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Genome-wide Association Study Identifies *TNFSF15* and *POU2AF1* as Susceptibility Loci for Primary Biliary Cirrhosis in the Japanese Population

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For the identification of susceptibility loci for primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC), a genome-wide association study (GWAS) was performed in 963 Japanese individuals (487 PBC cases and 476 healthy controls) and in a subsequent replication study that included 1,402 other Japanese individuals (787 cases and 615 controls). In addition to the most significant susceptibility region, human leukocyte antigen (HLA), we identified two significant susceptibility loci, *TNFSF15* (rs4979462) and *POU2AF1* (rs4938534) (combined odds ratio [OR] = 1.56, $p = 2.84 \times 10^{-14}$ for rs4979462, and combined OR = 1.39, $p = 2.38 \times 10^{-8}$ for rs4938534). Among 21 non-HLA susceptibility loci for PBC identified in GWASs of individuals of European descent, three loci (*IL7R*, *IKZF3*, and *CD80*) showed significant associations (combined $p = 3.66 \times 10^{-8}$, 3.66×10^{-9}, and 3.04×10^{-9}, respectively) and *STAT4* and *NFKB1* loci showed suggestive association with PBC

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(combined $p = 1.11 \times 10^{-6}$ and 1.42×10^{-7}, respectively) in the Japanese population. These observations indicated the existence of ethnic differences in genetic susceptibility loci to PBC and the importance of TNF signaling and B cell differentiation for the development of PBC in individuals of European descent and Japanese individuals.

Primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC, MIM 109720) is a chronic and progressive cholestatic liver disease, presumably caused by autoimmune reactions against biliary epithelial cells, leading to liver cirrhosis and hepatic failure.[1] The incidence and prevalence of PBC range from 0.33 to 5.8 and from 2 to 40 per 100,000 inhabitants, respectively, in different geographical areas.[2] This may indicate the contribution of environmental or genetic factors in the development of PBC, whereas the clinical profiles of PBC are thought to be similar between different ethnicities and/or different geographical areas, including European-descent and eastern Asian populations. The high concordance rate in monozygotic twins compared to dizygotic twins[3] and familial clustering of individuals with PBC indicate the involvement of strong genetic factors in the development of PBC; however, the pathogenesis of PBC is still poorly understood. Previous genome-wide association studies (GWASs) and subsequent meta-analyses have identified *HLA* and 21 non-HLA susceptibility loci (*IL12A* [MIM 161560], *IL12RB2* [MIM 601642], *STAT4* [MIM 600558], *IRF5* [MIM 607218], *IKZF3* [MIM 606221], *MMEL1* [MIM 120520], *SPIB* [MIM 606802], *DENND1B* [MIM 613292], *CD80* [MIM 112203], *IL7R* [MIM 146661], *CXCR5* [MIM 601613], *TNFRSF1A* [MIM 191190], *CLEC16A* [MIM 611303], *NFKB* [MIM 164012], *RAD51L1* [MIM 602948], *MAP3K7IP1* [MIM 602615], *PLCL2* [MIM 614276], *RPS6KA4* [MIM 603606], *TNFAIP2* [MIM 603300], 7p14, and 16q24) to PBC in individuals of European descent,[4–7] indicating the important role of several autoimmune pathways (i.e., IL12A signaling, TNF/TLR-NF-κB signaling, and B cell differentiation) in the development of PBC. However, GWASs for PBC have never been reported for ethnicities other than European descent, limiting our knowledge of the genetic architecture of PBC. Here, we conducted a GWAS for PBC in the Japanese population to identify host genetic factors related to PBC, which would not only expand our knowledge of pathogenic pathways in PBC but also lead to the development of rationale for therapies in the future.

Samples from 2,395 individuals (1,295 cases with PBC and 1,100 healthy volunteers working at the National Hospital Organization (NHO) in Japan as a medical staff who declared having no apparent diseases, including chronic liver diseases and autoimmune diseases [healthy controls]) were collected by members of the Japan PBC-GWAS Consortium, which consists of 31 hospitals participating in the NHO Study Group for Liver Disease in Japan (NHOSLJ) and 24 university hospitals participating in the gp210 Working Group in Intractable Liver Disease Research Project Team of the Ministry of Health and Welfare in Japan. Most of the case and control samples were collected from the mainland and the neighboring islands of Japan (Honshu, Kyushu, and Shikoku). Previous studies have shown that there is little genetic heterogeneity in resident populations in these areas.[8] In fact, the genetic inflation factor was close to 1.00, and only a small portion of the samples were identified as outliers in the principal component analysis. The cases were diagnosed with PBC if they met at least two of the following internationally accepted criteria:[9] biochemical evidence of cholestasis based mainly on alkaline phosphatase elevation, presence of serum anti-mitochondrial antibodies, histological evidence of non-suppurative destructive cholangitis, and destruction of interlobular bile ducts. The demographic details of PBC cases are summarized in Table S1, available online. Of the 487 PBC cases in the GWAS, 57 were male and 430 were female, ages ranged from 33 to 90 years, the median age was 66 years, 320 cases had early-stage PBC (a stage without any signs indicating portal hypertension or liver cirrhosis), 110 had late-stage PBC without jaundice (a stage with signs of portal hypertension or liver cirrhosis but without persistent jaundice), and 57 were at the late stage with jaundice (persistent presence of jaundice [total bilirubin >2 mg/dl]). Of the 476 healthy controls in the GWAS, 170 were male and 306 were female, ages ranged from 25 to 87 years, and the median age was 40. Of the 808 PBC cases in the replication set, 120 were male and 688 were female, ages ranged from 24 to 85 years, the median age was 61 years, 646 had early-stage PBC, 121 had late-stage PBC without jaundice, and 39 were at the late stage with jaundice. Of the 624 healthy controls in the replication set, 271 were male and 353 were female, ages ranged from 24 to 74 years, and the median age was 33 years. Concomitant autoimmune diseases are also shown in Table S1. As for inflammatory bowel diseases such as Crohn disease (CD, MIM 266600) and ulcerative colitis (UC, MIM 266600), only one out of 1,274 PBC cases had UC, but none had CD. DNA was extracted from whole peripheral blood with the QIAamp DNA Blood Midi Kit (QIAGEN, Tokyo).

For the GWAS, we genotyped 1,015 samples (515 Japanese PBC cases and 500 Japanese healthy controls) using the Affymetrix Axiom Genome-Wide ASI 1 Array, according to the manufacturer's instructions. After excluding three PBC samples with a Dish QC of less than 0.82, we recalled the remaining 1,012 samples (512 cases and 500 controls) using the Genotyping Console v4.1 software. Here, Dish QC represents the recommended sample quality control (QC) metric for the Axiom arrays.[10] Of the 600,000 SNPs embedded in the array, samples with an overall call rate of less than 97% were also excluded. As a result, 508 cases and 484 controls were subjected to further analysis. All samples used for GWAS passed a heterozygosity check, and no duplicated and related samples were identified in identity by descent testing. Moreover, principal component analysis found 29 outliers to be excluded via the Smirnov-Grubbs test

