The research community has an important role to play in guiding policy development on viral hepatitis. Liver specialists, in partnership with voluntary sector organisations, may help ensure that key facts about viral hepatitis – for example, that hepatitis B is treatable and hepatitis C is curable – are communicated to the media, the public and policymakers in a way that is accessible and compelling. Social research and observational studies may help create a better understanding of the health seeking behaviours of people at risk of viral hepatitis and identify existing barriers to screening, diagnosis, and proper treatment.

The WHO Framework provides a unique opportunity to countries around the world to take stock of how they have addressed the challenges posed by viral hepatitis in the past and create comprehensive, cohesive policies that may have a lasting impact. This will require a collaborative effort from primary care physicians, specialists, governments, individuals at risk and people living with viral hepatitis. Working in partnership with other more high-profile disease areas, for example non-communicable diseases, may present opportunities to raise the profile of viral hepatitis. Indeed, lessons may be learned from other disease areas – such as breast cancer, cardiovascular disease and HIV/AIDS – which have raised awareness, secured funding and developed comprehensive policies that have changed the lives of people living with the condition. The WHO Framework provides the steer to do the same for the millions of people worldwide infected with viral hepatitis.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declared that they do not have anything to disclose regarding funding or conflict of interest with respect to this manuscript.

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Addendum

Participants of the Coalition to Eradicate Viral Hepatitis in Asia Pacific [CEVHAP] North Asia Workshop on Viral Hepatitis included: from Taiwan: Ding-Shinn Chen, Pei-Jer Chen, Sheng-Nan Lu, Pei-Ming Yang; from Hong Kong: Joseph Sung, Ching-Lung Lai, James Y.Y. Fung; from Korea: Si Hyun Bae, June Sung Lee, Hong Soo Kim, Sang-Hoon Ahn, Goo Hyeon Yoon; from Japan: Junko Tanaka, Takaji Wakita, Hideki Aizaki, Atsuko Yonezawa, Yukio Lino, Yoichi Abe; from the United States: John Ward, Lily Lou; from the UK: Charles Gore; from Malaysia: Rosmawati Mohamed; from Australia: Stephen Locarnini and Jack Wallace. The workshop was facilitated by Suzanne Wait (UK) and Jennifer Johnston (Australia).

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

High-sensitivity *Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive alpha-fetoprotein assay predicts early detection of hepatocellular carcinoma

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Abstract
Background Prognosis of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) remains poor because HCC is frequently diagnosed late. Therefore, regular surveillance has been recommended to detect HCC at the early stage when curative treatments can be applied. HCC biomarkers, including *Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive fraction of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP-L3), are widely used for surveillance in Japan. A newly developed immunoassay system measures AFP-L3 % with high sensitivity. This retrospective study aimed to evaluate clinical utility of high-sensitivity AFP-L3 (hs-AFP-L3) as a predictor of early stage HCC in surveillance at a single site.
Methods Of consecutive 2830 patients in the surveillance between 2000 and 2009, 104 HCC-developed and 104 non-HCC patients were selected by eligibility criteria and propensity score matching. Samples were obtained from the HCC patients who had blood drawn annually for 3 years prior to HCC diagnosis.
Results In the present study, hs-AFP-L3 was elevated 1 year prior to diagnosis in 34.3 % of patients. The survival rate of patients with the hs-AFP-L3 $\geq$ 7 % at 1 year prior to diagnosis was significantly lower than that of patients with hs-AFP-L3 $<$ 7 %.
Conclusions Elevation of hs-AFP-L3 was early predictive of development of HCC even at low AFP levels and in absence of ultrasound findings of suspicious HCC. The hs-AFP-L3 should be added to surveillance programs with US because elevated hs-AFP-L3 may be a trigger to perform enhanced imaging modalities for confirmation of HCC.

Keywords Surveillance · A propensity score analysis · High-sensitivity AFP-L3 · DCP · HCC

Abbreviations

HCC	Hepatocellular carcinoma
AFP	Alpha-fetoprotein
AFP-L3	*Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive fraction of AFP
hs-AFP-L3	High-sensitivity AFP-L3
US	Ultrasound
DCP	Des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin
HBsAg	Hepatitis B surface antigen
HCV	Hepatitis C virus
ALT	Alanine aminotransferase
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the third most common cause of death from cancer worldwide [1], and poor prognosis is reported because HCC is frequently diagnosed at late stages and is often untreatable. Therefore, surveillance for HCC has been advocated to detect HCC at

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early stages when curative treatments can be applied [2, 3]. Global liver associations, including the American Association for the Study of Liver Disease (AASLD), the European Association for the Study of the Liver (EASL), and the Asian Pacific Association for the Study of the Liver (APASL), recommend regular surveillance on patients at high risk for HCC [4–6]. The most common tests used for surveillance are alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) tests and ultrasound (US). EASL and APASL adopt AFP and US in their guidelines, while AASLD recommends only US. Interpretation of US can be challenging when routine screening and comparison to previous imaging results are impossible or when US are performed by different institutes or instruments, whereas HCC biomarker values can be used independently with appropriate cutoff values. The Japan Society of Hepatology (JSH) has recommended not only US but also assays of three biomarkers: AFP, *Lens culinaris* agglutinin-reactive fraction of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP-L3), and des-gamma-carboxy prothrombin (DCP) [7].

However, AFP levels are often elevated even in patients with benign liver diseases. The low specificity of AFP has been a cause of concern for use as a HCC marker [8–10]. In contrast, a rate of AFP-L3 in total AFP (AFP-L3 %) has been reported to be highly specific for HCC in many studies [11–13]; however, accurate measurements of AFP-L3 % have been limited to patients having AFP >20 ng/mL by insufficient analytical sensitivity on a conventional assay system that is a liquid-phase binding assay (LiBASys) [14]. Recently, a micro-total analysis system (μTAS) based lectin-affinity electrophoresis using microfluidics technology has enabled accurate measurements of AFP-L3 % even at low AFP [15]. The high-sensitivity AFP-L3 (hs-AFP-L3) assay has demonstrated improvement in clinical sensitivity and predicting of prognosis in HCC patients with AFP < 20 ng/mL [16–18]. The Liver Cancer Study Group of Japan has reported that 37 % of HCC patients had low AFP (<15 ng/mL) at the HCC diagnosis [19]. They also show that 34 % of patients had tumors with maximum diameter of <2 cm. Early HCC is a distinct clinical entity with a high rate of surgical cure and detection of early HCC results in long-term survival [20]. However, elevated AFP is not always observed in patients with such small tumors. Therefore, the hs-AFP-L3 assay which can measure serum levels at low AFP is expected to improve detection of HCC at the early stage. Moreover, lower cutoff values for hs-AFP-L3 has been considered to improve clinical sensitivity [16–18].

In this study, clinical utility in early prediction of development of HCC in our study cohort under surveillance using hs-AFP-L3 and analyzed retrospectively is reported.

Patients and methods

Patients

The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee of Ogaki Municipal Hospital in January 2009 and was in compliance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent for use of stored serum samples for the study was obtained from the enrolled patients.

Between 2000 and 2009, a total of consecutive 2830 patients positive for hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) or anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) antibody who visited the Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology at Ogaki Municipal Hospital were prospectively enrolled in our HCC surveillance. Of the 2830, 1214 patients met eligibility criteria: HBsAg- or HCV RNA-positive for more than 6 months, follow-up period of >3 years before HCC diagnosis, availability of sera sampled at least twice at 12-month intervals, maximal tumor diameter <3 cm and 3 nodules or less at diagnosis, and no oral intake of warfarin which is a DCP-inducing agent.

Of these 1214 patients, 114 patients had HCC and 1100 patients had no evidence of HCC during follow-up period. To reduce the confounding effects of covariates between HCC and control patients, we selected patients using propensity score matching. Six covariates including age, gender, etiology (HBV or HCV), Child-Pugh classification, platelet number, and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) except tumor markers were used. We computed the propensity score by using logistic regression with the independent variable including age (<65 years or ≤65 years), sex (female or male), etiology (HBV or HCV), Child-Pugh classification (A, B, or C), platelet count (>150 × $10^3/m^3$ or ≤150 × $10^3/m^3$), and ALT activity (≤40 IU/mL or >40 IU/mL) as shown in previous reported cut-off values according to the previous reports [21, 22]. This model yielded a *c* statistic of 0.832 (95 % confidence interval [CI], 0.797–0.866), indicating a strong ability to differentiate between HCC and control patients. Calibration was assessed using the Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test [23]. The *P* value of the calculated propensity score was 0.647 based on the Hosmer–Lemeshow test and showed an absence of bias. We were able to match 104 HCC developed patients to 104 non-HCC developing patients. Table 1 shows demographics of HCC and non-HCC groups. The median of tumor size was 1.9 cm. The 69 % of HCC patients had single tumor and the 86 % of HCC patients were at TNM stage I and II.

