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Table 2. Baseline characteristics of patients on NA therapy and propensity-matched controls.

	NA group (n = 117)	Non-NA group (n = 117)	p value	Standardized difference in %
Age (yr)	52 (27-77)	52 (21-77)	0.9223	1.7
Sex (female/male)	44/73	45/72	0.8929	6.1
Genotype (A/B/C/n.d.)	1/4/109/3	4/7/85/21	0.1232	26.8
HBsAg (log ₁₀ IU/ml)	3.6 (0.9-5.5)	3.6 (0.9-7.9)	0.1440	29.9
HBV DNA (log ₁₀ copies/ml)	6.7 (2.6-9.6)	6.5 (2.3-9.6)	0.1273	20.5
HBeAg (±)	57/60	58/59	0.8960	2.0
Precore region (W/M/n.d.)	22/87/8	16/75/26	0.6399	5.1
BCP (W/M/n.d.)	22/88/7	17/70/30	0.9359	0.0
HBcrAg (log ₁₀ U/ml)	5.9 (2.9-7.0)	4.9 (2.9-7.0)	0.0022	41.2
Platelet count (x10 ³ /m ³)	143 (32-262)	146 (37-396)	0.6340	-12.1
ALT (IU/ml)	68 (7-1088)	55 (9-3410)	0.0977	1.9
AFP (ng/ml)	2.8 (0.8-402)	3.9 (0.8-1010)	0.3118	-13.5
Cirrhosis (presence/absence)	48/69	44/73	0.6882	6.1
Child-Pugh classification (A/B)	108/9	104/13	0.5024	3.1
Follow-up duration (yr)	12.3 (3.1-19.4)	11.6 (3.1-18.3)	0.7346	-4.5
Administration period (yr)	6.1 (1.5-10.7)	-	-	-
Propensity score	0.65895 (0.11449-0.96977)	0.65895 (0.12913-0.96989)	0.9931	0.0

NA, nucleos(t)ide analogue; n.d., not done; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; W, wild type; M, mutant type; BCP, basal core promoter; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; Child-Pugh classification, reference no [50], Standardized difference in%; $100(X_{NA} - X_{non-NA}) / ((S_{NA}^2 + S_{non-NA}^2) / 2)^{1/2}$, where for each covariate X_{NA} and X_{non-NA} are the sample means in NA and non-NA groups, respectively, and S_{NA}^2 and S_{non-NA}^2 are the corresponding sample variances.

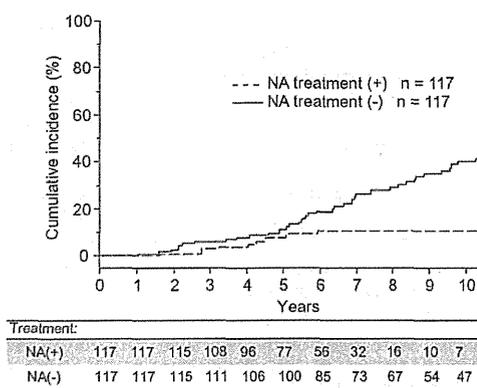


Fig. 2. Incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) according to nucleos(t)ide analogue (NA) treatment status. The NA group had a significantly higher rate of progression to HCC than the non-NA group ($p = 0.0094$).

HBV DNA levels were significantly lower in patients on NA therapy than in patients not on NA therapy. In contrast, platelet counts and albumin levels were significantly higher in patients on NA therapy than in patients not on NA therapy.

Discussion

Our study shows that long-term NA maintenance therapy is associated with the suppression of progression to HCC. Liaw *et al.* reported that lamivudine decreased the risk of HCC in cirrhotic patients [7]. However, it is unclear whether the observed

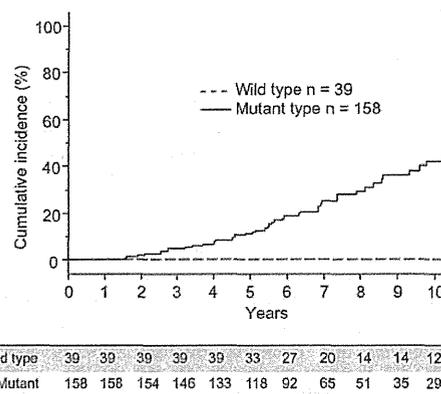


Fig. 3. Incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) according to basal core promoter (BCP) mutations. Patients with mutant-type BCP had a significantly higher rate of progression to HCC than those with wild type BCP ($p = 0.0006$).

decreased risk of HCC with NA therapy was due to the short observation period in their study. It is very difficult to prove the preventive effect of NA on the development of HCC, because randomized control studies are not ethically possible. In this study, patients on NA therapy were compared to propensity score-matched untreated controls. In these control patients, NA therapy had not yet been approved or was not routinely used for chronic hepatitis B at the time, or was declined by the patient. As opposed to the entire population, these propensity-matched patients were well matched to patients on NA; significant differences included higher HBcrAg levels in the NA group.

Large community-based studies have confirmed that advanced age, male sex, HBeAg positivity, low platelet count,

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Table 3. Factors associated with progression to hepatocellular carcinoma among propensity-matched patients (Cox proportional hazard model).

		Adjusted hazard ratio (95% CI)	p value
Age (yr)	≤40	1	0.015
	>40	4.36 (1.33-14.29)	
Treatment	no NA	1	0.002
	NA	0.28 (0.13-0.62)	
BCP	wild-type	1	0.012
	mutant-type	12.74 (1.74-93.11)	
HBcrAg (log ₁₀ U/ml)	≤3.0	1	0.036
	>3.0	2.77 (1.07-7.17)	
γ-GTP (IU/L)	≤56	1	0.001
	>56	2.76 (1.49-5.12)	

NA, nucleos(t)ide analogue; BCP, basal core promoter; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; γ-GTP, gamma glutamyl transpeptidase.

higher ALT levels, elevated AFP levels, and presence of cirrhosis are factors associated with the development of cirrhosis and HCC [17,18]. Platelet count is a useful surrogate marker for the diagnosis of cirrhosis [37]. All subjects were not histologically diagnosed in this study. Therefore, we selected platelet count as a marker of hepatic fibrosis instead of cirrhosis. An elevated ALT level indicates the presence of active disease, and persistently elevated AFP levels are a reflection of an enhanced regenerative state in the liver [16]. In the REVEAL study, a high HBV DNA load was associated with an increased rate of HCC development [17]. A direct correlation was observed between baseline HBV DNA levels and the incidence of HCC, independent of serum ALT concentration. In a model that integrated baseline and follow-up HBV DNA levels, the cumulative incidence of HCC ranged from 1.3% in patients with undetectable levels of HBV DNA to 14.9% in patients with HBV DNA levels greater than or equal to 10⁶ copies/ml. Therefore, we have selected factors, such as age, sex, HBeAg serostatus, HBV DNA concentration, platelet count, and ALT for propensity matching.

Although the exact mechanisms of hepatocarcinogenesis by HBV remain unclear, two mechanisms have been proposed [38,39]. One mechanism involves chronic necroinflammation of hepatocytes, cellular injury, and hepatocyte regeneration [40]. The other mechanism involves the direct carcinogenicity of HBV through chromosomal integration [41]. Complete and sus-

tained viral suppression by NA might block both pathways and prevent the development of HCC. It is well known that the rate of HCC is significantly higher in patients with virological breakthrough or no response. In our study, when virological or biochemical breakthrough was observed and the YMDD mutation was detected in patients on lamivudine, adefovir dipivoxil was immediately added. In patients with cirrhosis, especially in the decompensated stage, sustained viral response on NA therapy was not necessarily associated with a preventative effect against the development of HCC, even though the incidence was lower than in a group not on NA [14]. It is not surprising that viral suppression decreased but did not eliminate the risk of HCC, because HBV DNA may have already integrated into the host genome before the initiation of therapy and may have resulted in genomic alternations, chromosomal instability, or both [42,43].

It is reported that patients with HBV genotype C infection have higher HBV DNA levels, higher frequency of pre-S deletions, higher prevalence of BCP T1762/A1764 mutations, and significantly higher chances of developing HCC [16,44–46]. In our study, T1762/A1764 mutations were observed in 158 (80.2%) out of 197 patients and were associated with a higher risk of developing HCC (adjusted hazard ratio, 12.740 [95% CI 1.743–93.108]), independent of NA therapy. However, the BCP T1762/A1764 mutations were detected in HCC patients from Asia and Africa, where HBV genotype C infection is predominant [16].

HBcrAg is a new HBV marker that reflects HBV load and corresponds to HBV DNA levels [21]. HBcrAg is comprised of HBV core antigen (HBcAg) and HBeAg; both are products of the pre-core/core gene and share the first 149 amino acids of HBcAg. The HBcrAg assay measures HBcAg and HBeAg simultaneously by using monoclonal antibodies that recognize both denatured HBcAg and HBeAg [47]. Serum HBcrAg concentration is well correlated with intrahepatic levels of covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA) [48]. It is reported that HBcrAg is a useful marker for guiding cessation of NA therapy and evaluation of disease activity [21,49]. In our study, elevated serum HBcrAg concentration was associated with a higher risk of developing HCC (adjusted hazard ratio, 2.767 [95% CI 1.067–7.172]). This is the first report demonstrating a relationship between HBcrAg and HCC.

