

- 3) Taylor SL, Dean PJ, Riely CA. Primary autoimmune cholangitis. An alternative to antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Surg Pathol* 1994; 18 (1): 91—9.
- 4) Michieletti P, Wanless IR, Katz A, et al. Antimitochondrial antibody negative primary biliary cirrhosis: a distinct syndrome of autoimmune cholangitis. *Gut* 1994; 35 (2): 260—5.

4. Overlap 症候群

- 1) Klöppel G, Seifert G, Lindner H, et al. Histopathological features in mixed types of chronic aggressive hepatitis and primary biliary cirrhosis. Correlations of liver histology with mitochondrial antibodies of different specificity. *Virchows Arch A Pathol Anat Histol* 1977; 373: 143—60.
- 2) Chazouillères O, Wendum D, Serfaty L, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis-autoimmune hepatitis overlap syndrome: Clinical features and response to therapy. *Hepatology* 1998; 28 (2): 296—301.
- 3) Czaja AJ. Frequency and nature of the variant syndromes of autoimmune liver disease. *Hepatology* 1998; 28: 360—65.
- 4) Lohse AW, zum Buschenfelde KH, Franz B, et al. Characterization of the overlap syndrome of primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC) and autoimmune hepatitis: evidence for it being a hepatic form of PBC in genetically susceptible individuals. *Hepatology* 1999; 29: 1078—84.
- 5) Hennes EM, Zeniya M, Czaja AJ, et al; International Autoimmune Hepatitis Group. Simplified criteria for the diagnosis of autoimmune hepatitis. *Hepatology* 2008; 48 (1): 169—76.
- 6) Neuhauser M, Bjornsson E, Treeprasertsuk S, et al. Autoimmune hepatitis-PBC overlap syndrome: a simplified scoring system may assist in the diagnosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2010; 105 (2): 345—53.
- 7) Tanaka A, Harada K, Ebinuma H, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis - autoimmune hepatitis overlap syndrome: a rationale for corticosteroids use based on a nation-wide retrospective study in Japan. 2011; 41 (9): 877—86.

Ⅲ. 発症病理

1. 発症, 組織障害機序

- 1) Van de Water J, Turchany J, Leung PS, et al. Molecular mimicry in primary biliary cirrhosis. Evidence for biliary epithelial expression of a molecule cross-reactive with pyruvate dehydrogenase complex-E2. *J Clin Invest* 1993; 91: 2653—64.
- 2) Tsuneyama K, Van De Water J, Van Thiel D, et al. Abnormal expression of PDC-E2 on the apical surface of biliary epithelial cells in patients with antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology*. 1995; 22: 1440—6.
- 3) Shimoda S, Nakamura M, Ishibashi H, et al. HLA DRB4 0101-restricted immunodominant T cell autoepitope of pyruvate dehydrogenase complex in primary biliary cirrhosis: evidence of molecular mimicry in human autoimmune diseases. *J Exp Med* 1995; 181: 1835—1845.
- 4) Harada K, Ozaki S, Gershwin ME, et al. Enhanced apoptosis relates to bile duct loss in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1997; 26: 1399—405.
- 5) Shigematsu H, Shimoda S, Nakamura M, et al. Fine specificity of T cells reactive to human PDC-E2 163-176 peptide, the immunodominant autoantigen in primary biliary cirrhosis: implications for molecular mimicry and cross-recognition among mitochondrial autoantigens. *Hepatology* 2000; 32: 901—909.
- 6) Harada K, Tsuneyama K, Sudo Y, et al. Molecular identification of bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene in liver tissue of primary biliary cirrhosis: is *Propionibacterium acnes* involved in granuloma formation? *Hepatology*. 2001; 33: 530—6.
- 7) Kita H, Lian Z-X, Van de Water J, et al. Identification of HLA-A2-restricted CD8+ Cytotoxic T Cell Responses in Primary Biliary Cirrhosis. T cell activation is augmented by immune complexes cross-presented by dendritic cells. *J Exp Immunol* 195 (1): 113—123.

- 8) Matsumura S, Kita H, He XS, et al. Comprehensive mapping of HLA-A0201-restricted CD8 T-cell epitopes on PDC-E2 in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2002; 36: 1125—34.
- 9) Selmi C, Balkwill DL, Invernizzi P, et al. Patients with primary biliary cirrhosis react against a ubiquitous xenobiotic-metabolizing bacterium. *Hepatology* 2003; 38: 1250—7.
- 10) Shimoda S, Nakamura M, Ishibashi H, et al. Molecular mimicry of mitochondrial and nuclear autoantigens in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 2003; 124: 1915—1925.
- 11) Kikuchi K, Lian ZX, Yang GX, et al. Bacterial CpG induces hyper-IgM production in CD27 (+) memory B cells in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 2005; 128: 304—12.
- 12) Mao TK, Lian ZX, Selmi C, et al. Altered monocyte responses to defined TLR ligands in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2005; 42: 802—8.
- 13) Takii Y, Nakamura M, Ito M, et al. Enhanced expression of type I interferon and toll-like receptor-3 in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Lab Invest* 2005; 85: 908—20.
- 14) Sasaki M, Ikeda H, Yamaguchi J, et al. Telomere shortening in the damaged small bile ducts in primary biliary cirrhosis reflects ongoing cellular senescence. *Hepatology*. 2008; 48: 186—95.
- 15) Shimoda S, Miyakawa H, Nakamura M, et al. CD4 T-cell autoreactivity to the mitochondrial autoantigen PDC-E2 in AMA-negative primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Autoimmun*. 2008 Sep; 31 (2): 110—5.
- 16) Lleo A, Selmi C, Invernizzi P, et al. The consequences of apoptosis in autoimmunity. *J Autoimmun* 2008; 31: 257—262.
- 17) Lleo A, Selmi C, Invernizzi P, et al. Apoptosis and the biliary specificity of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2009; 49: 871—879.
- 18) Shimoda S, Harada K, Niino H, et al. CX3CL1 (fractalkine): a signpost for biliary inflammation in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2010; 51: 567—75.

2. 遺伝因子と環境因子

- 1) Tsuji K, Watanabe Y, Van De Water J, et al. Familial primary biliary cirrhosis in Hiroshima. *J Autoimmun*. 1999; 13 (1): 171—8.
- 2) Tanaka A, Borchers AT, Ishibashi H, Ansari AA, Keen CL, Gershwin ME. Genetic and familial considerations of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001; 96: 8—15.
- 3) Leung PS, Quan C, Park O, et al. Immunization with a xenobiotic 6-bromohexanoate bovine serum albumin conjugate induces antimitochondrial antibodies. *J Immunol*. 2003 May 15; 170 (10): 5326—32.
- 4) Selmi C, Balkwill DL, Invernizzi P, et al. Patients with primary biliary cirrhosis react against a ubiquitous xenobiotic-metabolizing bacterium. *Hepatology*. 2003 Nov; 38 (5): 1250—7.
- 5) Abdulkarim, AS, Petrovic LM, Kim WR, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis: an infectious disease caused by *Chlamydia pneumoniae*? *J Hepatol* 2004; 40: 380—4.
- 6) Sood S, Gow PJ, Christie JM, et al. Epidemiology of primary biliary cirrhosis in Victoria, Australia: high prevalence in migrant populations. *Gastroenterology*. 2004; 127: 470—5.
- 7) Selmi C, Mayo MJ, Bach N, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis in monozygotic and dizygotic twins: genetics, epigenetics, and environment. *Gastroenterology* 2004; 127: 485—92.
- 8) Invernizzi P, Miozzo M, Battezzati PM, et al. Frequency of monosomy X in women with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Lancet* 2004; 363: 533—535.
- 9) Selmi C, Invernizzi P, Zuin M, et al. Genetics and geoepidemiology of primary biliary cirrhosis: following the footprints to disease etiology. *Semin Liver Dis* 2005; 25: 265—280.
- 10) Gershwin ME, Selmi C, Worman HJ, et al. Risk factors and comorbidities in primary biliary cirrhosis: a controlled interview-based study of 1032 patients. *Hepatology* 2005; 42: 1194—202.

- 11) Ala A, Stanca CM, Bu-Ghanim M, et al. Increased prevalence of primary biliary cirrhosis near superfund toxic waste sites. *Hepatology* 2006; 43: 525—31.
- 12) Zein CO, Beatty K, Post AB, Logan L, Debanne S, McCullough AJ. Smoking and increased severity of hepatic fibrosis in primary biliary cirrhosis: A cross validated retrospective assessment. *Hepatology* 2006; 44: 1564—71.
- 13) Leung PS, Park O, Tsuneyama K, et al. Induction of primary biliary cirrhosis in guinea pigs following chemical xenobiotic immunization. *J Immunol* 2007; 179: 2651—57.
- 14) Poupon R, Ping C, Chretien Y, et al. Genetic factors of susceptibility and of severity in primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Hepatol* 2008; 49: 1038—45.
- 15) McNally RJ, Ducker S, James OF. Are transient environmental agents involved in the cause of primary biliary cirrhosis? Evidence from space-time clustering analysis. *Hepatology* 2009; 50: 1169—74.
- 16) Hirschfield GM, Liu X, Xu C, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis associated with HLA, IL12A, and IL12RB2 variants. *N Engl J Med* 2009; 360: 2544—555.
- 17) Hirschfield GM, Liu X, Han Y, et al. Variants at IRF5-TNPO3, 17q12-21 and MMEL1 are associated with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 655—57.
- 18) Liu X, Invernizzi P, Lu Y, et al. Genome-wide meta-analyses identify three loci associated with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 658—660.
- 19) Juran BD, Lazaridis KN. Update on the genetics and genomics of PBC. *J Autoimmun.* 2010 Nov; 35 (3): 181—7.
- 20) Mells GF, Floyd JAB, Morley KI, et al. Genome-wide association study identifies 12 new susceptibility loci for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Nat Genet* 43: 329—332, 2011.
- 21) Selmi C, Torok NJ, Affronti A, et al. Genomic variants associated with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Genome Medicine* 2: 5, 2010.

3. 動物モデル

- 1) Wakabayashi K, et al. IL-2 receptor alpha (—/—) mice and the development of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2006; 44: 1240—1249.
- 2) Irie J, et al. NOD.c3c4 congenic mice develop autoimmune biliary disease that serologically and pathogenetically models human primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Exp Med* 2006; 203: 1209—1219.
- 3) Oertelt S, Lian ZX, Cheng CM, et al. Anti-mitochondrial antibodies and primary biliary cirrhosis in TGF-beta receptor II dominant-negative mice. *J Immunol.* 2006 Aug 1; 177 (3): 1655—60.