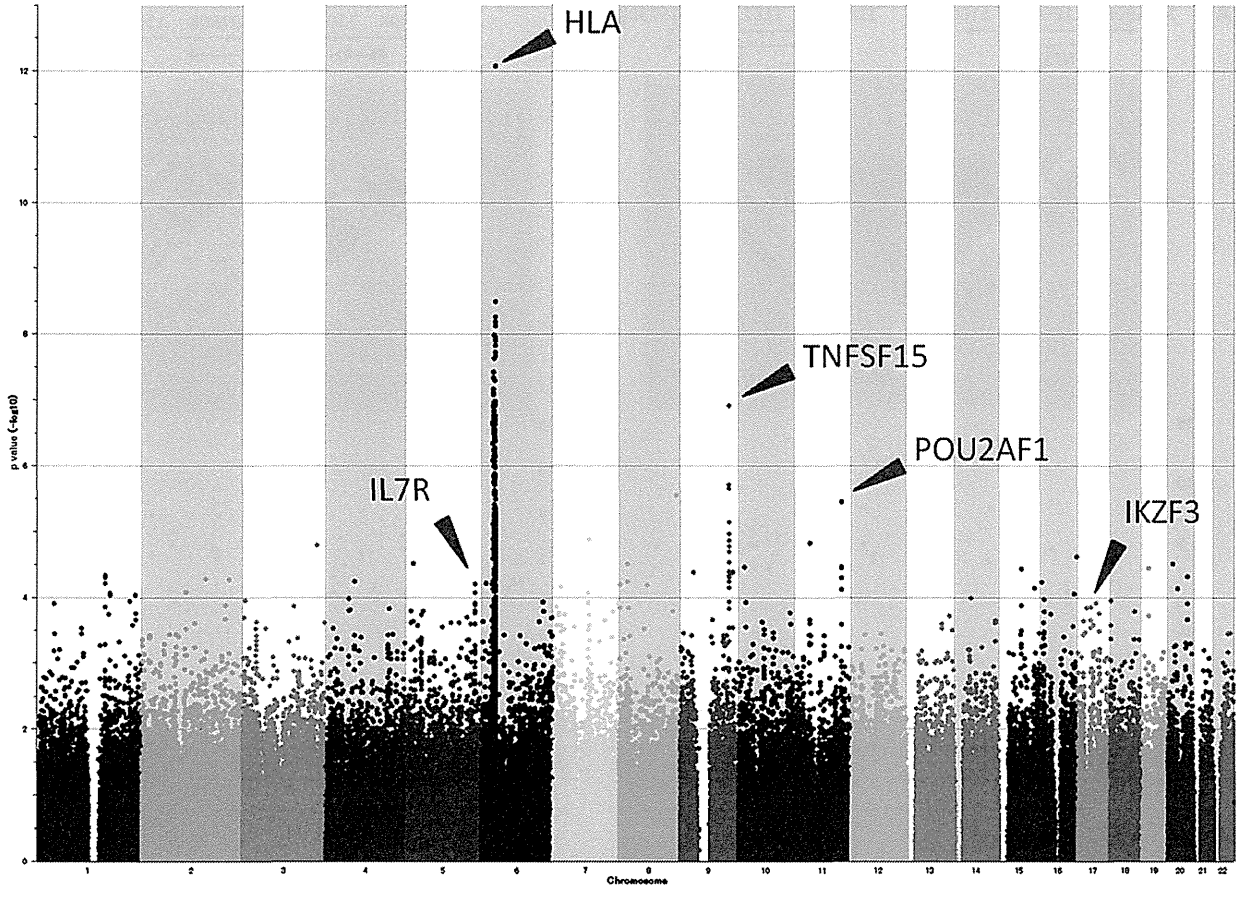

Figure 1. GWAS Results
From 963 samples (487 Japanese PBC cases and 476 Japanese healthy controls), p values were calculated with a chi-square test for allele frequencies among 420,928 SNPs.

and finally showed that all PBC cases (n = 487) and healthy controls (n = 476) formed a single cluster together with the HapMap JPT (Japanese in Tokyo from the CEPH collection), but not with CHB (Han Chinese in Beijing) samples (Figure S1, Table S2). These results indicate that the effect of population stratification was negligible. The average overall call rates of the remaining 487 PBC cases and 476 healthy controls were 99.38% (97.15–99.80) and 99.27% (97.01–99.81), respectively.[11] We then applied the following thresholds for SNP quality control during the data cleaning: SNP call rate ≥95%, minor allele frequency ≥5% in both PBC cases and healthy controls, and Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) p value ≥0.001 in healthy controls.[12] Of the SNPs on autosomal chromosomes and in the pseudoautosomal regions on the X chromosome, 420,928 and 317 passed the quality control filters and were used for the association analysis, respectively (Table S3). A quantile-quantile plot of the distribution of test statistics for the comparison of genotype frequencies in PBC cases and healthy controls showed that the inflation factor lambda was 1.039 for all the tested SNPs, including those in the HLA region, and was 1.026 when SNPs in the HLA region were excluded (Figures S2A and S2B). Table S4 shows the 298 SNPs with $p < 0.0001$ in the GWAS. All cluster plots for the SNPs with a $p < 0.0001$ from a chi-square test of the allele frequency model were checked by visual inspection, and SNPs with ambiguous genotype calls were excluded. For the GWAS and replication study, a chi-square test was applied to a two-by-two contingency table in an allele frequency model.

Figure 1 shows a genome-wide view of the single-point association data, which are based on allele frequencies. We found that the *HLA-DQB1* locus (MIM 604305) had the strongest association with susceptibility to PBC (rs9275175, odds ratio [OR] = 1.94; 95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.62–2.33, $p = 8.30 \times 10^{-13}$) (Figure 1 and Table S4); this finding was consistent with findings from previous studies.[4–7] In addition to the HLA class II region, loci *TNFSF15* and *POU2AF1* showed evidence indicative of association with PBC (rs4979462, OR = 1.63; 95% CI = 1.36–1.95, $p = 1.21 \times 10^{-7}$ for *TNFSF15*; rs4938534, OR = 1.53; 95% CI = 1.28–1.83, $p = 3.51 \times 10^{-6}$ for *POU2AF1*).

In a subsequent replication analysis, 27 SNPs with $p < 0.0001$ in the initial GWAS were also studied, in addition to SNPs at the *TNFSF15* and *POU2AF1* loci. Tagging SNPs were selected from the regions surrounding *TNFSF15* and

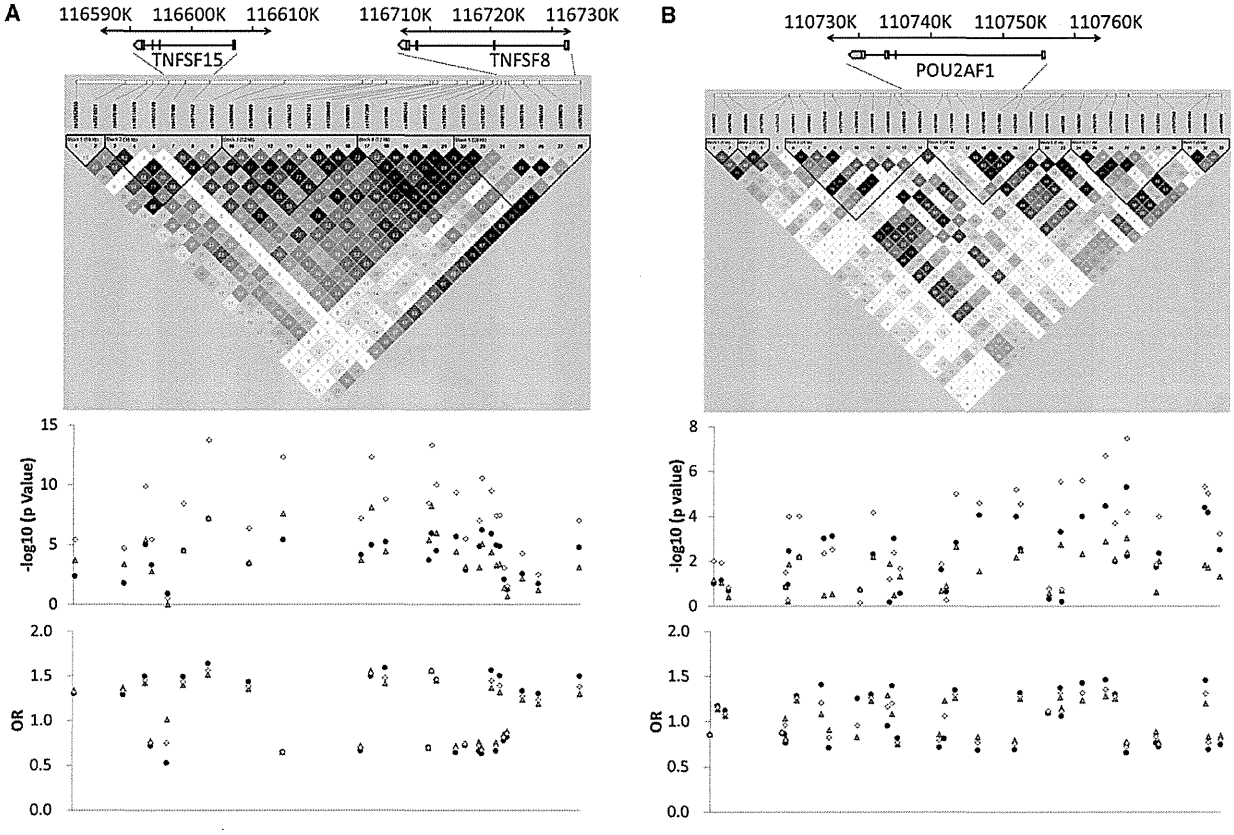

Figure 2. LD Structure, p Values, and OR Plots in the Association Analysis
LD maps (A) around *TNFSF15* (chr9: nucleotide position: 116561403–116733452; build 36.3) and (B) around *POU2AF1* (chr11: nucleotide position: 110684600–110802128; build 36.3). The middle panels show estimates of pairwise r^2 for (A) 28 SNPs and (B) 33 SNPs in the high-density mapping with a total of 2,365 samples used. The bottom panels show p values and OR-based chi-square tests for the allelic model for the left panels of 963 samples in the GWAS (●), the right panels of 1,402 samples in the replication study (▲), and the combined analysis (◇).

