

with genotype B were only 5 of the total 37 (13.5%), 4 of 14 (28.6%) patients with SAE and 3 of 9 (33.3%) patients who died of liver failure were infected with genotype B. The different HBV genotypes also cause different clinical and epidemiological features. In a study from Japan, a high prevalence of genotype B HBV was found among patients with acute fulminant hepatitis [27]. In two case control studies conducted in Hong Kong, genotype B was the predominant HBV strain among patients with SAE compared to control patients with various severities of liver diseases [25, 28]. In this regard, another study indicated that genotype Bj was associated with high extracellular expression of HBV DNA in vitro [29]. The tendency of genotype Bj to produce high extracellular virion levels would be associated with a more vigorous immune response, leading to a higher risk of hepatic decompensation during the hepatitis flare. Several studies examined the association between specific mutations in the HBV genome and fulminant hepatitis or acute-on-chronic liver failure, especially in the PC (nt 1896) and BCP (nt 1762 and 1764) regions [30–32]. The PC and BCP regions are crucial replications of HBV [33], so alteration of the phenotype by the emergence of mutations in the PC and BCP regions might cause changes in the relationship between the virus and hepatocytes [30], and lead to fulminant hepatitis and acute exacerbation of chronic hepatitis. In the present study, genotype B and PC/BCP mutations were not significant predictors associated with the development of SAE or liver-related death, which is probably related to the small number of cases.

Jeng et al. [13] reported that HBV DNA levels greater than 1.55×10^9 copies/ml in patients with AE may predict subsequent occurrence of hepatic decompensation. While the overall viral load in our subjects was high (8.5 log copies/ml, Table 1), there was no relationship between viral load and the severity of AE or mortality. In addition, the HBV DNA level could not be estimated correctly when it was above the upper limit. Interestingly, the level of HBV DNA re-measured by TaqMan PCR in stored blood samples was higher than the upper limit (>9.1 log copies/ml) in one-third of the patients. The extremely high HBV DNA levels in patients with AE suggest that the vigorous immune attack on HBV and resultant liver injury will continue and may progress into hepatic decompensation. The present results showed that the decrease of viral load was significantly lower in patients with fulminant hepatic failure than in those with AE. These findings suggest that viral kinetics before the commencement of therapy are an important predictor of hepatic decompensation in patients with CHB infection complicated with AE. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in viral kinetics after the commencement of therapy between the two groups. To our knowledge, this is the first

report that identifies viral kinetics before the commencement of therapy as a predictor of prognosis of patients with AE of chronic hepatitis B.

LMV monotherapy does not seem to improve short-term mortality in patients with AE [9], although other studies showed a possible decrease in the mortality rate with earlier administration [21]. In a recent randomized trial designed for the treatment of acute-on-chronic liver failure due to severe reactivation of hepatitis B, the use of tenofovir significantly reduced the mortality rate compared with placebo [11], and the results suggested that rapid suppression of HBV DNA replication with potent antiviral therapy could inhibit the ongoing necroinflammation and permitted hepatic regeneration. Although 8 of 14 patients were treated with LMV in the present study, two patients had to start LMV after the development of SAE because of the rapid exacerbation soon after admission. Five patients developed SAE within a median period of 8 days (range 1–17 days) after the commencement of LMV. The other one patient developed complications caused by bacterial infection and gradually progressed to liver failure over 2 months. Thus, it is thought that most of these patients developed SAE earlier than the available effect of LMV.

The prevailing idea is that AE is the result of a robust quantitative recovery of HBV specific T cells, which directly cause liver injury [34]. Other mechanisms of the effects of CS in AE may be related to the prevention of endotoxin-induced secondary liver injury [35], prevention of cytolysis of ballooned hepatocytes by stabilization of the lysosomal membrane [36], and improvement of the functional activity of the remaining hepatocytes [37]. Other studies showed that the preferential increase in the number of HBV-specific CD8 T and CD4 T cells is associated with viral control rather than liver damage [38, 39]. Whatever the mechanism of AE, a few weeks are needed for sufficient suppression of the production of HBV-related proteins by preventing HBV replication even when NAs are used [40]. Thus, earlier introduction of CS in combination with potent antiviral therapy is a reasonable approach for the initial treatment of AE to prevent excessive immunological reactions and progression of liver cell injury [22, 41]. NA or CS used on its own has limits in the resolution of the serious conditions. Considered together, it is necessary to establish effective standardized strategies, such as the combination of NA and CS. Moreover, to provide cover for NA, especially for the time until NA starts to exert its potent antiviral effect, IFN could be added with NA and CS.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that viral kinetics before therapy may influence the clinical course and fate of patients with SAE complicating chronic hepatitis B. Antiviral therapies, including NA and/or IFN with CS, should be started as soon as possible in cases with high serum bilirubin and/or low PT levels, genotype B, and viral

load to prevent progression into hepatic decompensation. Although ethical issues could be an obstacle to randomized trials in such severe cases, more effective strategies are necessary for the treatment of AE associated with chronic hepatitis B.

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Original Article

Fibrosis score consisting of four serum markers successfully predicts pathological fibrotic stages of chronic hepatitis B

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Aim: In order to evaluate and judge a fibrotic stage of patients with chronic hepatitis B, multivariate regression analysis was performed using multiple fibrosis markers.

Method: A total of 227 patients from seven hepatology units and institutes were diagnosed by needle biopsy as having chronic liver disease caused by hepatitis B virus. Twenty-three variables and their natural logarithmic transformation were employed in the multivariate analysis. Multiple regression function was generated from data of 158 patients in one hospital, and validation was performed using the other data of 69 patients from six other hospitals.

Results: After stepwise variable selection, multivariate regression analysis finally obtained the following function: $z = 1.40 \times \ln(\text{type IV collagen 7S}) (\text{ng/mL}) - 0.017 \times (\text{platelet count}) (\times 1000^3/\text{mm}^3) + 1.24 \times \ln(\text{tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase-2}) (\text{ng/mL}) + 1.19 \times \ln(\alpha\text{-2-macroglobulin})$

(mg/dL) – 9.15. Median values of fibrosis scores of F1 ($n = 73$), F2 ($n = 42$), F3 ($n = 31$) and F4 stages ($n = 12$) were calculated as 0.95, 2.07, 2.98 and 3.63, respectively. Multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination were 0.646 and 0.418, respectively. Validation with patient data from other institutions demonstrated good reproducibility of fibrosis score for hepatitis B (FSB), showing 1.33 in F1 ($n = 27$), 2.20 in F2 ($n = 20$), 3.11 in F3 ($n = 20$) and 5.30 in F4 ($n = 2$), respectively.

Conclusion: A concise multiple regression function using four laboratory parameters successfully predicted pathological fibrosis stage of patients with hepatitis B virus infection.

Key words: chronic hepatitis, hepatitis B virus, liver cirrhosis, liver fibrosis, multiple regression analysis, stage

INTRODUCTION

WHEN HEPATITIS B virus (HBV)-related chronic liver disease is found by biochemical and virological examination, liver biopsy can establish the definitive diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and its fibrotic staging. Although these pathological procedures are reliable and informative both in diagnosis and treatment,

they sometimes require medical invasion and financial costs, including the risk of bleeding from needle puncture, some pain experienced during the procedure and hospital stays of a few days. The pathological examination is, therefore, rarely performed repeatedly in a short period of time, unless disease activity is severe or progression of liver disease is highly suspected. Recently, many authors described the usefulness of ultrasonographic elastography and multiple resonance imaging technology in the estimation of staging of chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis.^{1–5} These ways of estimation using the imaging apparatuses seem truly useful for current patients, but they cannot evaluate and compare with past fibrotic states of patients retrospectively. Moreover,

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the same apparatus for elastometry will not be available for repeated measurement for a follow-up examination, for example, several years later.

In spite of the accuracy of biopsy and convenience of elastography in chronic liver disease, clinical diagnosis based on biochemistry and hematology is still indispensable for the daily practice of many patients with HBV-related liver disease. Recently, several studies were published about estimation of hepatitis stages, using one or more serum biomarkers. Discriminant functions or multivariate analyses demonstrated that approximately 60–90% of patients with chronic hepatitis B were correctly classified as having mild hepatitis and severe hepatitis with advanced fibrosis.^{2,6–13} Up to the present time, however, the usefulness of the discriminant functions are less valuable for a few reasons. First, these functions were made for the purpose of discrimination of severe hepatic fibrosis from mild fibrosis, and four histological classifications (F1–F4) were neglected in almost of the studies. Second, some studies analyzed both hepatitis B and hepatitis C virus infection, although the significance and actual values of each liver function test in the evaluation of the severity of liver disease were not similar among each viral hepatitis and alcoholic liver disease. Third, biochemical markers for liver fibrosis (e.g. hyaluronic acid, type IV collagen, procollagen III peptide)^{14–16} were not always included in those previous studies.

We tried to generate a function estimating fibrotic stages of HBV-related chronic hepatitis, which were objectively diagnosed by liver biopsy. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to make a reliable multiple regression function and to obtain practical coefficients for significant variables also using fibrosis markers.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 273 Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis B were recruited for the study from seven hospitals in Japan: Toranomon Hospital, Hiroshima University Hospital (K. Chayama, M.D.), Ehime University Hospital (M. Onji, M.D.), Musashino Red Cross Hospital (N. Izumi, MD), Shishu University Hospital (E. Tanaka, M.D.), Showa University Hospital (M. Imawari, M.D.) and Osaka University Hospital (T. Takehara, M.D.). Inclusion criteria for this study were: (i) positive hepatitis B surface antigen for more than 6 months; (ii) persistent or intermittent elevation in aspartate aminotransferase (AST)/alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels; and (iii) liver biopsy showing chronic hepatitis

(F1–F4). We excluded those patients with overt alcoholic liver disease or fatty liver, association of other types of liver disease (e.g. hepatitis C, primary biliary cirrhosis, autoimmune hepatitis), or those associated with hepatocellular carcinoma or other malignancy. Among the patients, 244 patients fulfilled the conditions for the study: complete demographic data, basic laboratory data of hematology and biochemistry, required liver biopsy specimens, and sufficient amount of frozen sera. Also, we excluded additional 17 patients with eventual histological diagnosis as F0 stage.