Surveillance and diagnosis

According to Clinical Practice Guidelines for Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Japan [7], we performed US and three

Table 1 Demographics and propensity score matching

Characteristics		HCC ($n = 104$)	Non-HCC ($n = 104$)	P value
Age (years)	Median (range)	67 (37–81)	68 (14–84)	0.980
Gender	Male/female	58 (56 %)/46 (44 %)	58 (56 %)/46 (44 %)	0.889
Etiology	B/C/B + C	14 (13 %)/89 (86 %)/1 (1 %)	14 (13 %)/89 (86 %)/1 (1 %)	1.000
Child-Pugh classification	A/B/C	82 (79 %)/18 (17 %)/4 (4 %)	84 (81 %)/17 (16 %)/3 (3 %)	0.907
ALT (IU/L)	Median (range)	49 (7–361)	46 (12–321)	0.582
Platelet ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)	Median (range)	10.1 (3.2–34.0)	12.1 (2.1–41.4)	0.150
Tumor size (cm)	Median (25 %, 75 % quartile)	1.9 (1.5, 2.3)	NA	NA
Tumor number	Single/Multiple	72 (69 %)/32 (31 %)	NA	NA
TNM stage	I/II/III	49 (47 %)/41 (39 %)/14 (14 %)	NA	NA

biomarker studies (AFP, AFP-L3, and DCP) every 3–4 months and dynamic magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) every 12 months for cirrhosis patients under surveillance. For patients with chronic hepatitis, we performed US and three biomarker studies every 6 months. For diagnostic confirmation of HCC, patients had a dynamic MRI when US suggested progression in nodular lesion, change of echo pattern in nodules, or increased biomarkers: continuous elevation of AFP or increase to AFP 200 ng/mL or more, AFP-L3 15 % or more, or DCP 40 mAU/mL or more. The hs-AFP-L3 assay was not available for the surveillance of those days.

Forty-five patients were diagnosed as HCC histologically (surgical specimen, 39 patients; US-guided needle biopsy specimens, 6 patients). The remaining 59 patients were diagnosed as HCC as typical findings of dynamic MRI including hypervascular in the arterial phase with washout in the portal venous or delayed phase [4].

Treatments

Individual decisions for a primary treatment were generally made on the basis of the guidelines for HCC in Japan [7]. Patients were initially assessed for eligibility for resection. When patients declined or were deemed ineligible for resection, they underwent locoregional ablative therapy (LAT) as a second option or transcatheter arterial chemoembolization (TACE) as a third one. Of the enrolled 104 patients, 99 patients underwent resection ($n = 39$), LAT ($n = 23$), or TACE ($n = 37$: including patients with both LAT and TACE). Five patients did not receive any treatment for HCC. No patient underwent liver transplantation.

Imaging modalities

B-mode US was performed with an Aplio XV or XG ultrasound system (Toshiba Medical System, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a convex probe (PUT-375BT). MR imaging was performed using a superconducting scanner operating at 1.5 T (Signa Twin Speed; General Electric Medical Systems, Milwaukee, WI). MR images were obtained in the axial plane with a phased–array multicoil for the body. To scan whole livers, the section thickness was 8–10 mm with 2- and 3-mm intersectional gaps, depending on liver size. Breath-hold T1-weighted in-phase and out-of-phase fast spoiled gradient-recalled echo (SPGR, 200/dual echo [4.3/2.1] [TR/TE], 80° flip angle, one signal averaged) MR images were obtained with a field of view of 36–42 cm and a 256 × 192 matrix during a 22-s acquisition time. T2-weighted fat suppression fast spin-echo (2000/85 [TR/TE], two signal averaged) MR images with respiratory synchronization were obtained with a field of view of 36–42 cm and a 352 × 256 matrix. Breath-hold double arterial dynamic fast SPGR images (115/1.2 [TR/TE], 70° flip angle, one signal averaged) were obtained with a field of view of 36–42 cm and 512 × 192 matrix during a 12-s acquisition time. Dynamic MR images were obtained before and after an antecubital intravenous bolus injection of 0.1 mmol/kg of gadopentetate dimeglumine (Magnevist; Bayer in Japan, Tokyo, Japan) followed by 15–20 ml of a sterile normal saline flush. The optimum timing of start of scanning was decided for each case after 1 ml test injection of gadopentetate dimeglumine. The scan times were about 25, 40, and 60 s, and 2–2.5 min after initiation of the contrast injection, representing the early hepatic artery, late hepatic artery, portal vein, and equilibrium phase, respectively. All MR images except T2-weight MR images were obtained using array spatial sensitivity encoding technique (ASSET).

Assays of hs-AFP-L3, AFP, and DCP

For this retrospective study, the measurements of hs-AFP-L3, AFP, and DCP were achieved by using a microchip capillary electrophoresis and liquid-phase binding assay on μTASWako i30 auto analyzer (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd.) [16]. Analytical sensitivity of the μTAS is 0.3 ng/mL AFP, and percentage of AFP-L3 can be

measured when AFP-L3 is over 0.3 ng/mL. Analytical sensitivity of LiBASys is 0.8 ng/mL AFP, but AFP-L3 % can not be calculated at AFP < 10 ng/mL.

Samples were obtained from 104 HCC patients who had blood drawn annually for 3 years prior to the HCC diagnosis and stored at −80 °C until the measurements. In the HCC patients, stored serum samples at −3 years (over 30 months before, $n = 94$), −2 years (from 18 to 30 months before, $n = 97$), −1 year (from 6 to 18 months before, $n = 103$), and 0 year ($n = 104$) at the time of the HCC diagnosis were measured. In the non-HCC patients, similarly, stored serum samples at −3 years ($n = 99$), −2 years ($n = 104$), and −1 year ($n = 102$), and 0 year ($n = 104$) from the end of follow-up were measured.

Statistical analysis

To evaluate the diagnostic accuracy and predictive values of AFP, hs-AFP-L3, and DCP, sensitivity and specificity were calculated with cutoff values in the guidelines [7]. Furthermore, cutoff values of 5, 7, and 10 % for hs-AFP-L3 were used for this retrospective study according to previous reports [13, 16]. Serial changes of three biomarkers before the diagnosis of HCC were analyzed by Wilcoxon matched pair signed rank test. For the evaluation of prognosis, the long-term survival of patients with HCC was determined by the Kaplan–Meier method and the log-rank test was used to compare the survival rates. The values were considered significant when P value was <0.05. The analyses were performed using JMP10 statistical software (SAS Institute Japan, Japan).

The propensity score matching was performed with SPSS, version 18.0 for Windows (International Business Machines Corporation, Tokyo, Japan).

Results

Dynamic changes of biomarkers

The dynamic changes of hs-AFP-L3, AFP, and DCP in HCC patients at −3, −2, −1, and 0 year before diagnosis are shown in Fig. 1a, b, and c. The levels of hs-AFP-L3 at −1 year were significantly elevated from the levels at −2 years ($P = 0.0001$). The levels of hs-AFP-L3 at −0 year were significantly elevated from the levels at −1 year ($P = 0.0003$, Table 2). AFP and DCP were significantly elevated between −1 and 0 year ($P = 0.0315$

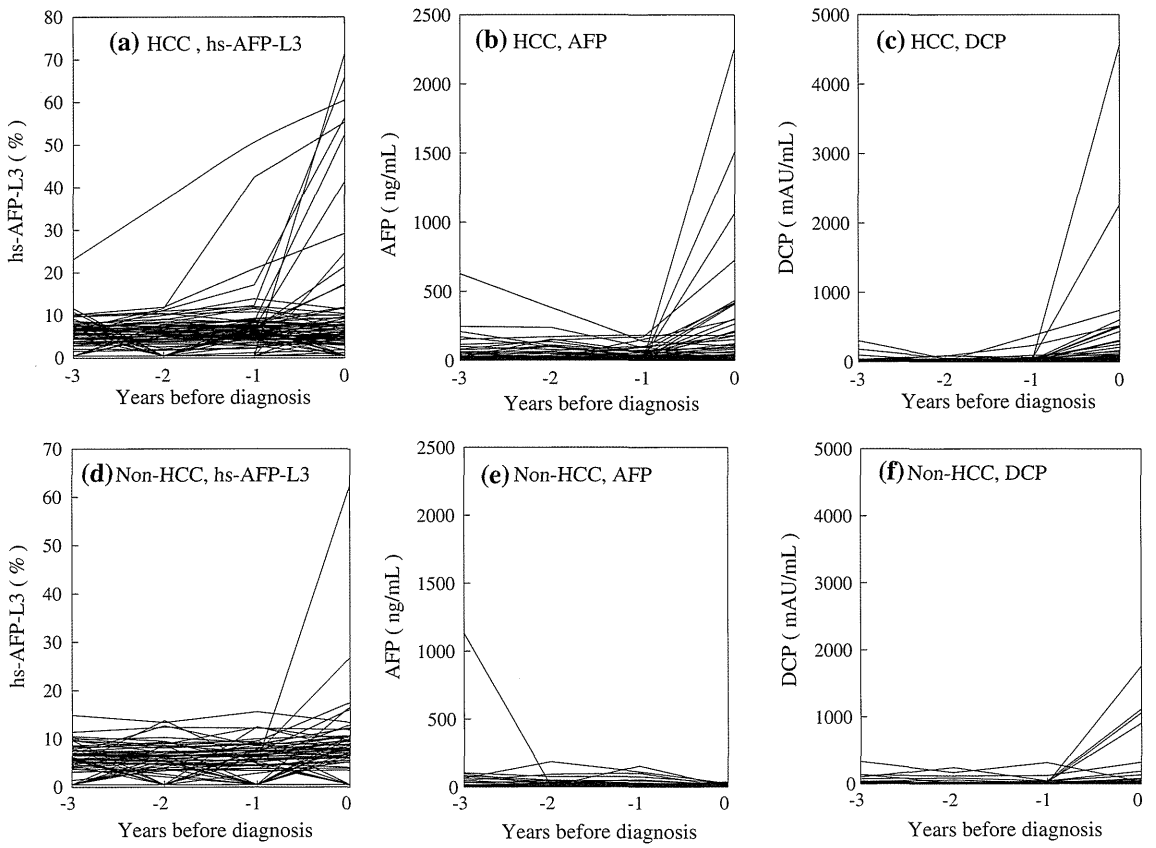

Fig. 1 Dynamic changes of biomarkers: **a** hs-AFP-L3, **b** AFP, and **c** DCP in each HCC patient ($n = 104$), and **d** hs-AFP-L3, **e** AFP, and **f** DCP in each non-HCC patient ($n = 104$)

Table 2 Serial changes of three biomarkers in HCC patients (Wilcoxon matched pair signed rank test)

Analyte	*P* value		
	At −3 year and −2 year	At −2 year and −1 year	At −1 year and 0 year
hs-AFP-L3	0.2935	0.0001	0.0003
AFP	0.4278	0.5359	0.0315
DCP	0.0926	0.6302	<0.0001

and $P < 0.0001$, respectively, Table 2). In non-HCC patients, no significant differences were observed for any markers (Fig. 1d–f). Only hs-AFP-L3 in HCC patients were significantly elevated 1 year prior to HCC diagnosis.