The present study has several limitations. The retrospective design might have introduced an unintended bias. The propensity matching method was adopted to reduce the confounding effects of covariates. Characteristics of patients who did or did not receive NA therapy were similar except for HBcrAg concentration.

Table 4. Average integration values of various parameters in patients who did or did not receive NA therapy.

	NA group (n = 117)	Non-NA group (n = 117)	p value
Platelet count (×10 ⁹ /m ³)	17.0 (3.3-37.2)	14.8 (3.3-296)	0.0060
ALT (IU/ml)	28.2 (8.5-88.9)	39.1 (12.2-737.5)	<0.0001
γ-GTP (IU/L)	27.0 (10.9-267.6)	36.2 (9.5-269.7)	0.0427
Total bilirubin (mg/dl)	0.7 (0.3-2.0)	0.7 (0.3-2.6)	0.1554
ALP (IU/L)	242.7 (113.5-1028.8)	265.2 (140.5-1247.6)	0.0127
Albumin (g/dl)	4.4 (3.0-5.0)	4.0 (2.4-4.8)	<0.0001
Alpha-fetoprotein (ng/ml)	2.2 (0.8-106.0)	4.5 (0.9-723.8)	<0.0001
HBV DNA (log ₁₀ copies/ml)	2.5 (2.1-8.9)	4.6 (2.1-9.3)	<0.0001

NA, nucleos(t)ide analogue; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; γ-GTP, gamma glutamyl transpeptidase; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; HBV, hepatitis B virus.

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However, the non-NA group included many historical cases when NA therapy was not yet available. In addition, the HBV DNA assay used between 1998 and 2007 was not the most sensitive one.

In conclusion, NA therapy reduces the risk of HCC compared with untreated controls. Higher serum HBcAg levels and BCP mutations are associated with development of HCC, independent of NA therapy.

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Conflict of interest

The authors who have taken part in this study declared that they do not have anything to disclose regarding funding or conflict of interest with respect to this manuscript.

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Clinicopathological features of liver injury in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus and comparative study of histologically proven nonalcoholic fatty liver diseases with or without type 2 diabetes mellitus

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Abstract

Background The Japan Society of Diabetes Mellitus reported that the leading cause of death in patients with diabetes mellitus (DM) was chronic liver disease; however, there are limited studies investigating the cause of liver injury in these patients. Our study aimed to clarify the clinicopathological features of liver injury and the characteristics of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) in DM patients.

Methods In total, 5,642 DM patients and 365 histologically proven NAFLD patients were enrolled. Clinical and laboratory parameters and liver biopsy results were,

respectively, recorded and analyzed for the two sets of patients.

Results Positivity rates for Hepatitis B surface antigens (HBsAg) and anti-hepatitis C virus antibodies (anti-HCV Ab) were 1.7 and 5.1 %, respectively. The proportion of drinkers consuming 20–59 g and ≥ 60 g alcohol daily was 14.9 and 4.3 %, respectively. The percentage of DM patients with elevated serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels (≥ 31 IU/L) was 28.6 %. Alcohol consumption had no significant effect on serum ALT levels. Seventy-two percent of HBsAg-positive patients were serum hepatitis B virus (HBV)-DNA negative, whereas 10 % exhibited high levels of the same (>4.0 log copies/ml).

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Thirty-eight percent of anti-HCV Ab-positive patients were serum HCV-RNA negative. Among the NAFLD patients, the frequencies of NASH and advanced stage NASH were significantly higher in male DM patients than in male patients without DM.

Conclusions Although HBsAg- and anti-HCV Ab-positivity rates were high in our Japanese DM patients, a majority of liver injuries could be associated with NAFLD/nonalcoholic steatohepatitis.

Keywords Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease · Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis · Diabetes mellitus · Hepatitis virus carrier · Alcoholic liver disease · Nationwide study

Abbreviations

HCC	Hepatocellular carcinoma
NAFLD	Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease
DM	Diabetes mellitus
NASH	Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis
HBV	Hepatitis B virus
HCV	Hepatitis C virus
AST	Aspartate aminotransferase
ALT	Alanine aminotransferase
GGT	Gamma glutamyl transpeptidase
FPG	Fasting plasma glucose
HOMA-IR	The homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance index
HBsAg	Hepatitis B surface antigen
anti-HBc Ab	Anti-hepatitis B core antibody
anti-HCV Ab	Anti-hepatitis C virus antibody
HBV-DNA	Hepatitis B virus-deoxyribonucleic acid
HCV-RNA	Hepatitis C virus-ribonucleic acid
OR	Odds ratio
CI	Confidence interval

Introduction

As per the International Diabetes Federation, the number of diabetes mellitus (DM) sufferers rose to 366 million in 2011, representing 8.3 % of the global adult population, which is increasing in every country [1]. Worldwide, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the fifth most common cancer and the third most common cause of cancer mortality [2]. HCC largely occurs in patients with chronic liver disease. Persistent hepatitis C virus (HCV) or hepatitis B virus (HBV) infections are the main causes of HCC; however, non-HCV- and non-HBV-associated HCC cases are increasing in Japan [3].

In 2007, the Japan Society of DM reported that the most frequent cause of death among 18,385 DM patients who died in hospitals during 1991–2000 was malignancy (34.1 %), followed by ischemic heart disease (10.2 %) and

cerebrovascular disease (9.8 %) [4]. Among the malignancies, HCC showed the highest frequency (8.6 %), followed by lung (5.3 %), pancreatic (4.8 %), and gastric cancer (3.5 %). Furthermore, the frequency of deaths caused by liver cirrhosis was 4.7 %, and in total, 13.3 % DM patients died of liver diseases. The cancer death rate in that study was quite different from that reported in the general Japanese population, in which lung (5.7 %), gastric (4.7 %), and colon (2.5 %) cancer occur with high frequencies [5]. Moreover, the death rate from liver diseases (13.3 %) was three times higher than that in the general Japanese population (HCC 3.2 %, liver cirrhosis 1.5 %, total 4.7 %) [6]. However, the incidences of HBV and HCV infection and the details of alcohol intake were not analyzed in that report.

The Japan Nonalcoholic Steatohepatitis (NASH) Study Group was founded in 2007 to investigate the cause of death in DM patients, the genetic factors in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) patients, and the background of NASH-HCC patients [7]. This study focused on clarifying the cause of liver injury in Japanese DM patients and investigating the histological distribution of NAFLD in patients with and without DM.

Patients and methods

Patients

In total, 5,642 DM patients (3,238 males, 2,404 females) who visited nine DM clinics belonging to the Japan NASH Study Group (Saiseikai Suita Hospital; Kagoshima University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences; Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo; Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medical Science; Department of Medicine, Asahikawa Medical College; Yamagata University Faculty of Medicine; Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine; Okayama Saiseikai General Hospital; Fukui-ken Saiseikai Hospital) between January 2008 and December 2009 were enrolled in this observational study.

Three hundred and sixty-five NAFLD patients (182 males, 183 females) who visited Saiseikai Suita Hospital were enrolled in the histopathological study.

The study protocol was approved by the Human Ethics Committee of each participating hospital. Informed consent was obtained from all patients in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Clinical and laboratory assessment

Demographic parameters, including age, sex, height, weight, and body mass index (BMI), and comorbidities, including alcohol consumption, hypertension, and dyslipidemia, were

recorded for all subjects in addition to the treatment administered for DM and the frequency of HCC occurrence. Clinical laboratory tests were conducted to measure aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), gamma glutamyl transpeptidase (GGT), albumin, total cholesterol, triglyceride (TG), ferritin, uric acid, hemoglobin A1c, fasting plasma glucose (FPG), and insulin levels. The homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) index; platelet (PLT) count; and hyaluronic acid, type IV collagen 7S, hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), anti-hepatitis B core antibody (anti-HBc Ab), anti-HCV antibody (anti-HCV Ab), HBV-DNA, and HCV-RNA levels were also measured.

Blood samples were procured in the morning after overnight fasting. HOMA-IR was only calculated for subjects with FPG <140 mg/dL. HBV-DNA levels were measured by PCR (Amplicor HBV-DNA kit, Roche Diagnostics) or real-time PCR (TaqMan HBV-DNA kit, Roche Diagnostics) for HBsAg-positive, whereas HCV-RNA levels were measured by PCR (Amplicor HCV-RNA kit, version 2.0, Roche Diagnostics) or real-time PCR (TaqMan HCV-RNA kit, Roche Diagnostics) for anti-HCV Ab-positive patients.

Histopathological examination

In total, 365 patients (177 non-DM and 188 DM) at Saiseikai Suita Hospital fulfilled the criteria for NAFLD, namely serum HBsAg and anti-HCV Ab negativity, no alcohol consumption, and the absence of autoimmune liver diseases or hereditary liver injury. These patients underwent an ultrasound-guided liver biopsy using a 16G needle.

