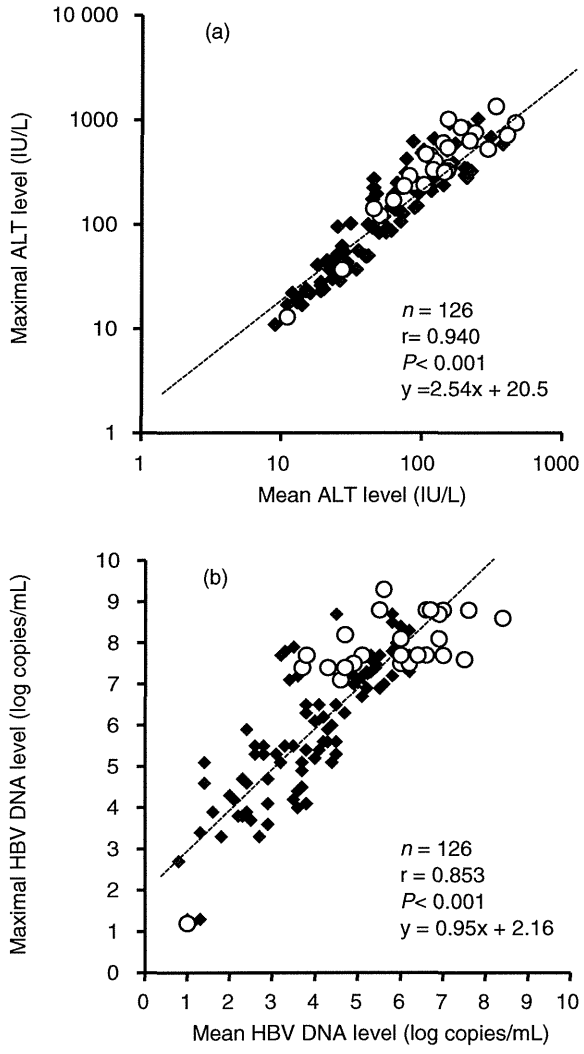

Figure 1 Correlation between maximal and mean levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) (a) and hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA (b) after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs). Open circles indicate patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and closed squares indicate patients without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

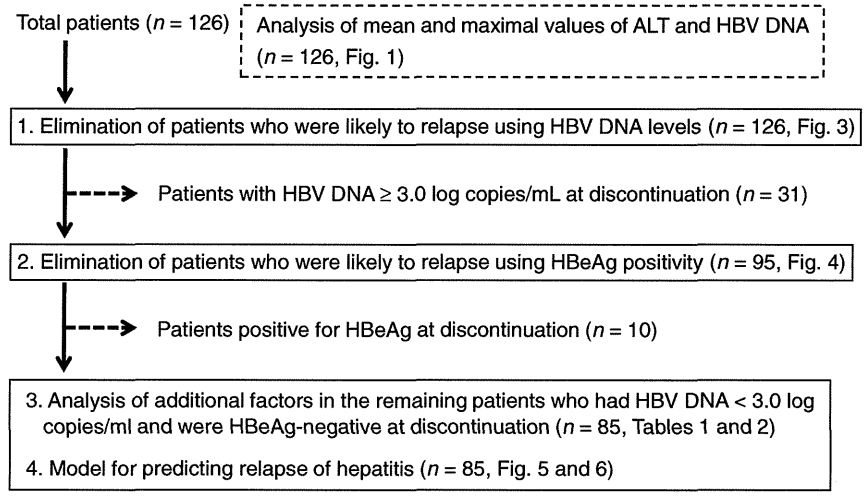

Figure 2 The progression of analyses in the present study and population structure of each analysis.

both negative for HBeAg and whose serum HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at NA cessation. Table 1 shows the comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between the 53 relapse and 32 non-relapse patients using univariate analysis. Age and gender distributions were similar between the groups. Approximately 75% of the 85 patients had HBV genotype C, but the distribution of genotypes did not differ between the groups. Approximately 90% of patients were being treated with LVD alone at the time of discontinuation, compared with 6% of patients being given ETV. The median duration of NA treatment was about two times longer in patients without relapse. Levels of both HBsAg and HBcrAg were significantly lower in non-relapse patients than in relapse patients at the time of NA discontinuation. The difference between serum HBsAg was also significant at the initiation of NAs, but not that of HBcrAg. As only patients with HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL were analyzed, the majority of these cases showed levels below the 2.6 log copies/mL lower detection limit of the Amplicor assay at NA discontinuation. We therefore also tested HBV DNA with a TaqMan assay, which had a higher sensitivity than the Amplicor assay, in 43 patients whose serum samples were available. The prevalence of patients having a negative detection signal did not differ between the two groups. The number of

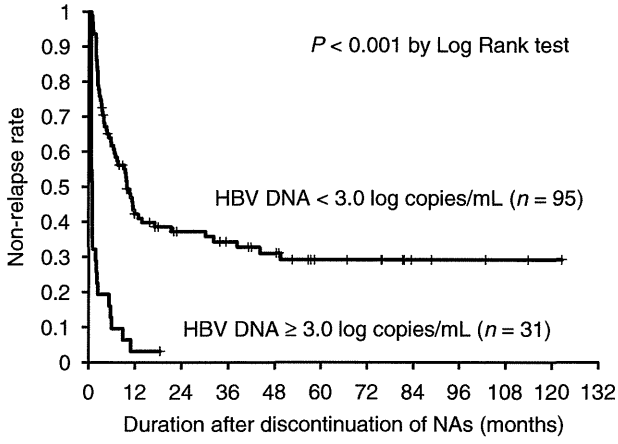

Figure 3 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with serum HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

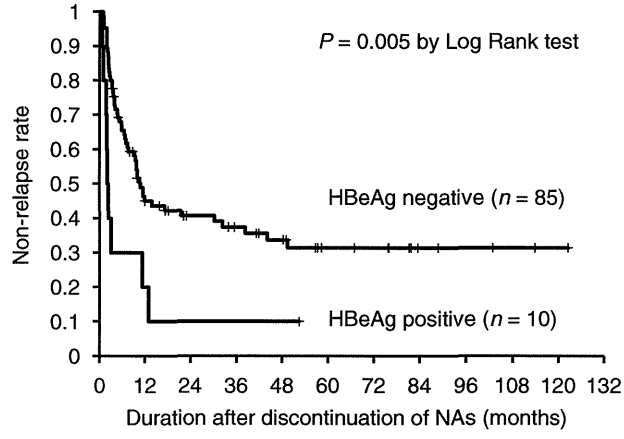

Figure 4 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and 85 patients without detectable HBeAg at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

Table 1 Comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between patients with and without relapse of hepatitis at initiation and discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Background	Non-relapse patients ($n = 32$)	Relapse patients ($n = 53$)	*P*-value
At initiation of NAs			
Age (years)†	47 (17–75)	48 (26–74)	>0.2
Gender (M : F)	23:9	32:21	>0.2
ALT (IU/L)†	183 (9–1182)	187 (20–2052)	>0.2
Genotype (A : B : C : UD)	1:2:21:8	0:3:44:6	0.193
HBeAg (positive)‡	11 (34%)	16 (30%)	>0.2
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	6.2 (<2.6–>7.6)	6.5 (<2.6–>7.6)	0.099
HBsAg (log IU/mL)†	2.7 (0.1–4.3)	3.3 (1.6–3.9)	0.018
HBcrAg (log U/mL)†	5.2 (<3.0–>6.8)	5.6 (<3.0–>6.8)	>0.2
At discontinuation of NAs			
Age (years)†	50 (21–78)	49 (26–79)	>0.2
NAs (LVD : LVD+ADV : ETV : ADV)	28:1:3:0	50:0:2:1	>0.2
Duration of NA treatment (months)†	36 (4–129)	17 (4–84)	0.007
Follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs (months)†	45 (6–123)	12 (1–111)	0.002
ALT (IU/L)†	16 (7–38)	20 (9–65)	0.002
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative signal)‡	5 (23%) ($n = 22$)	3 (14%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative or positive signal)‡	13 (59%) ($n = 22$)	13 (62%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
HBsAg (log IU/ml)†	2.0 (<–1.5–4.3)	3.1 (0.6–4.0)	0.001
HBcrAg (log IU/mL)†	3.4 (<3.0–4.9)	4.3 (<3.0–>6.8)	0.003

†Data are expressed as the median (range)
‡Data are expressed as a positive number (%)
ADV; adefovir dipivoxil; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ETV, entecavir; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; LVD, lamivudine; UD, undetermined.

patients with a negative detection signal or a positive signal also did not vary significantly. The follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs was significantly shorter in patients with relapse than in those without because formal follow-up ended once patients relapsed. The median period of follow-up was 45 months in patients without relapse.

Multivariate analyses revealed that a shorter duration of NA treatment and higher levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation were significantly associated with the occurrence of hepatitis relapse (Table 2). The cut-off values that showed the highest significance by ROC analysis were 1.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg (AUC = 0.707, $P = 0.001$), 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg (AUC = 0.692, $P = 0.003$), and 16 months (AUC = 0.674, $P = 0.007$) for treatment duration.

