(CLEIA)-based HISCL HBsAg assay manufactured by Sysmex Corporation (Kobe, Japan). The assay had a quantitative range of −1.5 to 3.3 log IU/mL. End titer was determined by diluting samples with normal human serum when initial results exceeded the upper limit of the assay range.

Serum concentration of HBV DNA was determined using an Amplicor HBV monitor kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan),[20] which had a quantitative range of 2.6 to 7.6 log copies/mL. Serum HBV DNA was also determined using a COBAS TaqMan HBV kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan)[21] with a quantitative range of 2.1 to 9.0 log copies/mL in 43 patients whose serum samples were available at the time of NA discontinuation. According to the manufacturer's instructions, detection of a positive signal below the quantitative range was described as a positive signal, and no signal detection was described as a negative signal. Six HBV genotypes (A–F) were evaluated according to the restriction patterns of DNA fragments from the method reported by Mizokami *et al.*[22]

Serum hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels were measured using a CLEIA HBcrAg assay kit with a fully automated Lumipulse System analyzer (Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan) as described previously.[23,24] Briefly, 150 μL of serum was incubated with pretreatment solution and then added to a ferrite microparticle suspension in an assay cartridge. Ferrite particles were coated with a monoclonal antibody mixture against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. After incubation and washing, further incubation was carried out with alkaline phosphatase conjugated with two kinds of monoclonal antibodies against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. Following washing, a substrate solution was added to the test cartridge and then incubated. The relative chemiluminescence intensity was measured, and HBcrAg concentration was calculated by a standard curve generated using recombinant pro-HBeAg. The immunoreactivity of pro-HBeAg at 10 fg/mL was defined as 1 U/mL. We expressed HBcrAg in terms of log U/mL, with a quantitative range set at 3.0 to 6.8 log U/mL.

Statistical analyses

A linear regression model was used to examine for associations between mean and maximal values of both ALT and HBV DNA. Correlations between variables were calculated using the Spearman's rank correction correlation coefficient test. Each cut-off value was decided using receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis and results were evaluated by measuring the area under the curve (AUC). The Fisher's exact and Pearson's χ^2 tests

were adopted to test for differences between subgroups of patients. To compare continuous data, the Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to estimate rates of non-relapse observations, and the log-rank test was used to test hypotheses concerning differences in non-relapse observations between selected groups. Multivariate analyses were performed using the Cox regression model. Variables associated with a *P*-value < 0.2 in univariate analyses were included in a stepwise Cox regression analysis to identify independent factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs. All tests were performed using the IBM SPSS Statistics Desktop for Japan ver. 19.0 (IBM Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan). *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Definition of hepatitis relapse after discontinuation of NAs

THE CLINICAL CONDITIONS of a successful discontinuation of NAs were set at serum HBV DNA below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L according to the Japanese guidelines for the treatment of hepatitis B.[18] However, these criteria could not be directly applied to our cohort as post-therapy fluctuations in ALT and HBV DNA were difficult to evaluate consistently. In total, 26 (76%) of 34 patients with successful discontinuation of NAs showed transient abnormal levels of ALT and/or HBV DNA, especially during the early phase after cessation. We therefore used mean and maximal values of these markers to evaluate relapse of hepatitis B in this study; mean values were used to evaluate relapse of hepatitis as a whole, and maximal values were used to dynamically assess relapse during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation. Both ALT and HBV DNA were measured 11.0 times per year on average during the first year and 4.1 times per year on average thereafter.

The mean values of HBV DNA were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.853. Similarly, the mean values of ALT were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.940 (Fig. 1). The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to a maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.930, $P < 0.001$), and the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to a maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L (AUC = 0.988, $P < 0.001$). These results suggested that patients having serum HBV DNA higher
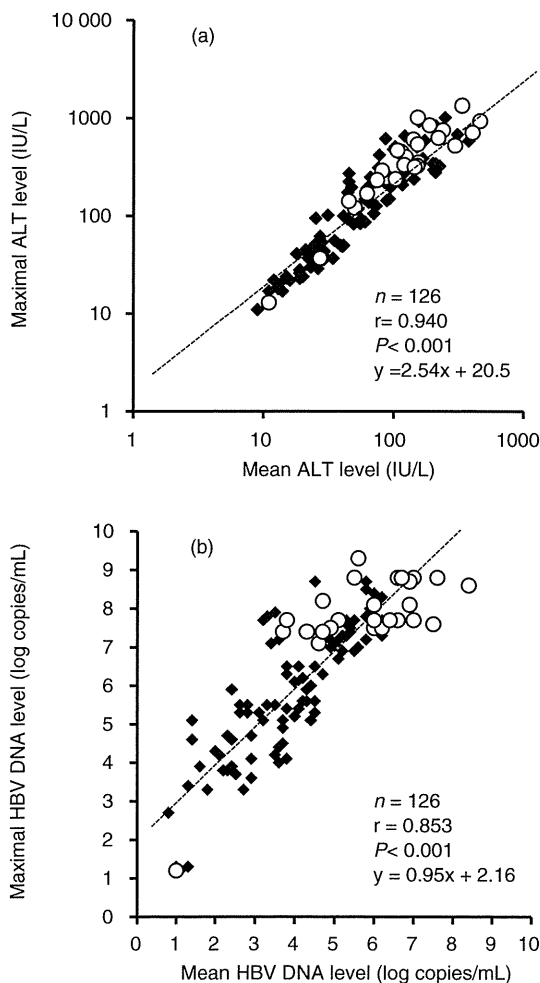
Figure 1 Correlation between maximal and mean levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) (a) and hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA (b) after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs). Open circles indicate patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and closed squares indicate patients without detectable HBeAg.

than 5.7 log copies/mL during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation were not likely to achieve the HBV DNA criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 4.0 log copies/mL. Similarly, it could be inferred that patients reaching ALT levels higher than 79 IU/L would also not likely achieve the ALT criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 30 IU/L.

Based on our findings, we judged that a relapse of hepatitis B occurred when serum ALT exceeded 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA exceeded 5.7 log copies/mL

following NA discontinuation. Accordingly, 92 (73%) of the 126 patients enrolled in the present study showed a relapse. We set the follow-up period as discontinuation to relapse for relapse patients and as discontinuation to the last recorded examination for patients without relapse. Whereas re-administration of NAs due to relapse was commenced in 70% of relapse patients in the follow-up period, none was performed in non-relapse patients during that time.

Elimination of cases likely to show relapse of hepatitis

As it is generally believed that patients who are positive for HBeAg and/or have a higher level of HBV DNA at discontinuation of NAs are likely to relapse, these factors were assessed first. The progression of analyses in the present study and the population structure of each analysis are shown in Figure 2.

The non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 3). The revised cut-off value of 3.0 log copies/mL was determined by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.709, $P < 0.001$). Thirty (97%) of 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL relapsed within one year of discontinuation. On the other hand, approximately 30% of patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL showed prolonged non-relapse. Thus, the 31 patients with high HBV DNA at the time of discontinuation were eliminated from the following analyses.

In the remaining 95 patients, the non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable HBeAg and 85 patients without HBeAg when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 4). Ninety percent of patients with HBeAg experienced relapse within one year, which was significantly ($P = 0.005$) higher than in cases without HBeAg. In patients without HBeAg, the non-relapse rate decreased rapidly during the first year to approximately 45%, and then decreased relatively slowly over the following 3 years to nearly 30%. It is noteworthy that this subgroup did not relapse afterwards. Since the relapse rate was high among patients with detectable HBeAg, they were excluded from the following analyses as well.

Factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs

Additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis were analyzed in the remaining 85 patients who were
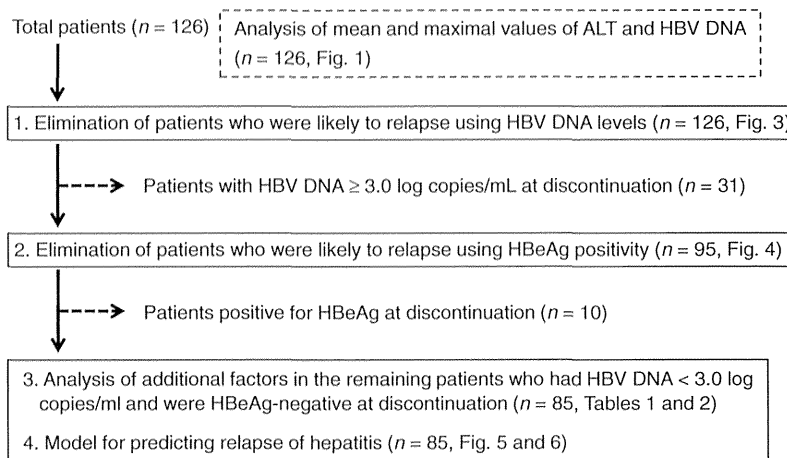
Total patients (n = 126) | Analysis of mean and maximal values of ALT and HBV DNA (n = 126, Fig. 1)

1. Elimination of patients who were likely to relapse using HBV DNA levels (n = 126, Fig. 3)

----> Patients with HBV DNA ≥ 3.0 log copies/mL at discontinuation (n = 31)

2. Elimination of patients who were likely to relapse using HBeAg positivity (n = 95, Fig. 4)

----> Patients positive for HBeAg at discontinuation (n = 10)

3. Analysis of additional factors in the remaining patients who had HBV DNA < 3.0 log copies/ml and were HBeAg-negative at discontinuation (n = 85, Tables 1 and 2)

