6. あなたの健康管理についてお伺いします。

6-1. 今までにＢ型肝炎ワクチンの接種を行った事がありますか。	1. はい　2. いいえ 6-2 へ　3. わからない
6-2. Ｂ型肝炎ワクチン接種を行ったのは約何年前ですか。	約　　年前 6-3 へ
6-3. 接種したきっかけ（動機）は何ですか。	1. 所属施設ですすめられた 2. 自発的に接種した 3. その他（　　） 6-4 へ
6-4. この１年間（平成 24 年４月～平成 25 年３月）に定期健康診断（胸部レントゲン検査を含む）を受診しましたか。	1. はい　2. いいえ

6-4 へ

7. あなたは感染症に関する知識を得る際に、参考にしているものについて、それぞれあてはまるものを１つお答えください。

	よく利用する	たまに利用する	あまり利用しない	全く利用しない
1. 専門医学雑誌・教科書	1	2	3	4
2. 従事している施設内部の研修会	1	2	3	4
3. 従事している施設外部の研修会・勉強会・講演会	1	2	3	4
4. 施設職員	1	2	3	4
5. 家族	1	2	3	4
6. 新聞・情報雑誌	1	2	3	4
7. テレビ・ラジオ	1	2	3	4
8. 国や地方公共団体等の公的な HP 等のインターネット	1	2	3	4
9.「８」を除く HP 等のインターネット	1	2	3	4

以上で質問は終わりです。ご協力誠にありがとうございました。

Hepatology Research

Hepatology Research 2013 doi: 10.1111/hepr.12221

Original Article

Discrimination of fibrotic staging of chronic hepatitis C using multiple fibrotic markers

Kenji Ikeda,[1,2] Namiki Izumi,[3] Eiji Tanaka,[8] Hiroshi Yotsuyanagi,[4] Yoshihisa Takahashi,[6] Junichi Fukushima,[7] Fukuo Kondo,[6] Toshio Fukusato,[6] Kazuhiko Koike,[5] Norio Hayashi,[9] Hirohito Tsubouchi[10] and Hiromitsu Kumada[1,2]

[1]*Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital,* [2]*Okinaka Memorial Institute for Medical Research,* [3]*Department of Gastroenterology, Musashino Red Cross Hospital,* [4]*Department of Infectious Disease,* [5]*Department of Gastroenterology, Graduate School of Medicine, Tokyo University,* [6]*Department of Pathology, Teikyo University School of Medicine,* [7]*Department of Pathology, NTT Medical Center Tokyo, Tokyo,* [8]*Department of Gastroenterology, Shinshu University of Medicine, Matsumoto,* [9]*Department of Gastroenterology, Kansai-Rosai Hospital, Hyogo, and* [10]*Department of Gastroenterology, Kagoshima University of Medicine, Kagoshima, Japan*

Aim: In order to evaluate and judge a fibrotic stage of patients with chronic hepatitis C, multivariate regression analysis was performed using multiple fibrotic markers.

Methods: A total of 581 patients from eight hepatology units and institutes were diagnosed by needle biopsy as having chronic liver disease caused by hepatitis C virus. Twenty-three variables and their natural logarithmic transformation were employed in the multivariate analysis.

Results: Multivariate regression analysis finally obtained the following function: $z = 2.89 \times ln$ (type IV collagen 7S) (ng/mL) $- 0.011 \times$ (platelet count) ($\times 10^3/mm^3$) $+ 0.79 \times ln$ (total bilirubin) (mg/dL) $+ 0.39 \times ln$ (hyaluronic acid) (μg/L) $- 1.87$. Median values of the fibrotic score of F1 ($n = 172$), F2 ($n = 80$), F3 ($n = 37$) and F4 ($n = 16$) were calculated as 1.00, 1.45, 2.82 and 3.83, respectively. Multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination were 0.56 and 0.320, respectively. Validation with patient data from other institutions demonstrated good reproducibility of the fibrotic score for hepatitis C (FSC), showing 1.10 in F1 ($n = 156$), 2.35 in F2 ($n = 73$), 3.16 in F3 ($n = 36$) and 3.58 in F4 ($n = 11$).

Conclusion: A concise multiple regression function using four laboratory parameters successfully predicted pathological fibrotic stage of patients with hepatitis C virus infection.

Key words: chronic hepatitis, hepatitis C virus, liver cirrhosis, liver fibrosis, multiple regression analysis, stage

INTRODUCTION

WHEN HEPATITIS C virus (HCV)-related chronic liver disease was found by biochemical and virological examination, peritoneoscopy and/or liver biopsy can establish the definitive diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and liver cirrhosis. Although these pathological procedures are reliable and informative both in diagnosis and treatment, they sometimes require medical invasion and financial costs, including the risk of bleeding from needle puncture, some pain experienced during the examination, medical expenses and hospitalization for a few days. The pathological examination is, therefore, rarely performed repeatedly in a short period of time, even when disease activity is severe and progression of liver disease is highly suspected. Recently, many authors described the usefulness of ultrasonographic elastography and magnetic resonance imaging technology in the estimation of staging of chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis.[1–4] These ways of estimation using the imaging apparatuses seem truly useful for current patients, but it cannot evaluate and compare with past fibrotic states of patients retrospectively. Moreover, the same apparatus for elastometry will not be available for repeated measurement for a follow-up examination, several years later for example.

In spite of the accuracy of biopsy and of convenience of elastography in chronic liver disease, clinical diagnosis based on biochemistry and hematology is still indispensable for the daily practice of many patients with

Correspondence: Dr Kenji Ikeda, *Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital, 2-2-2 Toranomon, Minato-ku, Tokyo 105-8470, Japan. Email: ikedakenji@tora.email.ne.jp*

Received 13 May 2013; revision 4 August 2013; accepted 8 August 2013.

HCV-related liver disease. Recently, several studies were published about estimation of hepatitis stages, using one or more serum biomarkers. Discriminant functions or multivariate analyses demonstrated that approximately 60–90% of patients with chronic hepatitis C were correctly classified as mild hepatitis and severe hepatitis with advanced fibrosis.[5–16] The usefulness of the discriminant functions was, however, less valuable up to the present time for a few reasons. First, these functions were made for the purpose of discrimination of severe hepatic fibrosis from mild fibrosis, and four histological classifications (F1, F2, F3 and F4) were selected in almost of the studies. Second, some studies analyzed both hepatitis B virus and HCV infection, although the significance and actual values of each liver function test in the evaluation of the severity of liver disease were not similar among each viral hepatitis and alcoholic liver disease. Third, biochemical markers for liver fibrosis (e.g. hyaluronic acid, type IV collagen, procollagen III peptide)[17–19] were not always included in those previous studies.

We tried to generate a function estimating fibrotic stages of HCV-related chronic hepatitis, which were objectively diagnosed by liver biopsy. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to make a reliable multiple regression function and to obtain practical coefficients for significant variables also using fibrotic markers.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 605 Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis C were recruited for the study from eight hospitals in Japan: Toranomon Hospital, Hiroshima University Hospital (K. Chayama, M.D.), Ehime University Hospital (M. Onji, M.D.), Musashino Red Cross Hospital (N. Izumi, M.D.), Shishu University Hospital (E. Tanaka, M.D.), Showa University Hospital (M. Imawari, M.D.), Osaka University Hospital (T. Takehara, M.D.) and Kagoshima University Hospital (H. Tsubouchi, M.D.). Inclusion criteria for this study were: (i) positive HCV antibody for more than 6 months; (ii) persistent or intermittent elevation in aspartate aminotransferase (AST)/alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels; and (iii) liver biopsy showing chronic hepatitis (F1, F2, F3 or F4). We excluded those patients with overt alcoholic liver disease or fatty liver, association of other types of liver disease (e.g. hepatitis B, primary biliary cirrhosis, autoimmune hepatitis), or those associated with hepatocellular carcinoma or other malignancy. Among the patients, 603 fulfilled the conditions for the study: complete demographic data, basic laboratory data of hematology and biochemistry, required liver biopsy specimens, and sufficient amount of frozen sera. We also excluded an additional 22 patients with eventual histological diagnosis of F0 stage.

Finally, a total of 581 patients who were diagnosed as having chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis (F1, F2, F3 or F4) were analyzed for the following hematological, biochemical and histopathological examination. There were 305 males and 276 females aged 15–78 with a median of 55 years.

All the patients presented written informed consent in individual hospitals and medical centers, and the study was approved by each ethical committee.

Hematological and biochemical examination

Hematological and standard biochemical evaluation had been performed in each medical institution: white blood cell, red blood cell count, hemoglobin, platelet count, total bilirubin, AST, ALT, AST/ALT ratio (AAR), γ-glutamyltransferase (GGT), total protein, albumin and γ-globulin.

Special biochemical examinations including fibrotic markers were carried out using stored frozen sera at −20°C or lower: α2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin concentration, haptoglobin typing, apolipoprotein A1, hyaluronic acid, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase (TIMP)-1, TIMP-2, procollagen III peptide and type IV collagen 7S.

Histological diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis

All of the 581 cases fulfilled required standards of histological evaluation: sufficient length of specimen, hematoxylin–eosin staining and at least one specimen with fiber staining. Four independent pathologists (Y. T., J. F., F. K. and T. F.), who were not informed of patients' background and laboratory features except for age and sex, evaluated the 581 specimens regarding the stages of fibrosis and activity. Pathological classification of chronic hepatitis staging was based on Desmet *et al.*[20]

Before judgment of histological staging of individual specimens, the pathologists discussed objective and reproducible judgment of pathological diagnosis of hepatitis. They made a panel for obvious criteria using typical microscopic pictures for each stage, and it was always referred to during the procedure of pathological judgment. When inconsistent results were found in the diagnosis of stage of hepatitis among the pathologists, the final judgment was accepted as the majority rule among them.

Statistical analysis

Non-parametric procedures were employed for the analysis of background characteristics and laboratory data among patients in each stage, including Mann–Whitney *U*-test, Kruskal–Wallis test and χ^2-test.

The normality of the distribution of the data was evaluated by Kolmogorov–Smirnov one-sample test. Because certain variables partly did not conform to a normal distribution, natural logarithmic transformation of bilirubin, AST, ALT, GGT, α2-macroglobulin, hyaluronic acid, type IV collagen 7S and TIMP-2 were also analyzed in the following calculation. The natural logarithmic transformation of the results yielded a normal distribution or symmetrical distribution for all the analyzed factors. After the procedures, the following multiple regression analysis became rationally robust against deviations from normal distribution. In order to avoid introducing into the model any variables that were mutually correlated, we checked the interaction between all pairs of the variables by calculating variance of inflation factors. Of the highly correlated variables, less significant factors were removed from the viewpoint of multicollinearity.

Multivariate regression analysis was performed using 305 patient data from Toranomon Hospital (training dataset), to generate training data of predicting function. We used a stepwise method for selection of informative subsets of explanatory variables in the model. Multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination are also taken into account in the selection of variables. Next, we validated the obtained predictive function using the remaining 276 patient data from the other seven liver institutions (validation dataset).