Model for predicting relapse of hepatitis using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg

The existence of a second cut-off value was suggested by ROC analysis for both of HBsAg (2.9 log IU/mL) and HBcrAg (3.0 log IU/mL) to discriminate between

Table 2 Multivariate analysis of factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Factor	Hazard ratio	95%CI	*P*-value
HBsAg at discontinuation ≥ 1.9 log IU/mL	5.21	1.87–14.55	0.002
HBcrAg at discontinuation ≥ 4.0 log U/mL	2.20	1.25–3.87	0.006
Duration of NA treatment ≥ 16 months	0.54	0.31–0.93	0.027

CI, confidence interval; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen.

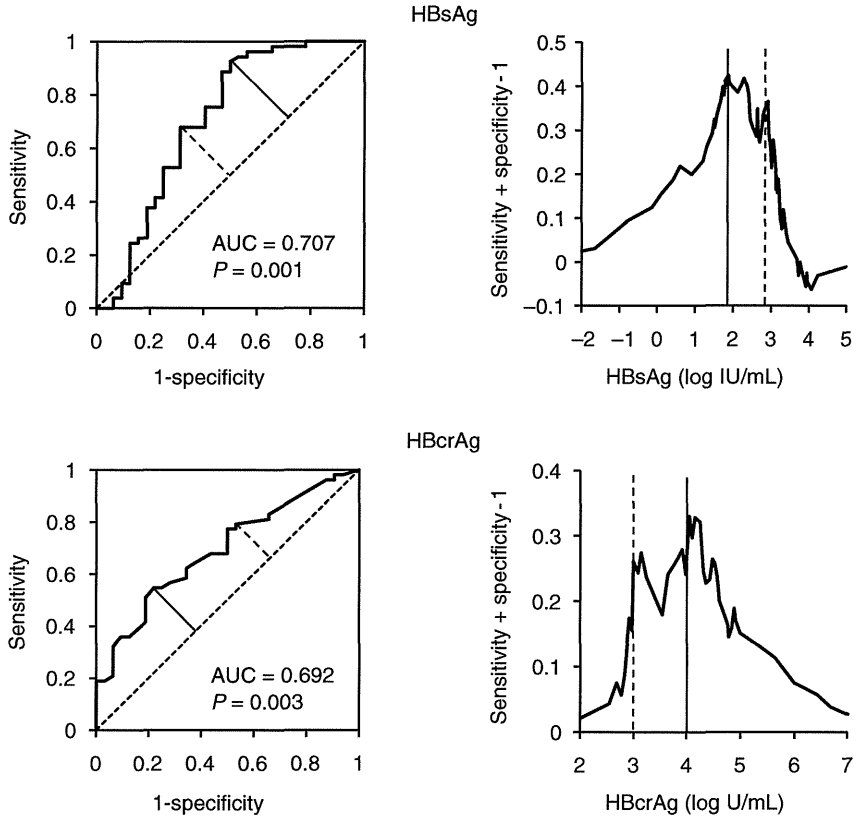

Figure 5 Receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) to discriminate between patients with and without hepatitis relapse. The existence of two inflection points is suggested for both HBsAg and HBcrAg. Short diagonal lines indicate main inflection points and short broken diagonal lines indicate second inflection points. Vertical lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the main inflection points and vertical broken lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the second inflection points.

patients with and without relapse (Fig. 5). Thus, we set cut-off values as 1.9 and 2.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg and 3.0 and 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg in our model for predicting hepatitis relapse.

We tentatively defined three groups using the sum of the scores for HBsAg and HBcrAg levels at the time of NA discontinuation for our model. Conversions were made by assigning a score of 0 for an HBsAg level lower than 1.9 log IU/mL, 1 for a level from 1.9 to 2.8 log IU/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 2.9 log IU/mL. HBcrAg was scored as 0 for a level lower than 3.0 log U/mL, 1 for a level from 3.0 to 3.9 log U/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 4.0 log U/mL. Overall, group 1 consisted of patients with a total score of 0, group 2 of patients with a total score of 1 or 2, and group 3 of patients with a total score of 3 or 4.

Patients whose HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and in whom HBeAg was negative at the time of NA discontinuation were assigned to one of the three groups. Figure 6 shows the comparison of non-relapse rates among the three groups using Kaplan–Meier analysis, which differed significantly. The non-relapse rate was approximately 90% in group 1, as low as 10% in group 3, and intermediate in group 2. When factors associated with relapse were analyzed in group 3 patients, an age of over 40 years at the time of discontinuation was calculated as a significant factor (hazard

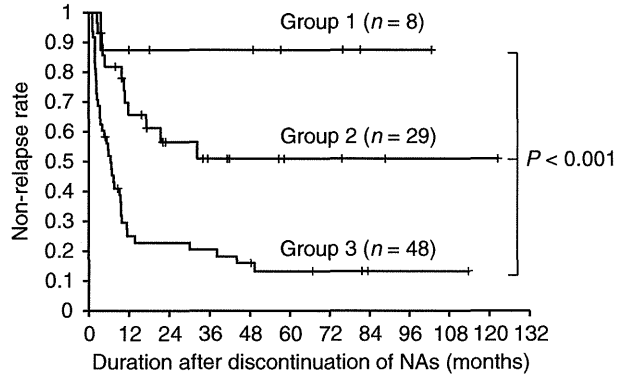

Figure 6 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method among three groups classified by the sum of the scores of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

ratio = 5.25, range 2.37–11.65, $P < 0.001$). No significant factors were associated with relapse in group 2 patients.

DISCUSSION

THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION for the Study of the Liver recommends continuation of NA treatment until HBsAg is cleared.[25] Liu *et al.* came to a similar conclusion in their study of chronic hepatitis B patients treated with LVD.[14] Indeed, the clearance of HBsAg is a reliable marker for the safe discontinuation of NAs, but the rate of patients who can clear HBsAg is relatively low (1–3%/year).[26–28] Thus, additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis B after discontinuation of NAs were analyzed in the present study to better identify candidates who could achieve drug-free status. Such studies are relatively few, possibly because patients who discontinue NAs prematurely often experience severe complicating relapse and hepatic failure.[9] Although prospective studies are desirable to obtain accurate results, retrospective studies, such as ours, are also necessary to minimize the risk of adverse complications.

Since HBV cannot be completely eradicated in hosts, the primary goal in treating chronic hepatitis B is to convert symptomatic patients into inactive carriers in whom HBeAg is negative (usually anti-HBe-positive), serum HBV DNA is low, and serum ALT is normal.[1,2,18,29] Thus, we set the clinical conditions of a successful discontinuation of NAs as serum HBV DNA level below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L following NA cessation. Patients who satisfy these conditions are not recommended for treatment by the Japanese guidelines for hepatitis B,[18] and it is also widely accepted that the risk of developing cirrhosis or complicating hepatocellular carcinoma is very low in such patients.[30,31] We used our cohort's mean and maximal values of HBV DNA and ALT for relapse analyses. Mean values were useful for evaluating relapse of hepatitis as a whole since parameter levels often fluctuated after discontinuation, and maximal values were used to evaluate relapse in a real-time fashion during the follow-up period. It is noteworthy that the mean and maximal values correlated very closely for both HBV DNA and ALT. The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to the maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis, and similarly the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to the maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L. Thus, relapse of hepatitis B was judged to occur when serum ALT became higher than 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA surpassed 5.7 log copies/mL after the time of NA discontinuation. Such criteria may also be useful for physicians to detect relapse at an early phase and avoid the occurrence of severe reactivation or unnecessary discontinuation of NAs.

It is generally understood that patients with a higher level of HBV DNA at the time of NA discontinuation are likely to relapse, but this cut-off value has not been analyzed sufficiently. Our findings using ROC analysis showed that patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL have a good possibility to achieve successful discontinuation. The presence of HBeAg is also generally accepted as a reliable factor to predict relapse of hepatitis. Our study showed that patients with detectable HBeAg at the time of NA discontinuation were likely to relapse, even if their HBV DNA levels were lower than 3.0 log copies/mL. Therefore, we next analyzed additional factors associated with a relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs by selecting patients who met both of these criteria.

Nucleos(t)ide analog treatment produces a rapid decrease in serum HBV DNA by suppressing reverse transcription of pregenomic HBV RNA. However, the key intrahepatic HBV replicative intermediate, covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA), tends to remain and is capable of reinitiating replication once NAs are ceased.[32] Measurement of HBV cccDNA has been reported to be useful for monitoring and predicting responses to antiviral treatments.[33] However, its measurement is difficult in the clinical setting as it requires a liver biopsy. Due to the mechanism of action of NAs mentioned above, serum HBV DNA does not reflect intrahepatic HBV cccDNA in patients undergoing NA treatment.[34] To address this, quantitative measurement of HBV antigens has been reported to be useful for predicting the effect of antiviral treatment in patients with chronic hepatitis B. Although HBsAg is usually used as a serum marker for the diagnosis of HBV infection, several groups have shown that HBsAg levels can also be reflective of the response to peg-interferon in chronic hepatitis B.[28,35,36] The HBcrAg assay measures serum levels of HB core and e antigens simultaneously using monoclonal antibodies that recognize the common epitopes of these two denatured antigens. Since the assay measures all antigens transcribed from the pre-core/core gene, it is regarded as core-related.[37] Serum HBcrAg has been reported to accurately reflect intracellular levels of HBV cccDNA even during NA treatment,[24,34,38] and was found to be useful for identifying patients who were likely to show relapse of hepatitis after the discontinuation of NAs.[39,40] It is possible that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg have different roles in

monitoring antiviral effects because the transcription of these two antigens are regulated by alternative enhancer-promoter systems in the HBV genome.[3] Therefore, we analyzed both of these antigens to elucidate their ability to predict relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs.

