28B) protein used in the experiment was derived from cells with the rs8099917 TT genotype (data not shown). Therefore, the viral responses and/or cellular gene expression change in cells and/or proteins with different IL-28B genotypes *in vitro* should be determined in future studies.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that IFN-α and IFN-λ3 synergistically enhance anti-HCV activity *in vitro*. Although the ISGs upregulated by IFN-α and IFN-λ3 were similar, differences in time-dependent upregulation of these genes, especially prolonged ISGs expression by IFN-λ3, might contribute to their synergistic antiviral activity.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Shinya Maekawa and Taisuke Inoue belong to a donation-funded department that is funded by MSD co. ltd.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Figure S1: IFN-α and IFN-λs inhibit HCV core protein secretion. JFH1-infected Huh7.5.1 cells were incubated with various concentrations of IFN-α and IFN-λ1, -λ2, -λ3. After 48 h of treatment, HCV core protein in the medium was measured. Symbols show the mean value of triplicate wells; error bars show the SD. *: $p < 0.05$ vs. control (IFN 0ng/ml).

Figure S2: The dimethylthiazol carboxymethoxyphenyl sulfophenyl tetrazolium assay was performed after OR6/ORN/C-5B/KE cells were cultured with various concentrations of (A) IFN-α, (B) IFN-λ1, (C) IFN-λ2, (D) IFN-λ3 and (E) combination of IFN-α and IFN-λ3 for 48 h. Symbols show the mean value of triplicate wells; error bars show the SD. *: $p < 0.05$ vs. control (IFN 0ng/ml).

Figure S3: The dimethylthiazol carboxymethoxyphenyl sulfophenyl tetrazolium assay was performed after Huh7.5.1/JFH-1 cells were cultured with various concentrations of (A) IFN-α, (B) IFN-λ1, (C) IFN-λ2, (D) IFN-λ3 and (E) combination of IFN-α and IFN-λ3 for 48 h. Symbols show the mean value of triplicate wells; error bars show the SD. *: $p < 0.05$ vs. control (IFN 0ng/ml).

Table S1: Combination index after 48hr stimulation by CalucSyn.

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Model Incorporating the *ITPA* Genotype Identifies Patients at High Risk of Anemia and Treatment Failure With Pegylated-Interferon Plus Ribavirin Therapy for Chronic Hepatitis C

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This study aimed to develop a model for predicting anemia using the inosine triphosphatase (*ITPA*) genotype and to evaluate its relationship with treatment outcome. Patients with genotype 1b chronic hepatitis C (n = 446) treated with peg-interferon alpha and ribavirin (RBV) for 48 weeks were genotyped for the *ITPA* (rs1127354) and *IL28B* (rs8099917) genes. Data mining analysis generated a predictive model for anemia (hemoglobin (Hb) concentration <10 g/dl); the CC genotype of *ITPA*, baseline Hb <14.0 g/dl, and low creatinine clearance (CLcr) were predictors of anemia. The incidence of anemia was highest in patients with Hb <14.0 g/dl and CLcr <90 ml/min (76%), followed by Hb <14.0 g/dl and *ITPA* CC (57%). Patients with Hb ≥14.0 g/dl and *ITPA* AA/CA had the lowest incidence of anemia (17%). Patients with two predictors (high-risk) had a higher incidence of anemia than the others (64% vs. 28%, $P < 0.0001$). At baseline, the *IL28B* genotype was a predictor of a sustained virological response [adjusted odds ratio 9.88 (95% confidence interval 5.01–19.48), $P < 0.0001$]. In patients who achieved an early virological response, the *IL28B* genotype was not associated with a sustained virological response, while a high risk of anemia was a significant negative predictor of a sustained virological response [0.47 (0.24–0.91), $P = 0.026$]. For high-risk patients with an early virological response, giving >80% of the planned RBV dose increased sustained virological responses by 24%. In conclusion, a predictive model incorporating the *ITPA* genotype could identify patients with a high risk of anemia and reduced probability of sustained virological response. ***J. Med. Virol. 85:449–458, 2013.***

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KEY WORDS: hemolytic anemia; ribavirin; creatinine clearance; antiviral therapy

INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is a leading cause of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma worldwide [Kim, 2002]. The rate of eradication of HCV by pegylated interferon (PEG-IFN) plus ribavirin (RBV), defined as a sustained virological response, is around 50% in patients with HCV genotype 1 [Manns et al., 2001; Fried et al., 2002]. Failure of treatment is attributable to the lack of a virological response or relapse after completion of therapy. Genome-wide association studies and subsequent cohort studies

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have shown that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) located near the *IL28B* gene are the most important determinant of virological response to PEG-IFN/RBV therapy [Ge et al., 2009; Suppiah et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2009; Rauch et al., 2010]. On the other hand, among patients with a virological response, the probability of a sustained virological response decreases when the patients become intolerant to therapy because of RBV-induced hemolytic anemia and receive a reduced dose of RBV [McHutchison et al., 2002; Kurosaki et al., 2012]. Genome-wide association studies have shown that variants of the inosine triphosphatase (*ITPA*) gene protect against hemolytic anemia [Fellay et al., 2010; Tanaka et al., 2011]. These variants are associated with a reduced requirement for an anemia-related dose reduction of RBV [Sakamoto et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2010a; Kurosaki et al., 2011d; Seto et al., 2011]. However, factors other than the *ITPA* gene also contribute to the risk of severe anemia or RBV dose reduction [Ochi et al., 2010; Kurosaki et al., 2011d] and the results of studies on the impact of the *ITPA* genotype on treatment outcome are inconsistent [Ochi et al., 2010; Sakamoto et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2010a, 2011; Kurosaki et al., 2011d].

Data mining is a novel statistical method used to extract relevant factors from a plethora of factors and combine them to predict the incidence of the outcome of interest [Breiman et al., 1980]. Decision tree analysis, a primary component of data mining analysis, has found medical applications recently [Averbook et al., 2002; Miyaki et al., 2002; Baquerizo et al., 2003; Leiter et al., 2004; Garzotto et al., 2005; Zlobec et al., 2005; Valera et al., 2007] and has proven to be a useful tool for predicting therapeutic efficacy [Kurosaki et al., 2010, 2011a,b,c, 2012] and adverse events [Hiramatsu et al., 2011] in patients with chronic hepatitis C treated with PEG-IFN/RBV therapy. Because the results of data mining analysis are presented as a flowchart [LeBlanc and Crowley, 1995], they are easily understandable and usable by clinicians lacking a detailed knowledge of statistics.

For the general application of this genetic information in clinical practice, this study aimed to construct a predictive model of severe anemia using the *ITPA* genotype, together with other relevant factors. This study also aimed to analyze the impact of the risk of anemia on treatment outcome, after adjustment for the *IL28B* genotype. These analyses were carried out at baseline and during therapy, when the early virological response became evident.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Data were collected from a total of 446 genotype 1b chronic hepatitis C patients who were treated with PEG-IFN alpha and RBV at five hospitals and universities throughout Japan. The inclusion criteria were: (1) infection by hepatitis C genotype 1b; (2) no co-infection with hepatitis B virus or human immunodeficiency virus; (3) no other causes of liver disease such as autoimmune hepatitis and primary biliary cirrhosis; and (4) availability of DNA for the analysis of the genetic polymorphisms of *IL28B* and *ITPA*. Patients received PEG-IFN alpha-2a (180 μg) and 2b (1.5 μg/kg) subcutaneously every week and a daily weight-adjusted dose of RBV (600 mg for patients weighing <60 kg, 800 mg for patients weighing 60–80 kg, and 1,000 mg for patients weighing >80 kg) for 48 weeks. Dose reduction or discontinuation of PEG-IFN and RBV was primarily based on the recommendations on the package inserts and the discretion of the physicians at each university and hospital. The standard duration of therapy was set at 48 weeks. No patient received erythropoietin or other growth factors for the treatment of anemia. Written informed consent was obtained from each patient, and the study protocol conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the institutional ethics review committees.

Laboratory Tests

Blood samples obtained before therapy were analyzed for hematologic data, blood chemistry, and HCV RNA. Genetic polymorphisms in SNPs of the *ITPA* gene (rs1127354) and the *IL28B* gene (rs8099917) were determined using ABI TaqMan Probes (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA) and the DigiTag2 assay, respectively. Baseline creatinine clearance (CLcr) levels were calculated using the formula of Cockcroft and Gault [1976]: for males, CLcr = [(140 − age in years) × body weight in kg] ÷ (72 × serum creatinine in mg/dl) and for females, CLcr = 0.85 × [(140 − age in years) × body weight in kg] ÷ (72 × serum creatinine in mg/dl). The stage of liver fibrosis was scored according to the METAVIR scoring system: F0 (no fibrosis), F1 (mild fibrosis: portal fibrosis without septa), F2 (moderate fibrosis: few septa), F3 (severe fibrosis: numerous septa without cirrhosis), and F4 (cirrhosis). A rapid virological response was defined as undetectable HCV RNA by qualitative PCR with a lower detection limit of 50 IU/ml (Amplicor, Roche Diagnostic Systems, Pleasanton, CA) at week 4 of therapy and a complete early virological response was defined as undetectable HCV RNA at week 12. A sustained virological response was defined as undetectable HCV RNA at 24 weeks after completion of therapy. Severe anemia was defined as hemoglobin (Hb) <10 g/dl.