A *P*-value of less than 0.05 with two-tailed test was considered to be significant. Data analysis was performed using the computer program SPSS version 19.[21]

For evaluation of the efficiency and usefulness of obtained function for estimation of fibrosis, we compared various fibrotic scores for hepatitis C, including AAR,[8] AST-to-platelet ratio index (APRI),[12] FIB-4[13] and FibroTest.[9]

RESULTS

Pathological diagnosis

FOUR PATHOLOGISTS INDEPENDENTLY judged the fibrotic stages and inflammatory activity for 581 specimens of chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis caused by HCV. A total of 328 patients (56.5%) had a fibrotic stage of F1, 153 (26.3%) F2, 73 (12.6%) F3 and 27 (4.6%) F4. In the training subgroup ($n = 305$), judgment of F1 was made in 172, F2 in 80, F3 in 37 and F4 in 16. In the validation group ($n = 276$), judgment as F1 was made in 156, F2 in 73, F3 in 36 and F4 in 11.

According to hepatitis activity classification, A0 was found in nine patients (1.52%), A1 in 350 (60.2%), A2 in 198 (34.1%) and A3 in 24 (4.1%).

Laboratory data of each hepatitis stage in training group

There were 161 males and 144 females with a median age of 54 years (range, 22–69). Laboratory data of the 305 patients in the training group are shown in Table 1. Although several individual items were well correlated with the severity of hepatic fibrosis, significant overlap values were noted among F1 to F4 stages: platelet count, GGT, γ-globulin, hyaluronic acid and type IV collagen 7S.

Regression function generated from training patient group

After stepwise variable selection, multivariate regression analysis finally obtained the following function: $z = 2.89 \times ln$ (type IV collagen 7S) (ng/mL) $- 0.011 \times$ (platelet count) ($\times 10^3$/mm^3) $+ 0.79 \times ln$ (total bilirubin) (ng/mL) $+ 0.39 \times ln$ (hyaluronic acid) (μm/L) $-$ 1.87. Median values of the fibrotic score of F1 ($n = 172$), F2 ($n = 80$), F3 ($n = 37$) and F4 stages ($n = 16$) were calculated as 1.00, 1.45, 2.82 and 3.83, respectively (Fig. 1). The multiple regression coefficient and coefficient of determination were 0.56 and 0.32, respectively.

A 55-year-old man with F1 fibrotic stage (Fig. 2a) showed serum type IV collagen concentration as 3.8 ng/mL, platelet as 152×10^3 count/mm^3, total bilirubin as 0.8 mg/dL and hyaluronic acid as 16 μg/L. The regression function provided his fibrotic score as 1.16. Another man aged 43 years had F3 fibrosis with severe hepatitis activity of A3 on histological examination (Fig. 2b). His type IV collagen was 11.0 ng/mL, platelet 162×10^3 count/mm^3, total bilirubin 0.7 mg/dL and hyaluronic acid 189 μg/L, and regression function calculated his fibrotic score as 4.98.

Validation of discriminant function

Validation data of 276 patients (Table 2) were collected from the other seven institutions in Japan. When applying the regression function for the validation set, the fibrotic score for hepatitis C (FSC) demonstrated good reproducibility, showing 1.10 in patients with chronic hepatitis of F1 ($n = 156$), 2.35 in F2 ($n = 73$), 3.16 in F3 ($n = 36$) and 3.58 in F4 ($n = 11$) (Fig. 3). Although F4

Table 1 Demography and laboratory data of 305 patients in training group

	F1 ($n = 172$)	F2 ($n = 80$)	F3 ($n = 37$)	F4 ($n = 16$)
Demography				
Males : females	97:75	38:42	20:17	6:10
Age (median, range)	51 (22–69)	55 (29–68)	55 (27–69)	56.5 (29–65)
Laboratory data (median, range)				
WBC ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	4.7 (2.0–10.1)	4.3 (2.3–8.5)	4.5 (2.9–6.8)	4.7 (3.3–6.9)
Hemoglobin(g/dL)	14.6 (11.0–18.2)	14.4 (9.3–17.4)	14.6 (11.5–17.7)	14.55 (12.1–16.5)
Platelet ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	183 (52–364)	161 (82–387)	131 (74–237)	124 (7.7–191)
Albumin (g/dL)	4.1 (2.3–4.9)	4.0 (3.5–4.6)	3.9 (3.1–4.6)	3.8 (3.3–4.3)
Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.8 (0.2–1.9)	0.7 (0.3–1.7)	0.9 (0.4–7.5)	0.8 (0.5–7.4)
AST (IU/L)	42 (16–386)	61 (16–332)	63 (13–238)	71 (30–160)
ALT (IU/L)	60.5 (12–1664)	84.5 (10–647)	108 (27–415)	90.5 (36–264)
γ-GTP (IU/L)	40 (7–383)	48 (10–262)	54 (13–209)	58 (21–195)
γ-Globulin (g/dL)	1.47 (0.58–3.40)	1.61 (1.02–2.41)	1.69 (0.66–2.64)	1.79 (1.22–2.73)
γ-Globulin (%)	19.4 (10.0–40.5)	20.9 (14.0–28.3)	21.3 (8.1–30.4)	22.7 (16.5–36.9)
α2-Macroglobulin (mg/dL)	269 (123–505)	335 (154–551)	369 (183–627)	317 (207–511)
Haptoglobin (mg/dL)	94.5 (<5–265)	75.5 (<5–263)	56 (<5–2031)	75 (30–142)
Apolipoprotein A1 (mg/dL)	132 (71–209)	131 (73–207)	124 (98–166)	121 (83–153)
Hyaluronic acid (μg/L)	25 (<5–407)	41.5 (<5–263)	71 (<5–326)	89.5 (5–246)
TIMP-1 (ng/mL)	165 (73–291)	173 (97–302)	182 (126–308)	192.5 (128–260)
TIMP-2 (ng/mL)	77.5 (31–210)	80 (34–307)	76 (46–143)	78 (58–110)
Procollagen III peptide (U/mL)	0.75 (0.47–1.50)	0.805 (0.61–1.70)	0.86 (0.53–1.50)	1.05 (0.66–1.60)
Type IV collagen 7S (ng/mL)	4.0 (1.7–73)	4.3 (2.1–11.0)	5.2 (3.2–11.0)	5.8 (4.3–9.4)

γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; TIMP, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase; WBC, white blood cell.

fibrotic stage consisted of only 11 patients and the score 3.58 was regarded as a rather low value, the scores of other stages of fibrosis were concordant with histological fibrosis.

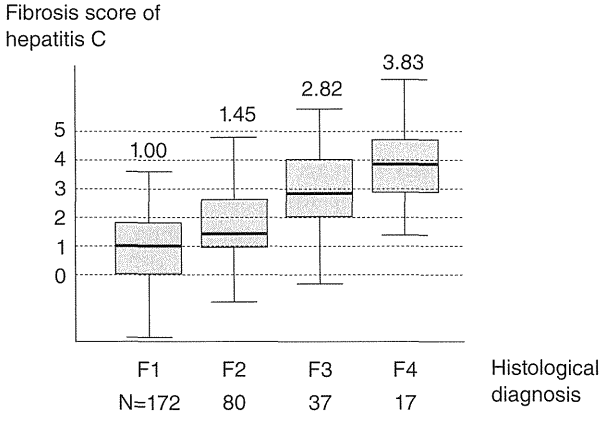

Figure 1 Box and whisker plots of fibrotic score of each group of histological fibrosis in the training dataset. Fibrotic score of hepatitis C (FSC) was generated by the function, $z = 2.89 \times ln$ (type IV collagen 7S) (ng/mL) $- 0.011 \times$ (platelet count) ($\times 10^3/mm^3$) $+ 0.79 \times ln$ (total bilirubin) (mg/dL) $+ 0.39 \times ln$ (hyaluronic acid) (μg/L) $- 1.87$.

Comparisons of efficacy with various fibrotic scores (Fig. 4)

In order to evaluate the efficacy and usefulness of the obtained FSC, we compared with previously reported fibrotic scores using training data. AAR, APRI, FIB-4 and FibroTest showed only slight correlation with actual histological stage. APRI and FIB-4 demonstrated increasing trends of the score associated with histological fibrosis, but significant overlapping scores were found through F1 to F4. Spearman's correlation coefficients of AAR, APRI, FIB-4 and FibroTest were 0.021 ($P = 0.707$), 0.462 ($P < 0.001$), 0.440 ($P < 0.001$) and 0.415 ($P < 0.001$), respectively. Our FSC showed Spearman's correlation coefficient of 0.572 ($P < 0.001$), and was of much higher value than the others.

DISCUSSION

RECOGNITION OF SEVERITY of chronic hepatitis is essential in managing patients with chronic HCV infection: estimation of length of infection, existence of any previous hepatitis activity, presumption of current fibrotic stage, and prediction of future fibrotic progression and hepatocarcinogenesis. Differential diagnosis of cirrhosis from chronic hepatitis is especially important

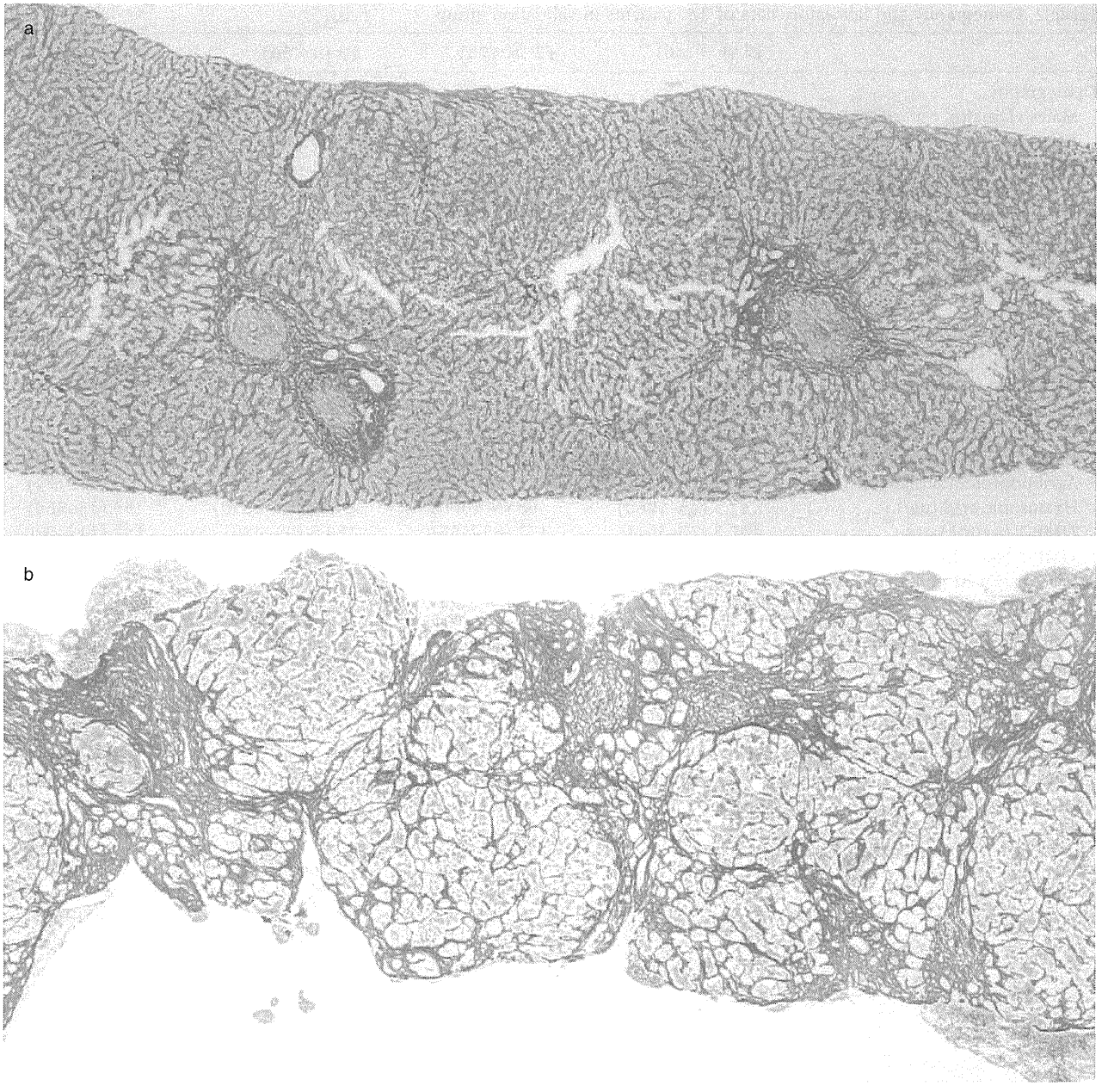

Figure 2 Case presentations of the training set. (a) A 55-year-old man with F1 fibrosis. Final regression function provided his fibrotic score as 1.16. (b) A 43-year-old man with F3 fibrosis with severe hepatitis activity. His regression coefficient was calculated as 4.98 (silver stain, ×40).

in the evaluation of chronic HCV infection. Identification of liver cirrhosis often leads to an important change in management of the patients: needs for fiberscopic examination for esophageal varices, ultrasonographic exploration for the association of liver cancer, and prediction of hepatic decompensation.