Finally, a total of 227 patients who were diagnosed as having chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis (F1–F4) were analyzed for the following hematological, biochemical and histopathological examination. There were 172 males and 55 females aged 16–70 years (median, 39 years).

All the patients presented written informed consent in individual hospitals and medical centers, and the study was approved in each ethical committee.

Hematological and biochemical examination

Hematological and standard biochemical evaluation had been performed in each medical institution: white blood cells, red blood cells, hemoglobin, platelets, total bilirubin, AST, ALT, AST/ALT ratio (AAR), γ -glutamyl transpeptidase (γ -GTP), total protein, albumin and γ -globulin.

Special biochemical examinations including “fibrosis markers” were carried out using stored frozen sera at -20°C or lower: α -2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin concentration, haptoglobin typing, apolipoprotein A1, hyaluronic acid, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase (TIMP)-1, TIMP-2, procollagen III peptide and type IV collagen 7S.

Histological diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis

All the 227 cases fulfilled required standards of histological evaluation: sufficient length of specimen, hematoxylin–eosin staining, and at least one specimen with fiber staining. Four independent pathologists (Y. T., J. F., F. K. and T. F.), who were not informed of patients’ background and laboratory features except for age and sex, evaluated the 227 specimens regarding the stages of fibrosis and activity. Pathological classification of chronic hepatitis staging was based on Desmet *et al.*¹⁷

Before judgment of histological staging of individual specimens, the pathologists discussed the objective and reproducible judgment of pathological diagnosis of

hepatitis. They made a panel about obvious criteria using typical microscopic pictures for each stage, and it was always referred to during the procedure of pathological judgment. When inconsistent results were found in the diagnosis of hepatitis stage among the pathologists, the final judgment accepted majority rule among them.

Statistical analysis

Non-parametric procedures were employed for the analysis of background characteristics and laboratory data among patients in each stage, including Mann-Whitney *U*-test, Kruskal-Wallis test and χ^2 -test.

The normality of the distribution of the data was evaluated by a Kolmogorov-Smirnov one-sample test. Because certain variables partly did not conform to a normal distribution, natural logarithmic transformation of bilirubin, AST, ALT, γ -GTP, α -2-macroglobulin, hyaluronic acid, type IV collagen 7S and TIMP-2 were also analyzed in the following calculation. The natural logarithmic transformation of the results yielded a normal distribution or symmetrical distribution for all the analyzed factors. After the procedures, the following multiple regression analysis became rationally robust against deviations from normal distribution. In order to avoid introducing into the model any variables that were mutually correlated, we checked the interaction between all pairs of the variables by calculating variance inflation factors. Of the highly correlated variables, less significant factors were removed from the viewpoint of multicollinearity.

Multivariate regression analysis was performed using 158 patient data from Toranomon Hospital (training dataset) to generate a training data of predicting function. We used a stepwise method for selection of informative subsets of explanatory variables in the model. Multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination were also taken into account in the selection of variables. Next, we validated the obtained predictive function using the remaining 69 patient data from the other six liver institutions (validation dataset).

A *P*-value of less than 0.05 with two-tailed test was considered to be significant. Data analysis was performed using the computer program SPSS ver. 19.¹⁸

For evaluation of the efficiency and usefulness of obtained function for fibrosis estimation, we compared various fibrosis scores for hepatitis B and C, including AAR,¹⁹ AST-to-platelet ratio index (APRI),²⁰ FIB-4,²¹ FibroTest²² and discrimination function of cirrhosis from hepatitis in Japanese patients.²³

RESULTS

Pathological diagnosis

FOUR PATHOLOGISTS INDEPENDENTLY judged the fibrotic stages and inflammatory activity for 227 specimens of chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis caused by HBV. One hundred patients (44.1%) had a fibrosis stage of F1, 62 (27.3%) F2, 51 (22.5%) F3 and 14 (6.2%) F4. In the subgroup of the 158 patients in the training group, judgment as F1 was made in 73 cases, F2 in 42, F3 in 31 and F4 in 12. Of the 69 patients in the validation group, judgment as F1 was made in 27, F2 in 20, F3 in 20 and F4 in two.

According to hepatitis activity classification, A0 was found in five (2.2%), A1 in 100 (44.1%), A2 in 107 (47.1%) and A3 in 15 (6.6%).

Laboratory data of each hepatitis stage in the training group

There were 124 men and 34 women with a median age of 39 years ranged 16–70 years. Laboratory data of 158 patients in the training group are shown in Table 1. Although several individual items were well correlated with the severity of hepatic fibrosis, significant overlap values were noted among F1–F4 stages: platelet count, γ -globulin, α -2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin, hyaluronic acid, TIMP-2 and type IV collagen 7S.

Significant variables serving staging of hepatitis

Univariate analyses using trend analysis with the Cochran-Armitage method showed that the fibrotic stage of chronic hepatitis B (FSB) was significantly correlated with platelet count (Spearman: $r = -0.45$, $P < 0.001$), γ -GTP ($r = 0.19$, $P = 0.017$), γ -globulin ($r = 0.29$, $P < 0.001$), α -2-macroglobulin ($r = 0.32$, $P < 0.001$), hyaluronic acid ($r = 0.36$, $P < 0.001$), TIMP-2 ($r = 0.16$, $P = 0.043$), procollagen III peptide ($r = 0.30$, $P < 0.001$) and type IV collagen 7S ($r = 0.55$, $P < 0.001$).

Regression function generated from training patient group

After stepwise variable selection, multivariate regression analysis finally obtained the following function: $z = 1.40 \times \ln(\text{type IV collagen 7S}) (\text{ng/mL}) - 0.017 \times (\text{platelet count}) (\times 1000^3/\text{mm}^3) + 1.24 \times \ln(\text{TIMP-2}) (\text{ng/mL}) + 1.19 \times \ln(\alpha\text{-2-macroglobulin}) (\text{mg/dL}) - 9.15$. Median values of the fibrosis score of F1 ($n = 73$), F2 ($n = 42$), F3 ($n = 31$) and F4 stages ($n = 12$) were calculated as 0.95, 2.07, 2.98 and 3.63, respectively

Table 1 Demography and laboratory data of 158 patients in training group

	F1 (n = 73)	F2 (n = 42)	F3 (n = 31)	F4 (n = 12)
Demographics				
Men : women	58:15	33:9	23:8	10:2
Age (median, range)	36 (16–70)	39.5 (18–66)	39 (25–64)	43 (32–59)
Laboratory data (median, range)				
WBC ($\times 1000/\text{mm}^3$)	5.4 (2.5–10.6)	5.1 (2.4–8.7)	4.9 (3.0–8.7)	4.1 (3.7–6.6)
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	15.3 (10.3–18.8)	15.4 (12.5–17.9)	15.2 (11.5–17.2)	14.45 (12.1–18.2)
Platelet ($\times 1000/\text{mm}^3$)	204 (124–341)	173 (82–308)	155 (96–220)	130 (86–230)
Albumin (g/dL)	4.1 (3.2–4.9)	4.0 (3.2–5.1)	4.0 (3.3–4.9)	3.95 (3.4–4.6)
Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.8 (0.2–1.7)	0.8 (0.3–2.3)	0.9 (0.4–5.4)	0.85 (0.6–2.3)
AST (IU/L)	48 (16–450)	55 (17–588)	54 (17–1446)	76.5 (27–396)
ALT (IU/L)	102 (10–839)	90 (12–886)	85 (19–2148)	89 (18–809)
γ -GTP (IU/L)	37 (7–247)	55 (8–687)	44 (14–564)	69 (33–262)
γ -Globulin (g/dL)	1.29 (0.78–2.11)	1.495 (0.62–3.20)	1.43 (0.90–2.30)	1.735 (0.92–2.47)
γ -Globulin (%)	17.3 (10.8–26.1)	19.3 (8.5–35.6)	19.9 (12.9–28.6)	22.55 (13.9–30.2)
α -2-Macroglobulin (mg/dL)	226 (116–446)	276 (148–495)	261 (202–565)	286.5 (166–425)
Haptoglobin (mg/dL)	77 (<5–318)	59 (<5–238)	61 (<5–151)	48.5 (<5–145)
Apolipoprotein A-I (mg/dL)	134 (89–212)	143 (78–250)	133 (87–189)	125 (73–169)
Hyaluronic acid ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	16 (<5–130)	32.5 (<5–204)	38 (<5–418)	49 (24–335)
TIMP-1 (ng/mL)	168 (93–271)	172 (116–314)	157 (119–365)	192 (145–365)
TIMP-2 (ng/mL)	80 (41–135)	80.5 (35–121)	92 (38–251)	85.5 (70–123)
Procollagen III peptide (U/mL)	0.75 (0.53–1.90)	0.835 (0.45–1.20)	0.89 (0.58–2.50)	1.05 (0.71–2.20)
Type IV collagen 7S (ng/ml)	4.0 (2.7–7.7)	4.6 (2.6–9.6)	5.6 (2.3–15.0)	7.2 (4.2–14.0)

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; γ -GTP, γ -glutamyl transpeptidase; TIMP, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase; WBC, white blood cells.

(Fig. 1). The multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination were 0.646 ($P < 0.001$) and 0.418 ($P < 0.001$), respectively.

Because the generated regression function was obtained by multivariate analysis with stepwise variable selection, several variables were removed from the function due to multicollinearity among them. Mutual correlation among the fibrosis predictors are shown in Table 2.