Statistical Analysis

Database for analysis included the following variables: age, sex, body mass index, serum aspartate aminotransferase (AST) levels, alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels, gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT) levels, creatinine levels, CLcr, Hb, platelet count, serum levels of HCV RNA, and the stage of liver fibrosis

TABLE I. Patients' Baseline Characteristics

Age (years)	58.6	(9.6)
Gender: male (n, %)	185	(42%)
Body mass index (kg/m^2)	23.1	(3.7)
AST (IU/L)	59.9	(53.8)
ALT (IU/L)	69.8	(53.8)
GGT (IU/L)	48.5	(41.6)
Creatinine (mg/dl)	0.7	(0.2)
Creatinine clearance (ml/min)	89.5	(23.0)
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	14	(1.4)
Platelet count (10^9/L)	154.5	(52.1)
HCV RNA > 600,000 IU/ml (n, %)	354	(79%)
Liver fibrosis: F3-4 (n, %)	108	(24%)
Initial ribavirin dose (n, %)		
600 mg/day	300	(67%)
800 mg/day	138	(31%)
1,000 mg/day	9	(2%)
Pegylated interferon (n, %)		
alpha2a 180 mcg	58	(13%)
alpha2b 1.5 mcg/kg	388	(87%)
ITPA rs1127354: CC (n, %)	317	(71%)
IL28B rs809917: TT (n, %)	311	(70%)

AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; GGT, gamma-glutamyltransferase.
Data expressed as mean (standard deviation) unless otherwise mentioned.

(Table I). Based on these data set, a model for predicting the risk of developing severe anemia was constructed by data mining analysis using the IBM-SPSS Modeler 13 as described previously [Kurosaki et al., 2010, 2011a,b,c; Hiramatsu et al., 2011]. Briefly, the software was used to explore the database automatically to search for optimal predictors that discriminated most efficiently patients with severe anemia from those without. The software also determined the optimal cutoff values of each predictor. Patients were divided into two groups according to the predictor and each of the two groups was repeatedly divided in the same way until no significant factor remained or 20 or fewer patients were in a group.

The incidence of severe anemia, the total dose of RBV, and treatment outcome were compared between groups with high and low risks of anemia. On univariate analysis, Student's t-test was used for continuous variables, and Fisher's exact test was used for categorical data. Logistic regression was used for multivariate analysis. P values of <0.05 were considered significant. SPSS Statistics 18 was used for these analyses.

RESULTS

Predictive Model of Severe Anemia

The incidence of severe anemia in the whole cohort was 49% (Fig. 1). The best predictor of severe anemia was the baseline Hb concentration. Patients with a low baseline Hb concentration (<14 g/dl) were more likely to develop severe anemia (67%) than those with a higher Hb (>14 g/dl) (34%). The second best predictor for those patients with a baseline Hb <14.0 g/dl was CLcr. Patients with a CLcr below 90 ml/min had the highest incidence of severe anemia (76%). In those with a CLcr above >90 ml/min the incidence of severe anemia was 57% in patients with the CC allele of the *ITPA* gene while it was 37% in patients with the CA or AA allele. On the other hand, the second best predictor for those patients with a baseline Hb concentration above 14 g/dl was the *ITPA* genotype. Patients with the AA or AC allele had the lowest incidence of anemia (17%). For those with the *ITPA* CC allele, CLcr was the third best predictor; the optimal cutoff value was 85 ml/min for this group. The incidence of severe anemia was 49% in patients with a CLcr below 85 ml/min while it was 32% in those with a CLcr above 85 ml/min.

Following this analysis, the patients were divided into six groups, with the incidence of severe anemia ranging from 17% to 76%. Three groups with two predictors, having an incidence of anemia >40%, were defined as the high-risk group and the remainder were defined as the low-risk group. The incidence of severe anemia was higher in the high-risk group than the low-risk group (65% vs. 28%, $P = 0.029$) (Fig. 2). Comparison of the *ITPA* genotype and the predictive model showed that the sensitivity for the prediction of severe anemia was similar (75.9% vs. 76.4%) but the specificity of the predictive model was greater (33.6% vs. 59.3%).

The Risk of Anemia Impacts on Sustained Virological Responses by Patients Who Achieved an Early Virological Response

The impact of *IL28B* genotype, *ITPA* genotype, and risk group of anemia on the rate of sustained virological response was studied at baseline and week 12. At baseline, patients with the TT allele of the *IL28B* gene had a significantly higher rate of sustained virological response than those with the TG or GG allele (43% vs. 10%, $P < 0.0001$), the high-risk group for anemia had a significantly lower rate of sustained virological response than the low-risk group (28% vs. 40%, $P = 0.011$), and the *ITPA* genotype was not associated with a sustained virological response (Fig. 3A–C). At week 4, patients with rapid virological response had a high rate of sustained virological response, irrespective of the *IL28B* genotype (TT vs. TG/GG; 97% vs. 100%, $P = 1.000$), the *ITPA* genotype (CC vs. CA/AA; 95% vs. 100%, $P = 1.000$), and the risk of anemia (high vs. low; 95% vs. 100%, $P = 1.000$). Among the patients who did not achieve a rapid virological response, those with the *IL28B* TT allele had a significantly higher rate of sustained virological response than those with the TG or GG allele (38% vs. 8%, $P < 0.0001$), and the high-risk group for anemia had a significantly lower rate of sustained virological response than the low-risk group (24% vs. 35%, $P = 0.015$). At week 12, in patients who achieved a complete early virological response, the *IL28B* genotype was not associated with a sustained virological response, while the high-risk group for anemia had a

