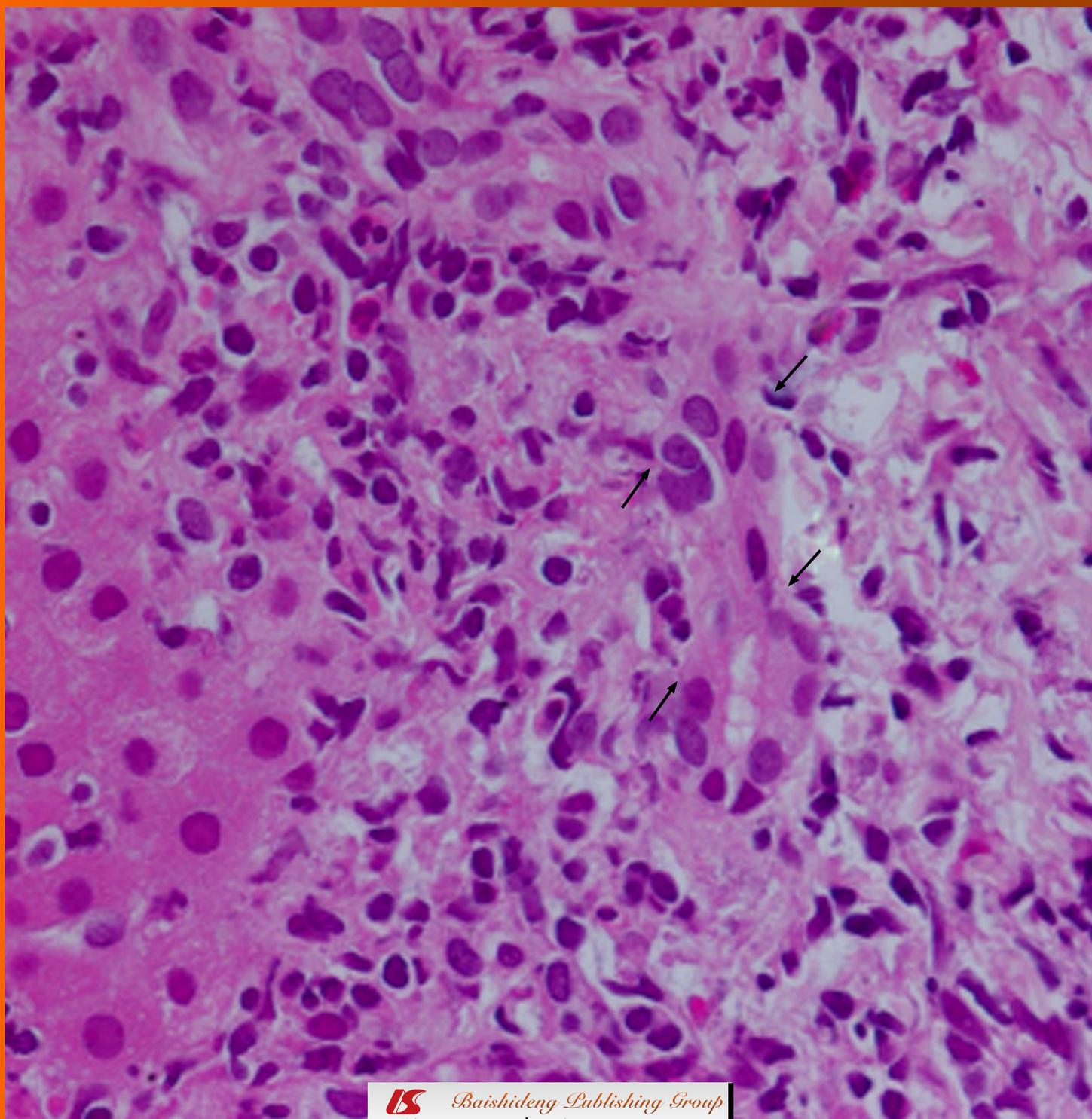


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Liver-specific therapies for metastases of neuroendocrine pancreatic tumors

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Abstract

The presence or development of liver metastases in patients with neuroendocrine pancreatic tumors is the most important prognostic factor. Liver resection, transplantation and many different therapeutic approaches are discussed in this special review.

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Key words: Liver metastasis; Neuroendocrine pancreatic tumor; Liver resection; Liver transplantation; Chemotherapy; Biotherapy

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INTRODUCTION

Pancreatic endocrine tumors (PETs) represent an important subset of pancreatic neoplasms (Table 1). These tumors account for 2%-4% of all clinically detected pancreatic tumors. They consist of single or multiple benign or malignant neoplasms, and are associated with multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN1) in 10%-20%^[1]. PETs are rare but fascinating tumors. PETs present as either functional tumors, causing specific hormonal syndromes, like Zollinger-Ellison-Syndrome (ZES) or organic hyperinsulinism, or as non-functional PETs (NFPETs) with symptoms similar to pancreatic adenocarcinomas^[1,2]. The total incidence of all PETs is approximately 1 in 100 000 people/year^[1,2].

NATURAL HISTORY AND PROGNOSIS

The natural history of PETs is highly variable (Table 1)^[3]. Small, benign neoplasms, such as 90% of all sporadic insulinomas, are readily curable by surgical resection. The incidence of insulinomas that are malignant is about 10%. Insulinomas greater than 2 cm in diameter without signs of angioinvasion or metastases are considered benign. Surgery cures all patients with benign insulinomas. Danforth and co-authors reviewed 62 cases of metastatic insulinoma^[4]. All tumors had metastases, most commonly to the liver and/or lymph nodes. The recurrence rate was 63%, with the median interval to recurrence of 2.8 years. The median survival for patients with recurrent tumors was 19 mo. Palliative resection was associated with a median survival of 4 years, and in those who had a biopsy only it was 11 mo^[4]. Although most gastrinomas grow slowly, 60%-90% are malignant (Figure 1). Patients with metastatic gastrinoma have 5-year survival rates of only 20%-38%. Several studies have provided information on the biological behavior of pancreatic and duodenal gastrinomas. It has been shown that both locations are equally malignant, with 40%-70% of patients presenting with metastases. The postoperative disease-free survival rates for both

Table 1 Neuroendocrine tumors of the pancreas

Tumor type (syndrome)	Incidence of PETs (%)	Clinical presentation	Malignancy (%)
Insulinoma	70-80	Weakness, sweating, tachycardia, anxiety, fatigue, headache, dizziness, disorientation, seizures and unconsciousness	< 10
Gastrinoma	20-25	Intractable or recurrent peptic ulcer disease (hemorrhage, perforation), complications of peptic ulcer, diarrhea	50-60
Non-functional tumors	30-50	Obstructive jaundice, pancreatitis, epigastric pain, duodenal obstruction, weight loss, fatigue	60-90
VIPoma	4	Profuse watery diarrhea, hypotension, abdominal pain	80
Glucagonoma	4	Migratory, necrolytic skin rash, glossitis, stomatitis, angular cheilitis, diabetes, severe weight loss, diarrhea	80
Somatostatinoma	< 5	Weight loss, cholelithiasis, diarrhea, neurofibromatosis	50
Carcinoid	< 1	Flushing, sweating, diarrhea, edema, wheezing	90
ACTHoma	< 1	Cushing's syndrome	> 90
GRFoma	< 1	Acromegaly	30
PTH-like-oma	< 1	Hypercalcemia, bone pain	> 90
Neurotensinoma	< 1	Hypotension, tachycardia, malabsorption	> 80

PETs: pancreatic endocrine tumors.

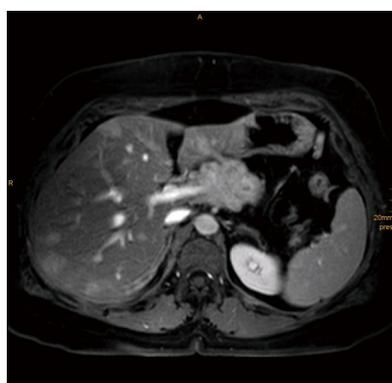


Figure 1 Pancreatic gastrinoma with multiple liver metastases.

tumor types are similar, that is, between 30%-50% after 10 years for sporadic gastrinoma and < 10% for MEN1-related gastrinoma^[1,5,6]. Duodenal tumors, however, are smaller, less likely to metastasize to the liver, and have a better prognosis than pancreatic gastrinomas^[5]. Most other functional, and all malignant NFPETs, also have a less favourable prognosis. Approximately 50%-80% of these neoplasms recur or metastasize, and up to one-third of patients already have metastases at initial presentation^[3]. Historic controls with untreated liver metastases have a 5-year survival rate of only 20%-30%^[7]. The natural history of pancreatic tumors in MEN1 patients is difficult to define. Approximately 50% of MEN1-associated pancreatic neoplasms are NFPETs^[8]. NFPETs rarely become symptomatic in patients and are commonly detected during regular screening, using CT or MRI. PETs in MEN1 patients usually occur in multiples and NFPETs often co-exist beside a clinically dominant functioning lesion. The prevalence of PETs in MEN1 patients is 80%-100%. It is the most common disease-related cause of death, and one should assume that all PETs have the biological ability to develop distant metastases^[9]. Patients with PETs generally have a much better prognosis than those with pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Recent studies have reported improved survival after resection; in one study, the median overall survival in resected patients was 58-97 mo, compared with

15-21 mo in patients not undergoing surgery, although the number of patients with information regarding the surgery was small^[10]. It is noteworthy that in almost every study, the presence or development of liver metastases, but not lymph-node metastases, is the most important prognostic factor^[1,3].

Repeated resections for resectable recurrences or metastases are thought to be indicated in order to improve survival^[11]. If an aggressive approach is used, potentially curative resections are possible in up to 62% of patients, and overall, 5-year survival rates of 65% can be achieved^[8,11,12]. Debulking resections may also be appropriate. In a study of 170 patients with liver metastases from neuroendocrine tumors, major hepatectomy was performed in 91 patients (54%). The postoperative complication rate was 14%, and two patients died (1.2%). Surgery controlled symptoms in 104 out of 108 patients, but the recurrence rate at 5 years was 59%. Overall survival was 61% and 35% at 5 and 10 years respectively. The authors concluded that debulking extends survival, although recurrence is expected^[13]. Removal of the primary tumor in non-metastatic patients may significantly improve survival, compared with that of patients who have not undergone successful primary tumor resection^[14]. Solorzano *et al*^[15] reported survival data for 163 patients with NFPETs. As expected, patients with localized, non-metastatic disease at the time of diagnosis had a significantly superior median survival compared to those with metastatic disease (7.1 *vs* 2.2 years, $P < 0.0001$). Among those with localized disease, an additional survival advantage was demonstrated for patients who underwent complete resection of the primary tumor, compared to those with locally advanced unresectable tumors (7.1 *vs* 5.2 years)^[15].