A 28-year-old man of F1 fibrotic stage (Fig. 2a) had a serum type IV collagen concentration of 4.4 ng/mL, platelet 221×10^3 count/ mm^3 , TIMP-2 75 ng/mL and α -2-macroglobulin 226 mg/dL. The regression function provided a fibrosis score of 0.99. Another man aged 46 years had F3 fibrosis on histological examination (Fig. 2b). His type IV collagen was 5.3 ng/mL, platelet 137×10^3 count/ mm^3 , TIMP-2 92 ng/mL and α -2-macroglobulin 255, and the regression function calculated his fibrosis score as 3.10.

Validation of discriminant function

Validation data of 69 patients (Table 3) were collected from the other six institutions in Japan. When applying

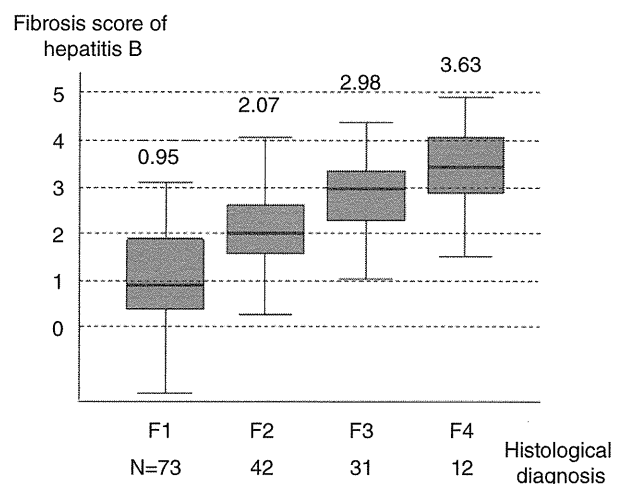


Figure 1 Box and whisker plots of fibrotic score of each histological fibrosis group in the training dataset. The fibrosis score of hepatitis B was generated by the function, $z = 1.40 \times \ln(\text{type IV collagen 7S}) (\text{ng/mL}) - 0.017 \times (\text{platelet count}) (\times 1000^3/\text{mm}^3) + 1.24 \times \ln(\text{tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase-2}) (\text{ng/mL}) + 1.19 \times \ln(\alpha\text{-2-macroglobulin}) (\text{mg/dL}) - 9.15$.

Table 2 Correlation coefficients (Spearman's ρ) among fibrosis predictors used in multivariate analysis

	Platelet	gamma-globulin	ln (α -2-macroglobulin)	ln (hyaluronate)	ln (P-III-P)	ln (IV collagen)	ln (TIMP-2)
Platelet ($\times 10^3/\text{mm}^3$)	1.000	-0.214 ($P = 0.008$)	-0.260 ($P = 0.001$)	-0.384 ($P < 0.001$)	-0.045 ($P = 0.58$)	-0.297 ($P < 0.001$)	0.094 ($P = 0.24$)
γ -Globulin (g/dL)	1.000	1.000	0.276 ($P = 0.001$)	0.349 ($P < 0.001$)	0.342 ($P < 0.001$)	0.414 ($P < 0.001$)	0.268 ($P = 0.001$)
ln (α -2-macroglobulin) (mg/dL)			1.000	0.281 ($P < 0.001$)	0.141 ($P = 0.078$)	0.171 ($P = 0.032$)	-0.079 ($P = 0.32$)
ln (hyaluronic acid) (mg/L)				1.000	0.373 ($P < 0.001$)	0.493 ($P < 0.001$)	0.089 ($P = 0.27$)
ln (procollagen III peptide) (U/mL)					1.000	0.600 ($P < 0.001$)	0.145 ($P = 0.071$)
ln (type IV collagen) (mg/L)						1.000	0.358 ($P < 0.001$)
ln (TIMP-2) (mg/L)							1.000

TIMP, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase.

the regression function for the validation set, the fibrosis score demonstrated good reproducibility, showing 1.33 in patients with chronic hepatitis of F1 ($n = 27$), 2.20 of F2 ($n = 20$), 3.11 of F3 ($n = 20$) and 5.30 of F4 ($n = 2$), respectively (Fig. 3). Although F4 fibrosis stage consisted of only two patients and the score 5.30 was regarded as of rather higher value, the scores of other stages of fibrosis were concordant with histological fibrosis.

Comparisons of efficacy with various fibrosis scores (Fig. 4)

In order to evaluate the efficacy and usefulness of the obtained FSB, we compared it with previously reported fibrosis scores using training data. AAR, APRI and FibroTest showed only slight correlation with actual histological stage. FIB-4 demonstrated an increasing trend of the score associated with histological fibrosis, but significant overlapping scores were found in F1–F4. Spearman's correlation coefficients of AAR, APRI, FIB-4 and FibroTest were 0.199 ($P = 0.012$), 0.265 ($P = 0.001$), 0.412 ($P < 0.001$) and 0.330 ($P < 0.001$), respectively. Our FSB showed a Spearman's correlation coefficient of 0.625 ($P < 0.001$), and was a much higher value than the others. The dichotomous discrimination function for cirrhosis and hepatitis C in Japanese patients²³ showed good differentiation also in patients with hepatitis B virus.

DISCUSSION

RECOGNITION OF SEVERITY of chronic hepatitis is essential in managing patients with chronic HBV infection: estimation of length of infection, existence of any previous hepatitis activity, presumption of current fibrotic stage, and prediction of future fibrosis progression and hepatocarcinogenesis. Differential diagnosis of cirrhosis from chronic hepatitis is especially important in the evaluation of chronic HBV infection. Identification of liver cirrhosis often leads to an important change in management of the patient: need for fiberoptic examination for esophageal varices, ultrasonographic exploration for the association of liver cancer, and prediction of hepatic decompensation. Guidelines published by the American Association of Study of Liver Disease²⁴ recommend liver biopsy for HBV carriers with aminotransferase elevation or for any candidates of antiviral therapy, because hepatic fibrosis sometimes shows unexpectedly far advancement to cirrhosis, and because it is very difficult to evaluate and translate the liver function tests or ultrasonographic findings compared to chronic hepatitis type C.

Table 3 Demography and laboratory data of 69 patients in training group

	F1 (n = 27)	F2 (n = 20)	F3 (n = 20)	F4 (n = 2)
Demographics				
Men : women	18:9	15:5	13:7	2:0
Age (median, range)	36 (13–64)	45 (14–64)	36.5 (24–59)	32 (25–39)
Laboratory data (median, range)				
WBC ($\times 1000/\text{mm}^3$)	5.0 (2.8–8.7)	5.8 (2.8–11.6)	5.3 (3.2–8.1)	3.85 (2.7–5.0)
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.8 (12.4–17.4)	15.0 (12.4–16.9)	14.4 (11.1–16.4)	14.4 (12.5–16.3)
Platelet ($\times 1000/\text{mm}^3$)	204 (86–322)	180 (90–275)	147 (90–276)	130 (67–183)
Albumin (g/dL)	4.4 (2.8–5.2)	4.2 (3.5–5.1)	4.3 (3.4–4.9)	4.45 (4.0–4.9)
Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.9 (0.4–6.4)	0.8 (0.2–1.6)	0.75 (0.4–1.7)	1.15 (1.1–1.2)
AST (IU/L)	52 (17–575)	50.5 (21–272)	65 (22–284)	248.5 (51–446)
ALT (IU/L)	84 (16–1101)	101.5 (19–554)	86.5 (16–1113)	453.5 (74–833)
γ -GTP (IU/L)	42 (14–332)	54 (16–205)	52.5 (13–191)	193 (57–329)
γ -Globulin (g/dL)	1.30 (1.04–1.59)	1.35 (1.18–2.53)	1.62 (1.16–1.97)	1.545 (1.51–1.58)
γ -Globulin (%)	17.9 (14.3–22.1)	19.6 (15.5–30.8)	22.0 (16.5–24.6)	20.15 (19.3–21.0)
α -2-Macroglobulin (mg/dL)	287 (160–687)	270 (89–452)	272.5 (211–463)	389 (313–465)
Haptoglobin (mg/dL)	58 (<5–229)	74 (<5–154)	56.5 (<5–198)	<5 (<5–<5)
Apolipoprotein A-I (mg/dL)	146 (95–216)	137 (87–162)	120 (88–170)	100.5 (74–127)
Hyaluronic acid ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	27 (<5–113)	36 (10–1050)	59 (14–439)	331 (225–437)
TIMP-1 (ng/mL)	168.5 (83–302)	176 (127–408)	182 (104–303)	390.5 (283–498)
TIMP-2 (ng/mL)	76 (25–143)	86.5 (28–154)	77.5 (32–141)	100.5 (91–110)
Procollagen III peptide (U/mL)	0.71 (0.27–2.20)	0.88 (0.63–2.80)	0.995 (0.60–2.10)	1.75 (1.50–2.00)
Type IV collagen 7S (ng/ml)	3.6 (2.7–17.0)	5.25 (3.3–13.0)	5.7 (3.0–16.0)	15.5 (15.0–16.0)

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; γ -GTP, γ -glutamyl transpeptidase; TIMP, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase; WBC, white blood cells.

Recently, non-invasive estimation of severity of liver fibrosis has been reported in patients with HBV-related chronic hepatitis.^{2,6–13} However, these studies were principally aimed at differentiation of advanced fibrotic stages of F3 or F4 from mild fibrotic stages of F1 or F2. Those discrimination functions were insufficient to recognize the stepwise progression of viral hepatitis from F1–F4. This dichotomy (mild or severe) of chronic hepatitis B seemed less valuable in the study of disease progression, disease control abilities of antiviral drugs and estimation of histological improvement after anti-inflammatory drugs. A histology-oriented, practical and reliable formula is therefore required for the diagnosis and investigation of chronic hepatitis B.