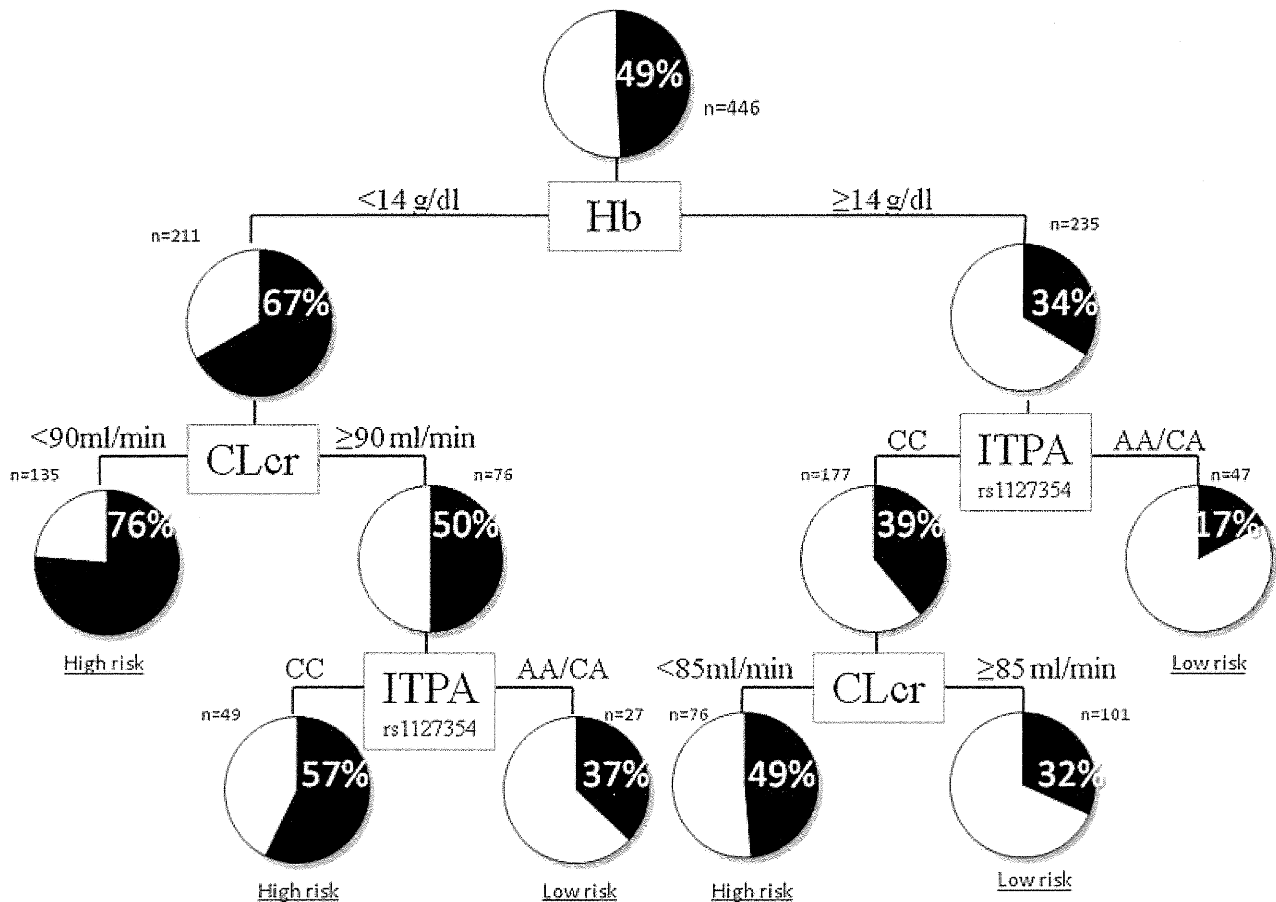

Fig. 1. The predictive model for severe anemia. The boxes indicate the factors used to differentiate patients and the cutoff values for the different groups. The pie charts indicate the rate of severe anemia (Hb <10.0 g/dl) for each group of patients, after differentiation. Terminal groups of patients differentiated by analysis are classified as at high risk if the rate is >40% and low risk if the rate is <40%. *ITPA*, inosine triphosphatase; CLcr, creatinine clearance; Hb, hemoglobin.

significantly lower rate of sustained virological response than the low-risk group (59% vs. 76%, $P = 0.013$) (Fig. 3D–F). In patients who did not achieve a complete early virological response, the *IL28B* genotype was a significant predictor of a sustained virological response (TT vs. TG/GG; 14% vs. 2%, $P < 0.0001$) but a high risk for anemia was not (high vs. low; 10% vs. 6%, $P = 0.361$).

From multivariate analysis (Table II), the *IL28B* genotype was the most important predictor of a sustained virological response at baseline [adjusted odds ratio 9.88 (95% confidence interval 5.01–19.48), $P < 0.0001$], along with female sex [0.42 (0.26–0.68), $P < 0.0001$], platelet count [1.09 (1.04–1.15), $P < 0.0001$], advanced fibrosis [0.49 (0.27–0.91), $P = 0.024$], and baseline HCV RNA load [4.14 (2.27–7.55), $P < 0.0001$]. At week 4, in patients without a rapid virological response, the *IL28B* genotype remained the most important predictor of a sustained virological response [7.16 (3.60–14.25), $P < 0.0001$], along with female sex and platelet count. At week 12, in patients with a complete early virological response, the risk of anemia was an independent and significant predictor of a sustained virological response [0.47 (0.24–0.91), $P = 0.026$], together with the platelet count and HCV RNA load, but the *IL28B* genotype was not associated with a sustained virological response. In patients without a complete early virological response, the *IL28B* genotype was a predictor of a sustained virological response [9.13 (2.02–41.3), $P = 0.004$] along with the platelet count. Thus, *IL28B* was a significant predictor of a sustained virological response at baseline and among virological non-responders at weeks 4 and 12. On the other hand, once a complete early virological response was achieved, the *IL28B* genotype was no longer associated with a sustained virological response but the risk of anemia was an independent predictor of a sustained virological response.

The Risk of Anemia, RBV Dose, and Treatment Outcome in Patients With a Complete Early Virological Response

Patients who achieved a complete early virological response were stratified according to adherence to

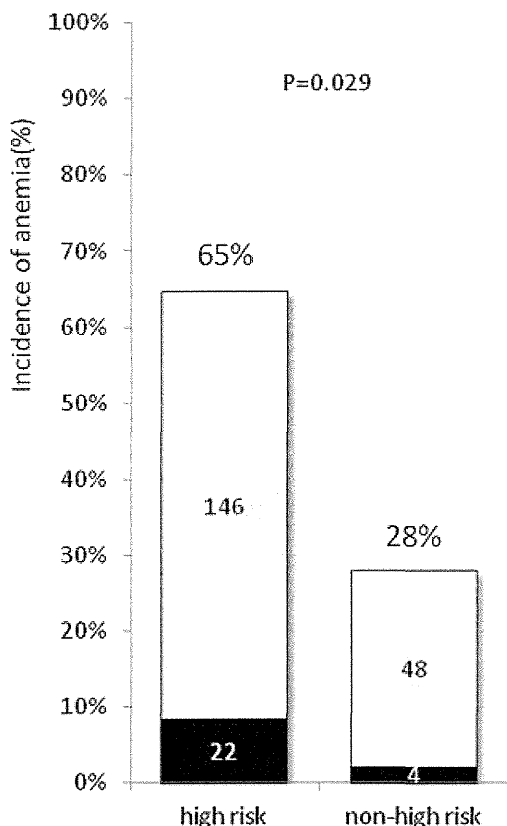

Fig. 2. The incidence of severe anemia stratified by risk of anemia. The incidence of anemia during therapy is shown for each group of patients at high and low risk of anemia. The black and white bars represent the percentages of patients with Hb concentrations below 8.5 g/dl and above 10 g/dl, respectively.

RBV (≤40%, 41–60%, 61–80%, and >80%), which showed that patients with a high risk of anemia were predominantly in subgroups with a lower adherence to RBV (≤40%, 41–60%, and 61–80%), whereas patients with a low risk of anemia were predominantly in subgroups with a higher adherence to RBV (>80%) (Fig. 4, upper panel). The percentage of patients who received >80% of the planned dose of RBV was significantly higher in the low-risk group for anemia than in the high-risk group (74% vs. 55%, $P < 0.0001$).

Within the groups with high and low risks of anemia, there was a stepwise increase in the rate of sustained virological response according to the increase in adherence to RBV (Fig. 4, lower panel). The rate of sustained virological response was higher in patients who received >80% of the planned dose of RBV than those who received less, for both high-risk patients (71% vs. 47%, $P = 0.016$) and low-risk patients (81% vs. 60%, $P = 0.072$). Within the same subgroup of RBV adherence, however, the rate of sustained virological response did not differ between patients with a high risk and a low risk of anemia. Taken together, these results suggest that patients with a high risk of anemia have a disadvantage because they are likely to be intolerant to RBV, leading to reduced adherence to RBV throughout the 48 weeks of therapy and a reduced rate of sustained virological response. However, if >80% adherence to RBV could be obtained, the rate of sustained virological response would increase by 24%.

DISCUSSION

This study confirmed previous reports that the *IL28B* genotype is the most significant predictor of a sustained virological response to PEG-IFN plus RBV therapy in chronic hepatitis C patients at baseline [Ge et al., 2009; Suppiah et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2009; Rauch et al., 2010; Kurosaki et al., 2011c] and at week 4 [Thompson et al., 2010b], but it had no impact on the rate of sustained virological response among those patients who achieved a complete early virological response [Thompson et al., 2010b; Kurosaki et al., 2011c]. In contrast, the risk of anemia, assessed by the combination of the *ITPA* genotype, baseline Hb concentration, and baseline CLcr, was found to be associated with a sustained virological response in patients who achieved a complete early virological response. Generally, a complete early virological response is the hallmark of a high probability of a sustained virological response, but the rate of sustained virological responses in patients who achieved a complete early virological response and had a high risk of anemia was as low as 59%. This reduced rate of sustained virological response in these patients was attributable to poor adherence to RBV throughout the 48 weeks of therapy. Because administration of >80% of the planned RBV dose increased the rate of sustained virological response by 24%, it may be postulated that personalizing the treatment schedule to achieve a sufficient dose of RBV, such as extension of treatment duration, may improve sustained virological response rates in these patients. Clearly, this postulate needs to be confirmed in future study. Thus, the findings presented here may have the potential to support selection of the optimum, personalized treatment strategy for an individual patient, based on the risk of anemia.

