patients with c-EVR. This possibility should be explored in a prospective study.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Factors contributing to antiviral effect of adefovir dipivoxil therapy added to ongoing lamivudine treatment in patients with lamivudine-resistant chronic hepatitis B

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Abstract
Purpose The antiviral effect of adefovir dipivoxil (ADV) added to ongoing lamivudine (LAM) treatment for LAM-resistant chronic hepatitis B (CHB) differs among patients. We investigated clinical factors affecting the response to ADV therapy in LAM-resistant CHB.
Methods The subjects were 75 LAM-resistant CHB patients treated with ADV in addition to LAM. Virological response (VR) was defined as HBV DNA clearance (<2.6 logcopies/ml) at 12 months after the start of ADV therapy. Clinical factors contributing to VR were examined by univariate and multivariate analyses.
Results Lower HBV DNA at baseline and negative hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) were significant factors affecting VR in univariate analysis. In multivariate analysis, lower HBV DNA at baseline ($P = 0.005$), negative HBeAg ($P = 0.009$), and higher ALT ($P = 0.036$) were significant independent factors contributing to VR. In HBeAg-positive patients, HBV DNA clearance was more frequently observed during ADV therapy in patients with baseline HBV DNA ≤7.0 logcopies/ml than in those with baseline HBV DNA >7.0 logcopies/ml. By contrast, the link of lower HBV DNA at baseline to better therapeutic response was not evident in HBeAg-negative patients.

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Conclusion In ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment for LAM-resistant CHB, lower baseline HBV DNA and negative HBeAg contributed to a better antiviral effect. Addition of ADV should be done promptly before marked increase in HBV DNA, especially in CHB patients showing LAM resistance positive for HBeAg.

Keywords Adefovir dipivoxil · Lamivudine resistance · Chronic hepatitis B

Introduction

More than 350 million people worldwide are chronically infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV) [1]. Chronic HBV infection can cause liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), resulting in hepatic disease-related deaths of 500,000 to 1.2 million persons [2, 3]. To prevent disease progression and improve the prognosis of patients with chronic HBV infection, HBV DNA replication must be continuously suppressed as much as possible by antiviral therapy. For this purpose, nucleos(t)ide analogs are currently used for a wide range of patients with chronic HBV infection because of their strong antiviral activities and fewer side effects.

Lamivudine (LAM) is the first approved nucleos(t)ide analog for chronic hepatitis B (CHB) patients, but the increasing incidence of LAM resistance during long-term LAM therapy is a serious problem. The emergence rate of the LAM-resistant virus has been reported to be 24% at 1 year and 70% at 4 years of treatment [4]. Almost all LAM resistance is caused by rtM204V/I mutation occurring in the reverse transcriptase domain of the HBV polymerase gene [5].

To counteract this resistance, adefovir dipivoxil (ADV) was considered as it exerts antiviral effects not only on nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CHB patients but also on LAM-resistant ones [6–9]. ADV-resistant mutation has been reported to be detected in 11% of patients at 3 years and 29% at 5 years for nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CHB patients [10]. ADV resistance results from rtA181V/T and/or rtN236T mutation [10]. Either switching from LAM to ADV or adding ADV to LAM has been shown to be effective for LAM-resistant CHB patients. In the case of switching from LAM to ADV, ADV resistance has been reported to appear in 18% of patients at 1 year, which is more frequent than in the case of ADV monotherapy for nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve patients [11]. On the other hand, in the case of ADV administration in addition to LAM, the emergence of resistant virus for both LAM and ADV has been reported to be rare for at least 3 years of treatment [12]. Therefore, ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment is currently accepted as the main therapeutic regimen for LAM-resistant CHB patients rather than a switch from LAM to ADV. However, the antiviral effect of ADV therapy in addition to LAM treatment differs among patients with LAM-resistant CHB.

In this study, we investigated clinical factors influencing the therapeutic efficacy of ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment in LAM-resistant CHB patients.

Patients and methods

Patients

The participating centers were 12 institutions in the Osaka area of Japan (Otemae Hospital, Sumitomo Hospital, Osaka Police Hospital, NTT Nishinihon Osaka Hospital, Higashiosaka City General Hospital, Suita Municipal Hospital, Osaka Rousai Hospital, Kinki Central Hospital, Ikeda Municipal Hospital, National Hospital Organization Osaka National Hospital, Itami City Hospital, and Osaka University Hospital). The subjects were 75 consecutive CHB patients showing LAM resistance. Before the preceding LAM therapy, they all had had hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) for more than 6 months and levels of HBV DNA detectable by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method [13]. None of them tested positive for hepatitis C virus antibody or human immunodeficiency virus antibody, nor was there evidence of other forms of liver diseases, such as alcoholic liver disease, drug-induced liver disease, or autoimmune hepatitis.

Anti-HBV treatment

All patients were administered 100 mg of LAM daily. Thirteen (17%) patients had had a history of interferon (IFN) therapy. LAM resistance was judged by detection of rtM204V/I mutation (for 37 patients) or by the existence of virological breakthrough (for 38 patients). Virological breakthrough was defined as the reappearance of detectable HBV DNA of more than 1 log increase in HBV DNA from the nadir on repeated occasions. The median duration of the preceding LAM therapy was 38 (range, 11–83) months. After the emergence of LAM resistance, all patients received 10 mg of ADV daily in addition to ongoing LAM therapy. After the commencement of ADV therapy, liver function and HBV DNA tests were conducted monthly for the first 6 months and every 2 months thereafter. Hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and antibody to HBeAg (anti-HBe) were checked every 2 months. The median follow-up duration of ADV therapy was 22 (range 12–51) months. HBV DNA clearance (<2.6 logcopies/ml) at 12 months after the beginning of ADV therapy was defined as a virological response (VR).

