proinflammatory cytokine production, DC-mediated NK and CTL activation, and induction of apoptosis and necroptosis, it is unknown whether or not distinct TICAM-1 signalosomes are formed and how TICAM-1 signaling is regulated according to stimuli. Further, localization sites of TICAM-1 signalosome have not been clearly defined. Proteomic analyses of the TICAM-1 signalosome using different stimuli and responding cells may give new insight into the TICAM-1 function linking innate immunity to adaptive immunity.

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Genetic Association of Human Leukocyte Antigens with Chronicity or Resolution of Hepatitis B Infection in Thai Population

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Abstract

Background: Previous studies showed that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the *HLA-DP*, *TCF19* and *EHMT2* genes may affect the chronic hepatitis B (CHB). To predict the degree of risk for chronicity of HBV, this study determined associations with these SNPs.

Methods: The participants for this study were defined into 4 groups; HCC (n = 230), CHB (n = 219), resolved HBV infection (n = 113) and HBV uninfected subjects (n = 123). The *HLA-DP* SNPs (rs3077, rs9277378 and rs3128917), *TCF19* SNP (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* SNP (rs652888) were genotyped.

Results: Due to similar distribution of genotype frequencies in HCC and CHB, we combined these two groups (HBV carriers). The genotype distribution in HBV carriers relative to those who resolved HBV showed that rs3077 and rs9277378 were significantly associated with protective effects against CHB in minor dominant model (OR = 0.45, $p<0.001$ and OR = 0.47, $p<0.001$). The other SNPs rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888 were not associated with HBV carriers.

Conclusions: Genetic variations of rs3077 and rs9277378, but not rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888, were significantly associated with HBV carriers relative to resolved HBV in Thai population.

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Introduction

The hepatitis B virus (HBV) is one of the most common causes of chronic hepatitis B (CHB), liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Globally more than 2 billion people have been infected with HBV and 378 million are suffering from chronic hepatitis. Over 600,000 people die each year because of HBV infection. In high prevalence areas such as the central Asian republics, Southeast Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa and the Amazon basin over 8% of the population may be HBV carriers [1]. The main route of HBV infection is vertical transmission from mother to infant and horizontal transmission between children, whereby 90% will develop chronic hepatitis as infants or in early childhood and never clear the virus [1–3]. In contrast, 15% of HBV infections in adulthood develop into chronic hepatitis with viral persistence.

The frequency of HBV infection which develops into chronic hepatitis depends on the age at which the person is infected [1,2]. However, the factors determining HBV persistence or clearance are not clearly understood [4–6]. Risk factors for viral persistence include the following: virological factors (viral load, genotype, viral gene mutations and co-infection with another virus), host factors (age at infection, gender, immune status and genetic variability) and extrinsic factors (e.g. alcohol consumption and chemotherapy) [7]. Whether viral infection results in acute or chronic infection also depends on cellular immune responses influenced by human leukocyte antigen (*HLA*) class I and II molecules which must present the viral antigens to CD8+ T cells and CD4+ T cells, respectively [8]. The genes encoding *HLA* are the most

polymorphic in the human genome, presumably in order to be able to respond to all potential foreign antigens [9].

Recently, many genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been performed to seek associations between human genetic variation and the outcome of HBV infection [10–15]. Studies in the Japanese population showed that 11 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) located within or around the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* loci are significantly associated with the occurrence of CHB. Of these 11 SNPs, the most strongly associated with the outcome of HBV infection were rs9277535 and rs3128917 in *HLA-DPB1* and rs3077 in *HLA-DPA1* [10].

Thereafter, GWAS studies in the Korean population confirmed the presence of these host factors related to HBV outcome and reported two new SNPs significantly associated with CHB within the *HLA* region, namely rs1419881 and rs652888 in transcription factor 19 (*TCF19*) and euchromatic histone-lysine methyltransferase 2 (*EHMT2*), respectively [16]. *TCF19* (or transcription factor SC1) is a *trans*-activating factor that mainly influences the transcription of genes required for late growth regulation at the G1-S checkpoint and during S phase [17]. *EHMT2* is a histone methyltransferase responsible for mono- and di-methylation of H3K9 (lysine at 9th residue of histone subunit 3) in euchromatin [18], which modifies the conformation of chromatin from its tightly packed form, heterochromatin, and thus influences gene repression or transcriptional silencing [19].

In the present study, we determined associations between the SNPs of *HLA-DPA1* (rs3077), *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378 and rs3128917), *TCF19* (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* (rs652888) in HBV infected patients compared to those with resolved infections and those who had never been infected.

Materials and Methods

Ethics Statement

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Faculty of Medicine, University (Bangkok, Thailand) code IRB.455/54. Written informed consent was obtained from each patient and all samples were anonymized.

Sample Collection

All blood samples were negative for hepatitis C virus and human immunodeficiency virus. Subjects were defined into 4 groups: 230 hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)-positive HCC, and 219 CHB who had been HBsAg-positive for at least 6 months were recruited at the King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, whereas patients with resolved HBV and uninfected subjects were from the Thai Red Cross Society and from the north-eastern part of Thailand (age>40 years) which had been screened by Immunoassay (Architect i2000SR, Abbott, USA.) for HBsAg, antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (anti-HBs) and antibody to hepatitis B core protein (anti-HBc). Of these subjects, 113 were negative for HBsAg but positive for anti-HBc and/or positive for anti-HBs after resolution of infection, while 123 uninfected subjects were all negative for HBsAg, anti-HBc and anti-HBs. All samples in this study were collected from subjects who have lived at the same area in Thailand, suggesting that the genetic background would be balanced between a case and control.

Genotyping assays

DNA was extracted from peripheral blood mononuclear cell using phenol-chloroform DNA extraction. The concentration of DNA was determined by NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE). We determined SNPs of *HLA-DPA1* (rs3077), *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378 and rs3128917), and the genes *TCF19* (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* (rs652888) by commercial TaqMan PCR assays (Applied Biosystems, USA). In this study we investigated *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378) because this SNP had a high level of linkage disequilibrium with rs9277535 ($D' = 1.00$, $R^2 = 0.954$) [20] and was clearly detectable by the TaqMan assay rather than rs9277535.

Statistical analyses

In this study, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was performed on each SNP. The Chi-square test of independence and Odds Ratio (OR) from two-by-two tables for comparisons between case and control groups was performed using Microsoft Excel. Statistical significance was defined by $P<0.05$. The calculated of possibility level was established using Chi-square contingency table analysis.

Results

Subjects were defined into 4 groups: group 1) HCC (age = 58.2±12 years, 190/230 (82.6%) male); group 2) CHB (age = 46.6±10 years, 144/219 (65.7%) male); group 3) those with resolved HBV (age = 48.2±6 years, 83/113 (73.5%) male); and group 4) HBV uninfected subjects (age = 46.7±6 years, 73/123 (59.3%) male). The details are given in Table 1. To find the genetic factor associated with chronicity of HBV infection, however, the two groups (group 1 and 2) were combined (designated "HBV carriers"). Indeed, according to the frequencies of minor alleles of the SNPs in the *HLA-DP*, *TCF19* and *EHMT2* genes listed in Table 2, the frequencies of minor alleles of these 5 SNPs in HCC and CHB were similar (data shown in Table S1). The composite HBV carriers group had a minor allele frequency for rs3077 and rs9277378 lower than in groups 3 and 4 (OR = 0.57, 95% CI = 0.42–0.78, $p<0.001$ and OR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.47–0.85, $p = 0.008$ for rs3077, OR = 0.59, 95% CI = 0.44–0.81, $p = 0.001$ and OR = 0.56, 95% CI = 0.42–0.75, $p<0.001$ for rs9277378, respectively). In contrast, the minor allele frequency for rs1419881 in HBV carriers was similar to group 3 (OR = 0.80, 95% CI = 0.60–1.08, $p = 0.142$) but lower than in group 4 (OR = 0.64, 95% CI = 0.48–0.85, $p = 0.002$). Moreover, minor allele frequency for rs3128917 and rs652888 in HBV carriers was comparable to groups 3 and 4 (OR = 1.14, 95% CI = 0.85–1.53, $p = 0.371$ and OR = 1.06, 95% CI = 0.80–1.41, $p = 0.673$ for rs3128917; OR = 1.14, 95% CI = 0.84–1.55, $p = 0.400$ and OR = 1.12, 95% CI = 0.83–1.50, $p = 0.471$ for rs652888, respectively).