4. Model for predicting relapse of hepatitis (n = 85, Fig. 5 and 6)

Figure 2 The progression of analyses in the present study and population structure of each analysis.

both negative for HBeAg and whose serum HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at NA cessation. Table 1 shows the comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between the 53 relapse and 32 non-relapse patients using univariate analysis. Age and gender distributions were similar between the groups. Approximately 75% of the 85 patients had HBV genotype C, but the distribution of genotypes did not differ between the groups. Approximately 90% of patients were being treated with LVD alone at the time of discontinuation, compared with 6% of patients being given ETV. The median duration of NA treatment was about two times longer in patients without relapse. Levels of both HBsAg

and HBcrAg were significantly lower in non-relapse patients than in relapse patients at the time of NA discontinuation. The difference between serum HBsAg was also significant at the initiation of NAs, but not that of HBcrAg. As only patients with HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL were analyzed, the majority of these cases showed levels below the 2.6 log copies/mL lower detection limit of the Amplicor assay at NA discontinuation. We therefore also tested HBV DNA with a TaqMan assay, which had a higher sensitivity than the Amplicor assay, in 43 patients whose serum samples were available. The prevalence of patients having a negative detection signal did not differ between the two groups. The number of
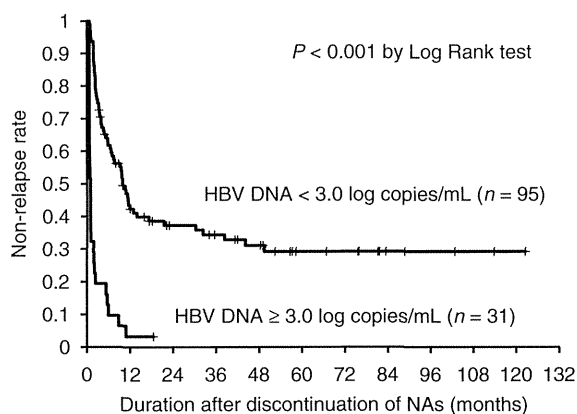
Figure 3 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with serum HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.
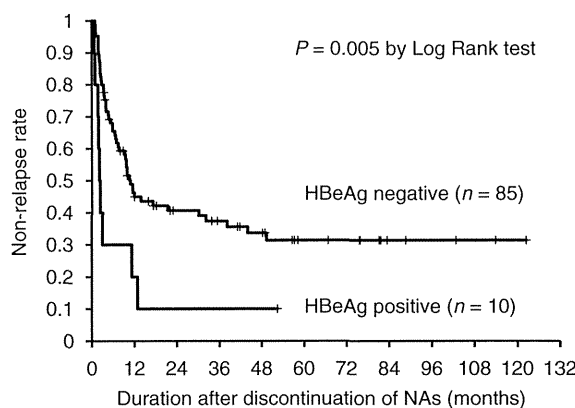
Figure 4 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and 85 patients without detectable HBeAg at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

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Table 1 Comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between patients with and without relapse of hepatitis at initiation and discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Background	Non-relapse patients ($n = 32$)	Relapse patients ($n = 53$)	P-value
At initiation of NAs			
Age (years)†	47 (17–75)	48 (26–74)	>0.2
Gender (M : F)	23:9	32:21	>0.2
ALT (IU/L)†	183 (9–1182)	187 (20–2052)	>0.2
Genotype (A : B : C : UD)	1:2:21:8	0:3:44:6	0.193
HBeAg (positive)‡	11 (34%)	16 (30%)	>0.2
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	6.2 (<2.6->7.6)	6.5 (<2.6->7.6)	0.099
HBsAg (log IU/mL)†	2.7 (0.1–4.3)	3.3 (1.6–3.9)	0.018
HBcrAg (log U/mL)†	5.2 (<3.0->6.8)	5.6 (<3.0->6.8)	>0.2
At discontinuation of NAs			
Age (years)†	50 (21–78)	49 (26–79)	>0.2
NAs (LVD : LVD+ADV : ETV : ADV)	28:1:3:0	50:0:2:1	>0.2
Duration of NA treatment (months)†	36 (4–129)	17 (4–84)	0.007
Follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs (months)†	45 (6–123)	12 (1–111)	0.002
ALT (IU/L)†	16 (7–38)	20 (9–65)	0.002
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative signal)‡	5 (23%) ($n = 22$)	3 (14%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative or positive signal)‡	13 (59%) ($n = 22$)	13 (62%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
HBsAg (log IU/ml)†	2.0 (<-1.5–4.3)	3.1 (0.6–4.0)	0.001
HBcrAg (log IU/mL)†	3.4 (<3.0–4.9)	4.3 (<3.0->6.8)	0.003

†Data are expressed as the median (range)
‡Data are expressed as a positive number (%)
ADV; adefovir dipivoxil; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ETV, entecavir; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; LVD, lamivudine; UD, undetermined.

patients with a negative detection signal or a positive signal also did not vary significantly. The follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs was significantly shorter in patients with relapse than in those without because formal follow-up ended once patients relapsed. The median period of follow-up was 45 months in patients without relapse.

Multivariate analyses revealed that a shorter duration of NA treatment and higher levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation were significantly associated with the occurrence of hepatitis relapse (Table 2). The cut-off

values that showed the highest significance by ROC analysis were 1.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg (AUC = 0.707, $P = 0.001$), 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg (AUC = 0.692, $P = 0.003$), and 16 months (AUC = 0.674, $P = 0.007$) for treatment duration.

Model for predicting relapse of hepatitis using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg

The existence of a second cut-off value was suggested by ROC analysis for both of HBsAg (2.9 log IU/mL) and HBcrAg (3.0 log IU/mL) to discriminate between

Table 2 Multivariate analysis of factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Factor	Hazard ratio	95%CI	P-value
HBsAg at discontinuation ≥ 1.9 log IU/mL	5.21	1.87–14.55	0.002
HBcrAg at discontinuation ≥ 4.0 log U/mL	2.20	1.25–3.87	0.006
Duration of NA treatment ≥ 16 months	0.54	0.31–0.93	0.027

CI, confidence interval; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen.

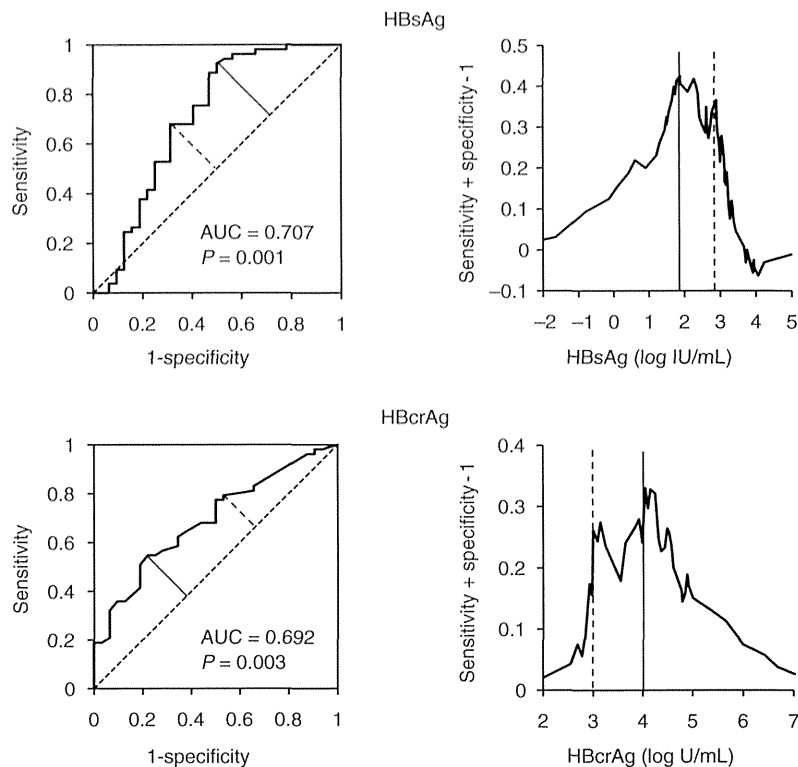© 2011 The Japan Society of Hepatology

Figure 5 Receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) to discriminate between patients with and without hepatitis relapse. The existence of two inflection points is suggested for both HBsAg and HBcrAg. Short diagonal lines indicate main inflection points and short broken diagonal lines indicate second inflection points. Vertical lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the main inflection points and vertical broken lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the second inflection points.

patients with and without relapse (Fig. 5). Thus, we set cut-off values as 1.9 and 2.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg and 3.0 and 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg in our model for predicting hepatitis relapse.

We tentatively defined three groups using the sum of the scores for HBsAg and HBcrAg levels at the time of NA discontinuation for our model. Conversions were made by assigning a score of 0 for an HBsAg level lower than 1.9 log IU/mL, 1 for a level from 1.9 to 2.8 log IU/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 2.9 log IU/mL. HBcrAg was scored as 0 for a level lower than 3.0 log U/mL, 1 for a level from 3.0 to 3.9 log U/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 4.0 log U/mL. Overall, group 1 consisted of patients with a total score of 0, group 2 of patients with a total score of 1 or 2, and group 3 of patients with a total score of 3 or 4.