4. 抗ミトコンドリア抗体, 抗 gp210 抗体

- 1) Gershwin ME, Rowley M, Davis PA, et al. Molecular biology of the 2-oxo-acid dehydrogenase complexes and anti-mitochondrial antibodies. *Prog Liver Dis* 1992; 10: 47—61.
- 2) Nishio A, Coppel R, Ishibashi H, et al. The pyruvate dehydrogenase complex as a target autoantigen in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Baillieres Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol.* 2000; 14: 535—47.
- 3) Worman HJ. Nuclear envelope protein autoantigens in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatol Res.* 2007; 37 Suppl 3: S406—11.

IV. 経過と予後予測

1. 経過

- 1) Mitchison HC, Bassendine MF, Hendrick A, et al. Positive antimitochondrial antibody but normal alkaline phosphatase: is this primary biliary cirrhosis? *Hepatology* 1986; 6: 1279—1284.
- 2) Mahl TC, Shockcor W, Boyer JL. Primary biliary cirrhosis: survival of a large cohort of symptomatic and asymptomatic patients followed for 24 years. *J Hepatol* 1994; 20: 707—13.

- 3) Metcalf JV, Mitchison HC, Palmer JM, et al. Natural history of early primary biliary cirrhosis. *Lancet* 1996; 348: 1399—402.
- 4) Mattalia A, Quaranta S, Leung PS, et al. Characterization of antimitochondrial antibodies in health adults. *Hepatology* 1998; 27: 656—661.
- 5) Springer J, Cauch-Dudek K, O'Rourke K, et al. Asymptomatic primary biliary cirrhosis: a study of its natural history and prognosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 94: 47—53, 1999.
- 6) Nakano T, Inoue K, Hirohara J, et al. Long-term prognosis of primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC) in Japan and analysis of the factors of stage progression in asymptomatic PBC (a-PBC). *Hepatol Res.* 2002; 22: 250—260.
- 7) Prince M, Chetwynd A, Newman W, et al. Survival and symptom progression in a geographically based cohort of patients with primary biliary cirrhosis: follow-up for up to 28 years. *Gastroenterology* 2002; 123: 1044—1051.
- 8) Takeshita E, Kumagi T, Matsui H, et al. Esophagogastric varices as a prognostic factor for the determination of clinical stage in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Gastroenterol.* 2003; 38 (11): 1060—5.
- 9) Lee YM, Kaplan MM. The natural history of PBC: has it changed? *Semin Liver Dis* 2005; 25 (3): 321—6.
- 10) Murata Y, Abe M, Furukawa S, et al. Clinical features of symptomatic primary biliary cirrhosis initially complicated with esophageal varices. *J Gastroenterol.* 2006; 41 (12): 1220—6.
- 11) Abe M, Onji M. Natural history of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatol Res.* 2008; 38: 639—45.
- 12) Kuiper EM, Hansen BE, de Vries RA, et al. Improved prognosis of patients with primary biliary cirrhosis that have a biochemical response to ursodeoxycholic acid. *Gastroenterology* 2009; 136: 1281—1287.

2. 肝組織の進展と発癌

- 1) Locke GR 3rd, Therneau TM, Ludwig J, et al. Time course of histological progression in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1996; 23: 52—6.
- 2) Drebber U, Mueller JJ, Klein E, et al. Liver biopsy in primary biliary cirrhosis: clinicopathological data and stage. *Pathol Int* 2009; 59: 546—54.
- 3) Jones DE, Metcalf JV, Collier JD, Bassendine MF, James OF. Hepatocellular carcinoma in primary biliary cirrhosis and its impact on outcomes. *Hepatology* 1997; 26: 1138—42.
- 4) Nijhawan PK, Therneau TM, Dickson ER, et al. Incidence of cancer in primary biliary cirrhosis: the Mayo experience. *Hepatology* 1999; 29: 1396—98.
- 5) Shibuya A, Tanaka K, Miyakawa H, et al. Hepatocellular carcinoma and survival in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2002; 35: 1172—78.
- 6) Suzuki A, Lymp J, Donlinger J, et al. Clinical predictors for hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2007; 5: 259—64.

3. 予後予測

- 1) United Network for Organ Sharing. Annual Report <http://www.unos.org/>
- 2) Dickson ER, Grambsch PM, Fleming TR, et al. Prognosis in primary biliary cirrhosis: model for decision making. *Hepatology* 1989; 10: 1—7.
- 3) Murtaugh PA, Dickson ER, Van Dam GM, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis: prediction of short-term survival based on repeated patients visits. *Hepatology* 1994; 20: 126—34.
- 4) Liermann Garcia RF, Evangelista GC, McMaster P, et al. Transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis: retrospective analysis of 400 patients in a single center. *Hepatology* 2001; 33: 22—27.
- 5) Hasegawa K, Sugawara Y, Imamura H, et al. Living donor living transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis: retrospective analysis of 50 patients in a single center. *Transplant Int* 2005; 18: 794—799.

- 6) Cholongitas, E, Marelli L, Shusang V, et al. A systemic review of the performance of the model for end-stage liver disease (MELD) in the setting of liver transplantation. *Liver transplant* 2006; 12: 1049—61.
- 7) Charatcharoenwitthaya P, Pimentel S, Talwalkar JA, et al. Long-term survival and impact of ursodeoxycholic acid treatment for recurrent primary biliary cirrhosis after liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl* 2007; 13: 1236—45.
- 8) 日本肝移植研究会. 日本肝移植研究会症例登録 (2008 年). *移植* 2009; 44: 559—571.
- 9) Montano AJ, Wasilenko S, Bintner J, et al. Cyclosporine A protects against primary biliary cirrhosis recurrence after liver transplantation. *Am J Transpl* 2010; 10: 852—58.
- 10) Ishibashi H, Komori A, Shimoda S, et al. Risk Factors and Prediction of Long-term Outcome in Primary Biliary Cirrhosis. *Intern Med* 2011; 50 (1): 1—10.

4. 自己抗体と予後

- 1) Muratori L, Granito A, Muratori P, et al. Antimitochondrial antibodies and other antibodies in primary biliary cirrhosis: diagnostic and prognostic value. *Clin Liver Dis* 2008; 12: 261—76; vii.
- 2) Yang WH, Yu JH, Nakajima A, et al. Do antinuclear antibodies in primary biliary cirrhosis patients identify increased risk for liver failure? *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2004; 2: 1116—22.
- 3) Parveen S, Morshed SA, Nishioka M. High prevalence of antibodies to recombinant CENP-B in primary biliary cirrhosis: nuclear immunofluorescence patterns and ELISA reactivities. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1995; 10: 438—45.
- 4) Itoh S, Ichida T, Yoshida T, et al. Autoantibodies against a 210 kDa glycoprotein of the nuclear pore complex as a prognostic marker in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1998; 13: 257—65.
- 5) Invernizzi P, Podda M, Battezzati PM, et al. Autoantibodies against nuclear pore complexes are associated with more active and severe liver disease in primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Hepatol* 2001; 34: 366—72.
- 6) Muratori P, Muratori L, Ferrari R, et al. Characterization and clinical impact of antinuclear antibodies in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 98: 431—7, 2003.
- 7) Miyachi K, Hankins RW, Matsushima H, et al. Profile and clinical significance of anti-nuclear envelope antibodies found in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis: a multicenter study. *J Autoimmun* 2003; 20: 247—54.
- 8) Wesierska-Gadek J, Penner E, Battezzati PM, et al. Correlation of initial autoantibody profile and clinical outcome in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2006; 43: 1135—44.
- 9) Nakamura M, Shimizu-Yoshida Y, Takii Y, et al. Antibody titer to gp210-C terminal peptide as a clinical parameter for monitoring primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Hepatol* 2005; 42: 386—92.
- 10) Nakamura M, Takii Y, Ito M, et al. Increased expression of nuclear envelope gp210 antigen in small bile ducts in primary biliary cirrhosis. *J Autoimmun* 2006; 26: 138—45.
- 11) Nakamura M, Kondo H, Mori T, et al. Anti-gp210 and anti-centromere antibodies are different risk factors for the progression of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2007; 45: 118—27.
- 12) Nakamura M, Komori A, Ito M, et al. Predictive role of anti-gp210 and anticentromere antibodies in long-term outcome of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepato Res* 2007; 37 Suppl 3: S412—9.
- 13) Nakamura M, Yasunami M, Kondo H, et al. Analysis of HLA-DRB1 polymorphisms in Japanese patients with primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC): The HLA-DRB1 polymorphism determines the relative risk of antinuclear antibodies for disease progression in PBC. *Hepato Res* 2010; 40: 494—50.

V. PBC の薬物治療

1. UDCA

- 1) 和田達郎, 神代龍吉, 谷川久一, 他. 原発性胆汁性肝硬変に対するウルソデオキシコール酸の効果, *臨牀と研究* 1987; 64 (8): 2590.

- 2) 和田達郎, 神代龍吉, 谷川久一, 原発性胆汁性肝硬変に対するウルソデオキシコール酸の長期投与による効果. TOKYO TANABE QUARTERLY 1989 ; 臨時増刊 : 39—46.
- 3) Poupon R, Chrétien Y, Poupon RE, Ballet F, Calmus Y, Darnis F. Is ursodeoxycholic acid an effective treatment for primary biliary cirrhosis? *Lancet* 1987; 1 (8537): 834—836.
- 4) Tsochatzis EA, Gurusamy KS, Gluud C, Burroughs AK. Ursodeoxycholic acid and primary biliary cirrhosis: EASL and AASLD guidelines. *J Hepatol*. 2009; 51 (6): 1084—5.
- 5) Ishibashi H, Komori A, Shimoda S, Gershwin ME. Guidelines for Therapy of Autoimmune Liver Disease. *Semin Liver Dis* 2007; 27 (2): 214—26.