Multivariate analysis demonstrated that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were independent factors significantly associated with relapse of hepatitis. Thus, we believe these factors can also be applied for predicting relapse in patients whose HBV DNA is lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and whose HBeAg is negative at NA discontinuation. HBV DNA levels were further analyzed using a highly sensitive assay based on real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). However, even the level of a negative signal did not ensure successful discontinuation of NAs. The results obtained here indicate that the combined use of HBV-related antigens are useful makers for monitoring the effect of anti-viral treatment in ways different from HBV DNA. Finally, since prolonged NA administration was also a significant factor associated with safe discontinuation, physicians are advised to continue patient treatment for at least 16 months for the best possible outcome.

From our data, a tentative model for predicting relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs was constructed using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation. A negative result for HBeAg and HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of NA discontinuation are the essential conditions in this system. Levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg were each converted into scores from 0 to 2 partly because two cut-off values were needed for each antigen and partly because a scoring system may be more convenient for clinical use. The sum of the two scores, which ranged from 0 to 4, was used to prospect relapse. We found that group 1 patients who had a low score (0) could be recommended to discontinue NAs because nearly 90% of this group achieved successful discontinuation. Further analysis of factors associated with relapse are needed for group 2 patients who had middle range scores (1 or 2), since the odds of achieving successful discontinuation were approximately 50%. Continuation of NA treatment is recommended for group 3 patients having high scores (3 or 4) because nearly 90% of this group relapsed. However, this recommendation may be reconsidered in patients younger than 40 years; such cases tended to have a lower relapse rate in group 3. It is also noteworthy that relapse occurred mainly during the first and second years following NA discontinuation in all groups, similarly to a report by Liu *et al.*[14] Thus, clinicians should be vigilant in the early phase after discontinuation.

This study has several limitations. The patients who discontinued NAs were recruited retrospectively, and thus the decision to halt NA treatment was made by individual physicians without uniformly established criteria. Based on this, prospective studies are required to confirm our results. Furthermore, as over 90% of the patients we enrolled had genotype C and over 90% of cases were treated with LVD until discontinuation, the results obtained here can not be applied directly to other HBV genotypes or other types of NAs.

In conclusion, the present study showed that maximal levels of serum ALT and HBV DNA were useful for defining relapse patients after discontinuation of NAs. Along with serum HBV DNA of less than 3.0 log copies/mL and negative serum HBeAg, serum levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were able to predict relapse of hepatitis B and should therefore be considered when establishing uniform guidelines regarding the safe withdrawal of NA treatment. To this end, NA administration of more than 16 months is advisable to achieve successful discontinuation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THIS RESEARCH WAS supported in part by a research grant from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan.

We thank Ms. Hiroe Banno for her secretarial assistance and thank Ms. Nozomi Kamijo and Ms. Etsuko Iigahama for their technical assistance. We also thank Mr Trevor Ralph for his English editorial assistance.

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J Gastroenterol (2012) 47:1006–1013
DOI 10.1007/s00535-012-0559-2

ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Changes in the serum level of hepatitis B virus (HBV) surface antigen over the natural course of HBV infection

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Received: 13 October 2011 / Accepted: 30 January 2012 / Published online: 29 February 2012

Abstract
Background Despite its status as a potential biomarker of hepatitis B virus (HBV) response to interferon treatment, the changes in hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) levels over the natural course of HBV carriers have not been analyzed sufficiently.
Methods A total of 101 HBV carriers were followed prospectively from 1999 to 2009. HBsAg level was measured yearly during the followed period.
Results HBsAg levels at baseline ranged from −1.4 to 5.32 log IU/ml, with a median value of 3.2 log IU/ml. Lower HBsAg levels were significantly associated with higher age and lower HBV replication status. The rate of change of HBsAg levels showed two peaks, with a cut-off value of −0.4 log IU/year. Based on this, patients were tentatively classified into rapid decrease (rate of change <−0.4 log IU/year) and non-rapid decrease groups. All baseline levels of HBsAg, HB core-related Ag, and HBV DNA were lower in the rapid decrease group than in the non-rapid decrease group. Patients with persistently positive HBeAg were all classified into the non-rapid decrease group. In patients with persistently negative HBeAg, HBV DNA levels were significantly ($P = 0.028$) lower in the rapid decrease group than in the non-rapid decrease group.
Conclusions Lower baseline HBsAg levels were significantly associated with older age and lower viral activity. Both a loss of HBeAg detection as well as inactive replication of HBV are suggested to be fundamental factors contributing to a rapid decrease in HBsAg over the natural course of HBV infection.

Keywords Hepatitis B virus · Hepatitis B surface antigen · Hepatitis B core-related antigen · Serum level · Natural course

Abbreviations

HBsAg	Hepatitis B surface antigen
HBV	Hepatitis B virus
IU	International unit
HBcrAg	Hepatitis B virus core-related antigen
HCC	Hepatocellular carcinoma
NA	Nucleos(t)ide analogue
HBeAg	Hepatitis B e antigen
CLEIA	Chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay
Da	Dalton
HR	Hazard ratio
cccDNA	Covalently closed circular DNA

Introduction

With an estimated 350–400 million cases of chronic infection, hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection is a major worldwide health problem [1]. Chronic infection of HBV often leads to chronic hepatitis and eventually to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [2, 3]. During infection, hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), which is a component of the virion envelope, is secreted into the

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bloodstream in large amounts as subviral particles. Thus, serum HBsAg is routinely used as a marker for detection of HBV infection.

Recently, several groups have reported that HBsAg levels can be used as an indicator of the response to peg-interferon in chronic hepatitis B similarly to the conventional markers of HBV DNA level and hepatitis B (HB) e antigen/antibody status [4, 5]. Since HBV carriers who clear HBsAg usually have a better prognosis than those who do not [6–8], it may be worthwhile to monitor HBsAg levels in the natural disease course of HBV infection. However, such changes need to be clarified more thoroughly to validate their clinical significance. In the present study, we analyzed the changes in HBsAg levels in a cohort of HBV carriers who were followed prospectively and compared them with those of HBV DNA and HB core-related antigens (HBcrAg) levels.

Patients and methods

Patients

A total of 101 HBV carriers were followed prospectively from 1999 to 2009. Patients were selected consecutively between 1997 and 1999 and met the following conditions: (1) HBsAg was positive in at least two examinations performed over 1 year apart; (2) no complications of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) or signs of hepatic dysfunction, such as jaundice or ascites, were observed; (3) nucleos(t)ide analogues (NAs) were not administered at the start of follow-up; and (4) patients were negative for hepatitis C and human immunodeficiency virus antibodies. The clinical and virological characteristics of our cohort are shown in Table 1. The 101 patients consisted of 57 men and 44 women with a median age of 50 years (range 15–83 years). Hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) was positive in 38 (38%) patients and negative in 63 (63%). Of the 38 patients with HBeAg, 15 remained positive and 23 became negative during the follow-up period. Alanine aminotransferase (ALT) level flares of over 1,000 IU/L were observed in four (17%) of the 23 patients with HBeAg loss, but in none of the 15 patients with persistent HBeAg ($P = 0.138$). HBV genotype distribution was A in three (3%) patients, B in nine (9%), C in 87 (86%), and undetermined in two (2%). All patients were seen at Shinshu University Hospital or one of its affiliated hospitals. Our cohort tended to have a higher prevalence of cirrhosis (19%) and HCC (14%). These tendencies may be attributed to the higher age distribution in our cohort than that in other cohorts of HBsAg studies [6, 9, 10].

Patients were seen at least once a year during the 10 years of follow-up. The presence of cirrhosis was judged by histological findings and/or typical findings seen in cirrhosis, such as esophageal varices and splenomegaly. Screening for HCC was done using ultrasonography (US), computed tomography (CT), and/or magnetic resonance (MR) imagining at least once a year. The presence of complicating HCC was judged by evidence of characteristic hepatic masses on liver CT, MRI, and/or hepatic angiography. Serum samples were collected on a yearly basis and immediately stored at −20°C or below until assayed. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Shinshu University.