Patients whose HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and in whom HBeAg was negative at the time of NA discontinuation were assigned to one of the three groups. Figure 6 shows the comparison of non-relapse rates among the three groups using Kaplan–Meier analysis, which differed significantly. The non-relapse rate was approximately 90% in group 1, as low as 10% in

group 3, and intermediate in group 2. When factors associated with relapse were analyzed in group 3 patients, an age of over 40 years at the time of discontinuation was calculated as a significant factor (hazard
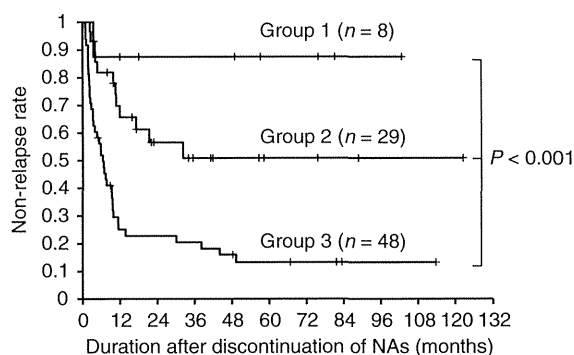

Figure 6 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method among three groups classified by the sum of the scores of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

ratio = 5.25, range 2.37–11.65, $P < 0.001$). No significant factors were associated with relapse in group 2 patients.

DISCUSSION

THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION for the Study of the Liver recommends continuation of NA treatment until HBsAg is cleared.[25] Liu *et al.* came to a similar conclusion in their study of chronic hepatitis B patients treated with LVD.[14] Indeed, the clearance of HBsAg is a reliable marker for the safe discontinuation of NAs, but the rate of patients who can clear HBsAg is relatively low (1–3%/year).[26–28] Thus, additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis B after discontinuation of NAs were analyzed in the present study to better identify candidates who could achieve drug-free status. Such studies are relatively few, possibly because patients who discontinue NAs prematurely often experience severe complicating relapse and hepatic failure.[9] Although prospective studies are desirable to obtain accurate results, retrospective studies, such as ours, are also necessary to minimize the risk of adverse complications.

Since HBV cannot be completely eradicated in hosts, the primary goal in treating chronic hepatitis B is to convert symptomatic patients into inactive carriers in whom HBeAg is negative (usually anti-HBe-positive), serum HBV DNA is low, and serum ALT is normal.[1,2,18,29] Thus, we set the clinical conditions of a successful discontinuation of NAs as serum HBV DNA level below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L following NA cessation. Patients who satisfy these conditions are not recommended for treatment by the Japanese guidelines for hepatitis B,[18] and it is also widely accepted that the risk of developing cirrhosis or complicating hepatocellular carcinoma is very low in such patients.[30,31] We used our cohort's mean and maximal values of HBV DNA and ALT for relapse analyses. Mean values were useful for evaluating relapse of hepatitis as a whole since parameter levels often fluctuated after discontinuation, and maximal values were used to evaluate relapse in a real-time fashion during the follow-up period. It is noteworthy that the mean and maximal values correlated very closely for both HBV DNA and ALT. The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to the maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis, and similarly the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to the maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L. Thus, relapse of hepatitis B was judged to occur when serum ALT became higher than 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA surpassed 5.7 log copies/mL after the time of NA discon-

tinuation. Such criteria may also be useful for physicians to detect relapse at an early phase and avoid the occurrence of severe reactivation or unnecessary discontinuation of NAs.

It is generally understood that patients with a higher level of HBV DNA at the time of NA discontinuation are likely to relapse, but this cut-off value has not been analyzed sufficiently. Our findings using ROC analysis showed that patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL have a good possibility to achieve successful discontinuation. The presence of HBeAg is also generally accepted as a reliable factor to predict relapse of hepatitis. Our study showed that patients with detectable HBeAg at the time of NA discontinuation were likely to relapse, even if their HBV DNA levels were lower than 3.0 log copies/mL. Therefore, we next analyzed additional factors associated with a relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs by selecting patients who met both of these criteria.

Nucleos(t)ide analog treatment produces a rapid decrease in serum HBV DNA by suppressing reverse transcription of pregenomic HBV RNA. However, the key intrahepatic HBV replicative intermediate, covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA), tends to remain and is capable of reinitiating replication once NAs are ceased.[32] Measurement of HBV cccDNA has been reported to be useful for monitoring and predicting responses to antiviral treatments.[33] However, its measurement is difficult in the clinical setting as it requires a liver biopsy. Due to the mechanism of action of NAs mentioned above, serum HBV DNA does not reflect intrahepatic HBV cccDNA in patients undergoing NA treatment.[34] To address this, quantitative measurement of HBV antigens has been reported to be useful for predicting the effect of antiviral treatment in patients with chronic hepatitis B. Although HBsAg is usually used as a serum marker for the diagnosis of HBV infection, several groups have shown that HBsAg levels can also be reflective of the response to peg-interferon in chronic hepatitis B.[28,35,36] The HBcrAg assay measures serum levels of HB core and e antigens simultaneously using monoclonal antibodies that recognize the common epitopes of these two denatured antigens. Since the assay measures all antigens transcribed from the pre-core/core gene, it is regarded as core-related.[37] Serum HBcrAg has been reported to accurately reflect intracellular levels of HBV cccDNA even during NA treatment,[24,34,38] and was found to be useful for identifying patients who were likely to show relapse of hepatitis after the discontinuation of NAs.[39,40] It is possible that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg have different roles in

monitoring antiviral effects because the transcription of these two antigens are regulated by alternative enhancer-promoter systems in the HBV genome.[3] Therefore, we analyzed both of these antigens to elucidate their ability to predict relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs.

Multivariate analysis demonstrated that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were independent factors significantly associated with relapse of hepatitis. Thus, we believe these factors can also be applied for predicting relapse in patients whose HBV DNA is lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and whose HBeAg is negative at NA discontinuation. HBV DNA levels were further analyzed using a highly sensitive assay based on real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). However, even the level of a negative signal did not ensure successful discontinuation of NAs. The results obtained here indicate that the combined use of HBV-related antigens are useful makers for monitoring the effect of anti-viral treatment in ways different from HBV DNA. Finally, since prolonged NA administration was also a significant factor associated with safe discontinuation, physicians are advised to continue patient treatment for at least 16 months for the best possible outcome.

From our data, a tentative model for predicting relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs was constructed using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation. A negative result for HBeAg and HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of NA discontinuation are the essential conditions in this system. Levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg were each converted into scores from 0 to 2 partly because two cut-off values were needed for each antigen and partly because a scoring system may be more convenient for clinical use. The sum of the two scores, which ranged from 0 to 4, was used to prospect relapse. We found that group 1 patients who had a low score (0) could be recommended to discontinue NAs because nearly 90% of this group achieved successful discontinuation. Further analysis of factors associated with relapse are needed for group 2 patients who had middle range scores (1 or 2), since the odds of achieving successful discontinuation were approximately 50%. Continuation of NA treatment is recommended for group 3 patients having high scores (3 or 4) because nearly 90% of this group relapsed. However, this recommendation may be reconsidered in patients younger than 40 years; such cases tended to have a lower relapse rate in group 3. It is also noteworthy that relapse occurred mainly during the first and second years following NA discontinuation in

all groups, similarly to a report by Liu *et al.*[14] Thus, clinicians should be vigilant in the early phase after discontinuation.

This study has several limitations. The patients who discontinued NAs were recruited retrospectively, and thus the decision to halt NA treatment was made by individual physicians without uniformly established criteria. Based on this, prospective studies are required to confirm our results. Furthermore, as over 90% of the patients we enrolled had genotype C and over 90% of cases were treated with LVD until discontinuation, the results obtained here can not be applied directly to other HBV genotypes or other types of NAs.

In conclusion, the present study showed that maximal levels of serum ALT and HBV DNA were useful for defining relapse patients after discontinuation of NAs. Along with serum HBV DNA of less than 3.0 log copies/mL and negative serum HBeAg, serum levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were able to predict relapse of hepatitis B and should therefore be considered when establishing uniform guidelines regarding the safe withdrawal of NA treatment. To this end, NA administration of more than 16 months is advisable to achieve successful discontinuation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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PLoS one

Genome-Wide Association Study Confirming Association of HLA-DP with Protection against Chronic Hepatitis B and Viral Clearance in Japanese and Korean

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Abstract

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection can lead to serious liver diseases, including liver cirrhosis (LC) and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); however, about 85–90% of infected individuals become inactive carriers with sustained biochemical remission and very low risk of LC or HCC. To identify host genetic factors contributing to HBV clearance, we conducted genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and replication analysis using samples from HBV carriers and spontaneously HBV-resolved Japanese and Korean individuals. Association analysis in the Japanese and Korean data identified the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes with $P_{meta} = 1.89 \times 10^{-12}$ for rs3077 and $P_{meta} = 9.69 \times 10^{-10}$ for rs9277542. We also found that the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes were significantly associated with protective effects against chronic hepatitis B (CHB) in Japanese, Korean and other Asian populations, including Chinese and Thai individuals ($P_{meta} = 4.40 \times 10^{-19}$ for rs3077 and $P_{meta} = 1.28 \times 10^{-15}$ for rs9277542). These results suggest that the associations between the *HLA-DP* locus and the protective effects against persistent HBV infection and with clearance of HBV were replicated widely in East Asian populations; however, there are no reports of GWAS in Caucasian or African populations. Based on the GWAS in this study, there were no significant SNPs associated with HCC development. To clarify the pathogenesis of CHB and the mechanisms of HBV clearance, further studies are necessary, including functional analyses of the HLA-DP molecule.