The results of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium analysis of each SNPs were shown in Table 3. All data were over 0.01 ($p>0.01$), indicating that the frequencies did not deviate from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The genotype distribution in HBV carriers compared to subjects with HBV resolution showed that both rs3077 and rs9277378 were significantly associated with protective effects against CHB in minor dominant model (OR = 0.45, 95% CI = 0.30–0.69, $p<0.001$ for rs3077 and OR = 0.47, 95% CI = 0.31–0.72, $p<0.001$ for rs9277378, are described in Table 3), suggesting that major homozygous genotypes were risk factors with the chronicity of HBV. The other SNPs rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888 were not associated against HBV carrier status (OR = 1.22, 95% CI = 0.76–1.97, $p = 0.413$ for rs3128917, OR = 0.67, 95% CI = 0.42–1.06, $p = 0.084$ for rs1419881 and OR = 1.31, 95% CI = 0.87–2.00, $p = 0.198$ for rs652888, respectively).

The genotype frequencies for 5 SNPs are shown in Table 3. Comparing HBV carriers with uninfected subjects showed that rs3077, rs9277378 and rs1419881 were all protectively associated with chronic HBV infection (OR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.42–0.95,

Table 1. Characteristics of participants in HCC, CHB, resolved HBV and HBV uninfected subjects in Thailand.

	HCC (n = 230)	CHB[a] (n = 219)	Resolved[b] (n = 113)	Uninfected[c] (n = 123)
Age (years)	58.2±12	46.6±10	48.2±6	46.7±6
Male	190 (82.6%)	144 (65.7%)	83 (73.5%)	73 (59.3%)
HBsAg positive	230 (100%)	219 (100%)	0	0
ALT>40 (IU/L)	43 (18.7%)	61 (27.8%)	-	-
Alb (g/dl)	3.7 (2.5–5.6)	4.5 (3–5.2)	-	-
TB (mg/dl)	1.2 (0.17–14.8)	0.56 (0.2–2.67)	-	-

Abbreviation: HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; CHB, chronic hepatitis B; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; ALT, Alanine transaminase; Alb, Albumin; TB, Total bilirubin.
[a]Defined as chronic hepatitis B includes chronic HBV infection but not cirrhosis and HCC.
[b]Defined as HBsAg negative but anti-HBc or/and anti-HBs positive.
[c]Defined as any HBV serological markers negative.
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$p = 0.025$ for rs3077 and OR = 0.55, 95% CI = 0.36–0.82, $p = 0.003$ for rs9277378 and OR = 0.57, 95% CI = 0.36–0.90, $p = 0.015$ for rs1419881, respectively). Comparing HBV carriers and uninfected subjects rather than those with resolved infection regarding rs1419881 was significantly protective association against CHB, but rs3128917 and rs652888 were not associated against CHB (OR = 1.58, 95% CI = 1.02–2.46, $p = 0.042$ for rs3128917 and OR = 1.09, 95% CI = 0.65–1.82, $p = 0.080$ for rs652888). When we consider the Bonferroni corrections (5 SNPs), however, the P value for rs1419881 did not reach the level of significant difference (0.015>0.05/5) between HBV carriers and HBV uninfected subjects. These data suggested that other SNPs, rs1419881, rs3128917 and rs652888 were not associated with HBV carriers in this study.

Results of meta-analysis for 3 SNPs (rs3077, rs9277378 and rs3128917) in the *HLA* gene were shown in Table S2 and S3; HBV carriers were compared to HBV resolved or HBV uninfected subjects, respectively. While the other 2 SNPs were published only from Korean population, thus the meta-analysis appeared only between HBV carriers and HBV uninfected subjects. All SNPs analyzed by the meta-analysis were significantly associated with HBV carriers.

The associations between these 5 SNPs and HBV status are depicted graphically in Figure S1. Each histogram compares HBV carriers with subjects that have resolved HBV infection or were never infected. The results showed that the minor dominant model of rs3077 and rs9277378 was highly protective associated against chronic HBV, while no significant associations were observed with rs3128917 and rs652888. Furthermore, comparing the frequency of rs1419881 between HBV carriers and uninfected subjects also revealed its association against chronic HBV infection but the association with resolved HBV did not achieve statistical significance.

Discussion

Genetic variations of rs3077 and rs9277378, but not rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888, were significantly associated with HBV carriers relative to resolved HBV in Thai population. In the human genome, single nucleotide polymorphisms are found in every 300–570 nucleotides. Many SNPs have no effect on the function of the encoded proteins, but some variants do appear in regulatory or coding part of the gene and affect gene expression level or protein function which can give rise to disease [21] such as the 3 SNPs including rs3077, rs9277378 and rs3128917 in *HLA-*

Table 2. Minor allele frequencies in HBV carriers, resolved HBV and uninfected subjects in Thailand.

						HBV carriers vs. Resolved		HBV carriers vs. Uninfected	
SNPs	Gene	Minor alleles[a]	HBV carriers[b] (2n = 898)	Resolved (2n = 226)	Uninfected (2n = 246)	OR (95% CI)	*P* values	OR (95% CI)	*P* values
rs3077	*HLA-DPA1*	T	227 (25.3%)	84 (37.2%)	86 (35.0%)	0.57 (0.42–0.78)	<0.001	0.63 (0.47–0.85)	0.008
rs9277378	*HLA-DPB1*	A	237 (26.4%)	85 (37.6%)	96 (39.0%)	0.59 (0.44–0.81)	0.001	0.56 (0.42–0.75)	<0.001
rs3128917	*HLA-DPB1*	G	459 (51.1%)	108 (47.8%)	122 (49.6%)	1.14 (0.85–1.53)	0.372	1.06 (0.80–1.41)	0.673
rs1419881	*TCF19*	C	361 (40.2%)	103 (45.6%)	126 (51.2%)	0.80 (0.60–1.08)	0.142	0.64 (0.48–0.85)	0.002
rs652888	*EHMT2*	C	329 (36.6%)	76 (33.6%)	84 (34.1%)	1.14 (0.84–1.55)	0.400	1.11 (0.83–1.50)	0.478

Abbreviation: CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.
[a]Defined by using data from public database (NCBI).
[b]Defined as the combination between HCC and CHB.
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Table 3. Genotype frequencies in HBV carriers, resolved HBV and uninfected subjects in Thailand.