LIVER RESECTION

An increasing number of studies on surgical treatment of neuroendocrine tumors with liver metastases have been published^[15-21] (Figure 2). Although none of these stud-



Figure 2 Operative specimen of liver metastases of a non-functional pancreatic endocrine tumor.

ies was a randomized clinical trial, and most of them had a varied proportion of patients with PETs and patients with midgut carcinoid tumors, nevertheless important conclusions can be drawn. In these studies, a total of 118 patients with hepatic metastases from PETs were treated, mostly by surgical resection. There was an average operative mortality of 3% and a 5-year survival rate of 64%^[15-21]. In a study by Touzios *et al*^[16] the median and 5-year survival were only 20 mo and 25% for patients with their liver metastases treated in a non-aggressive way compared with over 96 mo and 72% for those who had undergone hepatic resection and/or radiofrequency ablation of their liver metastases. In a study by Fendrich *et al*^[11], 27 patients with metastases from PETs were treated surgically and 5 and 10-year survival rates of 81% and 72% was achieved. These data are very encouraging, compared with historic controls, where patients with metastatic PETs remained untreated and had a 5-year survival rate of only 30%-40%^[22,23]. Que *et al* reviewed the data for 212 patients with partial hepatectomy for metastatic neuroendocrine tumors. The overall morbidity rate was 14%, while the operative mortality rate after partial hepatectomy for metastatic carcinoid disease was 2.3%^[24]. However, the favourable outcome observed could be biased, because most of the non-resectable patients with advanced disease were included in the non-surgical group. Therefore, while studies indicate that surgery could benefit some patients with limited liver disease, the best management approach remains inconclusive.

LIVER TRANSPLANTATION

Approximately 120-130 cases of orthotopic liver transplantation for PETs have been published, but long-term follow-up data have been limited, and the individual series were small^[25]. Taken together, the data confirm that cure by transplantation is rare. The largest single-center analysis was recently published by Rosenau *et al*^[26], reporting on 19 patients who received orthotopic liver transplantation for metastatic NET. The authors reported 1-, 5- and 10-year survival rates of 89, 80 and 50%, respectively. All deaths during long-term follow-up were tumor-associated. Recur-

rence was diagnosed in 12 patients between 2 wk and 48 mo after the procedure. Orthotopic liver transplantation should therefore only be considered in selected young patients with metastases limited to the liver, and those with a previously resected primary PET who require relief from hormonal or tumor symptoms.

MEDICAL THERAPY

If surgical resection or interventional embolization of the hepatic tumor burden is not feasible, or if the metastases are not confined to the liver, systemic treatment remains the only option. Among systemic therapies, two main approaches have to be considered: biotherapy using somatostatin analoga, interferon or novel multi-targeting agents, and conventional cytoreductive chemotherapy. The choice of therapeutic option depends on the biological behavior of the tumor according to clinical or histopathological parameters, such as grading and proliferation index (Ki67). Furthermore, the localization of the primary tumor (foregut, midgut and hindgut) has to be taken into account, with midgut tumors generally responding less well to systemic chemotherapy, compared to foregut tumors. By definition, none of the systemic therapies is liver-specific, but act on all metastatic sites. In the following section, the main biotherapies and chemotherapeutic regimens will be described.

BIOTHERAPY

Somatostatin analoga are the primary treatment for patients with hormonal symptoms of neuroendocrine tumors of the midgut presenting with carcinoid syndrome. The antisecretory effect of somatostatin analogues results in symptomatic improvement in 40%-80% of the patients^[27,28]. In the PROMID study, Rinke *et al*^[29] recently provided evidence that a long-acting somatostatin analoga, octreotide LAR, not only provides symptomatic relief, but also mediates anti-proliferative effects by significantly lengthening the time to tumor progression compared with placebo in patients with functionally active and inactive metastatic midgut NETs.

In addition, somatostatin analoga are able to improve symptoms caused by foregut NETs, such as VIPoma and glucagonoma, by overcoming diarrhea and skin rash^[28]. In insulinomas, somatostatin analoga have to be used with great caution, since hypoglycemia can deteriorate due to the concomitant suppression of growth hormone and glucagon^[28].

Usually, short-acting analoga, such as octreotide, are initially given to test the individual's tolerance, and side effects such as diarrhea and abdominal discomfort. If tolerated well, depot formulations such as octreotide-LAR i.m. or lanreotide autogel s.c. are applied every 4 wk, with the efficacy of lanreotide and octreotide being comparable^[28,30,31]. Major side effects of somatostatin analoga may include gallstone formation and, sometimes, but rarely, persistent steatorrhea^[28].

Besides somatostatin analogs, interferon-alpha represents the second choice among biotherapies. It acts both directly and indirectly on the tumor cells by inhibiting protein and hormone synthesis and by modulating immune response^[28]. To date, recombinant IFN-alpha2a and IFN-alpha2b and their pegylated forms are being used in clinical situations. Interferon has been demonstrated as similarly effective in symptom control when compared to somatostatin analogs, with biochemical responses occurring in 40%-60%, and symptomatic improvement in 50%-60%^[32]. However, partial tumor remission could only be noted in 10%-15% of the patients. Due to a larger range of side effects such as flu-like syndrome, weight loss, fatigue, autoimmune reactions and depression, interferon is generally used as a second-line therapy for symptomatic control^[32].

CHEMOTHERAPY

Chemotherapy in gastrointestinal neuroendocrine tumors is mainly reserved for poorly differentiated metastatic tumors, but may also be used in selected well or moderately differentiated carcinomas which are either not eligible or resistant to other therapies. Generally, foregut tumors respond better to cytoreductive chemotherapies when compared to midgut tumors.

In most metastatic foregut tumors, first-line treatment consists of streptozotocin (STZ) in combination with 5-FU or doxorubicin, achieving a response rate of between 39%-63%^[33,34]. In poorly differentiated, highly proliferating tumors (Ki67 > 20%), cisplatin or carboplatin in combination with etoposide are being used in analogy to regimens used for small-cell lung cancer^[28]. With this regimen, response rates can be achieved in up to 67% of the patients^[55]. At initiation of chemotherapy, all functionally active tumors should be treated concomitantly with somatostatin analogs in order to avoid a hormonal crisis due to cell lyses^[28]. Several agents including temozolomide^[36] and thalidomide^[37] have been positively evaluated in clinical trials, representing alternative strategies after failure of standard chemotherapies.

For patients with metastatic midgut or hindgut tumors, the results with systemic chemotherapy have been generally poor, with response rates below 10%^[28]. It is therefore generally not indicated except in poorly differentiated neuroendocrine carcinomas.

NEW TARGETED AGENTS

During recent years, several small molecule inhibitors targeting one or several kinases have been, or are currently being evaluated in clinical trials, including the multi-kinase inhibitor sunitinib^[38] and the mTOR inhibitor everolimus^[39]. A recent phase II trial tested everolimus +/- long-acting somatostatin analogs: Everolimus alone resulted in stable disease rates of 68.7% (PFS 9.7 mo), in combination with somatostatin analogs in 77.8% of the patients (PFS 16.7 mo) in patients with pancreatic NETs pro-

gressive after chemotherapy^[39]. Furthermore, new somatostatin analogs such as pasireotide or anti-angiogenic strategies using anti-VEGF agents are also being clinically evaluated.

SOMATOSTATIN RECEPTOR RADIONUCLIDE THERAPY

The fact that most neuroendocrine midgut tumors express somatostatin receptors can be used for therapeutic targeting of these receptors with radio-labeled somatostatin analogs. Different analogs have been investigated for somatostatin receptor radionuclide therapy (SRRT), (⁹⁰Y-DOTA-Tyr3) octreotide and (¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTA-Tyr3) octreotate^[40], with response rates of up to 35%, according to phase I and II trials in patients with progressive disease^[28,40]. Generally, SRRT is indicated in metastatic endocrine midgut tumors with a positive somatostatin receptor scintigraphy which failed other therapies, in particular, in cases where the metastatic load is not only confined to the liver.

INTERVENTIONAL APPROACHES IN THE TREATMENT OF LIVER METASTASES

Interventional strategies and procedures provide a multitude of options in the treatment of neuroendocrine liver metastases. The main aim of these procedures is firstly, the control of hormonal symptoms in patients with active tumors, and secondly, to control tumor growth and symptoms arising from tumor size.

Two principals behind the procedures can be identified: (1) ablative therapies, such as radiofrequency ablation (RFA) or laser interstitial thermotherapy (LITT); and (2) transarterial approaches, such as transarterial embolization (TAE), transarterial chemoembolization (TACE) and selective intraarterial radiotherapy (SIRT).

Ablative strategies can be used in oligonodular, bilobular liver metastases. These procedures are limited if the metastasis is localized in the vicinity of a liver vein or portal vein, as this leads to a temperature steal phenomenon, lowering the heat in the metastasis needed to ablate the lesion. Furthermore, RFA can be applied in combination with liver resections (in the same setting), or percutaneously with CT-guidance. Henn *et al*^[41] treated up to 12 lesions in one RFA setting under CT-guidance with a maximum lesion size of 7.1 cm. Other groups reported successful treatment of lesions with a maximum size of 9 cm^[42]. Complications of RFA have mostly been related to electrode application, such as pneumothorax and neuritis at the site of skin entry. Other complications include skin burn, liver abscess and transient elevation of liver enzymes^[43].

Laser interstitial thermotherapy (LITT) is a thermal ablation technique that uses a ND-YAG laser, which transports its energy *via* a cannulation needle and a special protective catheter system to the liver metastases. The

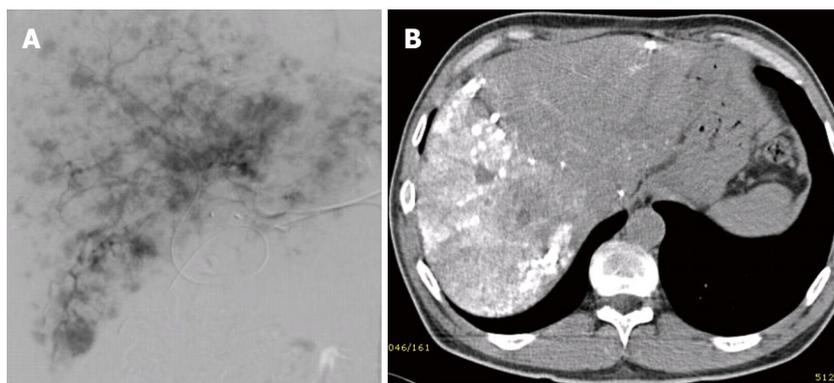


Figure 3 Diffuse liver metastases of a non-functional pancreatic endocrine tumors. Angiography (A) and chemoembolization of the right liver lobe (B).

advantage of this laser application system is that it can be performed under MR-guidance. Furthermore, the efficacy of this procedure can be simultaneously evaluated under MRI^[44]. Complications arising from this procedure are similar to those of RFA, being liver enzyme elevation, pleural effusion and subcapsular hematomas.

Loco-regional transarterial therapy procedures can further be subdivided into transarterial embolization (TAE) and transarterial chemoembolization (TACE). The rationale behind these endovascular procedures is the fact that neuroendocrine tumors produce highly vascular metastases in the liver, and those metastases draw their blood supply predominantly (> 90%) from the hepatic artery, rather than the surrounding liver tissue, which receives only 20%-30% of its supply from the hepatic artery, but 70%-80% from the portal vein^[43]. In TAE, embolization is performed using lipiodol, gel foam particles, polyvinyl alcohol foam (PVA) and microspheres^[45]. As the tumor-supplying artery can be superselectively embolized, the effect of devascularization can be achieved more effectively with a lower possibility of collateral supply, in comparison to surgical ligation. Another advantage of TAE and TACE is that in case of recurrence or revascularization, the procedure can be repeated.

TACE follows the same principles as those of TAE, but an intra-arterial administration of a chemotherapeutic agent is added, prior to the embolization procedure (Figure 3). The advantage of this technique is the synergistic effect of chemotherapy, which has a more than 20 times higher intra-tumoral concentration when compared to a systemic administration, and the effect of tumor ischemia due to embolization^[46]. The chemotherapeutic agents and the embolization particles used vary between the different groups and publications, but doxorubicin and streptozocin have mostly been used.