Recently, non-invasive estimation of severity of liver fibrosis has been reported in patients with HCV-related chronic hepatitis.[6–14] However, these studies were principally aimed at differentiation of advanced fibrotic stages of F3 or F4 from mild fibrotic stages of F1 or F2. Those discriminative functions were insufficient to

Table 2 Demography and laboratory data of 276 patients in validation group

	F1 ($n = 156$)	F2 ($n = 73$)	F3 ($n = 36$)	F4 ($n = 11$)
Demography				
Males : females	83:73	42:31	13:23	6:5
Age (median, range)	55 (15–74)	58 (32–77)	62.5 (30–78)	51 (38–73)
Laboratory data (median, range)				
WBC ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	5.1 (2.1–10.5)	4.8 (2.6–9.0)	4.85 (2.3–14.2)	3.9 (3.2–6.0)
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.2 (8.9–17.7)	14.4 (11.8–17.4)	14.1 (10.1–16.4)	13.6 (8.9–16.3)
Platelet ($\times 10^3/mm^3$)	183 (59–440)	153 (80–265)	136 (64–348)	135 (79–153)
Albumin (g/dL)	4.3 (3.1–5.3)	4.3 (3.3–5.2)	4.05 (3.0–5.5)	3.9 (3.0–4.7)
Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.7 (0.2–8.7)	0.7 (0.2–1.7)	0.8 (0.2–2.5)	0.8 (0.4–11.0)
AST (IU/L)	35 (11–1390)	49 (19–183)	80 (20–190)	96 (29–257)
ALT (IU/L)	49 (11–1635)	62 (12–575)	84 (14–218)	115 (29–303)
γ-GTP (IU/L)	35 (11–600)	52 (10–497)	51 (14–236)	112 (17–312)
γ-Globulin (g/dL)	1.47 (0.70–2.14)	1.60 (0.80–2.37)	1.71 (0.63–2.62)	2.19 (1.70–2.82)
γ-Globulin (%)	19.5 (9.2–26.4)	20.8 (10.8–30.8)	22.4 (9.5–29.9)	27.4 (21.8–35.3)
α2-Macroglobulin (mg/dL)	271.5 (126–572)	381 (172–573)	405.5 (196–594)	468 (242–655)
Haptoglobin (mg/dL)	95 (<5–305)	80 (<5–223)	63.5 (<5–192)	65 (<5–130)
Apolipoprotein A1 (mg/dL)	126 (45–198)	127 (63–191)	116 (46–172)	108 (62–171)
Hyaluronic acid (μg/L)	37.5 (<5–1260)	68 (5–1000)	140.5 (23–2610)	159 (33–364)
TIMP-1 (ng/mL)	157.5 (77–301)	172 (89–355)	188.5 (99–430)	192 (112–320)
TIMP-2 (ng/mL)	70 (21–294)	73 (21–207)	89 (27–280)	76 (36–120)
Procollagen III peptide (U/mL)	0.73 (0.52–8.30)	0.81 (0.53–1.60)	1.00 (0.63–1.90)	1.00 (0.68–1.60)
Type IV collagen 7S (ng/mL)	3.9 (1.2–12.0)	4.5 (2.3–9.9)	5.8 (2.8–16.0)	6.1 (4.6–10.0)

γ-GTP, γ-glutamyl transpeptidase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; TIMP, tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase; WBC, white blood cell.

recognize the stepwise progression of viral hepatitis from F1 through F4. This dichotomy (mild or severe) of chronic hepatitis C seemed less valuable in the study of disease progression, disease control abilities of antiviral drugs and estimation of histological improvement after anti-inflammatory drugs. A histology-oriented, practical and reliable formula is therefore required for the diagnosis and investigation of chronic hepatitis C.

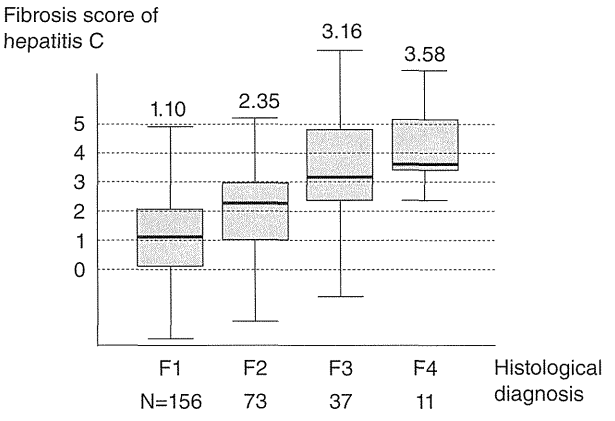

Figure 3 Box and whisker plots of fibrotic score of each group of histological fibrosis in the validation dataset. Fibrotic score of hepatitis C (FSC) was generated by the function, $z = 2.89 \times ln$ (type IV collagen 7S) (ng/mL) $- 0.011 \times$ (platelet count) ($\times 10^3/mm^3$) $+ 0.79 \times ln$ (total bilirubin) (ng/mL) $+ 0.39 \times ln$ (hyaluronic acid) (μg/L) $- 1.87$.

This study was aimed to establish non-invasive evaluation and calculation of liver fibrosis for patients with chronic HCV infection. Although it was retrospectively performed as a multicenter study of eight institutions, judgment of histological diagnosis was independently performed by four pathologists in the other hospital, informed of nothing except for the patient's age, sex and positive HCV infection. Objective judgment of the histological staging and grading in sufficient biopsy specimens could be obtained.

As many as 581 patients with chronic hepatitis C were analyzed in this study, who had been diagnosed as having chronic hepatitis or cirrhosis by liver biopsy performed in experienced liver units in Japan. To obtain the most suitable equation approximating histological fibrotic stage, multivariate analysis was performed using two demographic parameters (age and sex) and 21 hematological and biochemical markers with or without logarithmic transformation. They included many kinds of fibrotic markers: α2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin concentration, haptoglobin typing, apolipo-

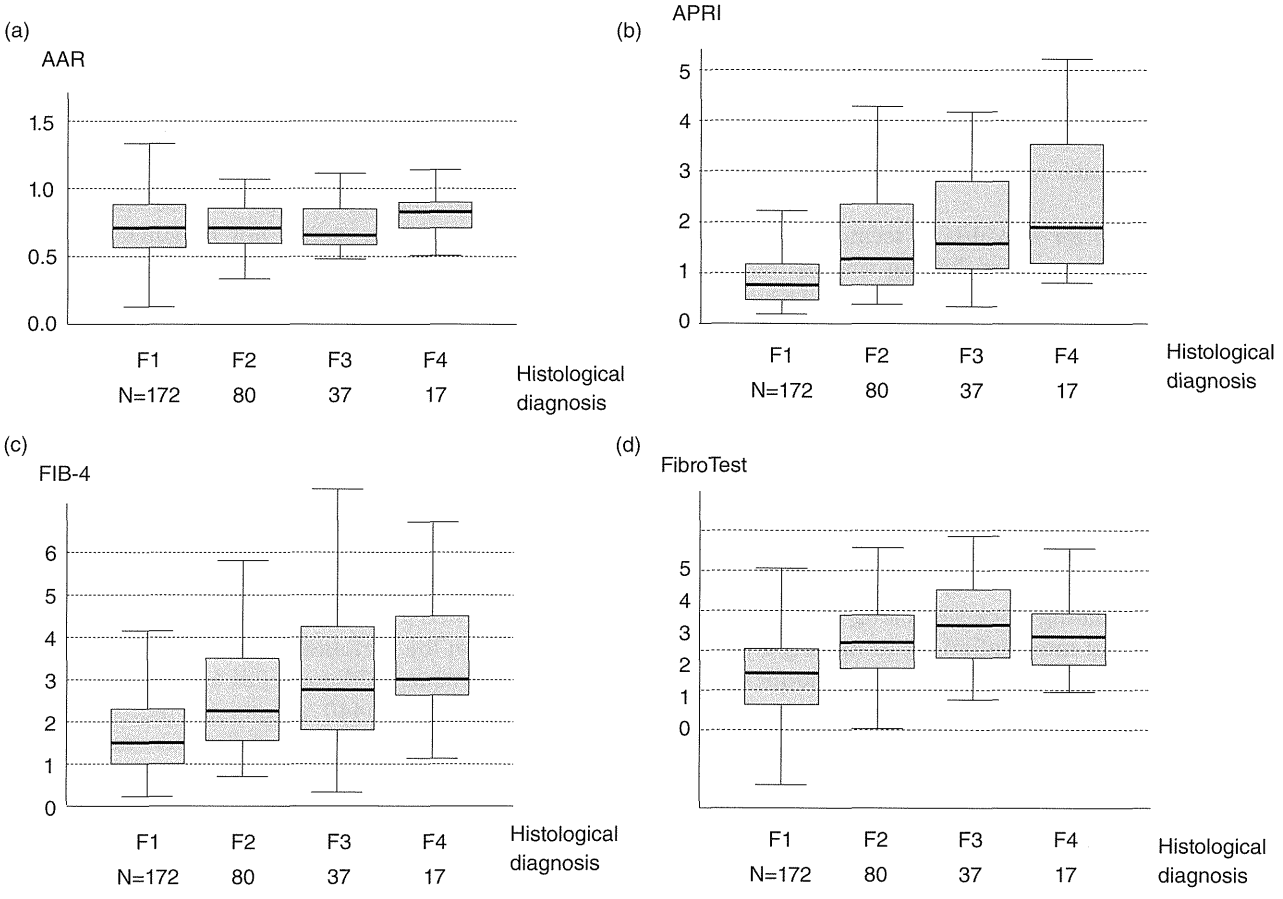

Figure 4 Previously published fibrotic scores: (a) aspartate aminotransferase (AST)/alanine aminotransferase (ALT) ratio (AAR),[8] (b) AST-to-platelet ratio index (APRI), calculated by AST / (upper limit of normal of AST) / (platelet count [$\times 10^9$/L]) $\times$ 100.[12] (c) FIB-4 score, calculated by age $\times$ AST [IU/L] / (platelet count [$\times 10^9$/L] $\times$ ALT [IU/L]$^{0.5}$).[13] (d) FibroTest score regression coefficient was: $Z = 4.467 \times \log^{10}$ (α2-macroglobulin [g/L]) $- 1.357 \times \log^{10}$ (haptoglobin [g/L]) $+ 1.017 \times \log^{10}$ [γ-glutamyltransferase [GGT] [IU/L]) $+ 0.0281 \times$ (age [years]) $+ 1.737 \times \log^{10}$ (bilirubin [μm/L]) $- 1.184 \times \log^{10}$ (apolipoprotein A1 [g/L]) $+ 0.301 \times$ (sex [female = 0, male = 1]) $- 5.54$.[9]

protein A1, hyaluronic acid, TIMP-1, TIMP-2, procollagen III peptide and type IV collagen 7S. Multiple regression analysis finally generated a first-degree polynomial function consisting of four variables: type IV collagen 7S, platelet count, bilirubin and hyaluronic acid. A constant numeral (−1.87) was finally adjusted in the regression equation in order to obtain fitted figures for fibrotic stages of F1, F2, F3 and F4. From the magnitude of the standardized partial regression coefficient of individual variable in the function, *ln* (type IV collagen 7S) demonstrated the most potent contribution toward the prediction of liver fibrosis. Platelet count and *ln* (bilirubin) proved to be the second and third distinctive power in the model, respectively.