					HBV carriers vs. Resolved		HBV carriers vs. Uninfected	
SNP	Genotype	HBV carriers[a] (n = 449)	Resolved (n = 113)	Uninfected (n = 123)	OR (95% CI)	*P* values	OR (95% CI)	*P* values
rs3077	CC	259 (57.7%)	43 (38.1%)	57 (46.3%)	1.00	-	1.00	-
HLA-DPA1	CT	153 (34.1%)	56 (49.6%)	46 (37.4%)	0.45 (0.29–0.71)	<0.001	0.73 (0.47–1.13)	0.161
	TT	37 (8.2%)	14 (12.4%)	20 (16.3%)	0.44 (0.22–0.88)	0.018	0.41 (0.22–0.75)	0.003
	Dominant[b]				**0.45 (0.30–0.69)**	**<0.001**	**0.63 (0.42–0.95)**	**0.025**
	HWEp	0.038	0.516	0.049				
rs9277378	GG	242 (53.9%)	40 (35.4%)	48 (39.0%)	1.00	-	1.00	-
HLA-DPB1	AG	177 (39.4%)	61 (54.0%)	54 (43.9%)	0.48 (0.31–0.75)	0.001	0.65 (0.42–1.00)	0.051
	AA	30 (6.7%)	12 (10.6%)	21 (17.1%)	0.41 (0.20–0.87)	0.018	0.28 (0.15–0.54)	<0.001
	Dominant				**0.47 (0.31–0.72)**	**<0.001**	**0.55 (0.36–0.82)**	**0.003**
	HWEp	0.757	0.110	0.390				
rs3128917	TT	99 (22.0%)	29 (25.7%)	38 (30.9%)	1.00	-	1.00	-
HLA-DPB1	TG	241 (53.7%)	60 (53.1%)	48 (39.0%)	1.18 (0.71–1.94)	0.525	1.93 (1.19–3.13)	0.008
	GG	109 (24.3%)	24 (21.2%)	37 (30.1%)	1.33 (0.73–2.44)	0.355	1.13 (0.67–1.92)	0.648
	Dominant				**1.22 (0.76–1.97)**	**0.413**	**1.58 (1.02–2.46)**	**0.042**
	HWEp	0.117	0.496	0.015				
rs1419881	TT	162 (36.1%)	31 (27.4%)	30 (24.4%)	1.00	-	1.00	-
TCF19	TC	213 (47.4%)	61 (54.0%)	60 (48.8%)	0.67 (0.41–1.08)	0.097	0.66 (0.41–1.07)	0.088
	CC	74 (16.5%)	21 (18.6%)	33 (26.8%)	0.67 (0.36–1.25)	0.210	0.42 (0.24–0.73)	0.002
	Dominant				**0.67 (0.42–1.06)**	**0.084**	**0.57 (0.36–0.90)**	**0.015**
	HWEp	0.778	0.349	0.792				
rs652888	TT	169 (37.6%)	50 (44.2%)	57 (46.3%)	1.00	-	1.00	-
EHMT2	TC	231 (51.4%)	50 (44.2%)	48 (39.0%)	1.37 (0.88–2.12)	0.162	1.62 (1.05–2.50)	0.027
	CC	49 (10.9%)	13 (11.5%)	18 (14.6%)	1.12 (0.56–2.22)	0.756	0.92 (0.49–1.70)	<0.001
	Dominant				**1.31 (0.87–2.00)**	**0.198**	**1.09 (0.65–1.82)**	**0.080**
	HWEp	0.022	0.926	0.142				

Abbreviation: CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio ; HWEp, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium analysis.
[a]Defined as the combination between HCC and CHB.
[b]Defined as a minor dominant according to the comparison between heterozygous+minor homozygous genotype and major homozygous genotype (*eg.* rs3077; CT+TT vs. CC).
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DP region of MHC class II. The function of HLA-DP is to present bound peptide antigens, e.g. from HBV, at the surface of antigen-presenting cells. CD4+ T cells recognize these antigens and initiate the adaptive immune response. They assist the MHC class I-restricted CD8+ T cells which are the primary cellular effectors mediating HBV clearance from the liver during acute viral infection [22]. HBV infection will either be cleared by these means, or establish itself as a chronic infection. The reason for the latter is unclear but may be related to variation of *HLA-DP* alleles. Thus, the position of *HLA-DP* SNPs might be associated with possibility of clearance or chronicity. The rs3077 and rs9277535 SNPs are located within the 3′ untranslated region (UTR) of *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1*, respectively while rs3128917 is located downstream of *HLA-DPB1*.

Recent investigations have identified 11 risk alleles for CHB related to mRNA expression of *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* [23]. The results showed that only these two alleles, rs3077 and rs9277535 were strongly associated with the risk of CHB and decreased expression of *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1*, respectively. In contrast, while rs3128917 was associated with CHB, it was not associated with the level of HLA-DPB1 expression [23]. Variation at 5′ and 3′ UTRs can alter the binding sites of regulatory proteins which protect and stabilize newly synthesized RNA, either increasing or decreasing binding [24,25]. Nevertheless, the present study showed that rs3128917 was not associated with HBV carrier status in Thailand. Because rs3128917 is located downstream of the direction of transcription of the gene, this suggests that it does not affect regulation or coding of the gene and would have no effect on HLA protein expression.

The results from the present study not only establish the importance of variation at the *HLA-DP* gene but also explore two new SNPs, rs1419881 located in *TCF19* and rs652888 in the *EHMT2* gene [16]. *TCF19* (or transcription factor SC1) is a late growth regulatory gene like histone, thymidine kinase etc, maximally expressed at the onset of DNA synthesis at the G1-S boundary and S phase of cell cycle. This protein is also involved in regulations of growth and transcription factors controlling the number and development of peripheral-blood monocytes and erythrocytes [26]. The *EHMT2* gene is a histone methyltransferase [18] mainly responsible for mono- and di-methylation of H3K9 in euchromatin. This changes the conformation of chromatin from euchromatin to heterochromatin and then affects gene repression

[19]. Histone methylation has a critical role in gene transcription and epigenetic events [27–30].

According to recently published GWAS data [11], two SNPs associated with the risk for CHB in the Korea population were identified. These were the top signals in the genome-wide significance level analysis and were independently associated with *HLA-DP* and *HLA-DQ*, respectively. The authors then confirmed the results in a replication sample, showing that the frequency of their two SNPs strongly associated with CHB; OR = 0.76, 95% CI = 0.68–0.86, $p = 4.51E\text{-}11$ for rs1419881 and OR = 1.26, 95% CI = 1.07–1.47, $p = 2.78E\text{-}06$ for rs652888 [16]. Furthermore, another GWAS study focused on HLA, of hepatitis B vaccinated people in Indonesia, showed that rs652888 was also associated with risk of CHB ($p \leq 0.0001$) in that population [31].

In the present study, however, we found that rs1419881 tended to be associated with chronic HBV infection, based on the results of a comparison between HBV carriers and uninfected subjects. Nonetheless, it did not reach the significance by the Bonferroni corrections, as well as when HBV carriers were compared with patients who had their HBV infection resolved, no association with rs1419881 was observed. The second SNP, rs652888, was not associated with chronic HBV infection in the Thai population. Although our study had sampling error due to small samples, it might be another effect that the result between rs652888 in *EHMT2* gene and chronic hepatitis B in Thai population was not associated. The reason for these negative findings for the two SNPs might be due to the affected gene functions that were not involved with the immune system or processes of persistent infection. Data supporting this notion are to be found in the GWAS data for the Korean population, where pathway analysis of genes involved in the regulation of immune function showed that *TCF19* and *EHMT2* genes are not significantly involved in human immunity [16].

Mapping the position of the two new SNPs showed that rs1419881 located at the 3′ UTR of exon 4, with a tendency towards association with CHB and rs652888 which is not associated with CHB located on an intron. The position of each SNP might affect the phenotype of gene expression and susceptibility to disease, explaining why some are associated with chronic HBV infection, and others not. According to previous publications, the 3′ UTR of the *HLA-DP* region is strongly involved with regulating HLA-DP expression and influences the outcome of HBV infection [32]. In addition, another study showed that variation of the 3′ UTR of HLA-C was strongly associated with HLA-C expression levels and with control of human immunodeficiency virus [33]. This illustrated the general principle that the position of SNPs affects association with diseases.

The prevalence of HBV in Eastern countries, i.e. Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and the Pacific is much higher than in Western Europe and America. Most people in Eastern countries are infected with HBV during childhood and 8–10% of these develop CHB. In contract, the frequency of chronic carriers in Western Europe and North America is ≤1%. Furthermore, previous GWAS and meta-analysis reported that A alleles at rs3077 and rs9277353 have protective effects against CHB. Asian and African populations, especially Chinese, have lower frequencies of A alleles than European and American populations [10,34,35]. Moreover, the previous study showed no associations of rs3077 and rs9277535 with progressive CHB infection; however rs3077 was highly significant associated with HBV infection but not associated with rs9277353 in Caucasian populations [36].