POU2AF1 (28 and 33, respectively) for high-density association mapping (Table S5, Figures 2A and 2B). For this follow-up replication analysis, an independent set of 1,402 samples (787 Japanese PBC cases and 615 Japanese healthy controls) and the original set of 963 samples (487 PBC cases and 476 healthy controls) were genotyped with the DigiTag2[13] and custom TaqMan SNP genotyping assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) on the LightCycler 480 Real-Time PCR System (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). The strongest associations identified in the initial GWAS were replicated in the independent set of 1,402 samples (OR = 1.52, $p = 5.79 \times 10^{-8}$ for rs4979462; OR = 1.29, $p = 9.32 \times 10^{-4}$ for rs4938534, Table 1). The combined p values were 2.84×10^{-14} (OR = 1.56; 95% CI = 1.39–1.76) for rs4979462 and 2.38×10^{-8} (OR = 1.39; 95% CI = 1.24–1.56) for rs4938534 (Table 1), both of which reached the genome-wide significance level of $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$. In contrast, the other 27 weakly associated SNPs identified in the initial GWAS (p values <0.0001) were not found to have significant associations with PBC (Table S5). Moreover, no strongly associated SNPs were observed when comparing PBC cases between the early and late stages (Table S5).

A haplotype analysis of the *TNFSF15* and *POU2AF1* regions was conducted with the use of the genotype data from all 2,365 samples (1,274 PBC cases and 1,091 healthy controls). Linkage disequilibrium (LD) blocks were analyzed with Gabriel's algorithm,[14] and five blocks were observed in the *TNFSF15* region and seven blocks in the *POU2AF1* region (Figures 2A and 2B). There were no differences in the LD blocks between PBC cases and healthy controls. The risk haplotypes in each region showed a lower level of association than did the individual SNPs ($p = 8.26 \times 10^{-14}$ for *TNFSF15* and $p = 1.00 \times 10^{-4}$ for *POU2AF1*) (Tables S6 and S7).

Next, we focused on data from our initial GWAS in 21 loci that are reportedly associated with susceptibility to PBC in populations of European descent.[4–7] We found that three such loci (*IL7R*, *IKZF3*, and *STAT4*) had p values of less than 0.001 and eight other such loci (*RAD51L1*, *CXCR5*, *PLCL2*, *IL12RB2*, *NFKB1*, *CD80*, *DENND1B*, and 7p14) showed evidence of marginal associations ($p < 0.05$) in the initial GWAS in 487 Japanese PBC cases and 476 Japanese healthy controls (data not shown). We genotyped three SNPs (rs6890503 for *IL7R*, rs9303277 for *IKZF3*, and rs7574865 for *STAT4*) in an independent set

Table 1. *TNFSF15* SNP rs4979462 and *POU2AF1* SNP rs4938534 Associated with Susceptibility to PBC

dbSNP rsID	Nearest Gene	Risk Allele	Allele (1/2)	Stage	PBC Cases				Healthy Controls				OR[a]	
					11	12	22	RAF	11	12	22	RAF	95% CI	p Value[b]
rs4979462	*TNFSF15*	T	T/C	GWAS	154 (31.8)	244 (50.4)	86 (17.8)	0.57	98 (20.7)	230 (48.5)	146 (30.8)	0.45	1.63 (1.36–1.95)	1.21×10^{-7}
				Replication	253 (32.3)	390 (49.7)	141 (18.0)	0.57	131 (21.6)	305 (50.3)	170 (28.1)	0.47	1.52 (1.30–1.76)	5.79×10^{-8}
				Combined	407 (32.1)	634 (50.0)	227 (17.9)	0.57	229 (21.2)	535 (49.5)	316 (29.3)	0.46	1.56 (1.39–1.76)	2.84×10^{-14}
rs4938534	*POU2AF1*	A	G/A	GWAS	114 (23.6)	229 (47.3)	141 (29.1)	0.53	151 (31.8)	247 (52.0)	77 (16.2)	0.42	1.53 (1.28–1.83)	3.51×10^{-6}
				Replication	179 (22.8)	391 (49.8)	215 (27.4)	0.52	179 (29.4)	299 (49.2)	130 (21.4)	0.46	1.29 (1.11–1.50)	9.32×10^{-4}
				Combined	293 (23.1)	620 (48.9)	356 (28.1)	0.52	330 (30.5)	546 (50.4)	207 (19.1)	0.44	1.39 (1.24–1.56)	2.38×10^{-8}

Parenthetical numbers indicate the percentage of allele 11, 12, or 22 among total alleles in PBC cases or healthy controls. The following abbreviations are used: PBC, primary biliary cirrhosis; RAF, risk allele frequency; and GWAS, genome-wide association study.
[a]Odds ratio (OR) of minor allele from the two-by-two allele frequency table.
[b]p value of Pearson's chi-square test for the allelic model.

of 1,402 samples (787 Japanese PBC cases and 615 Japanese healthy controls) and the original set of 963 samples (487 PBC cases and 476 healthy controls) using the DigiTag2[13] and custom TaqMan SNP genotyping assays. Two SNPs, rs6890853 and rs9303277 located in loci *IL7R* and *IKZF3*, respectively, showed significant associations and the *STAT4* locus (rs7574865) showed suggestive association with PBC in 2,365 Japanese samples (1,274 PBC cases and 1,091 healthy controls) (rs6890853, combined p value = 3.66×10^{-8}, OR = 1.47 for *IL7R*; rs9303277, combined p value = 3.66×10^{-9}, OR = 1.44 for *IKZF3*; rs7574865, combined p value = 1.11×10^{-6}, OR = 1.35 for *STAT4*) (Tables S5 and S8).

Moreover, we genotyped 16 additional associated SNPs, all of which were the same SNPs as identified in previous studies,[4–7] and revealed that six out of 16 SNPs (located on *CXCR5*, *NFKB1*, *CD80*, *DENND1B*, *MAP3K7IP1*, and *TNFAIP2*) were replicated ($p < 0.05$) in 2,365 Japanese samples (Table S8). The SNP rs2293370, located in the *CD80* locus, showed a significant association and the *NFKB1* locus (rs7665090) showed a suggestive association with PBC in the Japanese population (rs2293370, combined p value = 3.04×10^{-9}, OR = 1.48 for *CD80*; rs7665090, combined p value = 1.42×10^{-7}, OR = 1.35 for *NFKB1*). Although further study for determining the primary SNP at each locus is necessary, the remaining ten loci (*RAD51L1*, *PLCL2*, *IL12RB2*, *IRF5*, *SPIB*, *RPS6KA4*, *CLEC16A*, *TNFRSF1A*, *IL12A*, and *MMEL1*) did not show significant association ($p < 0.05$) with PBC in the Japanese population (Table S8).

In the current GWAS in the Japanese population, we identified two significant susceptibility loci for PBC, *TNFSF15* (rs4979462) and *POU2AF1* (rs4938534), which had not been identified in the previous GWAS in populations of European descent. In addition, of the 21 PBC susceptibility loci that have been identified in populations of European descent, three loci (*IL7R*, *IKZF3*, and *CD80*) showed significant associations and two loci (*STAT4* and *NFKB1*) showed suggestive associations with PBC in the Japanese population. Eight other loci (*RAD51L1*, *CXCR5*, *PLCL2*, *IL12RB2*, *DENND1B*, *MAP3K7IP1*, *TNFAIP2*, and 7p14) also showed marginal associations with PBC in the Japanese population. These results indicate the presence of additional important disease pathways (via TNFSF15 and POU2AF1)—differentiation to T helper 1 (Th1) cells (via IL7R and STAT4), B cell differentiation (via IL7R and IKZF3), T cell activation (via CD80), and NF-κB signaling—in addition to the previously reported disease pathways in the development of PBC in Japanese populations.