Sensitivity and specificity at diagnosis

Diagnostic sensitivity and specificity were evaluated for the hs-AFP-L3, AFP, DCP, and the combination of biomarkers (Table 3). The sensitivity was calculated by using HCC patient samples at diagnosis ($n = 104$) and the specificity was calculated by using non-HCC patient samples at −3 years ($n = 100$) to ensure that none had developed HCC for the following 3 years. Of the 104 HCC patients, 43 patients (41.3 %) had AFP < 10 ng/mL at which the conventional assay was not able to calculate AFP-L3 %. The sensitivity and specificity for hs-AFP-L3 were 11.5 and 100.0 %, respectively at a cutoff value of 15 %. A cutoff value of 7 % improved the sensitivity to 39.4 %. A combination assay with hs-AFP-L3, AFP, and DCP resulted in sensitivity of 60.6 % at diagnosis.

Sensitivity and specificity for 3 years before diagnosis

We calculated sensitivities using HCC samples at 3, 2, and 1 years prior to diagnosis. Similarly, specificities were calculated by using non-HCC samples (Table 4). The sensitivity and specificity for hs-AFP-L3 at −1 year were 34.3 and 74.7 %, respectively. The sensitivities at −1 year for AFP and DCP were 35.0 and 12.1 %, respectively. In HCC patients, hs-AFP-L3 turned positive at 34 patients (33.3 %) and stayed in positive at 27 patients (26.2 %) for two years till the diagnosis of HCC. In contrast, hs-AFP-L3 turned positive at 25 patients (24.3 %) and stayed in positive at 22 patients (21.4 %) for 2 years till the end of follow-up in non-HCC patients.

Table 3 Sensitivity and specificity at diagnosis

Analyte	Cutoff	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
hs-AFP-L3	5 %	50.9	51.0
	7 %	39.4	77.0
	10 %	16.3	96.0
	15 %	11.5	100.0
AFP	20 ng/mL	41.4	90.4
	200 ng/mL	12.5	99.0
DCP	40 mAU/mL	34.6	94.0
All biomarkers	7 % + 200 ng/mL + 40 mAU/mL	60.6	76.0

Comparison of tumor characteristics and survival rates

Comparing tumor characteristics at detection of HCC by a level of hs-AFP-L3 at −1 year, the tumor size, the number of tumors, and TNM stage between patients with hs-AFP-L3 ≥ 7 % and <7 % ($P = 0.064$, 0.821, and 0.504, respectively) were not statistically significant. The number of patients receiving curative treatments such as resection and LAT was significantly higher in patients with hs-AFP-L3 < 7 % ($P = 0.020$) (data not shown).

During the follow-up period after the diagnosis that was ranged from 4 to 110 months (median of 39 months), the survival rate of patients with hs-AFP-L3 ≥ 7 % was significantly lower than that of patients with hs-AFP-L3 < 7 % by using values at −1 year ($P = 0.039$) (Fig. 2). There was no statistical significance between patients with DCP ≥ 40 mAU/mL and patients with DCP < 40 mAU/mL ($P = 0.831$). No patients had AFP > 200 ng/mL at −1 year. The survival rate of patients with hs-AFP-L3 ≥ 7 % had a lower tendency than that of patients with hs-AFP-L3 < 7 % at HCC diagnosis ($P = 0.1501$).

Triggers to perform MRI for suspicious HCC and positivity rates for hs-AFP-L3

In this study population, US was performed median of 4 times between −1 year and diagnosis day. The 104 HCC

Table 4 Sensitivity and specificity for three years before diagnosis

Analyte	Year	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
hs-AFP-L3 ≥7 %	−1	34.3	74.7
	−2	25.3	80.6
	−3	24.5	77.0
AFP ≥20 ng/mL	−1	35.0	86.4
	−2	31.0	83.0
	−3	33.0	86.0
DCP ≥40 mAU/mL	−1	12.1	93.9
	−2	8.4	94.9
	−3	4.3	94.0

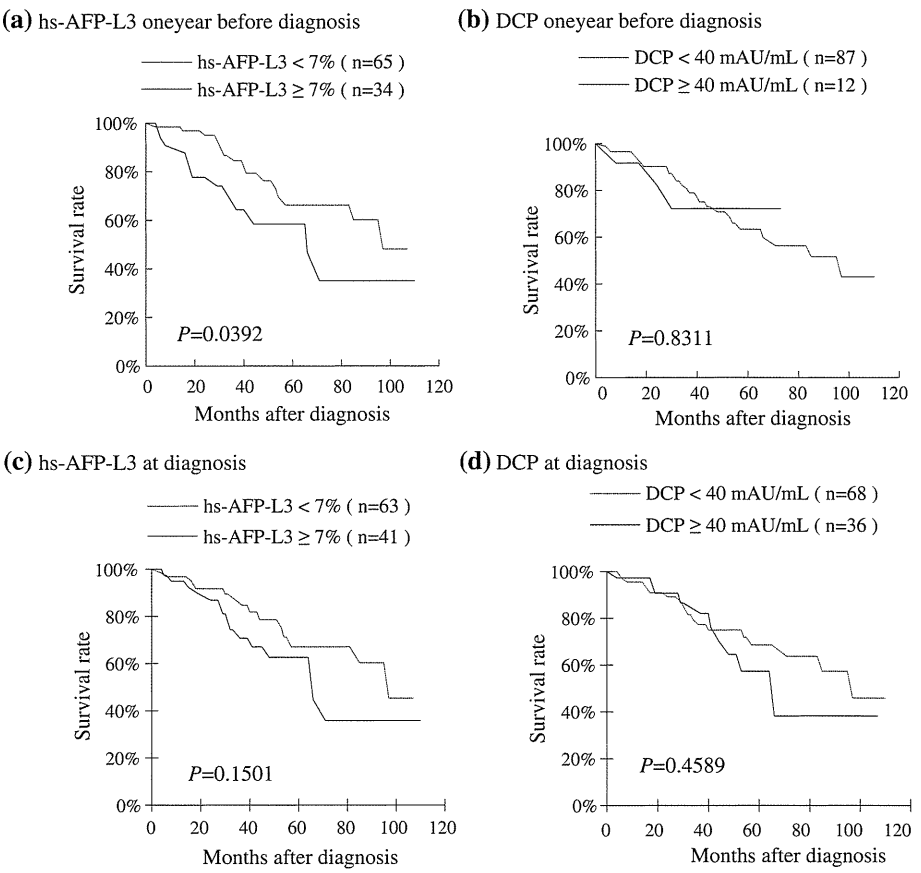

Fig. 2 Survival rates by levels of biomarkers: **a** hs-AFP-L3 and **b** DCP 1 year before, **c** hs-AFP-L3 and **d** DCP at diagnosis

patients were classified into three groups by a trigger to perform MRI for diagnostic confirmation (Table 5). US findings triggered MRI for 86 patients. The 86 patients were classified further by US findings: increase of the tumor number (51/86), increase of the tumor size (18/86), or change of the echo pattern in nodules (17/86). Five patients were monitored by MRI as results of elevated biomarkers. The remaining 13 patients were screened by MRI instead of US because interpretation of US was difficult in patients who were obese or had severe liver atrophy.

In the present retrospective study for hs-AFP-L3, 29.6 % of patients who were diagnosed with HCC by the trigger of US had hs-AFP-L3 $\geq$ 7 % 1 year prior to the diagnosis day. In the patients who had changes of the echo pattern in nodules, the positivity rate for hs-AFP-L3 at -1 year was 50.0 % and relatively higher compared to the other groups by US.

Table 5 Triggers to perform MRI for suspicious HCC and positivity rates for hs-AFP-L3

Triggers to perform MRI	*n*	hs-AFP-L3 >7 % At -1 year (%)	hs-AFP-L3 >7 % At diagnosis (%)
(a) Ultrasound	86	29.6	36.0
Increase of the tumor number	51	27.7	39.2
Increase of the tumor size	18	16.7	11.1
Change of the echo pattern in nodules	17	50.0	52.9
(b) Biomarkers	5	80.0	60.0
(c) Others	13	46.2	53.8

Discussion

Most studies on HCC biomarkers have focused on the accuracy at the time of diagnosis and the prediction of prognosis. So far there are a few studies which have evaluated early prediction of development of HCC in patients at high risk for HCC by biomarkers.