While the frequency of alleles at rs3128917 and rs1419881 in Asian and African populations are quite similar, Northern and Western European populations have high frequencies of the protective T allele at rs3128917 but have low T allele frequencies (a risk allele for CHB) at rs1419881. The allele frequencies of populations in the worldwide for conspicuous details came from dbSNP Short Genetic Variations available at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/snp_ref.cgi. Lastly, both ethnic Eastern and Western populations have similar allele frequencies at rs652888, carrying a risk for CHB, with T allele frequencies very much higher than C allele frequencies, which has a protective effect. In addition, evolution of genomic characteristics, the migratory history of different populations, as well as HBV genotypes [37], HBV carrier rate [38] and pathological procession of liver disease [39] in each country may affect the distribution of *HLA* alleles. This was illustrated by a recent report in two Han Chinese populations (southern and northern) having different distributions of *HLA-DP* genes [39]. Thus, the genetics of the host is one of the factors influencing and predicting disease outcome [40].

According to less number of samples, it might influence statistical power in this study. Thus, we made another statistic meta-analysis of data obtained from previous reports and this study in Table S3. We compared HBV carriers with HBV uninfected subjects, because most previous studies also compared CHB with HBV clearance and/or healthy (negative for any HBV serological markers). Interestingly, all SNPs analyzed by the meta-analysis were significantly associated with HBV carriers. These results could support our data in Thailand. Additionally, no heterogeneity was observed between HBV carriers and HBV-resolved subjects ($P_{het} = 0.10$ for rs3077, 0.79 for rs9277378, and 0.07 for rs3128917), as well as between HBV carriers and HBV uninfected subjects ($P_{het} = 0.10$ for rs3077, 0.02 for rs9277378, 0.91 for rs1419881, and 0.04 for rs652888) except for rs9277378 ($P_{het} = 0.000$), for the minor allele frequency (MAF) of only rs9277378 was different between HapMap-CHB (MAF = 46.3% of G allele) and HapMap-JPT (MAF = 44.8% of T allele).

In the present study, we determined associations of variations at the *HLA-DP* gene with outcome in HBV infected Thai patients and the major homozygous genotypes of rs3077 and rs9277378, but not rs3128917, were significantly associated with HBV carrier status. Although genetic variation of two new SNPs, rs1419881 in the *TCF19* gene and rs652888 in the *EHMT2* gene, were not associated with the outcome of HBV infection in the Thai population, a large-scale study should be required.

Supporting Information

Figure S1 Association of 5 SNPs with HBV carriers, resolved HBV and uninfected subjects in Thailand. The results were compared between percentages of combination of heterozygous genotypes and minor homozygous genotypes (White square) with percentages of major homozygous genotypes (Grey square). Five SNPs applied in this study were rs3077, rs9277378 and rs3128917 in *HLA-DP* gene, rs1419881 in *TCF19* gene and rs652888 in *EHMT2* gene. OR, odds ratio; (lower-upper), 95% confidence interval.
(PPTX)

Table S1 Minor allele frequencies in HCC, CHB, resolved HBV and uninfected subjects in Thailand.
(DOC)

Table S2 The meta-analysis of minor allele frequencies in HBV carriers and resolved HBV.
(DOC)

Table S3 The meta-analysis of minor allele frequencies in HBV carriers and uninfected subject.
(DOC)

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SP TW YP YT. Performed the experiments: NP. Analyzed the data: NP SP SI KM NS. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: PT SO SM. Wrote the paper: NP.

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Application of a Newly Developed High-Sensitivity HBsAg Chemiluminescent Enzyme Immunoassay for Hepatitis B Patients with HBsAg Seroclearance

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We modified and automated a highly sensitive chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay (CLEIA) for surface antigen (HBsAg) detection using a combination of monoclonal antibodies, each for a specific epitope of HBsAg, and by improving an earlier conjugation technique. Of 471 hepatitis B virus (HBV) carriers seen in our hospital between 2009 and 2012, 26 were HBsAg seronegative as determined by the Abbott Architect assay. The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was used to recheck those 26 patients who demonstrated seroclearance by the Abbott Architect assay. The performance of the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was compared with that of a quantitative HBsAg detection system (Abbott Architect) and the Roche Cobas TaqMan HBV DNA assay (CTM) (lower limit of detection, 2.1 log copies/ml) using blood serum samples from patients who were determined to be HBsAg seronegative by the Abbott Architect assay. Ten patients had spontaneous HBsAg loss. Of 8 patients treated with nucleotide analogues (NAs), two were HBsAg seronegative after stopping lamivudine therapy and 6 were HBsAg seronegative during entecavir therapy. Eight acute hepatitis B (AH) patients became HBsAg seronegative. Of the 26 patients, 16 were HBsAg positive by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay but negative by the Abbott Architect assay. The differences between the two assays in terms of detectable HBsAg persisted over the long term in the spontaneous loss group (median, 10 months), the NA-treated group (2.5 months), and the AH group (0.5 months). In 9 patients, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay detected HBsAg when HBV DNA was negative by the CTM assay. HBsAg was also detected by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay in 4 patients with an anti-HBs concentration of >10 mIU/ml, 3 of whom had no HBsAg escape mutations. The automatic, highly sensitive HBsAg CLEIA Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ is a convenient and precise assay for HBV monitoring.

Today, >400 million people worldwide are hepatitis B virus (HBV) carriers (1). We have monitored HBV markers, such as HBV DNA, hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg), and HB core-related antigen (HBcrAg), in chronic hepatitis B patients. The measurement of HBV DNA levels by a PCR-based method is the state-of-the-art technique for monitoring HBV replication in clinical practice (2). However, it is suboptimal for chronic hepatitis B patients who are medicated with nucleotide analogues (NAs), as those, in many cases, can decrease HBV DNA to below the limit of detection.

HBsAg is a secreted envelope protein that is continuously shed into the blood as long as HBV infection persists, irrespective of viral replication. Recent advances in HBsAg quantification (qHBsAg) have opened up new perspectives in the study of HBV; qHBsAg levels are correlated with intrahepatic covalently closed circular (ccc) DNA, which is used as a template for viral transcription and maintains the chronic HBV infection state (3–5). Additionally, a correlation between qHBsAg and HBV DNA has been suggested, with the possibility of a role for qHBsAg as a surrogate marker for viral replication put forward, which might identify chronic hepatitis B patients who are likely to be cured with pegylated alpha interferon (6–9).

In Japan, two HBsAg quantification assays are available: the Architect HBsAg-QT (Abbott Japan) (detection range, 50 to 250,000 mIU/ml) and the HISCL HBsAg (Sysmex) (detection range, 30 to 2,500,000 mIU/ml). These two methods have a good correlation and are sensitive over a wide detection range. Recently, Matsubara et al. (10) reported a novel highly sensitive chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay (CLEIA) that was developed for quantitative HBsAg detection by combining monoclonal antibodies, each specific for a different epitope of the antigen, and employing an improved conjugation technique. It is as sensitive as nucleic acid testing for detecting early HBV infection. We further modified and improved the high-sensitivity assay reagent described above for adaptation to both ferrite microparticles as the solid phase and the automated analyzer system by modification of the optimum combination of monoclonal antibodies. As was recently reported (11), this assay (Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ) had good accuracy, reproducibility, specificity, and sensitivity, and the results correlate well with those of the Abbott Architect. The coefficient of variation in the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ is <5.9% for samples with a low concentration of HBsAg (11), and the assay was approved by the Japanese government in 2013.