Hepatitis B viral markers

Serological markers for HBV, including HBsAg, HBeAg, and HBe antibody, were tested using commercially

Table 1 Clinical and virological characteristics of patients with respect to HBeAg status

Characteristic	Overall ($n = 101$)	HBeAg-positive ($n = 38$)	HBeAg-negative ($n = 63$)	P
At baseline				
Age (years)[a]	50 (15 to 83)	42 (15 to 72)	53 (25 to 83)	<0.001
Male[b]	57 (56%)	22 (58%)	35 (56%)	>0.2
With cirrhosis[b]	19 (19%)	10 (26%)	9 (14%)	0.188
ALT (IU/L)[a]	31 (10 to 447)	47 (13 to 447)	29 (10 to 81)	0.002
HBV genotype (A:B:C:UD)	3:9:87:2	1:0:36:1	2:9:51:1	0.144
HBsAg (log IU/ml)[a]	3.2 (−1.4 to 5.3)	3.7 (1.6 to 5.3)	2.9 (−1.4 to 4.3)	<0.001
HBcrAg (log U/ml)[a]	3.8 (<3.0 to >6.8)	6.8 (<3.0 to >6.8)	3.1 (<3.0 to >6.8)	<0.001
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)[a]	4.7 (neg. to >9.5)	7.4 (2.4 to >9.5)	3.6 (neg. to 8.3)	<0.001
During follow-up				
Followed period (years)[a]	5 (1 to 10)	6 (1 to 10)	5 (1 to 10)	>0.2
Clearance of HBsAg[b]	20 (20%)	3 (8%)	17 (27%)	0.022
Complication of HCC[b]	14 (14%)	8 (21%)	6 (10%)	0.139
Introduction of NAs[b]	23 (23%)	11 (29%)	12 (19%)	>0.2

UD undetermined

[a] Data are expressed as median (range)

[b] Data are expressed as positive number (%)

available enzyme immunoassay kits (Abbott Japan Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Quantitative measurement of HBsAg was done using an HISCL® HBsAg assay based on the chemiluminescence enzyme immunoassay (CLEIA) (Sysmex Co. Ltd., Kobe, Japan), which had a quantitative range from −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. Changes in HBsAg levels during the natural course of HBV infection were calculated as: difference in HBsAg level at baseline and at last visit (not undergoing NA treatment) divided by the corresponding follow-up time. Results were expressed as log change per year. Points when patients were negative for HBsAg were omitted in calculations; thus, three patients who had cleared HBsAg by the first follow-up were excluded from the study. Changes in HBsAg levels during NA treatment were calculated similarly using the differences in HBsAg levels between the start and either the end of NA treatment or the last visit.

Serum HBcrAg levels were measured using a CLEIA-based HBcrAg assay kit with a fully automated Lumipulse System analyzer (Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan) as described previously [11]. Briefly, 150 μl of serum was incubated with 150 μl of pretreatment solution containing 15% sodium dodecyl sulphate at 60°C for 30 min. After heat treatment, 120 μl of pretreated specimen was added to a ferrite microparticle suspension in an assay cartridge. Ferrite particles were coated with a monoclonal antibody mixture (HB44, HB61, and HB114) against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. [12] After 10 min of incubation at 37°C and washing, further incubation was carried out for 10 min at 37°C with alkaline phosphatase conjugated with two kinds of monoclonal antibodies (HB91 and HB110) against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. After washing, 200 μl of substrate solution was added to the test cartridge, which was then incubated for 5 min at 37°C. The relative chemiluminescence intensity was measured, and HBcrAg concentration was calculated by a standard curve generated using recombinant pro-HBeAg (amino acids −10 to 183 of the precore/core gene product). The immunoreactivity of pro-HBeAg at 10 fg/ml was defined as 1 U/ml. HBcrAg was expressed in terms of log U/ml, and the quantitative range was set at 3.0–6.8 log U/ml.

Serum concentration of HBV DNA was determined using an AccuGene m-HBV kit (Abbott Japan Co., Ltd.) with a quantitative range of 1.7–9.5 log copies/ml when tested in a sample volume of 0.2 ml. Six HBV genotypes (A–F) were evaluated according to the restriction patterns of DNA fragments from the method reported by Mizokami et al. [13].

Statistical analyses

Correlations between variables were calculated using the Spearman correlation coefficient test. The Fisher's exact and Pearson's Chi-square tests were adopted to test for differences between subgroups of patients. To compare continuous data, the Mann–Whitney *U* test was employed. To compare paired continuous data, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for matched pairs was used. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to estimate positive rates of HBsAg and the occurrence rate of HCC. Multivariate analyses were performed using the Cox regression model. Variables associated with a P value of <0.2 in univariate analyses were included in a stepwise Cox regression analysis to identify independent factors associated with clearance of HBsAg. 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

Follow-up of patients

Twenty three (23%) of the 101 patients enrolled dropped out of the study for reasons of changing addresses (11 patients) or halting hospital visits (12 patients). Among the remaining 78 patients, six died (four from HCC, one from hepatic failure, and one from old age) and one underwent liver transplantation due to hepatic failure. Thus, 71 patients completed the full follow-up period of 10 years.

Long term treatment with NAs, such lamivudine, was introduced in 23 patients (23%) during the study period.

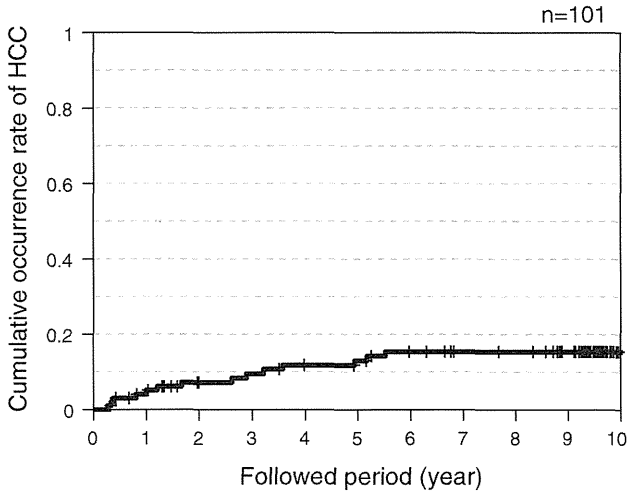

Fig. 1 Changes in the cumulative occurrence rate of HCC during the follow-up period

These patients commenced treatment after showing clinical and/or histological features of chronic active hepatitis B. The treatment period with NAs was excluded from our analysis of HBsAg level changes during the natural disease course.

Complicating HCC was seen in 14 patients within 6 years of their first visit (Fig. 1), leading to an annual rate of HCC occurrence of 2.3% per year for the first 6 years of follow-up. HCC was seen after the disappearance of HBsAg in a 90-year-old woman with negative HBeAg and HBV DNA at the time of diagnosis.

HBsAg levels at baseline and during clinical course

Baseline HBsAg levels ranged from −1.4 to 5.32 log IU/ml, with a median value of 3.2 log IU/ml (Fig. 2). Table 2 shows a comparison of clinical and virological characteristics between patients with lower and higher HBsAg levels divided at the median level. Older patients were significantly more prevalent in the lower level group than in the higher level group. Genotype B was only seen in the lower level group. Detection of HBeAg and median levels of both HBV DNA and HBcrAg were significantly lower in the lower level group. Clearance of HBsAg during the follow-up period was more frequent in the lower level group, but the occurrence of HCC was comparable between the two groups. Of the 52 patients with higher HBsAg levels at baseline, five lost HBsAg positivity and the remaining 47 did not. Median levels of HBV DNA (3.2 vs. 6.0 log copies/ml, $P = 0.023$), HBsAg (3.5 vs. 3.8 log IU/ml, $P = 0.091$), and HBcrAg (3.2 vs. 5.5 log U/ml, $P = 0.095$) tended to be lower in the former than in the latter group of patients at baseline, but the difference was statistically significant for HBV DNA level only. Median age (49 vs. 46 years, $P > 0.2$), male gender (80 vs. 45%, $P = 0.183$), and median ALT level (32 vs. 40 IU/L, $P > 0.2$) did not differ between the two groups at baseline.