This study aimed to establish non-invasive evaluation and calculation of liver fibrosis for patients with chronic hepatitis B virus infection. Although it was retrospectively performed as a multicenter study of eight institutions, judgment of histological diagnosis was independently performed by four pathologists in another hospital, who were informed only of the patient's age, sex and positive HBV infection. Objective judgment of the histological staging and grading in sufficient biopsy specimens could be obtained.

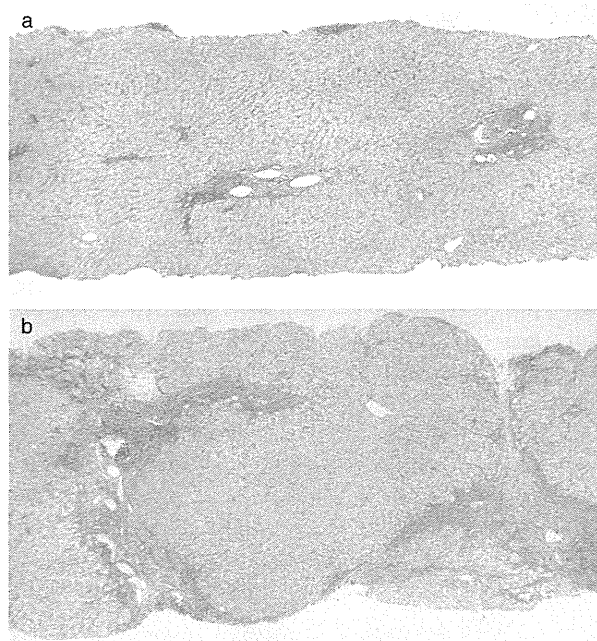


Figure 2 Case presentations of the training set. (a) A 28-year-old man with F1 fibrosis. Final regression function provided his fibrosis score as 0.99. (b) A 45-year-old man with F3 fibrosis. His regression coefficient was calculated as 3.10. Silver stain, $\times 40$.

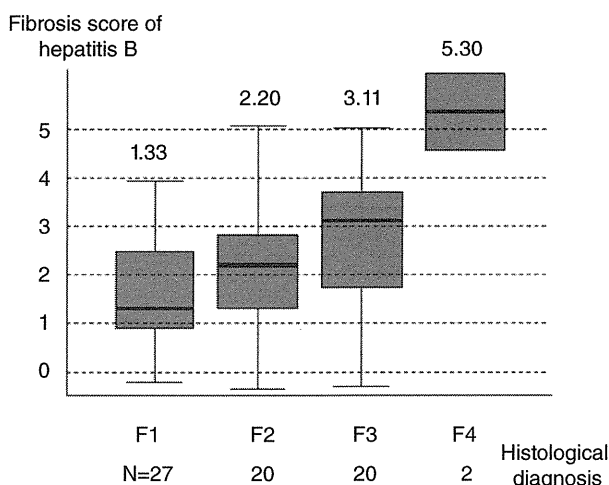


Figure 3 Box and whisker plots of fibrotic score of each group of histological fibrosis in the validation dataset. The fibrosis score of hepatitis B was generated by the function, $z = 1.40 \times \ln(\text{type IV collagen 7S (ng/mL)}) - 0.017 \times (\text{platelet count}) (\times 1000^3/\text{mm}^3) + 1.24 \times \ln(\text{tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase-2 (ng/mL)}) + 1.19 \times \ln(\alpha\text{-2-macroglobulin (mg/dL)}) - 9.15$.

As many as 227 patients with chronic hepatitis B were analyzed in this study, who had been diagnosed as having chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis by liver biopsy performed in experienced liver units in Japan. To obtain the most suitable equation approximating histological fibrotic stage, multivariate analysis was performed using two demographic parameters (age and sex) and 21 hematological and biochemical markers with or without logarithmic transformation. They included many kinds of fibrosis markers: α -2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin concentration, haptoglobin typing, apolipoprotein A1, hyaluronic acid, TIMP-1, TIMP-2, procollagen III peptide and type IV collagen 7S. Multiple regression analysis finally generated a first-degree polynomial function consisting of four variables: type IV collagen 7S, platelet count, TIMP-2 and α -2-macroglobulin. A constant numeral (-9.15) was finally adjusted in the regression equation in order to obtain fitted figures for a fibrotic stage of F1–F4. From the magnitude of the standardized partial regression coefficient of individual variable in the function, platelet count demonstrated the most potent contribution toward the prediction of liver fibrosis. Type IV collagen 7S and $\ln(\text{TIMP-2})$ proved to be the second and third distinctive power in the model, respectively.

The FSB was sufficiently fitted to actual fibrotic stages with certain overlapping as is usually found in histological ambiguity judged by pathologists. Because judgment of fibrosis in chronic hepatitis often shows a transitional

histological staging, pathological examination cannot always make a clear-cut diagnosis discriminating F1–F4. Considering the limitation of the pathological difficulty in differentiating the four continuous disease entities, the obtained regression function showed satisfactory high accuracy rates in the prediction of liver disease severity. The FSB can provide one or two decimal places (e.g. 3.2 or 3.24) and the utility of the score is possibly higher than the mere histological stage of F1–F4. The reproducibility was confirmed by the remaining 67 patients' data obtained from the other six hospitals. Although the validation data were collected from a different geographic area and different chronological situation, the FSB showed similar results in prediction of histological staging.

The FSB seemed a very useful quantitative marker in evaluating fibrotic severity of hepatitis B patients without invasive procedures and without any specialized ultrasonography or magnetic resonance imaging. The FSB also has an advantage of measurement, in which old blood samples are available for retrospective assessment of varied clinical settings: for example, old sera from 20 years prior to the time of initial liver biopsy, or paired sera before and after long-term antiviral therapy. These kinds of retrospective assessments of fibrotic staging will be valuable in estimating a long-term progression of liver disease, in evaluating efficacy of long-term medication or other medical intervention, or in making a political judgment from the viewpoints of socioeconomic efficacy.

The score can be calculated for any patients with chronic HBV infection. Although this multiple regression model dealt with appropriate logarithmic transformation for non-normal distribution parameters, the regression analysis was based on a linear regression model. Very slight fibrosis can be calculated as less than 1.00, which is commonly found to a slight degree in chronic hepatitis with tiny fibrotic change as F0. Very severe fibrosis might be calculated as more than 4.00, which is an imaginary and nonsense number in the scoring system of fibrosis. The FSB is, however, very useful and valuable in a real clinical setting: estimation of severity of liver fibrosis in an outpatient clinic, evaluation of the natural progression of a patient's fibrosis over 10 years and assessment of a long-term administration of interferon in patients with chronic hepatitis B from the viewpoint of fibrotic change. Recent development of new nucleoside/nucleotide analogs requires evaluation for long-term histological advantage, for aggravation of hepatitis stage during viral and biochemical breakthrough caused by HBV mutation, and even for

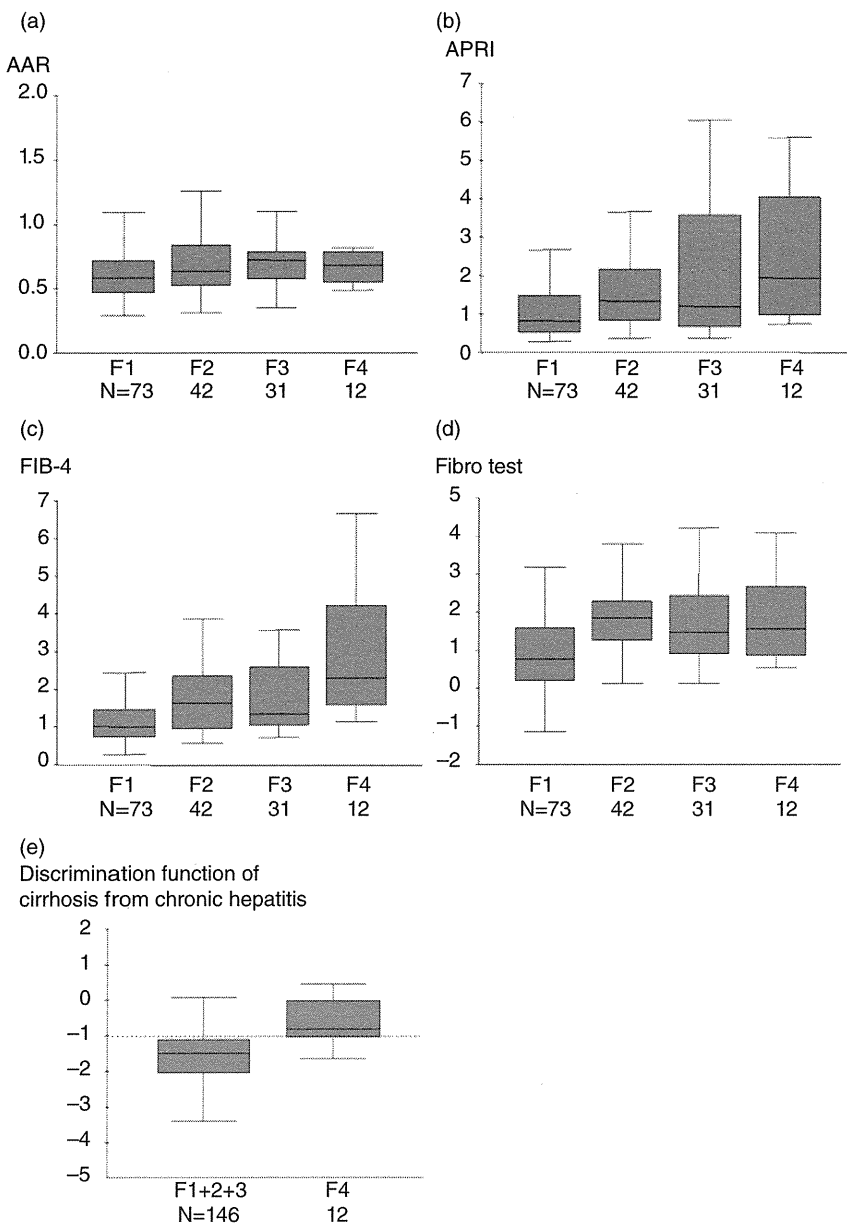


Figure 4 Previously published fibrosis scores. (a) Aspartate aminotransferase/alanine aminotransferase ratio (AAR),¹⁹ (b) aspartate aminotransferase-to-platelet ratio index (APRI),²⁰ (c) FIB-4,²¹ (d) FibroTest²² and (e) discrimination function of cirrhosis from hepatitis in Japanese patients.²³

the best management of patients with chronic hepatitis B. The FSB seems one of the ideal methods of approximating the fibrotic stage of chronic hepatitis B. Repeated measurement is quite suitable for patients with an unestablished treatment or trial, every 1 or 2 years, for example. Because the current regression function was generated from the data of HBV-related chronic liver disease, this equation would not be suitable for the recognition of hepatitis C virus-related chronic liver disease, alcoholic liver disease, and other congenital or

autoimmune liver diseases. To recognize the latter diseases, other studies of individual diseases must be performed.