The obtained figure of FSC was generated to imitate actual "F factor" of histological staging. FSC was sufficiently fitted to actual fibrotic stages with certain overlapping as was usually found in histological ambiguity judged by pathologists. Because judgment of fibrosis in chronic hepatitis often shows a transitional histological staging, pathological examination could not always achieve a clear-cut diagnosis discriminating F1, F2, F3 or F4. Considering the limitation of pathological difficulty in differentiation of the four continuous disease entities, the obtained regression function showed satisfactory high accuracy rates in the prediction of liver disease severity. FSC can provide one or two decimal places (e.g. 2.4 or 2.46) and the utility of the score is possibly higher

than mere histological staging of F1, F2, F3 or F4. The reproducibility was confirmed by the remaining 276 patients' data obtained from the other seven hospitals. Although the validation data were collected from different geographic area and different chronologic situation, FSC showed similar results in prediction of histological staging.

Fibrotic score for hepatitis C seemed a very useful quantitative marker in evaluating severity of fibrotic severity of hepatitis C patients without invasive procedures and without any specialized ultrasonography or magnetic resonance imaging. FSC also has an advantage of measurement, in which old blood samples are available for retrospective assessment of varied clinical settings: old sera from 20 years ago at the time of initial liver biopsy, or paired sera before and after a long-term anti-inflammatory therapy, for example. These kinds of retrospective assessments of fibrotic staging will be valuable in estimating a long-term progression of liver disease, in evaluating efficacy of a long-term medication or other medical intervention, or in making a political judgment from the viewpoint of socioeconomic efficacy.

The score can be calculated for any patients with chronic HCV infection. Although this multiple regression model dealt with appropriate logarithmic transformation for non-normal distribution parameters, the regression analysis was based on a linear regression model. Very slight fibrosis can be calculated as less than 1.00, which is commonly found with a slight degree of chronic hepatitis with a tiny fibrotic change as F0. Very severe fibrosis may be calculated as more than 4.00, which is an imaginable and nonsense number in the scoring system of fibrosis. FSC is, however, very useful and valuable in real clinical setting. Estimation of severity of liver fibrosis in outpatient clinics, evaluation of natural progression of patients' fibrosis over 10 years, and assessment of a long-term administration of interferon in patients with chronic hepatitis C from the viewpoint of fibrotic change. In this study, because certain patients actually had a history of interferon administration, regression of liver fibrosis during and after the treatment could be assessed when prior sera were available for serial evaluation of FSC. We can also expect the usefulness of evaluation of carcinogenic risk after sustained virological response, and stage progression with alcohol intake or obesity-induced steatosis. Recent development of new directly acting antiviral agents require evaluation for long-term histological advantage, for aggravation of hepatitis stage during viral and biochemical breakthrough caused by HCV mutation, estimation of future carcinogenic risk, and even for the best way of management of patients with chronic hepatitis C. FSC seems one of the ideal methods of approximation for fibrotic stage of chronic hepatitis C. Repeated measurement is quite suitable for patients with an unestablished treatment or trial, every 1 or 2 years, for example. Because the current regression function was generated from the data of HCV-related chronic liver disease, this equation would not be suitable for the recognition of HBV-related chronic liver disease,[22] alcoholic liver disease and other congenital or autoimmune liver diseases. To recognize the latter diseases, other studies about individual diseases must be performed.

We compared the usefulness of the FSC with that of other fibrotic scores.[8,9,12,13] More simple and inexpensive AAR or APRI could not well estimate fibrotic stages with poor correlation coefficients of 0.021 and 0.462, which were much lower than the coefficient of FSC of 0.572. FibroTest, which contained three costly fibrotic markers (α2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin and apolipoprotein A1), also showed a low correlation coefficient of 0.415, suggesting that the usefulness was limited in HCV positive Asian patients. Although FIB-4 demonstrated the best coefficient of 0.440 among the fibrotic scores, significant overlaps were found between neighboring stages and obtained scores were not coordinated for rea17l histological classification. Because this study also measured those special markers included in FibroTest, the ability of discrimination of fibrotic stages could be compared among the five fibrotic scoring systems.

In conclusion, FSC was a useful and reliable biomarker for prediction of liver fibrosis in patients with chronic HCV infection. FSC is expected to be introduced and utilized in varied kinds of studies and trials. Its accuracy and reproducibility require further validation using more numbers of patients in several countries other than Japan.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THIS STUDY WAS proposed and initiated by Dr Shiro Iino, and the project was performed by a grant from the Viral Hepatitis Research Foundation of Japan.

REFERENCES

1 Sandrin L, Fourquet B, Hasquenoph JM *et al.* Transient elastography: a new noninvasive method for assessment of hepatic fibrosis. *Ultrasound Med Biol* 2003; **29:** 1705–13.
2 Hanna RF, Kased N, Kwan SW *et al.* Double-contrast MRI for accurate staging of hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with cirrhosis. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2008; **190:** 47–57.

3 Hagiwara M, Rusinek H, Lee VS *et al.* Advanced liver fibrosis: diagnosis with 3D whole-liver perfusion MR imaging – initial experience. *Radiology* 2008; **246:** 926–34.
4 Taouli B, Chouli M, Martin AJ, Qayyum A, Coakley FV, Vilgrain V. Chronic hepatitis: role of diffusion-weighted imaging and diffusion tensor imaging for the diagnosis of liver fibrosis and inflammation. *J Magn Reson Imaging* 2008; **28:** 89–95.
5 Williams AL, Hoofnagle JH. Ratio of serum aspartate to alanine aminotransferase in chronic hepatitis. Relationship to cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology* 1988; **95:** 734–9.
6 Poynard T, Bedossa P. Age and platelet count: a simple index for predicting the presence of histological lesions in patients with antibodies to hepatitis C virus. METAVIR and CLINIVIR Cooperative Study Groups. *J Viral Hepat* 1997; **4:** 199–208.
7 Sheth SG, Flamm SL, Gordon FD, Chopra S. AST/ALT ratio predicts cirrhosis in patients with chronic hepatitis C virus infection. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1998; **93:** 44–8.
8 Giannini E, Botta F, Fasoli A *et al.* Progressive liver functional impairment is associated with an increase in AST/ALT ratio. *Dig Dis Sci* 1999; **44:** 1249–53.
9 Imbert-Bismut F, Ratziu V, Pieroni L, Charlotte F, Benhamou Y, Poynard T, MULTIVIRC Group. Biochemical imarkers of liver fibrosis in patients with hepatitis C virus infection: a prospective study. *Lancet* 2001; **357:** 1069–75.
10 Wai CT, Greenson JK, Fontana RJ *et al.* A simple noninvasive index can predict both significant fibrosis and cirrhosis in patients with chronic hepatitis C. *Hepatology* 2003; **38:** 518–26.
11 Benlloch S, Berenguer M, Prieto M, Rayón JM, Aguilera V, Berenguer J. Prediction of fibrosis in HCV-infected liver transplant recipients with a simple noninvasive index. *Liver Transpl* 2005; **11:** 456–62.
12 Chrysanthos NV, Papatheodoridis GV, Savvas S *et al.* Aspartate aminotransferase to platelet ratio index for fibrosis evaluation in chronic viral hepatitis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2006; **18:** 389–96.
13 Sterling RK, Lissen E, Clumeck N *et al.* Develoment of a simple noninvasive index to predict significant fibrosis in patients with HIV/HCV coinfection. *Hepatology* 2006; **43:** 1317–25.
14 Alsatie M, Kwo PY, Gingerich JR *et al.* A multivariable model of clinical variables predicts advanced fibrosis in chronic hepatitis C. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2007; **41:** 416–21.
15 Attallah AM, Abdallah SO, El Sayed AS *et al.* Non-invasive predictive score of fibrosis stages in chronic hepatitis C patients based on epithelial membrane antigen in the blood in combination with routine laboratory markers. *Hepatol Res* 2011; **41:** 1075–84.
16 Kalantari H, Hoseini H, Babak A, Yaran M. Validation of hepascore as a predictor of liver fibrosis in patients with chronic hepatitis C infection. *Hepat Res Treat* 2011; **2011:** 972759.
17 Engstrom-Laurent A, Loof L, Nyberg A, Schroder T. Increased serum levels of hyaluronate in liver disease. *Hepatology* 1985; **5:** 638–42.
18 Murawaki Y, Ikuta Y, Koda M, Kawasaki H. Serum type III procollagen peptide, type IV collagen 7S domain, central triple-helix of type IV collagen and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases in patients with chronic viral liver disease: relationship to liver histology. *Hepatology* 1994; **20:** 780–7.
19 Fabris C, Falleti E, Federico E, Toniutto P, Pirisi M. A comparison of four serum markers of fibrosis in the diagnosis of cirrhosis. *Ann Clin Biochem* 1997; **34:** 151–5.
20 Desmet VJ, Gerber M, Hoofnagle JH, Manns M, Sheuer PJ. Classification of chronic hepatitis: diagnosis, grading, and staging. *Hepatology* 1994; **19:** 1513–20.
21 IBM SPSS Inc. IBM SPSS for Windows. Version 19.0 manual. SPSS Japan Inc., an IBM company. Armonk NY, USA, 2009.
22 Ikeda K, Izumi N, Tanaka E *et al.* Fibrosis score consisting of four serum markers successfully predicts pathological fibrotic stages of chronic hepatitis B. *Hepatol Res* 2012; **43:** 596–604.