Taketa et al. [24] have reported that AFP-L3 values elevated above the cutoff value of 15 % with an average of 4.0 $\pm$ 4.9 months before the detection of HCC by imaging techniques. Sato et al. [25] also have demonstrated that lectin-reactive AFP elevated 3–18 months before the detection. However, only samples with AFP levels higher than 30 ng/mL were measured in their study. Recent data

indicated that the elevated AFP is not typical at HCC diagnosis for patients under in surveillance in Japan. Therefore, hs-AFP-L3 is expected to be more useful at low levels of AFP. Even though there were some differences in AFP concentration among the studies, they reported that elevation of AFP-L3 prior to diagnosis was associated with development of HCC.

Shiraki et al. [26] detected the small tumor <2 cm in maximum diameter in more than half of the patients. In the study population, they demonstrated clinical utility of lectin-reactive AFP as an early indicator while low AFP was reported limiting of the early recognition of HCC. Shimauchi et al. [27] demonstrated that AFP-L3 and DCP values showed elevated in about half of the patients at 6 months before the recognition of HCC by imaging techniques. These two markers were mutually complementary. In our study, DCP was not significantly elevated 1 year prior to diagnosis.

Lok et al. [28] have reported in a retrospective study of AFP and DCP values in patients in the Hepatitis C Antiviral Long-Term Treatment against Cirrhosis Trial who had blood drawn every 3 months for 12 months prior to HCC diagnosis. They have concluded that the biomarkers are needed to complement ultrasound in the detection of early HCC but neither DCP nor AFP is optimal. For the study, early stage HCC was defined as a single tumor nodule <3 cm in diameter with no evidence of vascular invasion or metastasis, and only 61.5 % of patients presented with early stage HCC. In our study, median of tumor size was 1.9 cm and all patients with <3 cm. Tumor volume doubling time is reported to be 90–132 days [29] and it may take a half year or 1 year for a nodule to develop from <2 cm to >3 cm. Therefore, HCC patients in our study were diagnosed 1 year earlier than the patients in Lok's study. Clinically the tumor size between <2 cm and 3 cm is one of the factor for making decisions of treatments, and it has been reported that survival rate of patients with tumor size <2 cm is higher [20]. Therefore, HCC should be diagnosed at the earlier stage with tumor <2 cm in order to achieve better outcome.

It is well known that AFP-L3 concentration correlates well with AFP; however, AFP-L3 % is not correlated with AFP [24, 30]. AFP-L3 % is a marker that is independent of AFP. Therefore, we have used AFP-L3 % for analysis.

In the present study, hs-AFP-L3 was significantly elevated 1 year prior to HCC diagnosis in 34.3 % of patients at a cutoff value of 7 %. Tamura et al. [16] reported that a cutoff value of 7 % is most appropriate for discriminating HCC from benign liver disease using this assay. Therefore, patients with elevated hs-AFP-L3 value under surveillance should be followed up closely. The specificity of 80 % or less before diagnosis may actually mislead because the non-HCC patients selected by matching with the HCC patients were potentially higher risk group for HCC and would likely develop HCC later.

In previous studies, elevated AFP-L3 has been reported to be correlated to a shorter doubling time of tumor volume, increased hepatic arterial supply, and pathologic features such as infiltrative tumor growth pattern, capsule infiltration, vascular invasion, and intrahepatic metastasis [31, 32]. These findings are often difficult to diagnose by various imaging modalities in small HCCs. Such blood supply changes typically result in change of echo pattern in nodules. In this study, therefore, high positivity rates for hs-AFP-L3 at −1 year in the patients who had such changes of echo pattern may be associated with developing HCC. The survival rate of patients with hs-AFP-L3 > 7 % at −1 year was significantly poorer compared to patients with hs-AFP-L3 < 7 %. However, differences of the detected tumor size and number were not statistically significant between patients with hs-AFP-L3 ≥ 7 % and <7 %. AFP-L3-positive HCC nodules may be aggressive and have high malignancy potential even though the tumor size is small. Therefore, it may be useful in early detection of the aggressive tumor to perform enhanced imaging techniques such as MRI for patients with elevated hs-AFP-L3. Survival rate of patients with the hs-AFP-L3 elevation at HCC diagnosis showed a poorer tendency; however, there were no statistical differences. HCC treatments were done just after the HCC diagnosis. Therefore, HCC tumors in patients with the hs-AFP-L3 elevation 1 year before HCC diagnosis might have 1 year to grow. This 1 year may reflect the difference of survival of two groups. DCP is a good marker for poor prognosis of HCC. However, the difference of overall survival between patients with DCP ≥40 and <40 mAU/mL was not observed due to the early stage (small) HCC without obvious vascular invasion.

AFP is a good marker to distinguish high-risk group for HCC development in the future [22]; however, AFP was not elevated 1 year prior to HCC development. AFP-L3 was elevated 1 year prior to diagnosis of small HCC in 34.3 % of patients.

Interpretation of US can be challenging without comparison to previous imaging results and performance of US can be limited in patients who are obese or have severe background liver cirrhosis. In the present study, sensitivity of the combined three biomarkers was 60.6 % at diagnosis, and measurements of biomarkers are expected to complement to US in surveillance.

In conclusion, elevation of hs-AFP-L3 was early predictive of development of HCC even at low AFP levels and in absence of US findings of suspicious HCC. Prognosis of patients with elevated hs-AFP-L3 was significantly poorer. HCC may be diagnosed earlier to receive curative treatments by the elevated hs-AFP-L3 as a trigger of enhanced imaging techniques. Additional prospective studies are

expected to demonstrate whether routine measurements of hs-AFP-L3 in HCC surveillance can improve overall patient survival.

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Conflict of interest All authors declare that the authors report no conflicts of interest.

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Characteristics of elderly hepatitis C virus-associated hepatocellular carcinoma patients

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Key words
alanine aminotransferase (ALT), alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), average integration value of ALT, elderly patient, hepatitis C virus (HCV), hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), platelet count, propensity score.

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Abstract

Background and Aim: The average age of hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) patients has been rising in Japan. We evaluate characteristics of HCV-positive patients who develop HCC in older age to determine an optimal surveillance strategy.

Methods: A total of 323 patients with three or more years of follow-up before HCC diagnosis and 323 propensity-matched controls without HCC were studied. HCC patients were classified into four groups according to age at the time of HCC diagnosis: group A (≤ 60 years, $n = 36$), group B (61–70 years, $n = 115$), group C (71–80 years, $n = 143$), and group D (> 80 years, $n = 29$). Clinical and laboratory data were compared.

Results: Platelet counts were significantly higher in the older groups at HCC diagnosis ($P < 0.0001$). The rate of platelet counts decline was lower in older groups ($P = 0.0107$). The average integration value of serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) in groups A, B, C, and D were 80.9 IU/L, 62.3 IU/L, 59.0 IU/L, and 44.9 IU/L, respectively ($P < 0.0001$). In older patients (≥ 65 years old), cirrhosis and average integration value of ALT were significantly associated with hepatocarcinogenesis, but platelet count was not.

Conclusion: Elderly HCV-positive patients (≥ 65 years old) with low ALT values developed HCC regardless of their platelet counts. These findings should be taken into account when designing the most suitable HCC surveillance protocol for this population.

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most common malignancies, particularly in southern and eastern Asia. In Japan, HCC is the third leading cause of cancer death in men, behind lung and stomach cancer. In women, HCC is the fifth leading cause of cancer death during the past decade, behind colon, stomach, lung, and breast cancer.[1] Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection accounts for approximately 75–80% of cases. Each year, HCC develops in 6–8% of patients with HCV-associated cirrhosis.[2]

In Japan, screening the blood supply for HCV, which commenced in November 1989 and began using second-generation enzyme immunoassays in February 1992, decreased the risk of post-transfusion hepatitis from more than 50% in the 1960s to virtually zero presently.[3] The age of Japanese patients diagnosed with HCC has been steadily increasing. Up to 1999, the majority of HCC mortalities occurred in patients under 69 years of age, but in 2000 more than half of HCC patients were over the age of 70.[1] This aging trend is also observed in HCV patients undergoing interferon-based therapy in Japan.[4] In contrast, HCV infection in the United States and other western countries is most prevalent among persons 30 to 50 years of age,[5] and the incidence of HCV-associated HCC is expected to rise. As a country with more experience with HCV-associated HCC, Japan's long-term experience can be helpful in planning strategies to contain HCV infection and to cope with its long-term sequelae worldwide.

The aim of this study is to evaluate characteristics of HCV-positive patients who develop HCC in older age and to determine an optimal surveillance strategy for these patients.

Materials and methods

Study population. This study cohort was comprised of 6740 consecutive HCV-positive patients (1019 patients with HCC and 5721 patients without HCC) referred to the Department of Gastroenterology at Ogaki Municipal Hospital from January 1990 to December 2006.