The sensitivity of this assay (5 mIU/ml) was approximately 10-fold higher than that of the Abbott Architect assay (50 mIU/ml). Here, we adapted this assay to monitor chronic hepatitis B

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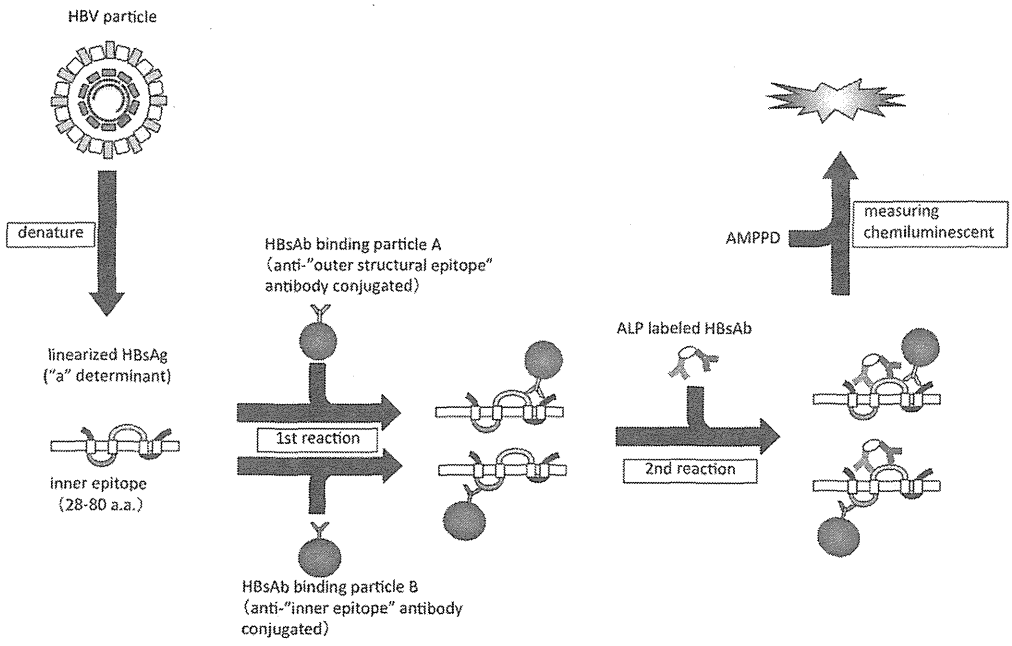


FIG 1 The principle of Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ.

patients with apparent HBsAg seroclearance as determined by the Abbott Architect assay.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples. Four hundred seventy-one patients with chronic HBV infection visited our hospital from 2009 to 2012. One hundred eighty-one patients were asymptomatic carriers, 232 had chronic hepatitis B (CHB), and 58 had liver cirrhosis. Of these, 13 patients took lamivudine, one adefovir, 19 lamivudine plus adefovir, 140 entecavir, 8 entecavir plus adefovir, and 9 tenofovir. Thirty patients with acute HB (AH) infection (8 of whom developed chronic hepatitis) visited our hospital from January 2009 to 2012. We determined HBsAg seroclearance according to the Abbott Architect assay in 26 HBV-infected patients during the observation period. Of these, 10 were not treated with nucleotide analogues (spontaneous HBsAg loss group) and 8 were treated (NA-treated group). Of the 8 NA-treated patients, 2 on lamivudine therapy were HBsAg seronegative after stopping therapy, and the other 6 were HBsAg seronegative during entecavir therapy. Eight AH patients became HBsAg seronegative.

The study protocol conformed to the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the ethics committees of our institutions, and informed consent was obtained from each carrier. We rechecked HBsAg status of the patients by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay in their serial blood serum samples and compared the results with those of the Architect HBsAg-QT assay.

Methods. (i) Measurement of HBsAg by Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay. HBsAg was measured on the two-step sandwich assay principle with a fully automated chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay system (Lumipulse G1200; Fujirebio, Inc.). The assay principle for this new reagent was based on that previously reported by Matsubara et al. (10). Briefly, samples were pretreated with a solution, including surfactant to disrupt HBV particles, to dissociate HBsAg from HBsAg–anti-HBs complexes and to denature epitopes to a linear form. Linearized HBsAg were then detected using two monoclonal antibodies against external structural regions as determinant "a" and the internal epitope as a capture reagent, with two monoclonal antibodies coupled to alkaline phosphatase as the detector. For the assay procedures, 100 μl blood serum and/or plasma samples together with 20 μl pretreatment solution were incubated with the monoclonal antibodies binding ferrite microparticles at 37°C for 10 min. After automatic washing, 250 μl of the alkaline phosphatase-labeled antibodies were added and further incubated at 37°C for 10 min. After the washing step, 200 μl substrate solution (AMPPD [3-(2′-spiroadamantane)-4-methoxy-4-(3″-phosphoryloxy)phenyl-1,2-dioxetane disodium salt]) (Applied Biosystems, Bedford, MA) was added and incubated at 37°C for 5 min. The relative intensity of chemiluminescence was measured and the HBsAg concentration was calculated by comparison with a standard curve. The range of HBsAg concentrations assayed was 5 to 150,000 mIU/ml, and retesting was accepted with a 200-fold dilution of samples that exceeded this range. In the present study, the cutoff value of HBsAg concentration was set at 5 mIU/ml. HBsAg in blood serum was also quantified at the same intervals using the Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT assay (cutoff value, 50 mIU/ml) (Fig. 1).

(ii) Quantification of HBV DNA. Serum HBV DNA was measured using the TaqMan PCR assay (Cobas TaqMan; Roche Molecular Systems [lower limit of detection, 2.1 log copies/ml]).

(iii) Quantification of HBcrAg. Serum HBcrAg was measured using CLEIA, as described previously (12, 13). Briefly, sodium dodecyl sulfate pretreated serum was incubated with monoclonal antibodies against denatured HBcAg and HBeAg. After washing and incubation with alkaline phosphatase-labeled secondary antibodies, the relative chemiluminescence intensity was measured, and the HBcAg concentration was calculated by comparison with a standard curve generated using a known concentration of recombinant HBeAg-containing peptide. The cutoff value of HBcrAg was 3 log U/ml.

(iv) Quantification of anti-HBs. Serum anti-HBs was measured using the Architect system's anti-HBs. A specimen was considered positive for anti-HBs when the concentration was ≥10.0 mIU/ml.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows clinical data at baseline for the three groups with HBsAg seroclearance according to data from the Abbott Architect assay. In four of 10 spontaneous HBsAg loss cases, HBsAg had already been <50 mIU/ml as measured by the Abbott Architect assay at the first visit. Table 1 shows the characteristics of all 26 patients in these 3 groups. The HBV DNA and HBcrAg levels at

TABLE 1 Clinical data at baseline of 3 groups with HBsAg seroclearance as determined by the Abbott Architect assay

Patient characteristic	Data for group (*n*): Spontaneous HBsAg loss (10)	NA treated (8)[a]	Acute hepatitis (8)
Age at first visit or medication (yr)	60.6 ± 12.6	46.8 ± 12.2	50.5 ± 10.8
Sex (no. of males/no. of females)	10/0	7/1	8/0
Route of infection (no. of vertical/no. of horizontal)	10/0	4/4	0/8
No. with genotype Aa/Ae/Ba/Bj/C	0/0/0/2/8	1/1/1/1/4	1/4/1/0/2
Clinical data			
ALT (median [range]) (IU/liter)	23.5 (8–51)	76 (11–220)	1,682 (455–3,622)
HBeAg (no. positive/no. negative)	0/10	5/3	8/0
HBV DNA (median [range]) (log copies/ml)	2.3 (<2.1 to 3.4)	7.4 (4.1 to >9.1)	6.5 (3.8–8.5)
HBcrAg (median [range]) (log IU/ml)	<3 (<3 to 3.3)	6.8 (4.2–8.6)	7.1 (6.6–8)
Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT detection (median [range]) (mIU/ml)	1,300 (<50 to 10,880)	2,676,800 (9,680–89,679,600)	362,500 (91,200–40,000,000)
NA therapy (no. with none/no. with LVD/no. with ETV)[b]	10/0/0	0/2/6	5/0/3