The degree of hemolytic anemia caused by RBV varies among individuals. A reduction of the Hb concentration early during therapy predicts the likely development of severe anemia [Hiramatsu et al., 2008, 2011] but there are no reliable predictors at baseline. A breakthrough came from the results of a genome-wide association study that revealed that variants of the *ITPA* gene are protective against hemolytic anemia [Fellay et al., 2010]. The *ITPA* genotype has been shown repeatedly to be associated with the degree of hemolytic anemia and dose reduction of RBV [Fellay et al., 2010; Sakamoto et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2010a; Seto et al., 2011; Tanaka et al., 2011; Kurosaki et al., 2011d]. However, factors other than the *ITPA* gene, such as baseline Hb concentrations [Ochi et al., 2010; Kurosaki et al., 2011d], platelet counts [Ochi

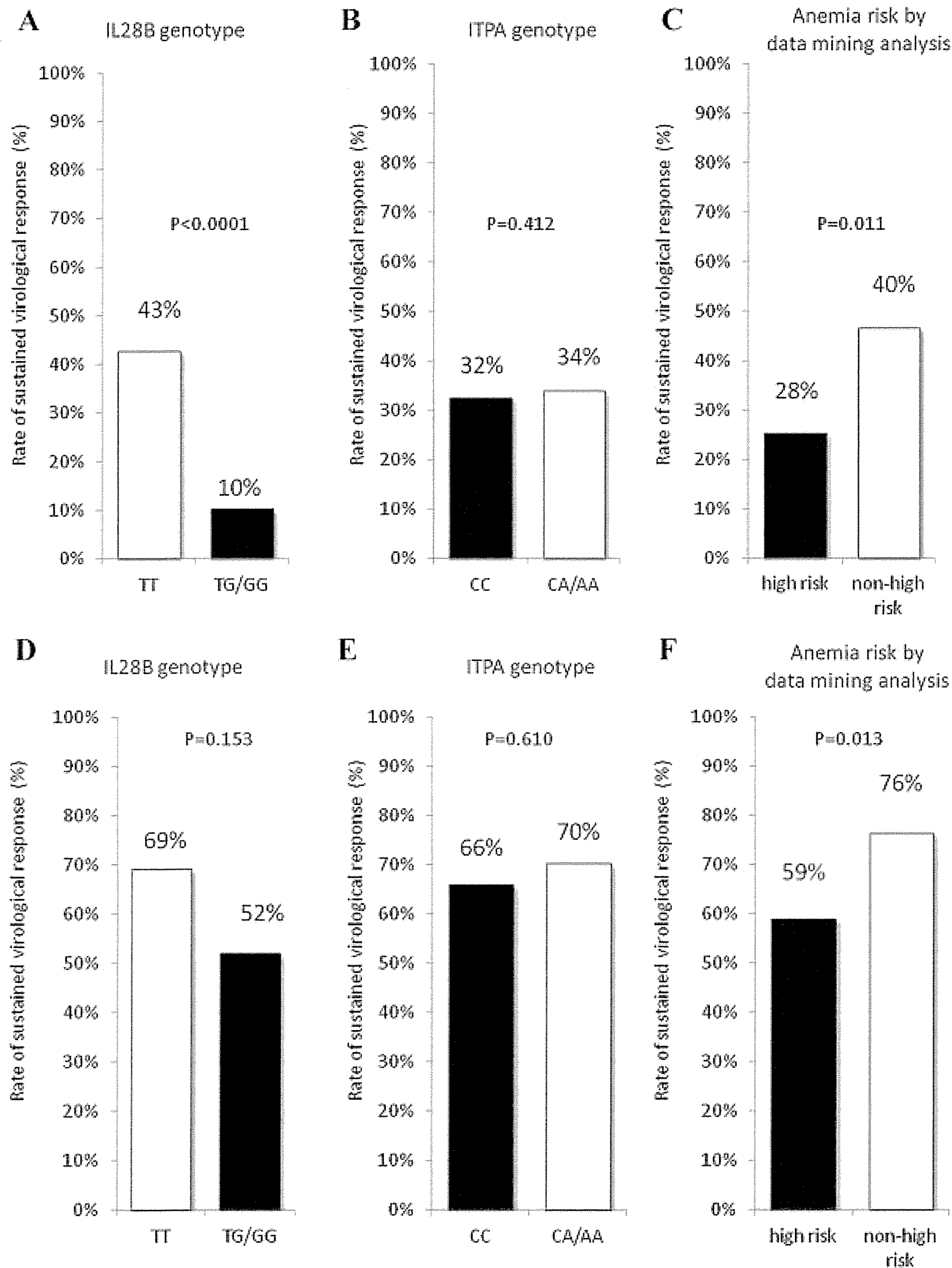

Fig. 3. Rates of sustained virological responses at baseline and among those with a virological response at week 12. The impacts of *IL28B* genotype, *ITPA* genotype, and risk group of anemia on the rate of sustained virological response were studied at baseline (**A–C**) and among those with complete early virological responses (defined as undetectable HCV RNA at week 12) (**D–F**). At baseline, those with the TT allele of the *IL28B* gene had a significantly higher rate of sustained virological response than those with the TG or GG allele and the group at high-risk of anemia had a significantly lower rate of sustained virological response than the low-risk group. Among patients with complete early virological responses, the *IL28B* genotype was not associated with a sustained virological response, while the group at high-risk of anemia had a significantly lower rate of sustained virological response than the low-risk group.

et al., 2010], and CLcr [Kurosaki et al., 2011d], also contribute to the risk of severe anemia or RBV dose reduction. In the present study, the predictive model of anemia based on the data mining analysis selected the *ITPA* genotype, baseline Hb concentration, and baseline CLcr as predictive factors and identified six subgroups of patients with a variable rate of severe anemia, ranging from 17% to 76%. The specificity of the prediction of severe anemia was improved by 25.7% in the predictive model, compared to *ITPA*

TABLE II. Logistic Regression Analysis for Factors Associated With Sustained Virological Response at Baseline, Week 4 and Week 12

	Multi-variable		
	Odds	95% CI	*P*-value
Pre-treatment			
Sex: female	0.42	0.26–0.68	<0.0001
Platelet (10^9/L)	1.09	1.04–1.15	<0.0001
Fibrosis: F3-4	0.49	0.27–0.91	0.024
HCV RNA: <600,000 IU/L	4.14	2.27–7.55	<0.0001
IL28B rs8099917: TT	9.88	5.01–19.48	<0.0001
At week 4			
Non-RVR patients			
Sex: female	0.45	0.28–0.72	0.001
Platelet (10^9/L)	1.10	1.05–1.16	0.000
IL28B rs8099917: TT	7.16	3.60–14.25	<0.0001
At week 12			
cEVR patients			
Platelet (10^9/L)	1.09	1.02–1.17	0.015
HCV RNA: <600,000 IU/L	3.21	1.39–7.55	0.007
High-risk of anemia[a]	0.47	0.24–0.91	0.026
At week 12			
Non-cEVR patients			
Platelet (10^9/L)	1.11	1.02–1.21	0.017
IL28B rs8099917: TT	9.13	2.02–41.3	0.004

RVR: rapid virological response, defined as undetectable HCV RNA at week 4.
cEVR: complete early virological response, defined as undetectable HCV RNA at week 12.
[a]High-risk of anemia defined by decision tree analysis includes the following groups: (1) baseline hemoglobin <14.0 g/dl and creatinine clearance <90 ml/min, (2) baseline hemoglobin <14.0 g/dl, creatinine clearance ≥90 ml/min and ITPA rs1127354 genotype CC, and (3) baseline hemoglobin ≥14.0 g/dl, ITPA rs1127354 genotype CC, and creatinine clearance <85 ml/min.

genotyping alone. Because hemolytic anemia induced by RBV is one of the major adverse events leading to premature termination of therapy [Fried et al., 2002], a method to predict the risk of severe anemia before treatment is important clinically. A predictive model of anemia may have the potential to support individualized treatment strategies; patients at high risk of anemia may be tested intensively for anemia or may be candidates for erythropoietin therapy, whereas those with a low risk of anemia may be treated with a higher dose of RBV. Prediction of anemia will remain important in the era of direct antiviral agents for chronic hepatitis C, because these newer therapies still require RBV and PEG-IFN in combination, and the degree of anemia complicating these therapies may be even greater than with the current combination therapy [McHutchison et al., 2009; Kwo et al., 2010].

Studies of the impact of the *ITPA* genotype on treatment outcome have produced conflicting results. Previous studies of American [Thompson et al., 2010a] and Italian [Thompson et al., 2011] cohorts did not find any association between the *ITPA* genotype and treatment outcome, whereas a marginal difference was observed in a report from Japan [Ochi et al., 2010]. Moreover, with a subgroup analysis of Japanese patients, the variant of the *ITPA* gene was associated with a sustained virological response in patients with the *IL28B* major genotype [Kurosaki et al., 2011d], in patients infected with HCV other than genotype 1[Sakamoto et al., 2010], and in patients with pre-treatment Hb concentrations between 13.5 and 15 g/dl [Azakami et al., 2011]. These inconsistent results may be because the impact of anemia may be greater on a cohort of aged patients, such as in Japan. Another reason may be that the *ITPA* genotype is not the sole determinant of anemia; the *ITPA* genotype alone was not associated with treatment outcome in the present study but a high-risk of anemia, defined by the combination of the *ITPA* genotype, baseline Hb concentration, and baseline CLcr, was associated with sustained virological responses by patients with complete early virological responses, even after adjustment for the *IL28B* genotype and other relevant factors. This is in contrast to the finding that the *IL28B* genotype is an independent and significant predictor at baseline of a sustained virological response by patients without a rapid virological response and those without a complete early virological response, but not those with a complete early virological response. These results indicate that the *IL28B* genotype could be used to predict a sustained virological response at baseline or during therapy in patients in whom HCV RNA has not yet become undetectable, but it has no predictive value in patients in whom HCV RNA has become undetectable. The risk of anemia may be used to predict sustained virological responses in a selected subgroup of patients who achieve a complete early virological response.