—105—

Introduction

Overall, one-third of the world's population (2.2 billion) is infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV), and about 15% of these are chronic carriers. About 75% of the chronic carriers live in the east-south Asia and east pacific area, and there are 1.3–1.5 million chronic carriers living in Japan [1]. Of chronic carriers, 10–15% develop liver cirrhosis (LC), liver failure and hepato-cellular carcinoma (HCC), and the remaining individuals eventually achieve a state of nonreplicative infection, resulting in hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) negative and hepatitis B core antibody (anti-HBc) positive, i.e. HBV-resolved individuals [2–3]. In Japan, although the major route of HBV transmission was perinatal transmission and horizontal transmission in early childhood, infant HBV carriers have successfully been reduced since 1986 through a selective vaccination policy by the Japanese government [4–7]. However, the prevalence of HBV genotype A in acute HBV (AHB) infection has increased markedly since 2000, reaching approximately 52% in 2008 due to the lack of a universal HB vaccination, and around 10% of AHB cases could be persistent infection [8–9]. Viral factors, as well as host factors, are thought to be associated with persistent HB infection.

In 2009, significant associations between chronic hepatitis B (CHB) and a region including *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* were identified using 786 Japanese individuals having CHB and 2,201 control individuals through a two-stage genome-wide association study (GWAS) [10]. The same group was also subjected to a second GWAS using a total of 2,667 Japanese persistent HBV infection cases and 6,496 controls, which confirmed significant associations between the *HLA-DP* locus and CHB, in addition to associations with another two SNPs located in the genetic region including the *HLA-DQ* gene [11]. The associations between *HLA-DP* variants with HBV infection were replicated in other Asian populations, including Thai and Han Chinese individuals [10,12–13]. With regard to HBV clearance, the association between the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) class II allele and clearance of HBV was confirmed by the candidate gene approach in African, Caucasian and Asian populations [14–18]. However, in a previous GWAS using samples of Japanese CHB and control individuals, the clinical data on HBV exposure in the control individuals were unknown, and this may have led to bias. Moreover, there have been no reports of GWAS using samples from HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals to identify host genetic factors associated with HBV clearance other than HLA class II molecules.

Here, we performed a GWAS using samples from Japanese HBV carriers, healthy controls and spontaneously HBV-resolved individuals in order to confirm or identify the host genetic factors related to CHB and viral clearance. In the subsequent replication analysis, we validated the associated SNPs in the GWAS using two independent sets of Japanese and Korean individuals. In our study, healthy controls were randomly selected with clinically no evidence of HBV exposure, therefore, HBV-resolved individuals were prepared to clearly identify the host genetic factors related with CHB or HBV clearance.

Results

Protective Effects Against Chronic Hepatitis B in Japanese and Korean Individuals

In this study, we conducted a GWAS using samples from 181 Japanese HBV carriers (including asymptomatic carriers (ASC), CHB cases, LC cases and HCC cases, based on the criteria described in Materials and Methods) and 184 healthy controls in order to identify the host genetic factors related to progression of CHB. All samples were genotyped using a genome-wide SNP typing array (Affymetrix Genome-Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 for 900 K SNPs). Figure 1a shows a genome-wide view of the single point association data based on allele frequencies using the SNPs that met the following filtering criteria: (i) SNP call rate $\geq$95%; (ii) minor allele frequency (MAF) $\geq$1% for HBV carriers and healthy controls; and (iii) no deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) $P\geq0.001$ in healthy controls. We identified significant associations of protective effects against CHB with two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) using the allele frequency model, both of which are located in the 3′ UTR of *HLA-DPA1* and in the sixth exon of *HLA-DPB1*, respectively (rs3077, $P = 1.14\times10^{-7}$, and rs9277542, $P = 5.32\times10^{-8}$, respectively). The association for rs9277542 reached a genome-wide level of significance in the GWAS panel (Bonferroni criterion $P<8.36\times10^{-8}$ (0.05/597,789)).

In order to validate the results of GWAS, a total of 32 SNPs, including the associated two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542), were selected for replication in two independent sets of HBV carriers and healthy controls (replication-1:256 Japanese HBV carriers and 236 Japanese healthy controls; and replication-2:344 Korean HBV carriers and 151 Korean healthy controls; Table 1). The associations for the original significant SNP (rs9277542) and marginal SNP (rs3077) on GWAS were replicated in both replication sets [replication-1 (Japanese); rs3077, $P = 2.70\times10^{-8}$, OR = 0.48 and rs9277542, $P = 3.33\times10^{-6}$, OR = 0.54; replication-2 (Korean); rs3077, $P = 2.08\times10^{-6}$, OR = 0.47 and rs9277542, $P = 8.29\times10^{-5}$, OR = 0.54, Table 2]. We conducted meta-analysis to combine these studies using the DerSimonian Laird method (random effects model) to incorporate variation among studies. As shown in Table 2, the odds ratios were quite similar across the three studies (GWAS and two replication studies) and no heterogeneity was observed ($P_{het} = 0.80$ for rs3077 and 0.40 for rs9277542). P_{meta} values were 4.40×10^{-19} for rs3077 (OR = 0.46, 95% confidence interval (CI) = 0.39–0.54), and 1.28×10^{-15} for rs9277542 (OR = 0.50, 95% CI = 0.43–0.60). Among the remaining 30 SNPs in the replication study, 27 SNPs were successfully genotyped by the DigiTag2 assay with SNP call rate $\geq$ 95% and HWE p-value $\geq$ 0.01. Two SNPs (rs9276431 and rs7768538), located in the genetic region including the *HLA-DQ* gene, were marginally replicated in the two sets of HBV carriers and healthy controls with Mantel-Haenszel P values of 2.80×10^{-7} (OR = 0.56, 95% CI = 0.45–0.70) and 1.09×10^{-7} (OR = 0.53, 95% CI = 0.42–0.67), respectively, when using additive, two-tailed Cochran Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) fixed-effects model with no evidence of heterogeneity ($P_{het} = 0.67$ for rs9276431 and 0.70 for rs7768538) (Table S1).

Meta-analysis using the random effects model across 6 independent studies, including 5 additional published data, showed $P_{meta} = 3.94\times10^{-45}$, OR = 0.55 for rs3077, $P_{meta} = 1.74\times10^{-21}$, OR = 0.61 for rs9277535 and $P_{meta} = 1.69\times10^{-15}$, OR = 0.51 for rs9277542, with the SNP rs9277535 being located about 4-kb upstream from rs9277542 and showing strong linkage disequilibrium of $r^2 = 0.955$ on the HapMap JPT (Table S2). As shown in Table S2, the odds ratio was very similar among the 6 studies, and heterogeneity was negligible with $P_{het} >0.01$.