UDCA Randomized control study

- 6) Poupon RE, Balkau B, Eschwège E, Poupon R. A multicenter, controlled trial of ursodiol for the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. UDCA-PBC Study Group. *N Engl J Med* 1991; 324 (22): 1548—54.
- 7) Poupon RE, Poupon R, Balkau B. Ursodiol for the long-term treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. The UDCA-PBC Study Group. *N Engl J Med* 1994; 330 (19): 1342—7.
- 8) Heathcote EJ, Cauch-Dudek K, Walker V, et al. The Canadian Multicenter Double-blind Randomized Controlled Trial of ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1994; 19 (5): 1149—56.
- 9) Lindor KD, Dickson ER, Baldus WP, et al. Ursodeoxycholic acid in the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 1994; 106 (5): 1284—90.
- 10) Combes B, Carithers RL Jr, Maddrey WC, et al. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1995; 22 (3): 759—66.
- 11) Lindor KD, Therneau TM, Jorgensen RA, et al. Effects of ursodeoxycholic acid on survival in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology*. 1996; 110 (5): 1515—8.
- 12) Kilmurry MR, Heathcote EJ, Cauch-Dudek K, et al. Is the Mayo model for predicting survival useful after the introduction of ursodeoxycholic acid treatment for primary biliary cirrhosis? *Hepatology* 1996; 23 (5): 1148—53.
- 13) Eriksson LS, Olsson R, Glauman H, et al. Ursodeoxycholic acid treatment in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. A Swedish multicentre, double-blind, randomized controlled study. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 1997; 32 (2): 179—86.
- 14) Parés A, Caballería L, Rodés J, et al. Long-term effects of ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis: results of a double-blind controlled multicentric trial. UDCA-Cooperative Group from the Spanish Association for the Study of the Liver. *J Hepatol* 2000; 32 (4): 561—6.
- 15) Papatheodoridis GV, Hadziyannis ES, Deutsch M, Hadziyannis SJ. Ursodeoxycholic acid for primary biliary cirrhosis: final results of a 12-year, prospective, randomized, controlled trial. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2002; 97 (8): 2063—70.
- 16) Combes B, Luketic VA, Peters MG, et al. Prolonged follow-up of patients in the U.S multicenter trial of ursodeoxycholic acid for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2004; 99 (2): 264—8.
- 17) Jorgensen R, Angulo P, Dickson ER, Lindor KD. Results of long-term ursodiol treatment for patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2002; 97 (10): 2647—50.
- 18) Chan CW, Gunsar F, Feudjo M, et al. Long-term ursodeoxycholic acid therapy for primary biliary cirrhosis: a follow-up to 12 years. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2005; 21 (3): 217—26.
- 19) Corpechot C, Carrat F, Bahr A, et al. The effect of ursodeoxycholic acid therapy on the natural course of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology*. 2005; 128: 297—303.
- 20) Parés A, Caballería L, Rodés J. Excellent long-term survival in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis and biochemical response to ursodeoxycholic Acid. *Gastroenterology* 2006 130 (3): 715—20.

UDCA Cohort study

- 21) van de Meeberg PC, Wolfhagen FH, Van Berge-Henegouwen GP, et al. Single or multiple dose ursodeoxycholic acid for cholestatic liver disease: biliary enrichment and biochemical response. *J Hepatol* 1996; 25 (6): 887—94.
- 22) van Hoogstraten HJ, Hansen BE, van Buuren HR, et al. Prognostic factors and long-term effects of ursodeoxycholic acid on liver biochemical parameters in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. Dutch Multi-Centre PBC Study Group. *J Hepatol* 1999; 31 (2): 256—62.
- 23) Poupon RE, Bonnand AM, Chrétien Y, Poupon R. Ten-year survival in ursodeoxycholic acid-treated patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. The UDCA-PBC Study Group. *Hepatology* 1999; 29 (6): 1668—71.
- 24) Corpechot C, Carrat F, Bahr A, et al. The effect of ursodeoxycholic acid therapy on the natural course of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology*. 2005; 128 (2): 297—303.
- 25) Parés A, Caballería L, Rodés J. Excellent long-term survival in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis and biochemical response to ursodeoxycholic acid. *Gastroenterology* 2006; 130 (3): 715—20.
- 26) ter Borg PC, Schalm SW, Hansen BE, van Buuren HR; Dutch PBC Study Group. Prognosis of ursodeoxycholic acid-treated patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. Results of a 10-yr cohort study involving 297 patients. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006; 101 (9): 2044—50.

UDCA Meta-analysis

- 27) Poupon RE, Lindor KD, Cauch-Dudek K, et al. Combined analysis of randomized controlled trials of ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology*. 1997; 113 (3): 884—90.
- 28) Goullis J, Leandro G, Burroughs AK. Randomised controlled trials of ursodeoxycholic-acid therapy for primary biliary cirrhosis: a meta-analysis. *Lancet* 1999 25; 354 (9184): 1053—60.
- 29) Gluud C, Christensen E. Ursodeoxycholic acid for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2002; (1): CD000551.
- 30) Shi J, Wu C, Lin Y, et al. Long-term effects of mid-dose ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006; 101 (7): 1529—38.
- 31) Gong Y, Huang Z, Christensen E, Gluud C. Ursodeoxycholic acid for patients with primary biliary cirrhosis: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials using Bayesian approach as sensitivity analyses. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007; 102 (8): 1799—807.

UDCA の投与量の設定

- 32) van de Meeberg PC, Wolfhagen FH, Van Berge-Henegouwen GP, et al. Single or multiple dose ursodeoxycholic acid for cholestatic liver disease: biliary enrichment and biochemical response. *J Hepatol* 1996; 25 (6): 887—94.
- 33) 戸田剛太郎, 田中直見, 池田有成, 他 : ウルソデオキシコール酸 (UR-PBC 錠) の原発性胆汁性肝硬変に対する臨床効評価—用量設定試験, *肝胆膵* 1998; 37: 443—60.
- 34) Angulo P, Dickson ER, Therneau TM, et al. Comparison of three doses of ursodeoxycholic acid in the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis: a randomized trial. *J Hepatol* 1999; 30 (5): 830—5.
- 35) Verma A, Jazrawi RP, Ahmed HA, et al. Optimum dose of ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 1999; 11 (10): 1069—76.
- 36) Angulo P, Jorgensen RA, Lindor KD. Incomplete response to ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis: is a double dosage worthwhile? *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001; 96 (11): 3152—7.

2. Bezafibrate, Fenofibrate

- 1) Nakai S, Masaki T, Kurokohchi K, et al. Combination therapy of bezafibrate and ursodeoxycholic acid in primary biliary cirrhosis: a preliminary study. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000; 95 (1): 326—7.

- 2) Kurihara T, Niimi A, Maeda A, et al. Bezafibrate in the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis: comparison with ursodeoxycholic acid. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2000; 95 (10): 2990—2.
- 3) Miyaguchi S, Ebinuma H, Imaeda H, et al. A novel treatment for refractory primary biliary cirrhosis? *Hepatogastroenterology* 2000; 47 (36): 1518—21.
- 4) Ohmoto K, Mitsui Y, Yamamoto S. Effect of bezafibrate in primary biliary cirrhosis: a pilot study. *Liver*. 2001; 21 (3): 223—4.
- 5) Itakura J, Izumi N, Nishimura Y, et al. Prospective randomized crossover trial of combination therapy with bezafibrate and UDCA for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatol Res* 2004; 29 (4): 216—22.
- 6) Iwasaki S, Ohira H, Nishiguchi S, et al; Study Group of Intractable Liver Diseases for Research on a Specific Disease, Health Science Research Grant, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan. The efficacy of ursodeoxycholic acid and bezafibrate combination therapy for primary biliary cirrhosis: A prospective, multicenter study. *Hepatol Res* 2008; 38 (6): 557—64.
- 7) Ohira H, Sato Y, Ueno T, Sata M. Fenofibrate treatment in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2002; 97 (8): 2147—9.
- 8) Dohmen K, Mizuta T, Nakamuta M, et al. Fenofibrate for patients with asymptomatic primary biliary cirrhosis. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2004; 10 (6): 894—8.

3. その他の薬物

- 1) Neuberger J, Christensen E, Portmann B, et al. Double blind controlled trial of d-penicillamine in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gut* 1985; 26 (2): 114—9.
- 2) Dickson ER, Fleming TR, Wiesner RH, et al. Trial of penicillamine in advanced primary biliary cirrhosis. *N Engl J Med* 1985 18; 312 (16): 1011—5.
- 3) Christensen E, Neuberger J, Crowe J, et al. Beneficial effect of azathioprine and prediction of prognosis in primary biliary cirrhosis. Final results of an international trial. *Gastroenterology* 1985; 89 (5): 1084—91.
- 4) Hoofnagle JH, Davis GL, Schafer DF, P et al. Randomized trial of chlorambucil for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 1986; 91 (6): 1327—34.
- 5) Kaplan MM, Alling DW, Zimmerman HJ, et al. A prospective trial of colchicine for primary biliary cirrhosis. *N Engl J Med* 1986; 315 (23): 1448—54.
- 6) Wiesner RH, Ludwig J, Lindor KD, et al. A controlled trial of cyclosporine in the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. *N Engl J Med* 1990; 322 (20): 1419—24.
- 7) Mitchison HC, Palmer JM, Bassendine MF, et al. A controlled trial of prednisolone treatment in primary biliary cirrhosis. Three-year results. *J Hepatol* 1992; 15 (3): 336—44.
- 8) Lombard M, Portmann B, Neuberger J, et al. Cyclosporin A treatment in primary biliary cirrhosis: results of a long-term placebo controlled trial. *Gastroenterology*. 1993; 104 (2): 519—26.
- 9) Wolfhagen FH, van Hoogstraten HJ, van Buuren HR, et al. Triple therapy with ursodeoxycholic acid, prednisone and azathioprine in primary biliary cirrhosis: a 1-year randomized, placebo-controlled study. *J Hepatol* 1998; 29(5): 736—42.
- 10) Hendrickse MT, Rigney E, Gjaffer MH, et al. Low-dose methotrexate is ineffective in primary biliary cirrhosis: long-term results of a placebo-controlled trial. *Gastroenterology* 1999; 117 (2): 400—7.
- 11) Battezzati PM, Zuin M, Crosignani A, et al. Ten-year combination treatment with colchicine and ursodeoxycholic acid for primary biliary cirrhosis: a double-blind, placebo-controlled trial on symptomatic patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2001; 15 (9): 1427—34.
- 12) Gong Y, Glud C. Colchicine for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004; (2): CD004481.

- 13) Rautiainen H, Kärkkäinen P, Karvonen AL, et al. Budesonide combined with UDCA to improve liver histology in primary biliary cirrhosis: a three-year randomized trial. *Hepatology* 2005; 41 (4): 747—52.
- 14) Talwalkar JA, Angulo P, Keach JC, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil for the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis in patients with an incomplete response to ursodeoxycholic acid. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2005; 39 (2): 168—71.
- 15) Combes B, Emerson SS, Flye NL, et al. Methotrexate (MTX) plus ursodeoxycholic acid (UDCA) in the treatment of primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 2005; 42 (5): 1184—93.

4. Overlap 症候群の治療

- 1) Chazouillères O, Wendum D, Serfaty L, et al. Long term outcome and response to therapy of primary biliary cirrhosis-autoimmune hepatitis overlap syndrome. *J Hepatol* 2006; 44 (2): 400—6.

VI. 合併症の薬物治療

1. 皮膚掻痒症

- 1) Van Itallie TB, Hashim SA, Crampton RS, et al. The treatment of pruritus and hypercholesteremia of primary biliary cirrhosis with cholestyramine. *N Engl J Med* 1961; 265: 469—74.
- 2) Datta DV, Sherlock S. Cholestyramine for long term relief of the pruritus complicating intrahepatic cholestasis. *Gastroenterology* 1966; 50: 323—32.
- 3) Khurana S, Singh P. Rifampin is safe for the treatment of pruritus due to chronic cholestasis: a meta-analysis of prospective randomized-controlled trial. *Liver Int* 2006; 26: 943—8.
- 4) Tandon P, Rowe BH, Vandermeer B, et al. The efficacy and safety of bile acid binding agent, opioid antagonists or rifampicin in the treatment of cholestasis-associated pruritus. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007; 102: 1528—36.
- 5) Rische E, Azarm A, Bergasa NV. Itch in primary biliary cirrhosis: a patients' perspective. *Acta Derm Venereol.* 2008; 88 (1): 34—7.