We compared the usefulness of the FSB with that of other fibrosis scores.¹⁹⁻²³ The more simple and less expensive AAR or APRI could not estimate fibrotic stages with poor correlation coefficients of 0.199 and 0.265, which are much lower than the coefficient of the FSB of 0.625. FibroTest, which contained three costly fibrosis markers (α -2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin and apolipo-

protein A1), also showed a low correlation coefficient of 0.330, suggesting that its usefulness was limited in HBV positive oriental patients. Although FIB-4 demonstrated the best coefficient of 0.412 among the fibrosis scores, significant overlaps were found between neighboring stages and obtained scores were not coordinated for real histological classification.

In conclusion, the FSB was a useful and reliable biomarker for prediction of liver fibrosis in patients with chronic HBV infection. The FSB is expected to be introduced and utilized in varied kinds of studies and trials. Its accuracy and reproducibility require further validation using higher numbers of patients in several countries other than Japan.

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Clearance of hepatitis B surface antigen during long-term nucleot(s)ide analog treatment in chronic hepatitis B: results from a nine-year longitudinal study

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Abstract

Background Clearance of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) is considered the ultimate goal in chronic hepatitis B treatment. One treatment option is long-term nucleot(s)ide analog (NA) therapy. We followed a group of long-term NA therapy patients to evaluate the efficacy of this treatment in promoting clearance and longitudinal declines of HBsAg.

Method The study included 791 NA therapy patients who received lamivudine as their first drug. At the baseline, 442 patients were hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg)+ and 349 were HBeAg-. All analyses were performed after separating the HBeAg+ and HBeAg- cohorts. Cox proportional hazards models were used to determine which factors were associated with HBsAg clearance.

Results HBsAg clearance was observed in 18 (4.1 %) of the HBeAg+ patients and 20 (5.7 %) of the HBeAg- patients at baseline, giving seroclearance rates of 6.4 and 6.9 %, respectively, over the nine-year study period. HBsAg clearance was influenced by several independent factors that varied according to HBeAg cohort. For HBeAg+ patients, these included previous interferon therapy, infection with hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype A, a ≥ 0.5 log IU/mL decline in HBsAg level within six months, and clearance of HBeAg at six months. For

HBeAg- patients, these included infection with HBV genotype A, decline in HBsAg at six months, and a baseline HBsAg level of < 730 IU/mL.

Conclusion This study suggests that both direct antiviral potential and host immune response are needed to achieve HBsAg clearance by NA therapy. Viral genotype strongly influenced HBsAg clearance during NA therapy.

Keywords Hepatitis B surface antigen · Nucleot(s)ide analog · Lamivudine · Interferon

Introduction

Worldwide, an estimated 400 million people are infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV) persistently, and one million people die of decompensated cirrhosis and/or hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) annually [1, 2]. Recently, oral nucleot(s)ide analogs (NAs) have been used as a mainstay therapeutic strategy against chronic hepatitis B. Five such antiviral agents—lamivudine (LAM), entecavir (ETV), telbivudine, adefovir dipivoxil (ADV), and tenofovir disoproxil fumarate—which inhibit viral replication [e.g., hepatitis B virus DNA (HBV DNA) priming, reverse transcription of negative-stranded HBV DNA, and synthesis of positive-stranded HBV DNA] have been approved; these NAs vary in both the strength and the rapidity with which they suppress HBV DNA [3–10]. Sustained viral suppression by NA therapy can improve liver fibrosis and clinical outcomes of patients [11, 12]. LAM was the first NA to be approved to treat chronic hepatitis B in Japan, followed by ADV and ETV.

Responses to antiviral treatments can be evaluated by monitoring serum HBV DNA levels, hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and antibody levels, and hepatitis B surface

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antigen (HBsAg) and antibody levels. Serum HBsAg levels appear to reflect the amount of intrahepatic covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA), which acts as a template for the transcription of viral genes [13–15]. Previous studies have shown that both interferon (IFN) and NA therapy result in a reduction of intrahepatic cccDNA [16, 17], suggesting that these treatments may be helpful in achieving the ultimate therapeutic goal of antiviral therapy for chronic hepatitis B (i.e., total clearance of HBsAg).

Very low rates of HBsAg clearance have been reported in the past [18–22]. Recent work has shown that over a one-year period, pegylated (PEG)-IFN therapy is more successful than ETV at reducing serum HBsAg [23]; furthermore, PEG-IFN therapy has also been reported to promote the complete clearance of HBsAg [24–27]. Several studies have detailed similar successes achieved by NA therapy but over relatively short (<5 years) treatment durations [18–20, 22, 28, 29]. The kinetics of HBsAg during long-term (>5 years) treatment remain unknown. NA therapy leads to time-dependent decreases in intrahepatic cccDNA and serum HBsAg levels if sustained viral suppression is longer term, and may therefore increase the rates of HBsAg clearance.

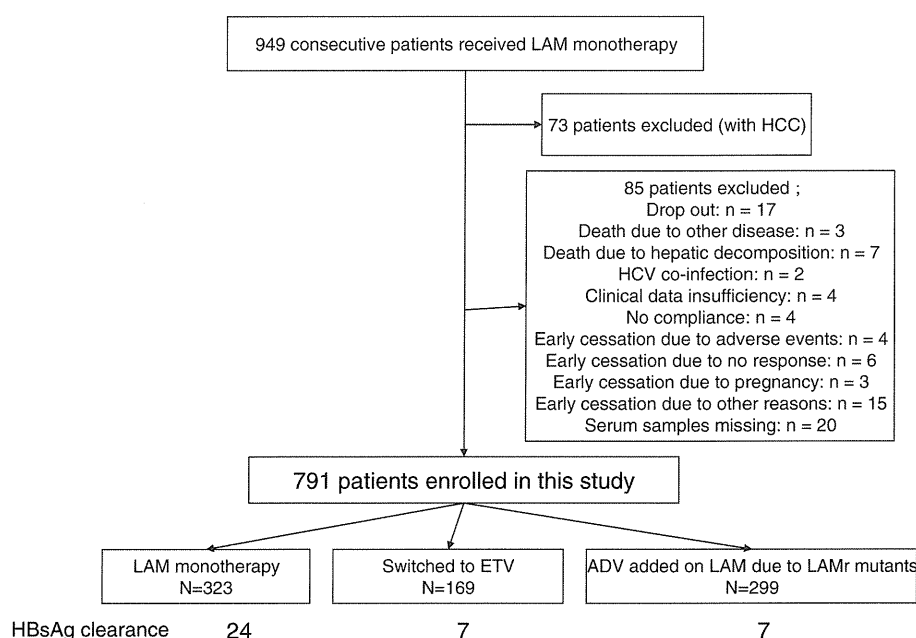
In order to evaluate this possibility empirically, we conducted a ten-year-long study in which we followed patients who received NA therapy initiated by the administration of LAM. We evaluated the resulting clearance and longitudinal declines of HBsAg using highly sensitive assays. Our aim was to determine whether long-term NA therapy can lead to HBsAg clearance, as suggested; if so, we also wished to elucidate the factors associated with its success.

Methods

Study population

Over a period of 12 years (September 1995 to September 2007), 949 consecutive patients who were chronically monoinfected with HBV (confirmed HBsAg positivity for at least six months), were treated with LAM monotherapy at the Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital, Metropolitan Tokyo. The indication for antiviral therapy was abnormal ALT levels accompanying the increase in HBV DNA (over 4 log copies/mL) as a rule. However, in cases where ALT levels were normal, patients with advanced fibrosis were administered LAM. We did not treat patients without fibrosis who had low HBV DNA and normal ALT levels as a rule. We selected 791 patients for the final study after we had excluded all those who had been treated with LAM for <6 months, were co-infected with hepatitis C virus, had not provided sufficient serum samples, and/or had insufficient clinical records (Fig. 1). No patient was co-infected with human immunodeficiency virus in this cohort. Seven hundred ninety-one patients were enrolled in this cohort study. Of these 791 patients, 442 were HBeAg+ and 349 were HBeAg– at baseline. All analyses were performed after separating the HBeAg+ and HBeAg– cohorts. Written informed consent was obtained from each patient. The study protocol conformed to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki and was approved a priori by the institution's human research committee. This study has been registered in the University Hospital Medical Information Network Clinical Trials Registry (UMIN CTR) as the number UMIN000007993.