TNFSF15 is a newly described member of the TNF superfamily that interacts with death receptor 3 (*DR3* [MIM 603366], also known as *TNFRSF25*) not only to promote effector T cell expansion (i.e., Th1 and Th17 cells) and cytokine production (i.e., interferon-γ [IFN-γ, MIM 147570]) at the site of inflammation, but also to induce apoptosis in cells that overexpress DR3.[15] Interestingly, genetic polymorphisms in *TNFSF15* are associated with susceptibility to CD, UC, ankylosing spondylitis (AS, MIM 106300), and leprosy (MIM 609888)[16–20] (Table S8). Strong association of five SNPs (rs3810936, rs6478108, rs6478109, rs7848647, and rs7869487) in the *TNFSF15* region with CD was first reported for a Japanese population,[16] and the finding was replicated in an independent Japanese population and in European-descent and Korean populations.[21–25] Another SNP within *TNFSF15* (rs4263839) is also associated with susceptibility to CD in populations of European descent.[17,20,26] In addition, the risk alleles of the SNPs were significantly associated with *TNFSF15* mRNA expression in peripheral blood.[27,28] Given that there exists strong LD among SNPs in *TNFSF15*, including those in the promoter region (rs6478109 and

rs7848647) and introns (rs4263839 and rs4979462), it is very probable that the PBC susceptibility haplotype containing rs4979462 also influences *TNFSF15* mRNA expression. Additionally, TNFSF15 signaling via DR3 synergizes with interleukin-12 (IL-12) and IL-18 to promote IFN-γ production.[15] The IL-12 signaling pathway includes *IL12A* and *IL12RB* (MIM 601604), variants of which have been identified as PBC susceptibility loci in previous GWASs of peoples of European ancestry, and has been implicated as a key player in the pathogenesis of PBC.[4–7] STAT4 is essential for IL-12 signal transduction via the IL-12 receptor (IL12R) for IFN-γ production and Th1 polarization.[29] Thus, the evidence that *TNFSF15* and *STAT4* were identified and confirmed as PBC susceptibility loci in the present study might indicate that the IL-12 signaling pathway via IL12R is also operative in PBC pathogenesis in Japanese populations, as it is in populations of European descent.

POU2AF1 is a B cell-specific transcriptional factor that coactivates octamer-binding transcriptional factors *POU2F1* (MIM 164175) and *POU2F2* (MIM 164176) on B cell-specific promoters; thus, *POU2AF1* is essential for B cell maturation and germinal center formation.[30] The E-twenty six transcription factor *Spi-B* was recently identified as a direct target of the coactivator *POU2AF1*.[31] *Spi-B* is an important mediator of both B cell receptor signaling and early T cell lineage decisions.[32,33] *Spi-B* also induces IL7R-induced CD40 (MIM 109535, MIM 300386) expression.[34] Given that *Spi-B* has been identified as a PBC susceptibility gene in previous GWASs of peoples of European ancestry,[6,7,35] variation of *POU2AF1* might function along with *Spi-B* in this pathway of B cell signaling and differentiation. The lack of *POU2AF1* reportedly prevents the development of autoimmunity in *Aiolos* (also known as *IKZF3*) mutant mice, which have a systemic lupus erythematosus (MIM 152700)-like phenotype, and in MRL-lpr mice.[36,37] *IKZF3* and *IL7R* were both replicated and confirmed as PBC susceptibility loci in this study; *IKZF3* functions as a transcription factor that participates in the generation of high-affinity bone marrow plasma cells responsible for long-term immunity, and *IL7R* participates in pre-B cell expansion.[38,39] Collectively, these results strengthen the notion that the B cell signaling pathway is involved in the development of PBC.

In conclusion, *TNFSF15* and *POU2AF1* were identified as significant susceptibility loci for PBC in a Japanese population. Our results provide further evidence for the presence of (1) ethnic differences in genetic susceptibility loci (i.e., *TNFSF15*, *IL12A*, and *IL12RB2*), (2) a new autoimmune pathway (i.e., TNFSF15 signaling) shared with other autoimmune diseases (CD, UC, and AS), and (3) common pathogenic pathways such as B cell differentiation (i.e., *POU2AF1*, *IKZF3*, and *SPIB*), IL-12 signaling (i.e., *IL12A*, *IL12RB2*, and *STAT4*), and T cell activation (i.e., *CD80*) for the development of PBC in individuals of European descent and Japanese individuals (Table S8). Functional analysis of these genetic loci, as well as the identification of additional susceptibility loci associated with PBC in eastern Asian populations, should facilitate the analysis of the pathogenesis of PBC worldwide and aid the development of rationale for therapies in the future.

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data include two figures, eight tables, and Supplemental Acknowledgments and can be found with this article online at http://www.cell.com/AJHG/.

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Web Resources

The URLs for data presented herein are as follows:

MEXT Integrated GWAS Database, https://gwas.biosciencedbc.jp/cgi-bin/gwasdb/gwas_top.cgi
Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), http://www.omim.org

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Original Article

Long-term outcomes of add-on adefovir dipivoxil therapy to ongoing lamivudine in patients with lamivudine-resistant chronic hepatitis B

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Aim: Add-on adefovir dipivoxil (ADV) therapy has been a standard rescue treatment for patients with lamivudine (LAM)-resistant chronic hepatitis B, but the overall benefits of long-term add-on ADV therapy are still limited. The aim of this study was to evaluate the long-term efficiency of add-on ADV treatment and to explore predictive factors associated with it.

Methods: A total of 158 patients with LAM-resistant chronic hepatitis B were included in this retrospective, multicenter, nationwide study in Japan. After confirming LAM resistance, ADV was added to LAM treatment. Three types of events were considered as outcomes: virological response, hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) clearance and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) normalization. Virological response was defined as serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA levels of less than 3 log copies/mL. Baseline factors contributing to these outcomes were examined by univariate and multivariate analyses.

Results: The median total duration of ADV treatment was 41 months (range, 6–84). The rate of virological response was 90.8% at 4 years of treatment; HBeAg clearance and ALT normalization were achieved by 34.0% and 82.7%, respectively, at the end of follow up. Each outcome had different predictive factors: baseline HBV DNA and albumin level were predictive factors for virological response, history of interferon therapy and ALT level for HBeAg clearance, and sex and baseline albumin level for ALT normalization.

Conclusion: Long-term add-on ADV treatment was highly effective in LAM-resistant chronic hepatitis B patients in terms of virological and biochemical responses. Lower HBV replication and lower albumin level at baseline led to better outcomes.

Key words: adefovir dipivoxil, alanine aminotransferase normalization, chronic hepatitis B, hepatitis B e antigen clearance, lamivudine resistance, virological response

INTRODUCTION

CHRONIC HEPATITIS B (CHB) is an important cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide.[1–3] The main goals of therapy in CHB patients are to prevent the development of liver failure, due to subsequent liver

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cirrhosis, and the emergence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). All of these are likely be achieved by suppressing hepatitis B virus (HBV) replication, which thereby leads to remission of liver disease.[4]

Lamivudine (LAM) treatment has been used to prevent the progression of CHB and the development of HCC.[5] LAM is an effective and well-tolerated treatment for patients with CHB, but it has the major limitation of drug-resistant mutants arising at a rate of 16–32% during the first year of treatment and increasing by 15% with each additional year of treatment.[6–8] The widespread use of LAM monotherapy in CHB patients before introduction of entecavir, which is more potent, has progressively increased the numbers of patients with LAM-resistant HBV mutant strains.

