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Celiac Disease in Asia beyond the Middle East and Indian subcontinent: Epidemiological burden and diagnostic barriers

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Abstract

Celiac Disease (CD) had been considered uncommon in Asia for a long time. However, several studies suggested that, in the Indian subcontinent and Middle East countries, CD is present and as prevalent as in Western countries. Outside these Asian regions, the information about the epidemiology of CD is still lacking or largely incomplete for different and variable reasons. Here, we discuss the epidemiological aspects and the diagnostic barriers in several Asian regions including China, Japan, Southeast Asia and Russia/Central Asia. In some of those regions, especially Russia and Central Asia, the prevalence of CD is very likely to be underestimated. Several factors may, to a different extent, contribute to CD underdiagnosis (and, thus, underestimation of its epidemiological burden), including the poor disease awareness among physicians and/or patients, limited access to diagnostic resources, inappropriate use or interpretation of the serological tests, absence of standardized diagnostic and endoscopic protocols, and insufficient expertise in histopathological interpretation.

Key Words: Celiac disease; Epidemiology; Prevalence; Asia; China; Japan; Russia; Central Asia; HLA-DQB1; Diagnostic barriers

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Core Tip: This editorial discusses the main epidemiological characteristics of Celiac Disease in Asia outside the Indian subcontinent and Middle East countries. Indeed, information about the epidemiology of Celiac Disease is still lacking or largely incomplete in those Asian regions (China, Japan, South-East Asia, and Russia/Centra

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Asia), where the disease prevalence is likely be underestimated. Factors contributing to diagnostic difficulties in these Asian regions are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

The global prevalence of Celiac Disease (CD) is estimated to be around 1% in the general population. However, this estimation is based on epidemiological studies that mainly come from the European and South/North American continents[1,2]. CD had been considered to be uncommon in Asia for a long time, but several studies published in the previous two decades demonstrated that CD is present and is as prevalent in the Indian subcontinent and in the Middle East, as it is in Western countries[3-5].

A few years ago, a meta-analysis by Singh *et al*[6] reported that the pooled prevalence of CD in Asia was around 0.5% without any significant difference between children and adults. Except for one study from Malaysia, all the clinical studies were from the Middle East (Turkey, $n = 5$; Iran, $n = 4$; Israel, $n = 2$; Saudi Arabia, $n = 2$; Jordan, $n = 1$) and India ($n = 3$). A recent study estimated that the prevalence of CD might be as high as 1% even in those Asian countries, based on an assessment of the HLA-DQB1*02 allelic frequencies and wheat consumption in the general population[7]. Indeed, the HLA-DQB1*02 allelic variant is the major HLA-related CD predisposing allele, and the appropriate HLA genetic background is as necessary (but not sufficient) as the dietary gluten intake to trigger of the immunopathological process underlying CD[8,9]. In India, this estimate was confirmed by a community-based study by Makharia *et al*[10], who found a CD prevalence of 1.04% in the north of India, where both the dietary habits and HLA-DQ genetic background favor the development of CD. A study from Iran including 1,500 healthy school children serologically screened for CD, led to a biopsy-confirmed diagnosis of CD in 0.6% of this pediatric cohort. As most of the cases appeared to be silent, it is reasonable to expect a higher prevalence in the general population[11]. The situation may be the same in Turkey, where Tatar *et al*[12] screened 2,000 healthy blood donors for CD markers and found that 1.3% ($n = 26$) were positive, and 12 donors (0.6%) were diagnosed with CD after biopsy. Considering that most of the serologically positive donors ($n = 14$) could not be contacted or refused endoscopy and all the diagnosed cases had been silent, the overall CD prevalence is probably greater.

For various reasons, epidemiological information about CD in other Asian regions is incomplete. The available data from China, Japan, Southeast Asia, and Russia/Central Asia are discussed below.

CHINA

In the last decade, more studies investigating the epidemiology of CD have been published from China than from the other Asian regions discussed here. In 2011, Wang *et al*[13] published a national multicenter study describing 14 Chinese children histologically diagnosed with CD after serological screening because of chronic diarrhea. Yuan *et al*[14] reported that the presence of DQB1*0201 allele was not negligible in the Chinese population, with an overall frequency of 10.5%. The highest frequency of HLA-DQB1*02 was > 20%-25% in the northwestern region, where non-Chinese ethnic minorities (*e.g.*, Kazakh and Uygur ethnicities) are present in the population. Recently, the same authors reported a CD seropositivity rate of 2.19% in a cross-sectional study including 19,778 Chinese adolescents and young adults[15].

Dietary exposure to gluten has increased over the past 50 years in the Chinese population. Wheat has become the second most consumed staple food, after rice. China is one of the world's largest producers and consumers of wheat, especially in

the northern regions. Therefore, CD is an emerging disease in this country; and, despite the lack of epidemiological studies with a complete diagnostic definition, the awareness of this disease and its potential impact on health should be increased in such a large population[14]. In 2019, Chen and Li[16] reported that lack of awareness among the population and health professionals have contributed to the hidden epidemiological burden of CD in China. They also reported that local lack of resources could limit the access to standardized tissue acquisition and histological evaluation. Consequently, in most studies, seropositive individuals could not undergo the duodenal biopsy needed for the confirmation of a CD diagnosis.

JAPAN

In Japan, the epidemiological burden of CD is extremely low. In 2018, Fukunaga *et al*[17] described only two biopsy-based CD diagnoses in a group of 2,055 people including 2,008 asymptomatic individuals and 47 adults complaining of chronic abdominal symptoms, which corresponds to < 0.1% prevalence. That finding is consistent with the very low frequency of the HLA-DQ2/DQ8 immunotype. Indeed, in a study including 371 unrelated healthy apheresis blood donors, the HLA-DQB1*02 allele frequency was reported to be < 1% even though the DQB1*03:02 allele is relatively common (10.8%)[18]. Although the dietary exposure to gluten has been increasing in Japan, the consumption of wheat is still relatively low (it is estimated to be approximately one-third of that consumed in Western countries)[17].

The same research group reported a CD seropositivity rate (based on anti-tissue transglutaminase (tTG) immunoglobulin (Ig) A antibody) of 0.19% in 2,005 Japanese adults tested in 2008-2013. That result is consistent with another study that reported a positivity rate of 0.2% (based on a 10 U/mL titer cutoff) in 2014-2016[17,19]. Because of the presumed low prevalence, in Japanese clinical practice, CD may be rarely considered by physicians who manage patients with chronic abdominal symptoms[17].

It must be emphasized that the available studies were mostly, if not completely, focused on asymptomatic/healthy people. The actual prevalence of CD seropositivity and diagnosis may thus be higher than that reported so far. Nevertheless, Hokari and Higashiyama[20] observed that Japanese physicians are unlikely to overlook CD, as the endoscopic assessment is well-established in Japan for patients complaining of chronic abdominal symptoms. This procedure is performed by well-trained endoscopists and the histopathological appearance of CD mucosa is well-known. Therefore, the low epidemiological burden of CD in Japan is considered to be real: it is consistent with the immunogenetic background and dietary habits, and there are no major diagnostic barriers. However, this situation may change in the near future if wheat consumption increases.

SOUTHEAST ASIA

Few clinical studies assessed the epidemiological burden of CD in this Asian region[21]. In most countries of Southeast Asia, the allele frequency of HLA-DQB1*02 is estimated to be < 10%-15%[6]. The low dietary intake of gluten also contributes to the low prevalence of CD. In Vietnam, CD autoimmunity was assessed in 1,961 children and around 1% were found positive for anti-tTG IgA[22]. In Thailand, CD serology was assessed in 46 children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and only one child was positive for anti-tTG IgA. Considering an expected prevalence of > 5% (and up to 10%) in such a risk group, the prevalence of CD is assumed to be low in Thai children and in the general population[23,24].

In Malaysia, Yap *et al*[25] reported a relatively high CD seroprevalence of 1.25% in healthy young adults. This finding might be explained by the fact that the Malaysian population includes three main ethnicities (*i.e.* Malay, Chinese, and Indian), but HLA genotyping was not performed in that study. These authors noted that CD is underdiagnosed in Malaysia and discussed the diagnostic barriers in this country. Lack of medical awareness of CD (resulting in a low rate of request for CD serology tests), the use of less sensitive CD serological markers, inappropriate application of endoscopic protocols, and under-recognition of mild CD histopathological patterns, were all considered to be contributing factors.