2. 骨粗鬆症

- 1) 骨粗鬆症の予防と診療ガイドライン 2006 年版 骨粗鬆症の予防と治療ガイドライン作成委員会 ライフサイエンス出版
- 2) Collier JD, Ninkovic M, Compston JE. Guidelines on the management of osteoporosis associated with chronic liver disease. *Gut* 2002; 50: i1-i9.
- 3) Guañabens N, Perés A, Ros I, et al. Alendronate is more effective than etidronate for increasing bone mass in osteopenic patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2003; 98: 2268—74.
- 4) Zein CO, Jorgensen RA, Clarke B, et al. Alendronate improves bone mineral density in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis: randomized placebo-controlled trial. *Gastroenterology* 2004; 126: A671.
- 5) Guañabens N, Cerdá D, Monegal A, et al. Low bone mass and severity of cholestasis affect fracture risk in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 2010; 138 (7): 2348—56.

3. 乾燥症候群

- 1) Mavragani CP, Moutsopoulos HM. Conventional therapy of Sjögren Syndrome. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol* 2007; 32: 284—91.

VII. 肝移植

- 1) 小幡 裕, 橋本悦子. 原発性胆汁性肝硬変における肝移植の適応. In: 市田文弘, ed. 肝移植適応基準: 国際医書出版 1991; 13—25.
- 2) 日本肝移植研究会. 日本肝移植研究会症例登録 (2008 年). 移植 2009; 44: 559—71.

- 3) UNOS. Annual Report. <http://www.unos.org>
- 4) Murray KF, Carithers RL Jr, AASLD. AASLD practice guidelines: Evaluation of the patient for liver transplantation. *Hepatology*. 2005 Jun; 41 (6): 1407—32.
- 5) Markus BH, Dickson E, Grambsch P, et al. Efficacy of liver transplantation in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. *N Engl J Med* 1989; 320: 1709.
- 6) Eastell R, Dickson ER, Hodgson SF, et al. Rates of vertebral bone loss before and after liver transplantation in women with primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1991; 14: 296—300.
- 7) Murtaugh PA, Dickson ER, Van Dam GM, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis: prediction of short-term survival based on repeated patient visits. *Hepatology* 1994; 20: 126—34.
- 8) Kim WR, Wiesner RH, Therneau TM, et al. Optimal timing of liver transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Hepatology* 1998; 28: 33—8.
- 9) Wiesner RH. Liver transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis and primary sclerosing cholangitis: predicting outcomes with natural history models. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1998; 73: 575—88.
- 10) Rust C, Rau H, Gerbes AL, et al. Liver transplantation in primary biliary cirrhosis: risk assessment and 11-year follow-up. *Digestion* 2000; 62: 38—43.
- 11) Lazaridis KN, Lindor KD. Management of primary biliary cirrhosis: from diagnosis to end-stage disease. *Curr Gastroenterol Rep* 2000; 2: 94—8.
- 12) Angulo P, Dickson ER. The timing of liver transplantation in primary biliary cirrhosis. *Baillieres Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol* 2000; 14: 657—68.
- 13) Liermann Garcia RF, Evangelista Garcia C, McMaster P, Neuberger J. Transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis: retrospective analysis of 400 patients in a single center. *Hepatology* 2001; 33: 22—7.
- 14) Hasegawa K, Sugawara Y, Imamura H, et al. Living donor liver transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis retrospective analysis of 50 patients in a single center. *Transpl Int* 2005; 18: 794—99.
- 15) Cholongitas E, Marelli L, Shusang V, et al. A systematic review of the performance of the model for end-stage liver disease (MELD) in the setting of liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl* 2006 Jul; 12: 1049—1061.
- 16) Morioka D, Egawa H, Kasahara M, et al. Impact of human leukocyte antigen mismatching on outcomes of living donor liver transplantation for primary biliary cirrhosis. *Liver Transpl* 2007; 13: 80—90.
- 17) Charatcharoenwitthaya P, Pimentel S, Talwalkar JA, et al. Long-term survival and impact of ursodeoxycholic acid treatment for recurrent primary biliary cirrhosis after liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl* 2007; 13: 1236—45.
- 18) Jacob DA, Bahra M, Schmidt SC, et al. Mayo risk score for primary biliary cirrhosis: a useful tool for the prediction of course after liver transplantation? *Ann Transplant* 2008; 13: 35—42.
- 19) Schreuder TC, Hubscher SG, Neuberger J. Autoimmune liver diseases and recurrence after orthotopic liver transplantation: what have we learned so far? *Transpl Int* 2009; 22: 144—52.
- 20) Montano-Loza AJ, Wasilenko S, Bintner J, Mason AL. Cyclosporine A protects against primary biliary cirrhosis recurrence after liver transplantation. *Am J Transplan* 2010; 10: 852—8.

Clinical Guideline of Primary Biliary Cirrhosis 2012

The Intractable Hepato-Biliary Disease Study Group supported by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan

Key words: primary biliary cirrhosis PBC guideline diagnosis treatment

Kanzo 2012; 53: 633—686

The Working Group for Clinical Guideline of Primary Biliary Cirrhosis

Hiromi Ishibashi^{1)2)***}, Yasuni Nakanuma^{3)***}, Yoshiyuki Ueno⁴⁾, Hiroto Egawa⁵⁾, Kazuhiko Koike⁶⁾, Atsumasa Komori²⁾, Shotaro Sakisaka⁷⁾, Shinji Shimoda⁸⁾, Ken Shirabe⁹⁾, Mikio Zeniya⁶⁾, Yuji Soejima⁹⁾, Yasuaki Takeyama⁷⁾, Atsushi Tanaka¹⁰⁾, Makoto Nakamura¹¹⁾, Minoru Nakamura²⁾¹²⁾, Kenichi Harada³⁾, Nobuyoshi Fukushima¹¹⁾, Yoshihiko Maehara⁹⁾, Toshio Morizane¹³⁾, Hirohito Tsubouchi^{14)****}

- 1) International University of Health and Welfare/Fukuoka Sanno Hospital, Fukuoka, Japan
- 2) Clinical Research Center, National Hospital Organization Nagasaki Medical Center, Omura, Japan
- 3) Department of Pathology, Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medicine, Kanazawa, Japan
- 4) Department of Gastroenterology, Yamagata University Faculty of Medicine, Yamagata, Japan
- 5) Department of Surgery, Institute of Gastroenterology, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo, Japan
- 6) Gastroenterology, Jikei University Graduate School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan
- 7) Department of Medicine and Gastroenterology Fukuoka University Faculty of Medicine, Fukuoka, Japan
- 8) Medicine and Biosystemic Science, Kyushu University Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Fukuoka, Japan
- 9) Department of Surgery and Science, Kyushu University, Fukuoka, Japan
- 10) Department of Medicine, Teikyo University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan
- 11) Department of Gastroenterology, National Hospital Organization Kyushu Medical Center, Fukuoka, Japan
- 12) Department of Hepatology, Nagasaki University Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki, Japan
- 13) Japan Council for Quality Health Care
- 14) Digestive Disease and Life-style Related Disease, Kagoshima University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Kagoshima, Japan

*Corresponding author: hiishibashi-gi@umin.ac.jp

**Chairman of the Working Group

***Chairman of the Subcommittee Meeting of PBC

****Chairman of the Intractable Hepato-Biliary Disease Study Group

© 2012 The Japan Society of Hepatology

Predicting Operational Tolerance in Pediatric Living-Donor Liver Transplantation by Absence of HLA Antibodies

Kayo Waki,^{1,10} Yasuhiko Sugawara,² Koichi Mizuta,³ Michiko Taniguchi,⁴ Miyuki Ozawa,⁴ Masaru Hirata,⁵ Masumi Nozawa,⁶ Junichi Kaneko,² Koki Takahashi,⁷ Takashi Kadowaki,⁸ Paul I. Terasaki,⁹ and Norihiro Kokudo²



Background. The role of anti-human leukocyte antigen (HLA) antibodies in operational tolerance (OT) after pediatric living-donor liver transplantation (LDLT) remains inconclusive. We investigated whether the presence of HLA antibodies impeded the development of OT.

Methods. We retrospectively examined the prevalence of anti-HLA antibodies in pediatric LDLT recipients before transplantation and at 3 weeks after transplantation and analyzed the significance of those antibodies in relation to later OT. Forty pediatric LDLTs were performed between April 1996 and December 2000 and followed up through July 2011, with sera available for measurement of HLA antibodies. Seventeen patients achieved OT (mean follow-up, 4571.9±544.7 days) and 23 patients did not achieve OT (mean follow-up, 4532.0±425.4 days). Protocol liver biopsy was done for 14 OT patients and 16 non-OT patients. Their sera were tested for anti-HLA class I and II antibodies using the LABScreen single antigen beads test, in which a 1000 mean fluorescence value was considered positive.

Results. The prevalence of antibodies after transplantation in non-OT patients was higher than in OT patients (95.2% vs. 73.3%; $P < 0.001$). The highest mean fluorescence intensity of antibodies was significantly higher in non-OT patients than in OT patients. The prevalence of HLA-B, HLA-C, HLA-DQ, and HLA-DR antibodies was significantly higher in non-OT patients than in OT patients. The highest mean fluorescence intensity of HLA-A, HLA-B, and HLA-DQ observed in non-OT patients was significantly higher than those in OT patients.

Conclusions. In our study, posttransplantation HLA antibodies were associated with the future absence of OT. A prospective study with more patients is necessary to confirm the predictive value of HLA antibodies for OT.

Keywords: Operational tolerance, Human leukocyte antigen antibodies, Pediatric, Living-donor liver transplantation.

(*Transplantation* 2013;95: 177–183)

Despite continued improvements in controlling rejection by immunosuppressive drugs, their serious side effects persist, including increased risk of infection, diabetes, renal dysfunction, and malignancy. Thus, the posttransplantation attainment of operational tolerance (OT) is highly desirable, with OT defined as prolonged survival of a transplanted

organ without immunosuppression and without graft rejection, a state especially desirable for pediatric patients (1, 2). Unfortunately, although immunomodulatory strategies efficiently induce tolerance in animal models (3–9), reaching OT is difficult after clinical organ transplantation in general. The liver, however, is believed to have immunomodulatory

This study was funded by the Paul I. Terasaki Foundation Laboratory. Miyuki Ozawa and Michiko Taniguchi are One Lambda employees. Paul I. Terasaki is One Lambda chairman and the major shareholder.