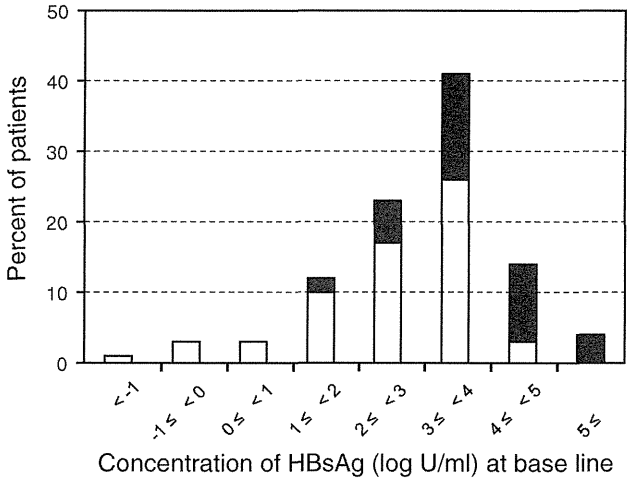

Fig. 2 Distribution of HBsAg concentration at baseline. *Closed bars* indicate patients with detectable HBeAg and *open bars* indicate those without

HBsAg levels at baseline were further analyzed according to age and HBeAg status, and the trend of HBsAg distribution was compared to those of HBcrAg and HBV DNA (Fig. 3). HBsAg levels in HBeAg-positive patients were distributed in a higher range, and the association of HBsAg with age was faint ($r = -0.291$, $P = 0.076$). On the other hand, HBsAg levels were distributed in a higher range in patients younger than 50 years of age, but were distributed more widely in patients 50 years or older. HBsAg levels in HBeAg-negative patients decreased significantly ($r = -0.453$, $P < 0.001$) with age. Furthermore, whereas HBcrAg levels in HBeAg-positive patients ($r = -0.260$, $P = 0.115$) were distributed in a higher range among all

Table 2 Comparison of clinical and virological characteristics between patients with serum HBsAg levels less than 3.2 log IU/ml and those with levels equal to or higher than 3.2 log IU/ml

Characteristic	HBsAg level at baseline		*P*
	<3.2 log IU/ml ($n = 49$)	≥3.2 log IU/ml ($n = 52$)	
At baseline			
Age (years)[a]	55 (32 to 83)	45 (15 to 72)	<0.001
Male[b]	32 (65%)	25 (48%)	0.108
With cirrhosis[b]	13 (27%)	6 (12%)	0.075
ALT (IU/L)[a]	28 (10 to 119)	39 (12 to 447)	0.089
HBV genotype (A:B:C:UD)	1:9:38:1	2:0:49:1	0.018
HBeAg[b]	11 (22%)	27 (52%)	0.004
HBcrAg (log U/ml)[a]	3.3 (<3.0 to >6.8)	5.5 (<3.0 to >6.8)	<0.001
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)[a]	3.7 (<1.7 to 8.3)	6.0 (neg. to >9.5)	0.001
During follow-up			
Followed period (years)[a]	4 (1 to 10)	8 (1 to 10)	0.001
Clearance of HBsAg[b]	15 (31%)	5 (10%)	0.012
Occurrence of HCC[b]	9 (18%)	5 (10%)	>0.2
Introduction of NAs[b]	9 (18%)	14 (27%)	>0.2

UD undetermined

[a] Data are expressed as median (range)

[b] Data are expressed as positive number (%)

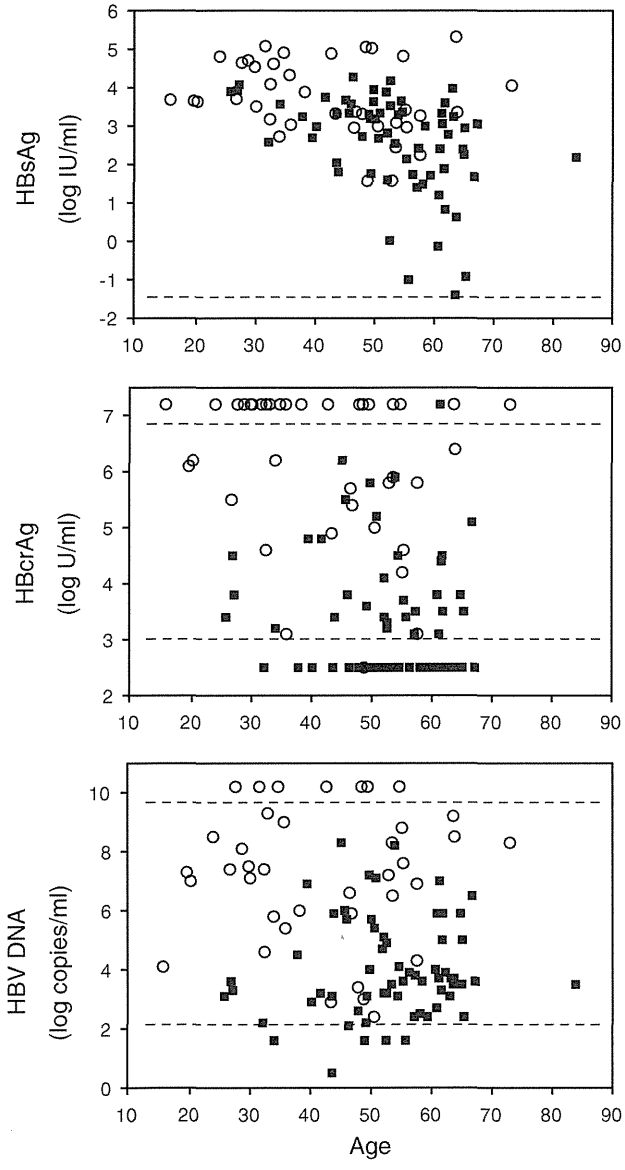

Fig. 3 HBsAg, HBcrAg, and HBV DNA levels analyzed according to HBeAg status and patient age. *Open circles* indicate patients with detectable HBeAg and *closed squares* indicate those without

ages, those in HBeAg-negative patients ($r = -0.103$, $P > 0.2$) were found in a lower range. A similar trend was seen for HBV DNA level distribution ($r = 0.015$, $P > 0.2$ and $r = 0.146$, $P > 0.2$, respectively).

Changes in HBsAg levels during the follow-up period

Positivity for HBsAg decreased gradually over the follow-up period (Fig. 4). A total of 20 patients cleared HBsAg during the follow-up period, for a disappearance rate of 2.1% per year. Clinical and virological backgrounds were compared between patients with and without clearance of HBsAg in Table 3. Patients losing HBsAg positivity were

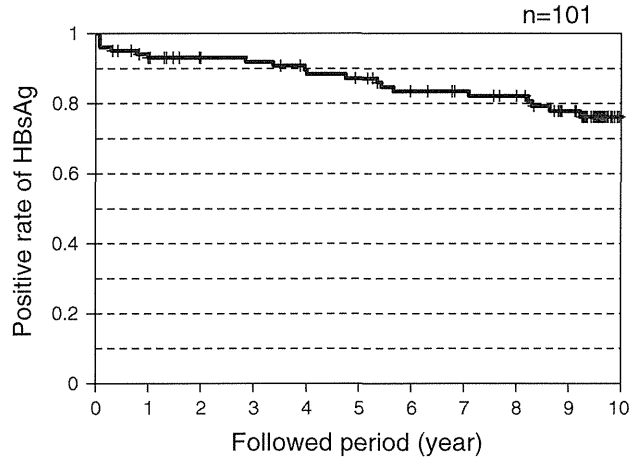

Fig. 4 Changes in HBsAg positivity during the follow-up period

significantly older than those who did not. Baseline levels of HBsAg, HBcrAg, and HBV DNA were significantly lower in these patients as well. Clearance of HBsAg was significantly associated with HBV DNA (HR 3.6, 95% CI 1.1–11.4, $P = 0.033$) and HBcrAg (HR 4.0, 95% CI 1.1–14.9, $P = 0.036$) levels at baseline by multivariate analysis. Of the 20 patients who cleared HBsAg, seven were positive for HBV DNA (range, positive 3.0 log copies/ml) and three were positive for HBcrAg (range 3.0–3.2 U/ml).

Figure 5 shows the distribution of patients according to the rate of change of HBsAg levels. Of the 98 patients analyzed, 79 (81%) showed a decrease in HBsAg. Although this level increased in 19% of patients, such changes were less than 0.2 log IU/year. The rate of change of HBsAg levels peaked at a cut-off value of −0.4 log IU/year. Accordingly, patients were tentatively classified into the rapid decrease group (rate of change <−0.4 log IU/year) and the non-rapid decrease group (rate of change ≥−0.4 log IU/year). Median age, gender distribution, prevalence of cirrhosis, ALT level, and genotype distribution did not differ between the two groups (Table 4). Levels of HBsAg, HBcrAg, and HBV DNA were significantly lower in the rapid decrease group than in the non-rapid one. Whereas all patients with persistently positive HBeAg were classified into the non-rapid group, patients with persistently negative HBeAg fell more frequently into the rapid decrease group (77%) than into the non-rapid decrease group (54%). In those patients, HBV DNA levels were significantly ($P = 0.028$) lower in the rapid decrease group (median 3.4, range <2.1–5.9 log copies/ml) than in the non-rapid decrease group (median 3.8, range <2.1–8.1 log copies/ml). Complicating HCC was lower in the rapid decrease group, but this difference was not statistically significant.