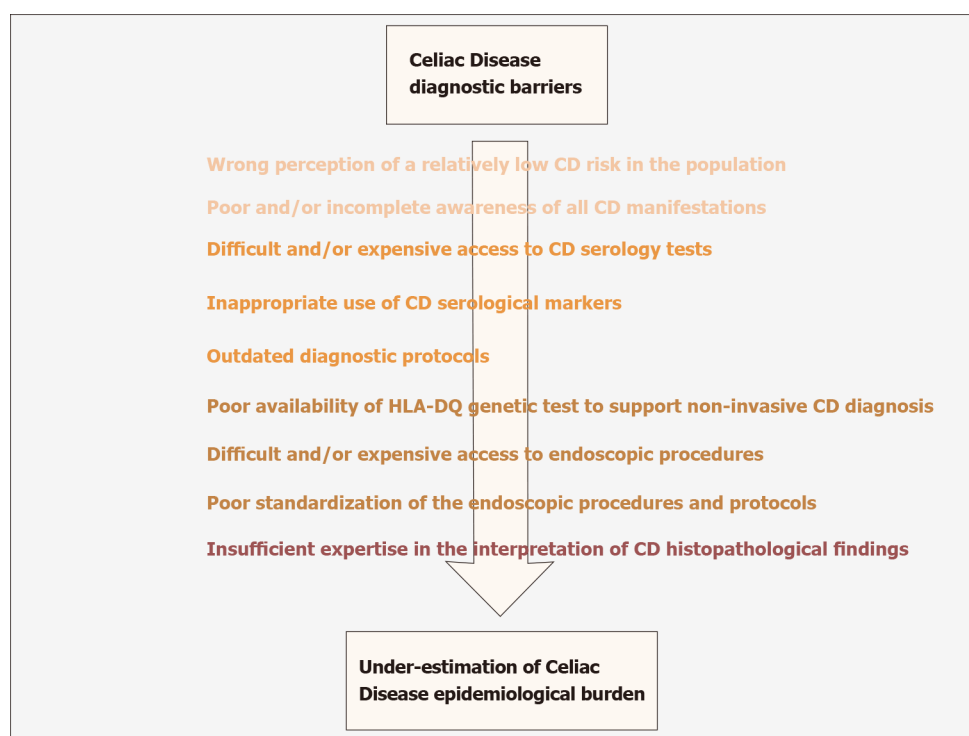


Figure 1 Schematic overview of CD diagnostic barriers in Kazakhstan (CD: Celiac Disease).

RUSSIA AND CENTRAL ASIA

A review by Savvateeva *et al*[26] is the primary English-language publication of the overall and indirect epidemiological evidence of CD in Russia. Most studies considered in this review were conducted from 2000 to 2014 and were published in Russian language. The authors concluded that the prevalence of CD in children has increased in the last few decades and is at least 0.6%, although significant inter-regional variations should be considered, because of the geographical extent of this region. The carrier frequency of HLA-DQ2/DQ8 haplotypes in the Russian population, especially in the western region, seems to be comparable to that in Europe. Savvateeva *et al*[26] reported epidemiological trends and prevalence rates similar to those in Europe, but do not discuss potential barriers hampering CD diagnosis in their country. However, they do declare well-established therapeutical support and follow-up protocols for CD patients in Russia.

Epidemiological data from Central Asia and, more precisely, from Kazakhstan are also mentioned in the aforementioned article by Savvateeva *et al*[26]. They reported a CD prevalence of < 0.4% or one case in every 262 children. However, the diagnostic approach based on anti-gliadin antibodies and the study design were prone to a significant underestimation of the actual prevalence[21,26]. Moreover, our group recently showed that the carrier frequencies of HLA-DQB1*02 and HLA-DQB1*03:02 in Kazakhstani healthy blood donors are 38% and 12.5%, respectively, and these numbers are comparable to those described in Caucasian populations. Considering the high consumption of wheat foods in Kazakhstan, we concluded that it is reasonable to expect that the CD prevalence in this country may be comparable to that reported in Europe[27].

Large well-designed clinical studies are needed to provide a reliable estimate of the CD epidemiological burden in Central Asia. It is likely that CD is underdiagnosed in Kazakhstan. Several barriers currently contribute to the underdiagnosis of CD in this country, including the inappropriate use of serological tests, limited access to diagnostic tools for economic reasons, the absence of standard protocols for endoscopic procedures, and difficulties in histopathological interpretation[27,28]. The combined effects of all those obstacles lead to the underestimation of the diagnostic and epidemiological burden in this country, as summarized in Figure 1. These considerations might also apply in other regions of Central Asia that have even fewer economic resources.

CONCLUSION

Outside the Indian subcontinent and Middle East countries, the epidemiological burden of CD in Asia is very likely to be underestimated, especially in Russia and Central Asia, where wheat is a staple food and the genetic predisposition to CD is comparable to Europe.

In agreement with other authors[29,30], several factors (that vary by country and regions) can contribute to hamper CD diagnosis and, thus, the estimation of its epidemiological burden. Overall, these factors include poor disease awareness among physicians and/or patients, limited access to diagnostic resources (because of economic and/or organizational and/or geographical reasons), inappropriate use or interpretation of the available serological tests, absence of standardized diagnostic and endoscopic protocols, and insufficient expertise in histopathological interpretation.

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Biomarkers in autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease

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Abstract

Solitary organ autoimmune disorders, formerly known as autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP), autoimmune sialadenitis, and autoimmune sclerosing cholangitis, are now considered organ-specific manifestations of systemic immunoglobulin G4-related disease (IgG4-RD). AIP and IgG4-RD are characterized by elevated serum concentration of IgG4 antibody (Ab), accumulation of IgG4-expressing plasmacytes in the affected organs, and involvement of multiple organs. It is well established that enhanced IgG4 Ab responses are a hallmark of AIP and IgG4-RD for diagnosis and monitoring disease activity. However, a significant fraction of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD who develop chronic fibroinflammatory responses have normal serum concentrations of this IgG subtype. In addition, disease flare-up is sometimes seen even in the presence of normalized serum concentrations of IgG4 Ab after successful induction of remission by prednisolone. Therefore, it is necessary to identify new biomarkers based on the understanding of the pathophysiology of AIP and IgG4-RD. Recently, we found that activation of plasmacytoid dendritic cells producing both interferon- α (IFN- α) and interleukin-33 (IL-33) mediate murine AIP and human IgG4-RD. More importantly, we provided evidence that serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 could be useful biomarkers for the diagnosis and monitoring of AIP and IgG4-RD activity after induction of remission in these autoimmune disorders. In this Frontier article, we have summarized and discussed biomarkers of AIP and IgG4-RD, including Igs, autoAbs, and cytokines to provide useful information not only for clinicians but also for researchers.

Key Words: Biomarker; Autoimmune pancreatitis; Immunoglobulin G4-related disease; Plasmacytoid dendritic cells; Cytokine; Chemokine

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Core Tip: Autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP) and immunoglobulin G4-related disease (IgG4-RD) are new disease entities characterized by enhanced IgG4 antibody responses. Serum concentration of IgG4 antibody is widely used as a useful biomarker for diagnosis and disease activity monitoring in AIP and IgG4-RD. Recent studies have highlighted the importance of cytokine responses in the immunopathogenesis of these disorders. In this Frontier article, we have summarized our knowledge regarding cytokine responses in AIP and IgG4-RD and then discussed the utility of serum concentrations of cytokines as possible biomarkers.

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INTRODUCTION

Autoimmune pancreatitis (AIP) is a unique form of the chronic fibroinflammatory disorder of the pancreas, which is driven by autoimmune responses[1]. AIP is classified into type 1 and type 2, and more than 95% of AIP cases represent the former, which is a pancreatic manifestation of systemic immunoglobulin G4-related disease (IgG4-RD)[2-4]. In this article, type 1 AIP is hereafter referred to as AIP. AIP and IgG4-RD are recently established disease entities proposed by rheumatologists and gastroenterologists[2-4]. As awareness and recognition of these disorders by physicians increase, the number of patients diagnosed with AIP and IgG4-RD is growing. Thus, the clinical manifestations and immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD are attracting much attention from physicians and researchers.

IgG4-RD occurs most commonly in elderly men; it is characterized by a marked elevation of serum IgG4 antibody (Ab) and accumulation of plasma cells secreting IgG4 Ab into injured organs[2-4]. Another important feature of IgG4-RD is multiple organ involvement: this disorder preferentially affects the pancreas, bile duct, lung, salivary glands, and kidney. AIP is a pancreatic manifestation of IgG4-RD. The elevated concentration of serum IgG4 Ab is widely used as a diagnostic marker for AIP and IgG4-RD[5,6]. In addition, patients with IgG4-RD exhibiting multiple organ involvement display higher concentrations of serum IgG4 Ab[7,8], suggesting that measurement of serum IgG4 concentration is useful not only for the diagnosis but also for the evaluation of disease activity. It should be noted, however, that the concentration of this IgG subtype is not always regarded as a perfect biomarker for the diagnosis or evaluation of disease activity in AIP and IgG4-RD. In fact, serum concentration of IgG4 Ab is elevated in a significant fraction of patients with pancreatic cancer[9] and about 20% of patients with AIP display normal serum concentration of IgG4 Ab[10]. Furthermore, patients with AIP sometimes relapse even if they have normal serum concentration of IgG4 Ab[11]. Therefore, it is necessary to identify other biomarkers that could be useful for the diagnosis and evaluation of disease activity in AIP and IgG4-RD.

Remarkable progress has been made in understanding the immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD. Elucidation of immune networks associated with the development of these autoimmune disorders has led us to identify candidate biomarkers other than IgG4 Ab. In this Frontier article, we summarize recent progress in the biomarkers of AIP and IgG4-RD based on the knowledge of abnormal immune microenvironments.

IMMUNOPATHOGENESIS OF AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

Adaptive immunity

AIP and IgG4-RD are characterized by enhanced IgG4 Ab responses; thus, immune microenvironments leading to IgG4 Ab production are likely to be involved in the development of these disorders[2-4]. Various types of differentiated T cell subpopu-

lations are involved in the enhanced IgG4 Ab response (Figure 1). These effector T cells include T helper type 2 (Th2) cells, regulatory T cells (Tregs), follicular helper T (Tfh) cells, and cytotoxic CD4⁺ T cells (CD4⁺ CTLs)[4]. Cytokines produced by effector T cell subpopulations promote IgG4 Ab production by B cells.