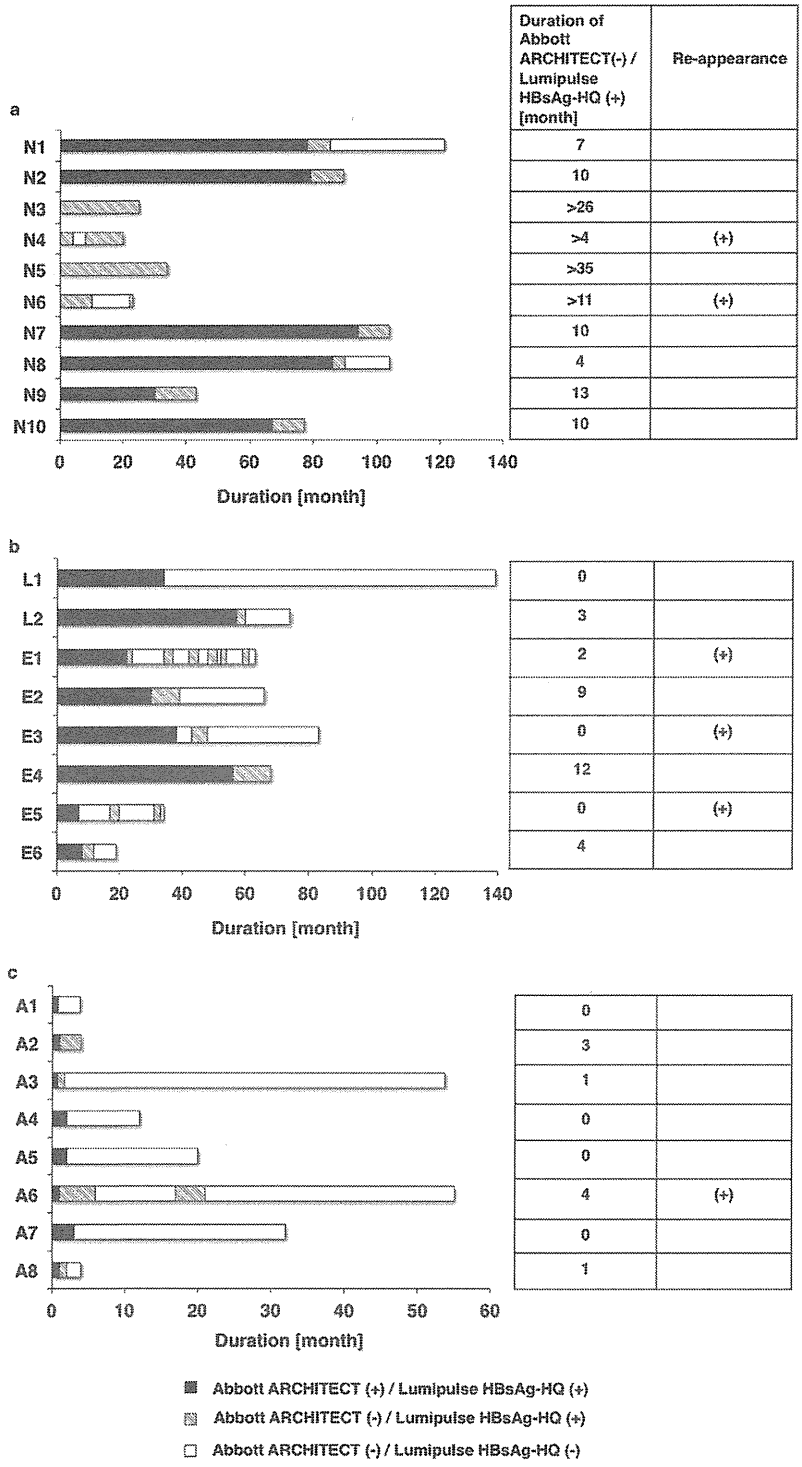
[a] NA, nucleotide analogue.
[b] LVD, lamivudine; ETV, entecavir.

baseline were significantly higher in the NA-treated and AH groups than in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group. The HBsAg levels at baseline were also significantly higher in the AH group and the NA-treated group than in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group. However, HBsAg became undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay immediately in the AH group (median, 1 month), compared with the NA-treated group (32 months) and the spontaneous HBsAg loss group (78.5 months [excluding 4 patients with HBsAg of ≤50 mIU/ml by the Abbott Architect assay at the first visit]). In 19 of the 26 cases, the HBsAg levels were still detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay at the time point when they were undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay. At the last time point with detectable HBsAg by Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, the Abbott Architect assay could not detect HBsAg in all 10 spontaneous HBsAg loss patients, but the Abbott Architect assay was also able to detect at the last time point in three (case no. L1, E3, and E5) of eight NA-treated group patients and four (case no. A1, A4, A5, and A7) of eight AH patients. In the spontaneous HBsAg loss group, the decline in HBsAg was slower than in the NA-treated and AH groups (Fig. 2a to 2c). Differences in the median duration between the Abbott Architect and Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assays were seen at 10 months (excluding 4 patients with HBsAg of <50 mIU/ml by the Abbott Architect assay at the first visit), 2.5 months, and 0.5 months in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group, NA-treated group, and AH group, respectively. We observed the reappearance of HBsAg measured by Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay in 2 patients (case no. N4 and N6) in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group, 3 (case no. E1, E3, and E5) in the NA-treated group, and one (case no. A6) in the AH group (Fig. 2a to 2c). At the last time point with detectable HBsAg by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, HBV DNA was undetectable by the Cobas TaqMan assay in 4 of 10 spontaneous HBsAg loss patients (40%), 4 of 8 NA-treated patients (50%), and one of 8 AH patients (12.5%). At the last time of detection by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, HBcrAg was <3 log U/ml in 8 of 10 spontaneous HBsAg loss patients (80%), 2 of 8 NA-treated patients (25%), and none of the 10 AH patients (0%). At the last time point of detection by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, anti-HBs was positive in one of 10 spontaneous HBsAg loss patients (10%), none of the 8 NA-treated patients (0%), and 2 of 10 AH patients (20%) (Tables 2 to 4). In case no. A1 and A7, HBsAg was relatively high at the last time point at which HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay (Table 4). In case no. A1, however, HBsAg was undetectable by the Abbott Architect and Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assays after 1 month. In case no. A7, HBsAg was undetectable by the Abbott Architect and Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assays after 3 months.

To elucidate possible HBs escape mutants, we examined the S gene sequences of all 26 patients at the first visit. Patient N2 had an amino acid G145S mutation, L1 had an amino acid S143T mutation, and L2 had amino acid I126N and F134Y mutations. None had an amino acid G145R mutation. At the last time point that HBsAg was detected by the Abbott Architect assay, anti-HBs was positive in patient N2 (from the spontaneous HBsAg loss group) with an amino acid G145S mutation. We performed an inhibition assay for samples N1 and N2 at the time of Abbott Architect undetectability but Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ detectability to confirm whether the identification of HBsAg by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was specific. HBsAg detection of these samples was inhibited, indicating that the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was indeed specific. The following are three representative cases.

(i) Case no. N7 was a 71-year-old male. His alanine transaminase (ALT) was 19 IU/liter, HBV DNA was 3.7 log copies/ml at his first visit, the HBV genotype was C, HBeAg was negative, and anti-HBe was positive. The HBsAg level as measured by the Abbott Architect assay was 162,000 mIU/ml. The patient was followed as an inactive HB carrier. The last time at which HBsAg was detectable by the Abbott Architect assay was 87 months after the first visit, and it became undetectable in 3 months. However, it was still detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay (78 mIU/ml). HBV DNA by Cobas TaqMan assay decreased to <2.1 log copies/ml. The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was still positive even 10 months after the Abbott Architect assay became negative. The HBsAg level measured by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was 5.8 mIU/ml at this time (Fig. 3a).