Moreover, based on GWAS using samples from 94 chronic HBV carriers with LC or HCC and 87 chronic HBV carriers without LC and HCC, we found no significant SNPs associated with CHB progression (Figure S1).
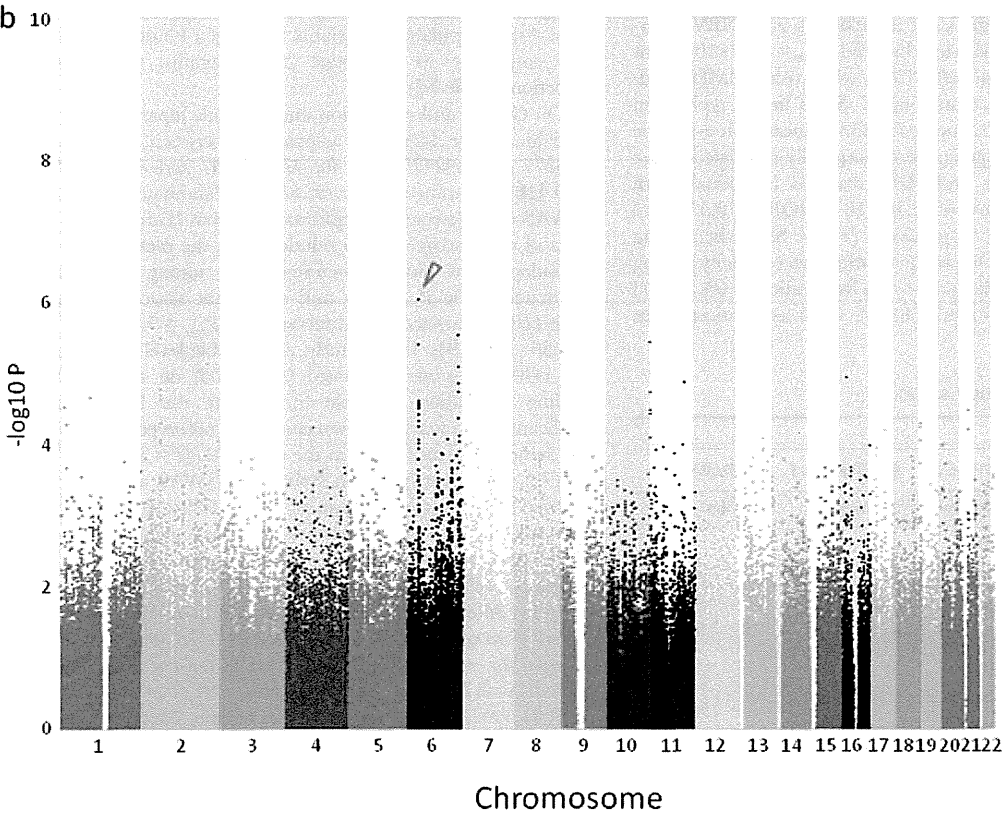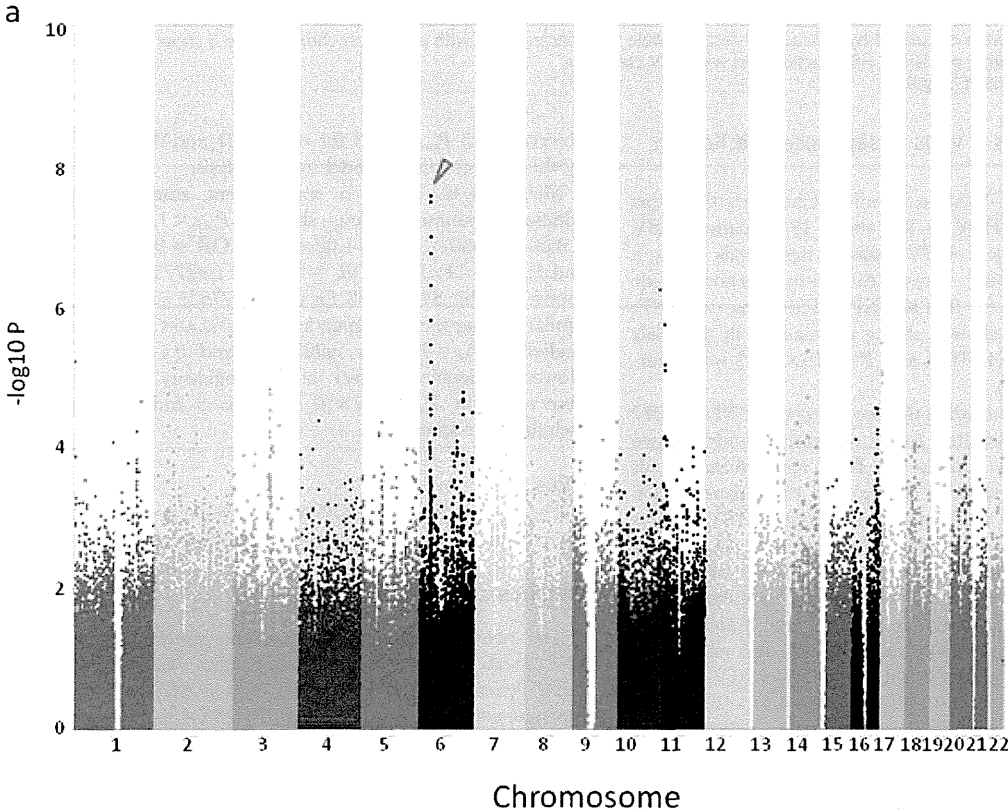
Figure 1. Results of genome-wide association studies. a) HBV carriers and healthy controls, and b) HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals were compared. P values were calculated by chi-squared test for allele frequencies. Dots with arrows on chromosome 6 show strong associations with protective effects against persistent HB infection and with HBV clearance. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039175.g001

Clearance of Hepatitis B virus in Japanese and Korean Individuals

We also conducted a GWAS to identify the host genetic factors related to clearance of HBV in the above 181 Japanese HBV carriers and 185 Japanese HBV-resolved individuals using a genome-wide SNP typing array (Affymetrix Genome-Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 for 900 K SNPs). The same two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) showed strong associations in the allele frequency model ($P = 9.24 \times 10^{-7}$ and $P = 3.15 \times 10^{-5}$) with clearance of HBV (Figure 1b).

The above 32 SNPs, including the two associated SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542), were selected for a replication study in two independent sets of HBV carriers and HBV resolved individuals (replication-1:256 Japanese HBV carriers and 150 Japanese HBV resolved individuals; and replication-2:344 Korean HBV carriers and 106 Korean HBV resolved individuals; Table 1). All 32 SNPs were genotyped using the DigiTag2 assay and 29 of 32 SNPs were successfully genotyped (Table S3). The associations of the original SNPs were replicated in both replication sets [replication-1 (Japanese): rs3077, $P = 3.32 \times 10^{-2}$, OR $= 0.72$ and rs9277542, $P = 1.25 \times 10^{-2}$, OR $= 0.68$; replication-2 (Korean): rs3077, $P = 2.35 \times 10^{-7}$, OR $= 0.41$ and rs9277542, $P = 4.97 \times 10^{-6}$, OR $= 0.46$; Table 3]. Meta-analysis using random effects model showed $P_{meta} = 1.56 \times 10^{-4}$ for rs3077 (OR $= 0.51$, 95% CI $= 0.36$–0.72), and 5.91×10^{-7} for rs9277542 (OR $= 0.55$, 95% CI $= 0.43$–0.69). While there was evidence of heterogeneity between these studies for rs3077 ($P_{het} = 0.03$) and no evidence for rs9277542 ($P_{het} = 0.19$), significant associations with HBV clearance were observed with Mantel-Haenszel $P_{meta} = 3.28 \times 10^{-12}$ for rs3077 and 1.42×10^{-10} for rs9277542, when using CMH fixed-effects model. Among the remaining 27 SNPs in the replication study, two SNPs (rs9276431 and rs7768538), located in a genetic region including *HLA-DQ* gene, were marginally replicated in the two sets of HBV carriers and HBV resolved individuals with Mantel-Haenszel P values of 2.10×10^{-5} (OR $= 0.59$) and 1.10×10^{-5} (OR $= 0.56$), respectively (Table S3), when using CMH fixed-effect model. Due to the existing heterogeneity among three groups (GWAS, Replication-1 and Replication-2) ($P_{het} = 0.03$ for rs9276431 and 0.04 for rs7768538), weak associations were

observed with $P_{meta} = 0.03$ for rs9276431 and 0.02 for rs7768538 by the random effects model meta-analysis.

Meta-analysis across 6 independent studies, including 5 additional published data, showed $P_{meta} = 1.48 \times 10^{-9}$, OR $= 0.60$ for rs3077, $P_{meta} = 1.08 \times 10^{-17}$, OR $= 0.66$ for rs9277535 and $P_{meta} = 5.14 \times 10^{-5}$, OR $= 0.55$ for rs9277542 (Table S4). As shown in Table S4, the OR for the rs9277535 and rs9277542 were similar among the 6 independent studies, and heterogeneity was negligible ($P_{het} = 0.03$ for rs9277535 and 0.14 for rs9277542). However, significant level of heterogeneity for rs3077 was observed with $P_{het} = 9.57 \times 10^{-6}$ across 5 independent studies, including our study.

URLs

The results of the present GWAS are registered at a public database: https://gwas.lifesciencedb.jp/cgi-bin/gwasdb/gwas_top.cgi.

Discussion

The recent genome-wide association study showed that the SNPs located in a genetic region including *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes were associated with chronic HBV infection in the Japanese and Thai population [10,11]. In this study, we confirmed a significant association between SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) located in the same genetic region as *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* and protective effects against CHB in Korean and Japanese individuals. Mata-analysis using the random effects model across 6 independent studies including our study suggested that, widely in East Asian populations, variants in antigen binding sites of *HLA-DP* contribute to protective effects against persistent HBV infection (Table S2).

On GWAS and replication analysis with Japanese and Korean individuals, we identified associations between the same SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) in the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes and HBV clearance; however, no new candidate SNPs from the GWAS were detected on replication analysis (Table S3). When the data of reference#18 was excluded from the meta-analysis across 6 independent studies, heterogeneity among 4 studies was estimated to be $P_{het} = 0.15$ and significant association of rs3077 with HBV clearance was observed with $P_{meta} = 5.88 \times 10^{-24}$, OR $= 0.56$ (Table S4). In our study, a negligible level of heterogeneity for rs3077 was also observed ($P_{het} = 0.03$) on meta-analysis by adding replication-1 (Table 3). Despite the heterogeneity in replication-1, a marginal association was observed for rs3077 with the same downward trend in the odds ratio ($P = 3.32 \times 10^{-2}$, OR $= 0.72$). Moreover, meta-analysis using GWAS and replication-2 showed significant association of $P_{meta} = 1.89 \times 10^{-12}$, OR $= 0.43$ for rs3077 with no evidence of heterogeneity ($P_{het} = 0.75$). Although the reason why heterogeneity was observed in replication-1 is unclear, one possible reason is the clinical heterogeneity due to different kits being used for antibody testing. The associations of *HLA-DPA1/−DPB1* with CHB and HBV clearance showed the same level of significance in the comparison of HBV patients with HBV resolved individuals (OR $= 0.43$ for rs3077 and 0.49 for rs9277542) as the one with healthy controls (OR $= 0.46$ for rs3077 and 0.50 for rs9277542), when the replication-1 was excluded in the analysis (Table 2 and Table 3). The results of meta-analysis across 6 independent studies including our study also showed the same or slightly weaker associations in the

Table 1. Number of study samples.

population		GWAS	Replication-1	Replication-2
		Japanese	Japanese	Korean
HBV carriers	Total	181	256	344
	IC	20	94	–
	CH	67	101	177
	LC	3	10	–
	HCC	91	51	167
Healthy controls		184	236	151
Resolved individuals		185	150	106

Abbreviation: IC, Inactive Carrier; CH, Chronic Hepatitis; LC, Liver Cirrhosis; HCC, Hepatocellular Carcinoma.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039175.t001

−108−

Table 2. Results of replication study for protective effects against CHB.