The symptomatic response rate, by which is meant the improvement of symptoms of hormonal syndromes, is estimated for TAE in 64%-93% of patients in a time period of 1-18 mo. TACE is associated with a symptomatic response in between 53%-95% of patients for a period of 1-55 mo^[43]. Complications of TAE and TACE vary in the literature. 80%-90% of all patients experience fever, leukocytosis, abdominal pain and liver enzyme elevation. More severe complications range from pleural effusion, liver abscess, bowel ischemia to hepatic infarction.

Selective intra-arterial radiotherapy (SIRT) provides a selective, loco-regional radiotherapy of the liver metastases. In this procedure, ⁹⁰Y-DOTA-lantreotide is applied directly to the metastases using an interventional approach, and is targeted to the somatostatin receptors expressed by the metastases. The metastases usually express somatostatin receptors 2-5, but the expression has to be verified prior to this procedure using somatostatin-receptor-scintigraphy or ¹⁸Fluorodesoxyglucose-(DOTA(0)-Phe(1)-Tyr(3) octreotid-PET^[47].

CONCLUSION

Neuroendocrine tumors are uncommon but clinically challenging and fascinating tumors with an annual incidence of 1 per 100 000 people. They present either as functional tumors or as non-functional pancreatic tumors. The natural history of NPTs is highly variable. Small, benign neoplasms, such as 90% of all insulinomas, are readily curable by surgical resection; however, most other functional and all non-functional pancreatic tumors have a much less favorable prognosis. The existence or development of liver metastases is the worst prognostic factor. This review describes the current status of surgical, interventional and medical treatment of liver metastases for pancreatic endocrine tumors, and discusses the new developments in this field.

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Current status and agenda in the diagnosis of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in Japan

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Abstract

Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), a manifestation of metabolic syndrome, includes a wide range of clinical entities from simple fatty liver, a benign condition, to nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), a condition which can progress to cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma and hepatic failure. The diagnosis of NASH requires no history of previous or current significant alcohol consumption and no evidence of other chronic liver diseases. Ethanol intake levels of 20 g daily (or 140 g weekly) are endorsed as the acceptable threshold to define nonalcoholic patients. Liver biopsy is the current gold standard for the diagnosis of NASH and provides prognostic information. Histopathological diagnosis of NASH is based on the following 3 features: (1) hepatic macrovesicular steatosis; (2) lobular inflammation; and (3) ballooning degeneration of hepatocytes. It is impractical to biopsy every patient with suspected NAFLD. Although highly accurate and affordable noninvasive screening tools can differentiate NASH from NAFLD, no imaging studies or laboratory tests are able to precisely diagnose NASH. There is no universal agreement regarding the indications for liver biopsy in NAFLD patients. In Japan, liver biopsies are considered in patients with suspected

NAFLD based on several criteria including low platelet counts, elevated fibrosis markers, increasing age and other deciding parameters. Further studies are needed to establish a suitable scoring system that can distinguish steatohepatitis from simple steatosis.

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Key words: Insulin resistance; Liver biopsy; Oxidative stress; Fibrosis

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INTRODUCTION

In 1980, Ludwig *et al*^[1] coined the term nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) to describe the morphologic pattern of liver injury in 20 patients evaluated at the Mayo Clinic. These patients had histological evidence of alcoholic hepatitis on liver biopsy but no history of alcohol abuse. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) represents a wide spectrum of conditions ranging from simple fatty liver which in general follows a benign non-progressive clinical course to NASH, a more serious form of NAFLD that may progress to cirrhosis and end-stage liver disease^[2]. NAFLD is strongly associated with obesity and metabolic syndrome. Today, NAFLD is the most common chronic liver disease (CLD) in the Western world^[3,4] and in the

Asia-Pacific Region^[5,6]. Although the true prevalence of NAFLD or NASH remains to be established, current best estimates make the prevalence of NAFLD 9%-30% and of NASH 1%-3% in Japan^[7]. On imaging findings consistent with steatosis, a diagnosis of NAFLD can be made with a reasonable degree of confidence if a history of significant alcohol consumption and other causes of liver disease are excluded. Until recently, liver biopsy was the only method for differentiating NASH from simple fatty liver. This review paper discusses the clinical features and diagnostic challenges for NASH in Japan.

LABORATORY STUDIES/IMAGING

Liver transaminase levels are mildly elevated (usually < 3-5 x the upper limit of normal) in NASH patients. Although aminotransferase levels are elevated in the majority of patients, normal values do not exclude the presence of necroinflammatory changes or fibrosis^[8-10]. The ratio of aspartate aminotransferase (AST) to alanine aminotransferase (ALT) is usually < 1 but this ratio increases as the level of fibrosis progresses^[11-13]. Serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and γ -glutamyl transferase (γ GT) may also be mildly elevated. Other abnormalities including hypoalbuminemia, a prolonged prothrombin time and hyperbilirubinemia may also be found in patients with cirrhotic-stage NASH. Increased serum ferritin levels are often seen in NASH patients but transferrin saturation is almost normal^[14]. Although markers of insulin resistance and hepatic fibrosis seem to be higher in NASH than in simple fatty liver, currently laboratory studies cannot truly confirm a diagnosis of NASH.

Imaging tests [such as ultrasound (US), computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging] may reveal fat accumulation in the liver but their sensitivity is low. Furthermore, these imaging studies cannot differentiate NASH from simple fatty liver^[15]. Although US is an acceptable first-line screening procedure for NAFLD in clinical practice, it underestimates the prevalence of hepatic steatosis when there is < 20%-30% fat^[15,16]. According to a study from Japan^[17], US could more accurately identify the presence of steatosis in NASH patients than CT but the sensitivity of US for detecting steatosis was reduced, especially in patients with advanced histological fibrosis. Although other modalities such as transient elastography (Fibroscan, EchoSens, Paris, France), contrast enhanced US and Xenon CT are reported to be promising for distinguishing between simple fatty liver and NASH, there are no established noninvasive methods of evaluation available for patients with NAFLD. In Japan, contrast enhanced US with Levovist (Schering AG, Berlin, Germany) can identify patients with NASH among those with NAFLD^[18,19]. Yoneda *et al* recently reported that elastography techniques such as transient elastography and acoustic radiation force impulse elastography have been shown to be useful for estimating liver fibrosis in NAFLD patients^[20,21]. With high negative predictive value and modest positive predictive value in French and Chinese

cohort of NAFLD patients^[22], transient elastography is useful as a screening test to exclude advanced fibrosis. Although these techniques are painless, rapid, have no associated complications and are, therefore, very easily accepted by patients compared to liver biopsy, it may be difficult to distinguish between simple fatty liver and NASH with mild fibrosis.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

A complete laboratory evaluation to exclude other causes of liver disease should also be performed. This includes screening for common causes such as viral hepatitis B and hepatitis C virus (HCV) as well as less common causes including autoimmune disorders, celiac disease and genetic conditions such as Wilson's disease, hemochromatosis and alpha-1-antitrypsin deficiency. Other liver diseases, hepatic malignancies, hepatobiliary infections and biliary tract disease should also be excluded^[4,5]. Thus, hepatitis B surface antigen, anti-HCV, anti-nuclear antibody (ANA) and anti-mitochondrial antibodies (AMA) should be measured to rule out these diseases. Elevated serum auto-antibodies are common in patients with NASH/NAFLD. Although low titers of ANA positivity are seen in up to a third of patients with NASH/NAFLD, ANA titers greater than 1:320 are generally rare. Therefore, ANA positivity does not always exclude NASH/NAFLD^[23-25]. Low titers of anti-smooth muscle antibody (ASMA) and AMA have also been reported in patients with NASH/NAFLD^[16,18]. In patients with suspected NAFLD, if ANA or ASMA titers are greater than 1:160 and 1:40 respectively, a liver biopsy should be considered to exclude the presence of autoimmune hepatitis^[26]. Among NAFLD patients with ANA positivity, potential risk factors such as female sex, obesity, insulin resistance and severe fibrosis have been found in some studies although no consensus has been established. Familial hypobetalipoproteinemia (FHBL), a hereditary disorder characterized by decreased plasma concentrations of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol and apolipoprotein B (Apo-B), is classified as one of the causes of NAFLD^[27,28]. Regarding lipids, it is worth measuring serum levels of Apo-B in patients with no obvious risk factors for NAFLD or with low levels of LDL and HDL cholesterol to look for evidence of FHBL. In Japan, a case of FHBL with cryptogenic cirrhosis showing recurrent NASH after undergoing living donor liver transplantation was reported^[29].

Due to its high prevalence, it is now recognized that NAFLD/NASH can occur together with other CLDs. In chronic hepatitis C, and possibly ALD and hemochromatosis, NAFLD can exacerbate liver damage^[30-32]. The diagnosis and management of NAFLD with other CLDs remains unresolved. The nomenclature "NASH" may be changed for these reasons as proposed by Brunt^[33]. This strongly argues for a change in nomenclature (such as metabolic fatty liver disease and metabolic steatohepatitis) which would drop the "negative" definition of "non-alcoholic" and would recognize the likely causal role of insulin resistance in NAFLD/NASH.

MEANING OF “NONALCOHOLIC” LIVER DISEASE

The diagnosis of NASH requires no history of significant alcohol consumption. There is no consistent agreement regarding the definition of significant alcohol consumption. According to the Italian Association for the Study of the Liver Expert Committee^[34] and the position statement on NAFLD/NASH based on the European Association for the Study of the Liver (EASL) 2009 special conference^[35], European hepatologists suggested a daily alcohol consumption 20 g in women and 30 g in men as the optimal cutoff values of “non-alcoholic”. According to the American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) institute technical review on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease^[3] and the summary by the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD)^[4], a daily alcohol consumption of > 20 g/d is commonly used as exclusionary criteria; however, the validity of these cutoffs is unknown. In contrast, intake levels of 20 g/d (140 g weekly) for men, and 10 g/d (70 g weekly) for women have been endorsed as the acceptable thresholds to define “non-alcoholic” in the guideline proposed by the Asia-Pacific Working Party for NAFLD (APWP-NAFLD)^[5] and by the National Institutes of Health Clinical Research Network^[36]. The reason that a small amount of alcohol intake is permitted in the diagnosis of NASH is based on the fact that intake levels above the defined thresholds (> 20 to 40 g/d in males and > 10-30 g/d in females) are toxic for the liver^[37-39] and because modest alcohol consumption is thought to reduce the prevalence of NAFLD by improving insulin resistance^[40-42]. At the 45th Annual Meeting of the Japan Society of Hepatology (JSH) in June 2009, a consensus was reached that alcohol intake levels of 20 g/d (140 g/wk) were accepted as the optimal cut-off values of “non-alcoholic”^[43]. It is often difficult to differentiate NASH from ALD. Conventional markers such as mean corpuscular volume, γ GT and AST/ALT ratio are not useful and specific serum markers for chronic alcohol abuse are of limited value. Measurement of carbohydrate-deficient transferrin levels (CDT) is the most widely used and perhaps the most specific serum marker for detecting chronic alcohol abuse. Serum CDT levels were known to be lower in patients with alcoholic hepatitis than those with NASH^[44]. Practical clinical use of this marker is questionable because it can be measured only in research laboratories. A careful history of alcohol intake is essential to exclude alcohol-induced fatty liver disease (AFLD) because the histological features of AFLD and NAFLD are indistinguishable for pathologists. It is difficult to distinguish between these two entities, especially in those with obesity and associated metabolic risk factors because AFLD and NAFLD commonly occur in this population. The diagnosis and treatment of this condition is still unclear.

HISTOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS

Currently, histological assessment of liver biopsy spe-

cimens remains the gold standard for the diagnosis of NAFLD. There are a constellation of histological findings in NASH with no single pathognomonic lesion. The principal histological features of NASH include the presence of macrovesicular fatty changes of hepatocytes with displacement of the nucleus to the edge of the cell, ballooning degeneration of hepatocytes and a mixed lobular inflammation. Other features such as perisinusoidal/peri-cellular fibrosis, Mallory-Denk bodies (MDB), megamitochondria, acidophil bodies, glycogenated nuclei and hemosiderosis can be found. Bridging fibrosis and cirrhotic changes may be present in the advanced fibrotic stage. In spite of considerable efforts, there is still no international agreement regarding the histopathological criteria that firmly define NASH. Therefore, a large amount of uncertainty exists between pathologists and clinicians. Moreover, borderline lesions of the two entities exist in clinical practice. In 1999, Matteoni *et al*^[45] divided NAFLD into four categories or types based on the presence of steatosis, lobular inflammation, hepatocyte ballooning and MDB/fibrosis (Table 1). As originally reported, after a median follow-up period of 8.17 years, liver-related mortality of NALD (type 3 or 4) was 11% versus 1.7% in NAFLD (type 1 or 2)^[46]. A more recent study with a median follow-up period of 18.5 years showed that liver-related mortality of NALD (type 3 or 4) increased to 17.5% in comparison with only 2.7% in NALD (type 1 or 2)^[32]. NAFLD (type 3 or 4) is now considered to be a single group that represents NASH^[47]. These findings confirm that, with longer follow-up periods, more NASH patients develop liver-related deaths. It also confirms that most patients with non-NASH are not at similar risk of liver-related deaths. Long term follow-up studies have never been performed in Japanese patients with NAFLD. It is expected that prospective studies in Japan will confirm these observations. On the basis of this classification system, hepatocyte ballooning should be considered as a more specific histological feature for the diagnosis of NASH. However, the presence or absence of hepatocyte ballooning is influenced by the variability in pathologists' interpretation. To account for this, another scoring system has been developed by the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases. The score, named NAS (NAFLD Activity Score), is the unweighted sum of the scores for steatosis (0-3), lobular inflammation (0-3) and ballooning (0-2). NAS does not include fibrosis (Table 1). A NAS of ≥ 5 is almost always associated with the diagnosis of NASH and cases with a NAS of < 3 are largely considered to be “non-NASH”. Patients who had scores of 3 or 4 are reported to be borderline^[33]. The system is simple and requires only routine histochemical stains with reasonable inter-observer reproducibility. This score is valuable for quantifying histological changes, especially in clinical trials, but its generalizability and diagnostic utility are unknown. Clinically important differences exist between community general pathologists and expert hepatopathologists in assessing NAS^[48]. The primary purpose of NAS is to assess overall histological change; it was not designed to replace

Table 1 The pathological criteria for the diagnosis of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease

Matteoni's classification ^[45]				
Type	Histological findings	Liver related deaths (mean observation period)		Diagnosis
		8.17 years ^[51]	18.5 years ^[52]	
Type 1	Fatty liver alone	1.70%	2.70%	non-NASH
Type 2	Fat accumulation and lobular inflammation			
Type 3	Fat accumulation and ballooning degeneration	11.00%	17.50%	NASH
Type 4	Type 3 and either Mallory-Denk body or fibrosis			
NAFLD activity score (NAS) ^[47]				
Item	Definition	Score		Diagnosis
Steatosis	< 5%	0		Total score
	5%-33%	1		0-2: non-NASH
	> 33%-66%	2		3-4: borderline
	> 66%	3		5-8: NASH
Lobular inflammation	No foci	0		
	< 2 foci per 200 × field	1		
	2-4 foci per 200 × field	2		
	> 4 foci per 200 × field	3		
Ballooning	None	0		
	Few balloon cells	1		
	Many cells/prominent ballooning	2		

NAFLD: nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis.

the pathologist's determination of steatohepatitis or to represent an absolute severity scale. In some patients with cirrhosis, the features of steatosis and necroinflammatory activity may no longer be present (so called "burned-out NASH"). NAS has some limitations in diagnosing NASH in such patients. However, APWP-NAFLD suggests that use of NAS should be encouraged for routine reporting as well as research studies^[5]. At the 45th Annual Meeting of the JSH in June 2009, it was agreed that a diagnosis of NASH should be based on the following three features: (1) hepatic steatosis (> 5%-10% of hepatocytes affected); (2) lobular inflammation with mononuclear cells and/or neutrophils; and (3) ballooning degeneration of hepatocytes^[43]. The presence of fibrosis or MDB is not essential for a diagnosis of NASH^[4,5,43]. A universally accepted histological grading and staging system for steatohepatitis does not exist. The first histological scoring system for NASH was proposed by Brunt *et al.*^[49]; its design was based on a model used in other CLDs and included three qualitatively assessed grades of necroinflammatory activity (based on degrees of steatosis, ballooning and inflammation) and four stages of fibrosis. Unfortunately, this system applied only to NASH and it is not applicable to the entire spectrum of NAFLD.

INDICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF LIVER BIOPSY

Liver biopsy remains the best diagnostic tool for confirming NASH as well as the most sensitive and specific means of providing important prognostic information. Liver biopsy is also helpful to determine the effect of medical treatment given that there is poor correlation between histological damage and the results of liver tests or imaging studies. However, it is not practical to biopsy every patient with suspected NAFLD. The AGA states

that the decision to perform a liver biopsy in a patient with suspected NAFLD and the timing of the biopsy must be individualized and should include the patient in the decision making process^[5]. According to the AASLD, firm recommendations of when to perform a liver biopsy in the routine clinical setting have not yet been developed and management decisions will continue to be tailored to individual patients^[4]. According to APWP-NAFLD^[5], liver biopsy is not usually required for diagnosis of NAFLD. However, it should be considered in cases where: (1) there is diagnostic uncertainty; (2) patients are at risk of advanced hepatic fibrosis (in the absence of clinical or imaging evidence of cirrhosis); (3) in those enrolled in clinical trials; and (4) because of reduced risk and greater convenience in those already undergoing laparoscopy for another purpose (e.g. cholecystectomy, gastric banding). Based on the EASL 2009 special conference^[35], liver biopsy may be restricted to cases where non-invasive methods suggest advanced fibrosis and to cases with indeterminate or discordant results, thus deemed insufficient to exclude advanced fibrosis. During elective surgical procedures such as bariatric surgery and cholecystectomy, they suggest that a liver biopsy be performed. At the 45th Annual Meeting of the JSH in June 2009, it was agreed that liver biopsies are considered in patients with suspected NAFLD based on several criteria including low platelet counts, elevated hepatic fibrosis markers, increasing age and other deciding parameters. However, the optimal cut-off values of these parameters have never been established^[43]. In this way, no guidelines or firm recommendations have yet been made as to when and for whom it is necessary. Arguments against routine liver biopsy include the generally benign course of the disease in most cases, lack of established effective therapies and the risks of biopsy. As a single percutaneous liver biopsy yields only a minute percentage (1/50000 or 0.002%)

Table 2 Noninvasive biomarkers previously studied or currently under evaluation

Insulin resistance	Inflammation and apoptosis
HOMA-IR	TNF- α
Leptin	hsCRP
Adiponectin	CK-18 fragments
	TNF- α /adiponectin ratio
Hepatic fibrosis	Interleukin-6
Hyaluronic acid	CC-chemokine ligand-2
Type IV collagen 7S	
TGF β	Endocrine
	DHEA-S
Oxidative stress	Imaging studies
Ferritin	US elastography
TBARS	Fibroscan
Oxidized-LDL	ARFI
Total antioxidant response	Contrast enhanced US
Total lipid peroxide levels	MRI (SPIO, Gd-EOB-DTPA)
Thioredoxin	
Advanced glycation end products	

HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance; TGF β : transforming growth factor β ; TBARS: thiobarbituric acid-reacting substance; LDL: low-density lipoprotein; TNF: tumor necrosis factor; hsCRP: high sensitivity C-reactive protein; CK: cytokeratin; CCL2: CC-chemokine ligand-2; DHEA-S: dehydroepiandrosterone-sulphate; ARFI: acoustic radiation force impulse elastography; SPIO: super-paramagnetic iron oxide; US: ultrasound; MRI: magnetic resonance imaging.

of the total hepatic tissue, paired biopsies have been evaluated in several published studies. Several recent studies have highlighted its sampling variability, although this may be attenuated with good core biopsy samples^[50,51]. According to two studies^[52,53], a difference of one stage of fibrosis or more was seen in 30%-41% of paired biopsies. In contrast, recent data have shown that significant sampling variability exists for inflammatory changes rather than steatosis or fibrosis^[54]. In addition to the sampling variability noted above, variability in pathologists' interpretation also exists for liver inflammation compared to steatosis or fibrosis^[54,55]. It is obvious that liver biopsy is an invasive procedure, stressful for patients and their physicians and is associated with potential significant complications such as pain, hemorrhage and so on^[26,56,57]. Finally, another important limitation of liver biopsy relates to the fact that histological analysis remains subjective, influenced by the skill and experience of the examining pathologist. Overall, a large amount of confusion continues to exist between pathologists and clinicians for this condition.

NONINVASIVE TESTS FOR DISTINGUISHING NASH FROM NAFLD

Currently, liver biopsy is the gold standard for diagnosis but there is an increasing requirement for simple, less invasive, highly accurate and affordable screening tools. Moreover, given the extremely high prevalence of NAFLD in the general population, a liver biopsy is poorly suited as a diagnostic test for NAFLD. A variety of clinical parameters, indicators of insulin resistance, oxidative

stress^[58], inflammation, fibrosis, apoptosis and endocrine function have been explored to distinguish between simple fatty liver and NASH (Table 2). As we previously reported, thioredoxin (TRX), an oxidative stress-inducible thiol-containing protein which has important roles in redox regulation, is also significantly elevated in the NASH patients' serum compared to those with simple fatty liver or healthy subjects^[59]. Advanced glycation end products (AGEs), final reaction products of protein with sugars, are elevated in NASH patients compared to simple steatosis or healthy people^[60] and are decreased after the treatment with atorvastatin^[61]. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), the most abundant steroid hormone, has been shown to influence sensitivity to reactive oxygen species, insulin sensitivity and expression of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha. Low levels of circulating sulfated-DHEA (DHEA-S) might have a role in the development of advanced NASH^[62]. This was confirmed by our validation study using a Japanese population with NAFLD^[63]. Elevation of serum ferritin levels, a marker of iron storage, is associated with NASH. We previously reported high frequencies of hyperferritinemia and increased hepatic iron stores in Japanese NASH patients^[59]. Yoneda *et al*^[64] also have reported that measurement of serum ferritin is useful to distinguish NASH from NAFLD. In the Japanese population, however, the frequency of HFE mutation (hemochromatosis gene) is known to be extremely rare. This mutation does not have a role in hepatic iron overload in Japanese NASH^[65]. Serum ferritin levels have been found to be a significant independent predictor of severe fibrosis in 167 Italian NAFLD subjects^[66] but this has not been confirmed by other studies. In Western countries, mildly increased serum ferritin does not necessarily indicate coexisting iron overload. Recently, it is noteworthy that serum ferritin is closely associated with insulin resistance and can be considered a marker for metabolic syndrome^[67]. Elevated serum ferritin in NASH may be derived from multiple factors such as hepatic iron accumulation but also hepatic inflammation, highly expressed cytokines, oxidative stress and so on^[14]. Apoptosis has an important role in the pathogenesis of NASH. Caspase generated cytokeratin 18 (CK-18), a protein involved in apoptosis, is elevated in patients with NASH compared to those with simple fatty liver and normal subjects^[68]. Also, in Japan, this marker is useful for assessing and monitoring the histological activity of NAFLD^[69]. Kitade *et al*^[70] reported that significant development of hepatic neovascularization was observed in NASH and CK-18 levels were also positively correlated with the degree of neovascularization. These provocative preliminary data deserve further study but it may be too optimistic to assume that a single biomarker can reliably predict histology in NAFLD, a condition with relatively complex phenotype and multiple comorbidities. Currently it is not routinely available as a laboratory test. These tests are inconclusive in many patients and have not been fully validated in patients with NAFLD.