Interleukin-4 (IL-4), IL-10, and IL-13 secreted by Th2 cells and/or Tregs promoted IgG4 Ab production by healthy control B cells *in vitro*[12]. In fact, expression of IL-10, IL-13, and transforming growth factor- β 1 (TGF- β 1), also produced by Th2 and/or Tregs, was found to be higher in the livers of patients with IgG4-RD than in the livers of patients with other autoimmune biliary diseases[13]. Moreover, the cytokine responses seen in IgG4-RD were accompanied by the enhanced expression of forkhead box P3 (FOXP3), a critical transcription factor for Tregs[13]. Koyabu *et al*[14] reported that the number of Tregs correlated with that of IgG4⁺ cells in the livers of IgG4-RD patients. In line with the enhanced expression of Th2 and Treg-associated cytokines in the liver, patients with IgG4-RD displayed higher expression of Th2 cytokines and chemokines such as IL-4, IL-5, IL-10, C-C motif chemokine ligand 17 (CCL17), and CCL22 in the salivary glands as compared with the levels of these molecules in healthy controls and individuals with the Sjogren syndrome[15]. Such enhanced Th2 responses in the salivary glands were accompanied by TGF- β 1 production and accumulation of FOXP3⁺ Tregs[15]. These data support the idea that Th2 cells and Tregs are involved in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD. Given that Tregs are potent negative regulators of autoimmune reactions, it might be possible that activation of Tregs is an epiphenomenon of persistent strong inflammation rather than a component of inflammation in AIP and IgG4-RD.

Ectopic germinal center formation is observed in the salivary glands of IgG4-RD patients[15]. Tfh cells, which express B cell lymphoma 6 (BCL6) and C-X-C chemokine receptor type 5 (CXCR5), and produce IL-21, play critical roles in germinal center reactions[4]. Expression levels of BCL6, CXCR5, and IL-21 in the ectopic germinal centers in the salivary glands were significantly higher in patients with IgG4-RD than in those with Sjogren syndrome[16]. Tfh cells isolated from the salivary glands and peripheral blood of patients with IgG4-RD had a greater capacity to stimulate IgG4 Ab production by B cells than tonsillar Tfh cells[17,18]. The percentage of circulating Tfh2 cells, defined as CXCR5⁺CXCR3⁻ C-C chemokine receptor type 6⁻ cells, positively correlated with serum IgG4 concentration in patients with IgG4-RD[19]. Thus, these data support the idea that Tfh cells are involved in the immunopathogenesis of IgG4-RD through the induction of germinal center reaction. However, the roles played by Tfh cells in AIP have not been clarified.

CD4⁺ CTLs are a unique population of effector T cells that are often seen in patients with chronic viral infections. CD4⁺ CTLs are localized in the salivary glands of IgG4-RD patients[20,21]. These cells express T-box-expressed-in-T-cells (T-bet) and produce interferon- γ (IFN- γ)[4]. Although both Th1 cells and CD4⁺ CTLs express T-bet and IFN- γ , they differ in expression levels of myeloid cell markers (CD11b) and in the ability to produce CCL4 and IL-1 β [20,21]. In addition, these cells produce several cytotoxic proteins, including perforin and granzymes[20,21]. More importantly, these cells secrete TGF- β 1, one of the prototypical pro-fibrogenic factors. Thus, CD4⁺ CTLs are involved in chronic fibroinflammatory responses associated with IgG4-RD. However, accumulation of CD4⁺ CTLs has not been verified in the pancreas of patients with AIP.

Innate immunity

Innate immunity is one of the major host defense mechanisms against microbial infections[22,23]. Recognition of microbial components by Toll-like receptors (TLRs) and nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-like receptors (NLRs) induces pro-inflammatory cytokine responses to eradicate microbial infections[22,23]. It is well established that excessive innate immune responses underlie various types of autoimmune disorders[4,24]. Recent studies have highlighted the importance of innate immunity in AIP and IgG4-RD (Figure 1)[4].

We were the first to address the role of innate immunity in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD. We initially examined whether peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) isolated from IgG4-RD patients produced pro-inflammatory cytokines upon exposure to TLR ligands and found that they secreted more IgG4 Ab and Th2 cytokines than PBMCs from healthy controls[25]. In the subsequent studies, we utilized a co-culture system composed of peripheral blood CD14⁺ monocytes, CD19⁺ B cells, and CD3⁺ T cells isolated from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD. This co-culture system allowed us to show that B cells produced a large amount of IgG4 Ab in the presence of NLR and TLR ligands upon co-culture with monocytes isolated from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD, but not with monocytes from healthy controls[26].

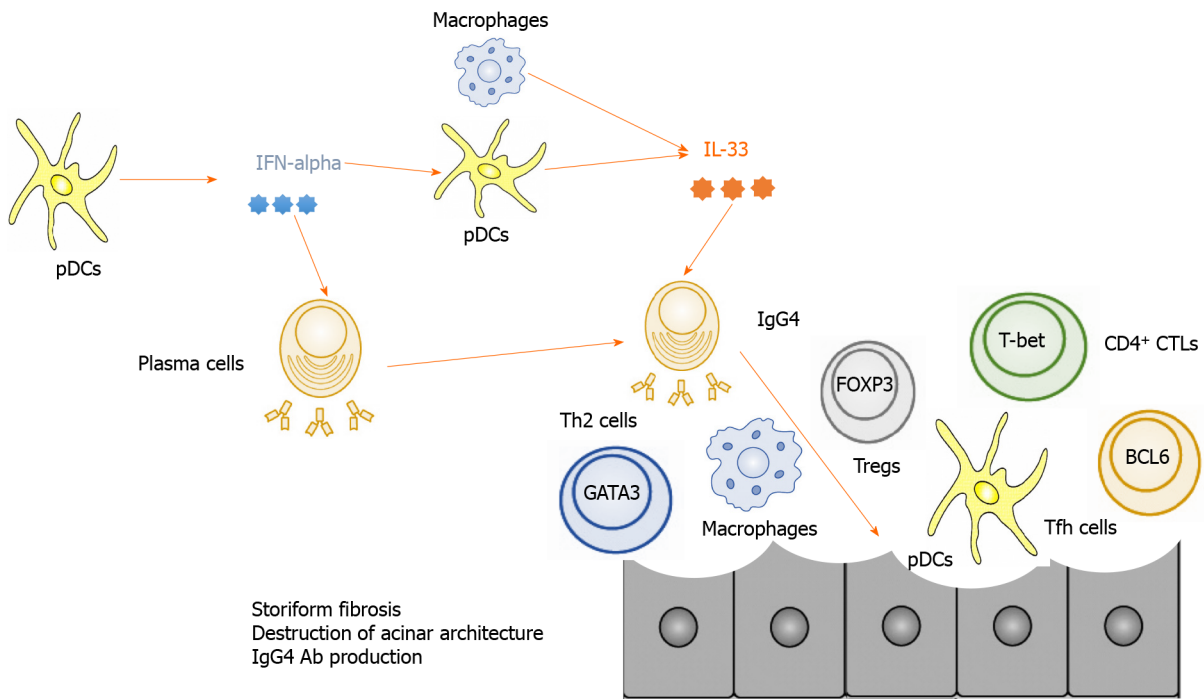


Figure 1 Immunopathogenesis of autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease. Plasmacytoid dendritic cells produce interferon- α and interleukin-33 and thereby mediate chronic fibroinflammatory responses in the pancreas. T helper type 2 cells expressing GATA-binding protein 3, regulatory T cells expressing forkhead box P3, follicular helper T cells expressing B cell lymphoma 6, and CD4⁺ cytotoxic T cells expressing T-box-expressed-in-T-cells are involved in the development of autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease. IgG4: Immunoglobulin G4; pDCs: Plasmacytoid dendritic cells; IFN: Interferon; IL: Interleukin; Th2: T helper type 2 cells; Tregs: Regulatory T cells; GATA3: GATA-binding protein 3; FOXP3: Forkhead box P3; Tfh: Follicular helper T; BCL6: B cell lymphoma 6; T-bet: T-box-expressed-in-T-cells.

Interestingly, peripheral blood monocytes isolated from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD efficiently induced IgG4 Ab production by B cells from healthy controls in a T cell-independent manner. Stimulation of TLRs and NLRs led to the production of B cell-activating factor (BAFF), which induced IgG4 Ab responses[26]. In addition to monocytes, peripheral blood basophils isolated from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD also promoted IgG4 Ab production by B cells from healthy controls in a T cell-independent and BAFF-dependent manner[27]. These pioneering studies fully support the concept that excessive innate immune responses are involved in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD. Indeed, the expression of TLRs was verified in the salivary glands and pancreas of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD[28-30].