The median change in HBsAg level before NA treatment (−0.117 log IU/ml/year; range −2.4 to 1.41 log

Table 3 Comparison of clinical and virological characteristics between patients with and without clearance of HBsAg

Characteristic	Clearance of HBsAg		*P*
	Positive ($n = 20$)	Negative ($n = 81$)	
At baseline			
Age (years)[a]	56 (30 to 65)	50 (16 to 84)	0.038
Male[b]	8 (40%)	36 (44%)	>0.2
With cirrhosis[b]	4 (20%)	15 (18%)	1.000
ALT (IU/L)[a]	26 (10 to 108)	35 (13 to 447)	0.057
HBV genotype (A:B:C:UD)	0:2:18:0	3:7:69:2	>0.2
HBeAg[b]	3 (15%)	35 (43%)	0.022
HBsAg (log IU/ml)[a]	1.7 (−1.7 to 4.2)	3.3 (0.83 to 5.3)	<0.001
HBcrAg (log U/ml)[a]	3.0 (3.0 to >6.8)	4.7 (3.0 to >6.8)	<0.001
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)[a]	3.0 (<1.7 to 7.6)	5.7 (neg. to >9.5)	<0.001
During follow-up			
Followed period (years)[a]	4.4 (0.31 to 10.0)	5.2 (0.1 to 10.0)	>0.2
Occurrence of HCC[b]	1 (5.0%)	13 (16.0%)	>0.2
Introduction of NAs[b]	0 (0%)	23 (28%)	0.006

UD undetermined

[a] Data are expressed as median (range)

[b] Data are expressed as positive number (%)

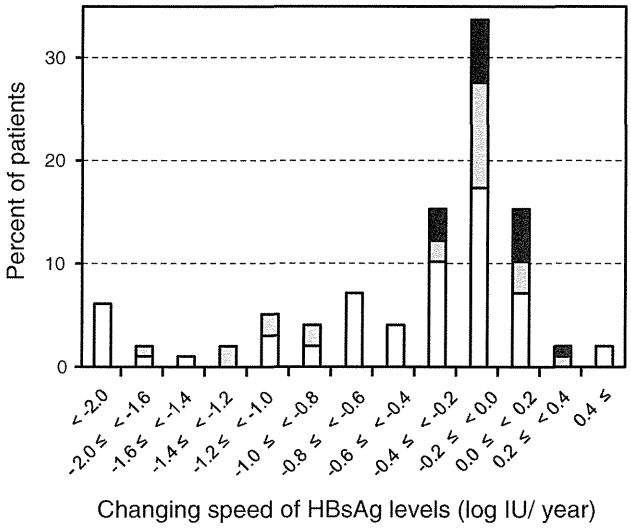

Fig. 5 Distribution of patients classified according to rate of change of HBsAg levels (log IU/year) during follow-up period. *Closed bars* indicate patients with persistent HBeAg-positive status. *Shaded bars* indicate patients who became negative for HBeAg during follow-up period. *Open bars* indicate patients with persistent HBeAg-negative status

IU/ml/year) was similar ($P > 0.2$) to that after starting NA treatment (−0.017 log IU/ml/year; range −5.18 to 0.17 log IU/ml/year) in the 20 patients who commenced therapy with NAs during the study period.

Discussion

During the natural course of HBV infection, HBsAg levels showed almost normal distribution, making a sharp peak at a median value of 3.2 log IU/ml. Lower HBsAg levels were significantly associated with older age and lower viral activity, but not with gender or genotype. A similar trend was observed in patients who cleared HBsAg in our cohort. Chan et al. [10] reported that HBsAg levels were significantly lower in HBeAg-negative patients than in HBeAg-positive ones and tended to fall in accordance with decreases in HBV DNA levels. Simonetti et al. [6] reported that clearance of HBsAg was associated with older age, but not with gender or genotype, in a prospective population-based cohort study. Chu et al. [9] also reported that HBsAg clearance was associated with older age, in which the cumulative probability of clearance increased disproportionally with a longer follow-up period. In light of these results as well as of our own, it appears that lower HBsAg levels are closely associated with older age and lower activity of HBV replication. The HBsAg clearance rate of 2.1% per year in the current study was three times higher than that of the 0.7% per year reported by Simonetti et al. [6]. However, the median age at the start of their follow-up (20 years) was considerably lower than that in our report (50 years). Chu et al. [9] followed 1965 asymptomatic HBV carriers that were positive for HBe antibodies in whom the mean age at baseline was 35.6 years, revealing a HBsAg clearance rate of 0.8% per year after 10 years of follow-up that increased to 1.8% per year over a 25-year observation period. HBsAg clearance appeared to increase as patients aged in that cohort, which may at least partly explain the higher clearance rate found in the present study.

Because HBsAg level is closely associated with age, we analyzed this relationship and compared it with those of HBcrAg and HBV DNA. HBsAg levels decreased in association with age in HBeAg-negative patients. A similar but faint association was also seen in HBeAg-positive patients. On the other hand, HBcrAg and HBV DNA levels

Table 4 Comparison of clinical and virological characteristics between patients with rapid and non-rapid decrease of HBsAg

Characteristic	Rapid decrease ($n = 31$)	Non-rapid decrease ($n = 67$)	P
At baseline			
Age (years)[a]	52 (15 to 65)	49 (19 to 83)	0.338
Male[b]	17 (55%)	38 (57%)	1.000
With cirrhosis[b]	6 (19%)	13 (19%)	1.000
ALT (IU/L)[a]	27 (10 to 108)	36 (13 to 447)	0.230
HBV genotype (A:B:C:UD)	1:4:26:0	2:4:59:2	0.617
HBeAg-positive[b]	7 (23%)	31 (46%)	0.028
HBsAg (log IU/ml)[a]	2.8 (−1.0 to 5.0)	3.3 (0.8 to 5.3)	0.001
HBcrAg (log U/ml)[a]	<3.0 (<3.0 to >6.8)	5.1 (<3.0 to >6.8)	<0.001
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)[a]	3.7 (<1.7 to >9.5)	5.9 (neg. to >9.5)	0.002
During follow-up			
Followed period (years)[a]	3 (1 to 9)	6 (1 to 10)	<0.001
Change in HBeAg status			0.012
Persistent positive[b]	0 (0%)	15 (22%)	
Became negative[b]	7 (23%)	16 (24%)	
Persistent negative[b]	24 (77%)	36 (54%)	
Clearance of HBsAg[b]	18 (58%)	0 (0%)	<0.001
Complication of HCC[b]	2 (7%)	12 (18%)	0.214
Introduction of NAs[b]	4 (13%)	19 (28%)	0.125

UD undetermined

[a] Data are expressed as median (range)

[b] Data are expressed as positive number (%)

were more uniformly distributed with age in both HBeAg-positive and -negative patients. Therefore, it can be inferred that HBsAg level is affected by age in the natural course of HBV, even when the factor of viral activity is excluded. The precise mechanism of this trend is at present unclear, but may be attributed to the character of HBsAg itself, and not to that of HBV antigens, because HBcrAg levels showed a similar trend as HBV DNA levels. Chan et al. [10] reported that a stronger correlation between HBV DNA and HBsAg was found in the HBeAg-positive phase than in the HBeAg-negative phase. This observation was clearly confirmed by our results in that the distribution pattern analyzed by age was similar between HBsAg and HBV DNA levels in HBeAg-positive patients but differed in HBeAg-negative ones.

The rate of change of HBsAg in the present study suggested the existence of two groups centered around a value of −0.4 log IU/year. A necessary decline in HBV replication was evident in the rapid decrease group, whose median HBV DNA level was lower than the 4.0 log copy/ml usually seen in inactive carriers of HBV. Since no patient with persistently positive HBeAg was classified into the rapid increase group, we presume that a loss of HBeAg is essential for a rapid decrease in HBsAg. In patients with persistently negative HBeAg, HBV DNA levels were significantly lower in the rapid decrease group than in the non-rapid decrease group. Therefore, not only a loss of HBeAg, but also a decline in HBV replication, appears to be fundamental factors necessary for a rapid decrease in HBsAg. Chan et al. [10] concluded that HBs antigen level remained stable in HBe antigen-positive patients and reduced slowly in HBe antigen-negative patients. Our results are similar, but further imply that a decline in HBV replication is also required. The rate of HBsAg level decrease was similar before and after starting NA treatment in the present study. However, additional studies in larger cohorts will be required to determine this particular relationship.

We analyzed HBcrAg in addition to HBsAg as an HBV-related antigen in the present study to further clarify the characteristics of HBsAg. The HBcrAg assay measures serum levels of HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein [12] simultaneously using monoclonal antibodies that recognize the common epitopes of these denatured antigens. Since the assay measures all antigens transcribed from the pre-core/core gene, it is regarded as core-related [14]. It is possible that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg have different properties because transcriptions of these two antigens are regulated by alternative enhancer-promoter systems in the HBV genome [15]. Recent studies have shown that HBsAg quantification may represent a surrogate marker of cccDNA concentration in the liver and a potential tool to monitor virologic response to interferon treatment [4, 5, 16]. On the other hand, serum HBcrAg has been reported to accurately reflect intracellular levels of HBV cccDNA even during nucleos(t)ide treatment [11, 17, 18], and was found to be useful for identifying patients who were likely to show relapse of hepatitis after the discontinuation of NAs [19, 20] or who had a higher possibility to develop hepatocellular carcinoma even under NA treatment [17]. Our results here suggest that there exists a

difference in natural course changes between HBsAg and HBcrAg levels. We recently reported that the combined use of these two antigens was useful for predicting the occurrence of hepatitis relapse after cessation of NAs [21]. Such results also indicated that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg had different clinical significance despite the fact that both antigen levels are generally considered to reflect the amount of HBV cccDNA in hepatocytes.