In an effort to improve to accurately diagnose NASH

Table 3 Panel markers for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis diagnosis

Index	Author (Nation)	Paper	Parameter	Patient selection	N	AUROC
HAIR score	Dixon JB (Australia)	Gastroenterology 2001	HTN, ALT, insulin resistance (1/QUICKI)	patients with BMI > 35 undergoing laparoscopic banding	105	0.900
	Palekar NA (USA)	Liver Int 2006	Age, female, BMI, AST, AST/ALT ratio, HA	biopsy proven NAFLD	80	0.763
NashTest (NT)	Poynard T (France)	BMC Gastroenterol 2006	Age, sex, height, weight, TG, AST, ALT, TC, α 2-macroglobulin, apolipoprotein A1, haptoglobin, γ GT, T-Bil	biopsy proven NAFLD	257	0.790
	Gholam (USA)	Am J Gastroenterol 2007	AST, DM	Severely obese subjects (BMI \geq 40 kg/m ²) undergoing Rouxen-Y gastric bypass surgery	97	0.820
NASH clinical scoring system	Campos GM (USA)	Hepatology 2008	HTN, DM, AST, ALT, sleep apnea, non-black	Patients undergoing laparoscopic banding	200	
NAFIC score	Sumida Y (Japan)	J Gastroenterol, in press	Ferritin, fasting insulin, type IV collagen 7S	Biopsy proven NAFLD	177 ¹	0.851 ¹
					442 ²	0.782 ²

HA: hyaluronic acid; TG: triglyceride; TC: total cholesterol; NAFLD: nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; HTN: hypertension; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; ALT: alanine aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; γ GT: γ -glutamyl transferase; T-Bil: total bilirubin; DM: diabetes mellitus; AUROC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; ¹Estimation group; ²Validation group.

Table 4 Panel markers for fibrosis in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease

Index	Author (Nation)	Paper	Parameter	Patient selection	N	Stage	AUROC
BAAT	Angulo P (USA)	Hepatology 1999	Obesity ¹ , age, AST/ALT ratio, DM	NASH	144	F0-2 vs F3-4	
	Ratziu V (France)	Gastroenterology 2000	BMI, age, ALT, TG	Patients with BMI>25, raised transaminase	93	F0-1 vs F2-4	0.840
FibroTest (FT)	Ratziu V (France)	BMC Gastroenterol 2006	Age, sex, α 2-macroglobulin, apolipoprotein A1, haptoglobin, T-Bil, γ GT	Biopsy proven NAFLD	267	F0-2 vs F3-4	0.840
N score	Miyaaki H (Japan)	Liver Int 2008	Female, age, DM, HT	Biopsy proven NAFLD	182	F0-2 vs F3-4	0.780
NAFLD fibrosis score	Angulo P (USA, UK, Australia, Italy)	Hepatology 2007	Age, BMI, AST/ALT ratio, IFG/DM, platelet count, albumin	Biopsy proven NAFLD	480 ²	F0-2 vs F3-4	0.880 ²
	Guha IN (UK)	Hepatology 2008	TIMP1, HA, P3NP	Biopsy proven NAFLD	253 ³		0.820 ³
ELF panel	Harrison SA (USA)	Gut 2008	BMI, AST/ALT, DM	Biopsy proven NAFLD	192	F0 vs F1-4	0.820
						F0-1 vs F2-4	0.900
						F0-2 vs F3-4	0.930
BARD score					827	F0-2 vs F3-4	0.810 ²
							0.780 ³
							0.780 ³
FIB4 index	Shah (USA)	Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2009	Age, AST, ALT, PLT	Biopsy proven NAFLD	541	F0-2 vs F3-4	0.802
FibroMeter	Calès (France)	J Hepatol 2009	Glucose, AST, ferritin, PLT, ALT, BW, age	Biopsy proven NAFLD	235	F0-1 vs F2-4	0.936 ²
							0.952 ³
PAF	Hossain (USA)	Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2009	Male, Caucasian, DM, ALT, AST	Biopsy proven NAFLD	432	F0-1 vs F2-4	0.742

¹BMI > 31.1 (male), 32.2 (female); ²Estimation group; ³Validation group; TG: triglyceride; IFG: impaired fasting glycemia; TIMP1: tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases; HA: hyaluronic acid; P3NP: type III procollagen; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; ALT: alanine aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; PLT: platelets; γ GT: γ -glutamyl transferase; T-Bil: total bilirubin; DM: diabetes mellitus; BW: body weight; AUROC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; NAFLD: nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis.

noninvasively and determine the stage of fibrosis, several groups have used different combinations of clinical and biochemical markers to generate various clinical scoring systems. A proprietary algorithm that provides an estimate for either NASH diagnosis (Table 3) or the presence and extent of fibrosis (Table 4) have also been developed. It is uncertain whether these scoring systems will be useful for Asian/Japanese patients because almost all of the proposed scoring systems have been based on Western subjects and the definition of severely obese differs between the West and Japan. In fact, many previous studies have reported that “overweight” Asians who are not

“morbidly obese” by Western standards generally have a higher risk of developing lifestyle related diseases such as metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes and fatty liver disease. Most noninvasive diagnostic tools for NASH are developed from studies using small sample sizes and also lack rigorous external validation. Although serological hepatic fibrosis markers such as hyaluronic acid^[71] or type IV collagen 7S^[72] are expected to be able to differentiate the advanced stage from mild fibrosis, there are no favorable serological markers to distinguish early stage NASH from simple steatosis without inflammation and fibrosis. In Japan, Shimada *et al*^[73] suggested that

Table 5 NAFIC score^[80]

Variables	Cut-off values	Score values
Ferritin (Female/Male) (ng/mL)	200/300	1 point
Insulin (μ U/mL)	10.0	1 point
Type IV collagen 7S (ng/mL)	5.0	2 point

combinations of type IV collagen 7S, adiponectines and HOMA-IR are useful to distinguish early stage NASH from simple steatosis in Japanese NAFLD patients.

Recently, four new scoring systems have been described, the NAFLD fibrosis score^[12], enhanced liver fibrosis score^[74], BARD score^[13] and FIB-4 index^[75]; all are based on relatively large sample sizes and show encouraging results. However, according to a study of 122 Japanese NAFLD patients by Fujii *et al.*^[76], when a BARD score of 2 or more was used, the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUROC) was 0.73 with an odds ratio (OR) of 4.9 for the detection of advanced fibrosis. It was concluded that the BARD score is less predictive of advanced fibrosis in Japanese NAFLD patients, mainly because they are not as obese as in Western countries. In Japan, Fujii *et al.* showed that noninvasive laboratory tests designed to predict cirrhosis in patients with HCV such as AST/ALT ratio, age-platelet index, AST-to-platelet ratio index, cirrhosis discriminant score and the hepatitis C antiviral long-term treatment against cirrhosis model are also useful in patients with NASH^[77]. The N score (the total number of the following risk factors: female > 60 years, type 2 diabetes and hypertension), established on the basis of a multicentre study of 182 Japanese NAFLD patients in Nagasaki^[78], is very simple tool to use in practice. These promising models will need to be validated by external investigators before they are recommended for wide clinical use. However, the question is what stage of disease should be distinguished by using these parameters or scoring systems^[79]. The majority of studies concentrate on the distinction of severe fibrosis but separation of the milder forms of fibrosis and NASH from simple steatosis is required to support emerging therapeutic trials. We have, therefore, constructed a simple clinical scoring system of three variables; serum ferritin, fasting insulin and type IV collagen 7S, based on the multiple regression analysis on data from 177 biopsy-proven Japanese NAFLD. These three variables were combined in a weighted sum [serum ferritin \geq 200 ng/mL (female) or 300 ng/mL (male) = 1 point, fasting insulin \geq 10 IU/mL = 1 point and type IV collagen 7S \geq 5.0 ng/mL = 2 points] to form an easily calculated composite score for predicting NASH, called the NAFIC score (Table 5). According to our validation study of 442 Japanese patients with biopsy-proven NAFLD from the Japan Study Group of NAFLD (JSG-NAFLD) including eight hepatology centers in Japan, AUROC was the greatest for NAFIC score among several previously established scoring systems for detecting NASH but also for predicting significant or severe fibrosis^[80]. Our results suggest that liver biopsies can be avoided in NAFLD patients with a NAFIC score of 0 or 1 because they are

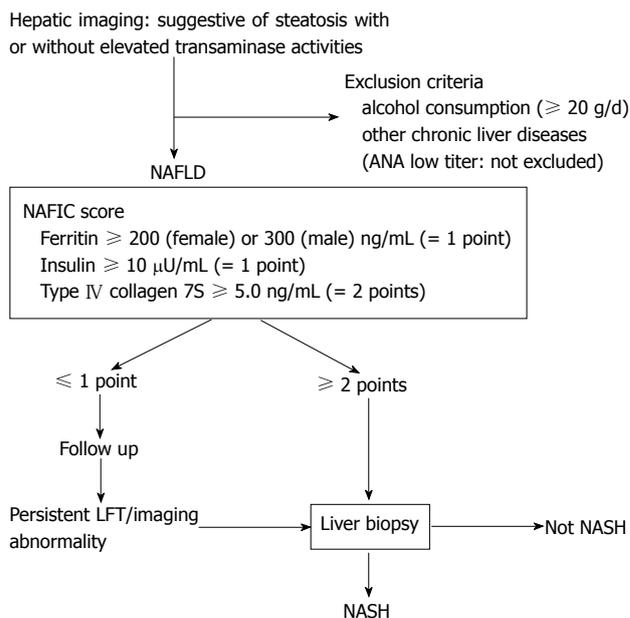


Figure 1 Diagnostic algorithm for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis diagnosis proposed by Japan Study Group of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. NAFLD: nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis.

likely to have NAFLD without advanced fibrosis. In contrast, liver biopsies should be recommended in NAFLD patients with an NAFIC score of \geq 2 to assess the extent of hepatic fibrosis and predict prognosis. Thus, the diagnostic algorithm for NASH diagnosis in Japan proposed by JSG-NAFLD is shown in Figure 1. The present results need to be validated in independent populations by other investigators before wide clinical use since it is unknown whether our score can be applicable for NAFLD patients of other races/ethnicities.