It remains uncertain whether innate immune responses are shared by peripheral blood and affected organs in AIP and IgG4-RD. To identify innate immune cells responsible for the development of AIP and IgG4-RD, we utilized a murine experimental model of AIP and IgG4-RD. Repeated intraperitoneal injections of polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid [poly (I:C)] into MRL/MpJ mice led to the development of AIP characterized by the destruction of the pancreatic acinar architecture, immune cell infiltration, and fibrosis[31,32]. Thus, this murine experimental AIP model recapitulated pathological findings observed in human AIP. Extensive flow cytometry analyses revealed massive accumulation of plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs), defined as PDCA-1⁺B220^{low}, in the pancreas[31]. pDCs are a specialized DC population that produce type I IFNs (IFN- α) upon recognition of TLR7 and TLR9 ligands[33]. Indeed, activation and accumulation of pDCs in the pancreas mediated experimental AIP through the production of IFN- α , because the depletion of pDCs or neutralization of type I IFN by Abs efficiently prevented the development of AIP[31]. Furthermore, pDCs expressing IFN- α and BAFF were found in the pancreas of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD, and peripheral blood pDCs isolated from these patients promoted IgG4 Ab production by healthy control B cells in a type I IFN dependent manner[31]. Thus, these results strongly suggest that activation of pDCs and type I IFN production are prominent features of murine experimental and human AIP.

Although a unique form of fibrosis, called storiform fibrosis, is one of the characteristic findings in human AIP[2-4], molecular mechanisms accounting for the induction and generation of this fibrogenic response have been poorly understood. We recently discovered that the type I IFN-IL-33 axis plays a pro-inflammatory and pro-

fibrogenic role in chronic alcoholic pancreatitis[34]. Type I IFN production by pancreatic acinar cells acts in concert with TNF- α produced by pancreatic macrophages to induce a robust production of IL-33 by the former cells[34]. Given that type I IFN produced by pDCs mediates experimental AIP, we hypothesized that IL-33 is involved in the generation of chronic fibroinflammatory responses in the pancreas. pDCs, which accumulate in the pancreas after repeated injections of poly (I:C), produced IL-33 in a type I IFN-dependent manner[32]. Importantly, the blockade of IL-33-mediated signaling pathways by an Ab against the IL-33 receptor attenuated chronic fibroinflammatory responses of the pancreas, which was accompanied by a marked reduction in pro-fibrogenic cytokines such as IL-13 and TGF- β 1[32]. Immunofluorescence studies of pancreatic specimens from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD confirmed pancreatic localization of pDCs expressing IL-33[32]. Taken together, these results support the idea that activation of pDCs followed by the production of IFN- α and IL-33 mediates both experimental and human AIP. However, it should be noted that pDCs are not the only cellular source of IL-33. For example, M2 macrophages have been shown to co-localize with IL-33 in the salivary glands of IgG4-RD patients [30,35].

IMMUNOGLOBULINS AS BIOMARKERS IN AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

The diagnosis of AIP and IgG4-RD relies on the detection of elevated serum concentration of IgG4 Ab as well as on the characteristic pathological findings, including abundant infiltration of IgG4-expressing plasma cells, storiform fibrosis, and obliterative phlebitis[2-4]. Thus, serum level of IgG4 Ab is widely used as an established biomarker for the diagnosis of AIP and IgG4-RD. Moreover, serum concentration of IgG4 declines rapidly after the induction of remission by prednisolone[11]. Indeed, serum concentration of IgG4 Ab was much higher in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD than in individuals with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis and in healthy controls in our previous study[36]. Therefore, there is no doubt that measurement of serum IgG4 Ab concentration in clinical practice is necessary not only for the diagnosis of AIP and IgG4-RD but also for the assessment of disease activity. However, IgG4 Ab level is not always informative for the diagnosis or assessment of disease activity in such patients. Around 20% of patients with AIP have normal serum concentration of IgG4 Ab[10]. Furthermore, a significant fraction of patients with pancreatic cancer also exhibit elevated IgG4 Ab concentration[9]. Moreover, disease flare-up is sometimes seen in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD, even on the background of normalized serum concentrations of IgG4 Ab[11].

IgG4 Ab is unique in that it has a limited ability to activate Fc γ receptors and complements[37]. Thus, IgG4 Ab is considered to play non-pathogenic rather than pathogenic roles in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD. Shiokawa *et al*[38] directly addressed this issue by utilizing a passive transfer of patient IgG subtypes into neonatal mice. They found that pancreatic injury was successfully induced by a passive transfer of total IgG isolated from patients with AIP, but not by total IgG from healthy controls. The degree of pancreatic injury was much greater in neonatal mice treated with the IgG1 Ab from AIP patients than in those that received the IgG4 Ab from the same patients. Moreover, pancreatic injury induced by a passive transfer of IgG1 Ab was efficiently inhibited by a co-transfer of IgG4 Ab[38]. These studies conducted by Shiokawa *et al*[38] strongly suggest that IgG1 Ab rather than IgG4 Ab contributes to the immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD. Consistent with this idea, serum concentrations of both IgG1 and IgG4 Abs were significantly higher in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD than in individuals with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis or in healthy controls (Table 1)[36].

As for the other IgG subtypes, no significant differences were observed in serum concentrations of IgG3 Ab in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD in comparison with those in patients with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis or in healthy controls[36]. Serum concentration of IgG2 Ab was significantly lower in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD than in patients with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis (Table 1)[36]. In contrast, another report showed that serum concentration of IgG2 Ab was elevated in patients suffering from IgG4-RD[39]. This discrepancy can be explained by the difference in the organ distribution of IgG4-RD. Serum concentration of this IgG subtype is preferentially elevated in patients with orbital IgG4-RD, but not in those with pancreatic IgG4-RD[36,39].

Table 1 Possible biomarkers in autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease

Biomarkers		Ref.
Immunoglobulins	IgG1	Minaga <i>et al</i> [36]
	IgG2	Chan <i>et al</i> [39]
	IgE	Minaga <i>et al</i> [36], Culver <i>et al</i> [41]
	IgM	Taguchi <i>et al</i> [40]
Cytokines	IFN- α	Arai <i>et al</i> [31], Minaga <i>et al</i> [36], Minaga <i>et al</i> [53]
	IL-5	Yamamoto <i>et al</i> [49]
	IL-6	Tsukuda <i>et al</i> [60]
	IL-33	Furukawa <i>et al</i> [35], Minaga <i>et al</i> [36], Minaga <i>et al</i> [53]
	BAFF	Arai <i>et al</i> [31], Kiyama <i>et al</i> [58]
Chemokines	CCL17	Umeda <i>et al</i> [63]
Autoantibodies	Laminin 511	Shiokawa <i>et al</i> [42]
	Annexin A11	Hubers <i>et al</i> [43]
	Galectin-3	Perugino <i>et al</i> [44]

BAFF: B cell activating factor; CCL17: C-C motif chemokine ligand 17.

Serum total IgG concentration is also elevated in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD[2-4]. Thus, elevations in serum concentrations of both total IgG and IgG4 are prominent features of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD. In contrast to augmented IgG and IgG4 levels, serum concentrations of IgM and IgA are decreased in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD[40]. Furthermore, serum concentration of IgM inversely correlated with those of IgG and IgG4 (Table 1)[40]. The diagnostic value of reduced serum concentrations of IgA and IgM needs to be determined in future studies.

Co-occurrence of AIP/IgG4-RD and allergic disorders is often observed[2-4]. In fact, serum concentration of IgE is significantly higher in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD than in those with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis and in healthy controls[36]. This raises the possibility that serum concentration of IgE can be used as a biomarker for AIP and IgG4-RD. In line with this idea, approximately 50% of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD exhibit elevated serum concentration of IgE[41]. Moreover, changes in serum concentration of IgE are associated with the relapse of these disorders[41]. Therefore, serum concentration of IgE can be used as a biomarker for the diagnosis and prediction of relapse in AIP and IgG4-RD[41].

AUTOANTIBODIES AS BIOMARKERS IN AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

Although AIP and IgG4-RD are considered to be caused by autoimmune reactions, autoAbs responsible for the development of autoimmunity have not been identified. Recently, three different types of autoAbs have been identified[42-44]. These autoAbs recognize laminin 511, annexin A11, and galectin-3 (Table 1). Fifty-one percent of AIP patients were positive for autoAb against laminin 511-E8, a truncated variant of the extracellular matrix protein laminin 511. Furthermore, serum IgG1 purified from AIP patients co-localized with laminin 511 in the pancreas of neonatal mice upon passive transfer[42]. Huber *et al*[43] identified annexin A11, a calcium-dependent phospholipid-binding protein, as a candidate autoantigen in AIP. Interestingly, annexin A11-specific IgG4 and IgG1 Abs purified from patients with AIP shared antigenic epitopes and IgG4 autoAbs inhibited pathogenic binding of IgG1 Ab to the shared epitopes[43]. These data suggest that IgG1 autoAbs rather than IgG4 autoAbs play pathogenic roles in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD. Confirmation of these results awaits future studies that should address the diagnostic utility of these autoAbs in a large number of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD. However, identification of autoAbs associated with AIP and IgG4-RD strongly supports the idea that these disorders arise from autoimmune reactions.