Fig. 1 Schematic of study protocol. *LAM* lamivudine, *HCC* hepatocellular carcinoma, *HCV* hepatitis C virus, *ETV* entecavir, *ADV* adefovir dipivoxil, *HBsAg* hepatitis B surface antigen



Antiviral therapy and drug resistance

All 791 patients received 100 mg LAM daily as an initial therapy, but a LAM-resistant rtM204I/V mutation developed in 439 (55 %) of these patients. Over time, 334 (42 %) individuals experienced an increase in HBV DNA (≥ 1 log copies/mL) [e.g., virological breakthrough (VBT)] and, as a result, 299 (98.5 %) individuals were also provided with ADV treatment (10 mg) added onto LAM as a rescue therapy. The remaining patients continued to receive LAM monotherapy and were lost to follow-up before the administration of ADV because of the lack of approval for ADV administration in Japan at the time. The resistant mutation for rtM204I/V was detected in 312 of 334 patients who experienced VBT using a commercial kit (as described below). Patients who had achieved an optimal or suboptimal virological response or who wished to participate in the clinical trial of ETV for LAM-refractory patients (ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT 1037166)—152 and 17 patients, respectively—switched from LAM to ETV (0.5 mg/day). Additionally, patients in whom subsequent ADV- or ETV-resistant mutants emerged received an optimal rescue therapy with other NAs (ETV + ADV combination for ADV resistance, and LAM + ADV combination for ETV resistance).

NA treatment was continued as a rule; median NA treatment duration was 75 months (25th–75th percentile, 55–102) in the HBeAg+ cohort and 92 months (67–119) in the HBeAg– cohort. Ultimately, 55 (7 %) of the 791 patients discontinued treatment; 16 of these individuals terminated treatment after achieving HBsAg seroclearance. Follow-ups were conducted for all patients, regardless of length of treatment, for as long as possible.

Clinical data collection and follow-ups

Data on patient characteristics, biochemistry, hematology, virology, histology, and previous treatments were collected and registered in our institute's database at the time of patient enrollment. Prior to beginning LAM, all patients were surveyed about the presence of a family history of HBV infection. Data on treatment dose and duration of previous IFN therapy were collected from our hospital's IFN therapy database or requested from other hospitals as necessary. Complete details on the previous treatment were lacking for 29 (9.7 %) of 297 patients who received IFN therapy before starting LAM.

At least every 1–3 months, liver function and virological markers of HBV infection were measured in all patients. All serum HBsAg titers were measured from frozen serum samples collected at six months, one year, three years, five years, and once annually for 6–10 years, and then stored at -80 °C. The day of HBsAg clearance

was defined by the measurement in consecutive available serum samples before it was undetected in subsequent samples. A genotypic analysis of drug resistance was performed in cases of insufficient virological response or VBT, defined as an increase in serum HBV DNA levels ≥ 1 log above the nadir measured after the initial virological response. Cirrhosis was diagnosed by laparoscopy, liver biopsy, or clinical data such as imaging modalities and portal hypertension. The primary outcome for this study was HBsAg clearance. The endpoint of the follow-up was HBsAg clearance or last visit before January 2011.

Markers of HBV infection

Serum HBsAg titers were measured using ARCHITECT HBsAg QT assay kits (Abbott Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan), which have a lower limit of detection of 0.05 IU/mL and an upper limit of detection of 250 IU/mL. To expand the upper range from 250 to 125,000 IU/mL, serum samples, going off the scale, were diluted stepwise to 1:20 and 1:500 with ARCHITECT diluents as the product document described. HBeAg was determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay with a commercial kit (HBeAg EIA; Institute of Immunology, Tokyo, Japan). HBV DNA was quantified using the Amplicor monitor assay (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan), which has a dynamic range of 2.6–7.6 log copies/mL, or COBAS TaqMan HBV v.2.0 (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan), which has a dynamic range of 2.1–9.0 log copies/mL. A commercial kit (HBV Genotype EIA; Institute of Immunology) was used to serologically determine HBV genotypes using the combination of epitopes expressed on the pre-S2 region product, which is specific to each of the seven major genotypes (A–G). YMDD mutants (rt M204I/V) were determined by polymerase chain reaction-based enzyme-linked mini-sequence assay with a commercial kit (Genome Science Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan).

Statistical analyses

Categorical data were compared between groups using chi-square or Fisher's exact tests. Continuous variables with a nonparametric distribution were analyzed with Mann–Whitney *U* tests, while those with a parametric distribution were analyzed with Student's *t* tests. When appropriate, Kruskal–Wallis tests were used to conduct pairwise comparisons of specific variables. Cox regression analyses were used to assess which variables were significantly associated with HBsAg clearance. Cut-off values were provided using the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) only after rejecting the null hypothesis for the ROC curve. All baseline factors that were found to be significantly associated with HBsAg clearance by univariate analysis

were entered into a multivariate analysis. Independent baseline factors associated with clearance of HBsAg were calculated using a stepwise Cox regression analysis. We then performed a time-dependent Cox regression to analyze independent factors associated with HBsAg while adjusting for on-treatment factors and independent baseline factors. Three covariates of the on-treatment response factors—emergence of rtM204I/V mutants, VBT, and biochemical breakthrough—were set as the time-dependent covariates. Cumulative HBsAg clearance rates were analyzed using the Kaplan–Meier method; differences in the resulting curves were tested using log-rank tests. We performed Cox regression analysis, Kaplan–Meier curve analysis, and HBsAg kinetics analysis for no more than nine years, as the number of patients with a long-term follow-up of over ten years was too small to permit analysis [30]. Bonferroni adjustments were used to correct for the number of different ways a single predictor variable can be split. Significance was defined as $P < 0.05$ for all two-tailed tests. Data analysis was performed with IBM SPSS version 19.0 software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

Results

Patient characteristics

Thirty-eight (4.8 %) of 791 patients successfully cleared HBsAg. Of these, 24 had received LAM, 7 had switched to ETV treatment, and 7 had been treated with both LAM and ADV (Fig. 1). Of the 38 patients who achieved HBsAg clearance, 18 were HBeAg+, whereas 20 were HBeAg– at baseline. Table 1 provides a comparison of the baseline and on-treatment characteristics between patients who were and were not able to successfully clear HBsAg (all patients, HBeAg+ and – cohorts, respectively). In the HBeAg+ cohort, baseline characteristics that were significantly associated with HBsAg clearance included previous IFN therapy, HBV genotype, HBV DNA, and AST and ALT levels; in the HBeAg– cohort, significant characteristics included HBV genotype and HBsAg levels. Significant on-treatment characteristics in the HBeAg+ cohort included decline in HBsAg, clearance of HBeAg, and decline in HBV DNA to <2.6 log copies/mL at six months;

Table 1 Baseline, demographic, and on-treatment characteristics of patients with and without HBsAg seroclearance

Characteristics	All patients (<i>n</i> = 791)	HBeAg+ at baseline (<i>n</i> = 442)			HBeAg– at baseline (<i>n</i> = 349)		
		Persistently HBsAg+ (<i>n</i> = 424)	HBsAg seroclearance (<i>n</i> = 18)	<i>P</i>	Persistently HBsAg+ (<i>n</i> = 329)	HBsAg seroclearance (<i>n</i> = 20)	<i>P</i>
Baseline							
Age ^a (years) (SD)	43 (11.1)	41 (11.2)	44 (10.5)	0.177	47 (10.3)	46 (10.3)	0.899
Gender (male:female)	627:164	329:95	16:2	0.385	265:64	16:4	1.000
Race							
				0.446			
Japanese	768 (97)	411 (97)	17 (94)		320 (97)	20 (100)	1.000
Non-Japanese (%) (Asian:Caucasian)	23 (3) (21:2)	13 (3) (20:2)	1 (3) (1:0)		9 (3) (20:2)	0 (3) (1:0)	
Family history of HBV infection	539 (68)	311 (73)	10 (56)	0.107	208 (63)	10 (50)	0.238
Previous IFN therapy	297 (38)	167 (39)	15 (83)	<0.001	106 (32)	9 (45)	0.326
IFN duration (weeks)	27 (20–58)	26 (18–53)	52 (21–79)	0.214	32 (22–89)	23 (14–72)	0.457
Duration from the end of IFN to start of lamivudine (weeks)	50 (3–189)	26 (7–124)	37 (2–89)	0.505	119 (3–316)	102 (18–289)	0.746
Previous NA therapy	34 (4)	21 (5)	2 (11)	0.239	10 (3)	1 (5)	0.483
Presence of cirrhosis	169 (21)	76 (18)	2 (11)	0.752	87 (26)	4 (20)	0.610
HBV genotype							
				<0.001			<0.001
A	28 (3.5)	14 (3.3)	6 (33)		6 (1.8)	2 (10)	
B	67 (8.5)	16 (3.8)	0 (0)		48 (14.6)	3 (15)	
C	664 (83.9)	374 (88.2)	12 (67)		265 (80.5)	13 (65)	
D	3 (0.4)	2 (0.4)	0 (0)		0 (0)	1 (5)	
F	2 (0.3)	2 (0.4)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Unclassified/missing	27 (3.4)	16 (3.8)	0 (0)		10 (3.0)	1 (5)	