The other authors declare no conflicts of interest.

¹ Department of Ubiquitous Health Informatics, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.

² Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.

³ Department of Transplant Surgery, Jichi Medical University Hospital, Tochigi, Japan.

⁴ One Lambda, Inc., Los Angeles, CA.

⁵ Department of Surgery, JR Tokyo General Hospital, Tokyo, Japan.

⁶ Department of Surgery, Meikai University, Chiba, Japan.

⁷ Department of Blood Transfusion, The University of Tokyo Hospital, Tokyo, Japan.

⁸ Department of Diabetes and Metabolic Diseases, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.

⁹ Terasaki Foundation Laboratory, Los Angeles, CA.

¹⁰ Address correspondence to: Kayo Waki, M.D., M.P.H., Ph.D., Department of Ubiquitous Health Informatics, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8655, Japan.

E-mail: kwaki-ty@umin.ac.jp

K.W., M.T., M.O., and P.I.T. participated in the research design and data analysis. K.W. and M.T. participated in the writing of the article. K.W., Y.S., K.M., M.O., M.T., and M.H. participated in the research. M.N., J. K., K.T., T.K., and N.K. contributed to the discussion and reviewed the article.

Received 8 August 2012. Revision requested 23 August 2012.

Accepted 8 October 2012.

Copyright © 2013 by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins

ISSN: 0041-1337/13/9501-177

DOI: 10.1097/TP.0b013e3182782fef

TABLE 1. Characteristics of LDLT recipients

	OT	Non-OT	P
No. transplants (%)	17 (42.5)	23 (57.5)	
Recipient			
Mean age, yr	2.2±2.7	4.3±4.6	NS
Male (%)	11.8	52.2	0.008
Primary disease, biliary atresia (%)	94.1	87.0	NS
Donor			
Mean age, yr	33.3±7.4	35.9±8.0	NS
Male (%)	47.1	43.5	NS
Blood parent (%)	94.1	86.9	NS
Transplant factor			
PELD score	15.0±7.5	14.3±10.9	NS
Cold ischemia time, min	55.8±14.4	48.6±23.6	NS
Warm ischemia time, min	43.6±9.4	52.5±25.1	NS
AR (%)	33.3	50.0	NS
No. HLA mismatches	2.2±1.0	2.3±1.0	NS
Positive crossmatch (%)	5.9	8.7	NS
Time from LDLT, days	4571.9±544.7	4532.0±425.4	NS

AR, acute rejection; HLA, human leukocyte antigen; LDLT, living-donor liver transplantation; NS, not significant; OT, operational tolerance; PELD, pediatric end-stage liver disease.

properties, and there is growing evidence that OT can be achieved in a proportion of liver transplant recipients (10–13) significantly higher than that usually seen in recipients of other types of solid organ transplantation, perhaps as high as 20% (14).

Plainly, any factors that might impede the development of OT, especially in pediatric liver transplantation, should be identified so they can be dealt with clinically. Our study found that antibodies specific to human leukocyte antigen (HLA) constitute just such potentially deleterious factors.

We focused on these antibodies because other factors that may impede OT are uncertain; the mechanisms involved in developing and maintaining OT have not been sufficiently elucidated. Several mechanisms have been proposed, including production of donor-strain soluble MHC antigen by the transplanted liver, induction of donor-derived microchimerism by stem cells transferred with the graft, mass effect attributed to passenger leukocytes from the donor, and elevated incidence of circulating regulatory T cells (Tregs). Nevertheless, it is not yet clear why OT occurs, which recipients stand the best chance of developing OT, when it will develop, or what strategies are best to help achieve and monitor OT (2, 10, 15–23).

The role of HLA-specific antibodies in liver transplantation remains similarly unclear. Nevertheless, some studies strongly indicate their negative impact on graft survival. Several of these studies retrospectively demonstrated an increased rate of graft loss in patients with preformed HLA-specific antibodies or de novo antibodies developed within the first year after transplantation (24–27). Another analysis showed the association between HLA-specific antibodies and early acute rejection (AR) during the first month after liver

transplantation (28). Recent retrospective studies showed the association between HLA-specific antibodies and chronic rejection (CR) (29, 30). In one of these studies, 92% of the patients who experienced CR had detectable HLA-specific antibodies before that CR induced graft loss, whereas only 61% of the non-CR patients had such antibodies (30). The same group recently reported a successful treatment of antibody-mediated rejection in liver transplant recipients by using bortezomib (31). Finally, it was reported that preformed class I donor-specific HLA antibodies markedly decreased graft survival after liver retransplantation (32).

Furthermore, reports have linked OT with the HLA-specific antibodies associated with graft failure (13, 33). Patients with high concentrations of circulating HLA-specific antibodies had a higher incidence of steroid-resistant rejection than did patients with low concentrations (26). In a retrospective analysis, patients successfully weaned from immunosuppression were negative for HLA-specific antibodies (33). Still, no study had examined the possible negative impact on achieving liver allograft OT of the different HLA-specific antibodies (HLA-A, HLA-B, HLA-C, HLA-DR, HLA-DQ, and HLA-DP), nor had any study addressed the significance of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) combined with these antibodies.

Therefore, we investigated whether, retrospectively, in 40 pediatric living-donor liver transplantation (LDLT) recipients, the presence of HLA-specific antibodies impeded OT development and, conversely, whether the absence of HLA-specific antibodies predicted OT.

RESULTS

Table 1 summarizes the characteristics of both OT and non-OT patients. Most factors were similar between the groups. OT patients were more likely to be female than were non-OT patients (88.2% vs. 47.8%; $P=0.008$). Although not statistically significant, OT patients had a lower AR rate than non-OT patients (33.3% vs. 50.0%).

Table 2 shows the pretransplantation and posttransplantation HLA-specific antibody profile for OT and non-OT patients. The prevalence of pretransplantation HLA antibodies was high in both groups and slightly higher in non-OT than in OT patients, although the difference was

TABLE 2. Prevalence of HLA-specific antibodies

	OT	Non-OT	P
Pre-LT, n	16	19	
Class I only, n (%)	8 (50.0)	6 (31.6)	0.056
Class II only, n (%)	2 (12.5)	0 (0.0)	
Class I and II, n (%)	2 (12.5)	10 (52.6)	
None	4 (25.0)	3 (15.8)	
Post-LT, n	15	21	
Class I only, n (%)	7 (46.7)	6 (28.6)	<0.001
Class II only, n (%)	4 (26.7)	0 (0.0)	
Class I and II, n (%)	0 (0.0)	14 (66.7)	
None	4 (26.7)	1 (4.8)	

HLA, human leukocyte antigen; LT, liver transplantation; OT, operational tolerance.

not statistically significant. However, after transplantation, a significantly higher percentage of non-OT patients had antibodies: 95.2% versus 73.3% OT patients ($P<0.001$). More than half of the non-OT patients had both class I and II antibodies before transplantation, and two thirds had both classes after transplantation, whereas the percentage of OT patients who had both classes was much lower before transplantation (12.5% vs. 52.6%) and even lower after transplantation (0.0% vs. 66.7%). Almost none of the HLA antibodies detected both before and after transplantation were donor specific. Indeed, only two OT patients had detectable donor-specific antibodies (DSA) before transplantation. Similarly, after transplantation, DSA were detected in no OT patients and in only three non-OT patients.

Because many non-OT patients had more than one anti-HLA antibody (class I or II), we assessed the highest MFI. Figure 1 shows the highest log-transformed MFI for each patient in the OT and non-OT groups, with the values compared. The highest log-transformed MFI of both class I and II antibodies was significantly higher after transplantation in non-OT patients than in OT patients; however, before transplantation, the highest log-transformed MFI did not significantly differ between class I and II antibodies.

Table 3 shows that the prevalence of HLA-B, HLA-C, HLA-DQ, and HLA-DR antibodies was significantly higher in non-OT patients than in OT patients (66.7% vs. 20.0%

TABLE 3. HLA antibody and specificities

	OT (n=15)	Non-OT (n=21)	P
Post-LT class I, n (%)	7 (46.7)	20 (95.2)	0.001
HLA-A, n (%)	3 (20.0)	9 (42.9)	NS
HLA-B, n (%)	3 (20.0)	14 (66.7)	0.006
HLA-C, n (%)	5 (33.3)	16 (76.2)	0.01
Post-LT class II, n (%)	4 (26.7)	14 (66.7)	0.018
HLA-DQ, n (%)	1 (6.7)	9 (42.9)	0.017
HLA-DP, n (%)	1 (6.7)	1 (4.8)	NS
HLA-DR, n (%)	3 (20.0)	12 (57.1)	0.026

HLA, human leukocyte antigen; LT, liver transplantation; NS, not significant; OT, operational tolerance.

for HLA-B, $P=0.006$; 76.2% vs. 33.3%, $P=0.01$; 42.9% vs. 6.7%, $P=0.017$; and 57.1% vs. 20.0%, $P=0.026$, respectively). Because HLA antibody MFI appears relevant, the highest log-transformed MFI of each antibody was compared. With HLA-A, it was significantly higher for non-OT patients than in OT patients (7.05 ± 1.09 vs. 6.08 ± 1.03 ; $P=0.0067$); the same applied to HLA-B (7.31 ± 1.11 vs. 6.15 ± 0.81 ; $P=0.0014$), HLA-DQ (6.92 ± 1.32 vs. 5.95 ± 0.63 ; $P=0.0023$), and HLA-DR ($22,244.3\pm 76,143.5$ vs. 1112.5 ± 3160.4 ; $P=0.043$).