ADAPTIVE IMMUNITY CYTOKINES AS BIOMARKERS IN AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

Effector CD4⁺ T cell subpopulations, including Th2 cells, Tregs, Tfh cells, and CD4⁺ CTLs, are involved in the immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD, as shown by the localization of these T cells in the affected organs. Th2 cells, Tregs, Tfh cells, and CD4⁺ CTLs cells were detected in the peripheral blood of patients with AIP or IgG4-RD[17,19,20,45-48] and found to be markedly decreased after induction of remission[20,46], raising the possibility that serum concentrations of cytokines derived from effector T cells can be useful biomarkers (Table 1 and Figure 2). Yamamoto *et al*[49] found that serum concentration of IL-5 was elevated in patients with IgG4-RD, whereas serum concentrations of IL-10, IL-13, IL-21, and TGF- β 1 were comparable in patients and healthy controls. Given that the major cellular source of IL-5 is Th2 cells, these data support the idea that the activation status of Th2 cells might be a surrogate marker for IgG4-RD and AIP. In line with this notion, bile concentrations of Th2 cytokines such as IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 were significantly higher in the patients with IgG4-related sclerosing cholangitis than in those with primary sclerosing cholangitis[50]. Mechanistically, these Th2 cytokines induce bile leakage due to the impairment of the tight junction-associated biliary epithelial cell barrier, thereby causing chronic biliary inflammation[50]. Moreover, two cases of IgG4-RD successfully treated with dupilumab that neutralizes IL-4 receptor α have been reported[51,52]. Thus, Th2 responses may underlie the immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD. Therefore, Th2 cytokines, especially IL-5, can be used as biomarkers of AIP and IgG4-RD.

A positive correlation between serum concentration of IgG4 Ab and circulating numbers of Tfh cells has been demonstrated in patients with IgG4-RD[17,19,46]. However, the utility of serum concentration of IL-21, a prototypical cytokine produced by Tfh cells, for IgG4-RD diagnosis has not been verified. Similarly, the usefulness of serum concentrations of IFN- γ and TGF- β 1 produced by CD4⁺ CTLs as biomarkers of AIP and IgG4-RD has not been reported either.

Therefore, at present, the utility of adaptive immunity cytokines as biomarkers for AIP and IgG4-RD is limited. The reason why previous studies did not successfully identify adaptive immunity cytokines as biomarkers might be partially explained by a broad range of affected organs in AIP and IgG4-RD or by complex effector T cell responses. Thus, the classification of IgG4-RD into subtypes by affected organ distribution might lead to the identification of biomarkers specific for each such subtype.

INNATE IMMUNITY CYTOKINES AS BIOMARKERS IN AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

Activation of pDCs and the subsequent robust production of IFN- α and IL-33 are characteristic pathogenic immune responses in experimental AIP and human IgG4-RD[31,32]. These findings led us to examine whether serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 could be useful biomarkers for AIP and IgG4-RD (Table 1 and Figure 2). For this purpose, we measured serum concentrations of these cytokines in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD who met the well-established diagnostic criteria[5,6,36]. In comparison with the patients with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis and healthy controls, the patients with AIP and IgG4-RD displayed markedly elevated serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33[36]. In contrast, serum levels of the prototypical proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and IL-6 were comparable in the patients with AIP/IgG4-RD and those with chronic alcoholic pancreatitis[36]. Serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 positively correlated with those of IgG4 Ab[36]. Thus, measurements of serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 may be very useful for the diagnosis of AIP and IgG4-RD[36].

We then evaluated the diagnostic performance of serum IFN- α and IL-33 concentrations for AIP and IgG4-RD. Surprisingly, the diagnostic performance of serum IFN- α and IL-33 concentrations as diagnostic markers for AIP and IgG4-RD was comparable to that of serum IgG4 Ab, as calculated by the receiver operating characteristic curve analysis[36]. Moreover, the induction of remission by prednisolone markedly reduced serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33. Thus, serum IFN- α and IL-33 concentrations can be biomarkers that are useful not only for the diagnosis but also for the assessment of disease activity. Taken together, our data strongly suggested that serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 might serve as novel biomarkers in AIP

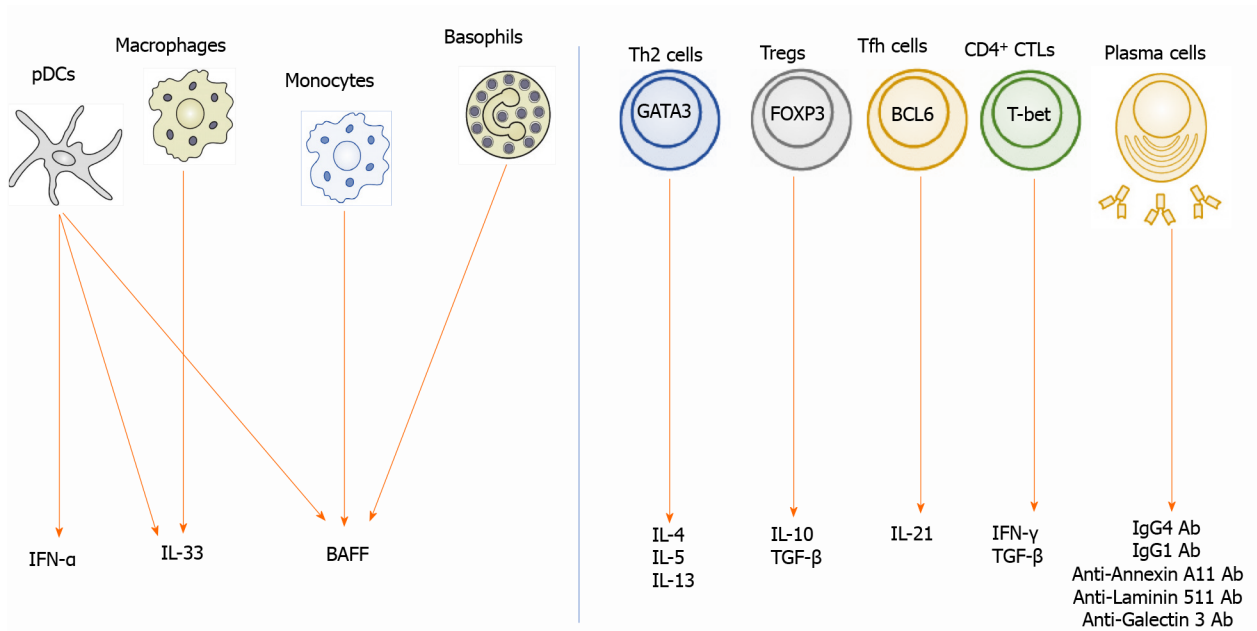


Figure 2 Biomarkers in autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease. Left panel: Interferon- α (IFN- α) is produced by plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs). Interleukin-33 (IL-33) is produced by pDCs and macrophages. B cell-activating factor (BAFF) is produced by pDCs, monocytes, and basophils; Right panel: IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 are produced by T helper type 2 cells expressing GATA-binding protein 3 (GATA3). IL-10 and transforming growth factor- β 1 (TGF- β) are produced by regulatory T cells (Tregs) expressing forkhead box P3. IL-21 is produced by follicular helper T cells expressing B cell lymphoma 6. TGF- β is produced by Tregs and CD4⁺ cytotoxic T cells (CTLs) expressing T-box-expressed-in-T-cells. IFN- γ is produced by CD4⁺ CTLs. Plasma cells produce immunoglobulin G1 (IgG1) and IgG4 Ab. These cytokines are possible biomarkers for autoimmune pancreatitis and IgG4-related disease. IgG: Immunoglobulin G; pDCs: Plasmacytoid dendritic cells; IFN: Interferon; IL: Interleukin; BAFF: B cell-activating factor; Th2: T helper type 2 cells; Tregs: Regulatory T cells; GATA3: GATA-binding protein 3; FOXP3: Forkhead box P3; Tfh: Follicular helper T; BCL6: B cell lymphoma 6; T-bet: T-box-expressed-in-T-cells; CTLs: CD4⁺ cytotoxic T cells.

and IgG4-RD. This idea is fully supported by an observation of an AIP/IgG4-RD case in which serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 were markedly reduced soon after the induction of remission, whereas those of IgG4 remained unchanged even after the successful induction of remission[53]. Identification of the IFN- α -IL-33 axis as a crucial pathogenic pathway as well as a biomarker leads us to speculate that patients with AIP and IgG4-RD can be treated with biologics targeting IFN- α as in the case of systemic lupus erythematosus[54,55].

BAFF and a proliferation-inducing ligand (APRIL) are cytokines produced by antigen-presenting cells[56]. BAFF and APRIL are crucial factors for B cell survival and thus, they promote Ig production[56]. Given that AIP and IgG4-RD are characterized by elevated concentrations of serum total IgG and IgG4, in particular, it is likely that BAFF and APRIL are involved in the immunopathogenesis of these disorders. Indeed, pDCs producing BAFF have been demonstrated in the pancreas of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD[31]. Moreover, T cell-independent class switch recombination of IgG4 Ab requires BAFF production by monocytes[26]. The involvement of B cell survival factors in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD is further supported by the high probability of successful remission induction by rituximab in patients with IgG4-RD[57]. As for the utility of BAFF and APRIL as biomarkers for AIP and IgG4-RD, serum concentrations of BAFF and APRIL were significantly higher in patients with these disorders than in healthy controls[31,58]. In addition, induction of remission by prednisolone markedly reduced serum concentrations of BAFF[58]. Therefore, measurements of serum concentrations of BAFF and APRIL might be very useful not only for the diagnosis but also for monitoring disease activity.