	Position		MAF[a]	Allele	Stage	HBV carriers			Healthy controls				OR[b]			
dbSNP rsID	Chr	Buld 36.3 Nearest Gene	(allele)	(1/2)	(population)	11	12	22	11	12	22	HWEp	95% CI	P-value[c]	P_het[d]
rs3077	6	33141000 HLA-DPA1	0.44	T/C	GWAS	13	51	117	28	88	67	0.919	0.42	1.14×10^{-7}	
		(T)			(Japanese)	(7.2)	(28.2)	(64.6)	(15.3)	(48.1)	(36.6)		(0.30–0.58)		
					Replication-1	26	95	134	46	125	65	0.309	0.48	2.70×10^{-8}	
					(Japanese)	(10.2)	(37.3)	(52.5)	(19.5)	(53.0)	(27.5)		(0.37–0.62)		
					Replication-2	23	81	111	31	74	40	0.767	0.47	2.08×10^{-6}	
					(Korean)	(10.7)	(37.7)	(51.6)	(21.4)	(51.0)	(27.6)		(0.35–0.65)		
					Meta-analysis[e]								0.46	4.40×10^{-19}	0.80
													(0.39–0.54)		
rs9277542	6	33163225 HLA-DPB1	0.45	T/C	GWAS	18	53	110	29	102	52	0.073	0.42	5.32×10^{-8}	
		(T)			(Japanese)	(9.9)	(29.3)	(60.8)	(15.8)	(55.7)	(28.4)		(0.31–0.58)		
					Replication-1	30	106	118	54	114	67	0.681	0.54	3.33×10^{-6}	
					(Japanese)	(11.8)	(41.7)	(46.5)	(23.0)	(48.5)	(28.5)		(0.42–0.70)		
					Replication-2	30	87	94	35	72	36	0.933	0.54	8.29×10^{-5}	
					(Korean)	(14.2)	(41.2)	(44.5)	(24.5)	(50.3)	(25.2)		(0.40–0.74)		
					Meta-analysis[e]								0.50	1.28×10^{-15}	0.40
													(0.43–0.60)		

[a]Minor allele frequency and minor allele in 198 healthy Japanese (ref#19).
[b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table.
[c]P value of Pearson's chi-square test for allelic model.
[d]Heterogeneity was tested using general variance-based method.
[e]Meta-analysis was tested using the random effects model.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039175.t002

comparison of HBV patients with HBV resolved individuals (OR = 0.56 for rs3077, 0.66 for rs9277535 and 0.55 for rs9277542) than in the one with healthy controls (OR = 0.55 for rs3077, 0.61 for rs9277535 and 0.51 for rs9277542), which was the opposite result as we expected (Table S2 and Table S4). These results may suggest that other unknown immune system(s) exist to eliminate the HBV in the HBV resolved individuals.

Among the HLA class II loci (*HLA-DPA1*, *HLA-DPB1* and *HLA-DQB2*), which were associated with CHB and HBV clearance, a weak linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 < 0.1$) was observed between *HLA-DQB2* locus and *HLA-DPA1* − *DPB1* loci in Japanese and Korean populations (Figure S2). We also found that similar linkage disequilibrium blocks (r^2) were observed among three subgroups (HBV carriers, HBV resolved individuals and Healthy controls). Moreover, logistic regression analysis of *HLA-DP* (rs3077 and rs92775542) with use of *HLA-DQ* (rs9276431 and rs768538) as covariates showed that the same level of significant associations of *HLA-DP* with CHB and HBV clearance as shown in the single-point association analysis, while no associations of *HLA-DQ* with $P_{log} > 0.05$ were detected both in Japanese and in Korean (Table S5). These results show that *HLA-DP* is the main genetic factor for susceptibility to CHB and HBV clearance, and the associations of *HLA-DQB2* would result from linkage disequilibrium of *HLA-DPA1* − DPB1.

In this study, we confirmed the significant associations between *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1*, and protective effects against CHB and HBV clearance in Japanese and Korean individuals. These results suggest that the associations between the *HLA-DP* locus, CHB and HBV clearance are widely replicated in East Asian populations, including Chinese, Thai, Japanese and Korean individuals; however, there have been no similar GWAS performed in Caucasian and African populations. Moreover,

there were no significant SNPs associated with HCC development in this study, thus suggesting that it is necessary to increase the sample size. To clarify the pathogenesis of CHB or the mechanisms of HBV clearance, further studies are necessary, including a functional study of the *HLA-DP* molecule, identification of novel host genetic factors other than *HLA-DP*, and variation analysis of HBV.

Materials and Methods

Ethics Statement

All study protocols conform to the relevant ethical guidelines, as reflected in the *a priori* approval by the ethics committees of all participating universities and hospitals. The written informed consent was obtained from each patient who participated in this study and all samples were anonymized.

Genomic DNA Samples and Clinical Data

All of the 1,793 Japanese and Korean samples, including individuals with CHB, healthy controls and HBV-resolved individuals (HBsAg-negative and anti-HBc-positive), were collected at 20 multi-center hospitals (liver units with hepatologists) throughout Japan and Korea. The 19 hospitals in Japan were grouped into the following 8 areas: Hokkaido area (Hokkaido University Hospital, Teine Keijinkai Hospital), Tohoku area (Iwate Medical University Hospital), Kanto area (Musashino Red Cross Hospital, Saitama Medical University, Kitasato University Hospital, University of Tokyo), Koshin area (Shinshu University Hospital, Kanazawa University Hospital), Tokai area (Nagoya City University Hospital, Nagoya Daini Red Cross Hospital), Kinki area (Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine Hospital, National Hospital Organization Osaka National Hospital, Osaka

—109—

Table 3. Results of replication study for clearance of hepatitis B virus.

	Position			MAF[a]	Allele	Stage	HBV carriers			Resolved individuals			OR[b]		
dbSNP rsID	Chr	Buld 36.3	Nearest Gene	(allele)	(1/2)	(population)	11	12	22	11	12	22	95% CI	P-value[c]	P_het[d]
rs3077	6	33141000	HLA-DPA1	0.44	T/C	GWAS	13	51	117	29	82	74	0.44	9.24×10^-7	
				(T)		(Japanese)	(7.2)	(28.2)	(64.6)	(15.7)	(44.3)	(40.0)	(0.32–0.61)		
						Replication-1	26	95	134	20	64	60	0.72	3.32×10^-2	
						(Japanese)	(10.2)	(37.3)	(52.5)	(13.9)	(44.4)	(41.7)	(0.53–0.97)		
						Replication-2	23	81	111	29	48	28	0.41	2.35×10^-7	
						(Korean)	(10.7)	(37.7)	(51.6)	(27.6)	(45.7)	(26.7)	(0.29–0.58)		
						Meta-analysis[e]							0.51	1.56×10^-4	0.03
													(0.36–0.72)		
						Meta-analysis[e]							0.43	1.89×10^-12	0.75
						(GWAS+replication-2)							(0.34–0.54)		
rs9277542	6	33163225	HLA-DPB1	0.45	T/C	GWAS	18	53	110	28	88	69	0.51	3.15×10^-5	
				(T)		(Japanese)	(9.9)	(29.3)	(60.8)	(15.1)	(47.6)	(37.3)	(0.37–0.70)		
						Replication-1	30	106	118	28	62	52	0.68	1.25×10^-2	
						(Japanese)	(11.8)	(41.7)	(46.5)	(19.7)	(43.7)	(36.6)	(0.51–0.92)		
						Replication-2	30	87	94	30	53	22	0.46	4.97×10^-6	
						(Korean)	(14.2)	(41.2)	(44.5)	(28.6)	(50.5)	(21.0)	(0.33–0.64)		
						Meta-analysis[e]							0.55	5.91×10^-7	0.19
													(0.43–0.69)		
						Meta-analysis[e]							0.49	9.69×10^-10	0.65
						(GWAS+replication-2)							(0.39–0.61)		

[a]Minor allele frequency and minor allele in 198 healthy Japanese (ref#19).
[b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table.
[c]P value of Pearson's chi-square test for allelic model.
[d]Heterogeneity was tested using general variance-based method.
[e]Meta-analysis was tested using the random effects model.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039175.t003

City University), Chugoku/Shikoku area (Tottori University Hospital, Ehime University Hospital, Yamaguchi University Hospital, Kawasaki Medical College Hospital) and Kyushu area (Kurume University Hospital). Korean samples were collected at Yonsei University College of Medicine.

HBV status was measured based on serological results for HBsAg and anti-HBc with a fully automated chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay system (Abbott ARCHITECT; Abbott Japan, Tokyo, Japan, or LUMIPULSE f or G1200; Fujirebio, Inc., Tokyo, Japan). For clinical staging, inactive carrier (IC) state was defined by the presence of HBsAg with normal ALT levels over 1 year (examined at least four times at 3-month intervals) and without evidence of portal hypertension. Chronic hepatitis (CH) was defined by elevated ALT levels (>1.5 times the upper limit of normal [35 IU/L]) persisting over 6 months (at least by 3 bimonthly tests). Liver cirrhosis (LC) was diagnosed principally by ultrasonography (coarse liver architecture, nodular liver surface, blunt liver edges and hypersplenism), platelet counts <100,000/cm³, or a combination thereof. Histological confirmation by fine-needle biopsy of the liver was performed as required. Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) was diagnosed by ultrasonography, computerized tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, angiography, tumor biopsy or a combination thereof.