Baseline characteristics of the patients

The baseline characteristics of the patients at the commencement of ADV therapy were as follows. They were 59 males and 16 females, with a median age of 54 (range 27–79) years. Forty-one (55%) tested positive for HBeAg, and anti-HBe developed in 34 patients. The virus was genotyped for 13 patients, all of whom were infected with HBV of genotype C. The HBV DNA ranged from 3.1 to >7.6 (median 7.1) logcopies/ml, and the median ALT level ranged from 15 to 500 (median 105) IU/L. The median levels of total bilirubin and albumin were 0.8 (range 0.4–3.9) mg/dl and 3.9 (range 2.1–4.8) g/dl, respectively. The median platelet counts were 11.7 (range 3.5–25.5) $\times$ 10^4/mm^3. Of the 75 patients, 27 (36%) showed features of cirrhosis by liver biopsy and/or imaging procedures. Five patients (7%) developed HCC as detected by imaging modalities.

HBV testings

HBsAg, HBeAg, and anti-HBe were examined by chemiluminescent immunoassay. HBV DNA was measured by the PCR-based method (Amplicor HBV monitor, Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) [13], with a lower detection limit of 2.6 logcopies/ml. The LAM-resistant rtM204V/I mutation was examined by PCR-enzyme-linked minisequence assay [14]. HBV genotype was determined based on PCR-direct sequencing of portions of core and polymerase genes. The primers used for this study were BF1s (5′-TTT TTC ACC TCT GCC TAA TCA-3′, nt 1821–1841), BR3 (5′-TTC CCG AGA TTG AGA TCT TC-3′, nt 2440–2421), BF6 (5′-CCT CCA ATT TGT CCT GGC TA-3′, nt 350–369), and BR8 (5′-TTG CGT CAG CAA ACA CTT GG-3′, nt 1195–1176) [15, 16].

Statistical analysis

Group comparisons were carried out by the chi-square test, Student's t test and Mann–Whitney's U test. Independent factors contributing to VR during ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment were estimated using multivariate multiple logistic regression analysis in combination with stepwise regression analysis. A P-value of less than 0.05 (two-tailed) was considered to indicate a significant difference. All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS version 15.0J software (SPSS, Chicago, IL).

Results

Virological and biochemical response to ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM in CHB patients showing LAM resistance

Of the 75 CHB patients showing LAM resistance who underwent ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment, HBV DNA clearance was achieved in 29 (39%) of 75 at 6 months, 35 (47%) of 75 at 12 months, and 34 (72%) of 47 at 24 months. Among the HBeAg-positive patients, HBeAg loss was observed in 8 (20%) of 41 at 6 months, 7 (18%) of 39 at 12 months, and 6 (22%) of 27 at 24 months. As for the biochemical response, ALT normalization ($\leq$40 IU/l) was seen in 57 (76%) of 75 at 6 months, 56 (75%) of 75 at 12 months, and 40 (85%) of 47 at 24 months of treatment.

Pretreatment clinical factors associated with therapeutic response to ADV in addition to LAM treatment

We first investigated pretreatment clinical factors associated with the therapeutic efficacy of ADV added to ongoing LAM treatment by univariate analysis. The baseline characteristics of patients at the beginning of ADV therapy in addition to LAM in the presence or absence of VR are shown in Table 1. Patients showing VR had significantly lower HBV DNA at baseline than patients who did not achieve VR [median 6.3 (range 3.1 to >7.6) vs. 7.3

Table 1 Patient clinical characteristics at the beginning of ADV therapy in addition to LAM in LAM-resistant CHB patients in the presence or absence of virological response (VR)

Clinical characteristics	VR (n = 35)	Non-VR (n = 40)	P value
Gender (male/female)	26/9	33/7	0.386
Age (years)	52 (28–67)	55 (27–79)	0.896
Duration of prior LAM therapy (months)	38 (12–83)	37 (13–64)	0.856
Positive HBeAg	12 (34%)	29 (73%)	0.001
HBV DNA (logcopies/ml)	6.3 (3.1 to >7.6)	7.3 (3.9 to >7.6)	0.002
ALT (IU/l)	106 (16–500)	75 (15–455)	0.136
Total bilirubin (mg/dl)	0.9 (0.4–3.9)	0.7 (0.4–3.9)	0.664
Albumin (g/dl)	4.0 (2.4–4.8)	3.8 (2.1–4.6)	0.351
Platelet count ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)	12.2 (4.8–24.1)	11.5 (3.5–25.5)	0.854
Liver disease (chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis)	20/15	28/12	0.247
Presence of HCC (%)	2 (6%)	3 (8%)	0.757

Continuous variables are expressed as median (range)

Table 2 Baseline factors affecting virological response (logistic regression analysis, stepwise method)

Factors	Category	Odds ratio	95% CI	*P*
Gender	Male/female			NS
Age (years)	By 1 year			NS
Duration of prior LAM therapy (months)	By 1 month			NS
HBeAg	Negative/positive	5.766	1.855–36.62	0.009
HBV DNA (logcopies/ml)	By 1 logcopy/ml	2.362	1.335–5.178	0.005
ALT (IU/l)	By 1 IU/l	1.006	1.000–1.011	0.036
Total bilirubin (mg/dl)	By 1 mg/dl			NS
Albumin (g/dl)	By 1 g/dl			NS
Platelet count ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)	By 1 $\times 10^4$/mm^3			NS
Liver disease	Chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis			NS
Presense of HCC (%)	No/yes			NS

CI Confidence interval, *NS* not significant

(range 3.9 to >7.6), $P = 0.002$]. HBeAg was detected in only 12 (34%) of 35 patients with VR, compared with 29 (73%) of 40 patients without VR ($P = 0.001$). Gender ratio, age, duration of preceding LAM therapy, ALT, total bilirubin, albumin, platelet counts, disease severity, and presence of HCC did not differ between VR and non-VR patients.