CONCLUSION

NAFLD, a manifestation of metabolic syndrome, is a leading cause of CLD worldwide. NASH, the progressive form of NAFLD, can progress to cirrhosis, hepatic failure and hepatocellular carcinoma. It is important to identify patients with NASH. However, there is no simple test to reliably detect NASH apart from liver biopsy. The clinical spectrum of NAFLD warrants continued research to determine its pathogenesis and to improve diagnostic modalities. It is hoped that improved imaging techniques, the discovery of serum biomarkers and the development of clinical algorithms will enable a more accurate diagnosis of NASH without the need for a liver biopsy.

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Acute liver failure as a rare initial manifestation of peripheral T-cell lymphoma

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Abstract

Acute liver failure (ALF) is an uncommon disease in the United States, affecting more than 2000 people each year. Of all the various causes, malignant infiltration is one of the least well known and carries with it a high mortality. We describe a case of ALF as the presenting manifestation of peripheral T-cell lymphoma in an elderly woman. By reporting this case, we hope to increase early recognition of this disease process in order to potentially improve treatment outcomes.

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Key words: Acute liver failure; Peripheral T-cell lymphoma

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INTRODUCTION

Acute liver failure (ALF), defined as the presence of encephalopathy and coagulopathy in patients without preexisting liver disease, is an uncommon, although often fatal, condition in the United States^[1]. There are over 2000 cases of ALF annually and the overall mortality rate is 80%^[2]. Drug-induced (chiefly acetaminophen toxicity) and viral hepatitis comprise the majority of causes of ALF^[3]. Other etiologies include: autoimmune hepatitis; acute alcoholic hepatitis; toxins such as *Amanita phalloides*; hepatic circulatory compromise such as shock liver and Budd-Chiari; Wilson's disease; and acute fatty liver of pregnancy.

Among the less common causes of ALF is neoplastic infiltration of the liver. Malignancy can involve the liver either as a primary or secondary site and may cause abnormal liver function tests. Acute liver failure as an initial manifestation of malignant infiltration, however, is quite rare, carries a high mortality, and the diagnosis is often made at autopsy^[4-6]. We report a case of peripheral T-cell lymphoma resulting in ALF.

CASE REPORT

A 67-year-old African-American female presented to an outside hospital with a three-day history of progressive confusion, lethargy, and vague abdominal pain. Past medical history was significant only for hypertension, treated with diltiazem. Prior surgeries included cholecystectomy and hysterectomy. She denied any use of alcohol, acetaminophen, or over-the-counter herbs or supplements. She had no risk factors for viral hepatitis, had not travelled recently nor had any sick contacts. On physical examina-

tion she was somnolent but oriented. She was afebrile, but was markedly tachycardic and tachypneic. She had icteric sclerae, a distended, slightly tender abdomen with shifting dullness, and splenomegaly. There was no asterixis. The remainder of the examination was normal. Initial laboratory data were: total bilirubin 4.6 mg/dL, alkaline phosphatase 207 IU/L, aspartate aminotransferase (AST) 418 IU/L, alanine aminotransferase (ALT) 139 IU/L, creatinine 2.15 mg/dL, platelet count $113 \times 10^9/L$, white blood cell count $11 \times 10^9/L$, and international normalized ratio (INR) 2.15. She was admitted to the hospital and treated empirically with levofloxacin and intravenous fluids. Further laboratory studies including alcohol and acetaminophen levels, and serologies for hepatitis A, B, C, cytomegalovirus, Epstein-Barr virus, and human immunodeficiency virus were negative. Iron and copper studies and autoimmune markers were all within normal limits. Abdominal ultrasound with dopplers and an abdominal computed tomography (CT) scan without intravenous contrast (not given because of impaired renal function) showed ascites and an enlarged heterogenous spleen with wedge-shaped infarcts; the hepatic parenchyma, vasculature, and biliary ducts were normal. Her clinical and laboratory status deteriorated, and she was transferred to our hospital for liver transplant evaluation one week after her initial presentation. On arrival, she had stage 2-3 encephalopathy and was intubated for airway protection and mechanical ventilation. Laboratory values on admission showed total bilirubin 9.5 mg/dL, alkaline phosphatase 344 IU/L, AST 128 IU/L, ALT 71 IU/L, platelet count $93 \times 10^9/L$, white blood cell count $35 \times 10^9/L$ (77% neutrophils, 10% bands, 5% lymphocytes), glucose 19, pH 7.18, serum lactate 243 mmol/L and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) 4660 IU/L. Diagnostic paracentesis revealed an ascitic leukocyte count of $1680 \times 10^6/L$ (84% neutrophils) and serum-ascites albumin gradient (SAAG) 1.2 consistent with spontaneous bacterial peritonitis, and antibiotics were continued. A contrast-enhanced abdominal CT scan showed an enlarged and heterogeneously enhancing liver, with mediastinal, right hilar and chest wall lymphadenopathy, and, splenomegaly with splenic infarcts. A peripheral blood smear showed atypical lymphocytes. A transjugular liver biopsy on hospital d 2 revealed diffuse infiltration of malignant-appearing lymphocytes with immunohistochemistry features supporting a T-cell phenotype. This was consistent with peripheral T-cell lymphoma, not otherwise specified (PTCL-NOS). Due to her malignancy, she was therefore not a candidate for liver transplantation. Her clinical status continued to deteriorate, with worsening lactic acidosis, hypoglycemia, and disseminated intravascular coagulation, and she became comatose on hospital d 4. In agreement with her family's wishes, aggressive chemotherapy was withheld and she was managed palliatively. She died 3 d later and 14 d after her initial presentation.

DISCUSSION

Acute liver failure is a rare initial presentation of lym-

phoma, with less than 40 cases reported in the literature^[7]. This phenomenon is twice as likely to occur in men, and the mean age is 48.6 years. It carries an 83% mortality rate, with a mean survival of 10.7 d. Most diagnoses are established by liver biopsy and often occur postmortem. Chemotherapy has only been successful in inducing remission in 3 of 23 cases of non-Hodgkins lymphoma (NHL)-associated ALF^[6]. Due to rapid recurrence rates with poor survivability, liver transplantation is contraindicated^[8].

Peripheral T-cell lymphomas are malignancies of immunologically mature T-cells that arise in peripheral lymphoid tissues such as lymph nodes, spleen, gastrointestinal tract, and skin. They are a rare and heterogenous class comprising only 5%-10% of NHL in North America and Western Europe^[9]. The PTCL-NOS classification represents the largest subgroup, and generally affects people over the age of 60 with a slight male predominance. Due to its aggressive nature, patients often present in advanced stages, with nodal and extranodal spread. In one series of 199 patients diagnosed with PTCL, overall liver involvement occurred in 10%, and, in 9% for the PTCL-NOS subtype^[10]. The 5-year survival rate is 20%-30% in most series^[9].

This case highlights the importance of considering all the possible causes of ALF once the more common ones have been excluded. A diagnosis of lymphoma should be entertained in any patient presenting with ALF, lactic acidosis, and, hepatomegaly with evidence of an infiltrative process^[6]. Unfortunately, given the advanced stage of disease and the wishes of the patient's family, it was decided not to subject our patient to chemotherapy and her condition rapidly deteriorated. Prompt recognition of lymphoma and initiation of chemotherapy, however, may result in better outcomes.

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Hepatic reactive lymphoid hyperplasia in a patient with primary biliary cirrhosis

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Abstract

Reactive lymphoid hyperplasia (RLH) of the liver is an extremely rare lesion characterized by the proliferation of non-neoplastic lymphocytes forming follicles. Hepatic RLH is known to be associated with gastrointestinal carcinoma and autoimmune diseases including primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC). We report a case of hepatic RLH in a patient with PBC and gastric cancer. A 68 year old Japanese woman with a 10 year history of liver enzyme abnormality was admitted. Laboratory testing revealed that her anti-mitochondrial antibody was markedly elevated. Five mo after the diagnosis of PBC, she was found to have gastric cancer. Abdominal computed tomography disclosed a liver nodule in S8, suggesting metastatic gastric carcinoma. Histopathologically, the resected liver

lesion comprised of a nodular proliferation of small lymphocytes with lymphoid follicles. This is the first reported case of hepatic RLH in a patient with both PBC and gastric cancer. Pre-operative diagnosis of hepatic RLH by clinical imaging is extremely difficult. Therefore, a needle biopsy could be useful to make a diagnosis of hepatic RLH, especially to differentiate from metastatic gastrointestinal carcinoma.

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Key words: Reactive lymphoid hyperplasia; Pseudolymphoma; Liver; Primary biliary cirrhosis; Gastric cancer

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INTRODUCTION

Reactive lymphoid hyperplasia (RLH) of the liver is an extremely rare lesion characterized by the proliferation of non-neoplastic, polyclonal lymphocytes forming follicles with an active germinal center^[1-3]. This lesion has also been reported as pseudolymphoma and nodular lymphoid lesion^[4-6]. To the best of our knowledge, only 28 cases of RLH of the liver have been reported in the English literature^[7-22].

Herein, we report an additional case of RLH of the liver in a patient with both primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC) and gastric cancer and discuss the clinicopathological features of hepatic RLH and the clinical importance of differential diagnostic consideration of liver lesions in patients with gastrointestinal carcinoma.

CASE REPORT

A 68 year old Japanese female with a ten year history of liver enzyme abnormality was admitted to our hospital for further evaluation of the cause. Laboratory tests disclosed elevated gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase (83 U/L; range 10-47), alkaline phosphatase (568 U/L; range 115-359), leucine aminopeptidase (230 U/L; range 70-180), thymol turbidity (12.2 Kunkel; range 0.0-8.0) and zinc sulfate turbidity (14.1 Kunkel; range 3.0-11.0). Aspartate aminotransferase (28 U/L; range 13-33), alanine aminotransferase (21 U/L; range 6-27), and total bilirubin (0.8 mg/dL; range 0.3-1.2) were within normal ranges. Her serum IgG (1839 mg/dL; range 870-1700) and IgM (306 mg/dL; range 35-220) were slightly elevated. Her anti-mitochondrial antibody (M2) (index 195; range < 7.0) and anti-centromere antibody (index 167; range < 10) were markedly elevated. Both hepatitis B surface antigen and hepatitis C antibody were negative. These laboratory data suggested PBC and a liver biopsy was performed to confirm the diagnosis.

Liver biopsy showed periportal lymphocytic infiltration with bile duct damage (Figure 1). Infiltration of a few eosinophils and neutrophils in the portal area also was observed but granuloma and lymphoid follicle formation were not found. These histopathological findings were consistent with PBC. In addition, no histopathological evidence suggesting liver cirrhosis was seen.

Five mo after the liver biopsy, an upper gastrointestinal endoscopic examination revealed a depressed lesion with spontaneous hemorrhage and irregular margins in the pylorus region of minor curvature (Figure 2). Biopsy of the depressed gastric lesion disclosed signet ring cell carcinoma. Abdominal contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT) showed a small nodule measuring 2cm with early enhancement in S8 of the liver (Figure 3), suggesting metastatic gastric carcinoma. Serum tumor markers were within normal ranges (CA19-9 17 U/mL; range < 37, carcinoembryonic antigen 2.6 ng/mL; range < 5, alpha-fetoprotein 2.6 ng/mL; range < 20, protein induced by vitamin K absence II (PIVKA II) 14 mAU/mL; range < 40).

Distal gastrectomy and resection of the liver nodule were performed.

Histopathologically, the gastric carcinoma was a signet ring cell carcinoma invading into the deep submucosa (pT1) (Figure 4A). No lymphatic or vascular invasion was detected by immunostaining of D2-40 or elastica van Gieson stain and no lymph node metastasis was seen (pN0).