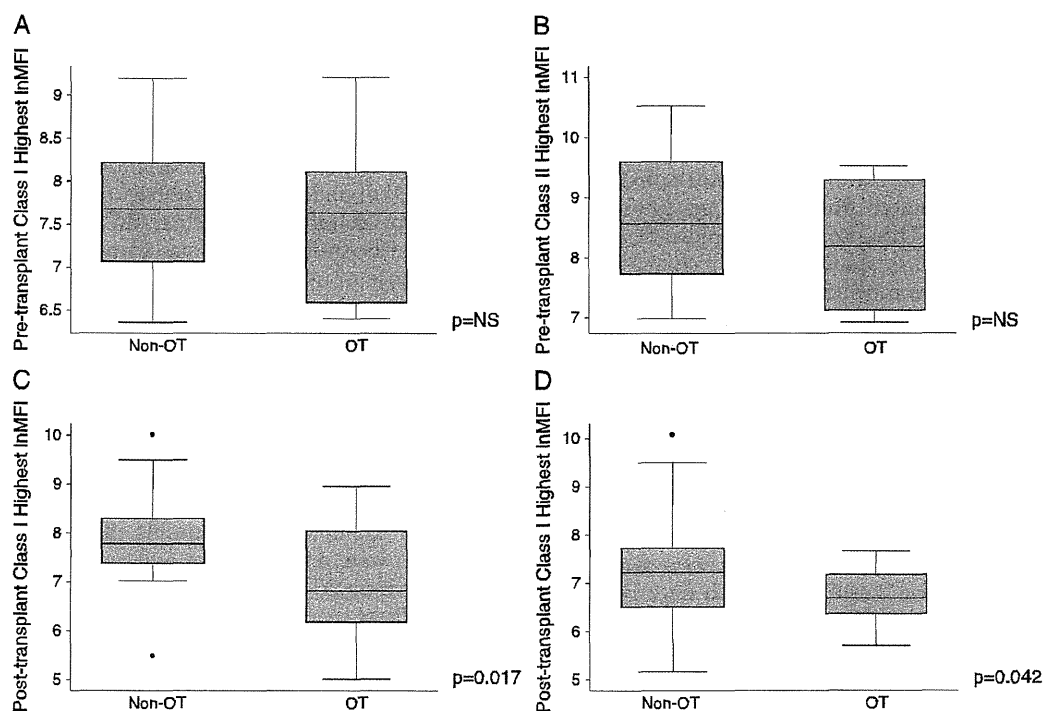


FIGURE 1. Highest log-transformed MFI for each patient in the OT and non-OT groups. A, highest log-transformed MFI HLA antibodies for pretransplant HLA class I antibodies (mean highest log-transformed MFI, OT 7.48 ± 0.87 vs. non-OT 7.70 ± 0.80). B, highest log-transformed MFI for pretransplant HLA class II antibodies (mean highest log-transformed MFI, OT 8.20 ± 1.28 vs. non-OT 8.68 ± 1.28). C, highest log-transformed MFI for posttransplant HLA class I antibodies (mean highest log-transformed MFI, OT 6.98 ± 1.14 vs. non-OT 7.85 ± 0.94). D, highest log-transformed MFI for posttransplant HLA class II antibodies (mean highest log-transformed MFI, OT 6.70 ± 0.55 vs. non-OT 7.43 ± 1.24). MFI, mean fluorescence intensity; OT, operational tolerance.

DISCUSSION

An increasing body of evidence has highlighted the significant impact of HLA antibodies in liver transplantation, but the importance of HLA antibodies of all specificities has not been well described. We believe that this is the first study to examine the association of the presence or absence of early posttransplantation HLA class I and II antibodies with OT development by evaluating and comparing MFI values, especially HLA-B and HLA-DQ antibodies at their highest MFI values.

Because our study involved very young patients, the level of HLA-specific antibodies was much higher than expected (95.2% non-OT and 73.3% OT). These levels were close to those reported in adults (13, 30). This phenomenon was likely due to preoperative and perioperative use of blood products and the antigen-antibody reaction the liver graft caused, impelling us to evaluate the differences of the specificities and their MFI values between OT and non-OT patients.

Surprisingly few of our patients had DSA; almost all HLA antibodies were non-DSA. This is partially because preoperative HLA typing for our cohort's donors and recipients was done only for the A, B, and DR loci, so it could not be determined whether HLA-DQ antibodies, present in nearly half our recipients, were DSA or non-DSA. A portion of those HLA-DQ antibodies was likely DSA, which would increase the cohort's overall DSA level. Although the evidence is limited for liver transplantation, previous kidney transplantation studies showed that both DSA and non-DSA were detected and that both were associated with rejection and lower graft survival (34–36). This suggests that non-DSA in liver transplantation could be associated with rejection, which would account for the higher prevalence of non-DSA in our non-OT group. In addition, a kidney transplantation study reported that the majority of non-DSA detected in recipients resulted from sharing an epitope with a donor antigen (37). This also may be applicable to liver transplantation. Non-DSA resulting from a shared epitope could cause graft rejection, which could impede OT.

Although, in previous studies, AR was one of the factors with negative impact on immunosuppression withdrawal after liver transplantation, we found that AR did not significantly differ between OT and non-OT patients (38, 39). This difference may be due to recipient ages and primary liver diseases. One of the previous studies involved adult patients with various primary diseases; our cohort had a mean age of 2.4 ± 2.8 and mostly biliary atresia. The other study showed no difference in gender composition; in our study, approximately 90% of OT patients were female. In another study, a positive T-cell crossmatch negatively impacted graft survival free of AR, although AR, per se, did not significantly influence overall patient or graft survival (40). Thus, the effect of recipient age and the underlying liver diseases on the graft's antigenic stimulus may result in different consequences. The relatively small sample size of our study may also explain the insignificant difference in AR between OT and non-OT patients.

The mechanism of OT and rejection (i.e., direct hepatocyte injury or vascular injury mediated by antibody binding to hepatic sinusoidal endothelial cells) has not been elucidated. Although hepatic sinusoidal endothelial cells express both MHC class I and II molecules, hepatocytes and

biliary epithelial cells express only MHC class I molecules, so they can act as antigen-presenting cells only for MHC class I-restricted T cells (32, 41, 42), nor do those cells express MHC class II molecules constitutively, and MHC class II molecules become up-regulated after inflammation. This parallels the study showing that class I DSA is more detrimental to early graft function, and that preformed persistent and de novo class II DSA [is] are more associated with CR (30). Early graft injury caused by class I antibodies may trigger up-regulation of class II molecules after release of proinflammatory cytokines, perhaps resulting in chronic damage to the liver graft and consequent absence of OT.

Our cohort's unexpectedly high prevalence of HLA antibodies, together with a previous report, make it unsurprising to find HLA antibodies in patients with well functioning and tolerated grafts (30). However, we found the significantly highest MFI values for each antibody in non-OT patients, and only when those MFI values reached high titers were they associated with liver damage, although our study's 1000 MFI cutoff may not be ideal for considering antibodies in OT positive or negative. We cannot rule out possible progression of pathologic changes, which could not be detected by liver chemistry test. Further studies should clarify the association between MFI values and OT.

Our results suggest that HLA-B and HLA-DQ antibodies may impede OT more than HLA-A, HLA-C, HLA-DP, and HLA-DR. Although data are limited, recent kidney transplantation studies showed that HLA-DQ antibodies were the most common type detected after kidney transplantation and may contribute to inferior survival (43, 44). The detrimental effects of HLA-DQ antibodies are not limited to kidney transplantation. Class II antibodies (especially HLA-DQ) are reportedly associated with graft failure in cardiac, lung, and liver transplantation (45–47). Further studies are needed to understand the impact of HLA-DQ antibodies on OT; for example, one such study would be HLA typing for HLA-DQ antibodies and association between them and the presence of other HLA antibodies such as HLA-B and DR in relation to OT.

Other factors in addition to HLA antibodies are also involved in achieving tolerance. Non-HLA antibodies, such as anti-angiotensin type 1 receptor antibodies and other autoantibodies, might help induce graft rejection. Recently, several autoantibodies were reported to be associated with graft dysfunction (48, 49). Furthermore, specific antibody characteristics other than MFI threshold may affect tolerance. For example, donor-specific HLA antibodies of IgG subclasses were reported to be associated with CR and graft loss after liver OT (50). Other immunomodulatory factors, such as Tregs specific to donor antigens, may have played a critical role in the induction and maintenance of OT in our cohort. A possible association between HLA-A matches and the predominance of Tregs after liver OT has been reported (39), with possible linkage between HLA antibodies and Tregs suggested. They may, together, influence OT.

Our study's limitations stem from its retrospective nature. Because HLA typing of Cw and DG loci were unavailable for the cohort, DSA analysis was not fully performed. The effects on tolerance and rejection of the timing and duration of exposure to DSA and non-DSA cannot be evaluated. The frequent collection of sera samples is

necessary to determine the precise time of antibody exposure; some antibodies could be transient with no definite impact on tolerance, particularly OT, which may be dynamic (13). For example, we examined the association between early posttransplantation HLA antibodies and OT; however, later posttransplantation HLA antibodies (e.g., during immunosuppression weaning and when graft function stabilized with low-dose immunosuppression) along with early posttransplantation HLA antibodies may be more meaningful in determining the association between HLA antibodies and OT. Furthermore, we had to depend on liver chemistry tests—with no protocol liver biopsy (PLB) for 10 patients. The relevant Banff Working Group strongly recommends PLB of patients for whom immunosuppression withdrawal is planned and for patients under and after weaning (51). Our cohort had completed weaning before the recommendation was published so misclassification of OT and non-OT could have occurred in our study. Finally, we could not evaluate HLA antibodies by graft function at 3 weeks after transplantation due to the small sample size of the study. At the time of HLA antibody measurement, nine patients had developed AR, which could affect the presence of HLA antibodies and the development of OT.

In summary, in our study, posttransplantation HLA class I and II antibodies were associated with the future absence of OT. Specifically, the level of HLA-B and HLA-DQ antibodies was lower in OT patients than in non-OT patients. We also found that the highest MFI of antibodies in OT patients was significantly lower than in non-OT patients. Further study is needed to confirm our findings that anti-HLA antibodies are associated with impeding OT and to identify threshold levels and characteristics of HLA antibody specificities in relation to the development or absence of OT.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Population

We retrospectively studied 52 pediatric LDLT recipients at the University of Tokyo Hospital between April 1996 and December 2000, followed up through July 2011 at the Jichi Medical University Hospital, where they underwent immunosuppression withdrawal (52). One graft failed during this period. Sera of 40 (17 OT and 23 non-OT) of the 51 (78.4%) with functioning grafts were available for the measurement of anti-HLA antibodies; for 31 patients, sera taken before and after transplantation (at 3 weeks) were also available. Nine patients (2 OT and 7 non-OT) had biopsy-proven AR when the posttransplantation sera were stored. The university's research ethics committee approved this study.

Immunosuppression and Weaning Protocol

Tacrolimus and methylprednisolone were used (52). The target trough serum tacrolimus level was 15 to 20 ng/mL on the first week after transplantation and gradually decreased 6 months after transplantation to 8 to 5 ng/mL. Methylprednisolone (20 mg/kg) was given before the anhepatic phase of LDLT, the dose subsequently reduced to the maintenance level. Cyclosporine replaced tacrolimus in patients who suffered tacrolimus side effects. When AR developed, regardless of severity, patients were treated with bolus intravenous methylprednisolone, the starting dose 20 mg/kg per day, as described previously (53). With a parent's consent, patients were administered the weaning protocol regardless of their primary liver disease when they met the following criteria: being more than 2 years past liver transplantation; normal graft function and no episodes of rejection for more than 1 year; taking only tacrolimus for immunosuppression, dose less than 0.05 mg/kg per day (52); and having no autoantibodies. (Patients taking cyclosporine, with a dose less than 1.0 mg/kg per day, are considered for

weaning, including a few in our cohort.) Liver chemistry test results were considered normal when serum alanine aminotransferase, γ -glutamyl transpeptidase, and direct bilirubin were all within normal ranges. OT was defined as stable normal graft function for more than 1 year off immunosuppression.