Specimens were fixed in formalin, embedded in paraffin, and subjected to hematoxylin–eosin, Masson trichrome, and Perl's iron staining. Histological features of samples were interpreted according to a method described by Matteoni et al [8]. NASH stage was classified according to Brunt's classification [9].

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows (SPSS Japan Inc.). Data were summarized by frequency for categorical variables and mean \pm standard deviation (SD) for continuous variables. The Chi-square test was used to determine the differences between categorical variables. Student's *t* test was used to compare means of continuous variables with equal variance, and the Mann–Whitney *U* test was used for non-normally distributed variables. The Cochran–Armitage test was used to study the trend of continuous variables. Forward stepwise logistic regression analysis was used to identify independent variables related to elevated serum ALT (≥ 31 IU/L)

levels. A *p* value of <0.05, obtained by a two-tailed test, was considered statistically significant.

Since there is no official report on the HBV and HCV carrier rate in the general Japanese population, we utilized blood donor data for comparison with our patients [10].

Results

Baseline characteristics

The mean age and BMI of male and female DM patients was 62.2 and 64.8 years and 24.5 and 24.7 kg/m², respectively (Table 1). Hypertension and dyslipidemia occurred in 51.0 and 63.3 % of DM patients, respectively. Respective DM treatment types in DM patients were as follows: no medication, 20.5 %; oral drugs, 47.7 %; insulin, 28.9 %; and oral drugs and insulin, 2.8 % (Table 2).

Mean ALT level was significantly higher in males (30.6 IU/L) than in females (Table 1). Abnormal serum ALT levels (≥ 31 IU/L) were found in 28.6 % of DM patients (males 32.8 %, females 23.0 %). When the healthy upper limit of abnormal serum ALT level in females was defined as 20 IU/L according to Prati et al.'s [11] criteria, the frequency of abnormal ALT (≥ 21 IU/L) levels in females was 43 %. The mean PLT count was $20.8 \times 10^4/\mu\text{L}$ in males and $21.9 \times 10^4/\mu\text{L}$ in females. Mean values of other clinical laboratory tests are shown in Table 1.

Prevalence of HBV and HCV infection and drinking and their effects on liver function tests

HBsAg positivity was detected in 1.7 % of DM patients (M 1.8 %, F 1.6 %) (Table 2); this was significantly higher than that (total 0.9 %, M 1.0 %, F 0.7 %) detected in 1.7 million blood donors aged ≥ 40 years ($p < 0.001$). For both sexes, the HBsAg detection rate was significantly higher in DM patients than in blood donors in the 50- to 59- and 60- to 69-year age groups ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 1). There were no significant differences in serum AST, ALT, and GGT levels between HBsAg-positive and HBsAg-negative DM patients of both sexes.

Seventy-two percent of HBsAg-positive patients (M 69 %, F 79 %) demonstrated HBV-DNA negativity (< 2.6 log copies/ml) (Table 3). Of the HBsAg-positive patients, only 10 % showed high serum HBV-DNA levels (≥ 4.0 log copies/ml); these could be HBV infection-induced liver injury cases. Mean values of age, serum ALT level, and PLT counts in HBV-DNA-negative HBV carriers were 63.6 years, 25.3 IU/L, and $20.5 \times 10^4/\mu\text{L}$, respectively. HBV-DNA-negative HBV carriers were older and exhibited lower ALT levels and higher PLT counts; however, the differences were not significant.

Table 1 Backgrounds of diabetes mellitus patients (1)

Characteristic	Total subjects		Males		Females		<i>p</i>
	<i>n</i>	M ± SD	<i>n</i>	M ± SD	<i>n</i>	M ± SD	
Age (years)	5,510	63.3 ± 12.7	3,164	62.2 ± 12.5	2,346	64.8 ± 12.9	<0.001
BMI (kg/m ²)	5,173	24.6 ± 4.7	2,987	24.5 ± 4.2	2,186	24.7 ± 5.2	0.629
Aspartate aminotransferase (IU/L)	5,568	26.4 ± 17.2	3,188	27.1 ± 18.0	2,380	25.5 ± 15.9	<0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IU/L)	5,569	28.2 ± 24.5	3,190	30.6 ± 26.9	2,379	24.9 ± 20.5	<0.001
GGT (IU/L)	5,476	48.3 ± 72.5	3,131	59.6 ± 86.7	2,345	33.1 ± 42.9	<0.001
Albumin (g/dL)	5,031	4.2 ± 0.4	2,869	4.2 ± 0.5	2,162	4.1 ± 0.4	<0.001
Platelet (×10 ⁴ /μL)	5,419	21.3 ± 6.1	3,112	20.8 ± 6.0	2,307	21.9 ± 6.1	<0.001
Fasting plasma glucose (FPG; mg/dL)	5,123	152.7 ± 61.7	2,945	156.0 ± 63.9	2,178	148.3 ± 58.2	<0.001
HbA1c (%)	5,479	7.2 ± 1.7	3,143	7.2 ± 1.7	2,336	7.2 ± 1.6	0.744
HOMA-IR (FPG <140)	1,005	2.55 ± 2.60	570	2.51 ± 2.59	435	2.61 ± 2.60	0.209
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	5,260	195.1 ± 39.5	3,016	191.6 ± 40.0	2,244	199.6 ± 38.5	<0.001
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	5,443	136.3 ± 102.7	3,119	145.1 ± 111.9	2,324	124.5 ± 87.5	<0.001
Hyaluronic acid (ng/mL)	559	74.5 ± 98.6	319	59.3 ± 73.0	240	94.6 ± 122.1	<0.001
Type 4 collagen 7S (ng/mL)	474	4.9 ± 2.0	269	4.8 ± 2.0	205	4.9 ± 1.9	0.544
Ferritin (ng/mL)	1,838	142.0 ± 157.0	1,084	171.9 ± 174.9	754	99.1 ± 114.1	<0.001
Uric acid (mg/dL)	3,645	5.4 ± 1.5	2,043	5.7 ± 1.4	1,602	4.9 ± 1.4	<0.001

Results are shown as mean ± SD

GGT gamma glutamyl transpeptidase, HOMA-IR homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance

Table 2 Backgrounds of diabetes mellitus patients (2)

Characteristic	Total subjects		Males		Females		<i>p</i>
	<i>n</i>	Positive (%)	<i>n</i>	Positive (%)	<i>n</i>	Positive (%)	
Hepatitis B surface antigen	4,867	83 (1.7 %)	2,796	50 (1.8 %)	2,071	33 (1.6 %)	0.604
Anti-hepatitis B core antibody	3,211	958 (29.8 %)	1,824	572 (31.4 %)	1,387	386 (27.8 %)	0.030
Anti-hepatitis C virus antibody	4,877	247 (5.1 %)	2,812	144 (5.1 %)	2,065	103 (5.0 %)	0.834
Alcohol	4,443		2,554		1,889		<0.001
<20 g/day		3589 (80.8 %)		1769 (69.3 %)		1820 (96.3 %)	
20–59 g/day		661 (14.9 %)		609 (23.8 %)		52 (2.8 %)	
≥60 g/day		193 (4.3 %)		176 (6.9 %)		17 (0.9 %)	
Hypertension	4,936	2515 (51.0 %)	2,841	1419 (49.9 %)	2,095	1096 (52.3 %)	0.100
Dyslipidemia	5,423	3434 (63.3 %)	3,091	1882 (60.9 %)	2,332	1552 (66.6 %)	<0.001
Diabetes mellitus (intervention)	5,227		3,013		2,214		0.002
None		1072 (20.5 %)		629 (20.9 %)		443 (20.0 %)	
Oral drugs		2495 (47.7 %)		1489 (49.4 %)		1006 (45.4 %)	
Insulin		1513 (28.9 %)		810 (26.9 %)		703 (31.8 %)	
Oral drugs + insulin		147 (2.8 %)		85 (2.8 %)		62 (2.8 %)	
Hepatocellular carcinoma	4,700	67 (1.4 %)	2,696	48 (1.8 %)	2,004	19 (0.9 %)	0.017

Anti-HCV Ab positivity was detected in 5.1 % (M 5.1 %, F 5.0 %) of DM patients; this rate was significantly higher than that (total 1.0 %, M 1.1 %, F 1.0 %) in blood donors of every age group of both sexes ($p < 0.001$),

except for females aged 50–59 years (Table 2; Fig. 2). ALT and GGT levels were significantly higher in male anti-HCV Ab-positive patients than in their negative counterparts ($p < 0.001$, $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 2). For both sexes,

Fig. 1 Prevalence of HBV infection and the effect of HBV infection on laboratory tests in DM patients. **a** Prevalence of HBV infection in blood donors and DM patients. **b** The effect of HBV infection on laboratory tests in DM patients. There were no significant differences in serum AST, ALT, and GGT levels between HBsAg-positive and HBsAg-negative DM patients of both sexes. Error bars SD