Factors affecting the therapeutic response to ADV therapy in addition to ongoing LAM were also evaluated by multivariate analysis (Table 2). Eleven pretreatment clinical factors were applied to the analysis as variables. Two factors, lower baseline HBV DNA ($P = 0.005$, odds ratio: 2.362, 95% confidence interval: 1.335–5.178) and negative HBeAg ($P = 0.009$, odds ratio: 5.766, 95% confidence interval: 1.855–36.62), were selected as significant independent factors affecting VR, as was the case for univariate analysis. In addition, higher baseline ALT was also chosen as a significant independent factor ($P = 0.036$, odds ratio 1.006, 95% confidence interval: 1.000–1.011). As for the biochemical response to ADV therapy added to LAM, no pretreatment clinical factors showed a significant relationship with the occurrence of ALT normalization in our 75 LAM-resistant CHB patients.

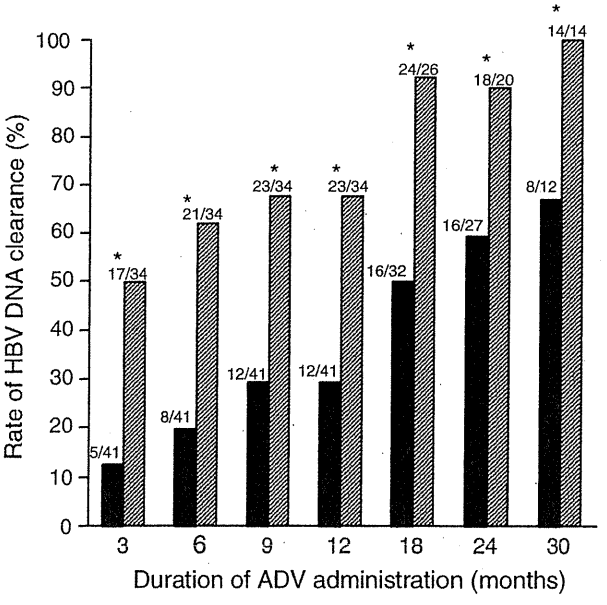

Fig. 1 Rates of HBV DNA clearance in CHB patients positive or negative for HBeAg during ADV therapy in addition to LAM. *$P < 0.05$ between HBeAg-positive and HBeAg-negative patients. *Solid bars* HBeAg-positive patients, *hatched bars* HBeAg-negative patients

HBV DNA clearance during ADV therapy in addition to ongoing LAM treatment according to HBeAg status

Next, we investigated HBV DNA clearance during ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment in LAM-resistant CHB patients positive or negative for HBeAg (Fig. 1). In HBeAg-positive patients, HBV DNA was cleared in 8 (20%) of 41 at 6 months, 12 (29%) of 41 at 12 months, and 16 (59%) of 27 at 24 months. On the other hand, HBV DNA clearance was seen in 21 (62%) of 34 at 6 months, 23 (68%) of 34 at 12 months, and 18 (90%) of 20 at 24 months in HBeAg-negative patients. A significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in the frequency of HBV DNA clearance was observed between HBeAg-positive and HBeAg-negative patients at 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, and 30 months of treatment. Thus, patients negative for HBeAg tended to respond to ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment better than those positive for it in LAM-resistant CHB.

HBV DNA clearance during ADV therapy in addition to ongoing LAM treatment in relation to HBeAg status and baseline HBV DNA

We examined HBV DNA clearance during ADV therapy in addition to ongoing LAM treatment in HBeAg-positive and

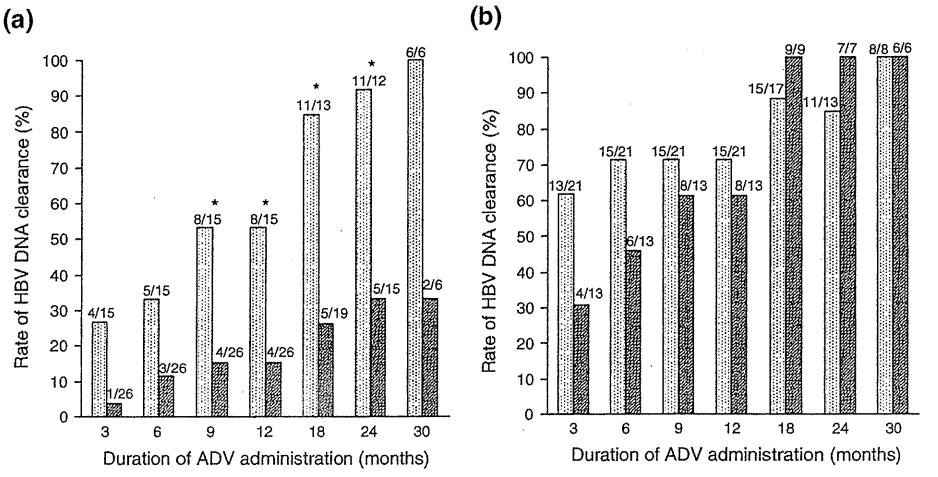

Fig. 2 Rates of HBV DNA clearance during ADV therapy in addition to LAM according to HBV DNA at baseline in **a** HBeAg-positive CHB patients and **b** HBeAg-negative CHB patients. *$P < 0.05$ between patients with low (≤7.0 logcopies/ml) and high (>7.0 logcopies/ml) HBV DNA. *Dotted bars* Patients with HBV DNA ≤7.0 logcopies/ml at baseline, *hatched bars* patients with HBV DNA >7.0 logcopies/ml at baseline