The Japanese control samples from HBV-resolved subjects (HBsAg-negative and anti-HBc-positive) at Nagoya City University-affiliated healthcare center were used by comprehensive agree-ment (anonymization in an unlinkable manner) in this study. Some of the unrelated Japanese healthy controls were obtained from the Japan Health Science Research Resources Bank (Osaka, Japan). One microgram of purified genomic DNA was dissolved in 100 µl of TE buffer (pH 8.0) (Wako, Osaka, Japan), followed by storage at −20°C until use.

SNP Genotyping and Data Cleaning

For GWAS, we genotyped a total of 550 individuals, including 181 Japanese HBV carriers, 184 Japanese healthy controls and 185 spontaneously HBV-resolved Japanese individuals (HBsAg-negative and anti-HBc-positive), using the Affymetrix Genome-Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 (Affymetrix, Inc., Santa Clara, CA), in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The average QC call rate for 550 samples reached 98.47% (95.00–99.92%), which had an average sample call rate of 98.91% (93.55–99.74%) by determining the genotype calls of over 900 K SNPs using the Genotyping Console v4.1 software (with Birdseed v1 algorithm) provided by the manufacturer [19]. We then applied the following thresholds for SNP quality control in data cleaning: SNP call rate ≥95% and MAF ≥1% for three groups (HBV carriers, healthy controls and HBV-resolved individuals), and HWE P-value ≥0.001 for healthy controls [20]. Here, SNP call rate is defined for each SNP as the number of successfully genotyped samples divided by the number of total samples genotyped. A total of 597,789 SNPs and 590,278 SNPs on autosomal chromosomes

—110—

passed the quality control filters in the genome-wide association analysis using HBV carriers and healthy controls, and using HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals, respectively (Figure 1). All cluster plots for the SNPs showing $P<0.0001$ on association analyses in the allele frequency model were confirmed by visual inspection, and SNPs with ambiguous cluster plots were excluded.

In the following replication stage, we selected a set of 32 SNPs with $P<0.0001$ in the GWAS using HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals. SNP genotyping in two independent sets of 256 Japanese HBV carriers, 236 Japanese healthy controls and 150 Japanese HBV-resolved individuals (Table 1, replication-1), and 344 Korean HBV carriers, 151 Korean healthy controls and 106 Korean HBV-resolved individuals (Table 1, replication-2) was completed for the selected 32 SNPs using the DigiTag2 assay [21,22] and custom TaqMan SNP Genotyping Assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) on the LightCycler 480 Real-Time PCR System (Roche, Mannheim, Germany).

Statistical Analysis

The observed associations between SNPs and the protective effects on chronic hepatitis B or clearance of hepatitis virus B were assessed by chi-squared test with a two-by-two contingency table in allele frequency model. SNPs on chromosome X were removed because gender was not matched among HBV carriers, healthy controls and HBV-resolved individuals. A total of 597,789 SNPs and 590,278 SNPs passed the quality control filters in the GWAS stage; therefore, significance levels after Bonferroni correction for multiple testing were $P=8.36\times10^{-8}$ (0.05/597,789) and $P=8.47\times10^{-8}$ (0.05/590,278), respectively. For the replication study, 29 of 32 SNPs were successfully genotyped; therefore, we applied $P=0.0017$ (0.05/29) as a significance level, and none of the 29 markers genotyped in the replication stage showed deviations from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in healthy controls ($P>0.01$).

The genetic inflation factor λ was estimated by applying the Cochrane-Armitage test on all SNPs and was found to be 1.056 and 1.030 in the GWAS using HBV carriers and healthy controls, and using HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals, respectively (Figure S3). These results suggest that the population substructure should not have any substantial effect on statistical analysis. In addition, the principal component analysis in a total of 550 individuals in the GWAS stage together with the HapMap samples also revealed that the effect of population stratification was negligible (Figure S4).

Based on the genotype data of a total of 1,793 samples including 1,192 Japanese samples and 601 Korean samples in both GWAS and replication stages, haplotype blocks were estimated using the Gabriel's algorithm using the Haploview software (v4.2) (Figure S2). In the logistic regression analysis, two SNPs (rs9276431 and rs7768538) within the HLA-DQ locus were individually involved as a covariate (Table S5). Statistical analyses were performed using the SNP & Variation Suite 7 software (Golden Helix, MT, USA).

Supporting Information

Figure S1 GWAS using samples from HBV carriers with LC or HCC, and HBV carriers without LC and HCC. P values were calculated using chi-squared test for allele frequencies. (PPTX)

Figure S2 Estimation of linkage disequilibrium blocks in HBV patients, HBV resolved individuals and healthy controls in Japanese and Korean. The LD blocks (r^2) were analyzed using the Gabriel's algorithm. (PPTX)

Figure S3 Quantile-quantile plot for test statistics (allele-based chi-squared tests) for GWAS results. Dots represent P values of each SNP that passed the quality control filters. Inflation factor λ was estimated to be: a) 1.056 in the analysis with HBV carriers and healthy controls; and b) 1.030 with HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals. (PPTX)

Figure S4 Principal component analysis on a total of 550 individuals in GWAS, together with HapMap samples (CEU, YRI and JPT). (PPTX)

Table S1 Results for 29 SNPs selected in replication study using samples of HBV carriers and healthy controls. [a]P values by chi-squared test for allelic model. [b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table. [c]Meta-analysis was tested using additive, two-tailed CMH fixed-effects model. (XLSX)

Table S2 Results of meta-analysis for protective effects against persistent HB infection across 6 independent studies, including this study. [a]Minor allele frequency and minor allele in 198 healthy Japanese (ref#19). [b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table. [c]P value of Pearson's chi-squared test for allele model. [d]Heterogeneity was tested using general variance-based method. [e]Meta-analysis was tested using the random effects model. (XLSX)

Table S3 Results for 29 SNPs selected in replication study using samples from HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals. [a]P values by chi-squared test for allelic model. [b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table. [c]Meta-analysis was tested using additive, two-tailed CMH fixed-effects model. (XLSX)

Table S4 Results of meta-analysis for clearance of HBV across 6 independent studies, including this study. [a]Minor allele frequency and minor allele in 198 healthy Japanese (ref#19). [b]Odds ratio of minor allele from two-by-two allele frequency table. [c]P value of Pearson's chi-squared test for allele model. [d]Heterogeneity was tested using general variance-based method. [e]Meta-analysis was tested using the random effects model. (XLSX)

Table S5 Logistic regression analysis of HLA-DP (rs3077 and rs9277542) and HLA-DQ (rs9276431 and rs7768538) with susceptibility to CHB and HBV clearance using the HLA-DQ genotypes individually as a covariate. (XLSX)

Acknowledgments

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: NN HS YT. Performed the experiments: HS Y. Mawatari M. Sageshima YO. Analyzed the data: NN MK AK. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: KM M. Sugiyama SHA JYP SH JHK KS M. Kurosaki YA SM MW ET MH SK EO YI EM AT Y. Murawaki YH IS M. Korenaga KH TI NI KHH YT MM. Wrote the paper: NN M. Kawashima YT KT MM.

−111−

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—112—

Review Article

Reactivation of hepatitis viruses following immunomodulating systemic chemotherapy

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Reactivation of hepatitis B virus (HBV) or hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection following anticancer chemotherapy and immunosuppressive therapy is a well-known complication. HBV reactivation has been reported to be associated with anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody rituximab-containing chemotherapy and tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitor-containing immunosuppressive therapy in HBV resolved patients (hepatitis B surface antigen negative and antibodies against hepatitis B core antigen positive and/or antibodies against surface antigen positive). On the other hand, HCV reactivation has

been reported to be associated with liver damage or hepatic dysfunction, but fulminant hepatitis due to HCV reactivation is a rare complication. In this review, we describe the pathophysiology of the reactivation of HBV and HCV infection, as well as the clinical evidence and management of HCV reactivation.

Key words: chemotherapy, hepatitis B virus, hepatitis C virus, immunosuppressive, occult infection, reactivation

INTRODUCTION

R EACTIVATION OF HEPATITIS B virus (HBV) or hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection following anticancer chemotherapy and immunosuppressive therapy is a well-known complication. In particular, HBV reactivation is a potentially fatal complication that needs to be followed up carefully. Most HBV reactivation occurs in hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) positive patients prior to treatment; however, HBV reactivation has been observed increasingly in HBV resolved patients without HBsAg, but with antibodies against hepatitis B core antigen (anti-HBc) and/or HBsAg (anti-HBs). Moreover, HBV reactivation has been reported to be associated with anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody rituximab-containing chemotherapy and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α inhibitor-containing immunosuppressive therapy in patients with prior resolved HBV infection. On the other hand, HCV reactivation has been reported to

be associated with liver damage or hepatic dysfunction, but fulminant hepatitis due to HCV reactivation is a rare complication.

Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) is often the chosen treatment for hematological malignancies and it has been suggested that the incidence and clinical characteristics of reactivation of HBV or HCV infection may depend on immune reconstitution, which may be associated with graft-versus-host disease (GVHD) and the combined immunosuppressant, especially in the allogeneic HSCT setting.