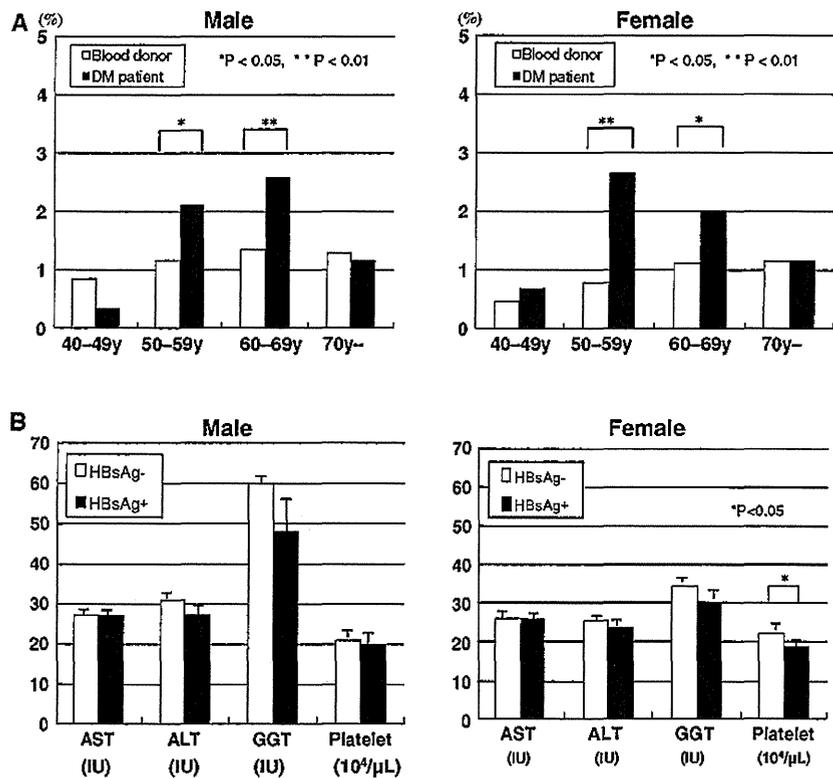


Table 3 Serum HBVDNA and HCV RNA levels, age, serum ALT level, and platelet (PLT) counts in HBsAg-positive patients and anti-HCV Ab-positive patients

	% (n)	Mean age (years)	Mean ALT levels (IU/L)	Mean PLT count (×10 ⁴ /μL)
Serum HBV-DNA^a				
Negative (<2.6 log copy/ml)	72 (29)	63.6	25.3	20.5
Positive (≥2.6 log copy/ml)	28 (11)	55.6	28.0	18.5
=2.6<4.0	18 (7)	61.9	26.6	18.9
=4.0	10 (4)	50.0	30.5	17.8
Serum HCV-RNA^b				
Negative (<2.7 log IU/ml)	38 (57)	67.2	28.2	17.7
Positive (≥2.7 log IU/ml)	62 (91)	67.4	51.7	15.3
=2.7<5.0	3 (4)	65.1	28.0	16.4
=5.0	59 (87)	67.5	52.7	15.2

^a Results are presented as either frequency or mean in 40 HBsAg-positive patients

^b Results are presented as either frequency or mean in 148 anti-HCV Ab-positive patients

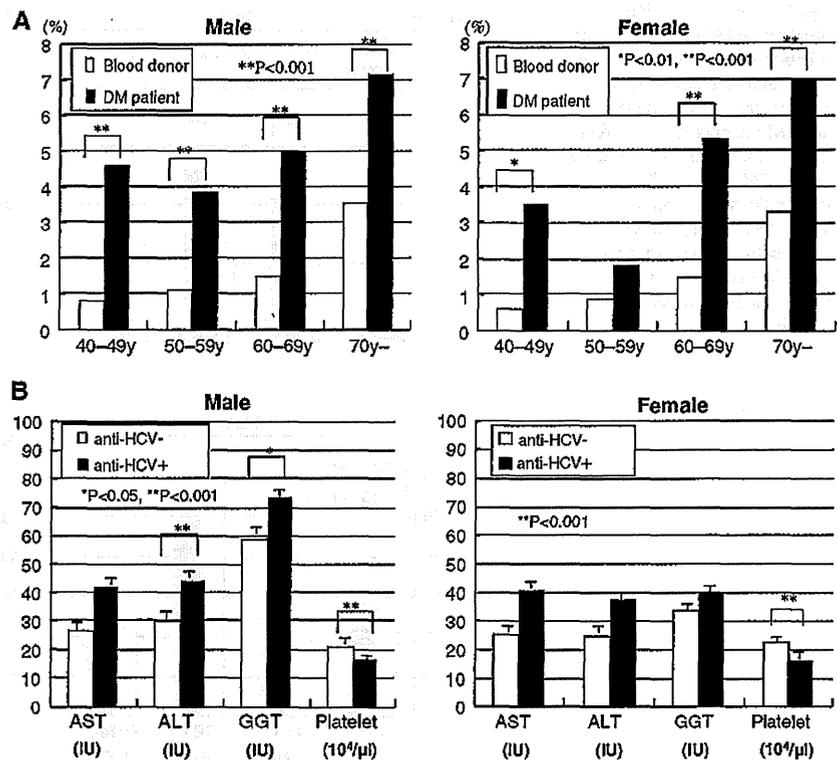
the PLT count was significantly lower in anti-HCV Ab-positive DM patients than in their negative counterparts ($p < 0.001$).

Thirty-eight percent of anti-HCV Ab-positive patients (M 36 %, F 42 %) demonstrated HCV-RNA negativity (Table 3), and 96 % of HCV-RNA-positive patients exhibited high serum HCV-RNA levels (≥5.0 log IU/ml). Serum ALT levels in anti-HCV Ab-positive patients with

HCV-RNA positivity and those with HCV-RNA negativity were 51.7 ± 39.7 and 28.2 ± 18.1 IU/L, respectively, whereas those in anti-HCV Ab-negative patients were 27.7 ± 22.8 IU/L. Serum ALT levels were significantly higher in HCV-RNA-positive patients than in HCV-RNA-negative patients ($p < 0.001$).

The proportion of DM patients consuming >60 g and 20–59 g alcohol daily was 4.3 % (M 6.9 %, F 0.9 %) and

Fig. 2 Prevalence of HCV infection and the effect of HCV infection on laboratory tests in DM patients. **a** Prevalence of HCV infection in blood donors and DM patients. **b** The effect of HCV infection on laboratory tests in DM patients. *GGT* gamma glutamyl transpeptidase. ALT and GGT levels were significantly higher in male anti-HCV Ab-positive patients than in their negative counterparts. Error bars SD



14.9 % (M 23.8 %, F 2.8 %), respectively (Table 2). The highest percentage of drinkers were males in the 60- to 69-year age group and females in the <40-year age group. Male drinkers consuming >60 g alcohol daily had significantly higher serum AST and GGT levels compared with nondrinkers (patients consuming <20 g of daily alcohol intake) ($p < 0.001$). Serum ALT levels in drinkers consuming >60 g alcohol daily were comparable with those in nondrinkers. Drinkers of both sexes consuming 20–59 g alcohol daily had significantly higher serum GGT levels ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3).

Factors related to serum ALT levels

With increasing age in both sexes, the number of DM patients with elevated serum ALT levels and high BMI decreased, whereas those with decreased PLT counts increased. The number of DM patients with elevated serum ALT levels increased with increasing BMI in both sexes (Fig. 4).

A forward stepwise logistic regression model yielding odds ratios (ORs) and 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) was used to analyze the factors related to elevated serum ALT levels. The model included BMI, age, drinking status, HBsAg status, anti-HCV Ab status, PLT count, hypertension status, and dyslipidemia status as independent

variables. The odds ratio shown indicates the change in odds for one SD increase in each variable.

Multivariate analysis showed that age (M: OR 0.674, CI 0.613–0.741; $p < 0.001$; F: OR 0.767, CI 0.683–0.861; $p < 0.001$), PLT count (M: OR 0.806, CI 0.732–0.886; $p < 0.001$, F: OR 0.714, CI 0.632–0.808, $p < 0.001$), anti-HCV Ab status (M: OR 1.321, CI 1.218–1.433; $p < 0.001$; F: OR 1.232, CI 1.117–1.359; $p < 0.001$), and BMI (M: OR 1.509, CI 1.374–1.657; $p < 0.001$; F: OR 1.487, CI 1.330–1.663; $p < 0.001$) were significantly associated with elevated serum ALT levels (Table 4).

For both sexes, AST and ALT levels were similar in drinkers consuming 20–59 g alcohol daily and those consuming <20 g alcohol daily (Fig. 3). After eliminating HBV-positive patients and/or HCV carriers and heavy drinkers consuming >60 g alcohol daily, the number of male, female, and total DM patients with elevated serum ALT levels were 33.4, 23.3, and 28.3 %, respectively. These values were comparable with those in all DM patients, including those with hepatitis and/or those consuming alcohol (M 32.8 %, F 23.0 %, total 28.6 %).