HBeAg-negative CHB patients in relation to baseline HBV DNA. In the case of HBeAg-positive CHB patients (Fig. 2a), the rates of HBV DNA clearance were 33% (5/15) at 6 months, 53% (8/15) at 12 months, and 92% (11/12) at 24 months in patients with low viremia (baseline HBV DNA ≤7.0 logcopies/ml). By contrast, the frequencies of HBV DNA clearance were only in 12% (3/26) at 6 months, 15% (4/26) at 12 months, and 33% (5/15) at 24 months in patients with high viremia (baseline HBV DNA >7.0 logcopies/ml). A significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in the frequency of HBV DNA clearance was observed between patients with low and high viremia at 9, 12, 18, and 24 months of treatment. In the case of HBeAg-negative patients (Fig. 2b), the rates of HBV DNA clearance were 71% (15/21) at 6 months, 71% (15/21) at 12 months, and 85% (11/13) at 24 months in patients with low viremia (baseline HBV DNA ≤7.0 logcopies/ml). The frequencies of HBV DNA clearance were 46% (6/13) at 6 months, 62% (8/13) at 12 months, and 100% (7/7) at 24 months in patients with high viremia (baseline HBV DNA >7.0 logcopies/ml). No significant differences were observed in the frequency of HBV DNA clearance between patients with low and high viremia. According to these findings, the relevance of lower baseline HBV DNA for achieving a better antiviral effect was evident only in HBeAg-positive patients, but not in HBeAg-negative ones in ADV therapy added to LAM treatment for LAM-resistant CHB.

Discussion

This study investigated factors affecting the antiviral efficacy of ADV therapy added to ongoing LAM treatment in LAM-resistant CHB patients. Therapeutic efficacy was assessed as the presence or absence of VR. Both univariate and multivariate analyses revealed that lower baseline HBV DNA and negative HBeAg were strong factors associated with a better therapeutic response. Another significant factor revealed by multivariate analysis was high ALT, although it was weaker than the other two factors. In previous investigations, female gender, lower baseline HBV DNA, negative HBeAg, higher ALT, and genotype D rather than A have been reported to contribute to better VRs to ADV therapy in nucleos(t)ide-naïve and LAM-resistant CHB patients [17–21]. Our results agreed partially with them. The present study, as well as previous studies [18, 19], also revealed that a high baseline ALT may be a determining factor for a better response to ADV therapy in addition to LAM treatment in LAM-resistant CHB. This may be because the host immune response against viral antigens induced by active breakthrough hepatitis has a favorable antiviral effect during ADV therapy. In this study, however, a low baseline viremic level was shown to be a stronger factor than high baseline ALT. The baseline ALT level was the third factor contributing to VR. Therefore, in LAM-resistant CHB, ADV administration should be started before the flare-up of ALT elevation, especially in patients with severe liver disease such as cirrhosis.

In LAM-resistant patients, the HBV DNA level is low during the initial phase, but increases with time, leading to the onset of breakthrough hepatitis. Thus, in ADV therapy added to LAM treatment for LAM-resistant-CHB, the baseline HBV DNA level varies with the observation period after the emergence of LAM resistance. A previous report on Italian HBeAg-negative CHB patients showing LAM resistance revealed that patients with low viremia and normal ALT tended to respond to ADV therapy in addition to LAM treatment better than those with high viremia and abnormal ALT [17]. In the present study conducted in Japan, a genotype C-endemic area, such a close relationship between lower baseline HBV DNA and better therapeutic response was remarkable in

HBeAg-positive patients but not in HBeAg-negative ones. Our finding suggests that, in LAM-resistant CHB, ADV should be added before the HBV DNA begins to increase markedly, especially in HBeAg-positive patients.

In this study, none of the 75 patients showed virological breakthrough after the beginning of ADV administration. All displayed more than 1 log reduction of HBV DNA at 12 months of ADV treatment. This indicates that our patients may not have produced viruses resistant to both LAM and ADV. The emergence of resistant viruses has been reported to be rare in combination therapy using LAM and ADV for LAM-resistant CHB patients, although recent studies have found the existence of a virus resistant to both drugs [22, 23]. The rtA181V/T/S mutation has been reported to confer cross resistance to LAM and ADV [22, 23]. In ADV monotherapy for nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CHB patients, the absence of HBV DNA reduction to <4 logcopies/ml at 24 weeks of treatment has been reported to be related to the higher emergence of a ADV-resistant virus [24], as is the case in LAM monotherapy [25]. In ADV therapy added to LAM treatment in LAM-resistant CHB patients, the poor response during the initial phase may lead to the development of virus resistance to LAM and ADV as well. From this point of view, the addition of ADV to ongoing LAM treatment before the elevation of HBV DNA may be beneficial in LAM-resistant CHB patients to avoid the development of a multi-drug-resistant virus. Recently, some investigators have reported that tenofovir disoproxil fumarate is effective against a virus resistant to both LAM and ADV [22, 23], but it has not yet been approved for clinical use.

Our results conclusively showed that, with ADV therapy added to LAM treatment for LAM-resistant CHB patients, lower baseline HBV DNA and negative HBeAg contributed to a better antiviral effect. After the emergence of LAM resistance, ADV should be added before the marked elevation of HBV DNA in order to attain better antiviral efficacy, especially in HBeAg-positive patients.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment in type B chronic hepatitis patients without evidence of lamivudine resistance

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Abstract
Purpose A considerable number of chronic hepatitis B (CH-B) patients remain under continuous lamivudine treatment, although switching treatment to entecavir could be beneficial. We investigated the antiviral efficacy of switching treatment to entecavir in CH-B patients without apparent evidence of lamivudine resistance during the preceding lamivudine treatment.
Methods Forty-four CH-B patients, who underwent lamivudine treatment for more than 6 months and showed no evidence of lamivudine resistance, switched to entecavir. Serial changes in hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA were correlated with the patients' baseline HBV DNA at the commencement of entecavir administration. The entecavir-resistant substitution was examined by PCR-direct sequencing. The median follow-up period of entecavir treatment was 20 (10–23) months.
Results All 31 patients with baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml maintained HBV DNA-negative status during entecavir treatment. Of seven patients having HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml, all achieved undetectable HBV DNA at the end of follow-up. As for six patients having HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml, three patients achieved undetectable HBV DNA, whereas virological breakthrough was observed in one patient at month 15. An entecavir-resistant virus having rtM204V, rtL180M and rtS202G substitutions was detected in this patient.
Conclusions The lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment may be generally recommendable in CH-B patients without evidence of lamivudine resistance during

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the preceding lamivudine treatment. However, great care should be taken with respect to the emergence of entecavir-resistance, especially in patients who do not respond well to the preceding lamivudine treatment.