IL-6 is a pleiotropic cytokine associated with autoimmune responses[59]. Although serum concentrations of this cytokine were comparable in patients with chronic pancreatitis, patients with AIP/IgG4-RD, and healthy controls in our study, elevated serum IL-6 level might help to discriminate a specific type of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD. Tsukuda *et al*[60] compared clinical manifestations of patients with AIP and IgG4-RD in relation to serum concentration of IL-6. They found that hepatosplenomegaly and biliary tract involvement tended to be more prevalent in patients with high IL-6 serum level than in those with low IL-6 concentration[60]. However, we need to be cautious regarding the interpretation of these data, because hepatosplenomegaly is often seen in patients with multicentric Castleman disease, an IL-6-driven systemic

autoimmune disorder[61]. Therefore, some patients with AIP and IgG4-RD might exhibit clinical manifestations similar to those of Castleman disease.

These previous studies on innate immunity cytokines have opened up new research vistas that can facilitate identification of novel biomarkers in AIP and IgG4-RD. In particular, serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33, which faithfully reflect disease activity, may be informative diagnostic examinations in AIP and IgG4-RD[36].

CHEMOKINES AS BIOMARKERS IN AUTOIMMUNE PANCREATITIS AND IGG4-RD

AIP and IgG4-RD are characterized by Th2 responses[2-4]. The prototypical Th2 chemokine, thymus and activation-regulated chemokine, also known as CCL17, is a well-established biomarker for atopic dermatitis[62]. Given that atopic dermatitis and IgG4-RD share Th2 responses, it is likely that serum concentration of CCL17 could be a useful biomarker for IgG4-RD and AIP. Umeda *et al*[63] explored the utility of serum concentration of CCL17 as a possible biomarker for IgG4-RD (Table 1). They found that serum concentration of CCL17 was significantly higher in patients with IgG4-RD than in those with Sjogren syndrome or in healthy controls[63]. Although no association between serum concentrations of CCL17 and IgG4 Ab have been observed, those of CCL17 positively correlated with the number of affected organs. However, the utility of this chemokine as a biomarker for AIP has not been examined.

As mentioned above, production of IFN- α by pDCs is a prominent feature of AIP and IgG4-RD. Excessive IFN- α responses result in the robust production of chemokines such as C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 9 (CXCL9) and CXCL10[31]. In fact, the development of experimental AIP is accompanied by the enhanced expression of CXCL9 and CXCL10 in the pancreas[31]. The utility of CXCL9 and CXCL10 as biomarkers for AIP and IgG4-RD awaits future studies with the use of samples from patients with AIP and IgG4-RD.

CONCLUSION

AIP and IgG4-RD are newly established disease entities[2-4]. Both disorders are characterized by elevated serum concentration of IgG4 Ab and accumulation of IgG4-expressing plasma cells in the affected organs[2-4]. Moreover, the induction of remission by prednisolone is accompanied by a marked decrease in serum concentration of IgG4 Ab in patients with AIP and IgG4-RD[2-4]. Therefore, serum concentration of this IgG subtype is undoubtedly a useful biomarker for both the diagnosis and assessment of disease activity. However, a significant fraction of patients with AIP display active disease even at normal serum IgG4 Ab concentration. Recent elegant studies have shown that IgG1 rather than IgG4 plays the main pathogenic role in the development of AIP and IgG4-RD[38]. Thus, elevated IgG4 Ab responses seen in AIP and IgG4-RD are an epiphenomenon associated with chronic inflammatory reactions. Therefore, novel biomarkers based on the understanding of immunopathogenesis need to be established. We have recently found that pDCs producing IFN- α and IL-33 mediate experimental AIP and human IgG4-RD[31,32]. Interestingly, serum concentrations of IFN- α and IL-33 have been identified as potent biomarkers for the diagnosis and assessment of disease activity in AIP and IgG4-RD[36,53]. Based on recently identified biomarkers of these disorders, we propose diagnostic algorithm for patients with AIP and IgG4-RD exhibiting normal or slightly elevated concentrations of serum IgG4 Ab (Figure 3). As shown in Figure 3, measurement of serum concentrations of cytokines and autoAbs in combination with serum IgG4 Ab might be useful for the diagnosis of AIP and IgG4-RD affluent in diversity.

As our knowledge of the immunopathogenesis of AIP and IgG4-RD increases, many candidate biomarkers will likely be identified in the future. The discovery of such biomarkers will contribute to the clinical practice and advance further our understanding of AIP and IgG4-RD immunopathogenesis.

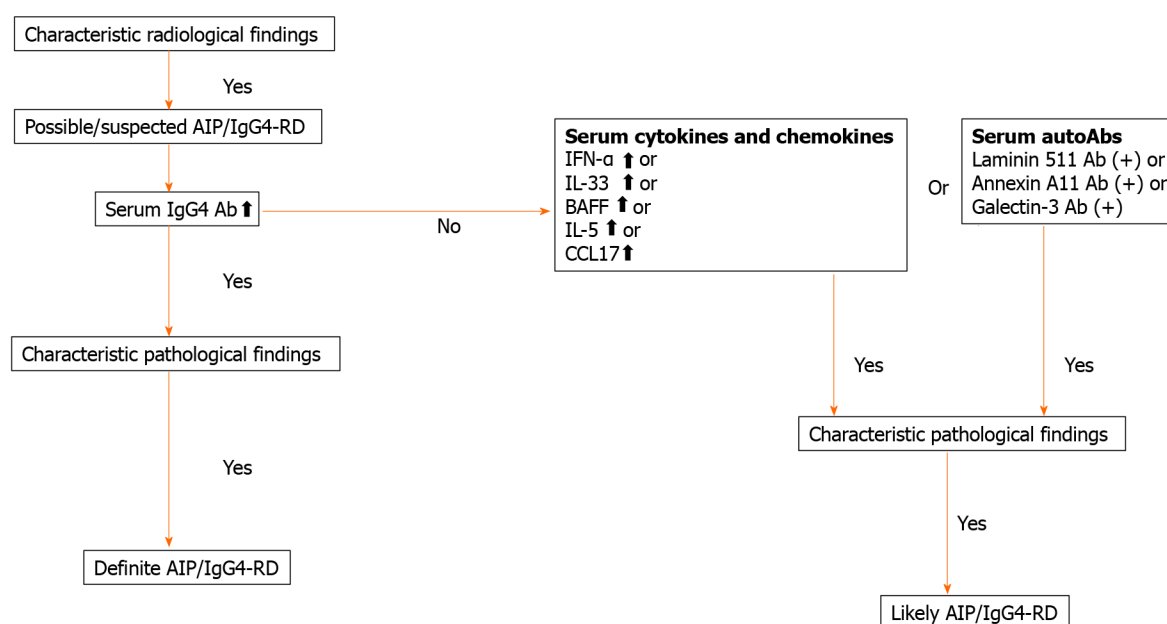


Figure 3 Diagnostic algorithm for autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4-related disease. Serum concentration of cytokines and chemokines or the presence of serum auto-antibodies may be useful for diagnosis of autoimmune pancreatitis and immunoglobulin G4 (IgG4)-related disease displaying normal or slightly elevated concentrations of IgG4. AIP: Autoimmune pancreatitis; IgG4-RD: Immunoglobulin G4-related disease; IFN: Interferon; IL: Interleukin; BAFF: B cell-activating factor; CCL17: C-C motif chemokine ligand 17.

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Receptor for advanced glycation end-products axis and coronavirus disease 2019 in inflammatory bowel diseases: A dangerous liaison?

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Abstract

Compelling evidence supports the crucial role of the receptor for advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) axis activation in many clinical entities. Since the beginning of the coronavirus disease 2019 pandemic, there is an increasing concern about the risk and handling of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infection in inflammatory gastrointestinal disorders, such as inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD). However, clinical data raised during pandemic suggests that IBD patients do not have an increased risk of contracting SARS-CoV-2 infection or develop a more severe course of infection. In the present review, we intend to highlight how two potentially important contributors to the inflammatory response to SARS-CoV-2 infection in IBD patients, the RAGE axis activation as well as the cross-talk with the renin-angiotensin system, are dampened by the high expression of soluble forms of both RAGE and the angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) 2. The soluble form of RAGE functions as a decoy for its ligands, and soluble ACE2 seems to be an additionally attenuating contributor to RAGE axis activation, particularly by avoiding the transactivation of the RAGE axis that can be produced by the virus-mediated imbalance of the ACE/angiotensin II/angiotensin II receptor type 1 pathway.

Key Words: COVID-19; Inflammatory bowel diseases; Advanced glycation; Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; Alarmins; Receptor for advanced glycation end-products; Receptor for advanced glycation end-products axis; Inflammation

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Core Tip: Data raised during the pandemic suggest that inflammatory bowel diseases do not have an increased risk of contracting severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 infection or develop a more severe course of infection. These findings are in some way unexpected considering that inflammatory bowel disease is a chronic inflammatory state of the gastrointestinal tract. We herein discuss how the receptor for advanced glycation end-products axis activation as well as the cross-talk with the renin-angiotensin system are dampened by the high expression of soluble forms of both receptor for advanced glycation end-products and angiotensin-converting enzyme 2.

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INTRODUCTION

At the end of 2019, China reported several cases of severe pneumonia of unknown cause; the coronavirus severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) was subsequently identified as the etiological agent[1]. Due to its rapid spread all over the world, the World Health Organization defined coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) as a pandemic on January 30, 2020.

The main symptoms of COVID-19 affect the lower respiratory tract, causing high mortality-rate complications such as acute distress respiratory syndrome[2-6]. However, recent reports reveal that gastrointestinal (GI) manifestations of SARS-CoV-2 infection are common clinical symptoms among patients who develop COVID-19[7-11].