Liver histology in DM patients

The median age of histologically proven, DM- ($n = 87$) and non-DM-associated ($n = 95$) male NAFLD patients

Fig. 3 Drinking habits and the effect of alcohol consumption on laboratory tests in DM patients. **a** Drinking habits in individual age. **b** The effect of alcohol consumption on laboratory tests in DM patients. *GGT* gamma glutamyl transpeptidase. Serum ALT levels in drinkers consuming >60 g alcohol daily were comparable with those in nondrinkers. *Error bars* SD

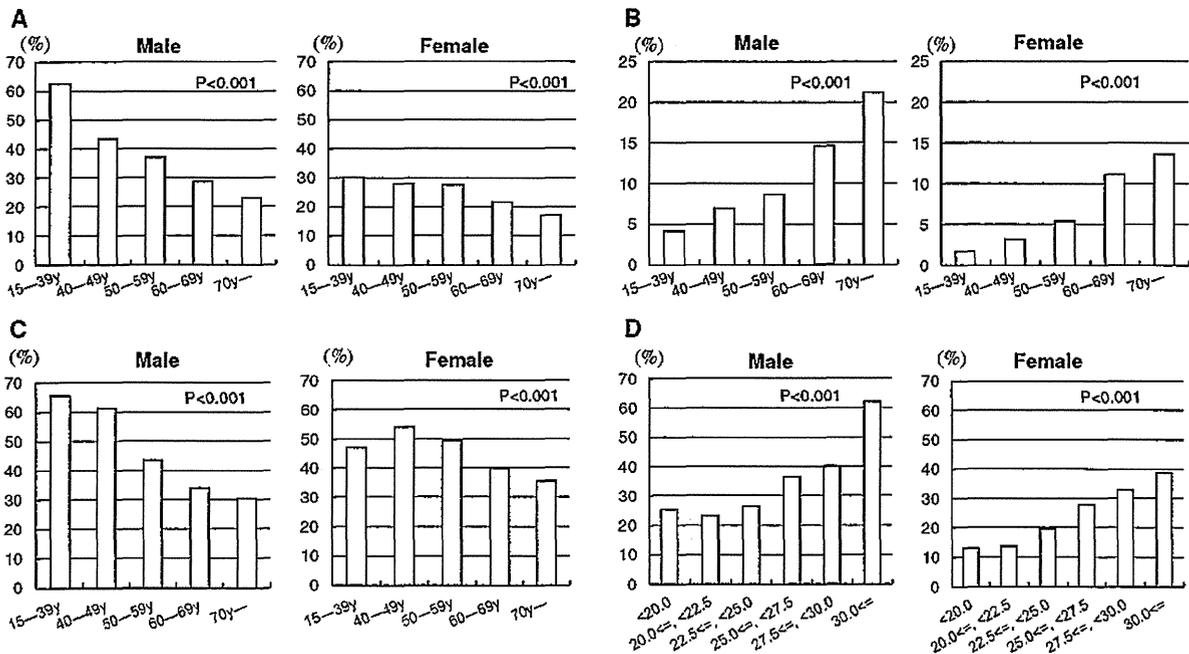
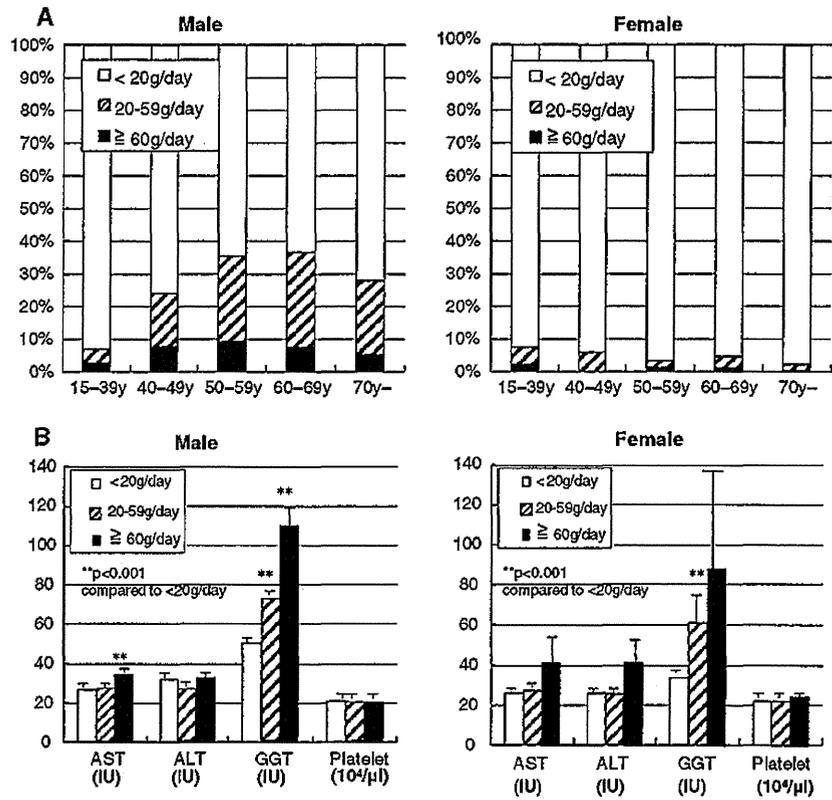


Fig. 4 Influence of age on the ratio of patients with elevated serum ALT level, decreased PLT count and abnormal BMI, and the relationship between BMI and the ratio of patients with elevated serum ALT level. **a** The ratio of patients with elevated serum ALT

level (≥ 31 IU/L). **b** The ratio of patients with decreased PLT count ($< 15 \times 10^4/\mu\text{L}$). **c** The ratio of patients with abnormal BMI (≥ 25). **d** The relationship between BMI and the ratio of patients with elevated serum ALT level (≥ 31 IU/L)

Table 4 Multivariate analysis to identify independent variables related to elevated serum ALT level (≥ 31 IU/L)

	Regression coefficient	Standard error	Odds ratio	95 % confidence interval	<i>p</i>
Males					
Age	-0.394	0.048	0.674	0.613–0.741	<0.001
Platelet	-0.216	0.049	0.806	0.732–0.886	<0.001
Anti-hepatitis C virus	0.278	0.042	1.321	1.218–1.433	<0.001
Body mass index	0.411	0.048	1.509	1.374–1.657	<0.001
Females					
Age	-0.265	0.059	0.767	0.683–0.861	<0.001
Platelet	-0.336	0.063	0.714	0.632–0.808	<0.001
Anti-hepatitis C	0.208	0.050	1.232	1.117–1.359	<0.001
Body mass index	0.397	0.057	1.487	1.330–1.663	<0.001

was 60 and 45 years, respectively; in corresponding females, the median age was 66 ($n = 101$) and 61 years ($n = 82$), respectively. No significant difference was noted in BMI between DM and non-DM NAFLD patients (M 26.0 and 27.5 kg/m², respectively; F 26.0 and 27.0 kg/m², respectively). Male NAFLD patients without DM were significantly younger than those with DM ($p < 0.001$).

NAFLD patients were classified according to Matteoni's classification. Type 1, 2, 3, and 4 cases were 14 (16 %), 14 (16 %), 4 (5 %), and 55 (63 %), respectively, among male DM patients and 28 (29 %), 23 (24 %), 11 (12 %), and 33 (35 %), respectively, among male non-DM patients. Type 1, 2, 3, and 4 cases were 16 (16 %), 8 (8 %), 4 (4 %), and 73 (72 %), respectively, among female DM patients and 9 (11 %), 9 (11 %), 7 (9 %), and 57 (69 %), respectively, among female non-DM patients (Fig. 5). The frequency of Type 4 NASH was significantly higher in male DM patients than in male non-DM patients ($p < 0.001$). The rate of Type 4 NASH was high in both female DM and non-DM patients.

In total, 244 (M 103, F 141) NASH patients were classified according to Brunt's classification. The number of patients with stage 0 (Matteoni Type 3), 1, 2, 3, and 4 were 2 (3 %), 27 (46 %), 10 (17 %), 17 (29 %), and 3 (5 %), respectively, among male DM patients and 10 (23 %), 16 (36 %), 8 (18 %), 9 (21 %), and 1 (2 %), respectively, among male non-DM patients. Stage 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 cases were 4 (5 %), 25 (33 %), 24 (31 %), 13 (17 %), and 11 (14 %), respectively, among female DM patients and 4 (6 %), 28 (44 %), 20 (31 %), 10 (16 %), and 2 (3 %), respectively, among female non-DM patients (Fig. 6). The frequency of advanced stage NASH was significantly higher in male DM patients than in male non-DM patients ($p < 0.05$). The rate of Stage 4 NASH was higher in female DM patients than in female non-DM patients; however, the difference was not significant ($p = 0.198$).