Keywords Chronic hepatitis B · Lamivudine resistance · Entecavir-resistance

Introduction

Nucleos(t)ide analogs have been accepted as useful agents for suppressing hepatitis B virus (HBV) replication and disease progression in patients with type B chronic hepatitis (CH-B). Lamivudine, the first approved nucleoside analog, has been shown to provide short-term benefit for CH-B patients with respect to the reduction of HBV DNA, normalization of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and improvement of liver histology [1, 2]. However, a serious shortcoming of lamivudine is the high incidence of drug resistance during long-term treatment. The detection rate of lamivudine resistance has been reported to be 24% at 1 year and 70% at 4 years of treatment [3]. Lamivudine resistance is caused by an rtM204V/I substitution within the reverse transcriptase domain of HBV polymerase gene [4–6]. An rtL180M substitution frequently emerges as a "replication-compensatory" one with the "resistance-causative" rtM204V/I substitution [4–7]. The emergence of lamivudine-resistant mutant HBV leads to the elevation of HBV DNA ("virological breakthrough") and the subsequent increase of ALT ("breakthrough hepatitis"), resulting in disease progression. Adefovir dipivoxil and tenofovir disoproxil fumarate have been shown to be effective in both nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve and lamivudine-resistant CH-B patients [8–13].

Recently, entecavir has been demonstrated to exert antiviral efficacy in both nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve and lamivudine-refractory CH-B patients [14–16]. The frequency of entecavir-resistance has been reported to be less than 1% at 4 years of treatment in nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CH-B patients [17]. On the other hand, in switching treatment to entecavir for lamivudine-refractory CH-B patients, most of whom developed lamivudine resistance during the preceding lamivudine therapy, the cumulative probability of entecavir-resistance has been reported to be no less than 40% at 4 years of treatment [17]. Entecavir-resistance has been shown to be established by amino acid substitution(s) at rt184, rt202 and/or rt250 along with the lamivudine-resistant rtM204V and rtL180M substitutions [18]. In the case of nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve patients, the requirement of at least three amino acid substitutions serves as a high genetic barrier to entecavir-resistance. By contrast, in the case of lamivudine-resistant patients, a lower genetic barrier results in higher incidence of entecavir-resistance because two amino acid substitutions, rtM204V and rtL180M, already exist from the preceding lamivudine treatment. The reduced susceptibility to entecavir of the lamivudine-resistant virus compared with the wild-type virus is also a reason for the higher emergence rate of entecavir-resistance in lamivudine-resistant patients than in nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve ones [19].

Although lamivudine is not currently recommended as a first-line drug for nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CH-B, a considerable number of CH-B patients are under continuous treatment with lamivudine. In these patients, the switch to entecavir treatment could be advantageous over continuation of lamivudine treatment by offering stronger antiviral efficacy and less chance of drug resistance. With respect to the manner of emergence of entecavir-resistance, switching a patient's treatment may be more appropriate before the appearance of lamivudine resistance than after its development. However, the usefulness of lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment has not been assessed in CH-B patients without apparent evidence of lamivudine resistance.

This led us to investigate the antiviral efficacy and emergence of entecavir-resistance in CH-B patients who showed no evidence of lamivudine resistance during the preceding lamivudine treatment and underwent the switching treatment to entecavir.

Patients and methods

Patients

This study included 44 consecutive CH-B patients from 10 institutions in the Osaka area of Japan (Otemae Hospital, Sumitomo Hospital, Osaka Police Hospital, Suita Municipal Hospital, Yao Municipal Hospital, Osaka Rousai Hospital, Ikeda Municipal Hospital, National Hospital Organization Osaka National Hospital, Itami City Hospital and Osaka University Hospital) who underwent continuous lamivudine treatment (100 mg/day) for more than 6 months and showed no apparent evidence of lamivudine resistance. Before starting the preceding lamivudine treatment, all patients had abnormal ALT, positive hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and a detectable level of HBV DNA according to PCR-based assay (Amplicor HB Monitor, Roche Diagnostics) or branched DNA assay (Quantiplex HBV DNA, Chiron). None of them showed evidence of dual infection with hepatitis C virus or human immunodeficiency virus, or other forms of liver diseases such as alcoholic liver disorder, autoimmune hepatitis and drug-induced liver injury. The total duration of the preceding lamivudine treatment ranged from 6 to 73 (median, 14)

months. The absence of lamivudine resistance was defined by no detection of the rtM204V/I substitution as measured by the PCR–enzyme linked minisequence assay (ELMA) (Sumitomo Metal Industries) [20] for 33 patients, or by the lack of virological breakthrough as judged by more than 1 log increment in HBV DNA from the nadir for the remaining 11 patients. All of the 44 patients switched to 0.5 mg/day of entecavir administration. After the beginning of entecavir treatment, liver function tests and HBV markers were measured at 1- to 2-month intervals. When virological breakthrough was observed during follow-up, entecavir-resistance-associated mutations were examined by means of a PCR-direct sequencing method. The follow-up period of entecavir treatment ranged from 10 to 23 (median 20) months.