Adefovir dipivoxil (ADV) has been reported to be effective in suppressing HBV replication and approved as a standard therapy in LAM-resistant patients.[9,10] However, data concerning the long-term efficacy of ADV treatment in LAM-resistant CHB patients are still limited. The aims of this study were to evaluate the long-term efficiency of ADV add-on treatment based on virological response (VR), hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) clearance and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) normalization, and to explore the predictive factors associated with ADV add-on treatment.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 158 patients (109 males and 49 females) were included in this retrospective study from 21 medical centers of the National Hospital Organization (NHO) in Japan. Both HBeAg positive and negative CHB patients were considered eligible if they had documented LAM resistance confirmed by detection of mutations in the YMDD motif of the reverse transcriptase gene of the virus (genotypic resistance), elevated serum HBV DNA levels (≥4 log copies/mL and/or >1 log copies/mL elevation from the LAM on-treatment nadir) and/or elevated serum ALT levels (>40 IU/L). Patients were excluded if they had decompensated liver cirrhosis, HCC at the initiation of ADV, or if they had co-infections (human immunodeficiency virus, hepatitis C virus) or other concomitant liver diseases such as autoimmune liver disease. Patients with no available clinical, biochemical, serological or virological data at baseline as well as every 6 months during treatment were also excluded.

Patient records were extracted from each institutional database. All data were labeled with their respective institution and pooled. In total, 20 variables were examined to evaluate the long-term responses. The following variables were used as baseline factors: sex, HBeAg status, liver disease, age, body mass index, duration of LAM monotherapy, history of interferon (IFN) therapy, serum HBV DNA level, aspartate aminotransferase (AST), ALT, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase (γ-GTP), platelet (PLT) counts, and total bilirubin (T-Bil), albumin (Alb), prothrombin time (PT) and α-fetoprotein (AFP) levels. All were measured at the initiation of ADV therapy. For each variable, it was not used in the stepwise analysis if missing data accounted for more than 10% of the cases.

The study conformed to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients and approval of this study was obtained from the NHO.

Statistical analysis

Three types of events were considered as outcomes: (i) VR; (ii) HBeAg clearance; and (iii) ALT normalization. VR was defined as serum HBV DNA levels of less than 3 log copies/mL by a quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction assay, and ALT normalization was defined as a decrease in ALT levels to less than 31 IU/L during the on-treatment follow-up period. Baseline factors that could have an impact in the prediction of VR, HBeAg clearance as well as ALT normalization were investigated. The predictive value of several baseline parameters for VR was evaluated using time-to-event methods, because of the varying length of follow up. Time-to-event analysis was carried out using Kaplan–Meier estimates to draw cumulative incidence curves, compared by log–rank tests, as well as using univariate and multivariate Cox's proportional hazards models in combination with stepwise regression analysis. Factors contributing to HBeAg clearance and ALT normalization during ADV add-on therapy were estimated using multivariate multiple logistic regression analysis in combination with stepwise regression analysis. A stepwise variable selection procedure was used for variables that were at least marginally associated with the outcomes.

Covariates included in these analyses were binomial or continuous variables. Quartile analysis was initially performed separately for each continuous variable to make the decision regarding cut-off points. At first, we divided each continuous data into quarters to convert numerical values into four categorical values. Then, we estimated whether there was a regular trend among these four ordinal categorical data with outcome and selected a cut-off point among the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles so that these variables could be appropriately

Table 1 Baseline characteristics at the initiation of add-on ADV therapy in LAM-resistant CHB patients based on HBeAg status

Baseline characteristics	HBeAg positive $n = 99$	HBeAg negative $n = 59$
Age (years)	51.6 (25.5–80.4)	59.3 (33.3–76.9)
Sex (male/female)	73/26	36/23
Liver disease (CH/cirrhosis)	79/20	38/21
Duration of LAM therapy (months)	29.8 (6.0–82.4)	39.3 (8.4–91.2)
History of IFN therapy (months)	39	15
HBV DNA (log copies/mL)	7.5 (2.1–7.6)	5.9 (2.1–7.6)
≤6	15	31
6–7.5	38	21
>7.5	46	7
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.8 (0.3–5.2)	0.9 (0.41–3.7)
AST (IU/L)	60 (18–959)	60 (17–464)
ALT (IU/L)	80 (11–697)	86 (17–724)
γ-GTP (IU/L)	38 (12–325)	53 (10–740)
Albumin (g/dL)	4.3 (2.6–5.4)	4.3 (2.7–5.2)
Platelet count ($\times 10^4/mm^3$)	15.5 (3.7–50.0)	12.3 (1.7–33.2)

Continuous variables are expressed in median (range) and categorized variables in number.
ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; CH, chronic hepatitis; γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; LAM, lamivudine.

dichotomized. The hazards ratio (HR) and the odds ratio (OR) are presented with 95% confidence intervals (CI) and *P*-values, with less than 0.05 being considered statistically significant. All data analyses were processed using the R statistical software ver. 2.13.

RESULTS

IN THIS RETROSPECTIVE nationwide analysis of add-on ADV therapy in Japan, a total of 158 patients were enrolled from 2003–2010, consisting of 99 HBeAg positive and 59 HBeAg negative patients. Table 1 summarizes the baseline characteristics of the study population; most were HBV genotype C. At the time of this analysis, the median total duration of ADV treatment was 41 months (range, 6–84), and the median time of LAM monotherapy, prior to initiation of ADV, was 34 months (range, 6–91).

VR

Figure 1 shows a Kaplan–Meier curve displaying the cumulative probability of VR based on HBV DNA levels among HBeAg positive and negative patients. Patients with a lower HBV DNA level displayed earlier VR than those with a higher HBV DNA level among both HBeAg positive and negative patients ($P < 0.001$, $P = 0.002$,

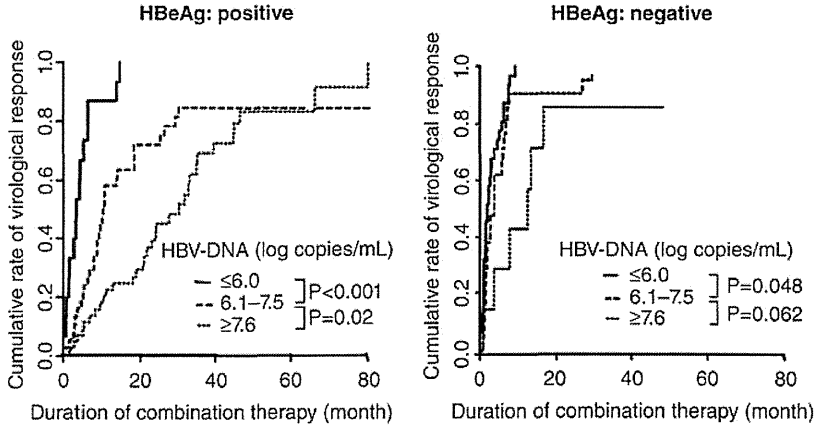

Figure 1 Cumulative rate of virological response on treatment with lamivudine plus adefovir dipivoxil depending on hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA load in HBeAg positive and negative patients. hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) negativity and low HBV replication had a higher probability of virological response compared with HBeAg positivity or higher HBV replication. —, ≤6.0; ---, 6.1–7.5; ····, ≥7.6.

Table 2 Univariate and multivariate Cox's regression analysis of predictors of virological response

Variable	HBeAg positive $n = 99$				HBeAg negative $n = 59$	
	Univariate		Multivariate		Univariate	
	HR	*P*-value	HR	*P*-value	HR	*P*-value
Age (years) (<45/45≤)	0.91	0.69			0.66	0.34
Sex (male/female)	1.07	0.86			0.71	0.21
Liver disease (CH/cirrhosis)	0.61	0.069			1	0.99
Duration of LAM therapy (months) (<34/34≤)	0.92	0.76			1.72	0.076
History of IFN therapy (-/+)	0.83	0.43			0.89	0.73
HBV DNA (log copies/mL) (<7.0/7.0≤)	0.28	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.44	0.012
Total bilirubin (mg/dL) (<1.0/1.0≤)	1.66	0.067	1.73	0.06	1.54	0.13
AST (IU/L) (<100/100≤)	1.57	0.061			1.11	0.71
ALT (IU/L) (<130/130≤)	1.51	0.085			1.05	0.87
γ-GTP (IU/L) (<70/70≤)	1.53	0.113			1.33	0.3
Albumin (g/dL) (<4.1/4.1≤)	0.51	0.011	0.48	0.0065	1.41	0.32
Platelet count ($\times 10^4/mm^3$) (<15/15≤)	0.93	0.77			1.1	0.74