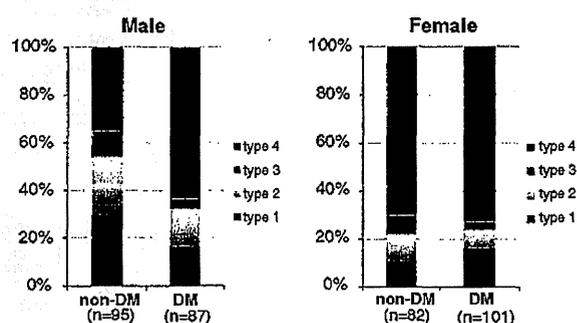


Fig. 5 Distribution of Matteoni's type classification in individual status of glucose metabolism among NAFLD patients. The frequency of type 4 NASH was significantly higher in male DM patients than in male non-DM patients ($p < 0.001$). The rate of type 4 NASH was high in both female DM and non-DM patients

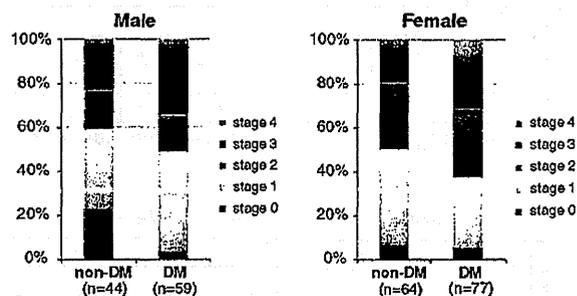


Fig. 6 Distribution of Brunt's stage in individual status of glucose metabolism among NASH patients. The frequency of advanced stage NASH was significantly higher in male DM patients than in male non-DM patients ($p < 0.05$). The rate of stage 4 NASH was higher in female DM patients than in female non-DM patients; however, the difference was not significant ($p = 0.198$)

HCC incidence in DM patients

In total, 67 (M 48, F 19) HCC cases (1.4 %) were reviewed (Table 2). HCC incidence was significantly higher in males

than in females. Five of 67 HCC patients consumed >60 g alcohol daily, and two of these five patients were anti-HCV Ab positive. HBsAg positivity, anti-HCV Ab positivity, and non-B non-C prevalence in the HCC patients was 8.6, 50.0, and 41.4 %, respectively. In a Japanese nationwide survey of 19,499 HCC patients [3], HBsAg positivity, anti-HCV Ab positivity, and non-B non-C prevalence was 15.0, 67.7, and 17.3 %, respectively. Non-B non-C prevalence was higher in our DM patients with HCC than in the nationwide HCC survey participants ($p < 0.001$). Mean PLT count in DM patients with HCC was as follows: HBsAg-positive patients, 12.4 ± 6.8 ; anti-HCV Ab-positive patients, 12.4 ± 5.6 ; and non-B non-C patients, 16.0 ± 7.0 ($\times 10^4/\mu\text{L}$); PLT count was significantly higher in the non-B non-C patients than in the anti-HCV-positive patients ($p < 0.05$). Mean BMI in these three patient groups was as follows: HBsAg-positive patients, 23.2 ± 5.1 ; anti-HCV Ab-positive patients, 22.8 ± 3.3 ; and non-B non-C patients, 27.2 ± 4.4 (kg/m^2); BMI was significantly higher in the non-B non-C patients than in the anti-HCV Ab-positive patients ($p < 0.001$).

Discussion

This is the first multicenter study, as per our knowledge, that clarifies the cause of liver injury in DM patients in Japan. Most Japanese HBV carriers are genotype C, acquired via perinatal vertical transmission or early childhood infection [12]. The HBV carrier rate in Japan is higher than that in western countries and significantly lower than that in other Asian countries [13]. In 1986, the Japanese government initiated a nationwide hepatitis B immunization program for infants born to HBV carrier mothers to prevent perinatal transmission. Consequently, the number of young serum HBsAg-positive individuals is extremely low. In our study, although the HBV carrier rate in DM patients was significantly higher than that in blood donors, 72 % of HBsAg-positive patients were serum HBV-DNA negative. Only 10 % of HBsAg-positive patients exhibited high serum HBV-DNA levels (≥ 4.0 log copies/ml), which is likely to induce hepatitis. These results indicate that a majority of DM patients who are HBV carriers may be asymptomatic.

Chronic hepatitis C may result in life-threatening complications, including cirrhosis and HCC. Worldwide, cirrhosis can be attributed to HBV (30 %) and HCV infection (27 %) [14]. The leading cause of cirrhosis among HBV and HCV sufferers and alcohol consumers varies with individual countries. A recent nationwide Japanese survey reported the etiology of cirrhosis in Japan as follows: HCV 60.9 %, HBV 13.9 %, alcoholism 13.6 %, primary biliary cirrhosis 2.4 %, NASH-related 2.1 %, and autoimmune

hepatitis 1.9 % [15]. However, we must consider that hepatic triglycerides diminish with liver fibrosis progression in NASH patients (so-called “burned-out” NASH), resulting in difficulty in diagnosing NASH. Sixty-two percent of anti-HCV Ab-positive DM patients were HCV-RNA positive; these patients showed significantly higher serum ALT levels compared with HCV-RNA-negative patients. These results indicate that HCV infection is involved in the etiology of liver disease in DM patients.

There is no doubt that the positive rates of serum HBsAg and anti-HCV Ab in the general population are higher than in blood donors. Unfortunately, there were no data in the distribution of the rate of hepatitis virus carriers in each age group in Japan. In the present study, the positive rates of HBsAg and anti-HCV Ab in DM patients were significantly higher than that in blood donors. However, the present study demonstrated that most of HBsAg positive patients were negative for serum HBV DNA or had low serum HBV DNA levels and around one-third of anti-HCV Ab positive patients were negative for serum HCV RNA.

These results indicate the possibility that the frequency of hepatitis virus carriers in DM patients is higher than that in general population but no significant differences might be noted between DM patients and the general population.

Alcohol consumption is reportedly a significant factor associated with the risk of HCC development in patients with NASH-associated cirrhosis [16]. In our study, serum AST and ALT levels were comparable between drinkers consuming 20–59 g alcohol daily and nondrinkers. The ratio of heavy drinkers consuming >60 g alcohol daily was low (4.3 %) in our study. Moreover, drinking was not chosen as a variable related to elevated serum ALT levels. These results suggest that alcohol intake is not an important factor in the pathogenesis of liver disease in DM patients.

In our study, the frequency of anti-HCV Ab-positive DM patients was 5 %, whereas the serum HCV-RNA positivity rate in anti-HCV Ab-positive patients was 62 %. Therefore, the HCV carrier rate was calculated as 3 %. Since the proportion of HCV carriers and patients with elevated ALT levels were 3 % and up to 29 %, respectively, the influence of HCV infection is estimated to be no more than 10 % (3 % divided by 29 %) among DM patients with elevated ALT levels. There was no significant change in the number of DM patients with elevated ALT levels before and after elimination of HBV and/or HCV carriers and heavy drinkers. These results suggested that the major cause (up to 90 %) of liver injury in DM patients may be NAFLD.

In the present study, the frequency of advanced stage NASH was significantly higher in male DM patients than

in male non-DM patients. Neuschwander-Tetri et al. [17] reported that patients with advanced stage NASH were more likely to have DM. Mayaaki et al. [18] also examined the relationship between hepatic fibrosis stage and DM prevalence. In the mild fibrosis group, only 42 % were complicated with DM, whereas in the severe fibrosis group, the prevalence was as high as 71 % ($p = 0.020$). Lo et al. [19] reported that DM exacerbated diet-induced NASH fibrosis in mice. Therefore, DM may be an important factor in hepatic fibrosis development in NAFLD patients.

HCC frequency is significantly higher in obese and DM patients than in non-obese and non-DM patients [20, 21]. Recently, Tokushige et al. [22] reported on the backgrounds of Japanese HCC patients, and non-B non-C HCC accounted for 16 % of cases. A recent report has shown that NASH patients are likely to develop HCC in an earlier stage of fibrosis compared with chronic hepatitis C patients [23]. Our previous study analyzed 87 histologically proven NASH-HCC patients [24]; 37 % (20/54) of male HCC patients had a mild to moderate stage of liver fibrosis (F1 or F2); however, no female HCC patients were F1 stage, and only 15 % (5/33) were F2 stage. In the present study, DM patients with non-B non-C HCC exhibited a tendency to have higher PLT counts than those in DM patients with HCV-HCC, indicating that non-B non-C HCC is more likely to occur in DM patients with less advanced liver disease than in those with viral hepatitis.

In conclusion, HBsAg and anti-HCV Ab positivity rates were high; however, most of these patients were HBV-DNA negative or had low serum HBV-DNA levels. One-third of anti-HCV Ab-positive patients were HCV-RNA negative, and 4.3 % patients were drinkers whose ALT levels were comparable with those of nondrinkers. From these results, we conclude that up to 90 % of Japanese DM patients with liver injury may have NAFLD/NASH.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Report from a Viral Hepatitis Policy Forum on implementing the WHO framework for global action on viral hepatitis in North Asia

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Background & Aims: The World Health Organisation (WHO) Prevention & Control of Viral Hepatitis Infection: Framework for Global Action offers a global vision for the prevention and control of viral hepatitis. In October 2012, the Coalition to Eradicate Viral Hepatitis in Asia Pacific (CEVHAP) organised the North Asia Workshop on Viral Hepatitis in Taipei to discuss how to implement the WHO Framework in the North Asia region. This paper presents outcomes from this workshop.

Methods: Twenty-eight representatives from local liver associations, patient organisations, and centres of excellence in Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan participated in the workshop.