Protocol Liver Biopsy

Percutaneous transhepatic liver biopsy was performed under analgesia and sedation using ultrasonographically guided 14G Monopty (C.R. Bard, Murray Hill, NJ). Manual compressive hemostasis was performed for 20 min, with compressive bandage hemostasis until the following day. Preventive cefoperazone and sulbactam were administered. We assessed the histopathologic features of the PLB samples using the Metavir scoring system, which grades activity, that is, the amount of inflammation (specifically, the intensity of necroinflammatory lesions), on a four-point scale from A0 to A3 (54). Fibrosis is graded on a five-point scale, from 0 to 4. We defined abnormal biopsy histology as more than A2 or more than F2. Fourteen of 17 OT patients and 16 of 23 non-OT patients received PLB.

Human Leukocyte Antigen Typing

The pretransplantation HLA typing for A, B, and DR loci was performed routinely for all donors and recipients. HLA-A and HLA-B typing was performed by standard complement-dependent microcytotoxicity assay using a Terasaki HLA tray (One Lambda, Canoga Park, CA). HLA-DR typing was performed by two-color fluorescence. All typing for our cohort was performed serologically.

Lymphocytotoxic Crossmatch

Lymphocytotoxic crossmatch testing followed standard National Institutes of Health technique for all donors and recipients. The recipient serum obtained immediately before LDLT was tested for cytotoxic antibodies against donor T or B lymphocytes. Donor lymphocytes were isolated from peripheral blood, and 1 μ L of the patient's serum was added for 30 min at room temperature. Rabbit complement (5 μ L) was added for an additional hour at room temperature, and ethidium bromide and acridine orange were added to stain the cells. The crossmatch was considered positive when more than 20% of the donor lymphocytes were killed by the recipient serum.

Detection of Anti-Human Leukocyte Antigen Antibodies and Determination of Donor-Specific Antibody Specificity

The samples stored before and after transplantation were sent to the Terasaki Foundation Laboratory for evaluation. Sera were screened using LABScreen mixed beads (One Lambda). Sera with a positive screen result had the specificity of their anti-HLA antibody identified using LabScreen single antigen class I (Lot 6) and class II (Lot 8) beads. Assays followed the manufacturer's protocol. Trimmed mean values of MFI (i.e., normalized MFI) were obtained from the output file generated by the flow analyzer, normalized using the formula: $([\text{sample \#N bead}] - [\text{sample negative control bead}]) - ([\text{negative control serum \#N bead}] - [\text{negative control serum negative control bead}])$, with normalized values over 1000 MFI considered positive. To identify DSA specificity, donor-recipient mismatched HLAs were compared with the antibody profile for each patient's sample.

Statistical Analysis

Patient characteristics were compared using the chi-square test for categorical variables and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests for continuous variables. Each MFI was analyzed after log transformation because of their nonnormal distribution. We used Stata version 10.0 (Stata, College Station, TX) for all statistical analyses. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. $P=0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank Mika Matsushashi, Tsuyoshi Sato, and Tatsuya Akaza for their help in evaluating the antibodies.

REFERENCES

- Traum AZ, Kawai T, Vacanti JP, et al. The need for tolerance in pediatric organ transplantation. *Pediatrics* 2008; 121: 1258.
- Bishop GA, Jerino FL, Sharland AF, et al. Approaching the promise of operational tolerance in clinical transplantation. *Transplantation* 2011; 91: 1065.
- Cuturi MC, Josien R, Douillard P, et al. Prolongation of allogeneic heart graft survival in rats by administration of a peptide (a.a. 75–84) from the alpha 1 helix of the first domain of HLA-B7 01. *Transplantation* 1995; 59: 661.
- Gianello P, Fishbein JM, Sachs DH. Tolerance to primarily vascularized allografts in miniature swine. *Immunol Rev* 1993; 133: 19.
- Knechtle SJ. Knowledge about transplantation tolerance gained in primates. *Curr Opin Immunol* 2000; 12: 552.
- Levisetti MG, Padrid PA, Szot GL, et al. Immunosuppressive effects of human CTLA4Ig in a non-human primate model of allogeneic pancreatic islet transplantation. *J Immunol* 1997; 159: 5187.
- Remuzzi G, Rossini M, Imberti O, et al. Kidney graft survival in rats without immunosuppressants after intrathymic glomerular transplantation. *Lancet* 1991; 337: 750.
- Sablinski T, Hancock WW, Tilney NL, et al. CD4 monoclonal antibodies in organ transplantation—a review of progress. *Transplantation* 1991; 52: 579.
- Subbotin V, Sun H, Aitouche A, et al. Abrogation of chronic rejection in a murine model of aortic allotransplantation by prior induction of donor-specific tolerance. *Transplantation* 1997; 64: 690.
- Orlando G, Soker S, Wood K. Operational tolerance after liver transplantation. *J Hepatol* 2009; 50: 1247.
- Mazariegos GV, Reyes J, Marino IR, et al. Weaning of immunosuppression in liver transplant recipients. *Transplantation* 1997; 63: 243.
- Koshiba T, Li Y, Takemura M, et al. Clinical, immunological, and pathological aspects of operational tolerance after pediatric living-donor liver transplantation. *Transpl Immunol* 2007; 17: 94.
- Feng S, Ekong UD, Lobritto SJ, et al. Complete immunosuppression withdrawal and subsequent allograft function among pediatric recipients of parental living donor liver transplants. *JAMA* 2012; 307: 283.
- Demetris AJ, Lunz JG 3rd, Randhawa P, et al. Monitoring of human liver and kidney allograft tolerance: a tissue/histopathology perspective. *Transpl Int* 2009; 22: 120.
- Sriwatanawongsa V, Davies HS, Calne RY. The essential roles of parenchymal tissues and passenger leukocytes in the tolerance induced by liver grafting in rats. *Nat Med* 1995; 1: 428.
- Sun J, McCaughan GW, Gallagher ND, et al. Deletion of spontaneous rat liver allograft acceptance by donor irradiation. *Transplantation* 1995; 60: 233.
- Sun J, Sheil AG, Wang C, et al. Tolerance to rat liver allografts: IV. Acceptance depends on the quantity of donor tissue and on donor leukocytes. *Transplantation* 1996; 62: 1725.
- Bowen DG, Zen M, Holz L, et al. The site of primary T cell activation is a determinant of the balance between intrahepatic tolerance and immunity. *J Clin Invest* 2004; 114: 701.
- Kamada N, Shinomiya T. Clonal deletion as the mechanism of abrogation of immunological memory following liver grafting in rats. *Immunology* 1985; 55: 85.
- Qian S, Lu L, Fu F, et al. Apoptosis within spontaneously accepted mouse liver allografts: evidence for deletion of cytotoxic T cells and implications for tolerance induction. *J Immunol* 1997; 158: 4654.
- Sharland A, Shastry S, Wang C, et al. Kinetics of intra-graft cytokine expression, cellular infiltration, and cell death in rejection of renal allografts compared with acceptance of liver allografts in a rat model: early activation and apoptosis is associated with liver graft acceptance. *Transplantation* 1998; 65: 1370.
- Tokita D, Mazariegos GV, Zahorchak AF, et al. High PD-L1/CD86 ratio on plasmacytoid dendritic cells correlates with elevated T-regulatory cells in liver transplant tolerance. *Transplantation* 2008; 85: 369.
- Li Y, Koshiba T, Yoshizawa A, et al. Analyses of peripheral blood mononuclear cells in operational tolerance after pediatric living donor liver transplantation. *Am J Transplant* 2004; 4: 2118.
- Castillo-Rama M, Castro MJ, Bernardo I, et al. Preformed antibodies detected by cytotoxic assay or multibead array decrease liver allograft survival: role of human leukocyte antigen compatibility. *Liver Transpl* 2008; 14: 554.
- Takaya S, Bronsther O, Iwaki Y, et al. The adverse impact on liver transplantation of using positive cytotoxic crossmatch donors. *Transplantation* 1992; 53: 400.
- Scornik JC, Soldevilla-Pico C, Van der Werf WJ, et al. Susceptibility of liver allografts to high or low concentrations of preformed antibodies as measured by flow cytometry. *Am J Transplant* 2001; 1: 152.
- Muro M, Marin L, Miras M, et al. Liver recipients harbouring anti-donor preformed lymphocytotoxic antibodies exhibit a poor allograft survival at the first year after transplantation: experience of one centre. *Transpl Immunol* 2005; 14: 91.
- Kasahara M, Kiuchi T, Takakura K, et al. Postoperative flow cytometry crossmatch in living donor liver transplantation: clinical significance of humoral immunity in acute rejection. *Transplantation* 1999; 67: 568.
- Fontana M, Moradpour D, Aubert V, et al. Prevalence of anti-HLA antibodies after liver transplantation. *Transpl Int* 2010; 23: 858.
- O'Leary JG, Kaneku H, Susskind BM, et al. High mean fluorescence intensity donor-specific anti-HLA antibodies associated with chronic rejection postliver transplant. *Am J Transplant* 2011; 11: 1868.
- Paterno F, Shiller M, Tillery G, et al. Bortezomib for acute antibody-mediated rejection in liver transplantation. *Am J Transplant* 2012; 12: 2526.
- Goh A, Scalomogna M, De Feo T, et al. Human leukocyte antigen crossmatch testing is important for liver retransplantation. *Liver Transpl* 2010; 16: 308.
- Girnita A, Mazariegos GV, Castellana A, et al. Liver transplant recipients weaned off immunosuppression lack circulating donor-specific antibodies. *Hum Immunol* 2010; 71: 274.
- Cai J, Terasaki PI, Bloom DD, et al. Correlation between human leukocyte antigen antibody production and serum creatinine in patients receiving sirolimus monotherapy after Campath-1H induction. *Transplantation* 2004; 78: 919.
- Hourmant M, Cesbron-Gautier A, Terasaki PI, et al. Frequency and clinical implications of development of donor-specific and non-donor-specific HLA antibodies after kidney transplantation. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2005; 16: 2804.
- Mizutani K, Terasaki P, Rosen A, et al. Serial ten-year follow-up of HLA and MICA antibody production prior to kidney graft failure. *Am J Transplant* 2005; 5: 2265.
- Cai J, Terasaki PI, Mao Q, et al. Development of nondonor-specific HLA-DR antibodies in allograft recipients is associated with shared epitopes with mismatched donor DR antigens. *Am J Transplant* 2006; 6: 2947.
- Devlin J, Doherty D, Thomson L, et al. Defining the outcome of immunosuppression withdrawal after liver transplantation. *Hepatology* 1998; 27: 926.
- Ohe H, Waki K, Yoshitomi M, et al. Factors affecting operational tolerance after pediatric living-donor liver transplantation: impact of early post-transplant events and HLA match. *Transpl Int* 2012; 25: 97.
- Evrard V, Otte JB, Sokal E, et al. Impact of surgical and immunological parameters in pediatric liver transplantation: a multivariate analysis in 500 consecutive recipients of primary grafts. *Ann Surg* 2004; 239: 272.
- Markiewski MM, DeAngelis RA, Lambris JD. Liver inflammation and regeneration: two distinct biological phenomena or parallel pathophysiological processes? *Mol Immunol* 2006; 43: 45.
- Knechtle SJ, Kwun J. Unique aspects of rejection and tolerance in liver transplantation. *Semin Liver Dis* 2009; 29: 91.
- Devos JM, Gaber AO, Knight RJ, et al. Donor-specific HLA-DQ antibodies may contribute to poor graft outcome after renal transplantation. *Kidney Int* 2012; 82: 598.
- Willicombe M, Brookes P, Sergeant R, et al. De novo DQ donor-specific antibodies are associated with a significant risk of antibody-mediated rejection and transplant glomerulopathy. *Transplantation* 2012; 94: 172.
- Musat AI, Agni RM, Wai PY, et al. The significance of donor-specific HLA antibodies in rejection and ductopenia development in ABO compatible liver transplantation. *Am J Transplant* 2011; 11: 500.
- Smith JD, Banner NR, Hamour IM, et al. De novo donor HLA-specific antibodies after heart transplantation are an independent predictor of poor patient survival. *Am J Transplant* 2011; 11: 312.
- Palmer SM, Davis RD, Hadjiliadis D, et al. Development of an antibody specific to major histocompatibility antigens detectable by flow