HEPATOLOGY
Official Journal of the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases

Risk Factors for Long-Term Persistence of Serum Hepatitis B Surface Antigen Following Acute Hepatitis B Virus Infection in Japanese Adults

Kiyoaki Ito,[1,13*] Hiroshi Yotsuyanagi,[2*] Hiroshi Yatsuhashi,[3] Yoshiyasu Karino,[4] Yasuhiro Takikawa,[5] Takafumi Saito,[6] Yasuji Arase,[7] Fumio Imazeki,[8] Masayuki Kurosaki,[9] Takeji Umemura,[10] Takafumi Ichida,[11] Hidenori Toyoda,[12] Masashi Yoneda,[13] Eiji Mita,[14] Kazuhide Yamamoto,[15] Kojiro Michitaka,[16] Tatsuji Maeshiro,[17] Junko Tanuma,[18] Yasuhito Tanaka,[19] Masaya Sugiyama,[1] Kazumoto Murata,[1] Naohiko Masaki,[1] and Masashi Mizokami,[1] and the Japanese AHB Study Group

The proportion of patients who progress to chronicity following acute hepatitis B (AHB) varies widely worldwide. Moreover, the association between viral persistence after AHB and hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotypes in adults remains unclear. A nationwide multicenter study was conducted throughout Japan to evaluate the influence of clinical and virological factors on chronic outcomes in patients with AHB. For comparing factors between AHB patients with viral persistence and those with self-limited infection, 212 AHB patients without human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) coinfection were observed in 38 liver centers until serum hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) disappeared or a minimum of 6 months in cases where HBsAg persisted. The time to disappearance of HBsAg was significantly longer for genotype A patients than that of patients infected with non-A genotypes. When chronicity was defined as the persistence of HBsAg positivity for more than 6 or 12 months, the rate of progression to chronicity was higher in patients with genotype A, although many cases caused by genotype A were prolonged cases of AHB, rather than chronic infection. Multivariate logistic regression analysis revealed only genotype A was independently associated with viral persistence following AHB. A higher peak level of HBV DNA and a lower peak of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels were characteristics of AHB caused by genotype A. Treatment with nucleotide analogs (NAs) did not prevent progression to chronic infection following AHB overall. Subanalysis suggested early NA initiation may enhance the viral clearance. *Conclusion*: Genotype A was an independent risk factor for progression to chronic infection following AHB. Our data will be useful in elucidating the association between viral persistence after AHB, host genetic factors, and treatment with NAs in future studies. (HEPATOLOGY 2014;59:89-97)

Abbreviations: AHB, acute hepatitis B; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; anti-HBc, antibody to hepatitis B core antigen; anti-HBs, antibody to HBsAg; HBeAg, hepatitis B e-antigen; CLIA, chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay; EIA, enzyme immunoassay; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; IgM, immunoglobulin M; anti-HBe, antibody to HBeAg; NAs, nucleotide analogs; RPHA, reverse passive hemagglutination.

From the [1]The Research Center for Hepatitis and Immunology, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Ichikawa, Japan; [2]Department of Internal Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan; [3]Clinical Research Center, NHO Nagasaki Medical Center, Nagasaki, Japan; [4]Department of Gastroenterology, Sapporo Kosei General Hospital, Sapporo; [5]First Department of Internal Medicine, Iwate Medical University, Morioka, Japan; [6]Department of Gastroenterology, Yamagata University School, Yamagata, Japan; [7]Department of Hepatology, Toranomon Hospital, Tokyo, Japan; [8]Department of Medicine and Clinical Oncology, Chiba University, Graduate School of Medicine, Chiba, Japan; [9]Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Musashino Red Cross Hospital, Tokyo, Japan; [10]Department of Medicine, Shinshu University School of Medicine, Matsumoto, Japan; [11]Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Juntendo University Shizuoka Hospital, Shizuoka, Japan; [12]Department of Gastroenterology, Ogaki Municipal Hospital, Ogaki, Japan; [13]Department of Gastroenterology, Aichi Medical University School of Medicine, Nagakute, Japan; [14]National Hospital Organization Osaka National Hospital, Osaka, Japan; [15]Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine, Okayama, Japan; [16]Department of Gastroenterology, Ehime University Graduate School of Medicine, Toon, Japan; [17]First Department of Internal Medicine, University Hospital, Faculty of Medicine, University of the Ryukyu, Okinawa, Japan; [18]AIDS Clinical Center, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Tokyo, Japan; [19]Nagoya City University Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Nagoya, Japan.

Received January 5, 2013; accepted July 10, 2013.

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection is one of the most common persistent viral infections in humans. Approximately 2 billion people worldwide have been exposed to HBV and 350 million of them remain persistently infected.[1] The incidence of HBV infection and the patterns of transmission vary greatly worldwide among different population subgroups.[2] In Western countries, chronic HBV infection is relatively rare and acquired primarily in adulthood by way of sexual transmission or the use of injectable drugs. Meanwhile, in Asia and most of Africa, the majority of infections are the result of transmission from an infected mother to her newborn. However, very few studies of acute hepatitis B (AHB) in adults have been reported.

HBV genomic sequences vary worldwide and have been classified into at least eight genotypes (A through H) based on an intergroup divergence of 8% or more over the complete nucleotide sequence.[3,4] These genotypes have distinct geographic distributions.[5-7] In particular, genotype A is predominant in Northwestern Europe, the United States, Central Africa, and India.[8,9] The Japanese have been infected with genotypes B and C since prehistoric times.[10] Recently, many lines of evidence have revealed among the Japanese an increase in acute infection with HBV genotype A following sexual transmission.[11,12] As a result of this increasing transmission of genotype A, the distribution of HBV genotypes in Japan clearly differs among patients with acute and chronic infections.[13] Moreover, recent studies suggest that acute infection with HBV genotype A may be associated with an increased risk of progression to persistent infection.[15] Indeed, the prevalence of HBV genotype A in chronic hepatitis B patients doubled in Japan between 2000-2001 and 2005-2006 (1.7% versus 3.5%).[11]

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-1 infection results in an immunodeficient state, with the virus sharing routes of transmission with HBV. HIV-related immunodepletion influences the natural history of HBV infection, and epidemiological studies have revealed that HIV-positive patients are more likely to have a prolonged acute illness following HBV infection and lower rates of hepatitis B e-antigen (HBeAg) clearance.[16] Therefore, in this study patients with coinfection of HIV were excluded to examine the influence of HBV genotype directly without the confounding influence of HIV.

From 2005 to 2010, a multicenter cohort study was conducted throughout Japan on 212 patients with AHB. The aim of this cohort study was to assess the influence of clinical and virological factors, including HBV genotypes and treatment with nucleotide analogs (NAs), on AHB patients who became persistently infected.

Patients and Methods

Patients With AHB. The multiple-source cohort included 212 randomly selected AHB patients without coinfection of HIV. From 2005 through 2010, the study participants were recruited from 38 liver centers throughout Japan. The cohort included patients who were admitted to the hospital because of AHB and who visited the hospital every month after being discharged. The diagnosis of AHB was contingent on the rapid onset of clinical symptoms accompanied by elevated serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels, the detection of serum hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), and a high-titer antibody to hepatitis B core antigen (anti-HBc) of the immunoglobulin M (IgM) class. Patients with initial high-titer anti-HBc (>10.0 S/CO) were diagnosed as having an exacerbation of chronic hepatitis B and were excluded. If the patient had been tested previously, the absence of serum HBsAg and anti-HBc before admission was verified from the medical record to discriminate a new infection from an acute exacerbation of a persistent infection. Patients with acute hepatitis A, hepatitis C, and drug- or alcohol-induced acute hepatitis were also excluded; hepatitis D virus infection was not determined because of its extreme rarity in Japan. The study protocol conformed to the 1975 Declaration of

Supported by Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare grant H21-003 and Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology grant 22790679.

**These authors contributed equally to this work.*

Address reprint requests to: Masashi Mizokami, M.D., Ph.D., Research Center for Hepatitis and Immunology, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, 1-7-1, Konodai, Ichikawa 272-8516, Japan. E-mail:mmizokami@hospk.ncgm.go.jp; fax: +81-(0)47-375-4766.

View this article online at wileyonlinelibrary.com.

DOI 10.1002/hep.26635

Potential conflict of interest: Nothing to report.

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

Table 1. Characteristics of Patients With Genotype A or a Non-A Genotype Acutely Infected With Hepatitis B Virus

Features	Genotype A (n = 107)	Non-A Genotypes (n = 105)*	*P* Value
Age (years)	36.3 ± 12.0	40.7 ± 14.3	0.032
Male sex	102 (95.3)	75 (71.4)	<0.001
HBeAg positive	104 (97.2)	79 (75.2)	<0.001
ALT (IU/L)	1210 ± 646	2225 ± 2851	0.045
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	9.9 ± 9.4	7.5 ± 6.7	0.115
HBV DNA (log copies/mL)	7.0 ± 1.5	5.8 ± 1.5	<0.0001
Duration until disappearance of HBsAg (month)	6.7 ± 8.5	3.4 ± 6.5	<0.0001
Persistence of HBsAg positivity more than 6 months	25 (23.4)	9 (8.6)	0.003
Persistence of HBsAg positivity more than 12 months	8 (7.5)	1† (0.9)	0.018
Sexual transmission	81/84 (96.4)‡	71/79 (89.9)§	0.095
Treatment with NAs	61 (57.0)	42 (40.0)	0.013

Data are presented as n (%), mean ± standard deviation. HBV, hepatitis B virus; HBeAg, hepatitis B e-antigen; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; NAs, nucleotide analogs.

*Non-A genotypes include genotypes B, C, D, F and H (n = 25, 77, 1, 1, and 1, respectively).

†One patient had genotype C.

‡Transmission routes were unknown for 23 patients.

§Transmission routes were unknown for 26 patients.

Helsinki and was approved by the Ethics Committees of the institutions involved. Every patient gave informed consent for this study.

Serological Markers of HBV Infection. HBsAg, HBeAg, antibodies to HBsAg (anti-HBs), HBeAg (anti-HBe), and HBcAg, and anti-HBc of the IgM class were tested by a chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay (CLIA) by ARCHITECT (Abbott Japan, Tokyo, Japan). HBV DNA measurements were performed using a real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay (Cobas TaqMan HBV Auto; Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan).

Genotyping of HBV. The six major HBV genotypes (A through F) were determined serologically by enzyme immunoassay (EIA) using commercial kits (HBV GENOTYPE EIA; Institute of Immunology, Tokyo, Japan). This method is based on the pattern of detection by monoclonal antibodies of a combination of epitopes on preS2-region products, which is specific for each genotype.[17,18] Samples for which EIA could not determine the genotype were examined by direct sequencing of the pre-S2/S gene, followed by phylogenetic analysis.

Treatment With NAs. Treatments with NAs were performed using lamivudine or entecavir for more than 3 months. The individual clinicians determined if NAs were administered to patients, and when the treatment was to be started. The time to onset of treatment with NAs was measured in days from onset of AHB.

Statistical Analysis. Categorical variables were compared between groups by the chi-squared test and noncategorical variables by the Mann-Whitney *U* test. A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered significant. Multivariate analysis was performed using a backward stepwise logistic regression model to determine independent factors for viral persistence following AHB. Variables in the multivariate analysis were selected based on variables that were marginally significant with $P < 0.1$ in univariate analysis. Maintenance of HBsAg positivity was analyzed using the Kaplan-Meier method and significance was tested with the log-rank test. STATA Software (StataCorp, College Station, TX) v. 11.0 was used for analyses.

Results

Comparison of Characteristics Between Genotype A and Non-A Genotype AHB Patients. A total of 107 AHB patients (50.5%) were infected with genotype A while 105 AHB patients (49.5%) were infected with non-A genotypes, including genotypes B (25 [11.8%]), C (76 [35.8%]), D (1 [0.5%]), F (1 [0.5%]), and H (1 [0.5%]). Compared to those infected with non-A genotypes, genotype A patients were significantly younger (36.3 ± 12.0 versus 40.7 ± 14.3 years, $P = 0.032$), predominantly men (95.3% versus 71.4%, $P < 0.001$), and more frequently positive for HBeAg (97.2% versus 75.2%, $P < 0.001$). Moreover, genotype A patients had a lower peak ALT levels (1,210 ± 646 versus 2,225 ± 2,851 IU/L, $P = 0.045$) and a higher peak level of HBV DNA (6.7 ± 8.5 versus 3.4 ± 6.5 log copies/mL, $P < 0.0001$). A significantly higher percentage of genotype A patients were treated with NAs (57% versus 40%, $P = 0.013$). These data are summarized in Table 1.