(ii) Case no. E1 was a 51-year-old male who had been infected



Duration of Abbott ARCHITECT(-) / Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ (+) [month]	Re-appearance
7	
10	
>26	
>4	(+)
>35	
>11	(+)
10	
4	
13	
10	
0	
3	
2	(+)
9	
0	(+)
12	
0	(+)
4	
0	
3	
1	
0	
0	
4	(+)
0	
1	

FIG 2 HBsAg dynamics by the Abbott Architect and Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assays in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group (a), the NA-treated group (b), and the AH group (c).

with HBV by transfusion in adulthood and had developed chronic hepatitis B. His ALT was 57 IU/liter, HBV DNA was 8.6 copies/ml by the Cobas TaqMan assay, the HBV DNA genotype was Ba, HBeAg was positive, and anti-HBe was negative. The HBsAg level as measured by the Abbott Architect assay was 4,983,730 mIU/ml. The patient was treated with entecavir. After 24 months, HBsAg became undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay, and from this point to the last observation point, the Abbott Architect assay was

TABLE 2 Clinical data of spontaneous HBsAg loss patients at the last time point at which HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay

Clinical data	Values for patient no.:									
	N1	N2[b]	N3[a,b]	N4[a,b]	N5[a,b]	N6[a,b]	N7[b]	N8	N9[b]	N10[b]
Nucleotide analogue therapy	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Age (yr)	61	54	91	50	76	63	71	62	62	65
HBeAg (+/−)	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−
Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT detection (mIU/ml)	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50
Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ detection (mIU/ml)	8.0	51.0	12.0	8.9	10.4	5	5.8	20.4	11.7	30.3
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)	Not detected	Not detected	<2.1	<2.1	2.9	2.6	<2.1	Not detected	2.7	Not detected
HBcrAg (log IU/ml)	<3	3	<3	<3	3.2	<3	<3	<3	<3	<3
Anti-HBs (mIU/ml)	<10	973.8	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10

[a] Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT assay (IU/ml) was already negative at first visit.
[b] Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was still able to detect HBsAg at the last observation time.

continuously unable to detect HBsAg. The HBsAg level as measured by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was 14.7 mIU/ml at the first point that was undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay, and it had been detectable for 3 months. After 3 months, HBsAg became undetectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay and anti-HBs reached >10 mIU/ml. From this point, anti-HBs was continually >10 mIU/ml. Interestingly, after 1 year, HBsAg measured by Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay became detectable again (25.2 mIU/ml), although HBV DNA by the Cobas TaqMan and HBsAg by the Abbott Architect assays remained undetectable. At some time points, HBsAg as determined by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was detectable, and at the same time, anti-HBs was >10 mIU/ml (Fig. 3b).

(iii) Case no. A6 was a 38-year-old male diagnosed as having acute hepatitis B. After 1 month, HBeAg became seronegative and anti-HBe became seropositive. Three months after the first visit, HBV DNA was <2.1 log copies/ml, HBsAg became undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay, anti-HBs was 22.75 IU/ml, and the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay detected HBsAg. After this time, anti-HBs was continually >10 mIU/ml. Thirteen months after the first visit, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay detected the reappearance of HBsAg (7.6 mIU/ml), although anti-HBs was still positive at 23.18 IU/ml (Fig. 3c).

DISCUSSION

The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay showed improved sensitivity after disrupting HBV particles, dissociating HBsAg from HBsAg/anti-HBs complexes, and denaturing epitopes into linear forms. A major difference between the Abbott Architect and the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assays is that the latter detects HBsAg-anti-HBs complexes as well as small S proteins, which are present 10,000 to 1,000,000 times more frequently than Dane particles. The detection limit of the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay (5 mIU/ml) was 10 times lower than that of the Abbott Architect assay, but there was otherwise a good correlation between the two. In clinical practice, more precise and broader HBsAg dynamics might therefore be followed by using the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay. Differences between the two assays in detectable HBsAg persisted for a long time in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group (median, 10 months), followed by the NA-treated group (2.5 months) and the AH group (0.5 months).

In addition to the significant decrease or loss of all HBV replication in the blood serum, the long-term outcome after HBsAg seroclearance is good if there is no preexisting cirrhosis or viral superinfection. This view is supported by studies showing increased survival, a lower rate of hepatic decompensation, and a reduced frequency of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in patients who have cleared HBsAg (14, 15). In carriers without cirrhosis and with no evidence of viral superinfection (hepatitis C virus [HCV] and/or hepatitis D virus [HDV]) at HBsAg seroclearance, liver function can improve or remain stable and hepatic decompensation rarely occurs; however, the incidence of HCC varies significantly, as was previously reported (16, 17). These discrepancies might depend on concurrent hepatitis, the severity of liver disease, age, and other factors. Yuen et al. (17) reported that HBsAg seroclearance of patients aged ≥50 years was associated with a higher risk of developing HCC than in patients of age <50 years, suggest-

TABLE 3 Clinical data of NA-treated patients at the last time point at which HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay

Clinical data	Values for patient no.:							
	L1	L2	E1	E2	E3	E4[a]	E5	E6
Nucleotide analogue therapy	LVD	LVD	ETV	ETV	ETV	ETV	ETV	ETV
Age (yr)	62	49	53	40	44	44	67	39
HBeAg (+/−)	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−
Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT detection (mIU/ml)	80[b]	<50	<50	<50	90[b]	<50	90[b]	<50
Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ detection (mIU/ml)	77.3	5	14.7	8	44.6	6.5	42.5	89
HBV DNA (log copies/ml)	<2.1	Not detected	Not detected	Not detected	3.3	2.2	<2.1	Not detected
HBcrAg (log IU/ml)	<3	3.3	4.3	4.1	3.2	<3	3.8	4.3
Anti-HBs (mIU/ml)	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10	<10

[a] The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was still able to detect HBsAg at the last observation time.
[b] HBsAg was detectable by both assays at this point, but HBsAg became undetectable at the next point.

TABLE 4 Clinical data of AH patients at the last time point at which HBsAg was detectable by Lumipulse HBsAg-HQassay

Clinical data	Values for patient no.:							
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8
Nucleotide analogue therapy	None	None	None	None	None	ETV	ETV	ETV
Age (yr)	62	34	53	50	39	39	53	54
HBeAg (+/−)	−	−	−	−	−	−	+	+
Abbott Architect HBsAg-QT detection (mIU/ml)	91,200[a]	<50	<50	240[a]	680[a]	<50	11,500[a]	<50
Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ detection (mIU/ml)	112,289.3	5.6	13.6	180.4	771.9	7.6	12,358.4	34.3
HBV DNA (copies/ml)	3.8	Not detected	2.3	2.2	3	<2.1	<2.1	<2.1
HBcrAg (log IU/ml)	6.8	4.0	5.4	4.9	3.2	3.1	3.7	4.3
Anti-HBs (mIU/ml)	<10	24.41	<10	<10	<10	23.18	<10	<10

[a] HBsAg was detectable by both assays at this point, but HBsAg became undetectable at the next point.

ing that we have to consider the age at which HBsAg becomes undetectable.

In most patients in our study (9 of 10 in the spontaneous HBsAg loss group and 7 of 8 in each of the NA-treated and AH groups), HBV DNA or HBcrAg was still detectable by the Abbott Architect assay at the time of HBsAg seroclearance (data not shown). Suzuki et al. (18) reported that HBcrAg correlates with intrahepatic covalently closed circular DNA in chronic hepatitis B patients. Hence, as the current CLEIA HBsAg quantification methods are inadequate for following some cases of HBV infection, the use of the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay together with HBcrAg and HBV DNA testing might be valuable for evaluating patient response to treatment with interferon and NAs. Additionally, we reported that the measurement of HBcrAg is useful for predicting relapse after the cessation of lamivudine therapy for chronic hepatitis B; an HBcrAg level of <3.4 log U/ml at this time was the only independent predictive factor for the absence of post-treatment relapse (19). Thus, the combination of highly sensitive HBsAg detection by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay and HBcrAg might improve the accuracy of predicting response to treatment and relapse. Highly sensitive HBsAg detection by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay might be useful for several clinical applications. First, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay might replace HBV DNA monitoring by a PCR-based method for blood screening. As shown in Tables 2 to 4, at the last time point that HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, HBV DNA was undetectable in 9 of 26 patients (34%) by the Cobas TaqMan assay. This suggests that the sensitivity of the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay for HBV detection was at least as high as that for the Cobas TaqMan assay at some time points. The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay is simpler, more convenient, and less expensive than HBV DNA quantification by real-time PCR. At present in Japan, nucleic acid testing is used for detecting HBV in blood donors, but the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay might substitute for nucleic acid testing for screening HBV if the sensitivity could be improved.