- cytometry after lung transplant is associated with bronchiolitis obliterans syndrome. *Transplantation* 2002; 74: 799.
48. Regele H. Non-HLA antibodies in kidney allograft rejection: convincing concept in need of further evidence. *Kidney Int* 2011; 79: 583.
 49. Opelz G. Non-HLA transplantation immunity revealed by lymphocytotoxic antibodies. *Lancet* 2005; 365: 1570.
 50. Kaneku H, O'Leary JG, Taniguchi M, et al. Donor-specific HLA antibodies of IgG3 subclass are associated with chronic rejection and graft loss after liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl* 2012; 18: 984.
 51. Adeyi O, Alexander G, Baiocchi L, et al. Importance of liver biopsy findings in immunosuppression management: Biopsy monitoring and working criteria for patients with operational tolerance. *Liver Transpl* 2012; 18: 1154.
 52. Waki K, Sugawara Y, Mizuta K, et al. Living-donor liver transplantation at the University of Tokyo, 1996–2011: the impact of HLA matching and a positive crossmatch on long-term survival and tolerance. *Clin Transpl* 2011: 223.
 53. Sugawara Y, Tamura S, Kaneko J, et al. Positive lymphocytotoxic crossmatch does not adversely affect survival in living donor liver transplantation. *Dig Surg* 2009; 26: 482.
 54. Bedossa P, Poynard T. An algorithm for the grading of activity in chronic hepatitis C. The METAVIR Cooperative Study Group. *Hepatology* 1996; 24: 289.

Customer Service Contact Information

All correspondence concerning business matters, including subscription information, orders, or changes of address, should be directed to:

Lippincott Wilkins & Williams
16522 Hunters Green Parkway
Hagerstown, MD 21740-2116
Tel: 800-638-3030 (North America); +44 (0) 20-7981-0525
(Europe);
1-301-223-2300 (RoW)
Fax: 1-301-223-2400
Email: customerservice@Wolterskluwer.com

Original Article

Role of 6-month abstinence rule in living donor liver transplantation for patients with alcoholic liver disease

Yoshikuni Kawaguchi,¹ Yasuhiko Sugawara,¹ Noriyo Yamashiki,² Junichi Kaneko,¹ Sumihito Tamura,¹ Taku Aoki,¹ Yoshihiro Sakamoto,¹ Kiyoshi Hasegawa,¹ Kayo Nojiri² and Norihiro Kokudo¹

¹Artificial Organ and Transplantation Surgery Division, Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, and ²Organ Transplantation Service, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

Aim: Although alcoholic liver disease (ALD) is an accepted indication for liver transplantation (LT), there are several controversial issues. The aim of this study is to examine the applicability of the 6-month abstinence rule prior to LT and to evaluate the results in living donor LT for patients with ALD.

Methods: A retrospective study of 102 patients with ALD referred for LT was performed. Clinical data, including alcohol consumption history, were analyzed. A period of abstinence from drinking alcohol of at least 6 months was strictly required.

Results: Among 102 patients, 21 abstained from drinking for at least 6 months. Of these, 13 patients (12%) underwent LT, five patients (5%) recovered without LT and three patients (3%) were listed for deceased donor LT. LT was not indicated for the remaining 81 patients (80%). Eight patients died within 6

months of referral to our program. The Child–Pugh score was higher in these eight patients than in the 21 who achieved 6-month abstinence, although the alcohol consumption history variables did not significantly differ between the two groups. The 5-year overall survival rates after LT in 13 patients with ALD (91%) were similar to those in 387 non-ALD patients (83%). The rate of alcohol consumption relapse after LT was 8% ($n = 1/13$).

Conclusion: Living donor LT for patients with ALD who complied with the 6-month abstinence rule provides sufficient survival benefit with good compliance, compensating for the potential risks to the donors.

Key words: abstinence period, alcohol recidivism, alcoholic liver disease, liver transplantation

INTRODUCTION

ALCOHOLIC LIVER DISEASE (ALD) is an increasingly important cause of end-stage liver disease, and a recognized indication for liver transplantation (LT), accounting for approximately 2% of all primary transplants in Japan,¹ 40% in Europe² and 20% in the USA.³ The proportion of ALD patients undergoing LT remains small in Japan compared to the latter two regions, but the number of ALD patients who underwent living donor LT (LDLT) in Japan is increasing annually based on a report by the Japanese Liver Transplantation Society.¹ A fair therapeutic strategy is necessary before con-

sidering patients with ALD for LDLT, because deceased donor organs remain scarce in East Asian regions, including Japan.

The outcome of the long-term prognosis of patients transplanted for ALD is at least as good as that of patients transplanted for most other diagnoses.^{2,4–6} Although post-LT drinking impairs the long-term survival of ALD patients after LT,⁷ late graft loss due to recurrence of the original disease, such as viral hepatitis and cholestatic disease, is uncommon. A fixed period of abstinence from drinking alcohol prior to transplantation allows some patients to recover their liver function to the extent that LT is no longer needed and should be adopted as inclusion criteria for LT.⁸ There have been no studies in the published work focusing on the treatment of ALD, including LT and patient outcome, in regions in which deceased donor organs are scarce.

In the present study, we performed a retrospective analysis of ALD patients to examine the applicability of

Correspondence: Dr Yasuhiko Sugawara, Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan. Email: yasusuga-ky@umin.net
Received 1 December 2012; revision 30 December 2012; accepted 3 January 2013.

the 6-month abstinence rule prior to LT and to evaluate the results of LDLT for patients with ALD.

METHODS

Patients

BETWEEN JANUARY 1996 and September 2011, 102 patients with chronic ALD or alcoholic liver cirrhosis were referred to the University of Tokyo Hospital for LT; patients presenting with severe alcoholic hepatitis were not included. The diagnosis of ALD was based on a history of habitual and excessive alcohol consumption in the absence of other causes of liver cirrhosis. The clinical records of these patients were retrospectively reviewed. A history of alcohol intake was also obtained from the clinical records, including duration of heavy drinking, types and amount of alcohol consumed, and previous treatment history. A high-risk alcoholism relapse score was calculated according to Yates *et al.*⁹

Indication criteria of LT for ALD

The selection criteria for LT at our institution are described elsewhere.¹⁰ In addition to our general criteria, patients with ALD are required to fulfill additional criteria as follows: period of abstinence from drinking alcohol of at least 6 months prior to LT; participation in Alcoholics Anonymous or an equivalent rehabilitation program; consultation with a psychiatrist; and signed agreement indicating intention of lifetime abstinence. ALD patients meeting our criteria were considered candidates for LDLT or deceased donor LT (DDLTL), irrespective of a high-risk alcoholism relapse score. The indications for LDLT and the type of liver graft were determined according to the ratio of the remnant liver volume to total liver volume in living donors, and that of the graft volume to the standard liver volume¹¹ in recipients.¹²

Surgical treatment and management

Our LT procedure has been described elsewhere.¹³ For the follow-up evaluation, blood test and ultrasonography findings were examined at every outpatient clinic (usually every 1–2 weeks) beginning immediately after the patients were discharged. Alcohol relapse after LT was defined as re-drinking on the basis of self-report questionnaires and interviews with patients and/or family members.

Statistical analysis

Continuous data are expressed as the median values (with range). Quantitative and categorized variables

were compared using the Wilcoxon rank sum test and Fisher's exact test, respectively. Long-term survival was measured from the time at which patients underwent LT. Overall survival curves were constructed using the Kaplan–Meier method, and compared using the log-rank test. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered to indicate statistical significance. Statistical analysis was performed with JMP software ver. 9.0.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

RESULTS

THE FLOW OF study participants is shown in Figure 1. Among 102 patients, 13 (12%) underwent LDLT, patients (5%) were recognized as recovering from liver failure and three patients (3%) were listed for DDLT after an abstinence period lasting at least 6 months. LT was not indicated for 81 patients (80%) and eight of these (8% of total) died within 6 months of referral to our program. The reasons for rejection are shown in Table 1. Fifty-five patients (68%) were rejected for reasons related to recipient issues, including not abstaining from drinking alcohol in 15 patients (21%).

Demographic data of 21 patients who achieved 6 months of abstinence ("abstinence group") are shown in Table 2 and compared with the eight patients who died within 6 months ("mortality group"). The Child–Pugh score was significantly higher in the Mortality group than in the abstinence group (median [range], 12

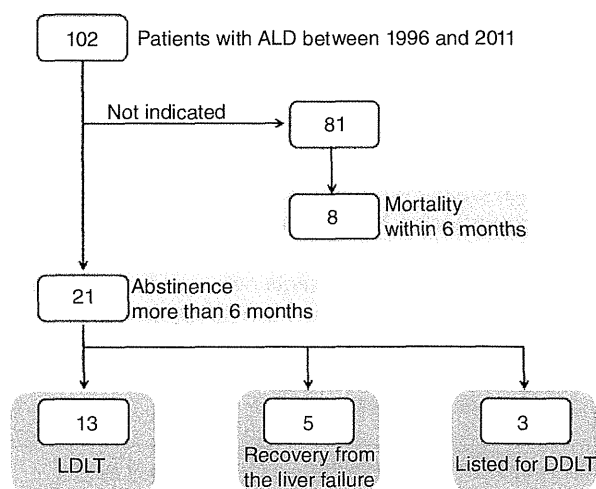


Figure 1 Flow of study participants. ALD, alcoholic liver disease; DDLT, deceased donor living transplantation; LDLT, living donor liver transplantation.