The SARS-CoV-2 uses the cellular transmembrane angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) molecule as the receptor for viral cell entry. Under physiological conditions, epithelial ACE2 is widely expressed in several tissues. However, the expression of epithelial ACE2 in the terminal ileum and colon are amongst the highest in the body, which could explain why COVID-19 patients experience several GI symptoms[12-16].

Consequently, there is an increasing concern about the risk and handling of SARS-CoV-2 infection in inflammatory GI disorders, such as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). The IBDs are chronic intestinal diseases that comprise Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis, which are characterized by chronic and relapsing intestinal inflammation[17,18]. Thus, since the beginning of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, IBD patients were considered a high-risk group for increased severity and adverse outcomes in SARS-CoV-2 infection[19,20].

However, clinical data raised during pandemic suggest that IBD patients do not have an increased risk of contracting SARS-CoV-2 infection or develop a more severe course of infection[21-25]. A compelling body of both clinical and experimental evidence has shed light on the crucial role of the receptor of advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) activation in many chronic inflammatory diseases[26-31]. More recently, the role of RAGE axis activation as a key contributor in the clinical course of SARS-CoV-2 infection has been documented[32].

In the present review, we intend to highlight the role of the RAGE axis activation in the context of SARS-CoV-2 infection and the clinical evolution of the IBD patient.

RAGE AXIS

Firstly described in 1992, the RAGE is a type I single-pass transmembrane protein that can bind advanced glycation-end products (AGEs). This molecule belongs to the immunoglobulin superfamily of cell surface receptors, which is now considered as a pattern recognition receptor and is regarded as a central mediator in chronic inflammatory and immune responses[33-35].

RAGE is usually expressed at low levels in many cell types and tissues, except for the lungs. However, this expression is noticeably increased under inflammatory conditions[36-38].

Besides the transmembrane form of RAGE, several soluble isoforms of this receptor (sRAGE) are generated either by alternative splicing or by the action of membrane associated-proteases, such matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9), a disintegrin metalloproteases (ADAM)-10, and ADAM-17[39-42]. These soluble variants may function as a decoy receptor for ligands and thus prevent the interaction with the membrane-anchored full-length RAGE. In consequence, a high bioavailability of sRAGE will decrease the inflammatory responses driven by full-length RAGE activation [35,43,44]. Besides AGEs, RAGE can recognize many other ligands including the alarmin high-mobility group box 1 (HMGB1), members of the S100 protein family, glycosaminoglycans, and amyloid β peptides, among many others[35,45].

As a consequence of RAGE engagement by its ligands, multiple signaling pathways are triggered, including reactive oxygen species, p21ras, extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase 1/2 (p44/p42) mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinases, p38 and stress-activated protein kinases/c-Jun N-terminal kinase mitogen-activated protein kinases, rhoGTPases, phosphoinositol-3 kinase, and the janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription pathway, having crucial downstream inflammatory consequences such as activation of nuclear factor-kappaB (NF- κ B), AP-1, and signal transducer and activator of transcription-3[35].

Indeed, the RAGE axis signaling not only triggers pro-inflammatory gene expression but also a positive feed-forward loop, in which the inflammatory stimuli activate NF- κ B, which induces RAGE expression, following an enhanced and sustained inflammatory response[35,46-48].

RAGE AXIS ACTIVATION IN IBD

Initially, RAGE axis activation was linked to the complications of diabetes such as macro- and microvascular complications[49,50]. However, a growing body of evidence indicates RAGE as a key molecule involved in many chronic inflammatory diseases[28-30,51].

Many underlying molecular mechanisms are involved in the onset and perpetuation of the disease, particularly those fueling the robust pro-inflammatory signals found in IBD patients[26,52]. Noteworthy, some pieces of evidence reveal an increased expression of RAGE and its ligands on intestinal cells in IBD patients, especially in inflamed areas[53-55]. In this context, it is important to highlight that the release of the RAGE ligand HMGB1 and members of the S100 protein family is increased under inflammation conditions[54-57]. Thus, the engagement of RAGE may play an important role in the maintenance of intestinal injury and inflammatory environment [53-57].

Strikingly, increased levels of both MMP-9 and ADAM17 have been reported in IBD patients[58,59], and both metalloproteases are involved in RAGE shedding, thus increasing the levels of sRAGE, which in turn can modulate the inflammatory responses driven by RAGE axis activation in IBD patients[58]. At present, a compelling body of evidence supports the fact that increased sRAGE levels correlate with a decrease in the RAGE activation-mediated inflammatory responses in many clinical entities[60-63]. In this context, it is important to highlight that CD147 significantly contributes to epithelial inflammation in many clinical entities including IBD[64,65], and it has been recently shown to act as a receptor for SARS-CoV-2[66]. Noteworthy, the inhibition of RAGE activation-mediated inflammatory response leads to a reduced expression of CD147[67].

THE RENIN-ANGIOTENSIN SYSTEM

The renin-angiotensin system (RAS) is a hormonal system regulated by two complementary pathways that mediate opposing effects on inflammation, fibrosis, and cell proliferation[68-70]. Thus, the balance of both pathways determines pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory conditions among several systems such as cardiovascular, renal, and respiratory systems[71-74].

The classical pathway mediated *via* ACE, angiotensin II (Ang II) and its receptor Ang II receptor type 1 (AT1R), triggers activation of pro-inflammatory signals such as oxidative and nitrosative stresses, the induction of cytokines and cell adhesion molecules, as well as the activation of transcription factors such NF- κ B[75-78]. On the contrary, the alternative pathway predominantly mediated by ACE2, Ang (1-7) and its receptor Mas (MasR), induces the opposite effects of AT1R activation, being an anti-

inflammatory and anti-fibrotic counter regulator of the effects of ACE/Ang II/AT1R[71,75,79,80]. ACE and ACE2 are highly expressed in several tissues such as the lungs, kidneys, and blood vessels. However, the brush border of the ileum and the colon are among the tissues with the highest expression of both enzymes[13-16,81]. Both enzymes can cleave angiotensin, generating different sub-products and regulating the balance between both pathways of the RAS system[79,82,83].

RAS IMBALANCE IN IBD

Recent studies suggest high expression of the major components of both RAS pathways across the ileum and colon[81]. In this sense, the gut could be an especially susceptible organ for the imbalance of RAS pathways. Thus, the dysregulation of these components could have potential implications for inflammation and fibrosis for IBD patients[84,85]. Strikingly, several studies have revealed that the intestinal expression of ACE2 is inversely correlated with fibrosis in IBD patients[81,86].

Additionally, Ang (1-7) ameliorates colonic myofibroblast collagen secretion *via* MasR[81]. Furthermore, angiotensin receptor blockers and ACE inhibitors are reported to decrease mucosal pro-inflammatory cytokines, ameliorate colitis, and were associated with lower rates of complications, surgery, and hospitalization in patients with IBD[87-89].

Normally, ACE2 breaks down Ang II to Ang 1-7 peptide and thus avoiding the activation of the pro-inflammatory pathways of RAS. However, SARS-CoV-2 can hijack ACE2 and use it to gain entry into host cells[12,90]. Noteworthy, high bioavailability of soluble ACE2 has been reported in IBD patients[81,84], mainly ascribed to the increased level of ADAM17 observed in these patients[58,91-93], which in turn may function as a decoy receptor for SARS-CoV-2 and thus avoiding the hijacking of the counterbalancing enzyme.

This is particularly important considering that a novel ligand-independent mechanism for RAGE transactivation has been recently reported to occur following activation of the AT1R by Ang-II, thus leading to NF- κ B dependent expression of pro-inflammatory mediators[48].

RAGE AXIS ACTIVATION AND RAS IMBALANCE IN IBD PATIENTS INFECTED WITH SARS-COV-2

Contrary to what is expected, considering the pathophysiology of IBD, there is currently no evidence for an increased risk of worse clinical outcomes in patients with IBD in the context of COVID-19[21-25]. The role of the RAGE axis in the pathophysiology of IBD has been suggested by different reports[53-57]. The colonic expression of RAGE and some RAGE ligands, such as HMGB1 and some members of the S100 protein family, are significantly higher in IBD patients[54-56]. Besides, this receptor has been also considered a key contributor to the dysregulated and misdirected COVID-19 inflammatory response[32,94].

However, a counterbalancing element must be added to this scenario: The soluble RAGE. This molecule is generated by alternative splicing or by cleavage of the ectodomain of the membrane-anchored RAGE by the action of both MMP-9 and ADAM17, which are highly expressed in IBD patients[58,59]. Therefore, the high bioavailability of soluble RAGE may dampen RAGE activation, despite the abundance of both receptor and ligands in the inflamed intestinal mucosa of IBD patients.

On the other hand, the high expression of ACE2 in GI tract, especially among IBD patients, makes this tissue a particularly trophic niche for infection with SARS-CoV-2. Furthermore, the ACE2 exhaustion mediated by the entry of SARS-CoV-2 may then induce a robust RAS imbalance in favor of the pro-inflammatory ACE/Ang II/AT1R pathway[95]. These observations suggest that the inflamed gut of IBD patients represents an optimal doorway for SARS-CoV-2 entry, driving poor clinical outcomes in IBD patients who develop COVID-19.