As several review papers about HBV reactivation had been already reported, we described here the pathophysiology of the reactivation of HBV and HCV infection, as well as the clinical evidence and management of HCV reactivation.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF REACTIVATION OF HBV AND HCV INFECTION

Immunity to HBV and HCV

B ECAUSE HBV AND HCV are not cytopathogenic, it is widely accepted that both viral control and liver pathology are mediated by the host immune system (Table 1). Many studies of host genetics and

113

Table 1 Putative host immune system of HBV and HCV infection

	HBV	HCV
Innate immunity		
Hepatocytes	Stealth response	Type I and/or III IFN production
Main components	NK and NKT cells	DC
Critical cytokines	IFN-γ, TNF-α	Type I and/or III IFN
Adaptive immunity		
Components	T cells and B cells	T cell and B cells

DC, dendritic cells; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IFN, interferon; NK, natural killer; NKT, natural killer T cells.

immunology demonstrate an important role for T lymphocytes in protective immunity against HBV and HCV.

The occurrence of HBV reactivation in patients with signs of resolved infection, particularly anti-HBc positive patients, relies on the existence of occult HBV infection. Patients with occult HBV infection are supposed to harbor HBV covalently closed circular DNA in the nuclei of their hepatocytes after the resolution of acute infection.[1] Most occult HBV infection individuals are infected with replicable viruses, whose replication and gene expression are strongly inhibited by the host immune system.[2] The exact mechanisms of inhibition have not yet been determined, but long-lasting specific host T-cell immune surveillance against HBV epitopes and epigenetic factors are presumably the major causes of long-term viral suppression.[3]

In contrast, although HCV reactivation following immunosuppressive therapy is rare,[4–8] fibrosing cholestatic hepatitis C (FCH) occurs in HCV positive liver transplant recipients with immunosuppressive therapy.[9–11] Whether immunosuppressive therapy leads to HCV reactivation in patients with cancer in whom the infection has cleared either spontaneously or secondary to therapy is uncertain. When HCV RNA clearance is achieved either spontaneously or in response to antiviral therapy in recipients of solid organ transplants, no relapse is observed in plasma, liver or peripheral blood mononuclear cells during chronic immunosuppressive treatment with agents such as calcineurin inhibitors, corticosteroids, antimetabolites, anti-thymocyte globulins, or anti-interleukin-2-receptor blockers.[12] This finding suggests the complete and permanent cure of HCV infection resulting from the elimination of HCV before transplantation.

Immunosuppression and viral replication in HBV reactivation

In general, there are three periods of HBV reactivation in patients with signs of resolved infection (Fig. 1).

The initial stage of HBV reactivation caused by chemotherapy-induced immune suppression is characterized by enhanced viral replication, as reflected by increases in the serum levels of HBV DNA, hepatitis B e-antigen (HBeAg) and HBsAg, indicating that suppression of a normal immunological response to HBV leads to enhanced viral replication and widespread infection of hepatocytes.[13] In particular, in cases of positive anti-HBs antibody, reactivation of HBV typically starts with a decrease of anti-HBs antibody titers. This may be related to the use of biologic therapy, such as anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody rituximab and anti-CD52 antibody alemtuzumab, which cause profound and long-lasting immunosuppression; however, a decrease of anti-HBs antibody titers is seen in all cases, including those on biologic drug-free chemotherapy, namely, tumor necrosis factor-α inhibitors.

There are at least two mechanisms by which immunosuppressive agents may increase HBV replication and expression. As the host immune response to the virus plays a crucial role in controlling HBV infection,[14] suppression of such immune responses should increase viral replication. Meanwhile, immunosuppressive agents may have a more direct stimulatory effect on viral replication. In fact, corticosteroid increases HBV DNA and RNA production *in vitro* by stimulating HBV transcription, by binding to the glucocorticoid responsive element and augmenting the HBV enhancer I;[15,16] however, it is controversial whether corticosteroid increases the secretion of HBsAg and HBeAg.[15–17] Although combinations of immunosuppressive agents may cause an increase in levels of intracellular HBV DNA, lower concentrations of prednisolone were presumably unable to stimulate HBV replication, so the doses of these compounds should be kept as low as practically possible when used clinically.

In the second stage of reactivation, functionality of the immune system is restored after chemotherapy is discontinued. Infected hepatocytes with recognizable viral antigens on their surface may then be exposed and would be cleared by T lymphocytes, leading to hepatic injury and necrosis. Clinically, this can lead to hepatitis with an increase in alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels, hepatic failure and even death. Concurrently, HBV DNA levels may decrease
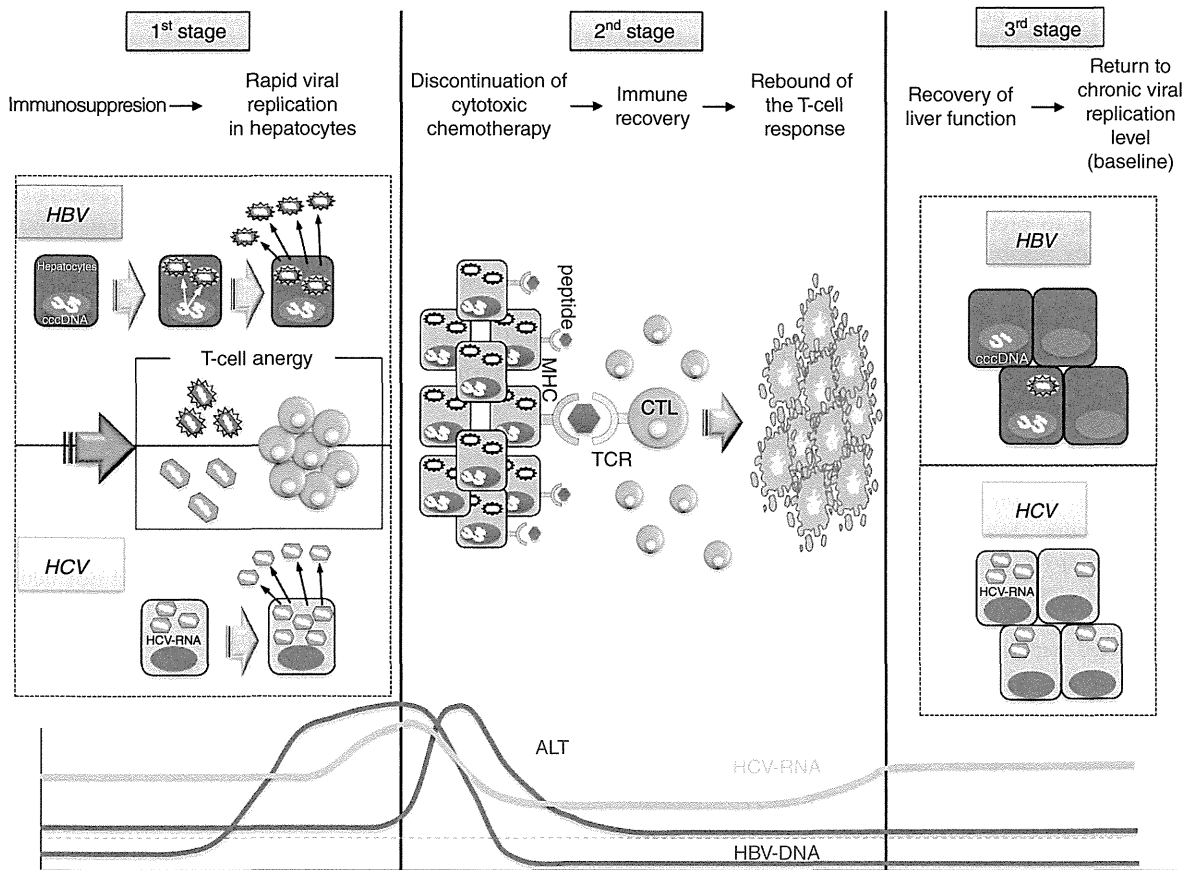
Figure 1 Pathophysiology of the reactivation of HBV and HCV infection. Reactivation of HBV or HCV as a result of chemotherapy can generally be divided into three stages. The first stage is characterized by enhanced viral replication, the second stage is the functional restoration of the immune system, and 3rd stage is the recovery stage. ALT, alanine aminotransferase; CTL, cytotoxic T lymphocyte; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; cccDNA, covalently closed circular DNA; MHC, major histocompatibility complex.

by improved cytopathic and non-cytopathic immune mechanisms.[18,19]

The third stage of reactivation is the recovery phase, during which clinical hepatitis resolves and HBV markers return to baseline levels.[20,21]

The retrospective and prospective studies of HBV reactivation in HBsAg negative patients with hematological malignancies were summarized in previous reviews.[22–24] As for the reason for considerable variation (1.0–23.3%) in the incidence of HBV reactivation in lymphoma patients with HBV resolved infection following rituximab-containing chemotherapy, there may be differences among institutions both in the study subjects (HBV serological status including baseline

anti-HBs titer, steroid-containing chemotherapy, and salvage therapy including transplantation) and the assays used for HBV-related markers (cut-off values, sensitivity). Several guidelines for the management of HBV reactivation have been published by Asian, American and European societies (American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases, Asian Pacific Association for the Study of the Liver, and European Association for the Study of the Liver). In January 2009, the Japanese guideline was announced for HBV reactivation following immunosuppressive therapy and systemic chemotherapy.[25] Although the details of this guideline have been omitted from this review, in principle, antiviral prophylaxis is recommended for HBsAg