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; CH, chronic hepatitis; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HR, hazard ratio; IFN, interferon; γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase; LAM, lamivudine.

respectively; log-rank test). HBeAg negative patients displayed higher VR rates than HBeAg positive patients at month 12 (89.9% vs 45.5%), month 24 (95.0% vs 61.5%), month 36 (98.4% vs 79.6%) and month 48 (98.4% vs 86.4%) of treatment. Even at a higher HBV DNA level (HBV DNA ≥7.0 log copies/mL), HBeAg negative patients displayed more rapid VR than HBeAg positive patients ($P < 0.001$). Seven patients did not achieve VR during the 4-year treatment, and one HBeAg positive patient developed ADV-resistant mutations without VR at month 44 of treatment. According to the results of the univariate Cox regression model, HBV DNA level and Alb level were associated with VR in HBeAg positive patients, while only the HBV DNA level was in HBeAg negative patients (HR = 0.44, 95% CI = 0.24–0.84, $P = 0.012$). In multivariate analysis, both lower HBV DNA level and lower Alb level were independent predictive factors associated with VR in HBeAg positive patients (HR = 0.26, 0.48, 95% CI = 0.15–0.44, 0.28–0.81, $P < 0.001$, $P = 0.0065$, respectively) (Table 2), while only the HBV DNA level was selected by a stepwise analysis for HBeAg negative patients.

HBeAg clearance or HBeAg seroconversion

Among 99 HBeAg positive patients, HBeAg clearance and seroconversion were achieved by 17.1% and 11.0% at month 24, by 24.3% and 14.3% at month 36 of treatment, and by 34.0% and 16.0% by the end of follow up, respectively. Except for a history of IFN therapy (OR = 2.46, 95% CI = 0.94–6.6, $P = 0.047$), none of the other baseline variables were significantly associated with HBeAg clearance, according to the results of the univariate logistic regression analysis. In multivariate analysis, serum ALT level and history of IFN therapy were independent predictive factors for HBeAg clearance (Table 3). No patient experienced a reappearance of HBeAg or reverse seroconversion to HBeAg positive status during this treatment.

Normalization of ALT levels

The mean ALT level declined from 138.2 to 24.7 IU/L by add-on ADV therapy. Furthermore, addition of ADV to LAM-resistant CHB led to normalization of ALT levels in 75.2%, 79.5% and 82.7% of the patients at months 24 and 36, and at the final follow up, respectively. We next estimated the predictive factors for ALT normalization. Univariate logistic regression analysis revealed that only the baseline Alb level was significantly related to the ALT normalization. In the multivariate model, female patients (OR = 0.19, $P = 0.037$) and lower Alb level (OR = 0.19, $P = 0.0017$) were found to be independent predictors of ALT normalization.

DISCUSSION

ADD-ON ADV therapy has been a standard rescue treatment for patients with LAM-resistant HBV, but the overall benefits of long-term add-on ADV therapy

Table 3 Univariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis of predictors of HBeAg clearance and ALT normalization

Variable	HBeAg loss, $n = 99$				ALT normalization			
	Univariate		Multivariate		Univariate		Multivariate	
	Odds ratio	*P*-value	Odds ratio	*P*-value	Odds ratio	*P*-value	Odds ratio	*P*-value
Age (years) (<45/45≤)	0.42	0.065			0.94	0.85		
Sex (male/female)	3.02	0.075	2.99	0.081	0.4	0.34	0.19	0.037
Liver disease (CH/cirrhosis)	0.76	0.59			0.54	0.73		
Duration of LAM therapy (months) (<34/34≤)	1.1	0.97			0.59	0.39		
History of IFN therapy (−/+)	2.46	0.047	2.67	0.041	1.2	0.78		
HBV DNA (log copies/mL) (<7.0/7.0≤)	0.49	0.15			0.32	0.21		
Total bilirubin (mg/dL) (<1.0/1.0≤)	1.03	0.83			1.83	0.72		
AST (IU/L) (<100/100≤)	1.52	0.47			3.99	0.075		
ALT (IU/L) (<130/130≤)	2.44	0.061	2.74	0.043	3.71	0.13		
γ-GTP (IU/L) (<70/70≤)	2.16	0.17			1.29	0.98		
Albumin (g/dL) (<4.4/4.4≤)	0.9	0.99			0.17	0.0047	0.19	0.0017
Platelet count ($\times 10^4/mm^3$) (<15/15≤)	1.21	0.82			0.52	0.39		

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; CH, chronic hepatitis; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HR, hazard ratio; IFN, interferon; γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase; LAM, lamivudine.

have not yet been fully assessed. In this multicenter study of 158 patients from 21 hospitals over a mean follow-up period of 43.5 months, we tried to evaluate the long-term efficacy of add-on ADV therapy to LAM-resistant patients, and also to investigate which baseline factors were associated with VR, HBeAg clearance and ALT normalization. We found long-term add-on ADV treatment produced long-term virological and biochemical improvement. In addition, each outcome had different predictive factors; baseline HBV DNA and Alb level were predictive factors for VR in HBeAg positive patients, history of IFN therapy and ALT level for HBeAg clearance, and sex and Alb level for ALT normalization.

The rate of VR was 90.8% at 4 years of treatment. The strongest predictive factor for VR in both HBeAg positive and negative patients were confirmed by previous observations showing that add-on ADV therapy achieves more rapid and higher rates of VR when ADV is initiated in LAM-resistant patients with low viral replication levels.[11–17] We also found that lower Alb level was an independent predictive factor for VR in HBeAg positive patients. In fact, baseline Alb correlated with PLT counts ($r = 0.51$, $P < 0.001$) and T-Bil ($r = -0.38$, $P < 0.001$), indicating that a lower Alb level reflected progression of liver disease. Little attention has been given to the relation of Alb level with VR – further studies will be needed to confirm our findings and understand its underlying mechanisms – but progression of chronic hepatitis might be predictive of VR under the add-on ADV treatment. This is the first report to show the significance of baseline Alb levels as we used a time-to-event method for large populations, which is a more powerful and informative method to assess the association of factors to time-to-event outcomes.

The rate of HBeAg clearance was 34% at the end of follow up, which was compatible with previous observations.[10,18] According to the results of multivariate analysis, IFN history was the strongest predictor of HBeAg clearance. Of the 37 patients, 17 (46%) who had previously received IFN therapy achieved HBeAg loss, suggesting that previous IFN therapy might have some immune modulatory effect on the ongoing combination therapy. IFN-induced HBeAg loss has been reported to be durable after a follow-up period of 4–8 years.[19–21] In addition, baseline ALT levels were also significantly associated with HBeAg clearance in this study. Our results agree with those of many clinical studies that have shown baseline ALT levels to be the strongest predictor of HBeAg seroconversion in response to IFN therapy[22] as well as nucleos(t)ide analog therapy.[23,24]

Alanine aminotransferase normalization was achieved in 82.7% of the patients. ALT normalization and VR were independent of each other. Actually, among 24 patients who did not achieve ALT normalization, only seven had not achieved VR, suggesting that ALT elevation after sustained suppression of HBV replication might be associated with some conditions other than CHB. In addition, lower baseline Alb was revealed

to be an independent and positive predictive factor for ALT normalization. Considering that patients who did achieve ALT normalization had lower Alb levels than patients with elevated ALT at the final follow up (4.4 vs 4.6 g/dL, $P < 0.01$), and Alb levels are significantly higher in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease,[25] we speculate that fatty liver disease is related to the abnormal ALT. To clarify this, further studies by liver biopsy and/or ultrasonography will be needed.

In conclusion, long-term ADV treatment was highly effective in LAM-resistant CHB patients in terms of virological and biochemical response. In addition, the emergence of resistance to the add-on ADV therapy appears to be delayed and infrequent, in contrast to LAM. Furthermore, lower HBV DNA level and lower Alb level were significant predictive factors for better outcomes. Even though add-on ADV therapy in LAM-resistant CHB patients was highly effective in the long term, CHB patients with LAM or entecavir monotherapy need to be carefully followed-up and the optimal timing of ADV intervention should be determined on the basis of HBV DNA level and progression of liver disease.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

ADDITIONAL SUPPORTING INFORMATION may be found in the online version of this article:

Appendix S1 Relationship of liver cirrhosis with virological response on the basis of fibrosis, using 60 out of 158 patients liver biopsy had been performed. Fibrosis was related with platelet counts but neither with albumin levels nor with the virological response.