Second, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay may be useful for detecting occult HBV infection as well as HBV reactivation. Occult HBV infection is defined as infection with detectable HBV DNA but undetectable HBsAg with or without antibodies to HBV core antigen (anti-HBc) and/or anti-HBs (20–22). Recent interest in occult HBV infection has focused on the potential of donors with such infections to transmit the virus to susceptible recipients (23, 24). In this study, we detected HBsAg by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay in occult hepatitis B virus infection (OBI) patients, including those with HBsAg clearance as determined by the Architect assay (case no. N1, N3, N4, N5, N6, N7, N10, E3, E4, E5, E6, A3, A6, A8, and A9). In case no. N5, even >35 months after HBsAg became undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay, HBsAg was still detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay. The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay may change the diagnosis of patients defined as having current occult HBV infection. In case no. E1, HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay at some time points, although HBV DNA by the Cobas TaqMan assay and HBsAg by Abbott Architect assay remained undetectable. In many cases (cases N1, N2, N4, N6, N8, N10, L2, E1, E2, E3, E5, E6, A2, A4, and A6), the HBV DNA and Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ results did not correlate. Interestingly, the original highly sensitive HBsAg assay reported by Matsubara et al. (10) had a similar sensitivity with HBV DNA detection during the acute phase of HBV infection. If the sensitivity of the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay is improved, it would be sensitive enough to monitor HBV reactivation instead of needing to rely on HBV DNA monitoring. More importantly, there have been cases of HBV reactivation in patients with resolved infection (HBsAg-negative, anti-HBc, and/or anti-HBs positive) during the course of chemotherapy and/or immunotherapy (especially therapy with rituximab plus steroids), sometimes proving fatal (25–29). The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay might be more convenient for such screening than TaqMan PCR.

Third, previous CLEIA HBsAg quantification methods, including the Abbott Architect assay, apply monoclonal/polyclonal antibodies against external structural regions within the determinant "a" loop. HBsAg escape mutations, such as G130D, T131N, M133T, and G145R, were found in patients who were positive for anti-HBs but negative for HBsAg (9, 30). Oon et al. (32) reported that HBV carriers, including HCC patients who were negative for HBsAg but positive for anti-HBc and anti-HBs, had the T126S, Q129D, M133L, T140I, and G145R mutations within the S region. Wu et al. (31) reported that amino acid residues at positions 122 and 145 of HBsAg had a major effect on antigenicity and immunogenicity. HBsAg mutants can escape current detection and persist in HBV-infected individuals after the loss of HBsAg (32). In the present study, we therefore determined the HBs amino acid sequences of all cases (with detectable HBV DNA), some of which had amino acid I126N, F134Y, S143T, and G145S (not G145R) mutations. It is possible that these HBsAg mutants escape detection by current HBsAg assays and the sensitivity becomes low (33). Based on the pretreatment, however, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was able to detect HBsAg mutants because it uses two monoclonal antibodies against the external structural region as determinant "a" and the internal epitope as the capture target. Additionally, the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay can detect HBsAg from samples with anti-HBs.

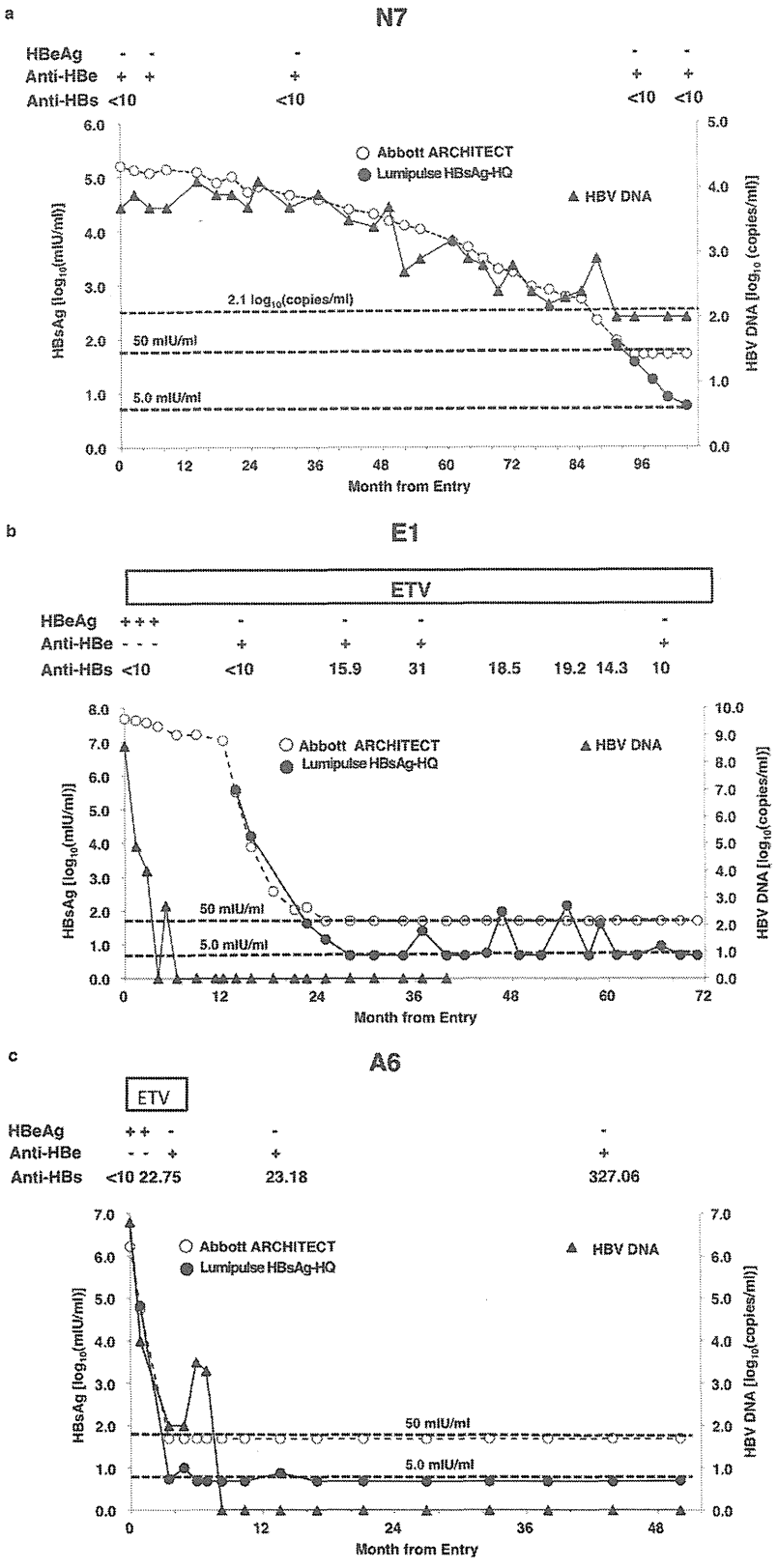


FIG 3 (a) HBsAg and HBV DNA dynamics of case no. N7. The Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ was still positive even 10 months after Abbott Architect results became negative. (b) HBsAg and HBV DNA dynamics of case no. E1. The HBsAg level as measured by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay was detectable for 3 months after HBsAg became negative by the Abbott Architect assay. After 1 year, HBsAg became detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, although HBV DNA was undetectable by the Cobas TaqMan and HBsAg was undetectable by the Abbott Architect assay. At 5 points, HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay, and the anti-HBs concentration was >10 mIU/ml. (c) HBsAg and HBV DNA dynamics of case no. A6. HBsAg was detectable by the Lumipulse HBsAg-HQ assay for 3 months after HBsAg became negative by the Abbott Architect assay.