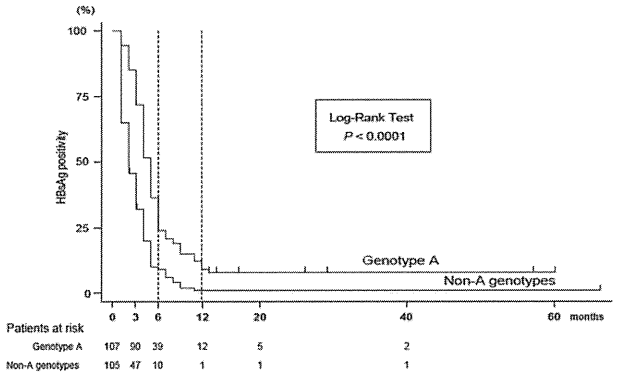

Fig. 1. Comparison of the cumulative proportion of AHB patients maintaining HBsAg positivity between genotype A and non-A genotypes, analyzed using the Kaplan-Meier test. $P < 0.0001$, genotype A: red line, non-A genotypes: blue line.

Cumulative Maintenance of HBsAg Positivity During Follow-up in Patients With Genotype A and Non-A Genotypes. In the patients infected with genotype A and non-A genotypes, the mean durations of HBsAg positivity maintenance were 6.7 ± 8.5 and 3.4 ± 6.5 months, respectively ($P < 0.0001$; Table 1, Fig. 1). For 6 months after AHB onset, the number of patients with genotype A and non-A genotypes maintaining HBsAg positivity were 39/107 (36.4%) and 10/105 (9.5%), respectively ($P < 0.001$). However, in many patients HBsAg disappeared between 7 and 12 months after AHB onset; that is, HBsAg disappeared in 31/107 (29.0%) of patients with genotype A and in 9/105 (8.6%) of patients with non-A genotypes during this time period. However, in some patients HBsAg never disappeared after persisting for more than 12 months following AHB onset. When chronicity after AHB was defined as the persistence of HBsAg for more than 12 months, chronicity developed in 7.5% (8/107) of patients with genotype A and in 0.9% (1/105) of patients with non-A genotypes ($P = 0.018$).

Comparison of Characteristics Between Patients in Whom HBsAg Persisted More Than 6 or 12 Months and Those With Self-Limited AHB Infection. Table 2 compares the demographic and clinical characteristics between patients in whom HBsAg disappeared within 6 months and those in whom HBsAg persisted for more than 6 months from AHB. The peak ALT levels ($1{,}882 \pm 2{,}331$ versus $1{,}018 \pm 696$ IU/L, $P = 0.0024$) and peak HBV DNA levels (6.3 ± 1.6 versus 7.4 ± 1.6 mg/dL, $P = 0.0004$) were significantly higher and lower in the former group than in the latter group, respectively. Moreover, marked differences were present in the distribution of genotypes between the two groups. The percentage of the HBV genotype A (46.1% versus 73.5%, $P = 0.003$) was significantly higher among patients in whom HBsAg was persistent for more than 6 months. In addition, we compared the demographic and clinical characteristics between patients in whom HBsAg disappeared within 12 months and those in whom HBsAg persisted for more than 12 months from AHB. Peak ALT ($1{,}787 \pm 2{,}118$ versus 775 ± 513 IU/L, $P = 0.0089$) and peak total bilirubin (8.7 ± 8.2 versus 3.8 ± 6.6 mg/dL, $P = 0.0039$) levels were significantly higher in the former group than in the latter group. In contrast, the peak HBV DNA levels (6.4 ± 1.6 versus 7.9 ± 1.4 mg/dL, $P = 0.0046$) were significantly lower

Table 2. Comparison Between Patients With Chronicity Following Acute Hepatitis B and Those With Self-Limited Acute Infections Determined by the Persistence of HBsAg for More Than 6 or 12 Months

Features	Disappearance of HBsAg Within 6 Months (n = 178)	Persistence of HBsAg for More Than 6 Months From AHB (n = 34)	*P* Value	Disappearance of HBsAg Within 12 Months (n = 203)	persistence of HBsAg for More Than 12 Months From AHB (n = 9)	*P* Value
Age (years)	38.2 ± 13.1	40.0 ± 14.5	0.454	38.1 ± 13.2	46.7 ± 14.0	0.061
Male sex	147 (82.6)	30 (88.2)	0.416	169 (83.3)	8 (88.9)	0.677
HBeAg positive	150 (84.3)	32 (94.1)	0.131	175 (86.2)	8 (88.9)	0.815
ALT (IU/L)	1882 ± 2331	1018 ± 696	0.0024	1787 ± 2118	775 ± 513	0.0089
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	8.6 ± 7.5	8.7 ± 11.3	0.137	8.7 ± 8.2	3.8 ± 6.6	0.0039
HBV DNA (log copies/mL)	6.3 ± 1.6	7.4 ± 1.6	0.0004	6.4 ± 1.6	7.9 ± 1.4	0.0046
HBV genotype						
Non-A	96 (53.9)	9 (26.5)		104 (51.2)	1 (11.1)	
A	82 (46.1)	25 (73.5)	0.003	99 (48.8)	8 (88.9)	0.018
Sexual transmission	128/137 (93.4)*	24/26 (92.3)†	0.711	146/157 (93.0)‡	6/6 (100.0)§	0.356
NAs treatment (+)	82 (46.1)	21 (61.8)	0.093	98 (48.3)	8 (88.9)	0.017

Data are presented as n (%) and mean ± SD. HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; AHB, acute hepatitis B, HBeAg, hepatitis B e-antigen; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; HBV, hepatitis B virus; NAs, nucleotide analogs.

*Transmission routes of 41 patients were unknown.

†Transmission routes of 8 patients were unknown.

‡Transmission routes of 46 patients were unknown.

§Transmission routes of 3 patients were unknown.

Table 3. Multivariate Analysis of Factors Independently Associated With Persistence of HBsAg Positivity Following Acute Hepatitis B

	Persistence of HBsAg More Than 6 Months From AHB		
Factors	Odds Ratio	95% CI	*P* Value
ALT (per 1 IU/L increase)	1.000	0.999-1.000	0.035
HBV DNA (per 1 log copy/mL increase)	1.176	0.931-1.484	0.173
Genotypes			
Non-A	1.00		
A	4.224	1.853-9.631	0.001

95% CI, 95% confidence interval; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; HBV, hepatitis B virus.

in the former group than in the latter group. The percentages of HBV genotype A (48.8% versus 88.9%, $P = 0.018$) and NAs treatment (+) (48.3% versus 88.9%, $P = 0.017$) were significantly higher among patients in whom the HBsAg persisted for more than 12 months.

Factors Independently Associated With Viral Persistence Following AHB. A stepwise logistic regression model was used to perform multivariate analysis which explains relationships between some factors and persistence of HBsAg positivity more than 6 months following AHB. Peak ALT level, peak HBV DNA level, genotype A, and treatment with NAs were retained in the final multivariate logistic model in a backward stepwise manner ($P < 0.1$). For predicting the persistence of HBsAg for more than 6 months, only genotype A was independently associated with progression of AHB to the persistence of HBsAg (odds ratio [OR]: 4.224, $P = 0.001$, Table 3).

Characteristics of Patients Who Progressed to Chronicity That Was Defined as the Persistence of HBsAg for More Than 12 Months Following Acute Hepatitis B. Table 4 shows the clinical and virological characteristics of nine patients who progressed to chronicity defined as the persistence of HBsAg for more than 12 months following AHB. Among the nine patients who progressed to chronicity from AHB, eight (88.9%) were men and eight (88.9%) were HBeAg-positive. In general, among the patients who progressed to chronicity following AHB, the peak HBV DNA levels were high, and the peak total bilirubin and ALT levels were low. In eight (88.9%) patients, entecavir was administered; however, the duration until the onset of NA treatment from AHB onset was long (75-570 days).

Early Onset of Treatment With NAs Was Able to Prevent Viral Persistence After AHB Caused by Genotype A. The cumulative proportion maintaining HBsAg positivity during follow-up, expressed in terms of time after AHB onset, were significantly longer in patients with NAs treatment than in those without NAs treatment ($P = 0.046$, Fig. 2A). Table 5 shows the percentages of patients in whom HBsAg persisted for more than 6 or 12 months among patients categorized based on the period of time (i.e., duration) until the onset of NAs treatment. For patients in whom the onset of NAs treatment was less than 4 weeks from the onset of AHB, 12.7% of the patients showed persistent HBsAg for more than 6 months, while none showed HBsAg positivity for more than 12 months. For patients in whom the onset of NAs treatment was at 5-8 weeks, 37.5% of the patients showed persistent HBsAg for more than 6 months, whereas none showed persistent HBsAg for more than 12 months. For all groups, the period of HBsAg positivity in patients starting NAs treatment within 8 weeks from AHB onset was significantly shorter than that in patients beginning NAs treatment after more than 8 weeks from AHB onset ($P < 0.0001$, Fig. 2B). Patients starting NAs treatment within 8 weeks from AHB onset never progressed to chronicity after AHB caused by genotype A.

Table 4. Characteristics of Patients Who Progressed to Chronicity Following Acute Hepatitis B

Case	Age	Gender	HIV	HBeAg	HBV DNA (log copies/mL)	Total Bilirubin (mg/dL)	ALT (IU/L)	Observation Period (Months)	NAs Treatment	Duration Until NAs Treatment (Days)	Transmission Routes	Genotype
1	23	Male	(−)	(+)	7.6	1.7	1271	26	ETV	570	Heterosexual	A
2	40	Male	(−)	(−)	8.8	1.4	568	13	ETV	240	Heterosexual	A
3	45	Male	(−)	(+)	7.7	0.9	867	57	ETV	135	Heterosexual	A
4	37	Male	(−)	(+)	7.6	3.4	384	29	ETV	75	Unknown	A
5	54	Male	(−)	(+)	9	2	455	17	ETV	155	Homosexual	A
6	45	Male	(−)	(+)	4.8	21.2	512	60	(−)	(−)	Homosexual	A
7	61	Male	(−)	(+)	9.1	1.5	804	17	ETV	88	Unknown	A
8	56	Male	(−)	(+)	9.0	1.1	1820	14	ETV	118	Unknown	A
9	31	Female	(−)	(+)	7.4	0.8	296	66	ETV	150	Blood transfusion	C

HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HBeAg, hepatitis B e-antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; NAs, nucleotide analogs; ETV, entecavir.

Table 5. Proportion of Patients in Whom HBsAg Persisted for More Than 6 or 12 Months Among Patients Categorized Based on the Number of Weeks Until the Onset of NAs Treatment

Duration Until Onset of NAs Treatment (Weeks)	Persistence of HBsAg for More Than 6 Months	Persistence of HBsAg for More Than 12 Months	Total Patients
<4 weeks (n, %)	9 (12.7)	0 (0)	71
5-8 weeks (n, %)	6 (37.5)	0 (0)	16
9-12 weeks (n, %)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	3
13-16 weeks (n, %)	4 (100)	1 (25.0)	4
>17 weeks (n, %)	9 (100)	6 (66.7)	9
Total	29	8	103

HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; NAs, nucleotide analogs.