Findings: Priority areas for action were described along the four axes of the WHO Framework: (1) awareness, advocacy and resources; (2) evidence and data; (3) prevention of transmission; and (4) screening and treatment. Priorities included: axis 1: greater public and professional awareness, particularly among primary care physicians and local advocacy networks. Axis 2: better economic data and identifying barriers to screening and treatment uptake. Axis 3: monitoring of vaccination outcomes and targeted harm reduction strategies. Axis 4: strengthening links between hospitals and primary care providers, and secure funding of screening and treatment, including for hepatocellular carcinoma.

Conclusions: The WHO Framework provides an opportunity to develop comprehensive and cohesive policies in North Asia and the broader region. A partnership between clinical special-

ists, primary care physicians, policy makers, and people with or at risk of viral hepatitis is essential in shaping future policies.

Introduction

In 2012, the World Health Organisation (WHO) launched the *Prevention & Control of Viral Hepatitis Infection: Framework for Global Action*. This strategy offers a global vision for the prevention and control of viral hepatitis [1]. The Framework was welcomed by hepatitis experts and advocacy groups who have been struggling for the attention of policymakers about this 'silent epidemic' for many years [2,3].

Asia is home to 75% of all chronic hepatitis B cases [4] and China alone has more cases of hepatitis C infection than all of Europe or the Americas [5]. The majority of people infected with either hepatitis B virus or hepatitis C virus do not know that they are infected, and are not aware of the precautions they need to take to avoid infecting others or to enable them to reduce the impact of the infection [6]. Uptake of screening, when available, is low, and treatment rates are 4–10% in Asia compared to rates of 20% in the United States [7].

Against this background, the Coalition to Eradicate Viral Hepatitis in Asia Pacific (CEVHAP) was established in 2010 to contribute towards an Asia Pacific region free from the significant health, social and economic burden of viral hepatitis (www.cevhap.com). CEVHAP is uniquely positioned to support and facilitate the implementation of the WHO framework in different countries across the region through its network of members who are experts in their respective fields in the Asia Pacific region and globally.

In October 2012, CEVHAP organised the North Asia Workshop on Viral Hepatitis in Taipei, with participants from Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan. These four jurisdictions were chosen because, to varying degrees, they have some initiatives in place

Keywords: Hepatitis B; Hepatitis C; Asia; Policy.

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Special Report

Table 1. Epidemiology of hepatitis B and hepatitis C in Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan.

Country [Ref.]	Hepatitis B			Hepatitis C			Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)			
	Prevalence of chronic hepatitis B infection, general population (%)	Estimated number of carriers (x10 ⁶)	Age group with highest number of carriers	Prevalence in general population (%)	Dominant genotype	Time trends	Incidence in men; women (rate per 100,000 persons)	% due to hepatitis B infection*	% due to hepatitis C*	Median age of onset
Hong Kong [41]	8.8	0.7	>20 yr (prevalence increases with age)	0.30%	1b, 6a	Very low prevalence, most common in IDUs	29.9; 8.3	75-80	3-6 [44]	63 for men, 71 for women
Japan [12;20;42]	0.71	0.9	50-64 yr	0.63%	70% 1b, 20% 2a, 10% 2b	Risk factors changing over time and by region	2.42; 1	15	67.7	66.4 for men, 69.9 for women
Korea [43]	2.8	2.25-2.27	30-50 yr	1.29% (in >40 population)	1b, 2a	Mostly >40 age group people. Lack of data on youth, little data on role of injecting drug use	45; 33.6	20	72	Incidence increases after age 40, peak at 55
Taiwan [30;44]	10-12	2.5-3	35 (or 40)-55 (or 60) yr	4.4% (>20 yr)**	1b, 2a	Most disease in older groups. Significant geographic variations (from 0-90% depending on village) (45)	53; 21	53 [30]	28 (8% due to B + C) [30]	58 average, mean age 10 yr lower for HBV vs. HCV-caused HCC***

HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; IDU, injecting drug users.

*The remainder of cases of HCC is caused by alcohol and other factors such as aflatoxin.

**This data is from populations participating in screening programmes only.

***One would expect the relative proportion of HCV-related HCC and the age of onset of HCC to increase in future.

in the area of viral hepatitis and have broadly similar health infrastructures. These localities are also in a privileged position compared to other countries in the Asia Pacific region, in that they have the resources to build on existing successes and lead the drive for further policy change across the region. Summary epidemiological data on hepatitis B and hepatitis C in these four jurisdictions is presented in Table 1.

The aim of the workshop was to ensure that participants understood the WHO framework; to support participants in building or strengthening advocacy networks, and to identify local priorities for implementing the framework within their respective jurisdictions.

This paper summarises the outcomes of this workshop and identifies steps to be taken to translate the WHO Framework into sustainable national policies on viral hepatitis in North Asia.

Materials and methods

The 28 workshop participants were identified within the existing CEVHAP network of local liver associations, patient organisations, and centres of excellence in Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan. The agenda for the one and a half day

workshop was developed in close consultation with a small group of CEVHAP experts. To assist participants in their preparation, a briefing paper describing the scope of viral hepatitis, focusing on hepatitis C and hepatitis C virus, within the four jurisdictions was distributed prior to the meeting (CEVHAP, data on file).

The workshop used the four axes of the WHO Prevention & Control of Viral Hepatitis Infection: Framework for Global Action to guide discussions (Fig. 1) and consisted of expert presentations, group discussions, and country-level workshops.

Results

This paper uses the four axes of the WHO framework to describe the workshop results. The priority areas for action in the four participating jurisdictions are presented in Table 2 and are discussed in more detail in the section below.

Axis 1: Raising awareness, promoting partnerships, and securing resources

In North Asia, the general public, people at risk of infection, the medical community and policymakers generally have a poor understanding of viral hepatitis, its natural history and

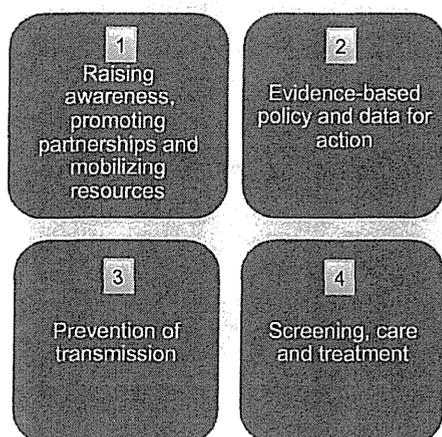


Fig. 1. The four strategic axes for policy development recommended in the WHO Prevention & Control of Viral Hepatitis Infection: Framework for Global Action.

manifestations. Awareness among primary care physicians is particularly low and targeted educational efforts are needed to encourage these providers to test their patients for viral

hepatitis and refer them towards appropriate care pathways. Investment in developing better relationships between primary care and hepatitis specialist services may help engage primary care physicians.

Local advocacy networks that bridge civil society, liver specialists, primary care physicians and other community care providers are still lacking in Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Korea particularly. This lack of a strong advocacy base makes it more difficult to engage the media in the first place or to overcome media fatigue about viral hepatitis. The media plays a vital role in raising awareness of viral hepatitis, particularly among the general public and those at risk of infection. The awareness campaigns run in the United States and Korea provide interesting examples of media engagement on viral hepatitis (Case studies 1 and 2).

A key to the success of awareness campaigns on viral hepatitis is to find the issues that resonate best with media, the public, and policymakers. The fact that viral hepatitis is one of the main causes of liver cancer is indeed compelling and one with potential to grab the attention of these key stakeholders. For example, a recent study by the International Agency for Research on Cancer showed that one in six cancers was caused by infection and concluded that prevention of viral hepatitis and other infections could have a substantial effect on reducing the future burden of cancer [8]. These data may be very powerful in convincing policymakers of the need to mobilise resources towards the prevention and management of viral hepatitis.

Table 2. Priorities for action in Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan according to the four strategic axes of the WHO Global Framework.

Priorities for action
1. Raising awareness, promoting partnerships and mobilizing resources
Greater public awareness
Greater awareness of primary care physicians
Building patient advocacy
Strengthening hospital-primary care networks
2. Evidence-based policy and data for action
Economic data on the burden of viral hepatitis
Better data on barriers to screening and treatment
Centralised surveillance
Accurate estimates of the number of chronic hepatitis cases
3. Prevention of transmission
Better monitoring of vaccine effectiveness
Universal vaccination of children and improved access to vaccination by people at greater risk
Targeted harm reduction strategies
Better data on vaccine failure
4. Screening, care and treatment
Improved availability and funding of screening [public funds and/or employer-based]
Linking screening to effective monitoring and treatment
Funding screening for hepatocellular carcinoma
Improved access to treatment of chronic hepatitis and hepatocellular carcinoma

Special Report

Case Study 1: How to engage the public on hepatitis: the 'KNOW More Hepatitis' in the United States

In 2011, the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) launched an education campaign, 'KNOW More Hepatitis' [9]. Insights from focus groups consisting of people with high prevalence rates of infection (for example, 'baby-boomers' for hepatitis C) helped guide the development of targeted messages for each risk population [10]. The campaign made creative use of social and other media:

- It used powerful, evidence-based messages to engage the media. One example was "Hepatitis now kills more Americans than HIV", which was the key conclusion of a recently published article in the *Annals of Internal Medicine* [11].
- An online hepatitis risk assessment tool was featured on the CDC website, which allowed individuals to conduct a quick, confidential assessment of their risk for hepatitis A, hepatitis B or hepatitis C in the privacy of their own homes.
- The campaign has an active Facebook page, 11,000 followers on Twitter, and public service advertisements on YouTube. 400 tweets translated into over 3.3 million media impressions, demonstrating the power of social media to engage target audiences on viral hepatitis.
- Six national airports donated space worth up to \$4 million for Dioramas which featured rotating posters on viral hepatitis (Fig. 2).