Histopathological study of the resected liver lesion disclosed a relatively well-circumscribed nodular proliferation

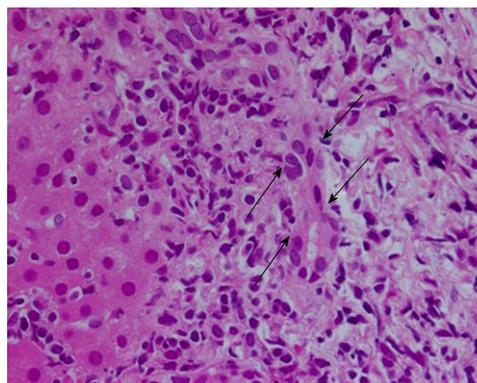


Figure 1 Histopathological findings of the liver biopsy. Periportal lymphocytic infiltration with bile duct damage (arrows: damaged bile duct; hematoxylin and eosin stain, $\times 400$).



Figure 2 Endoscopic picture of the stomach. The depressed lesion with spontaneous hemorrhage and irregular margins.

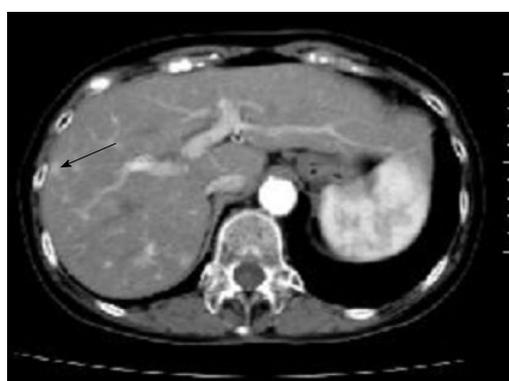


Figure 3 Contrast-enhanced abdominal computed tomography. A well-circumscribed nodule showing early arterial enhancement in S8 (arrow).

of mature-appearing small lymphocytes with lymphoid follicles (Figure 4B). The lymphoid follicles varied in size (Figure 4B, C). The germinal centers comprised a mixture of small and large lymphoid cells and scattered tingible body macrophages accompanied by a well-developed mantle zone (Figure 4C). Interfollicular areas were mostly composed of small mature-appearing lymphocytes and a small number of infiltrating plasma cells and histiocytes were also found (Figure 4C). No granuloma formation or multinucleated giant cells were observed. Mature-appearing lymphocytes were aggregated in the portal areas around the nodule. No lymphoepithelial lesion of bile

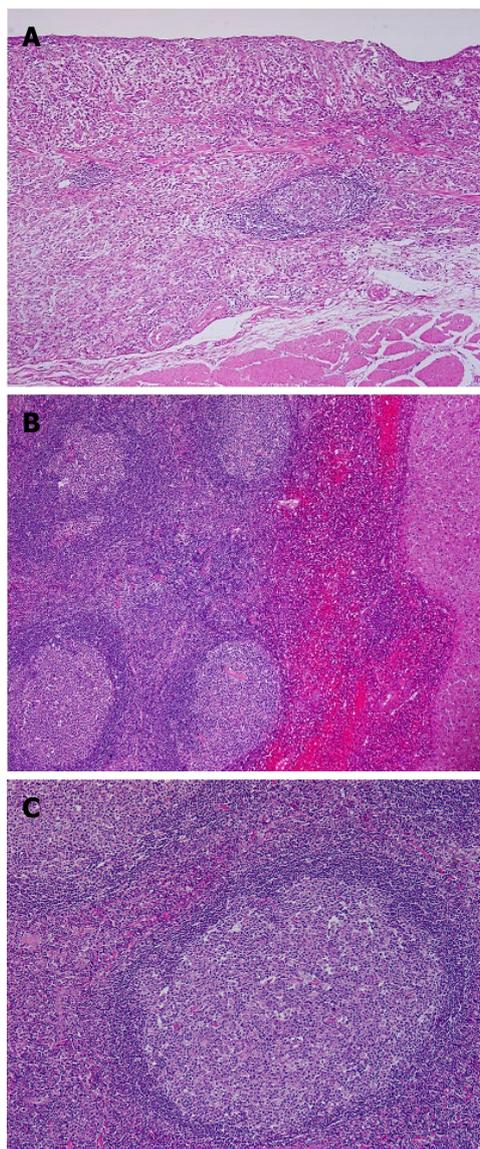


Figure 4 Histopathological findings of the gastric carcinoma and liver nodule. A: Signet ring cell carcinoma of the stomach invading into the deep submucosa (hematoxylin and eosin stain, $\times 40$); B: A relatively well-circumscribed nodular proliferation of lymphocytes with lymphoid follicles in the liver (right: liver parenchyma, hematoxylin and eosin stain, $\times 40$); C: Mantle zone and germinal center are sharply demarcated and a mixture of small and large lymphocytes and scattered tingible body macrophages is observed in the germinal center (hematoxylin and eosin stain, $\times 40$).

duct was observed. In addition, no metastatic gastric carcinoma was disclosed.

Immunohistochemical studies showed that CD3-positive T lymphocytes and CD20/79a-positive B lymphocytes were regularly distributed in the same manner as in the lymph node (Figure 5). Bcl-2 was negative for lymphoid follicles. *In situ* hybridization of immunoglobulin light chains revealed intermixed kappa chain- and lambda chain-positive plasma cells.

Although polymerase chain reaction analysis of the immunoglobulin heavy chain gene was not performed, these histopathological and immunohistochemical findings were consistent with RLH of the liver.

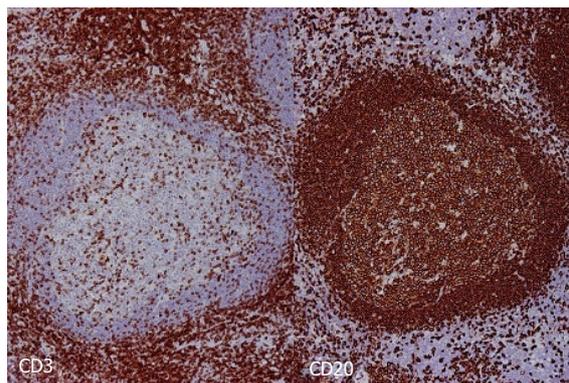


Figure 5 Immunohistochemical findings of the liver nodule. CD3-positive T lymphocytes (left) and CD20-positive B lymphocytes (right) are regularly distributed ($\times 40$).

Post-operatively, no obvious recurrence of the liver nodule was detected during the 3 mo medical follow-up.

DISCUSSION

RLH can occur in various organs such as the gastrointestinal tract^[23], lung^[24] and skin^[25]. RLH of the liver is extremely rare and most previous reports have been one case report, although recently Zen *et al*^[5] reported the clinicopathological features of 5 cases of hepatic RLH. We review the clinicopathological features of the 28 cases of hepatic RLH reported previously in the English literature as well as the present case, as shown in Table 1. There is a very high female predominance (4 males/25 females). The youngest patient, reported by Snover *et al*^[7], was a 15 year old female who had primary immunodeficiency syndrome. Except for that case, all patients were adult (range 36-85 years; average 59). Six of 29 cases (21%) had multiple lesions (five cases had two and one case had three lesions). The diameter of the lesions ranged from 0.4 to 5.5 cm; however, most were less than 2 cm.

Interestingly, five cases (17%) of hepatic RLH, including the present case, had a history of PBC (Table 1). In addition, six patients (21%) had extrahepatic autoimmune diseases such as Sjögren syndrome^[16], Hashimoto thyroiditis^[1], Takayasu arteritis^[5], antiphospholipid syndrome^[5] and CREST (calcinosis, Raynaud's phenomenon, esophageal dysmotility, sclerodactyly and telangiectasia) syndrome^[6]; one patient had both PBC and CREST syndrome^[6] and one patient had both PBC and chronic thyroiditis^[5] (Table 1). The relatively high prevalence of autoimmune disease (approximately 30%) in patients with hepatic RLH suggests that systemic and/or local immunological abnormalities could be associated with the development of hepatic RLH, as suggested by earlier reports^[14,16].

Moreover, the prevalence of gastrointestinal carcinoma in patients with hepatic RLH is also relatively high; seven patients (24%) with hepatic RLH had gastrointestinal carcinomas (Table 1). Three patients, including the present case, had gastric cancer and three patients had colon

Table 1 Clinicopathological features of reactive lymphoid hyperplasia of the liver

Case No.	Age	Sex	Number of lesions	Size (cm)	Associated disease	Ref.
1	15	F	1	NA	Primary immunodeficiency syndrome	[7]
2	85	F	2	1.4, 1.8	Gastric cancer	[8]
3	59	F	1	0.9	Diabetes mellitus	[9]
4	42	F	2	1.5, 1.4	Hepatitis B, IFN-alpha therapy	[10]
5	66	F	1	1.5	Diabetes mellitus, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis	[11]
6	67	M	1	2.0	Abnormal liver function	[12]
7	72	F	1	1.7	Hepatitis C, gastric cancer	[13]
8	52	F	1	0.4	Primary biliary cirrhosis	[6]
9	56	M	1	1.5	Primary biliary cirrhosis, CREST syndrome	[6]
10	56	F	1	0.7	Diverticulitis	[6]
11	47	F	1	1.7	Chronic thyroiditis	[14]
12	69	F	1	1.7	Renal cell carcinoma	[15]
13	49	F	1	2.0	Sjogren syndrome	[16]
14	77	F	1	1.5	Colon cancer	[2]
15	64	F	1	0.9	Colon cancer	[2]
16	72	F	1	1.3		[17]
17	36	F	1	1.8	Foca nodular hyperplasia and hemangioma of the liver	[18]
18	75	F	1	1.4	Gastric and colon cancers, liver metastasis (colon cancer)	[3]
19	63	F	1	1.6	Gastric ulcer	[19]
20	53	F	3	1.3, 1.1, 0.8	Autoimmune thyroiditis	[1]
21	67	F	1	1.2	Hypertension	[20]
22	46	F	1	1.0	Renal cell carcinoma	[21]
23	63	F	2	1.3, 0.4	Primary biliary cirrhosis, primary aldosteronism	[4]
24	63	F	2	0.9, 0.5	Primary biliary cirrhosis, chronic thyroiditis, adrenocortical adenoma	[5]
25	40	M	1	2.0	Hepatitis B	[5]
26	81	M	1	5.5	Cholelithiasis	[5]
27	64	F	2	3.5, 1.0	Takayasu arteritis, antiphospholipid syndrome	[5]
28	44	F	1	1.5	Colon cancer	[22]
Present case	68	F	1	2.0	Primary biliary cirrhosis, gastric cancer	

NA: not available; Ref: references.

cancer. Sato *et al*^[3] reported a case of hepatic RLH in a patient with double carcinomas of the stomach and colon and a metastatic liver lesion from the latter. This is the first case report of hepatic RLH in a patient with both PBC and gastric cancer. Zen *et al*^[5] speculated that the antigen from the gastrointestinal tract through the portal vein participates in the pathogenesis of hepatic RLH.

Although the precise mechanism of development of hepatic RLH remains unclear, these results suggest that autoimmune and/or immune reaction to the gastrointestinal malignancies may be involved in its development. In the present case, the patient had both PBC and gastric cancer simultaneously and either one or both may have been associated with the development of hepatic RLH.