Discussion

A multicenter nationwide study was conducted throughout Japan to evaluate the influence of clinical and virological factors on chronic outcomes in Japanese patients who contracted AHB in adulthood. The study was feasible in Japan, where a universal vaccination program for HBV has not been implemented because of the extremely high efficacy of the immunoprophylaxis that is given to babies born to carrier mothers. The implementation of this program has resulted in a decrease in the persistent HBV carrier rate from 1.4% to 0.3%.[19] Selective vaccination means that Japanese are more likely to be infected with HBV by way of horizontal transmission since the percentage of the population possessing anti-HBs is much lower than that in countries in which universal vaccination programs have been established.[20] In addition, Japan is faced with the ever-increasing impacts of globalization: as many as 17 million Japanese travel abroad and over 7 million people visit Japan from overseas each year. This "population mixing" may help to explain the increased prevalence in Japan of AHB due to genotype A, which is transmitted through indiscriminate sexual contact. Consequently, Japan may be the only country in the world where the influences of HBV genotypes, including genotype A (as is predominant in Western countries) and genotypes B and C (as are predominant in Asian countries), on chronic outcomes after AHB can be compared.

Currently, the persistence of HBsAg in serum for more than 6 months is considered to represent a progression to chronic infection.[21] However, our data showed that HBsAg frequently disappeared between 7 to 12 months after the onset of AHB in patients with genotype A (31/107 [29.0%]) and non-A genotypes (9/105 [8.6%]) (Fig. 1). These patients were considered to exhibit prolonged cases of AHB, rather than persistent infection. This finding reflects the higher sensitivity of the most up-to-date assays for HBsAg as compared with previous methods. In the present study, HBsAg was measured by CLIA, which has been reported to be about 150 times more sensitive in the detection of HBsAg than reverse passive hemagglutination (RPHA)-HBsAg, which has been used for the last 30 years in Japan.[22] The use of a more sensitive assay for HBsAg results in a longer period during which HBsAg may be detected. In this study, HBsAg did not disappear in nine patients after remaining continuously detectable for more than 12 months. Therefore, the persistence of HBsAg for more than 12 months, as measured with a highly sensitive method for detecting HBsAg, may be suitable for defining the progression of AHB to chronicity; however, further study is necessary to determine whether this definition is appropriate worldwide.

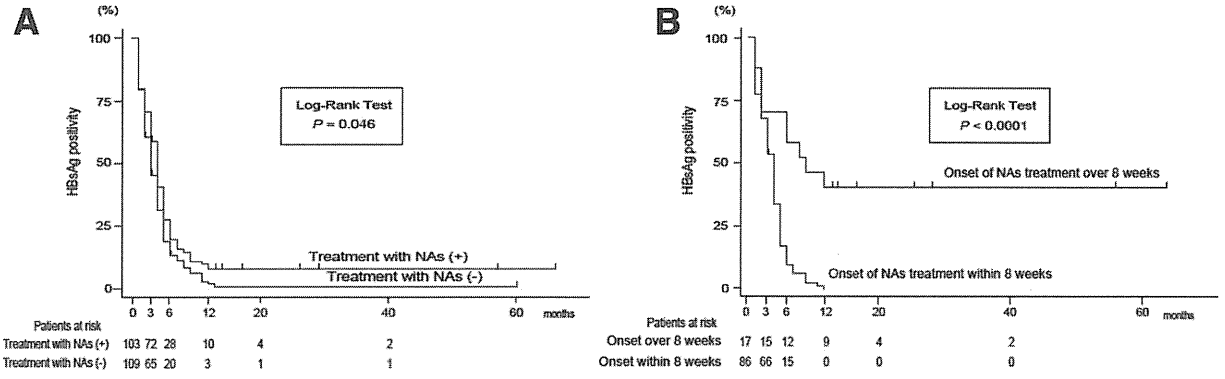

Fig. 2. (A) Comparison of the cumulative proportion of AHB patients maintaining HBsAg positivity between treatment with NAs (+) and treatment with NAs (−), as analyzed using the Kaplan-Meier test. $P = 0.046$, treatment with NAs (+): red line, treatment with NAs (−): blue line. (B) Comparison of the cumulative proportion of AHB patients in genotype A maintaining HBsAg positivity between treatment onset with NAs within 8 weeks and treatment onset with NAs over 8 weeks after onset of AHB, as analyzed using the Kaplan-Meier test. $P < 0.0001$, treatment onset with NAs over 8 weeks: red line, treatment onset with NAs within 8 weeks: blue line.

It has been reported that ~10% of patients who contract HBV as adults do not clear HBsAg from their serum and become carriers.[23] Meanwhile, a wide variation has been seen in the rate of persistence after AHB infection in adults. For example, viral persistence following AHB was seen in 0.2% (1/507) of adults in Greece,[24] 7.7% (5/65) of adult Alaskan Eskimos, and 12.1% (7/58) of adults in Germany.[25] The difference in the proportion of patients progressing from AHB to chronicity in different regions may be attributable to virological and host factors. In this study, 4.2% (9/212) of patients progressed to chronicity after AHB: 7.5% (8/107) of those infected with genotype A and 0.9% (1/105) of those infected with non-A genotypes. The non-A genotypes included genotypes B, C, D, F, and H (n = 25, 77, 1, 1, and 1, respectively). Genotypes B and C are predominant in eastern Asian countries, where the majority of those infected with HBV acquired the virus during the perinatal period by way of vertical transmission.[26] On the other hand, genotype A is predominant in Western countries, where the main route is horizontal transmission later in life.[26,27] Because HBeAg persists long after the infection in the genotype C as compared to other genotypes, this genotype has been shown to be a risk factor for perinatal and horizontal transmission in newborns and children.[28] The predominance of genotype A in Western countries may be attributable to a higher chronicity rate following AHB by way of horizontal transmission in adults.

In this study the characteristics of AHB associated with genotype A were a higher peak level of HBV DNA and a lower peak level of ALT. These findings were similar to those for patients with HBV-HIV coinfection.[29] Such characteristics of genotype A or coinfection with HIV are assumed to be attributable to milder hepatitis associated with weaker cellular immune responses. More slowly replicating viruses have been reported to evoke weaker cellular responses, enhancing the likelihood of persistence.[30] Indeed, our prior study showed that the replication of genotype A was significantly slower than that of genotype C in immunodeficient, human hepatocyte chimeric mice.[31] Moreover, variation among genotypes in the expression pattern of HBeAg may affect the progression of AHB to chronicity. Another previous study of ours revealed that a single form of HBeAg was detected by western blot analysis in serum samples from patients infected with genotypes B through D, but that two additional larger forms of HBeAg were detected in patients with genotype A.[32] Milich and Liang[33] reported that HBeAg may modulate the host immune response as a tolerogen to promote chronicity. Therefore, the different expression pattern of HBeAg by genotype A HBV may contribute to chronicity following AHB.

Early NAs initiation appeared to enhance the viral clearance across genotypes, although treatment with NAs did not show any overall benefit in duration of HBsAg. Previous studies examining the efficacies of NAs for preventing progression to chronic infection after AHB have reported conflicting results. Some small-scale studies have suggested the efficacy of lamivudine and entecavir in preventing the progression of AHB to chronic hepatitis.[34,35] Another study showed a lower seroconversion rate of HBsAg in lamivudine users.[36] Further, a randomized placebo-controlled trial showed no significant difference in clinical outcomes.[37] However, these previous studies did not mention the prevalence of HBV genotypes in the respective study populations. Although this was a retrospective study, our study included data on the prevalence of HBV genotypes. Additionally, our findings suggested that larger prospective randomized studies for every HBV genotype should be performed to determine whether early treatment with NAs prevented the progression of AHB to a chronic state.

In conclusion, in Japan genotype A was an independent risk factor for progression to chronic infection following AHB in adults. Confirmation of this association in patients with AHB in other countries is desirable and may provide insight into the pathogenetic mechanisms underlying this association. Early NA treatment appeared to reduce the likelihood of chronicity but this potentially important intervention needs to be prospectively studied before recommendations can be made.

Appendix

Members of the Japanese AHB Study Group include Yasuharu Imai (Ikeda Municipal Hospital), Norie Yamada, Hideaki Takahashi (St. Marianna University School of Medicine), Koji Ishii (Toho University School of Medicine), Hideyuki Nomura (Shin-Kokura Hospital), Jiro Nishida (Tokyo Dental Collage Ichikawa General Hospital), Shigeru Mikami (Kikkoman Hospital), Tsuneo Kitamura (Juntendo University Urayasu Hospital), Akihito Tsubota (Kashiwa Hospital Jikei University School of Medicine), Noritomo Shimada (Shinmatsudo Central General Hospital), Tetsuya Ishikawa (Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine), Yoshiyuki Ueno (Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine), Tomoyoshi Ohno (Social Insurance Chukyo Hospital), Etsuro Orito (Nagoya

Daini Red Cross Hospital), Michihiro Suzuki (Kawasaki Municipal Tama Hospital), Hitoshi Takagi (Gunma University Graduate School of Medicine), Eiichi Tomita (Gifu Municipal Hospital), Kumada Takashi (Ogaki Municipal Hospital), Toshihiko Mizuta (Saga University Faculty of Medicine), Tetsuya Mine (Tokai University School of Medicine), Jong-Hon Kang (Teine-Keijinkai Hospital), Katsuji Hirano (Juntendo University Shizuoka Hospital), Hirohito Tsubouchi (Kagoshima University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences), Akito Nozaki (Yokohama City University Medical Center), Akito Sakai (Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medical Science), Shuhei Nishiguchi (Hyogo College of Medicine), Akihiro Tamori (Osaka City University Graduate School of Medicine), Satoru Hagiwara (Kinki University School of Medicine), Takahide Nakazawa (University of Kitasato East Hospital), Michio Sata (Kurume University School of Medicine), Toshiro Kamoshida (Hitachi General Hospital) Atsushi Takahashi (Fukushima Medical University School of Medicine), Satoshi Kakizaki (Gunma University Graduate School of Medicine), Yoshimasa Kobayashi (Hamamatsu University School of Medicine), Shigeru Sasaki (Sapporo Medical University), Tadashi Ikegami (Tokyo Medical University Ibaraki Medical Center), Yoichi Hiasa (Ehime University Graduate School of Medicine), Kenji Nagata (University of Miyazaki), Tomoyuki Kubota (Saiseikai Niigata Daini Hospital), Hiroshi Mitsui (Tokyo Teishin Hospital), Norihiko Yamamoto (Mie University School of Medicine), Masataka Tsuge (Hiroshima University), Shuichi Sato (Shimane University Hospital), Yoshito Ito (Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine), Wataru Sato (Akita University School of Medicine), Shigeharu Uchida (Japanese Red Cross Society), Yuki Tada (National Institute of Infectious Diseases), Toshiaki Mizuochi (National Institute of Infectious Diseases), Norihiro Furusho (Kyushu University), and Shuhei Hige (Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine).