Complicating HCC occurred during the first 6 years of follow-up in our study at an annual occurrence rate of 2.3% per year for that period. This complication was seen at similar frequencies in patients with high and low baseline HBsAg levels as well as in patients who showed rapid and non-rapid decreases in HBsAg. Patients with lower HBsAg levels and those with rapid decreases in HBsAg have been shown to have lower levels of HBV replication, which would indicate a lower risk of complicating HCC. However, such patients also tend to be older and presumably more predisposed to HCC. The similar occurrence of HCC irrespective of HBsAg status may be attributed to the existence of these two contrary factors. Yuen et al. [7] reported that the risk of HCC in patients with HBsAg seroclearance was higher in those older than 50 years of age; indeed, the single patient who developed HCC after HBsAg seroclearance in the present study was a 90 year-old woman.

In conclusion, lower HBsAg levels were significantly associated with older age and lower viral activity, but not with gender or genotype. Both a loss of HBeAg positivity and a decline in HBV replication are suggested to be fundamental factors necessary for a rapid decrease in HBsAg. Furthermore, the clinical significance of HBsAg may be different from that of HBcrAg with regard to age. Future studies are required to clarify the difference between the two antigens.

Acknowledgments This study was supported in part by a research grant on hepatitis from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan. We thank Ms. Hiroe Banno for her secretarial assistance and thank Ms. Nozomi Kamijo and Ms. Etsuko Iigahama for their technical assistance. We also thank Mr. Trevor Ralph for his English editorial assistance.

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Hepatology Research

Hepatology Research 2012; 42: 333–339 doi: 10.1111/j.1872-034X.2011.00937.x

Review Article

Risk of hepatitis B reactivation in patients treated with tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitors

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The use of tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) inhibitors has been increasing especially in patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA). As TNF-α inhibitors are strongly immunosuppressive, the occurrence of hepatitis B virus (HBV) reactivation has recently been observed. Reports suggest a higher risk of complicating HBV reactivation in carriers who are treated with TNF-α inhibitors. Therefore, HBV carriers are recommended to undergo prophylactic administration of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs). Our literary analysis uncovered several characteristics of de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors. First, the time between the start of TNF-α inhibitors and the occurrence of de novo hepatitis was longer than one year. Second, patients were usually treated with additional non-biologic agents, which also had immunosuppressive effects. Third, the disease could be fatal. Fourth, several types of TNF-α inhibitors exhibited a risk of developing de novo hepatitis. Although the incidence of de novo hepatitis B varied among reports (0–5%/year), it is suggested that patients with prior HBV infection are at risk of developing de novo hepatitis due to TNF-α inhibitors. Many reports maintain that regular measurement of HBV DNA is effective in preventing de novo hepatitis. Prophylactic administration of NAs is also considered useful to avoid de novo hepatitis, although the issue of cost-effectiveness needs to be addressed. Lastly, whereas maintenance of circulating anti-HBs titer using HB vaccines may be effective in responders to prevent de novo hepatitis, further studies are required to clarify the utility of HB vaccination.

Key words: hepatitis B, nucleos(t)ide analog, de novo hepatitis B, reactivation, rheumatoid arthritis, tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitor

INTRODUCTION

APPROXIMATELY 3 BILLION people have been exposed to the hepatitis B virus (HBV), and there are an estimated 350 million chronic carriers worldwide.[1,2] HBV infection is usually detected by the presence of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) in the serum, and clearance of HBsAg is generally considered as an indication of hepatitis B resolution. However, recent studies have shown that HBV replication persists at low levels in the liver and peripheral blood mononuclear cells for decades, even in HBsAg-negative patients with resolved HBV infection.[3–5] In such patients, HBV replication is suppressed by immune responses to HBV, for instance specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte-mediated responses.[3]

Hepatitis B virus reactivation in patients with resolved HBV infection has been reported in increasing numbers as the number of patients undergoing strong immunosuppressive therapy grows worldwide for malignant neoplasms, autoimmune disorders, and following transplantation for prevention of rejection. In patients like these with resolved HBV infection, reactivation of hepatitis B is recognized as de novo hepatitis B, which can lead to fulminant hepatic failure and often death.[6,7] Thus, de novo hepatitis B is becoming a well-recognized severe complication of immunosuppressive therapy that should be prevented.[6,8]

The risk of developing de novo hepatitis B varies among immunosuppressive therapies; it is as high as 14–20% in patients who receive hematopoietic stem cell transplantation and as low as 1–3% in those who undergo conventional chemotherapies.[9–13] The introduction of rituximab, a genetically engineered chimeric anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody,[14,15] in the treatment of

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Received 22 September 2011; revision 22 October 2011; accepted 25 October 2011.

CD20+ B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma increased the risk of de novo hepatitis B. Hui *et al.*[16] analyzed the occurrence of de novo hepatitis B in patients who were treated for lymphoma and reported that its risk was significantly higher in patients who received rituximab and steroids (12%) than in other patients (1%). Similarly, Yeo *et al.*[17] reported that the risk of de novo hepatitis B was significantly higher in patients who were treated with chemotherapy including rituximab (24%) than in those treated with chemotherapy only (0%). Because the introduction of rituximab increased the risk of de novo hepatitis B considerably in lymphoma patients, the need to examine the occurrence of HBV reactivation has emerged when a new agent that suppresses host immune responses is introduced.

Tumor necrosis factor-α is a crucial pro-inflammatory and immunoregulatory cytokine in the pathogenesis of various inflammatory and autoimmune conditions. Inhibitors of TNF-α have recently been introduced in treatments for various kinds of autoimmune and inflammatory disorders, including rheumatoid arthritis (RA), ankylosing spondylitis, psoriatic arthritis, and Crohn's disease. TNF-α inhibitors have revolutionized the therapeutic approaches and treatment paradigms for these patients. However, their optimal use requires consideration of possible adverse effects; increased risks of tuberculosis and other infections are a major concern in TNF-α treatment.[18] Complicating tuberculosis is considered to be caused by reactivation of latent tuberculosis.[19] A similar reactivation of HBV has also been reported, which leads to de novo hepatitis B and possibly fulminant hepatic failure and death. In the present review article, we summarize reports regarding reactivation of hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors to clarify its characteristics and occurrence (Table 1).

Table 1 Summary of references regarding reactivation hepatitis due to tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitors

Category/Reference	Publication type
Case report and review in HBV carriers	
25. Ostuni P, *et al.* Ann Rheum Dis. 2003	Case report
26. Carroll MB, *et al.* Clin Rheumatol. 2010	Review
27. Kuroda T, *et al.* Rheumatol Int. 2010	Case report & review
28. Verhelst X, *et al.* Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2010	Case report & review
29. Pyrpasopoulou A, *et al.* Rheumatol Int. 2011	Case report
30. Esteve M, *et al.* Gut. 2004	Case report
31. Ojiro K, *et al.* J Gastroenterol. 2008	Case report
34. Wendling D, *et al.* Joint Bone Spine. 2009	Case report
Risk and prevention in HBV carriers	
32. Zingarelli S, *et al.* Reumatismo. 2008	Original
33. Kalyoncu U, *et al.* Rheumatol Int. 2009	Original
35. Vassilopoulos D, *et al.* Ann Rheum Dis. 2010	Original
36. Lan JL, *et al.* Ann Rheum Dis. 2011	Original
37. Calabrese LH, *et al.* Ann Rheum Dis. 2006	Review
Case report of de novo hepatitis B	
40. Madonia S, *et al.* Inflamm Bowel Dis. 2007	Case report
41. Matsumoto T, *et al.* Liver Int. 2010	Case report
42. Montiel PM, *et al.* Liver Int. 2008	Case report
43. Zingarelli S, *et al.* J Rheumatol. 2009	Case report
Risk of de novo hepatitis B	
18. Takeuchi T, *et al.* Ann Rheum Dis. 2008	Original
44. Charpin C, *et al.* Arthritis Res Ther. 2009	Original
45. Caporali R, *et al.* Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken). 2010	Original
46. Tamori A, *et al.* J Gastroenterol. 2011	Original
47. Mori S. Mod Rheumatol. 2011	Original
48. Kim YJ, *et al.* J Rheumatol. 2010	Original
49. Urata Y, *et al.* Mod Rheumatol. 2011	Original

REACTIVATION OF HEPATITIS IN HBV CARRIERS

THE MAJORITY OF patients with a confirmed diagnosis of RA use disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) such as methotrexate, but the rate of biologic agent use is rising rapidly.[20,21] Since both methotrexate[22–24] and biologic agents carry the danger of HBV reactivation, the advent of new biologic agents, such as TNF-α inhibitors, has increased this risk. Patients with RA who developed reactivation of hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors were first reported in 2003.[25–29] Because these cases had been HBV carriers prior to starting TNF-α inhibitors, the authors recommended preliminary serological tests for HBV infection.

Caroll *et al.* conducted a systemic literature review on HBV reactivation in carriers who were treated with TNF-α inhibitors for RA and reported that reactivation was seen in six (17%) of 35 patients.[26] They concluded that clinicians prescribing TNF-α inhibitors to HBsAg-positive patients should consider prophylactic antiviral therapy and close monitoring for any clinical or sero-

logical evidence of hepatitis. Reactivation of hepatitis B was also reported in patients with Crohn's disease who were treated with TNF-α inhibitors,[30,31] and thus reactivation became considered to be drug dependent and not disease dependent.