There were 323 patients who fulfilled the following inclusion criteria out of 1019 HCC patients: (i) detectable HCV-RNA for at least six months, (ii) no evidence of hepatitis B virus infection; (iii) other possible causes of chronic liver disease were ruled out

(no history of hepatotoxic drug use, and negative tests for autoimmune hepatitis, primary biliary cirrhosis, hemochromatosis, and Wilson's disease); (iv) a follow-up period of greater than three years before HCC diagnosis; (v) no interferon therapy within the last 12 months; and (vi) serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) measurements taken more than twice yearly. The patients were classified into four groups according to age at the time of HCC diagnosis: group A (≤ 60 years, $n = 36$), group B (61–70 years, $n = 115$), group C (71–80 years, $n = 143$), and group D (> 80 years, $n = 29$).

Of the 5721 patients who have not developed HCC, 3275 patients fulfilled the same inclusion criteria. To reduce the confounding effects of covariates, we used propensity scores to match HCC patients with unique control patients based on age, sex, Child-Pugh classification at the start of follow-up, and follow-up duration. We were able to match 323 patients with HCC to 323 patients without HCC. The patients were classified into four groups according to age at the end of follow-up: group A' (≤ 60 years, $n = 30$), group B' (61–70 years, n = 114), group C' (71–80 years, $n = 136$), and group D' (> 80 years, $n = 43$).

The start of follow-up was defined as the date a patient first visited our hospital and ended on the date of HCC diagnosis for the HCC patients, or the date of the last visit at our hospital or December 31, 2010, whichever occurred earlier, in control patients.

Histological examinations were performed in 234 out of 646 patients. Cirrhosis was diagnosed pathologically in 120 patients. The remaining 412 patients were evaluated with ultrasonography (US) and biochemical tests.[6–8] Patients who did not satisfy the criteria for cirrhosis were classified as having chronic hepatitis for the purposes of this study. All together, 288 out of 646 patients were diagnosed with chronic hepatitis, and 358 were diagnosed with cirrhosis.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee at Ogaki Municipal Hospital in January 22, 2009 and complied with the Helsinki Declaration. Each patient provided written informed consent.

Laboratory test for liver disease and virologic markers. Platelet counts, prothrombin time, and serum levels of ALT, albumin, total bilirubin, alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), *lens culinaris* agglutinin–reactive fraction of AFP (AFP-L3%), and des-γ-carboxy prothrombin (DCP) were determined at the start of follow-up. ALT is expressed as an average integration value.[6] Serum AFP concentration was determined with a commercially available kit. AFP-L3 was measured by lectin-affinity electrophoresis and antibody-affinity blotting with the AFP Differentiation Kit L (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd, Osaka, Japan).[9] DCP was quantified with the Picolumi PIVKA-II kit (Eisai Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan).[10] HCV genotype was determined by PCR using genotype-specific primers, and HCV-RNA was quantified (before November 2007; COBAS Amplicor HCV monitor test and after December 2007; COBAS AmpliPrep/COBAS TaqMan HCV test, Roche Diagnostics K.K., Tokyo, Japan).

Alcohol exposure. Past alcohol exposure was estimated based on chart review of drinking patterns over five years. Patients were categorized as either "excessive" or "moderate" alcohol consumers. Excessive alcohol consumers drank over 50 g daily for five years.

Methods of follow-up. All patients received medical examinations at least every six months at our institution. Imaging studies, either US, computed tomography (CT), or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), were performed at least every six months. When patients were considered to have developed cirrhosis by laboratory data or imaging findings, imaging was performed at three-month intervals.[11]

Diagnosis and treatment of HCC. The diagnosis of HCC was made based on either pathological or clinical and radiological criteria. Histological examination of resected hepatic tumors or US-guided needle biopsy specimens confirmed HCC in 165 patients (resected specimens: 111 patients; biopsy specimens: 54 patients). In the remaining 158 patients, the diagnosis of HCC was made using clinical criteria and imaging findings obtained from B-mode US, CT, MRI, and CT angiography.[12,13]

Tumor staging was performed according to the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) classification system.[14] In cases where pathologic evaluation was not available, vascular invasion was assessed by dynamic CT and angiography.

Treatment for each patient was individualized according to evidence-based clinical practice guidelines for HCC in Japan.[14] Hepatic resection was performed on 111 patients. Percutaneous ethanol injection therapy was performed in 16 patients. Radiofrequency ablation therapy was performed in 104 patients. Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization was performed in 62 patients. Thirty patients did not undergo treatment because of the patient's wishes or impaired liver function.

Statistical analyses. Statistical analysis was performed with the Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS ver.18.0 for Windows; SPSS Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Continuous variables are represented as medians (range). The non-parametric Jonckheere–Terpstra test was used to assess continuous variables. The Steel–Dwass or Shirley–Williams multiple comparisons method was applied if the Jonckheere–Terpstra test yielded significant results. The Cochran–Armitage test or the chi-square test was used to assess categorical variables. Actual survival was estimated using the Kaplan–Meier method,[15] and differences were tested with the log-rank test.[16] The Cox proportional hazards model and forward selection method were used to estimate the relative risk of HCC development associated with age, sex, cirrhosis, alcohol consumption, diabetes mellitus, effect of prior interferon therapy, platelet count, AFP at the start of follow-up, and average integration value of ALT, and the annual rate of platelet count decline. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Clinical features at baseline. The clinical profiles of the HCC patients at the start of follow-up are shown in Table 1. There was a higher proportion of women diagnosed with HCC at a later age ($P = 0.0016$): the percentage of women in groups A, B, C, and

Table 1 Profile of HCV-infected HCC patients at the start of follow-up

	Group A ($n = 36$)	Group B ($n = 115$)	Group C ($n = 143$)	Group D ($n = 29$)	P
Sex (female/male)	5/31	43/72	63/80	15/14	0.0016
Age at the start of follow-up† (years)	49 (36–57)	59 (47–66)	66 (52–75)	74 (64–80)	< 0.0001
Duration of observation period until HCC diagnosis† (years)	6.4 (3.1–16.7)	6.9 (3.0–15.8)	8.0 (3.0–17.7)	9.3 (3.0–15.7)	0.0003
Alcohol consumption (≥ 50 g per day/< 50 g per day)	9/27	24/91	26/117	2/27	0.0873
History of blood transfusion (present/absent)	6/30	26/89	35/108	2/27	0.8247
Diabetes mellitus (present/absent)	24/12	40/75	51/92	5/24	0.0008
Prior interferon therapy (SVR/non-SVR/absent)	3/17/16	12/32/71	0/15/128	0/1/28	< 0.0001

†Expressed as median (range).
Group A, diagnosis of HCC at age ≤ 60 years; Group B, 61–70 years; Group C, 71–80 years; Group D, > 80 years.
HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; SVR, sustained virologic response.

Table 2 Profile of control patients with HCV infection at the start of follow-up

	Group A' ($n = 30$)	Group B' ($n = 114$)	Group C' ($n = 136$)	Group D' ($n = 43$)	P
Sex (female/male)	7/23	48/66	56/80	20/23	0.1175
Age at the start of follow-up† (years)	48 (40–56)	58 (48–67)	66 (54–75)	74 (65–82)	< 0.0001
Duration of observation period until the end of follow-up† (years)	7.0 (3.0–15.5)	7.8 (3.0–18.7)	8.5 (3.0–17.7)	8.5 (3.6–19.1)	0.0064
Alcohol consumption (≥ 50 g per day / < 50 g per day)	8/22	27/87	20/116	3/40	0.0630
History of blood transfusion (present/absent)	5/25	29/85	40/96	2/41	0.1939
Diabetes mellitus (present/absent)	7/23	38/76	47/89	12/31	0.0758
Prior interferon therapy (SVR/non-SVR/absent)	4/15/11	8/34/72	3/20/113	0/1/42	< 0.0001

†Expressed as median (range).
Group A', age ≤ 60 years at the end of follow-up; Group B', 61–70 years; Group C', 71–80 years; Group D', > 80 years.
HCV, hepatitis C virus; SVR, sustained virologic response.

D was 13.9, 37.4, 44.1, and 51.7, respectively. As the patient's age at HCC diagnosis increased, the patient's age at the start of follow-up and the duration of the observation period until HCC diagnosis increased ($P < 0.0001$ and $P = 0.0003$, respectively). Patients who received a diagnosis of HCC at a more advanced age have a significantly decreased incidence of diabetes mellitus and prior interferon therapy ($P = 0.0008$ and $P < 0.0001$, respectively). The clinical profiles of the control patients at the start of follow-up are shown in Table 2. The same tendency between HCC patients and control patients was observed.

Laboratory data of the HCC patients at the start of follow-up are shown in Table 3. Patients diagnosed with HCC at a more advanced age had lower baseline serum ALT and AFP levels ($P < 0.0001$ and $P = 0.0043$, respectively) and higher baseline platelet counts ($P = 0.0032$). In Table 4, the oldest group of control patients had lower baseline serum ALT and AFP levels ($P < 0.0001$ and $P = 0.0261$, respectively); however, no significant differences in baseline platelet count were observed.

The results of the Cox proportional hazards model and forward selection method to test factors associated with the age-related development of HCC to patient age at the start of follow-up are shown in Table 5. Ten covariates including age, sex, cirrhosis, alcohol consumption, diabetes mellitus, effect of prior interferon therapy, platelet count, baseline AFP, average integration value of ALT, and the annual rate of platelet count decline were studied. Age, cirrhosis, average integration value of ALT, platelet count, and AFP were significantly associated with hepatocarcinogenesis. However, only cirrhosis and average integration value of ALT were selected as factors significantly associated with hepatocarcinogenesis in patients ≥ 65 or 70 years old. Platelet count was not a significant factor.