Table 1 continued

Characteristics	All patients (n = 791)	HBeAg+ at baseline (n = 442)			HBeAg- at baseline (n = 349)		
		Persistently HBeAg+ (n = 424)	HBsAg seroclearance (n = 18)	<i>P</i>	Persistently HBeAg+ (n = 329)	HBsAg seroclearance (n = 20)	<i>P</i>
Baseline HBV DNA (log copies/mL)	7.0 (5.8–8.0)	7.6 (6.7–8.2)	8.0 (7.5–8.4)	0.027	6.3 (5.2–7.2)	6.1 (5.0–7.0)	0.652
Baseline HBsAg level (IU/mL)	2530 (907–6590)	3910 (1690–12300)	5280 (943–67600)	0.331	1590 (599–3050)	529 (58–1610)	0.004
Baseline AST level (IU/L)	74 (48–135)	81 (52–165)	201 (78–666)	0.011	66 (42–113)	57 (39–96)	0.694
Baseline AST level (×ULN)	2.2 (1.5–4.1)	2.5 (1.6–5.0)	6.1 (2.3–20.2)	0.011	2.0 (1.3–3.4)	1.7 (1.2–2.9)	0.736
Baseline ALT level (IU/L)	115 (63–252)	130 (72–290)	326 (104–775)	0.021	101 (56–194)	101 (55–215)	0.904
Baseline ALT level (×ULN)	3.0 (1.7–6.4)	3.5 (1.9–7.8)	7.8 (2.5–20.3)	0.040	2.6 (1.4–5.2)	2.6 (1.4–5.2)	0.955
Baseline total bilirubin level (mg/dL)	0.8 (0.6–1.1)	0.8 (0.5–1.1)	0.9 (0.6–1.9)	0.117	0.7 (0.6–1.0)	0.8 (0.6–0.9)	0.556
Platelet count ^a (10 ³ /mm ³) (SD)	16.1 (5.7)	16.5 (6.1)	14.7 (3.5)	0.221	15.6 (5.1)	17.7 (6.9)	0.216
On-treatment response							
Decline of HBsAg level (≥0.5 log IU/mL within six months)	97 (1)	67 (16)	13 (72)	<0.001	11 (3)	6 (30)	<0.001
HBeAg positive → clearance within six months	109 (14)	94 (22)	10 (56)	0.005	NA	NA	
Undetectable HBV DNA (<400 copies/ mL) at six months	532 (67)	221 (52)	15 (83)	0.014	277 (84)	19 (95)	0.330
Emergence of rtM204I/V mutants	439 (55)	251 (59)	9 (50)	0.469	170 (52)	9 (45)	0.646
Viral breakthrough due to mutants	334 (42)	216 (51)	5 (28)	0.055	108 (33)	5 (25)	0.473
Biochemical breakthrough due to mutants	318 (40)	200 (47)	5 (28)	0.146	108 (33)	5 (25)	0.473

Except where marked with a superscript letter a, values are expressed as the median and 25th–75th percentiles (parenthetically), or number and percentage (parenthetically). ULN; AST = 33 IU/L, ALT = 42 IU/L (male), and 27 IU/L (female). *Asterisks* indicate data displayed as mean values and standard deviations. *Bold text* indicates statistically significant *P* values

the only significant characteristic in the HBeAg- cohort was a decline in HBsAg within six months. ROC curve analysis confirmed a cut-off value of 0.5 log IU/mL for a decline in HBsAg level within six months in the HBeAg+ and - cohorts [area under the curve = 0.810 (95 % CI 0.673–0.947) (HBeAg+ cohort) and 0.760 (95 % CI 0.611–0.909) (HBeAg- cohort)].

LAM-resistant rtM204I/V mutants were detected in 439 (55.5 %) of 791 patients. Of these, 334 (42.2 % of all patients) also developed VBT accompanied by an increase in HBV DNA (≥1 log copies/mL). The rate of VBT was

marginally significantly lower in the HBsAg clearance group in the HBeAg+ cohort (Table 1).

Factors associated with HBsAg clearance

The overall cumulative rates of HBsAg clearance were 0.2 % at one year, 1.2 % at three years, 2.6 % at five years, 4.2 % at seven years, and 6.4 % at nine years in the HBeAg+ cohort; and 0.6 % at one year, 0.9 % at three - years, 2.2 % at five years, 5.2 % at seven years, and 6.9 % at nine years in the HBeAg- cohort. Univariate Cox

Table 2 Baseline and on-treatment response factors associated with HBsAg clearance, as determined by time-dependent univariate and multivariate analyses at year 9 (HBeAg+ cohort)

Variable	Univariate		Multivariate	
	HBsAg clearance rate ratio (95 % CI)	<i>P</i>	HBsAg clearance rate ratio (95 % CI)	<i>P</i>
Baseline factors				
Age (≥ 50 years)	1.36 (0.48–3.86)	0.564		
Gender (F)	0.51 (0.12–2.23)	0.371		
Family history of HBV infection	0.42 (0.16–1.09)	0.074		
Previous IFN therapy	5.60 (1.61–19.5)	0.007	6.15 (1.69–22.4)	0.006
Previous NA therapy	2.42 (0.55–10.6)	0.242		
Presence of cirrhosis	0.85 (0.52–1.40)	0.527		
HBV genotype (A)	3.64 (2.21–5.99)	<0.001	3.18 (1.80–5.62)	<0.001
HBV DNA (≥ 6.0 log copies/mL)	2.56 (0.34–19.3)	0.362		
HBsAg (< 730 IU/mL)	1.57 (0.51–4.81)	0.432		
AST ($\geq 4.5 \times$ ULN)	4.53 (1.68–12.2)	0.003		
ALT ($\geq 7.2 \times$ ULN)	3.56 (1.35–9.36)	0.010		
Total bilirubin (≥ 1.5 mg/dL)	2.63 (0.92–7.46)	0.070		
Platelet count ($< 1.2 \times 10^5$ /mm ³)	0.58 (0.13–2.59)	0.476		
On-treatment response factors				
Decline of HBsAg level (≥ 0.5 log IU/mL within six months)	15.8 (5.14–48.5)	<0.001	18.6 (5.78–60.0)	<0.001
HBeAg positive \rightarrow clearance within six months	4.33 (1.65–11.4)	0.003	2.95 (1.04–8.39)	0.042
Undetectable HBV DNA (< 400 copies/mL) at six months	3.95 (1.14–13.7)	0.031		
Emergence of rtM204I/V mutants ^a	0.88 (0.32–2.44)	0.802		
Viral breakthrough due to mutants ^a	0.32 (0.10–1.00)	0.050		
Breakthrough hepatitis due to mutants ^a	0.41 (0.13–1.31)	0.134		

^a Time-dependent covariates. **Bold text** indicates statically significant *P* values. Variables analyzed in multivariate analysis: previous IFN therapy, HBV genotype, ALT, decline of HBsAg levels, HBeAg clearance within six months, undetectable HBV DNA at six months, and viral breakthrough due to mutants (time-dependent covariate)

regression analysis identified four baseline characteristics and four on-treatment responses that were associated with HBsAg clearance in the HBeAg+ cohort (Table 2), and two baseline characteristics and two on-treatment responses in the HBeAg– cohort (Table 3). ROC curve analysis provided the optimal cut-off values and indices for the prediction of HBsAg clearance. ROC curve analysis confirmed cut-off indices of $4.5 \times$ ULN for AST and $7.2 \times$ ULN for ALT for HBsAg clearance in the HBeAg+ cohort [area under the curve = 0.677 (95 % CI 0.524–0.830) (AST) and 0.643 (95 % CI 0.503–0.783) (ALT)]. Meanwhile, ROC curve analysis confirmed a cut-off value of 730 IU/mL (2.86 log IU/mL) for HBsAg for HBsAg clearance in the HBeAg– cohort [area under the curve = 0.696 (95 % CI 0.556–0.836)]. Time-dependent multivariate Cox regression analysis identified two significant baseline characteristics and two on-treatment responses related to HBsAg clearance: previous IFN therapy, infection with HBV genotype A, a decline in HBsAg level of ≥ 0.5 log IU/mL within six months, and HBeAg clearance within six months in the HBeAg+ cohort (Table 2). In the HBeAg– cohort, two baseline characteristics and one on-treatment response

were identified in multivariate analysis: infection with HBV genotype A, HBsAg level of < 730 IU/mL (2.86 log IU/mL), and a decline in HBsAg level of ≥ 0.5 log IU/mL within six months (Table 3).

Association between HBV genotype and HBsAg clearance

We performed a detailed analysis of the association between HBV genotype and HBsAg clearance in patients treated with NAs. Median baseline HBsAg levels were 4.7 log IU/mL (25th–75th percentile, 4.4–5.1) among patients with genotype A, 3.8 (3.5–4.2) among patients with genotype B, and 3.5 (3.2–4.0) among patients with genotype C in the HBeAg+ cohort (Fig. 2a); and 3.7 (2.5–4.1) in patients with genotype A, 2.9 (2.6–3.5) in patients with genotype B, and 3.2 (2.8–3.5) in patients with genotype C in the HBeAg– cohort (Fig. 2b). HBeAg+ patients with genotype A had higher baseline HBsAg levels than those with genotypes B or C ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 2a). There were no significant differences in baseline HBsAg levels between the genotypes in the HBeAg– cohort.