APPENDIX I

THE LIVER DISEASE Network Group of the National Hospital Organization consists of the following physicians and their institutions: Hiromi Ishibashi, Hiroshi Yatsuhashi, Department of Clinical Research Center, Nagasaki Medical Center; Makoto Nakamuta, Department of Gastroenterology, Kyushu Medical Center; Michiyasu Yagura, Department of Gastroenterology, Tokyo National Hospital; Hirotsugu Takano, Department of Gastroenterology, Kure Medical Center; Takeaki Satoh, Center for Liver Disease, Kokura Medical Center; Toyokichi Muro, Department of Gastroenterology, Oita Medical Center; Hideo Nishimura, Department of Gastroenterology, Asahikawa Medical Center; Hiroshi Mano, Department of Gastroenterology, Sendai Medical Center; Fujio Makita, Department of Gastroenterology, Nishigunma National Hospital; Akira Saitou, Department of Gastroenterology, Nishisaitama-chuo National Hospital; Masahiko Takahashi, Department of Gastroenterology, Tokyo Medical Center; Shigeo Hayashi, Department of Gastroenterology, National Disaster Medical Center; Tatsuji Komatsu, Department of Gastroenterology, Yokohama Medical Center; Yukio Watanabe, Department of Gastroenterology, Sagamihara National Hospital; Masakazu Kobayashi, Department of Gastroenterology, Matsumoto Medical Center; Hideo Morimoto, Hajime Ohta, Department of Gastroenterology, Kanazawa Medical Center; Masaaki Shimada, Department of Gastroenterology, Nagoya Medical Center. Toshiki Komeda, Department of Gastroenterology, Kyoto Medical Center; Taizo Hijioka, Department of Gastroenterology, Osaka Minami Medical Center; Haruhiro Yamashita, Department of Gastroenterology, Okayama Medical Center; Eiichi Takesaki, Department of Gastroenterology, Higashi Hirosima Medical Center; Toru Hayashi, Department of Gastroenterology, Zentsuji National Hospitail; Mitsuaki Koga, Department of Gastroenterology, Ureshino Medical Center; Kazuhiro Sugi, Departoment of Gastroenterology, Kumamoto Medical Center; Hironori Sakai, Department of Gastroenterology, Beppu Medical Center; Tetsuo Yamamoto, Department of Gastroenterology, Yonago Medical Center; Yukio Oohara, Department of Gastroenterology, Hokkaidou Medical Center; Michio Kato, Department of Hepatology, Minamiwakayama Medical Center; Naohiko Masaki, Department of Gastroenterology, Kohnodai Hospital.

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Original Article

Combination of hepatitis B viral antigens and DNA for prediction of relapse after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs in patients with chronic hepatitis B

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Aim: The factors associated with hepatitis recurrence after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs) in patients with chronic hepatitis B were analyzed to predict the risk of relapse more accurately.

Methods: A total of 126 patients who discontinued NA therapy were recruited retrospectively. The clinical conditions of a successful discontinuation were set as alanine aminotransferase (ALT) below 30 IU/L and serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA below 4.0 log copies/mL.

Results: Relapse of hepatitis B were judged to occur when maximal serum ALT became higher than 79 IU/L or when maximal serum HBV DNA surpassed 5.7 log copies/mL following NA discontinuation since these values corresponded with mean values of ALT (30 IU/L) and HBV DNA (4.0 log copies/mL), respectively. At least 90% of patients with either detectable hepatitis B e antigen or serum HBV DNA higher than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of NA discontinuation relapsed within one year. In the remaining patients, higher levels of both hepatitis B surface and core-related antigens at the time of discontinuation, as well as a shorter course of NA treatment, were significantly associated with relapse by multivariate analysis.

Conclusions: It appears that negative results for hepatitis B e antigen and serum HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL are essential for successful NA discontinuation, which may be attained by a longer treatment period. Levels of hepatitis B surface and core-related antigens are also significant factors independently associated with relapse of hepatitis.

Key words: discontinuation, hepatitis B core-related antigen, hepatitis B surface antigen, nucleos(t)ide analogs, relapse of hepatitis

INTRODUCTION

HEPATITIS B VIRUS (HBV) infection is a major health concern that has an estimated 350 to 400 million carriers worldwide. Chronic infection with HBV can cause chronic hepatitis, and may eventually develop into liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.[1–3] Over the last decade, major advances in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B have been made with nucleos(t)ide

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analogs (NAs) such as lamivudine (LVD), adefovir dipivoxil (ADV), and entecavir (ETV).[4] NAs are orally administered and are associated with low rates of adverse effects. Treatment with NAs shows strong suppression of HBV replication and consequently rapid improvement of elevated ALT levels. Furthermore, these drugs have been reported to lower the risk of complicating cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma,[5–7] and so NAs are becoming widely used to treat patients with chronic hepatitis B. On the other hand, NAs carry the risk of developing drug-resistance;[8] drug-resistant viruses emerging during treatment may be associated with hepatitis flare-ups. Hepatitis B patients are also required to undergo prolonged treatment with NAs because early discontinuance often leads to relapse of hepatitis and ensuing hepatic failure following rises in alanine aminotransferase (ALT) level.[9,10]

Serum HBV DNA is normally used to monitor the antiviral effect of NAs. HBV DNA decreases rapidly and becomes undetectable in the majority of patients who are treated with NAs,[11–13] but relapse after discontinuation is not rare.[14–17] Since it is also true that favorable virological and biochemical responses to NAs may continue indefinitely in some patients,[9,15] reliable markers that can predict relapse of hepatitis after NA discontinuation are needed. Such markers would benefit not only patients who are considering discontinuation of NA treatment, but also clinicians, hospitals, and the medical economy.

In the present study, we assessed several factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs in patients with chronic hepatitis B, including hepatitis B viral antigens, which have been reported as new and promising markers for monitoring the effect of antiviral agents, such as interferon and NAs.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 126 patients with chronic hepatitis B who underwent and completed NA treatment between 2000 and 2010 were enrolled in this study. Patients were recruited retrospectively from 11 hospitals across Japan (Toranomon Hospital, Hokkaido University Hospital, Nagoya City University Hospital, Shinshu University Hospital, Hiroshima University Hospital, National Hospital Organization Nagasaki Medical Center, Chiba University Hospital, The Hospital of Hyogo College of Medicine, Japanese Red Cross Nagoya Daini Hospital, and Tokyo Women's Medical University Hospital, Sapporo Kosei General Hospital) and met the following conditions: (i) serum ALT higher than 30 IU/L and serum HBV DNA higher than 4.0 log copies/mL were observed at least twice within the 6 months prior to administration of NAs; (ii) stored serum samples at initiation and discontinuation of NAs were available for measurements of viral markers; (iii) clinical outcomes were followed for at least 6 months after the discontinuation of NAs; and (iv) tests for hepatitis C and human immunodeficiency virus antibodies were negative. Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) was confirmed to be positive on at least two occasions at least 6 months apart in all patients before treatment. Patients complicated with hepatocellular carcinoma or signs of hepatic failure at treatment discontinuation were excluded from the study. Our cohort consisted of 83 men and 43 women with a median age of 46 (range, 19 to 79) years when NA administration was discontinued. Hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) was positive in 64 patients (51%) at the initiation of treatment and in 24 patients (19%) at its discontinuation. HBV genotype was A in two (2%) patients, B in five (4%), C in 102 (81%), and undetermined in 17 (13%). Thirty-five of the 126 patients in this study were younger than 35 years old. Although not recommended as the first line treatment for this group by Japanese guidelines,[18] NA treatment was commenced since chronic active hepatitis had been persisting in all cases irrespective of their HBeAg status (26 positive and nine negative) at the initiation of treatment.

The decision to discontinue NAs was made by individual physicians using similar, but not uniform, conditions. Four patients who halted NAs for financial reasons were included. No patient underwent interferon treatment during or after NA treatment. The decision to recommence NA administration was also made by individual physicians, essentially when relapse of hepatitis became obvious. With few exceptions, patients were seen at least once a month during the first year after discontinuation of NAs, and at least once every several months afterwards. Stored serum samples were kept frozen at −20°C or below until assayed. This study was approved by the Ethics Committees of all participating institutions.