Patients who received more than 80% of the planned dose of PEG-IFN or RBV had a higher rate of sustained virological responses than those who received a lower cumulative dose [McHutchison et al., 2002; Davis et al., 2003]. Patients who achieve a complete early virological response usually have a good chance of a sustained virological response and the treatment duration is not extended beyond 48 weeks. However, reduced adherence to drugs in these patients was related to relapse after the completion of 48 weeks of therapy [Hiramatsu et al., 2009; Kurosaki et al., 2012]. In the present study, the rate of sustained virological response was 59% in patients who achieved a complete early virological response but had a high risk of anemia, 17% lower than in patients with a low risk of anemia. However, there was a stepwise increase in the rate of sustained virological response according to the increase in adherence to RBV, and the rate of sustained virological response was higher in high-risk patients who received >80% of the planned dose of RBV (71% vs. 47%). This 24% increase in sustained virological response was observed among the patients in the present study who received 48 weeks of treatment. These findings suggest that receiving a sufficient RBV dose is essential for patients with a complete early virological response to attain a sustained virological response and that the treatment strategy should be personalized for patients with a

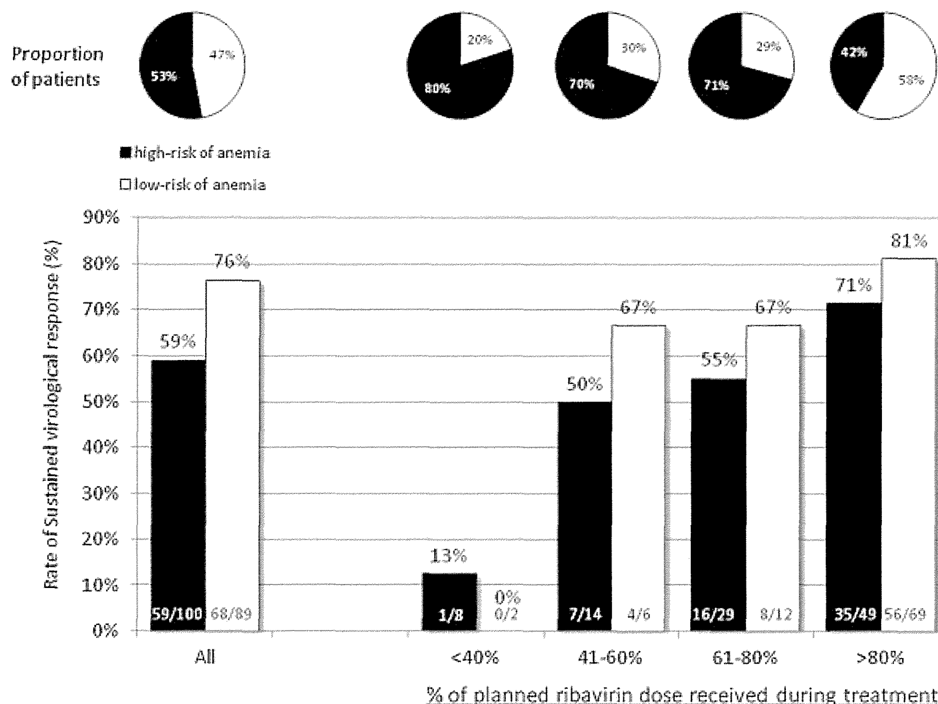

Fig. 4. The impact of risk of anemia and RBV dose on treatment outcome after a complete early virological response. Patients with complete early virological responses were divided into subgroups according to their adherence to RBV: ≤40%, 41–60%, 61–80%, and >80%. For each subgroup, the proportion of patients with a high risk and a low risk of anemia is shown in the upper panel by pie charts, and the rates of sustained virological responses, stratified by high risk and low risk of anemia, are shown in the lower panel by bar graphs. The black and white bars or charts represent patients with high and low risks of anemia, respectively.

high risk of anemia to extend the duration of treatment, even those patients with a complete early virological response, to obtain >80% adherence to RBV.

In conclusion, the combination of the *ITPA* genotype, baseline Hb concentration, and baseline CLcr could be used as a pre-treatment predictor of anemia. The risk of anemia thus identified is associated with adherence to RBV and impacts on the treatment outcome of patients who achieve a complete early virological response. This is in contrast to the major role of the *IL28B* genotype in the prediction of sustained virological responses at baseline and among non-responders at weeks 4 and 12. Patients who achieve a complete early virological response generally have a high probability of a sustained virological response but those who have a high risk of anemia have a high rate of relapse because of reduced adherence to RBV. To improve the rate of sustained virological responses in these patients, it may be postulated that the treatment schedule may be personalized to obtain >80% adherence to RBV. Clearly, this postulate needs to be confirmed in a future study.

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Hepatology Research

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Original Article

Serum RANTES level influences the response to pegylated interferon and ribavirin therapy in chronic hepatitis C

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Aim: Prediction of treatment responses to pegylated interferon (PEG IFN) plus ribavirin (RBV) therapy is uncertain for genotype 1b chronic hepatitis C.

Methods: In this study, 96 patients were investigated for the correlation between 36 pretreatment serum chemokine/cytokine levels and PEG IFN/RBV treatment efficacy by a sandwich enzyme-linked immunoassay (ELISA) and a bead array.

Results: First, chemokines/cytokines were measured semi-quantitatively by sandwich ELISA in 31 randomly-selected patients and the serum regulated on activation normal T-cell expressed and secreted (RANTES) level was found to be significantly higher in the sustained virological response (SVR) group than the non-SVR group ($P = 0.048$). Precise RANTES measurement in all 96 patients using a bead array confirmed this correlation ($P = 0.002$). However, the genetic RANTES haplotype was not significantly related to the serum level. The serum RANTES level was extracted by multivariate analysis (odds ratio = 4.09, 95% confidence interval = 1.02–16.5, $P = 0.048$) as an independent variable contributing to SVR.

Conclusion: The serum RANTES level is an important determinant influencing the virological response to PEG IFN/RBV therapy in chronic hepatitis C.

Key words: hepatitis C virus, pegylated interferon plus ribavirin therapy, RANTES

INTRODUCTION

HEPATITIS C VIRUS (HCV) is a major cause of chronic liver disease worldwide and persistent infection may lead to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.[1] Therapy leading to HCV eradication is the only treatment with proven efficacy in decreasing the occurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma.[2] Recently, treatment with telaprevir, a non-structural (NS)3/4A protease inhibitor, combined with pegylated interferon (PEG IFN) and ribavirin (RBV), increased the rates of sustained viral response (SVR) up to 64–75%[3,4] compared to the SVR rate of approximately 50% for the previous PEG IFN/RBV therapy. However, it has become evident that genotype 1-infected patients with a null response to previous PEG IFN/RBV therapy have poor responses to PEG IFN/RBV/telaprevir,[5] with an SVR rate as low as approximately 30%, illustrating the difficulty in treating patients infected with genotype 1 HCV. Therefore, precise and accurate prediction of the viral response to PEG IFN/RBV therapy remains an important issue.

Treatment resistance is attributed to various factors associated with the virus and host. Viral factors, such as amino acid (a.a.) sequence variation in the core and NS5A regions, have been investigated extensively for their contribution to the outcome of IFN-based therapy,[6,7] including PEG IFN/RBV therapy. On the other hand, host factors such as African-American race, older age, being obese, the presence of cirrhosis and

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steatosis, and insulin resistance have been reported to be associated with treatment resistance.[8-11] Especially, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) near the interleukin (*IL*)-28B gene, including rs12979860 and rs8099917, have been reported to have a significant correlation with the response to IFN-based therapy.[12,13] However, even with inclusion of these factors, prediction of the treatment response in chronic HCV infection remains uncertain at present.

Chemokines are a group of small, exogenously secreted cytokines that modulate the migration of leukocytes to sites of tissue damage and inflammation in a variety of infectious and autoimmune diseases.[14] In chronic HCV infection, chemokines such as *RANTES* (regulated on activation normal T-cell expressed and secreted), macrophage inflammatory protein (*MIP*)-1α, *MIP-1β* and interferon-γ inducible protein 10 kDa (*IP-10*) are elevated and considered to play crucial roles in inflammatory processes and viral elimination, as well as the transition from innate to adaptive immunity.[14,15] Upregulation of several serum chemokines, such as eotaxin, *IP-10* and *RANTES* also has been reported in HCV infection, possibly reflecting hepatic inflammation.[16] Considering the roles of chemokines/cytokines in establishing chronic hepatitis, it is possible that these chemokines also affect the response to antiviral therapy, and actually several chemokines as interleukin (*IL*)-8, *IL-10*, *MIP-1β*, *RANTES* or *IP-10* have been investigated previously for their association with the treatment response.[16-20] However, the importance of those chemokines has not been established yet and, moreover, these studies did not characterize in detail these chemokines in association with other factors, including *IL-28B* influencing the response to therapy.