Case Study 2: Conveying the 'right level of fear'? The Korean experience

In March 2011, the Korean Association for the Study of the Liver (KASL) launched an awareness campaign on viral hepatitis. A 30-minute television advertisement showed patients with end-stage liver disease. The message was: "if you don't manage your disease, this is what is going to happen." The goal was to shock the public into action.

The impact of the advertisement was significant: the day after it featured, KASL was ranked top of Google searches. But the increased attention also had unintended adverse consequences: people infected with viral hepatitis reported the loss of relationships or employment as a result of the advertisement. KASL immediately launched a lower-intensity campaign that focused on the importance of seeking proper care for chronic hepatitis infection.

The lesson learned by KASL was that it is important to convey the 'right' level of fear about viral hepatitis in order to raise awareness of the urgency of the situation in terms of the risks of advanced liver disease. However, too much fear may create panic and inertia, if the perceived message is that nothing that can be done to improve the outcomes of people with the viral hepatitis or that policy makers, physicians, and the public are powerless to effect change.

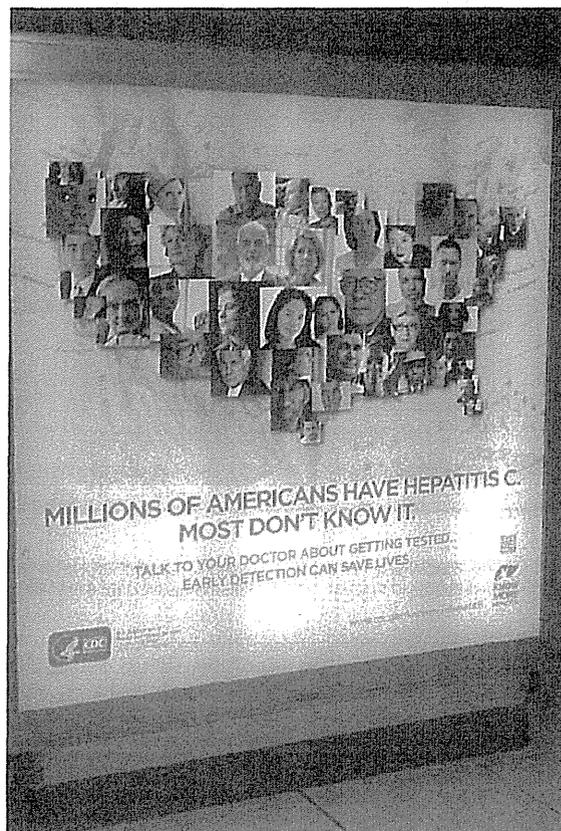


Fig. 2. Example of a diorama on viral hepatitis at a US airport.

Axis 2: Evidence-based policy and data for action

One key condition for successful advocacy and a sustained public health response is reliable data. With viral hepatitis, the fact that so many people remain undiagnosed makes it difficult to convey to policy makers the full scale of the problem [12]. Better surveillance is needed to capture chronic as well as acute cases of viral hepatitis. More reliable prevalence estimates in high risk populations, such as people who are poor, those who inject drugs, prisoners, and sex workers, are needed as these groups are usually poorly represented in existing surveillance studies.

Reliable economic data are critical to demonstrate to national governments the need for them to invest in viral hepatitis prevention and control. Sometimes showing policy makers the cost of 'doing nothing' can exemplify the most compelling case for investment [13].

One area where more research is greatly needed is to find the barriers to uptake of screening and treatment among individuals at risk. These data are critical to shift the behaviours of individuals towards more active disease management.

Finally, insights from patients, such as those gathered in a survey of the Japan Hepatitis Council (Case study 3) may help channel efforts towards areas that will make the greatest difference to individuals living with viral hepatitis.

Case Study 3: The combined power of advocacy and data: The Japan Hepatitis Council

Japan has a powerful patient advocacy base consisting of over 80 local, regional and national associations acting under the umbrella of the Japan Hepatitis Council. Pressure from these groups over the government's failure to implement blood and mass vaccination safety measures was instrumental in the creation of the Basic Act of Hepatitis Measures in 2010. As part of this Act, each prefecture is required to have a hepatitis patient representative on its local council.

A recent survey of members of the Japan Hepatitis Council helped identify some of the main challenges for policy development in Japan [14]:

- **High mortality from hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC):** Japan has one of the highest rates of HCC in the world and counts 30,000 deaths due to HCC every year.
- **Low uptake of screening:** A national screening programme against hepatitis B and C has existed since 2002, targeting individuals aged 40-70 years. However, uptake rates remain low (7-27%) and screening is poorly integrated into general practice [15, 16].
- **Poor linkage to treatment:** 48% of those who test positive for hepatitis B (and 65% of those testing positive for HCV) fail to seek medical care [12] and only half of those with hepatitis C who do seek care complete their course of treatment [14].
- **High costs of care:** Government funding for antiviral treatment of hepatitis B and hepatitis C has gradually increased since 2008, however patients are still left with a significant co-payment and many patients report crippling personal economic costs.
- **Stigma and discrimination:** Thirty percent of respondents report having experienced discrimination due to viral hepatitis, especially in medical institutions. Several respondents felt that their hepatitis status hindered their marriage prospects and employment options. Many admitted that they hid their condition from others as a result.

vention measures, including vaccination, are needed to control transmission in other individuals at high risk of infection, including people who have tattoos and acupuncture, women of childbearing age, men who have sex with men, and prisoners. And continued education about the risks of transmission through sexual contact and the need for safe sex practices is needed for the general population.

Re-use of needles and syringes in medical practice is common practice in Asia and nosocomial spread of hepatitis C has been observed in outpatient clinics [20] as well as dialysis units [21-23]. Information about safe injection practices and the prevention of transmission should be essential components of professional education efforts.

Case Study 4: Taiwan: a vaccination success story

Taiwan launched one of the first universal vaccination programmes against hepatitis B in 1984 and the programme is heralded around the world as a true success story [24, 25]. Today, systematic vaccination is offered to all newborns, health workers and schoolchildren who missed the neonatal vaccination (catch-up vaccination). The impact of the programme on seroprevalence levels has been considerable (Fig. 3) and horizontal transmission amongst children decreased [26]. The HCC incidence among children has been significantly reduced, making the hepatitis B vaccine the first effective vaccine for the prevention of cancer [27]. The programme has also provided important insights into the natural history of hepatitis B, for example about the duration of conferred immunogenicity and the potential need for booster vaccinations [28].

Complacency must be avoided, however, as thousands of deaths due to viral hepatitis still occur every year in Taiwan. Prevalence rates have not decreased in adults [29] and the impact of vaccination is much lower in rural areas than in urban centres [28, 30]. Also, the success of vaccination cannot be taken for granted: diligent, continuous monitoring of the quality of available vaccines and of the outcomes of vaccination programmes is needed for the public health impact of the vaccination programme against hepatitis B virus to continue in Taiwan [31, 32].

Axis 3: Prevention of transmission

Vaccination against hepatitis B has had a marked impact on reducing the incidence of hepatitis B infection (Case study 4). However, gaps in the region remain. Japan only offers vaccination to infants born to hepatitis B-infected mothers, whereas in Taiwan this is one group in whom vaccination efforts have been less successful. In all countries, careful evaluation of the impact of vaccination and of the benefits of extending vaccination to high risk groups is needed.

Injecting drug use is now the predominant route of transmission for hepatitis C in north Asia [17] and this is a critical target group for prevention strategies. Co-infection of hepatitis B and hepatitis C and/or HIV is a key concern in people who inject drugs, as it is associated with more rapid progression to liver disease and death [18,19]. Targeted education and pre-

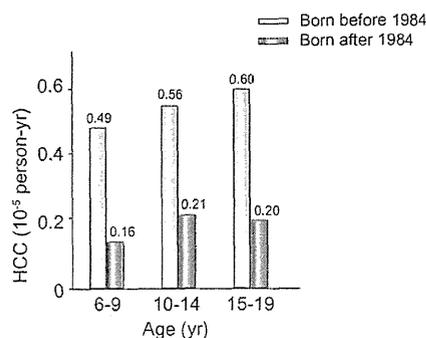


Fig. 3. Incidence of HCC by age in cohorts born before and after infant vaccination program against hepatitis B virus in Taiwan (started in 1984) [27].