Baseline characteristics of the patients

At the commencement of switching treatment to entecavir, the 28 males and 16 females were aged 33–79 (median 59) years. Seventeen patients (39%) tested positive for hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg), and antibody against HBeAg (anti-HBe) developed in all of the 27 HBeAg-negative patients. Among the 27 HBeAg-negative patients, four achieved HBeAg clearance during the preceding lamivudine treatment. HBV DNA at baseline varied among patients from <2.6 to 5.2 logcopies/ml. The baseline ALT ranged from 11 to 78 (median 25) IU/l. Regarding the liver diseases of the patients, 27 (61%) showed features of chronic hepatitis, 11 (25%) of liver cirrhosis and six (14%) of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) according to liver biopsy and/or abdominal imaging procedures. HBV genotype was examined for 14 patients, and all of them had HBV genotype C, the most predominant genotype in Japan. Informed consent was obtained from all patients.

Serological and virological markers of HBV

HBsAg, HBeAg and anti-HBe were determined by chemiluminescent immunoassay. HBV DNA was measured by the PCR-based method (Amplicor HBV monitor, Roche Diagnostics) whose lower detection limit is 2.6 logcopies/ml. Lamivudine-resistant rtM204V/I substitution was examined by the PCR–ELMA method (Sumitomo Metal Industries) (20), which is capable of detecting the mutant virus in a mixed viral population if it is present at more than 10% of the total population. The entecavir-resistance-associated substitutions and HBV genotype were determined by a PCR-direct sequencing method. As for oligonucleotide primers for PCR reaction, the outer primer sets were BF5 (5′-AAG AGA CAG TCA TCC TCA GG-3′, nt 3183–3202) and BR1s (5′-AAA AAG TTG CAT GGT GCT GG-3′, nt 1825–1806), and the inner primer sets were BF6 (5′-CCT CCA ATT TGT CCT GGC TA-3′, nt 350–369) and BR8 (5′-TTG CGT CAG CAA ACA CTT GG-3′, nt 1195–1176). After DNA extraction, the DNA sample was subjected to the PCR reaction for 35 cycles (denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 55°C for 1 min and extension at 72°C for 2 min) using the inner primer set, followed by a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. If amplification was not successful by the single PCR reaction, the nested PCR was conducted; the first round PCR was done using the outer primer sets for 35 cycles, and the aliquot of the product was used for the second round PCR for 30 cycles using inner primer sets. All sequencing reactions of the PCR products were carried out using the BigDye Terminater Ver. 3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit, and 3100 or 3730 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems), which allowed determination of the amino acid sequences of rt85-344. For determining the HBV genotype, nucleotide sequences obtained in each of the patients were aligned along with representative HBV strains of genotype A–H, and a phylogenetic tree was constructed in the homepage of DNA Data Bank of Japan (http://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis for group comparison was performed by Fisher's exact probability test and Mann–Whitney's non-parametric U test using the SPSS version 15.0J software (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL). A p value of less than <.05 was considered to be significant.

Results

Classification of patients who underwent lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment according to baseline HBV DNA

The 44 CH-B patients who underwent the switching treatment from lamivudine to entecavir were first classified according to their baseline HBV DNA at the commencement of entecavir administration. HBV DNA was not detectable (<2.6 logcopies/ml) in 31 patients (70%) at baseline. Seven patients (16%) had baseline HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml. In the remaining six patients (14%), the baseline HBV DNA was ≥4.0 logcopies/ml. When patient clinical characteristics were compared among the three patient groups (Table 1), nine (29%) of the 31 patients with baseline HBV DNA <2.6 copies/ml tested positive for HBeAg at the commencement of switching treatment to entecavir, compared with five of the six (83%) patients with baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 copies/ml ($p < .05$). Gender ratio, age, ALT at baseline, liver disease, duration of the preceding lamivudine treatment and

Table 1 Patient clinical characteristics and the therapeutic efficacy in 44 CH-B patients in relation to their baseline HBV DNA

	Baseline HBV DNA		
	<2.6 logcopies/ml ($n = 31$)	2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml ($n = 7$)	≥4.0 logcopies/ml ($n = 6$)
At the commencement of switching treatment to entecavir			
Gender (male/female)	19/12	5/2	4/2
Age (years)	60 (35–79)[a]	65 (41–69)	55 (33–65)
HBeAg (positive/negative)	9/22	3/4	5/1[b]
HBV DNA (logcopies/ml)	<2.6	3.1 (2.6–3.6)[c]	4.6 (4.0–5.2)[c,d]
rtM204V/I mutation (absence/NT)	23/8	5/2	5/1
ALT (IU/l)	25 (11–64)	31 (13–46)	20 (17–78)
Chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis/HCC	19/7/5	4/2/1	4/2/0
Follow-up period of entecavir treatment (months)	19 (10–23)	19 (10–22)	20 (16–22)
The rate of undetectable HBV DNA level during follow-up	31 (100%)	7 (100%)	3 (50%)[c]
Emergence of entecavir-resistance during follow-up	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (17%)
At the commencement of preceding lamivudine treatment			
HBeAg (positive/negative)	12/19	4/3	5/1
HBV DNA (logcopies/ml)	6.5 (4.3–7.6‹)	6.6 (6.2–7.6‹)	7.6‹ (5.9–7.6‹)
Duration of preceding lamivudine treatment (months)	15 (6–73)	10 (7–42)	9 (8–32)

NT not tested

[a] Values are expressed as median (range)

[b] $p < .05$ versus baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml group

[c] $p < .01$ versus baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml group

[d] $p < .01$ versus baseline HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml group

follow-up period of entecavir treatment did not differ among the three groups. Also, there was no significant difference in HBV DNA and the frequency of positive HBeAg at the commencement of preceding lamivudine treatment among them.