Clinical features at the time of HCC diagnosis. Platelet counts at the time of HCC diagnosis in groups A, B, C, and group D were $72 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (40–192), $84 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (28–256), $99 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (31–355), and $119 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (58–232), respectively. There is a statistically significant trend toward higher platelet counts as the age at HCC diagnosis increases ($P < 0.0001$). In contrast, platelet counts at the end of follow-up in groups A', B', C', and D' were $194 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (44–543), $172 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (40–484), $177 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (21–415), and $193 \times 10^3/mm^3$ (52–429), respectively. There is no significant difference between the four groups of control patients ($P = 0.4772$). The annual rate of decline in platelet count, calculated as [platelet count at the start of the study period—platelet count at the time of HCC diagnosis]/duration of the observation period until the diagnosis of HCC, decreased significantly as the age at HCC diagnosis increased, and the annual rate of decline in platelet count, calculated as [platelet count at the start of study period—platelet count at the end of follow-up]/duration of observation period until the end of follow-up in control patients, did not increase significantly as the age at the end of follow-up increased (Fig. 1, $P = 0.0247$ and 0.1571, respectively). The annual rate of platelet count decline was

Table 3 Baseline laboratory data of HCV-infected HCC patients

	Group A ($n = 36$)	Group B ($n = 115$)	Group C ($n = 143$)	Group D ($n = 29$)	*P*
Platelet count† ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	104 (34–249)	114 (29–253)	125 (44–307)	124 (70–201)	0.0032
Prothrombin time† (%)	87 (52–129)	88 (24–119)	85 (22–128)	86 (45–129)	0.6062
Total bilirubin† (mg/dL)	0.8 (0.3–1.8)	0.7 (0.2–4.7)	0.7 (0.3–6.7)	0.6 (0.2–1.3)	0.4583
ALT† (IU/L)	125 (24–361)	76 (18–387)	64 (8–154)	44 (17–221)	< 0.0001
Child-Pugh classification[17] (A or B/C)	33/3	103/12	130/13	24/5	0.5512
HCV genotype‡ (1/2)	26/6	66/24	75/29	15/6	0.4083
HCV viral concentration† (log copies/mL)	5.7 (2.7–8.0)	5.0 (2.0–8.0)	5.4 (2.0–6.9)	5.5 (3.0–7.0)	0.4952
AFP† (ng/mL)	13.5 (1.8–163.4)	8.4 (1.9–583.4)	7.2 (1.0–372.3)	4.8 (1.2–141.5)	0.0043
AFP-L3† (%)	0 (0–56.3)	0 (0–43.6)	0 (0–15.2)	0 (0–7.0)	1.0000
DCP† (mAU/mL)	19 (10–154)	19 (10–367)	17 (10–745)	15 (10–182)	0.0958
Cirrhosis (present/absent)	31/5	95/20	112/31	21/8	0.0903

†Expressed as median (range).
‡Data were unavailable for 76 patients.
AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; AFP-L3, *lens culinaris* agglutinin–reactive fraction of AFP; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; DCP, des-γ-carboxy prothrombin; Group A, diagnosis of HCC at age ≤ 60 years; Group B, 61–70 years; Group C, 71–80 years; Group D, > 80 years; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus.

Table 4 Baseline laboratory data of control patients with HCV infection

	Group A′ ($n = 30$)	Group B′ ($n = 114$)	Group C′ ($n = 136$)	Group D′ ($n = 43$)	*P*
Platelet count† ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	204 (58–375)	180 (40–540)	187 (51–484)	196 (52–418)	0.4301
Prothrombin time† (%)	100 (52–138)	96 (38–153)	96 (48–144)	95 (47–145)	0.3435
Total bilirubin† (mg/dL)	0.5 (0.2–1.2)	0.4 (0.2–5.3)	0.4 (0.2–5.3)	0.3 (0.2–1.5)	0.6298
ALT† (IU/L)	53 (12–131)	46 (5–490)	35 (8–484)	22 (2–199)	< 0.0001
Child-Pugh classification[17] (A or B/C)	30/0	103/11	128/8	40/3	0.1088
HCV genotype‡ (1/2)	15/10	60/23	66/25	12/5	0.0869
HCV viral concentration† (log copies/mL)	5.9 (2.7–6.6)	5.7 (2.7–7.3)	5.8 (2.0–7.0)	5.1 (3.0–6.6)	0.1130
AFP† (ng/mL)	4.3 (0.8–156.3)	3.1 (0.8–170.3)	3.1 (0.8–219.2)	2.0 (0.8–29.2)	0.0261
AFP-L3† (%)	0 (0–26.9)	0 (0–34.2)	0 (0–41.4)	0 (0–5.2)	1.0000
DCP† (mAU/mL)	22 (10–122)	19 (10–487)	19 (10–503)	16 (10–30)	0.2549
Cirrhosis (present/absent)	5/25	35/79	48/88	11/32	0.1201

†expressed as median (range).
‡Data were unavailable for 107 patients.
AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; AFP-L3, *lens culinaris* agglutinin–reactive fraction of AFP; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; DCP, des-γ-carboxy prothrombin; Group A′, age ≤ 60 years at the end of follow-up; Group B′, 61–70 years; Group C′, 71–80 years; Group D′, > 80 years; HCV, hepatitis C virus.

Table 5 Factors associated with the development of HCC according to the age at start of follow-up in multivariate analysis

		All patients ($n = 646$) hazard ratio (95% CI)	≥ 60 years ($n = 428$) hazard ratio (95% CI)	≥ 65 years ($n = 255$) hazard ratio (95% CI)	≥ 70 years ($n = 92$) hazard ratio (95% CI)
Age (years)	≤ 60	1			
	> 60, ≤ 70	1.600 (1.240–2.064)			
	> 70	2.738 (1.858–4.036)			
Cirrhosis	Absent	1	1	1	1
	Present	2.165 (1.575–2.978)	2.269 (1.554–3.311)	2.734 (1.724–4.336)	2.962 (1.200–7.310)
Average integration value of ALT (IU/L)	≤ 20	1	1	1	1
	> 20, ≤ 40	4.239 (1.336–13.800)	4.885 (1.179–20.249)	5.243 (1.253–22.020)	12.162 (1.549–95.496)
	> 40, ≤ 60	5.518 (1.725–17.648)	6.661 (1.619–23.397)	6.739 (1.610–28.250)	6.797 (0.854–54.080)
	> 60, ≤ 80	7.182 (2.230–23.130)	9.362 (2.268–38.641)	12.265 (2.867–56.471)	11.183 (1.400–89.317)
	> 80	10.211 (3.175–33.031)	12.249 (2.494–50.884)	13.087 (2.962–57.815)	11.052 (0.964–126.671)
Platelet count ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	≥ 150	1	1		
	< 150	1.644 (1.237–2.186)	1.728 (1.240–2.408)		
AFP* (ng/mL)	≤ 10	1			
	> 10, ≤ 20	1.406 (1.002–1.971)			
	> 20	1.609 (1.214–2.132)			

AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; CI, confidence interval; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma.