Hepatitis B viral markers

Serological markers for HBV, including HBsAg, HBeAg, and antibody to HBe (anti-HBe) were tested using commercially available enzyme immunoassay kits (Abbott Japan Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan; Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan; and/or Sysmex Co., Kobe, Japan) at each hospital. Quantitative measurement of HBsAg[19] was done using a chemiluminescence enzyme immunoassay

(CLEIA)-based HISCL HBsAg assay manufactured by Sysmex Corporation (Kobe, Japan). The assay had a quantitative range of −1.5 to 3.3 log IU/mL. End titer was determined by diluting samples with normal human serum when initial results exceeded the upper limit of the assay range.

Serum concentration of HBV DNA was determined using an Amplicor HBV monitor kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan),[20] which had a quantitative range of 2.6 to 7.6 log copies/mL. Serum HBV DNA was also determined using a COBAS TaqMan HBV kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan)[21] with a quantitative range of 2.1 to 9.0 log copies/mL in 43 patients whose serum samples were available at the time of NA discontinuation. According to the manufacturer's instructions, detection of a positive signal below the quantitative range was described as a positive signal, and no signal detection was described as a negative signal. Six HBV genotypes (A–F) were evaluated according to the restriction patterns of DNA fragments from the method reported by Mizokami *et al.*[22]

Serum hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels were measured using a CLEIA HBcrAg assay kit with a fully automated Lumipulse System analyzer (Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan) as described previously.[23,24] Briefly, 150 μL of serum was incubated with pretreatment solution and then added to a ferrite microparticle suspension in an assay cartridge. Ferrite particles were coated with a monoclonal antibody mixture against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. After incubation and washing, further incubation was carried out with alkaline phosphatase conjugated with two kinds of monoclonal antibodies against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. Following washing, a substrate solution was added to the test cartridge and then incubated. The relative chemiluminescence intensity was measured, and HBcrAg concentration was calculated by a standard curve generated using recombinant pro-HBeAg. The immunoreactivity of pro-HBeAg at 10 fg/mL was defined as 1 U/mL. We expressed HBcrAg in terms of log U/mL, with a quantitative range set at 3.0 to 6.8 log U/mL.

Statistical analyses

A linear regression model was used to examine for associations between mean and maximal values of both ALT and HBV DNA. Correlations between variables were calculated using the Spearman's rank correction correlation coefficient test. Each cut-off value was decided using receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis and results were evaluated by measuring the area under the curve (AUC). The Fisher's exact and Pearson's χ^2 tests were adopted to test for differences between subgroups of patients. To compare continuous data, the Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to estimate rates of non-relapse observations, and the log-rank test was used to test hypotheses concerning differences in non-relapse observations between selected groups. Multivariate analyses were performed using the Cox regression model. Variables associated with a *P*-value < 0.2 in univariate analyses were included in a stepwise Cox regression analysis to identify independent factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs. All tests were performed using the IBM SPSS Statistics Desktop for Japan ver. 19.0 (IBM Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan). *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Definition of hepatitis relapse after discontinuation of NAs

THE CLINICAL CONDITIONS of a successful discontinuation of NAs were set at serum HBV DNA below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L according to the Japanese guidelines for the treatment of hepatitis B.[18] However, these criteria could not be directly applied to our cohort as post-therapy fluctuations in ALT and HBV DNA were difficult to evaluate consistently. In total, 26 (76%) of 34 patients with successful discontinuation of NAs showed transient abnormal levels of ALT and/or HBV DNA, especially during the early phase after cessation. We therefore used mean and maximal values of these markers to evaluate relapse of hepatitis B in this study; mean values were used to evaluate relapse of hepatitis as a whole, and maximal values were used to dynamically assess relapse during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation. Both ALT and HBV DNA were measured 11.0 times per year on average during the first year and 4.1 times per year on average thereafter.

The mean values of HBV DNA were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.853. Similarly, the mean values of ALT were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.940 (Fig. 1). The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to a maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.930, $P < 0.001$), and the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to a maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L (AUC = 0.988, $P < 0.001$). These results suggested that patients having serum HBV DNA higher

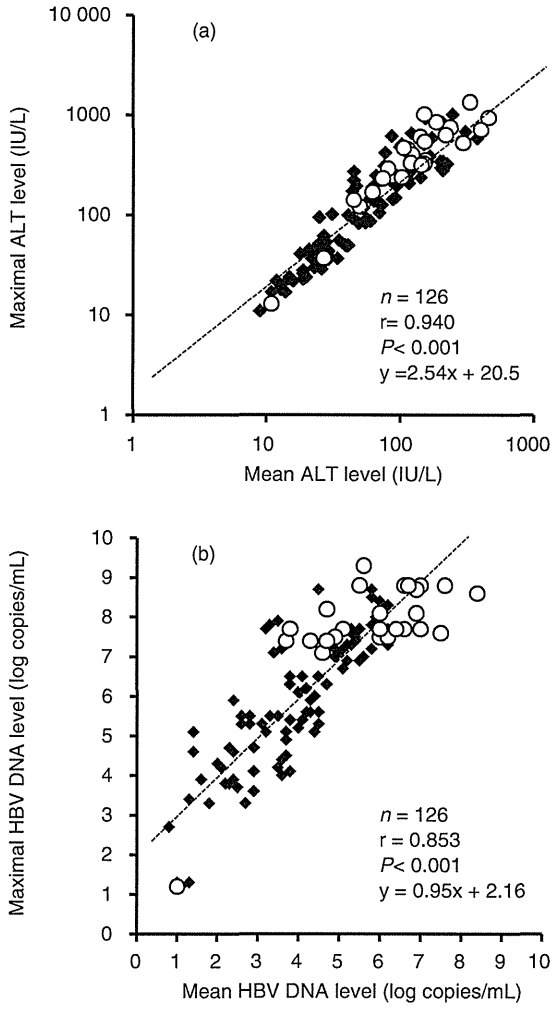

Figure 1 Correlation between maximal and mean levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) (a) and hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA (b) after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs). Open circles indicate patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and closed squares indicate patients without detectable HBeAg.

than 5.7 log copies/mL during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation were not likely to achieve the HBV DNA criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 4.0 log copies/mL. Similarly, it could be inferred that patients reaching ALT levels higher than 79 IU/L would also not likely achieve the ALT criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 30 IU/L.

Based on our findings, we judged that a relapse of hepatitis B occurred when serum ALT exceeded 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA exceeded 5.7 log copies/mL following NA discontinuation. Accordingly, 92 (73%) of the 126 patients enrolled in the present study showed a relapse. We set the follow-up period as discontinuation to relapse for relapse patients and as discontinuation to the last recorded examination for patients without relapse. Whereas re-administration of NAs due to relapse was commenced in 70% of relapse patients in the follow-up period, none was performed in non-relapse patients during that time.

Elimination of cases likely to show relapse of hepatitis

As it is generally believed that patients who are positive for HBeAg and/or have a higher level of HBV DNA at discontinuation of NAs are likely to relapse, these factors were assessed first. The progression of analyses in the present study and the population structure of each analysis are shown in Figure 2.

The non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 3). The revised cut-off value of 3.0 log copies/mL was determined by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.709, $P < 0.001$). Thirty (97%) of 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL relapsed within one year of discontinuation. On the other hand, approximately 30% of patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL showed prolonged non-relapse. Thus, the 31 patients with high HBV DNA at the time of discontinuation were eliminated from the following analyses.

In the remaining 95 patients, the non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable HBeAg and 85 patients without HBeAg when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 4). Ninety percent of patients with HBeAg experienced relapse within one year, which was significantly ($P = 0.005$) higher than in cases without HBeAg. In patients without HBeAg, the non-relapse rate decreased rapidly during the first year to approximately 45%, and then decreased relatively slowly over the following 3 years to nearly 30%. It is noteworthy that this subgroup did not relapse afterwards. Since the relapse rate was high among patients with detectable HBeAg, they were excluded from the following analyses as well.

Factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs

Additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis were analyzed in the remaining 85 patients who were