In this study, we explored extensively the association of 36 serum cytokines/chemokines and the treatment response, with detailed information of host and virus, to predict better the treatment response to PEG IFN and RBV therapy in genotype 1b HCV infection. Because the pretreatment serum *RANTES* level was found to be correlated significantly with the response, we analyzed further the association between the serum level of *RANTES* and the genomic SNP.

METHODS

Patients

NINETY-SIX CONSECUTIVE PATIENTS with genotype 1b HCV and receiving PEG IFN/RBV therapy between 2004 and 2010 at Yamanashi University Hospital were recruited retrospectively into the study. All patients received the standard therapy according to the treatment protocol of PEG IFN/RBV therapy for Japanese patients, established by a hepatitis study group of the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Japan (PEG IFN-α-2b 1.5 μg/kg bodyweight, once weekly s.c., and RBV 600–800 mg daily p.o. for 48 weeks).[21] All patients enrolled fulfilled the following criteria: (i) negative for hepatitis B surface antigen; (ii) no other forms of hepatitis, such as primary biliary cirrhosis, autoimmune liver disease or alcoholic liver disease; (iii) not co-infected with HIV; and (iv) a signed consent was obtained for the study protocol that had been approved by the Human Ethics Review Committee of Yamanashi University Hospital. The study was approved by the ethics committees of University of Yamanashi, and the study protocol conformed to the ethical guidelines of the 2008 Declaration of Helsinki.

Definition of treatment outcome

An SVR was defined as undetectable serum HCV RNA at 24 weeks after the end of treatment. Relapse was defined as reappearance of detectable HCV RNA levels following discontinuation of treatment. Null response was defined as less than 2 log decrease of the baseline HCV RNA levels after 12 weeks of treatment. Based on this definition, when patients were classified according to the achievement of SVR, patients with relapse or null response were classified as non-SVR.

Serum cytokine measurement

Sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

Blood samples were collected before initiation of treatment and were stored at −80 °C until use. Semiquantitation of serum cytokines was performed using the Proteome Profiler Human Cytokine Array Kit Panel A (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The kit consists of a nitrocellulose membrane containing 36 different anticytokine antibodies (anti-C5a, anti-CD154, anti-G-CSF, anti-GM-CSF, anti-CXCL1, anti-CCL1, anti-sICAM-1, anti-IFN-γ, anti-IL-1α, anti-IL-1β, anti-IL-1ra, anti-IL-2, anti-IL-4, anti-IL-5, anti-IL-6, anti-IL-8, anti-IL-10, anti-IL-12p70, anti-IL-13, anti-IL-16, anti-IL-17, anti-IL-17E, anti-IL-23, anti-IL-27, anti-IL-32α, anti-IP-10, anti-CXCL11, anti-CCL2, anti-MIF, anti-CCL3, anti-CCL4, anti-PAI-1, anti-RANTES, anti-CXCL12, anti-TNF-α, anti-sTREM-1), spotted in duplicate. Serum samples were diluted and mixed with a cocktail of biotinylated detection antibodies. The sample/antibody mixture

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was then incubated with the membrane. Any cytokine/detection antibody complex present was bound to the membrane by its cognate immobilized capture antibody. Following washing to remove unbound material, streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase and chemiluminescent detection reagents (ECL Western Blotting Analysis System; GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) were added sequentially. Arrays were scanned using a LAS-3000 mini-luminescent image analyzer (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan) and were quantified for the densities using Multi Gauge ver. 3.0 software (Fujifilm). Concentrations of cytokines and chemokines were expressed as their signal intensity ratios relative to that of the positive control spotted on the same membrane.

Bead array

Precise serum concentrations of regulated on *RANTES* were measured using the Luminex Bio-Plex system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and the Procarta Cytokine Assay Kit (Panomics, Fremont, CA, USA) in a 96-well plate ELISA-based format according to the manufacturers' recommendations. The sensitivity of the assays is greater than 10 pg/mL cytokine. Serum and standards were incubated with a mixture of the Luminex antibody-conjugated beads for 30 min with constant shaking. After washing, the detection antibodies and substrates were added and incubated for another 30 min. Fluorescent signals were collected and data expressed, using internal standards, in pg/mL as the mean of two individual experiments carried out in duplicate.

Viral core and interferon sensitivity-determining region (ISDR) sequence determination by direct sequencing

Hepatitis C virus RNA extraction from serum samples, complementary DNA synthesis and amplification by two-step nested polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were carried out using specific primers for the HCV core and ISDR. PCR amplicons were sequenced directly by Big Dye Terminator ver. 3.1 (ABI, Tokyo, Japan) with universal M13 forward and reverse primers using an ABI prism 3130 sequencer (ABI). The sequence files generated were assembled using Vector NTI software (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan) and base-calling errors were corrected following inspection of the chromatogram.

SNP typing of the *RANTES* and *IL-28B* genes

Genomic DNA of the patients was extracted from peripheral blood using a blood DNA extraction kit (QIAGEN, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The allele typing of each DNA sample was performed by real-time PCR with a model 7500 (ABI) using FAM-labeled SNP primers for the loci rs2107538, rs2280788, rs2280789, rs4796120 and rs3817655 (ABI) for *RANTES* and the locus rs8099917 (ABI) for IL-28B.

Statistical analysis

Student's *t*-test and Mann–Whitney *U*-test were used to analyze continuous variables, as appropriate. Fisher's exact test was used for the analysis of categorical variables. Receiver–operator curve (ROC) analyses were performed to establish cut-off values for serum cytokine concentration. The optimum cut-off was defined as the value that maximized the area under the ROC. Spearman's correlation coefficient (R) was calculated to clarify the strength of relationship between the pretreatment serum cytokine concentrations and clinical parameters. Variables that achieved statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) in univariate analysis were entered into multiple logistic regression analysis to identify significant independent factors. The odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals also were calculated. Data were analyzed using Ekuseru-Toukei 2008 (SSRI, Tokyo, Japan). The haplotype block among rs2107538, rs2280788, rs2280789, rs4796120 and rs3817655 variants was analyzed using SNPAlyze software ver. 8.0 (Dynacom, Chiba, Japan). $P < 0.05$ was considered significant.

RESULTS

Semiquantitative measurement of pretreatment serum cytokines in 31 randomly-selected patients

AT FIRST, TO identify cytokines/chemokines related to the treatment responses to PEG IFN/RBV therapy, semiquantitative measurement of the serum concentrations of 36 comprehensive cytokines/chemokines was performed by sandwich ELISA method by randomly selected patients. Next, to further confirm the result, cytokines showing the associations with the response were measured more precisely by bead array method in all patients.

In the first analysis, 31 patients were randomly selected from the 96 patients. The clinical characteristics of these 31 patients at the start of the therapy are shown in Table 1. Significant differences in the clinical backgrounds between those who did and those who did not

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Table 1 Baseline characteristics of the 31 patients analyzed using the sandwich ELISA method

Factor	SVR ($n = 20$)	Non-SVR ($n = 11$)	P-value
Age (years)	52 ± 11†	57 ± 10	0.25‡
Sex (male : female)	11:9	6:5	0.64§
Bodyweight (kg)	60.9 ± 9.6†	61.9 ± 13.9	0.81‡
Body mass index (kg/m²)	22.6 (18.9–31.3)¶	22.7 (17.5–26.8)	0.87††
History of IFN therapy (%)	30	36	0.78§
ALT (IU/L)	130 ± 100†	75 ± 35	0.09‡
AST (IU/L)	76 (22–331)¶	64 (24–178)	0.73††
γ-GTP (IU/L)	40 (12–289)	52 (24–137)	0.17††
Albumin (g/dL)	4.1 (3.7–4.5)	4.0 (3.0–4.7)	0.46††
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	170 ± 24†	149 ± 33	0.06‡
HbA1c (%)	5.3 ± 0.5	5.3 ± 0.6	0.95‡
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.71 ± 0.15	0.68 ± 0.15	0.54‡
WBC count (/μL)	4561 ± 1631	4056 ± 1277	0.38‡
Neutrophil count (/μL)	2130 (820–4200)¶	1500 (800–2700)	0.02††
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.5 ± 1.0†	13.8 ± 1.6	0.15‡
Platelet count (×10⁻⁴/μL)	16.4 ± 5.4	12.2 ± 3.9	0.03‡
α-Fetoprotein (ng/mL)	4.6 (1.4–28.9)¶	22.3 (11.4–79.7)	0.00005††
HCV RNA (KIU/mL)	1520 ± 1079†	2146 ± 899	0.11‡
Fibrosis (F1/F2/F3/F4)‡‡	14/1/1/2	3/2/2/3	0.02††
Activity (A1/A2/A3)‡‡	12/5/1	3/5/2	0.06††

†Mean ± standard deviation.
‡Student's t-test.
§Fisher's exact probability test.
¶Median (range).
††Mann–Whitney U-test.
‡‡SVR, $n = 18$; non-SVR, $n = 10$.
Activity, the score of activity in liver biopsies; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunoassay; fibrosis, the score of fibrosis in liver biopsies; HbA1c, hemoglobin A1c; HCV, hepatitis C virus; SVR, sustained virological response; WBC, white blood cell; γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase.

achieve SVR were neutrophil counts, platelet counts, serum α-fetoprotein levels and the score of fibrosis in liver biopsies. Table 2 shows the difference in the cytokine/chemokine expression between the SVR and the non-SVR group. Because some cytokines/chemokines were below the measurement limit of the ELISA kit, as shown in Table 1, those cytokine/chemokines were not studied further. As shown here, the *RANTES* level was significantly higher in the SVR group than the non-SVR group ($P = 0.048$).