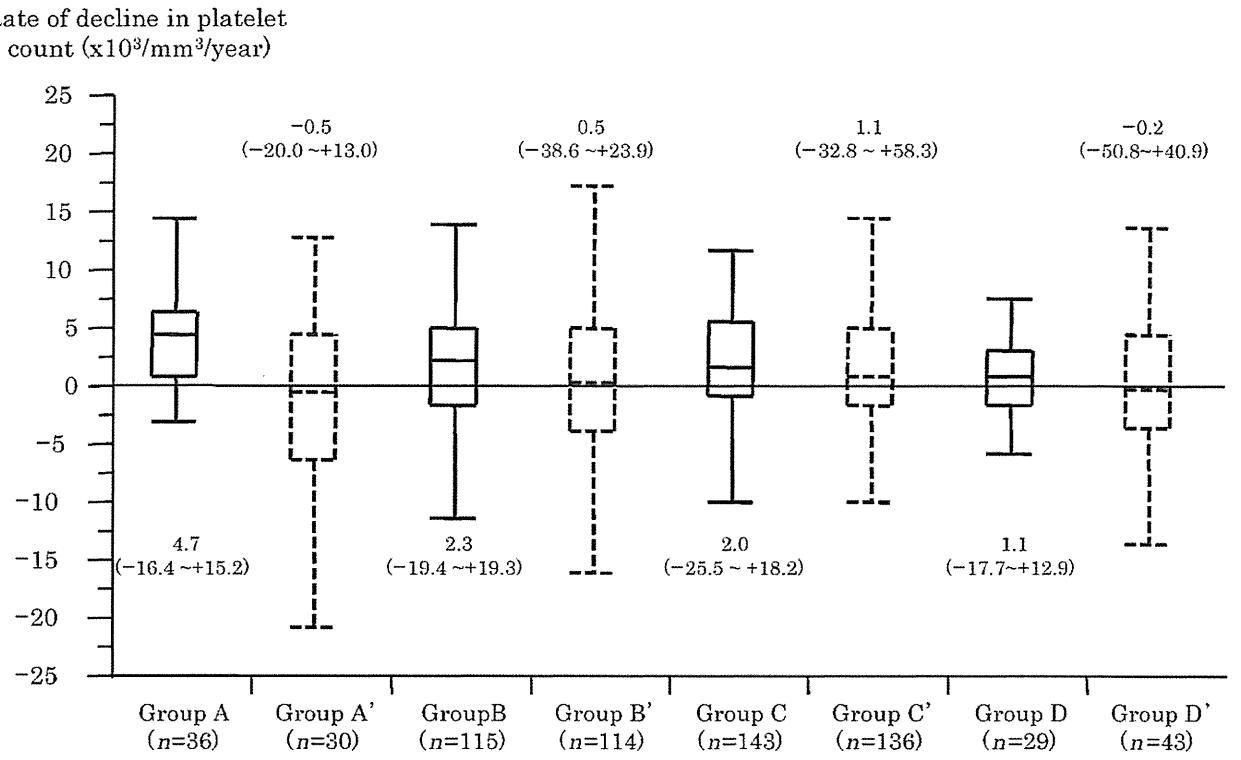

Figure 1 Rate of decline in platelet count prior to hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) diagnosis in HCC patients and prior to the end of follow-up in control patients. The annual rate of platelet count decline in the period prior to HCC diagnosis was lower in the groups that were older at the time of HCC diagnosis. In control patients, there was no trend toward higher annual rates of platelet count decline in the period prior to the end of follow-up when the patients were classified by age ($P = 0.0247$ and 0.1571, respectively, Jonckheere-Terpstra Test). Group A, HCC diagnosed at age ≤ 60 years; group B, 61–70 years; group C, 71–80 years; group D, > 80 years. group A', control patients ≤ 60 years old at the end of follow-up; group B', 61–70 years; group C', 71–80 years; group D', > 80 years. The annual rate of platelet count decline was significantly lower in group A' than in group A ($P = 0.0039$); however, there were no significant differences when HCC patients in other age groups were compared to their respective matched controls.

lower in group A' than in group A ($P = 0.0039$), and there were no significant differences between group B and group B', group C and group C', and group D and group D'.

The average integration value of ALT in groups A, B, C, and D was 80.9 IU/L (25.3–179.3), 62.3 IU/L (14.5–167.9), 59.0 IU/L (9.9–134.1), and 44.9 IU/L (22.7–91.9), respectively. The average integration value of ALT was significantly lower in patients diagnosed with HCC at an older age (Fig. 2, $P < 0.0001$). There was a similar trend among control patients (Fig. 2, $P < 0.0001$). The average integration values of ALT in groups A', B', C', and D' were significantly lower than in groups A, B, C, and D, respectively ($P < 0.0001$).

Patient profiles at the time of HCC diagnosis are shown in Table 6. There were no significant differences in tumor characteristics and levels of tumor markers among the age groups. Fewer patients in Group D underwent hepatic resection ($P = 0.0293$).

Survival rates according to age at HCC diagnosis. Five and 10-year cumulative survival rates of groups A, B, C, and D were 44.2%, 58.2%, 44.3%, and 33.3% and 22.7%, 31.2%, 26.6%, and not available, respectively (Fig. 3). There were no significant differences in the cumulative survival rate among the four groups.

Discussion

In Japan, the average age of patients with chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis, or HCV-associated HCC is increasing. The number of deaths due to these diseases is also increasing. The age-specific prevalence of HCV seropositivity in the USA is about 30 years below that in Japan; thus, a majority of patients in the USA with chronic HCV infection will reach an advanced age in the near future.[3]

In our study, elderly HCC patients have high platelet counts and low ALT values. In addition, multivariate analysis using propensity-matched control patients revealed that the presence of cirrhosis and high ALT levels (> 20 IU/L) are significantly associated with the development of HCC. However, platelet count is not significantly associated with hepatocarcinogenesis in elderly HCV carriers (≥ 65 years). Physicians should be aware that patients aged 65 years or older could develop HCC regardless of their platelet count.

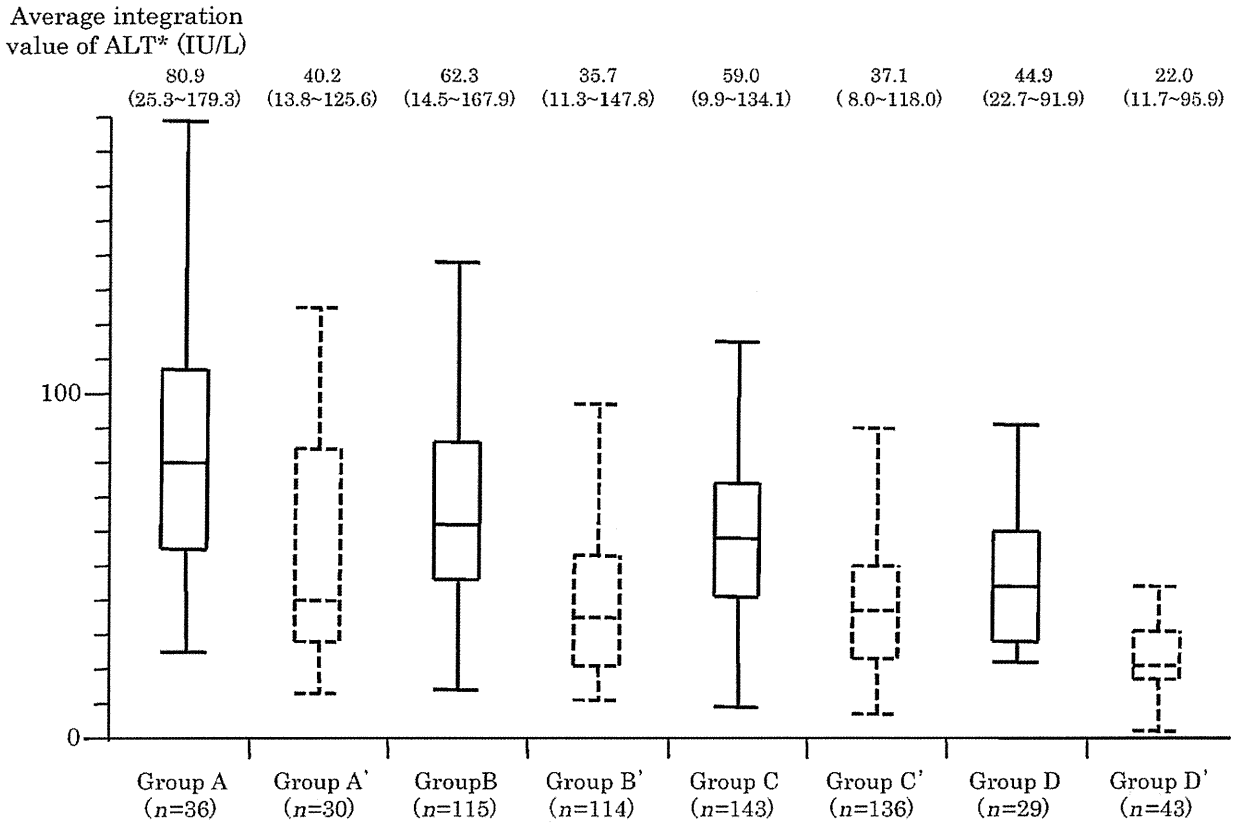

Figure 2 Average integration values of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) prior to HCC diagnosis in HCC patients and prior to the end of follow-up in control patients. Patients who were older at the time of HCC diagnosis had lower average integration values of ALT in the period prior to HCC diagnosis. In control patients, the average integration values of ALT in the period prior to the end of follow-up were lower in the groups that were older at the end of follow-up ($P < 0.0001$ and < 0.0001, respectively, Jonckheere-Terpstra Test). Average integration values of ALT in groups A′, B′, C′, and D′ were significantly lower than in groups A, B, C, and D, respectively ($P < 0.0001$).

Table 6 Profile of HCV-infected HCC patients at the time of HCC diagnosis

	Group A ($n = 36$)	Group B ($n = 115$)	Group C ($n = 143$)	Group D ($n = 29$)	*P*
AFP† (ng/mL)	23.9 (0.8–500)	19.8 (0.6–10500)	12.8 (0.8–12680)	17.8 (0.8–99720)	0.2347
AFP-L3† (%)	0 (0–89)	0 (0–87.2)	0 (0–81.0)	0 (0–40.7)	1.0000
DCP† (mAU/mL)	36 (10–36164)	35 (10–5941)	32 (10–50904)	24 (10–6229)	0.5650
Tumor size† (cm)	2.0 (0.8–10.0)	2.0 (0.3–8.8)	2.0 (0.6–11.4)	2.3 (1.0–9.0)	0.3754
Number of tumors†	1 (1–6)	1 (1–8)	1 (1–10)	1 (1–4)	1.0000
Portal thrombus (present/absent)	2/34	3/112	6/137	0/29	0.3293
Stage (1/2/3/4)	14/15/5/2	41/53/21/0	50/61/29/3	10/12/7/0	0.4957
Initial treatment (HR/PT/TACE/none)	9/18/4/5	47/44/16/8	51/47/33/12	4/11/9/5	0.0293

†Expressed as median (range).

AFP, α-fetoprotein; AFP-L3, *lens culinaris* agglutinin–reactive fraction of AFP; DCP, des-γ-carboxy prothrombin; Group A, diagnosis of HCC at age ≤ 60 years; Group B, 61–70 years; Group C, 71–80 years; Group D, > 80 years; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HR, hepatic resection; PT; percutaneous treatment including ethanol injection therapy, microwave coagulation therapy, and radiofrequency ablation therapy; TACE, transcatheter arterial chemoembolization.