Antiviral efficacy and drug resistance in lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment in relation to baseline HBV DNA

Next, we investigated serial changes in HBV DNA after the switch from lamivudine to entecavir treatment in CH-B patients in relation to the baseline HBV DNA. All 31 patients with baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml maintained undetectable HBV DNA during the follow-up period of entecavir treatment. Figure 1 shows the longitudinal evaluation of HBV DNA during the switching treatment to entecavir in patients with a detectable level of baseline HBV DNA. In patients having baseline HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml (Fig. 1a), all of the seven patients achieved sustained undetectable HBV DNA during follow-up, although HBV DNA was transiently detected in one patient. As for patients having baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml (Fig. 1b), three (50%) of the six patients achieved sustained undetectable HBV DNA during follow-up. In two patients, HBV DNA was not cleared entirely, but declined to 2.9 and 2.7 logcopies/ml at month 18, respectively. In sequencing analysis at that time, the former patient had the lamivudine-resistant rtM204I substitution, although it was not detected by the PCR–ELMA assay at the start of entecavir treatment. The latter patient had no drug resistance-associated substitutions. In the sixth patient, HBV DNA decreased initially, but virological breakthrough was seen at month 15. The entecavir-resistant virus was detected after virological breakthrough. The detailed disease course of the entecavir-resistant patient is described below. As for the relationship of baseline HBV DNA to the frequency of undetectable HBV DNA, HBV DNA was cleared more frequently in patients with baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml than in those with baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml (100 vs. 50%, $p < .01$) (Table 1).

Serial changes in ALT during lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment were further examined. Among the 31 patients with baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml, the baseline ALT was within the normal range (≤40 IU/l) in 27 patients, 24 of whom showed sustained ALT normalization during follow-up. In the remaining three patients, ALT became slightly abnormal (≤60 IU/l) during follow-up. As for four patients with abnormal baseline ALT, the level was normalized in three, whereas a slight elevation of ALT (≤60 IU/l) continued in one during follow-up.

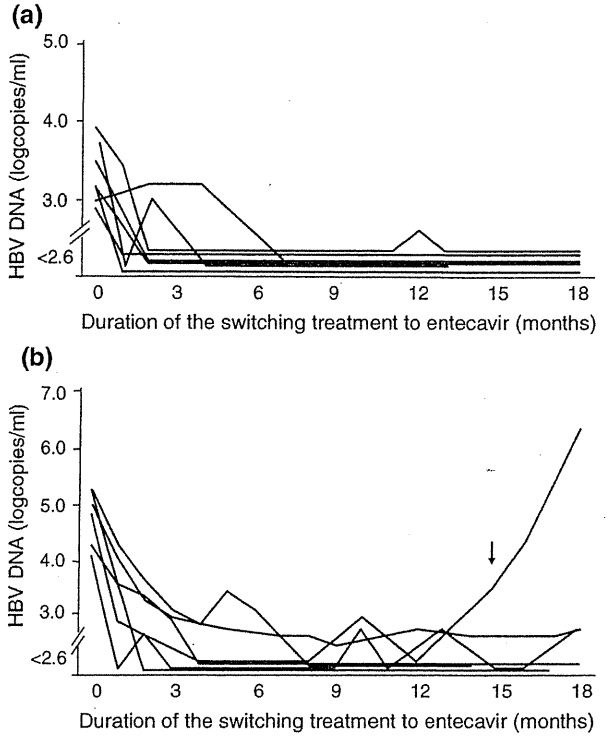

Fig. 1 Changes in HBV DNA after commencement of switching treatment from lamivudine to entecavir in CH-B patients with baseline HBV of (**a**) 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml and (**b**) ≥4.0 logcopies/ml. The *black arrow* indicates the time point of virological breakthrough

Among the 13 patients having a detectable level of baseline HBV DNA, five patients (three with baseline HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml and two with baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml) had abnormal ALT at baseline but showed ALT normalization during follow-up. In the remaining eight patients, ALT continued to be normal from the beginning of entecavir treatment.

Disease course of the CH-B patients showing entecavir-resistance during lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment

The disease course of the entecavir-resistant patient is shown in Fig. 2. This patient was a 33-year-old HBeAg-positive male, whose liver biopsy showed features of chronic hepatitis. He underwent the preceding lamivudine treatment for 8 months. HBV DNA decreased from >7.6 to 4.6 logcopies/ml, and ALT was normalized during the lamivudine therapy. The rtM204V/I substitution was not detected before the switch to entecavir treatment by the PCR–ELMA analysis. After the commencement of entecavir treatment, HBV DNA was cleared at month 5. However, virological breakthrough was seen at month 15, and HBV DNA was further increased to 6.1 logcopies/ml at month 18. The sequencing analysis at month 18 revealed the rtM204V, rtL180M and rtS202G substitutions. Two additional substitutions, rtL267M and rtQ316H, were also found, when the amino acid sequences were compared with three representative genotype C HBV isolates (Genbank accession nos. V00867, X01587 and D00630) [21–23]. Breakthrough hepatitis was not evident after the emergence of entecavir-resistant mutant virus. The sequencing analysis also revealed that he was infected with HBV of genotype C.

Discussion

Entecavir treatment has been shown to exhibit more powerful antiviral efficacy and less frequent drug resistance than lamivudine treatment in nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CH-B patients [14, 15, 17]. Entecavir is also effective in patients showing lamivudine resistance during the preceding lamivudine treatment, but its efficacy is limited due to the higher incidence of entecavir-resistance, compared with nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve ones [16, 17]. This is because entecavir-resistance is established based on two lamivudine-resistant substitutions, rtM204V and rtL180M, and additional mutation(s) occurring at rt184, rt202 and/or rt250 [18]. A considerable number of CH-B patients remain under continuous lamivudine treatment, while the lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment could yield a practical benefit. The switching treatment may be more promising for patients before the appearance of lamivudine resistance than after its development. In the present study, we investigated the efficacy of lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment in CH-B patients without apparent evidence of lamivudine resistance during the preceding lamivudine treatment.