Precise measurement of serum *RANTES* in all 96 patients

Because the semiquantitative measurement of pretreatment serum *RANTES* levels in 31 randomly selected patients demonstrated their significant correlation with the SVR, we determined the precise serum RANTES levels in all 96 patients using the bead array method and investigated the correlation between those concentrations and the treatment outcome. The clinical characteristics of the 96 patients are shown in Table 3. Significant differences were seen between those with and without SVR in platelet count, viral loads and the liver fibrosis score, but there was no apparent difference in the total doses of PEG IFN and RBV. As shown in Figure 1, the distribution of serum *RANTES* levels in each treatment response differed significantly; the median serum *RANTES* level in the SVR group was significantly higher than that in the non-SVR group. Successive ROC analysis confirmed a significant association of the serum *RANTES* level with SVR, and the cut-off value of 3400 pg/mL to be most appropriate (Table 4). Using the cut-off value of 3400 pg/mL, 50.9% sensitivity, 79.5% specificity, 78.4% positive predictive value and 52.5% negative predictive value (area under the ROC, 0.643) were obtained for the prediction of SVR by serum *RANTES* level.

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Table 2 Difference in cytokine and chemokine expression between the SVR group and the non-SVR group in the 31 patients

Cytokine/chemokine	SVR ($n = 20$)	Non-SVR ($n = 11$)	*P*-value
RANTES	4.99 (0.25–8.32)†	1.24 (0.17–8.01)	0.048‡
MIF	1.31 (0.06–3.31)†	0.45 (0.08–2.67)	0.0630
IL-1ra	0.09 (0.00–3.30)†	0.07 (0.00–2.05)	0.2300
PAI-1	3.10 (0.35–7.34)†	2.73 (0.46–8.42)	0.3900
sICAM-1	3.18 (0.37–8.33)†	2.78 (0.74–10.3)	0.4800
IL-23	0.08 (0.01–0.78)†	0.07 (0.00–0.38)	0.5900
IL-27	0.05 (0.02–0.18)†	0.05 (0.00–0.23)	0.6500
IL-6	0.08 (0.01–3.22)†	0.10 (0.00–1.36)	0.7100
C5a	0.21 (0.01–2.72)†	0.12 (0.00–1.67)	0.7700
IFN-γ	0.07 (0.02–0.31)†	0.08 (0.00–0.40)	0.8000
CCL4	0.04 (0.01–3.08)†	0.05 (0.00–0.69)	0.8400
IL-32α	0.04 (0.00–0.71)†	0.07 (0.00–0.20)	0.9000
IL-8	0.16 (0.05–2.61)†	0.17 (0.03–2.21)	0.9300
IL-1α			N.A.
IL-1β			N.A.
IL-2			N.A.
IL-4			N.A.
IL-5			N.A.
IL-10			N.A.
IL-12 p70			N.A.
IL-13			N.A.
IL-16			N.A.
IL-17			N.A.
IL-17E			N.A.
CCL1			N.A.
CCL2			N.A.
CCL3			N.A.
CXCL1			N.A.
CXCL11			N.A.
CXCL12			N.A.
CD154			N.A.
G-CSF			N.A.
GM-CSF			N.A.
IP-10			N.A.
TNF-α			N.A.
sTREM-1			N.A.

†Median (range).
‡Mann–Whitney *U*-test.
N.A., not available; SVR, sustained virological response.

Correlation between serum *RANTES* level and clinical parameters

Spearman's correlation coefficients between the pre-treatment serum *RANTES* level and clinical parameters in all 96 patients are shown in Table 5. As a result, a significant negative correlation with aspartate aminotransferase level and a significant positive correlation with platelet count were found, while no significant correlation was observed in other clinical parameters.

Univariate and multivariate analysis of factors related to SVR

Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed successively in order to clarify the factors related to SVR. The viral factors included in the analysis were the ISDR and core a.a. 70 and 91, along with the host factor, IL-28B SNP. Those factors, conventional clinical background factors and serum *RANTES* levels were subjected to univariate and multivariate analysis. In the univariate

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Table 3 Baseline characteristics of all patients analyzed using the bead array method ($n = 96$)

Factor	SVR ($n = 57$)	Non SVR ($n = 39$)	*P*-value
Age (years)	53 ± 10†	57 ± 8	0.08‡
Sex (male : female)	34:23	23:16	0.56§
Bodyweight (kg)	60.6 ± 10.5†	57.8 ± 7.8	0.17‡
Body- mass index (kg/m^2)	22.9 ± 2.8	22.1 ± 2.2	0.15‡
History of IFN therapy (%)	25	28	0.74§
ALT (IU/L)	68 (19–413)¶	64 (20–215)	0.25††
AST (IU/L)	58 (21–331)	62 (21–178)	0.80††
γ-GTP (IU/L)	37 (11–289)	50 (13–167)	0.12††
Albumin (g/dL)	4.1 ± 0.3†	4.1 ± 0.4	0.93‡
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	166 ± 30	158 ± 31	0.25‡
HbA1c (%)	5.2 (4.7–6.6)¶	5.3 (4.5–7.4)	0.47††
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.72 ± 0.15†	0.69 ± 0.16	0.39††
WBC count (/µL)	4497 ± 1247	4501 ± 1281	0.99‡
Neutrophil count (/µL)	2243 ± 857	2144 ± 825	0.57‡
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.1 ± 1.2	14.2 ± 1.2	0.87‡
Platelet count (×10^{-4}/µL)	15.1 (7–29)¶	13.2 (6.9–19.7)	0.03††
α-Fetoprotein (ng/mL)	4.8 (1.3–137.1)	9.0 (1.4–79.7)	0.05††
HCV RNA (KIU/mL)	1300 (100–5000)	2400 (620–5000)	0.0002‡
Fibrosis (F1/F2/F3/F4)‡‡	35/6/5/6	11/13/5/6	0.006††
Activity (A1/A2/A3)‡‡	27/18/7	12/20/3	0.26††
PEG IFN dose (%)	92 (40–113)¶	73 (27–147)	0.23††
RBV dose (%)	97 (44–147)	100 (33–135)	0.38††

†Mean ± standard deviation.
‡Student's *t*-test.
§Fisher's exact probability test.
¶Median (range).
††Mann–Whitney's *U*-test.
‡‡SVR, $n = 52$; non-SVR, $n = 35$.
Activity, the score of activity in liver biopsies; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; fibrosis, the score of fibrosis in liver biopsies; HbA1c, hemoglobin A1c; HCV, hepatitis C virus; PEG IFN, pegylated interferon; RBV, ribavirin; SVR, sustained virological response; WBC, white blood cell; γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase.

analysis, significant differences were observed for the ISDR mutation, core a.a. 70, viral loads, platelet counts, IL-28B SNP and serum *RANTES* levels. When multivariate analysis was carried out with these factors, the serum RANTES level was extracted as an independent factor related to SVR (Table 6).

RANTES haplotyping and serum *RANTES* level

Because a high serum *RANTES* level was an independent factor predicting SVR, we sought to examine further the role of the RANTES gene and tried to clarify the association of the SNP of the gene with the serum levels. First, we determined how many and which SNP in the *RANTES* gene should be investigated to represent all *RANTES* haplotypes found in the Japanese population. Reference to the HapMap project database (http://snp.cshl.org) made it clear that the information from five unique SNP was required to determine the majority of haplotypes found in the Japanese population. Therefore, to determine the *RANTES* haplotype of each patient, we investigated these five SNP in the 65 of the 96 patients available for the haplotype analysis. The *RANTES* haplotypes were finally divided into three types (named R1, R2 and R3 for convenience), as shown in Figure 2(a). However, the *RANTES* gene haplotype and serum RANTES level did not show any clear correlation (Fig. 2b).