Prophylaxis using nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs) has been reported to be effective in preventing the occurrence of hepatitis reactivation in HBV carriers.[32–36] Vassilopoulos *et al.*[35] administered lamivudine in 14 HBV carriers with RA who were treated with TNF-α inhibitors and showed that reactivation of hepatitis B did not occur in any patient except one. The appearance of lamivudine resistance was considered to be the cause of reactivation in this exceptional patient, and so the authors concluded that TNF-α inhibitors represented a safe option for patients with chronic HBV infection when combined with NAs. Zingarelli *et al.*[32] reported 20 patients with RA who were treated with DMARDs and/or TNF-α inhibitors. Prophylaxis and therapy with lamivudine were performed in patients with a high risk of HBV reactivation, and no cases of viral reactivation were observed. Thus, it is likely that prophylaxis using NAs may prevent the occurrence of hepatitis reactivation in HBV carriers who are treated with TNF-α inhibitors. Indeed, Calabrese *et al.*[37] recommended that all HBsAg-positive patients be started on prophylactic anti-viral drugs before receiving immunosuppressive therapy. However, long-term follow-up studies in large groups of patients are required to ensure the safety of prophylaxis with NAs.

Descriptions of HBV reactivation due to TNF-α inhibitors in the guidelines of rheumatologist associations several years ago tended to be brief and passive. It was described that TNF-α inhibitor therapy should be avoided in patients with hepatitis B infection until more definitive data were available in the 2005 guidelines of The British Society for Rheumatology.[38] In the 2007 Japanese guidelines,[39] it was advised that TNF-α inhibitors should be avoided in patients with HBV infection. However, if the potential benefits of treatment with TNF-α inhibitors exceeded the risk of reactivation, such therapy could be pursued provided that patients were pre-treated with lamivudine.

RISK OF DE NOVO HEPATITIS B

ALTHOUGH IT HAS become clear that HBsAg-positive patients are prone to developing HBV reactivation during TNF-α inhibitor therapy, little is known about the occurrence of de novo hepatitis B. Several cases of de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors have been reported recently.[40–43] Mondonia *et al.*[40] reported a 41-year-old woman with Crohn's disease who developed de novo hepatitis B after having been treated with prednisolone for 13 years and infliximab for 3 years. The hepatitis subsided with lamivudine administration. Montiel *et al.*[42] described a 73-year-old man with ankylosing spondylitis who developed de novo hepatitis 15 months after starting etanercept. The patient had also undergone treatment with prednisolone for 23 years. Although etanercept was discontinued when the hepatitis occurred, it could be re-started with concurrent lamivudine administration. Matsumoto *et al.*[41] reported a 71-year-old woman with RA who developed de novo hepatitis 22 months after starting treatment with infliximab, methotrexate, and prednisolone. Although entecavir was given when hepatitis occurred, the patient died of hepatic failure. Such case reports reveal several characteristics of de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors. First, the duration between the start of the drugs and the occurrence of de novo hepatitis was at least one year. Second, patients were treated not only with TNF-α inhibitors, but also with DMARDs and prednisolone, which themselves had immunosuppressive effects. Third, there was a risk of death from de novo hepatitis. Fourth, several kinds of TNF-α inhibitors appeared able to cause de novo hepatitis.

The incidence of HBV reactivation from occult HBV infection and ensuing de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitor therapy in patients with RA has been reported by several groups. Charpin *et al.*[44] followed 21 patients with RA who were HBsAg-negative and hepatitis B core antibody (HBcAb)-positive before starting TNF-α inhibitors, and found that no patient developed HBV reactivation during a mean follow-up period of 27.2 months. They concluded that TNF-α inhibitor therapy was likely safe in patients with a past hepatitis B serological pattern. However, they also suggested that such patients required HBV virological follow-up, especially those with a low HBs antibody (HBsAb) titer at baseline because HBsAb decreased significantly during therapy. Caporali *et al.*[45] followed 67 patients with RA who also had HBV markers of past HBV infection, and found no elevations of HBV DNA in sera or appearances of HBsAg during a mean follow-up period of 42.5 months. Of the 67 patients, 23 were treated with infliximab, 23 with etanercept, and 19 with adalimumab. Almost all patients underwent methotrexate (51 patients) and/or prednisolone (43 patients) administration in addition to TNF-α inhibitors. Tamori *et al.*[46] followed 50 patients with RA who were positive for HBcAb for a mean period of 23 months. All patients were treated with immunosuppressive agents such as

methotrexate, prednisolone, and/or TNF-α inhibitors for more than one year. HBV reactivation was observed in two of five patients with HBsAg, compared with only in one of the remaining 45 patients without it. Therefore, HBV reactivation leading to de novo hepatitis B was observed in 2% (1%/year) of patients. It should be noted that the lone HBsAg-negative reactivation patient had been treated with methotrexate but not with TNF-α inhibitors. Mori[47] performed a cross-sectional analysis of 239 patients with RA who were treated with biological and/or non-biological agents, among whom 60 were found to have HBV markers indicating earlier HBV infection. Of these, two were signal-positive for serum HBV DNA but without ALT elevation or HBsAg positivity: one patient was treated with tacrolimus, prednisolone, and methotrexate, and the other was treated with adalimumab, prednisolone, and methotrexate. Whereas HBV DNA level in the former patient increased and HBsAg and HBeAg became weakly positive after 10 weeks, the latter patient became HBV DNA-negative without additional anti-viral therapy. The authors also concluded that biological and non-biological agents are relatively safe in RA patients with past HBV infection. Thus, these studies suggested that the occurrence of de novo hepatitis B was rare in RA patients who were treated with TNF-α inhibitors in addition to DMARDs over the medium term. A large-scale post-marketing surveillance study was carried out in Japan to determine the safety profile of infliximab in patients with RA.[18] All patients with RA who were treated with infliximab were prospectively monitored for any adverse events for a period of 6 months after the initiation of infliximab. No cases of de novo hepatitis B were found. Although the follow-up period was short, the number of patients enrolled was over 5000. This report indicated that de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitors would be very rare over the short-term as well.

In contrast to the abovementioned reports, several studies have suggested a relatively high incidence of de novo hepatitis B due to TNF-α inhibitor therapy. Kim *et al.*[48] followed 266 patients with RA who were treated with TNF-α inhibitors and analyzed the occurrence of clinically significant (over two times higher than normal range) and persistent (two or more incidences) alanine aminotransferase (ALT) elevation in relation to HBV markers. Elevation of ALT was significantly more frequent in patients with HBcAb (HBsAg negative) than in those without (16% vs. 6%, $P = 0.009$). In multiple logistic regression analysis controlling for various potential confounding factors, such as methotrexate, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and type of TNF-α inhibitor, only potential occult HBV infection was identified as a significant risk factor for ALT elevation, suggesting a close association between HBcAb-positivity and ALT elevation during TNF-α inhibitor therapy in RA patients. However, it cannot be confirmed whether ALT elevations in that study were indeed caused by reactivation of occult HBV because HBV DNA was not measured along with ALT. Urata *et al.*[49] prospectively followed 135 patients with RA who had HBV markers suggesting past HBV infection for 12 months. The cohort was treated with biological and/or non-biological anti-rheumatic agents and followed for a total mean period of approximately 20 months, including the period before follow-up. Serum HBV DNA was measured every 3 months during the study period, and revealed that HBV reactivation occurred in seven patients (5%/year). HBV reactivation was significantly associated with use of TNF-α inhibitors with a hazard ratio of 10.9 ($P = 0.008$). This study suggested that careful monitoring of HBV DNA level is required in RA patients with resolved hepatitis B when receiving anti-rheumatic agents, especially biologic ones.

In Japan, HBV reactivation rates tend to differ regionally. A study from Aomori prefecture[49] in the northern part of Japan reported a relatively higher rate of de novo hepatitis stemming from TNF-α inhibitors than studies from Osaka[46] and Kumamoto[47] prefectures in the central and southern parts of Japan, respectively. It is speculated that these differences are attributed to variations in HBV genotype distribution; whereas genotype B is predominant in the former area, genotype C is more frequent in the latter areas.[50] Further studies are required to address this phenomenon.

In light of the above findings, it is evident that RA patients with past HBV infection who are treated with anti-rheumatic agents are at risk of developing HBV reactivation and ensuing de novo hepatitis B, especially those being treated with anti-rheumatic agents, such as TNF-α inhibitors, for an extended time. Spontaneous remission of HBV reactivation was observed in one of the two patients reported by Mori[47] and two of the seven patients reported by Urata *et al.*,[49] and so it should be noted that HBV reactivation does not necessarily result in the occurrence of de novo hepatitis B.

PROPHYLACTIC MEASURES FOR DE NOVO HEPATITIS B

THREE MEASURES ARE generally used to prevent de novo hepatitis B due to immunosuppressive therapy.[7] The first measure is to regularly check for