The male-to-female ratio of HCC patients in Japan has decreased from 4.5 in 1984–1985 to 2.5 in 2002–2003.[1] It is well known that the mean age of female HCC patients with HCV infection is higher than that of males.[18,19] The increased proportion of female patients is considered a result of more older patients with HCV-related HCC. In our study, the proportion of female patients was the highest in group D. Further investigation of the role of sex in hepatocarcinogenesis is needed.

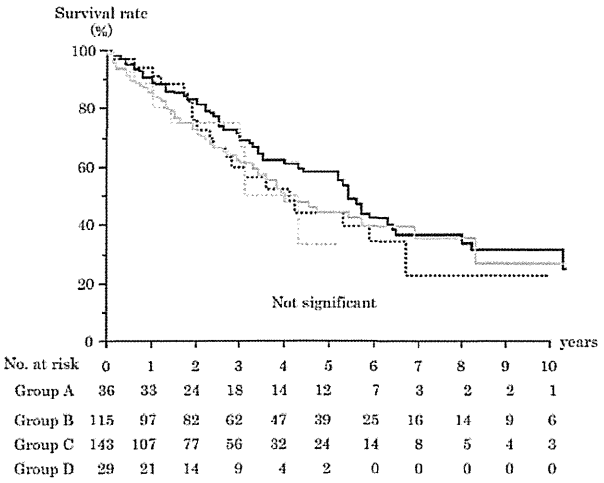

Figure 3 Cumulative survival rate of groups A, B, C, and D according to age at hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) diagnosis. Kaplan-Meier curves showing the survival rate stratified by age at HCC diagnosis. There were no significant differences in the survival rate among the four groups. ——, A group (≤ 60 years, $n = 36$); ·····, B group (61–70 years, $n = 115$); ——, C group (71–80 years, $n = 143$); ·····, D group (> 80 years, $n = 29$).

We previously reported that the average integration value of ALT was associated with the cumulative incidence of hepatocarcinogenesis and that minimizing ALT is necessary for the prevention of hepatocarcinogenesis.[20] In addition, we demonstrated a 6.242-fold higher (95% confidence interval: 1.499–25.987) cumulative incidence of hepatocarcinogenesis in patients with average ALT integration values between 20 and 40 IU/L (within the current normal range) than in patients with 20 IU/L or below.[21] In this study, the average integration value of ALT significantly decreased as the age at HCC diagnosis increased. Especially in group D, the average integration value of ALT was 44.9 IU/L (range, 22.7–91.9 IU/L), which is near the upper limit of the conventional reference range of ALT (40 IU/L). There was the same tendency in control patients; however, average integration values of ALT were lower in control patients than HCC patients in each corresponding age group. These data suggest close surveillance for HCC is important even if older patients (≥ 65 years) have low ALT values.

It is likely that low platelet counts account for a large proportion of patients with cirrhosis, consistent with the theory that HCC develops in patients with progressive or advanced liver disease. Cirrhosis is an established risk factor for HCC in patients with HCV.[22,23] It is generally accepted that platelet count is a surrogate marker of liver fibrosis.[24,25] Platelet counts were highest in group D, both at the start of follow-up and at the time of HCC diagnosis. In contrast, there were no differences in platelet counts among control patients without HCC. It is particularly worth noting that group D had the smallest annual decline in platelet count, at levels comparable to the control patients. A previous report showed that the rate of progression of fibrosis to cirrhosis was accelerated by aging.[24] The precise mechanism of this discrepancy is uncertain. Probably, differences in patient selection might account for this discrepancy. We hypothesize that in our study, the increased rate of annual decline in platelet count may be linked to accelerated carcinogenesis occurring in the younger patients. Group D also had the lowest values of AFP, which is considered a marker of hepatic regeneration as well as a HCC tumor marker in viral hepatitis.[26] Taken together, this suggests a weaker inflammatory response in older patients. Further investigation is necessary.

Why do elderly patients progress to HCC even though liver function appears stable? Aging is associated with a number of events at the molecular, cellular, and physiological level that influence carcinogenesis and subsequent cancer growth.[22] Age may be considered as a progressive loss of stress tolerance due to declines in the functional reserve of multiple organ systems.[27] It has been hypothesized that age-associated declines in DNA repair[28] contribute to the development of HCC. The precise relationship between aging and hepatocarcinogenesis remains uncertain. Further assessment of the role of aging in the progression of HCV is needed.

We found no difference in tumor stage among the four groups. The younger groups A and B tended to receive curative therapy more often than the older groups C and D. However, there were no significant differences in survival. We hypothesize that this is due to the aggressive multiple treatments received by elderly patients with good liver function.

One limitation of our study is that histological confirmation was available in only 234 patients (36.2%). However, it is not practical to perform biopsies on all patients because of potential complications. Lu *et al.* reported that the best cutoff platelet count for the diagnosis of cirrhosis is 150×10^3 /mm^3.[29] Therefore, we employed platelet count as a surrogate marker of liver fibrosis in this study.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that elderly HCV-positive patients (≥ 65 years old) with low ALT values developed HCC regardless of their platelet counts. This finding should be taken into account when designating the most suitable HCC surveillance protocol. The optimal screening interval for HCV-infected patients aged 65 years older should be three to four months like cirrhotic patients even in the absence of cirrhosis.

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Research Article

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Effect of nucleos(t)ide analogue therapy on hepatocarcinogenesis in chronic hepatitis B patients: A propensity score analysis

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Background & Aims: Some patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection progress to hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). However, the long-term effect of nucleos(t)ide analogue (NA) therapy on progression to HCC is unclear.

Methods: Therefore, we compared chronic hepatitis B patients who received NA therapy to those who did not, using a propensity analysis.

Results: Of 785 consecutive HBV carriers between 1998 and 2008, 117 patients who received NA therapy and 117 patients who did not, were selected by eligibility criteria and propensity score matching. Factors associated with the development of HCC were analyzed. In the follow-up period, HCC developed in 57 of 234 patients (24.4%). Factors significantly associated with the incidence of HCC, as determined by Cox proportional hazards models, include higher age (hazard ratio, 4.36 [95% confidence interval, 1.33–14.29], $p = 0.015$), NA treatment (0.28 [0.13–0.62], $p = 0.002$), basal core promoter (BCP) mutations (12.74 [1.74–93.11], $p = 0.012$), high HBV core-related antigen (HBcrAg) (2.77 [1.07–7.17], $p = 0.036$), and high gamma glutamyl transpeptidase levels (2.76 [1.49–5.12], $p = 0.001$).

Conclusions: NA therapy reduced the risk of HCC compared with untreated controls. Higher serum levels of HBcrAg and BCP mutations are associated with progression to HCC, independent of NA therapy.

Introduction

An estimated 350 million individuals worldwide are chronically infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV), of whom 1 million die annually from HBV-related liver disease [1]. Chronic HBV infection is recognized as a major risk factor for the development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [1,2]. Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)-positive patients have a 70-fold increased risk of developing HCC compared to HBsAg seronegative counterparts [3,4]. HBV infection is endemic in Southeast Asia, China, Taiwan, Korea, and sub-Saharan Africa, where up to 85–95% of patients with HCC are HBsAg positive [5]. HCC is the third and fifth leading cause of cancer death in men and women, respectively, and the number of deaths and the mortality rate from HCC have greatly increased in Japan since 1975 [6]. Hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related HCC accounts for 75% of all HCCs in Japan and HBV-related HCC accounts for 15% [6].

In 2004, Liaw *et al.* reported a significant reduction in HCC in 651 adults receiving lamivudine after adjustment for baseline variables (hazard ratio, 0.49 [95% confidence interval (95% CI), 0.25–0.99], $p = 0.047$) [7]. However, the results were not significant after exclusion of 5 patients who developed HCC within 1 year of randomization (0.47 [0.22–1.00], $p = 0.052$). Therefore, in 2009, the National Institutes of Health Consensus Development Conference concluded that there was insufficient evidence to assess whether nucleos(t)ide analogue (NA) therapy can prevent the development of HCC [8].

The long-term use of lamivudine has not been recommended because of tyrosine–methionine–aspartate–aspartate (YMDD) mutations, which have occasionally been associated with severe and even fatal flares of hepatitis [9,10]. Therefore, adefovir dipivoxil should be added immediately in patients with virological or biochemical breakthroughs or no response. Currently, there are 2 nucleoside agents (lamivudine, entecavir) and 1 nucleotide agent (adefovir dipivoxil) available for treatment of HBV infection in Japan. The agent with the higher genetic barrier to resistance, entecavir, is considered the initial drug of choice [11]. Recently, 3 studies on lamivudine suggested that long-term sustained viral suppression was associated with a reduced likelihood of developing HCC [12–14].

In this study, we sought to determine if NA therapy was associated with a reduction in the development of HCC. Since the validity of treatment effects in observational studies may be limited by selection bias and confounding factors, we performed a propensity analysis [15].

Keywords: HBcrAg; BCP; Gamma-GTP; Average integration value; HBV DNA.
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Abbreviations: HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HBV, hepatitis B virus; NA, nucleos(t)ide analogue; HBcrAg, HBV core-related antigen; BCP, basal core promoter; gamma-GTP, gamma glutamyl transpeptidase.