Table 3 Baseline and on-treatment response factors associated with HBsAg clearance, as determined by time-dependent univariate and multivariate analyses at year 9 (HBeAg– cohort)

Variable	Univariate		Multivariate	
	HBsAg clearance rate ratio (95 % CI)	<i>P</i>	HBsAg clearance rate ratio (95 % CI)	<i>P</i>
Baseline factors				
Age (≥ 50 years)	1.39 (0.54–3.60)	0.498		
Gender (F)	0.98 (0.28–3.40)	0.971		
Family history of HBV infection	0.49 (0.19–1.27)	0.140		
Previous IFN therapy	0.88 (0.32–2.38)	0.797		
Previous NA therapy	2.41 (0.32–18.2)	0.394		
Presence of cirrhosis	0.71 (0.43–1.16)	0.173		
HBV genotype (A)	2.79 (1.33–5.85)	0.007	2.73 (1.29–5.81)	0.009
HBV DNA (≥ 6.0 log copies/mL)	1.16 (0.43–3.14)	0.772		
HBsAg (< 730 IU/mL)	3.91 (1.59–9.52)	0.003	4.90 (1.85–10.6)	0.001
AST ($\geq 4.5 \times$ ULN)	1.76 (0.57–5.40)	0.324		
ALT ($\geq 7.2 \times$ ULN)	1.89 (0.62–5.81)	0.265		
Total bilirubin (≥ 1.5 mg/dL)	1.18 (0.27–5.20)	0.825		
Platelet count ($< 1.2 \times 10^5/\text{mm}^3$)	0.77 (0.17–3.55)	0.733		
On-treatment response factors				
Decline of HBsAg level (≥ 0.5 log IU/mL within six months)	11.5 (4.24–31.0)	<0.001	16.9 (5.89–48.4)	<0.001
Undetectable HBV DNA (< 400 copies/mL) at six months	2.78 (0.37–20.8)	0.322		
Emergence of rtM204I/V mutants ^a	0.64 (0.23–1.79)	0.392		
Viral breakthrough due to mutants ^a	0.72 (0.23–2.29)	0.581		
Breakthrough hepatitis due to mutants ^a	0.65 (0.21–2.06)	0.465		

^a Time-dependent covariates. *Bold text* indicates statically significant *P* values

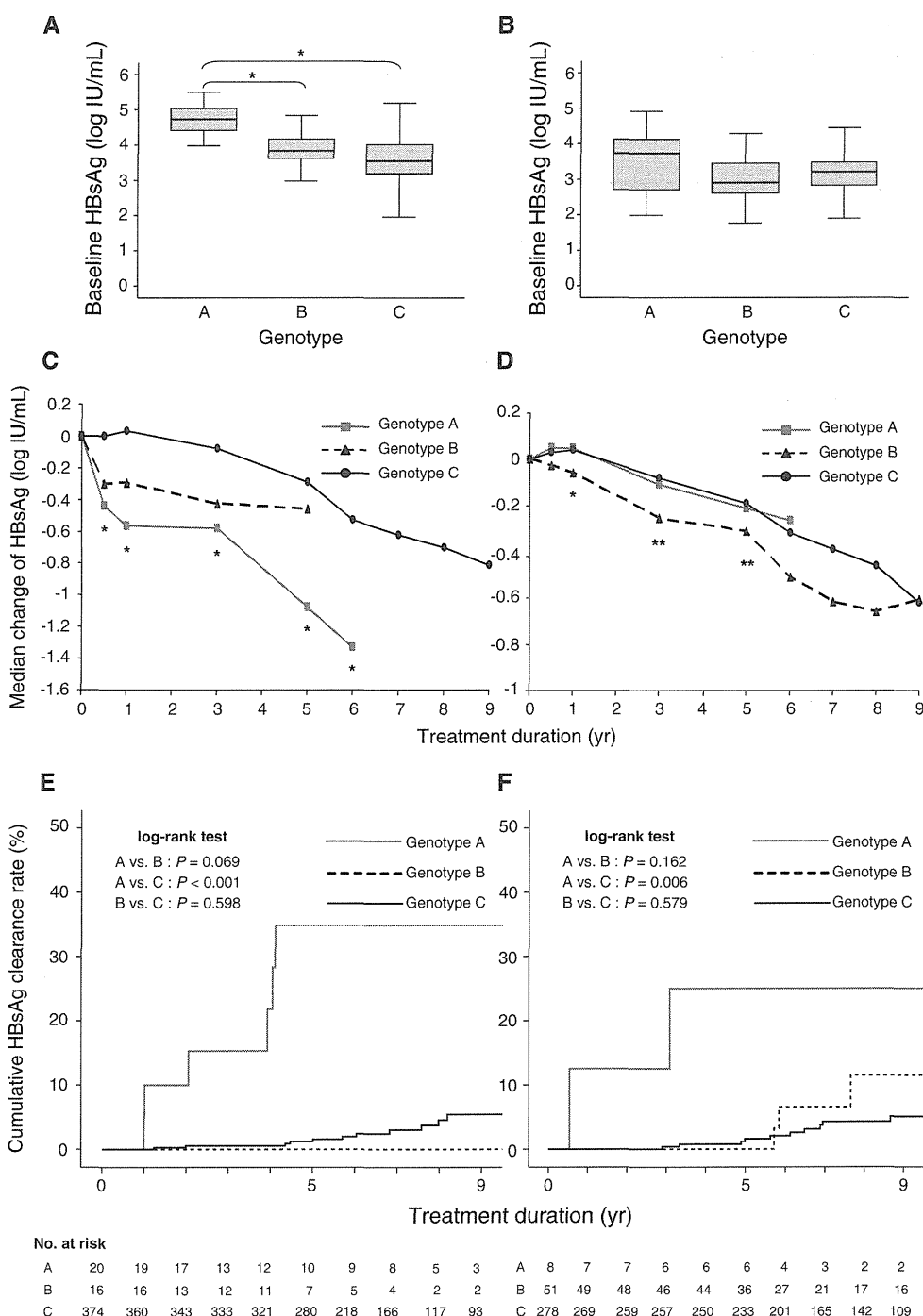
Variables analyzed in multivariate analysis: HBV genotype, baseline HBsAg, decline of HBsAg levels

HBsAg kinetics over time in the HBeAg+ and – cohorts are shown in Fig. 2c, d, respectively. Among patients with genotype A in the HBeAg+ cohort, the median HBsAg change from baseline was -0.44 log IU/mL at six months, -0.56 at one year, -0.58 at three years, -1.08 at five years, and -1.33 at six years. Among patients with genotype B in the HBeAg+ cohort, median changes were -0.30 log IU/mL at six months, -0.30 at one year, -0.43 at three years, and -0.46 at five years. Kinetics were not calculated for some groups (genotype A at seven years, genotype B at six years) because the number of patients was too small. Finally, among patients with genotype C in the HBeAg+ cohort, median changes were 0.00 log IU/mL at six months, 0.03 at one year, -0.08 at three years, -0.29 at five years, -0.53 at six years, -0.62 at seven years, -0.70 at eight years, and -0.82 at nine years. Genotype had a significant effect on the slopes between data collection points at six months and six years. In the HBeAg+ cohort, declines were faster in patients with genotype A than in those with genotypes B or C. HBeAg– patients with genotype A displayed a median HBsAg change from baseline of 0.05 log IU/mL at six months, 0.05 at one year, -0.11 at three years, -0.21 at

five years, and -0.26 at six years. Among patients with genotype B in the HBeAg– cohort, median changes were -0.03 log IU/mL at six months, -0.06 at one year, -0.25 at three years, -0.31 at five years, -0.51 at six years, -0.62 at seven years, -0.66 at eight years, and -0.61 at nine years. Among patients with genotype C in the HBeAg– cohort, median changes were 0.03 log IU/mL at six months, 0.04 at one year, -0.08 at three years, -0.19 at five years, -0.32 at six years, -0.39 at seven years, -0.46 at eight years, and -0.62 at nine years. The decline was slightly faster in patients with genotype B than in those with genotypes A and C in the HBeAg– cohort.

We investigated whether HBsAg clearance were influenced by genotype or baseline HBeAg. Cumulative HBsAg clearance rates in the HBeAg+ cohort were as follows: 15% at year 3, and 35% at year 5 in patients with genotype A; 0% over all years in patients with genotype B; and 0.6% at year 3, 1.2% at year 5, and 5.4% at year 9 in patients with genotype C (Fig. 2e). In the HBeAg– cohort, clearance rates were 12% at year 3, and 25% at year 5 in patients with genotype A; 0% at year 3, 0% at year 5, and 11.5% at year 9 in patients with genotype B; and 0.4% at year 3, 1.6% at year 5, and 5.1% at year 9 in

Fig. 2 **a** Box plot of baseline HBsAg levels in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg+ cohort). The *asterisk* (*) indicates a statistical significance of $P < 0.001$, as determined by the Mann–Whitney U test and Bonferroni correction. **b** Box plot of baseline HBsAg levels in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg– cohort). **c** Median change in HBsAg level from baseline in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg+ cohort). A *single asterisk* (*) indicates $P < 0.001$, as determined by the Kruskal–Wallis test. **d** Median change in HBsAg level from baseline in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg– cohort). A *single asterisk* (*) indicates $P < 0.001$ and a *double asterisk* (**) indicates $P < 0.02$, as determined by the Kruskal–Wallis test. **e** Kaplan–Meier life table showing cumulative HBsAg clearance rates in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg+ cohort). Cumulative HBsAg clearance rates were significantly higher among patients with genotype A (log-rank test; A vs. B: $P = 0.069$, A vs. C: $P < 0.001$, B vs. C: $P = 0.598$, after Bonferroni correction). **f** Kaplan–Meier life table showing cumulative HBsAg clearance rates in patients with different HBV genotypes (HBeAg– cohort). Cumulative HBsAg clearance rates were significantly higher among patients with genotype A (log-rank test; A vs. B: $P = 0.169$, A vs. C: $P = 0.006$, B vs. C: $P = 0.579$, after Bonferroni correction)



patients with genotype C (Fig. 2f). Clearance rates were significantly higher in patients with genotype A than in those with genotype C ($P < 0.001$ in the HBeAg+ cohort, $P = 0.006$ in the HBeAg– cohort).

Association between on-treatment response and subsequent HBsAg clearance

We stratified patients into three groups according to the amount of HBsAg decline within the first six months of

treatment; this allowed us to evaluate the impact of on-treatment response factors on the clearance of HBsAg. The stratifications were as follows: rapid decline (≥ 1.0 log IU/mL), intermediate decline (0.5–1.0 log IU/mL), and slow decline or steady (< 0.5 log IU/mL). Cumulative HBsAg clearance rates in the HBeAg+ cohort were 11 % at year 3, and 40 % at year 5 in the rapid decline group; 0 % at year 3, 2.2 % at year 5, and 13 % at year 9 in the intermediate decline group; and 0 % at year 3, 0 % at year 5, and 2.9 % at year 9 in the slow decline or steady group (Fig. 3a).