Histopathologically, it is important to distinguish RLH from low-grade malignant lymphoma, especially marginal zone B cell lymphoma^[5]. In the present case, the resected liver lesion disclosed nodular proliferation of mature-appearing small lymphocytes forming lymphoid follicles with a germinal center and neither lymphoepithelial lesion nor atypia of infiltrative lymphocytes were observed. The diagnosis of hepatic RLH was not difficult in the present case. However, making a diagnosis of hepatic RLH by needle biopsy can be challenging^[5]. It has been reported that lymphoepithelial lesions and cellular atypia of infiltrating lymphocytes are important to provide a differential diagnosis^[5]. In addition, all of the marginal zone lymphoma in the liver showed a dense portal lymphocytic

infiltrate and a nodular proliferative pattern is rare in marginal zone lymphoma^[26]. These findings suggest that cellular atypia and infiltrative pattern could be helpful in making a differential diagnosis.

Pre-operative diagnosis of hepatic RLH by clinical imaging is extremely difficult because hepatic RLH has features similar to hepatocellular carcinoma on various imaging modalities; namely a hypoechoic mass on ultrasound, low density on CT with or without enhancement and low intensity on T1-weighted imaging and high intensity on T2-weighted imaging with magnetic resonance imaging^[1,2]. In addition, these diagnostic imaging findings cannot rule out the possibility of metastatic carcinoma in patients with gastrointestinal carcinoma^[2]. In the present case, the liver lesion was diagnosed pre-operatively as metastasis of gastric carcinoma. Therefore, a pre-operative liver biopsy could be useful for distinguishing hepatic RLH from metastatic gastrointestinal carcinoma and hepatocellular carcinoma, although differential diagnosis from low-grade malignant lymphoma could be challenging.

In summary, we report the first case of hepatic RLH in a patient with both PBC and gastric carcinoma. Pre-operative diagnosis of hepatic RLH by clinical imaging is extremely difficult. Therefore, a needle biopsy could be useful for making a diagnosis of hepatic RLH, especially in differentiating from metastatic gastrointestinal carcinoma and hepatocellular carcinoma, although distinguishing

hepatic RLH from low-grade malignant lymphoma could be challenging.

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Acute liver failure caused by concurrent autoimmune hepatitis and hepatitis B in a 16-year old girl

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Abstract

A 16 year-old girl was admitted to hospital because of fatigue and somnolence, nausea, epistaxis and jaundice. Physical examination revealed jaundice, an enlarged liver and tenderness of upper right abdomen. Laboratory tests revealed an increased level of acute liver failure, bilirubin, bile acids, GGTP and a decreased prothrombin ratio, with elevated gamma-globulin and IgG levels, and the presence of anti-mitochondrial M2 antibodies and HBV infection markers. The patient was diagnosed with liver failure resulting from chronic hepatitis B with an autoimmune component. The treatment consisted of steroids, azathioprine, vitamin K, low-protein diet and lactulose enemas. After undergoing a molecular test (HBV DNA 3.23×10^5 IU/mL and mutations I 204 and I 80), the treatment was modified by adding entecavir. After one month the patient was discharged in good clinical condition, with the recommendation of continued entecavir, prednisone and azathioprine. In subsequent months, no clinical deterioration or abnormal biochemical liver function test results were found, despite the discontinuation of immunosuppressive therapy after 10 mo. The patient continues entecavir therapy.

INTRODUCTION

In Poland, the number of persons with chronic HBV infection is estimated at 400 000, and HBV or HCV infection is the most frequent cause of chronic hepatitis in children.

The natural history of HBV infection in children is different from that of adults. It commonly takes the form of asymptomatic chronic infection, most often diagnosed incidentally or as a result of epidemiological investigation. In children, the disease usually remains asymptomatic for many years, and children acquiring the infection in the early period of life are at high risk of clinical sequelae, which may present in adulthood. The infection in an early period of life is often associated with a high HBV DNA replication rate, presence of HBe antigen in serum with normal alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels, and minor abnormalities of liver histology^[1].

Autoimmune hepatitis (AIH) is the leading cause of chronic liver disease in the regions where HLA B8 DR3

haplotype is common, and the prevalence of chronic viral hepatitis is low. Based on the presence of certain types of antibodies, AIH is divided into 2 main types: type 1 with antinuclear antibodies (ANA) and/or anti-smooth muscle antibodies (ASMA), and type 2 with anti liver-kidney microsome antibodies (anti-LKM). Acute liver failure is more frequent in patients with type 2 AIH, and particularly young women or adolescent girls^[2]. In autoimmune liver diseases, in addition to the most common overlap syndromes of AIH/primary biliary cirrhosis (AIH/PBC) and AIH/primary sclerosing cholangitis (AIH/PSC), an AIH/viral hepatitis (AIH/VH) variant is distinguished. When establishing the diagnosis of this syndrome it is important to differentiate between AIH with positive viral infection markers, and chronic viral hepatitis with positive autoimmune markers. In the majority of the latter cases, viral components are predominant, and the disease is successfully treated with antiviral drugs. Much less often, the autoimmune components are predominant, and viral infection markers coexist (AIH/VH); such cases respond well to steroid treatment^[3].

Gergiadou *et al* have reported occult HBV infections with concurrent autoimmune liver disease. The occult HBV infections did not promote progression of AIH. Moreover, no patient had a reactivation of HBV infection during immunosuppressive treatment^[4]. To date, no HBV infection with concurrent AIH has been reported in children.

We report a case of acute liver failure in the course of chronic hepatitis B with a component of autoimmune hepatitis.

CASE REPORT

A 16 year-old girl (initials PP; medical record No.689/2008) was admitted to hospital because of fatigue and somnolence, which increased over a week, nausea and loose stools lasting 3 d, epistaxis and jaundice.

Her past medical history included 2 hospitalizations in infancy, and surgery for a left forearm fracture at the age of 12. One year later she received the hepatitis B vaccine without prior HBs antigen testing.

Her general condition at admission was rated as quite good. Physical examination revealed jaundiced skin and sclerae, enlarged liver and tenderness of upper right abdomen. During hospitalization the patient complained of fatigue, skin pruritus, abdominal pain and headache. She also had epistaxis, somnolence and loss of appetite.

Laboratory test results revealed elevated aminotransferases (ALT: 1115 U/L, AST: 647 U/L), as well as elevated bilirubin, with predominant conjugate bilirubin, (respectively 9.41 mg/dL and 6.43 mg/dL), bile acids (216 mol/L), GGTP (60 U/L) and decreased prothrombin ratio (56%). Serum protein electrophoresis revealed elevated gamma-globulin (3.60 g/dL) and decreased albumin (3.82 g/dL) levels, and immunoglobulin tests revealed elevated IgG (34.7g/L) levels and the presence of anti-mitochondrial M2 (AMA M2) antibodies.

Serologic tests revealed the presence of HBV infection markers: HBsAg, HBeAg, total and IgM anti-HBc, and an anti-HBs level of 326 IU/L. The HAV, HCV, EBV, CMV, and Toxoplasma infections were excluded, as well as Wilson's disease and alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency.

The patient was diagnosed with liver failure resulting from chronic hepatitis B with autoimmune component. The treatment consisted of steroids, azathioprine, vitamin K, low-protein diet and lactulose enemas.

In the first days of hospitalization, despite the above therapy, increasing levels of liver damage markers were observed. On d 7, after receiving molecular test results confirming high HBV replication (HBV DNA 3.23×10^5 IU/mL) and presence of HBV polymerase gene mutations in codons I 204 and I 80, the treatment was modified by adding 1 mg entecavir daily. From the second week of therapy, a gradual clinical improvement was observed, with concomitant decrease of aminotransferase and bilirubin levels and increase of prothrombin ratio. On d 30, the HBV viral load had decreased to 6.05×10^3 , ALT levels had decreased to 48 U/L, prothrombin ratio had increased to 90% and gamma-globulin levels had decreased to 1.91g/dL. AMA M2 antibodies; HBe antigens were still detectable in serum.

The patient was discharged in good clinical condition with the recommendation of continued entecavir, prednisone and azathioprine, and systematic follow up in the Hepatology Clinic. After another month of treatment ALT levels normalized, and, after another three months the HBV viral load became negative. Steroid and azathioprine doses were reduced, with continued antiviral treatment.

Six mo from the onset of the disease, a liver biopsy was performed. The liver histology revealed altered architecture of the liver, with trabecular thickening, loss of continuity of the basal lamina at $\frac{1}{4}$ of its circumference due to inflammatory infiltrate, expanded portal spaces, features of balloon degeneration of hepatocytes and multiple focal necrosis of lobules with periportal necrosis. Histological diagnosis of chronic hepatitis B was established, with Grade 1 inflammatory activity, and Grade 2 fibrosis according to modified Scheuer's scale.

In subsequent months, no clinical deterioration nor abnormal biochemical liver function test results were found, despite the discontinuation, after 10 mo, of immunosuppressive therapy. The patient continues entecavir therapy. The serologic tests still reveal the presence of HBsAg and HBeAg, with undetectable HBV replication, normal serum ALT and protein levels and negative AMA M2 antibodies.

DISCUSSION

We have described a patient with liver failure in the course of chronic hepatitis B with autoimmune component. To our knowledge, it is the first report of a pediatric patient with exacerbation of hepatitis B and concurrent AIH.

By definition, the diagnosis of autoimmune hepatitis is based on typical criteria and the exclusion of other causes

of liver disease, including viral infection. In children, the use of the generally accepted AIH classification is virtually impossible in view of the criteria employed, such as alcohol intake, or the presence of viral infections (EBV, CMV, HHV-6), which may initiate autoimmune processes or autoantibody production^[5,6]. Using this classification we would not have been able to diagnose AIH in our patient because of the presence of HBV infection and AMA M2 antibodies. ANA and ASMA are known to be present in 20% to 40% patients with HBV infection, but there are no reports of the positive AMA, particularly AMA M2 typical for PBC, in patients with HBV infection^[7]. The diagnosis of PBC in our case is excluded by the histology of the liver and the minor increase of GGTP levels.

Viral infections may induce autoimmune processes. Tabak *et al* described AIH in the course of prolonged viral hepatitis A Michalska *et al* reported the emergence of autoimmune processes within 5 to 18 years from the diagnosis of chronic hepatitis B in 5 HBe-negative patients^[8,9].

In our patient, the dominant role of HBV infection as a cause of both autoimmune processes and liver failure, was confirmed not only histologically, but also clinically - by rapid improvement after the HBV-specific antiviral treatment with entecavir was started, as well as by sustained normalization of liver function tests and immunological markers, despite the discontinuation of immunosuppressive therapy. The reason for the use of this specific nucleoside analogue was the patient's clinical characteristics - features of liver failure, presence of mutations associated with resistance to lamivudine and presence of autoimmune processes. It was also justified by a high genetic barrier of entecavir. Entecavir combined with immunosuppressive agents proved effective in the treatment of liver failure in the course of HBV infection with concurrent autoimmune process.

It is difficult to speculate whether HBV infection in our patient took place before the administration of the hepatitis B vaccine, or whether the vaccine failed to protect the patient from infection. Our patient was found to be infected with a mutant HBV strain. In the literature

there are few reports on the effectiveness of the hepatitis B vaccine against strains other than wild-type HBV^[10,11].

It would also be very interesting to learn whether infection with a virus with altered genome nucleotide sequences predisposes the emergence of autoimmune abnormalities, including autoimmune processes. In the era of the increasing problem of HBV mutations, this might be of much importance for both the clinical aspects and the epidemiology of HBV infection.

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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

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- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMCID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRSA Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wicczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

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- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. *Emerg Infect Dis* serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

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- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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