We evaluated the antiviral efficacy of the switching treatment to entecavir in relation to the baseline HBV DNA at the commencement of the entecavir administration. In all patients having baseline HBV DNA <2.6 logcopies/ml, who revealed a good response to the preceding lamivudine treatment, HBV DNA continued to be undetectable during the switching treatment to entecavir. Also, all patients having baseline HBV DNA of 2.6–<4.0 logcopies/ml achieved sustained undetectable HBV DNA during the follow-up period of entecavir treatment. Among six patients having baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml, who did not respond well to the preceding lamivudine treatment, HBV DNA was cleared in three during follow-up. Its reduction by up to 3.0 logcopies/ml was seen in two additional cases without emergence of the entecavir-resistant virus. Thus, the antiviral efficacy of the lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment was exhibited in almost all CH-B patients in parallel with that of the preceding

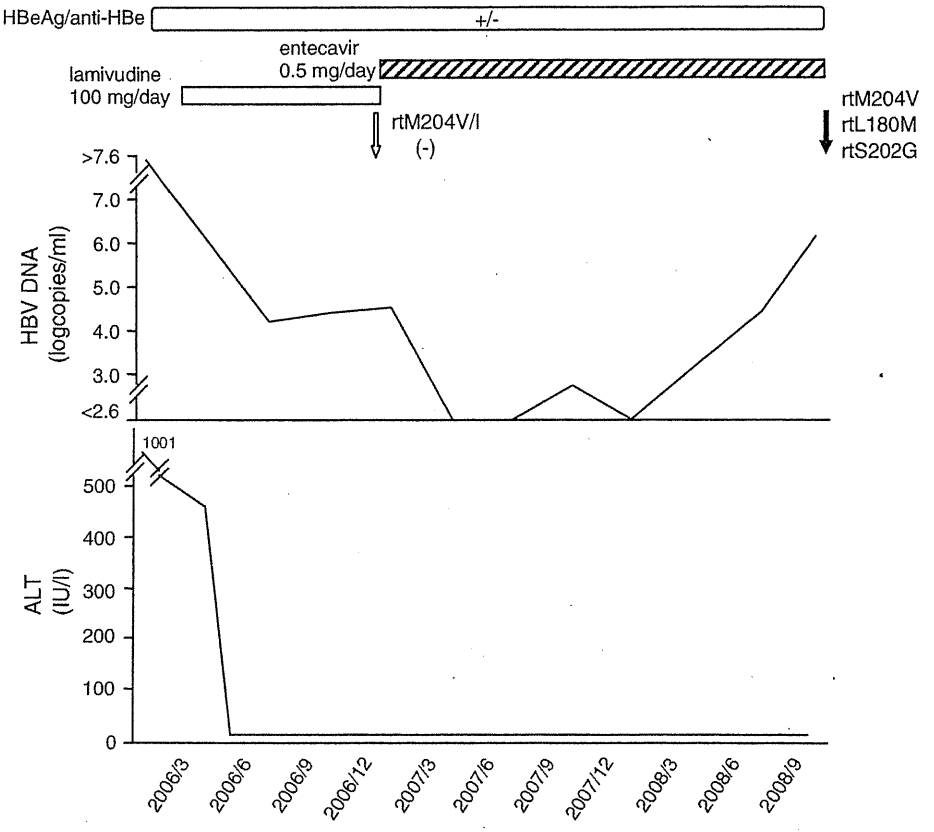

Fig. 2 Disease course of the CH-B patient showing entecavir-resistance during switching treatment to entecavir. The *white arrow* indicates the time point of the PCR–ELMA assay to detect rtM204V/I mutation, whereas the *black arrow* indicates the time point of the PCR-direct sequencing analysis

lamivudine treatment. In addition, the switching treatment to entecavir tended to yield a greater decrease in HBV DNA than the preceding lamivudine treatment. These results indicate that the switch from lamivudine to entecavir may be generally recommendable compared with continuation of lamivudine administration in CH-B patients without evidence of lamivudine resistance.

In this study, one of the six patients having baseline HBV DNA ≥4.0 logcopies/ml showed entecavir-resistance during the switching treatment to entecavir. It was probably due to the existence of an extremely small amount of lamivudine-resistant virus mixed with a predominant wild-type virus, which could not be detected by the sensitive PCR–ELMA assay at the start of the switch to entecavir treatment. It is speculated that, during entecavir treatment, the lamivudine-resistant virus having rtM204V and rtL180M substitutions may become predominant with time, followed by the establishment of entecavir-resistant virus via the additional rtS202G substitution. Compared to the low incidence of drug resistance in entecavir treatment for nucleos(t)ide analog-naïve CH-B patients [17], the entecavir-resistance may occur more frequently in the lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment for patients without evidence of lamivudine resistance. In particular, patients who do not achieve a good response to the preceding lamivudine treatment are speculated to have a higher risk for the development of entecavir-resistance in the switching treatment to entecavir, although it should be verified by further studies.

In conclusion, in CH-B patients receiving the continuous lamivudine treatment, it may be recommendable to switch to entecavir treatment before the appearance of lamivudine resistance. It may contribute to reducing the subsequent emergence of drug resistance. However, great care should be taken with respect to the emergence of entecavir-resistant virus after the switch to entecavir treatment, especially in patients who do not respond well to the preceding lamivudine treatment. Our retrospective study with a small number of patients and a short duration of follow-up cannot draw a definite conclusion but still provides some information about the clinical possibilities of the lamivudine-to-entecavir switching treatment. Further detailed investigation with a larger number of patients and a longer follow-up period may offer better understanding.

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