References

1. Mast EE, Alter MJ, Margolis HS. Strategies to prevent and control hepatitis B and C virus infections: a global perspective. Vaccine 1999; 17:1730-1733.
2. Lavanchy D. Worldwide epidemiology of HBV infection, disease burden, and vaccine prevention. J Clin Virol 2005;34(Suppl 1):S1-S3.
3. Okamoto H, Tsuda F, Sakugawa H, Sastrosoewignjo RI, Imai M, Miyakawa Y, et al. Typing hepatitis B virus by homology in nucleotide sequence: comparison of surface antigen subtypes. J Gen Virol 1988; 69(Pt 10):2575-2583.
4. Norder H, Hammas B, Lofdahl S, Courouce AM, Magnius LO. Comparison of the amino acid sequences of nine different serotypes of hepatitis B surface antigen and genomic classification of the corresponding hepatitis B virus strains. J Gen Virol 1992;73(Pt 5):1201-1208.
5. Miyakawa Y, Mizokami M. Classifying hepatitis B virus genotypes. Intervirology 2003;46:329-338.
6. Fung SK, Lok AS. Hepatitis B virus genotypes: do they play a role in the outcome of HBV infection? Hepatology 2004;40:790-792.
7. Norder H, Courouce AM, Coursaget P, Echevarria JM, Lee SD, Mushahwar IK, et al. Genetic diversity of hepatitis B virus strains derived worldwide: genotypes, subgenotypes, and HBsAg subtypes. Intervirology 2004;47:289-309.
8. Kurbanov F, Tanaka Y, Mizokami M. Geographical and genetic diversity of the human hepatitis B virus. Hepatol Res;40:14-30.
9. Kao JH. Hepatitis B viral genotypes: clinical relevance and molecular characteristics. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2002;17:643-650.
10. Orito E, Ichida T, Sakugawa H, Sata M, Horiike N, Hino K, et al. Geographic distribution of hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype in patients with chronic HBV infection in Japan. Hepatology 2001;34: 590-594.
11. Matsuura K, Tanaka Y, Hige S, Yamada G, Murawaki Y, Komatsu M, et al. Distribution of hepatitis B virus genotypes among patients with chronic infection in Japan shifting toward an increase of genotype A. J Clin Microbiol 2009;47:1476-1483.
12. Ozasa A, Tanaka Y, Orito E, Sugiyama M, Kang JH, Hige S, et al. Influence of genotypes and precore mutations on fulminant or chronic outcome of acute hepatitis B virus infection. Hepatology 2006;44:326-334.
13. Kobayashi M, Ikeda K, Arase Y, Suzuki F, Akuta N, Hosaka T, et al. Change of hepatitis B virus genotypes in acute and chronic infections in Japan. J Med Virol 2008;80:1880-1884.
14. Mayerat C, Mantegani A, Frei PC. Does hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype influence the clinical outcome of HBV infection? J Viral Hepat 1999;6:299-304.
15. Ogawa M, Hasegawa K, Naritomi T, Torii N, Hayashi N. Clinical features and viral sequences of various genotypes of hepatitis B virus compared among patients with acute hepatitis B. Hepatol Res 2002;23: 167-177.
16. Gilson RJ, Hawkins AE, Beecham MR, Ross E, Waite J, Briggs M, et al. Interactions between HIV and hepatitis B virus in homosexual men: effects on the natural history of infection. AIDS 1997;11:597-606.
17. Usuda S, Okamoto H, Iwanari H, Baba K, Tsuda F, Miyakawa Y, et al. Serological detection of hepatitis B virus genotypes by ELISA with monoclonal antibodies to type-specific epitopes in the preS2-region product. J Virol Methods 1999;80:97-112.
18. Usuda S, Okamoto H, Tanaka T, Kidd-Ljunggren K, Holland PV, Miyakawa Y, et al. Differentiation of hepatitis B virus genotypes D and E by ELISA using monoclonal antibodies to epitopes on the preS2-region product. J Virol Methods 2000;87:81-89.
19. Noto H, Terao T, Ryou S, Hirose Y, Yoshida T, Ookubo H, et al. Combined passive and active immunoprophylaxis for preventing perinatal transmission of the hepatitis B virus carrier state in Shizuoka, Japan during 1980-1994. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2003;18:943-949.
20. Yoshikawa A, Suzuki K, Abe A, Tanaka T, Yamaguchi K, Ishikawa Y, et al. Effect of selective vaccination on a decrease in the rate of hepatitis B virus-positive Japanese first-time blood donors. Transfus Med 2009;19:172-179.
21. Lok AS, McMahon BJ. Chronic hepatitis B. Hepatology 2007;45:507-539.
22. Sato S, Ohhashi W, Ihara H, Sakaya S, Kato T, Ikeda H. Comparison of the sensitivity of NAT using pooled donor samples for HBV and that of a serologic HBsAg assay. Transfusion 2001;41:1107-1113.
23. Sherlock SDJ, editor. Virus hepatitis. London: Blackwell Scientific; 1997.
24. Tassopoulos NC, Papaevangelou GJ, Sjogren MH, Roumeliotou-Karayannis A, Gerin JL, Purcell RH. Natural history of acute hepatitis B surface antigen-positive hepatitis in Greek adults. Gastroenterology 1987;92:1844-1850.

25. McMahon BJ, Alward WL, Hall DB, Heyward WL, Bender TR, Francis DP, et al. Acute hepatitis B virus infection: relation of age to the clinical expression of disease and subsequent development of the carrier state. J Infect Dis 1985;151:599-603.
26. Kao JH, Chen DS. Global control of hepatitis B virus infection. Lancet Infect Dis 2002;2:395-403.
27. Chu CJ, Keeffe EB, Han SH, Perrillo RP, Min AD, Soldevila-Pico C, et al. Hepatitis B virus genotypes in the United States: results of a nationwide study. Gastroenterology 2003;125:444-451.
28. Livingston SE, Simonetti JP, Bulkow LR, Homan CE, Snoweball MM, Cagle HH, et al. Clearance of hepatitis B e antigen in patients with chronic hepatitis B and genotypes A, B, C, D, and F. Gastroenterology. 2007;133:1452-7.
29. Colin JF, Cazals-Hatem D, Loriot MA, Martinot-Peignoux M, Pham BN, Auperin A, et al. Influence of human immunodeficiency virus infection on chronic hepatitis B in homosexual men. Hepatology 1999;29:1306-1310.
30. Bocharov G, Ludewig B, Bertoletti A, Klenerman P, Junt T, Krebs P, et al. Underwhelming the immune response: effect of slow virus growth on CD8+-T-lymphocyte responses. J Virol 2004;78:2247-2254.
31. Sugiyama M, Tanaka Y, Kato T, Orito E, Ito K, Acharya SK, et al. Influence of hepatitis B virus genotypes on the intra- and extracellular expression of viral DNA and antigens. Hepatology 2006;44:915-924.
32. Ito K, Kim KH, Lok AS, Tong S. Characterization of genotype-specific carboxyl-terminal cleavage sites of hepatitis B virus e antigen precursor and identification of furin as the candidate enzyme. J Virol 2009;83: 3507-3517.
33. Milich D, Liang TJ. Exploring the biological basis of hepatitis B e antigen in hepatitis B virus infection. Hepatology 2003;38:1075-1086.
34. Lisotti A, Azzaroli F, Buonfiglioli F, Montagnani M, Alessandrelli F, Mazzella G. Lamivudine treatment for severe acute HBV hepatitis. Int J Med Sci 2008;5:309-312.
35. Jochum C, Gieseler RK, Gawlista I, Fiedler A, Manka P, Saner FH, et al. Hepatitis B-associated acute liver failure: immediate treatment with entecavir inhibits hepatitis B virus replication and potentially its sequelae. Digestion 2009;80:235-240.
36. Yu JW, Sun LJ, Zhao YH, Kang P, Li SC. The study of efficacy of lamivudine in patients with severe acute hepatitis B. Dig Dis Sci 2010;55: 775-783.
37. Kumar M, Satapathy S, Monga R, Das K, Hissar S, Pande C, et al. A randomized controlled trial of lamivudine to treat acute hepatitis B. Hepatology 2007;45:97-101.

High Levels of Hepatitis B Virus After the Onset of Disease Lead to Chronic Infection in Patients With Acute Hepatitis B

Hiroshi Yotsuyanagi,[1,a] Kiyoaki Ito,[2,5,a] Norie Yamada,[1,3,4] Hideaki Takahashi,[3] Chiaki Okuse,[3] Kiyomi Yasuda,[4] Michihiro Suzuki,[3] Kyoji Moriya,[1] Masashi Mizokami,[2] Yuzo Miyakawa,[6] and Kazuhiko Koike[1]

[1]Department of Internal Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Bunkyo; [2]The Research Center for Hepatitis and Immunology, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Ichikawa; [3]Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Internal Medicine, St Marianna University School of Medicine, Kawasaki; and [4]Department of Internal Medicine, Center for Liver Diseases, Kiyokawa Hospital, Suginami, [5]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Aichi Medical University School of Medicine, and [6]Miyakawa Memorial Research Foundation, Minato, Tokyo, Japan

Background. Some patients with acute hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection develop chronic infection. However, the method for identifying these patients has not been established.

Methods. We followed 215 Japanese patients with acute HBV infection until the clearance of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) or the development of chronic infection. Levels of HBsAg and HBV DNA were serially monitored from the onset.

Results. Of the 215 patients, 113 (52.5%) possessed HBV genotype A, 26 (12.0%) genotype B, and 73 (34.0%) genotype C. Twenty-one of the 215 (9.8%) developed chronic infection, with the persistence of HBsAg for >6 months. The rate of chronicity of genotype A, B, and C was 12.4%, 3.8%, and 8.2%. Of the 21 patients, only 6 (2.8%) patients, including 5 with genotype A, failed to clear HBsAg within 12 months. Levels of HBsAg at 12 weeks and HBV DNA at 4 weeks were useful for distinguishing the patients who became chronic from those who did not ($P < .001$ and $P < .001$, respectively). Likewise, the levels of HBsAg at 12 weeks and HBV DNA at 8 weeks were useful for discriminating between the patients who lost HBsAg within 12 months and those who did not ($P < .01$ and $P < .05$, respectively).

Conclusions. In acute HBV infection, clearance of HBV may happen between 6 and 12 months from the onset. Only those who fail to clear HBV within 12 months from the onset may develop chronic infection.

Keywords. hepatitis B virus antigen; hepatitis B virus; genotype.

The clinical outcome of acute hepatitis B is self-limited in the majority of immunocompetent adults. However, some patients run a prolonged or even chronic course, or are complicated by acute liver failure. Several factors are implicated in different clinical courses.

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotypes and subtypes are known to influence the clinical outcome of acute hepatitis B. For instance, HBV subgenotype B1 is associated with fulminant hepatic failure in acute hepatitis B [1]. On the other hand, genotype A is associated with chronic sequelae [2–5]. Furthermore, patients with subgenotype C2 are more likely to develop chronic infection than those with subgenotype B2 [6]. These characteristics may reflect viral kinetics in acute HBV infection that would differ among HBV infections with distinct genotypes/subgenotypes, but little is known about them.

Quantitation of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), in addition to HBV DNA, has been introduced to analysis of viral kinetics in patients with chronic hepatitis B in recent years. HBsAg levels are also useful for estimating

Received 14 February 2013; accepted 9 May 2013; electronically published 23 May 2013.

[a]H. Y. and K. I contributed equally to this work.

Correspondence: Hiroshi Yotsuyanagi, MD, Department of Internal Medicine, Graduate Institute of Medicine, University of Tokyo, 7-3-1, Hongo, Bunkyo, Tokyo 113-8655, Japan (hyotsu-tky@umin.ac.jp).

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2013;57(7):935–42

DOI: 10.1093/cid/cit348