DISCUSSION

FROM THE ANALYSIS of 36 cytokine and chemokine species, we discovered that a high pretreatment serum *RANTES* level was significantly related to SVR

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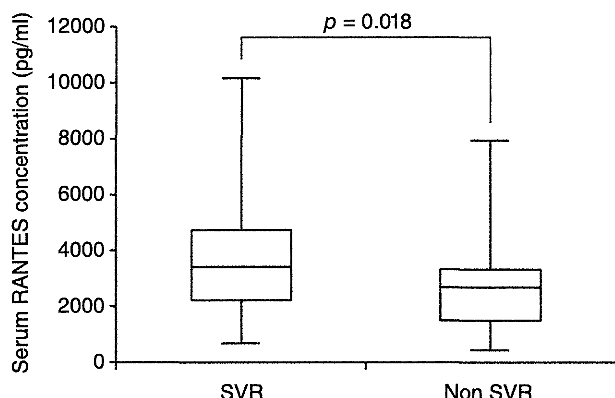

Figure 1 Difference in serum *RANTES* levels between the sustained virological response (SVR) group and the non-SVR group. Ninety-six patients who underwent the standard therapy for 48 weeks were analyzed for serum *RANTES* level using the bead array method. They were divided into the SVR ($n = 57$) and non-SVR groups ($n = 39$) and their serum *RANTES* levels compared. Box and whisker plots show the distributions of serum *RANTES* levels for the SVR and non-SVR groups. The boxes represent the 25th to 75th percentile and horizontal lines within the box show the median values. The ends of the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values of all the data. *P*-values were obtained using Mann–Whitney's *U*-test.

following PEG IFN/RBV combination therapy of patients infected with genotype 1b HCV. In particular, a high serum *RANTES* level was an independent factor contributing to SVR in the multivariate analysis, even among other treatment-restricting factors as the HCV ISDR, core a.a. 70, viral loads, platelets or IL-28B SNP. On the other hand, a systematic haplotyping study did not reveal any correlation between the *RANTES* haplotype and serum *RANTES* level.

RANTES, also known as CC-chemokine ligand (CCL)5, is classified as a chemotactic T-helper (Th)1-type chemokine.[23] In chronic hepatitis C, *RANTES* is significantly upregulated in the infected liver, and considered to play a role in recruiting T cells to portal and periportal regions, regulating liver inflammation and innate and adaptive immunity through interactions with CC-chemokine receptor (*CCR*)5, *CCR1* and *CCR3* expressed on activated T cells.[24] The serum *RANTES* level is significantly upregulated in the early stages of fibrosis in chronic hepatitis and its upregulation becomes weaker in advanced chronic disease.[14] HCV-encoded proteins are considered to affect *RANTES* production, for example, exposure of peripheral blood mononuclear cells to the HCV envelope 2 (E2) protein induces the release of *RANTES*,[25] the HCV NS3/4A proteins suppress *RANTES* promoter activity[26] and the HCV core protein may either induce or inhibit the expression of *RANTES* in various cell types.[27] A recent *in vitro* study has shown that human hepatoma cells secrete *RANTES* via the Toll-like receptor (*TLR*)3-mediated recognition of HCV dsRNA and activation of the nuclear factor (*NF*)-*kB* pathway, suggesting that the hepatocytes themselves may serve as the source of *RANTES*.[15]

In this study, we showed the close association between the serum *RANTES* level and SVR in the PEG IFN/RBV combination therapy by analyzing 31 randomly selected, primary test patients and then all 96 patients. In addition to the association with SVR, we also searched the association between *RANTES* and the initial viral response because SVR could be influenced by the initial viral dynamics, and revealed that complete early viral response (HCV RNA negative at 12 weeks

Table 4 Association between the serum *RANTES* level and SVR rate in all 96 patients analyzed using the bead array method

Cytokine/ chemokine	Serum concentration	SVR rate	*P*-value
RANTES	≥3400 pg/mL†	78% (29/37)	0.002‡
	<3400 pg/mL†	47% (28/59)	

†A cut-off value of 3400 pg/mL was determined by receiver–operator curve analysis in all 96 patients.
‡Fisher's exact probability test.
SVR, sustained virological response.

Table 5 Spearman's correlation coefficient (*R*) between the pretreatment serum *RANTES* level and clinical parameters ($n = 96$)

Clinical parameters	Serum *RANTES* level	
	R	*P*-value
Platelet count	−0.30	0.0025
Aspartate aminotransferase	−0.24	0.0200
White blood cell	−0.15	0.1600
Total cholesterol	−0.11	0.2700
Alanine aminotransferase	−0.088	0.3900
α-Fetoprotein	−0.088	0.4100
Neutrophil count	−0.064	0.5400
Hemoglobin A1c	−0.056	0.6300
γ-Glutamyl transpeptidase	−0.047	0.6500
Albumin	−0.021	0.7900
Hemoglobin	−0.025	0.8000
Creatinine	−0.00098	0.9900

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Table 6 Factors associated with SVR analyzed by univariate and multivariate analysis

Characteristic	Subcategory	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
		Odds ratio	95% CI	*P*-value	Odds ratio	95% CI	*P*-value
Platelet count		1.13	1.03–1.25	0.012	1.20	1.00–1.41	0.042
IL-28B SNP	T/T or not	16.0	3.37–76.2	0.0005	9.48	1.40–64.3	0.02
RANTES	≥3400†	4.01	1.58–10.2	0.0036	4.09	1.02–16.5	0.048
Viral loads		0.99	0.99–0.99	0.0012	0.99	0.99–1.00	0.51
ISDR mutation	≥2	21.7	2.76–170	0.0034	28.2	2.05–388	0.013
Core a.a. 70	R or not	2.52	1.03–6.20	0.044	3.19	0.73–13.9	0.12

†The cut-off value of 3400 pg/mL was determined by receiver–operator curve analysis in all 96 patients.
a.a., amino acids; CI, confidence interval; IL, interleukin; ISDR, interferon sensitivity-determining region; R, arginine; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphisms.

after commencement of therapy) was also significantly correlated with high pretreatment serum *RANTES* level ($P = 0.015$, data not shown). Moreover, we could also show that high serum *RANTES* levels correlated with the clinical background factors low alanine aminotransferase values and high platelet counts, suggesting that the patients with high *RANTES* levels have less severe hepatitis. A previous study also showed a tendency for correlation between the serum *RANTES* level and SVR in PEG IFN/RBV therapy, but this correlation did not reach significance.[16] Although the reason for this discrepancy is not known, we speculate that a difference in drug dosage may have contributed. In our study, most of the patients received a sufficient dose of both PEG IFN and RBV, as shown in Table 3. However, the previous study lacks information regarding drug dosage, suggesting that the study group comprised a heterogeneous population.

Then, what is the mechanism of the association between high serum *RANTES* levels and high SVR? Because *RANTES* is a chemotactic Th1-type chemokine, it may be speculated that a high serum *RANTES* level reflects activation and preservation of the Th1-type immune responses needed to suppress viral replication and so enhances viral elimination by PEG IFN/RBV therapy. Although it is also possible that a high *RANTES* level could be simply a reflection of early stages of the disease, we suggest that it could have a more direct role in achieving SVR, because multivariate analysis extracted a high serum *RANTES* level as a variable contributing to SVR independently of the platelet count, which reflects the stage of disease. Importantly, our result also demonstrated that the serum *RANTES* level was a factor contributing to SVR independently of other treatment-restricting factors, including the *IL-28B* SNP and the viral factors of NS5A and core. This independent contribution of a high serum *RANTES* level among other variables indicates its importance and potency in improving the prediction of the treatment efficacy.

Concerning the association between the serum *RANTES* level and *RANTES* haplotype, we could not find a significant correlation in the HCV-infected patients, although there was a tendency that patients with the R3 haplotype had higher serum *RANTES* levels. In patients with coronary artery disease and type 1 diabetes mellitus, and in healthy volunteers, the serum *RANTES* level has been reported to correlate with the *RANTES* gene SNP. Specifically, those patients and healthy volunteers with the A allele in the *RANTES* promoter polymorphism at position −403 (rs2107538) had lower serum *RANTES* levels than those with the G allele.[28,29] On the other hand, in previous reports of chronic hepatitis C, no evident correlation was reported between the *RANTES* SNP at position −403 (rs2107538) and serum *RANTES* level.[30] In this study, through more systematic haplotyping analysis based upon the HapMap Database, we tried to determine the correlation between the serum *RANTES* level and the *RANTES* gene SNP in chronic hepatitis C in more detail. However, we could not find any association and the result shows that the serum *RANTES* level is not primarily determined by the *RANTES* haplotype in chronic hepatitis C. The result seems strange at first, however, it is understandable considering that *RANTES* expression is modulated by multiple factors in chronic hepatitis C, including viral components and the stage of liver disease, as described before.

However, there are some limitations in our study. Namely, the number of investigated patients was rather small, and included patients for the analysis were limited to those with genotype 1b HCV infection. Therefore, it is considered that additional independent studies including the analysis of other genotypes would

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