However, this hypothetical scenario also has an important counterbalancing actor, the soluble form of ACE2, which is also increased in patients with IBD due to the shedding of the membrane-anchored ACE2 by ADAM17[58-59]. This is particularly important considering the non-cognate transactivation mechanism described for RAGE because of AT1R activation by Ang II[48], which is dampened by the preservation of membrane-associated ACE2 exhaustion by its soluble form.

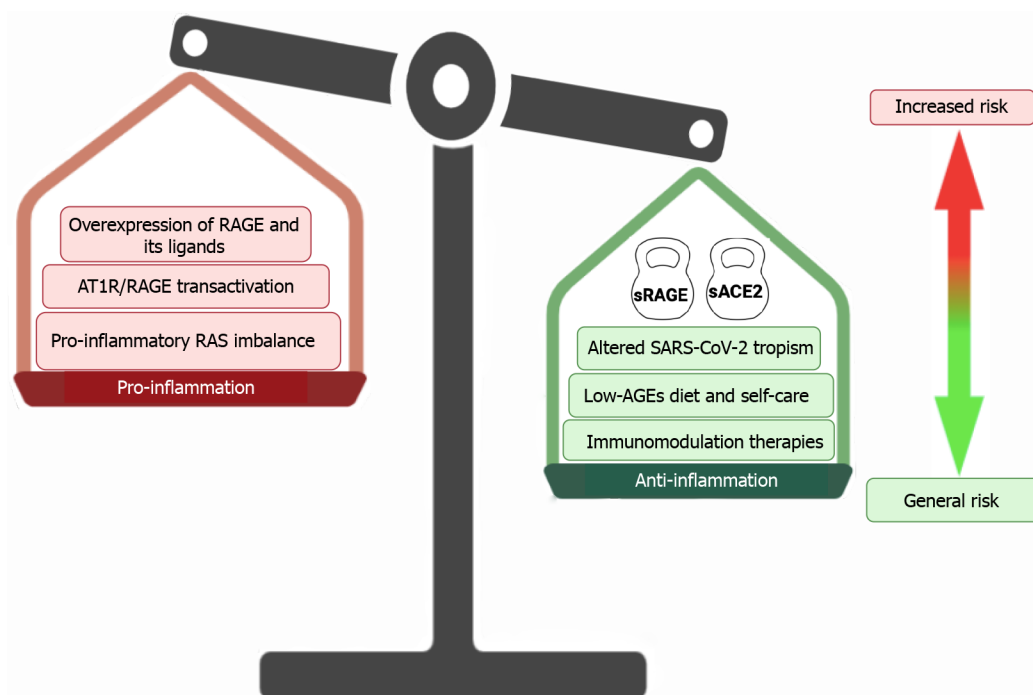


Figure 1 In inflammatory bowel diseases patients, different inflammation-prone mechanisms are known to be activated. Among them, the overexpression of receptor for advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) and the abundance of its ligands may produce a sustained activation of the axis, which can be also fueled by a non-cognate mechanism due to the pro-inflammatory rat sarcoma imbalance. These elements seem to be crucial contributors to the worsening course of inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) patients with coronavirus disease 2019. However, other elements may dampen these inflammatory contributions, such as the high bioavailability of the soluble forms of both RAGE and angiotensin-converting enzyme 2. Soluble angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 may even interfere with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 entry to epithelial cells. Additionally, most if not all IBD patients are under pharmacological treatments directed to control inflammation. IBD patients deserve special attention to their diets, and as consequence, it is likely the ingestion of dietary advanced glycation-end products is also limited. RAGE: Receptor for advanced glycation end-products; RAS: Renin-angiotensin; ACE2: Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; SARS-CoV-2: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; AT1R: Angiotensin II receptor type 1; AGEs: Advanced glycation-end products; sRAGE: Several soluble isoforms of this receptor.

A growing body of evidence demonstrates that in IBD patients the use of systemic immunosuppression is not associated with an increased risk of COVID-19 patients with IBD[96-100]. Furthermore, we must also keep in mind that the main objective of pharmacological treatments in IBD is to reduce inflammation levels. In this sense, in addition to interfering with signaling pathways, many drugs used in the current treatments also decrease the expression of RAGE and the bioavailability of some RAGE ligands, particularly the alarmins HMGB1 and S100 protein family members[96,97]. Indeed, several authors remark the possible protective role of IBD therapy against SARS-CoV-2 infection, especially through interfering with cytokine activity observed in the clinical course of COVID-19[98-100].

Additionally, the IBD patients have a high self-care standard and follow diets that help them to maintain good nutritional levels and the disease under control[101]. Some of these nutritional regimens are associated with a low-AGE diet, which may contribute to reducing the proinflammatory intestinal milieu mediated by RAGE activation[102] (Figure 1).

CONCLUSION

The COVID-19 pandemics represent the worst challenge for a century for health systems all over the world. Severity and mortality have been highest in people with underlying morbidities. Therefore, special efforts have been done to understand how SARS-CoV-2 may particularly fuel inflammation in many clinical entities where the chronicity of an inflammatory environment is a relevant part of the pathogenesis of diseases. Based on a particularly inflamed landscape depicted in IBD patients, the activation of the RAGE axis as well the RAS imbalance seem to be crucial contributors to worsen inflammation in the gut. However, data raised during the pandemic suggests that IBD patients have neither an increased risk of contracting SARS-CoV-2 infection nor developing a more severe course of infection.

RAGE axis activation seems to be dampened by the high bioavailability of soluble receptors functioning as a decoy for its ligands. Additionally, soluble ACE2 seems to be another attenuating contributor to RAGE axis activation, particularly by avoiding the transactivation of RAGE axis that can be produced by the virus-mediated imbalance of the ACE/Ang II/ AT1R pathway. Thus, RAGE axis activation in COVID-19 IBD patients does not seem to be a dangerous liaison.

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Individualized treatment options for patients with non-cirrhotic and cirrhotic liver disease

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Abstract

The obesity pandemic has led to a significant increase in patients with metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD). While dyslipidemia, type 2 diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular diseases guide treatment in patients without signs of liver fibrosis, liver related morbidity and mortality becomes relevant for MAFLD's progressive form, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), and upon development of liver fibrosis. Statins should be prescribed in patients without significant fibrosis despite concomitant liver diseases but are underutilized in the real-world setting. Bariatric surgery, especially Y-Roux bypass, has been proven to be superior to conservative and/or medical treatment for weight loss and resolution of obesity-associated diseases, but comes at a low but existent risk of surgical complications, reoperations and very rarely, paradoxical progression of NASH. Once end-stage liver disease develops, obese patients benefit from liver transplantation (LT), but may be at increased risk of perioperative infectious complications. After LT, metabolic comorbidities are commonly observed, irrespective of the underlying liver disease, but MAFLD/NASH patients are at even higher risk of disease recurrence. Few studies with low patient numbers evaluated if, and when, bariatric surgery may be an option to avoid disease recurrence but more high-quality studies are needed to establish clear recom-

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mendations. In this review, we summarize the most recent literature on treatment options for MAFLD and NASH and highlight important considerations to tailor therapy to individual patient's needs in light of their risk profile.

Key Words: Metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease; Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; Portal hypertension; Cirrhosis; Bariatric surgery; Metabolism

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Core Tip: No single therapy fits all needs, sometimes resulting in complex clinical decision making. While some etiologies can distinctly be characterized, a multifactorial disease such as metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease requires thorough assessment of comorbidities and severity of concomitant fibrosis to assess a patient's overall risk. While (guided) physical exercise is usually safe and well tolerated and strict treatment of diabetes and dyslipidemia is warranted, patients often fail to change their lifestyle, resulting in life-long drug dependency for comorbidities. Bariatric surgery has therefore become a valid option for obese patients and should be offered in eligible patients before liver fibrosis develops.

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INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, the fractional contribution of different etiologies to the total burden of chronic liver disease (CLD) has shifted. On the one hand these changes are driven by a decrease in hepatitis C virus (HCV) related morbidity which has decreased by 40% in the United States[1] and led to HCV becoming a less common indication for liver transplantation (LT) in Europe[2], a trend that will likely be seen globally in the near future. On the other hand there is a steady and significant increase in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), overall resulting in a relative shift of CLD etiologies, and an even further absolute increase in NAFLD related morbidity. While HCV related liver disease is a domain of hepatologists and transplant units, NAFLD, recently proposed to be re-named metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD)[3,4], is associated with extrahepatic diseases, such as central obesity[5], sleep apnea, type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), cardiovascular diseases, and bone and joint disorders, all contributing to relevant morbidity and affecting different specialties[6].

Mirroring the obesity pandemic and in line with CLD etiology shifts, the number of LTs due to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)-related cirrhosis, which results from progression of MAFLD, has markedly increased[1,2,7,8], with NASH already representing the second most frequent cause for LT in the United States[1,9,10]. In addition, the prevalence of hepatocellular carcinoma due to NASH is also rapidly increasing [2,8,11,12], probably resulting in an even higher need for LT due to MAFLD/NASH in the future. Thus, this review summarizes current treatment options in MAFLD, tailored to individual patient's disease stage in light of the most recent evidence. We provide a short overview of the core messages in Figure 1 and highlight several studies on the most important topics, which are discussed in further detail below, in Table 1.

NAFLD/MAFLD AND THE METABOLIC SYNDROME

MAFLD is commonly considered a hepatic manifestation of the metabolic syndrome (MS)[13,14]. It is defined as excessive hepatic fat accumulation with insulin resistance, steatosis in > 5% of hepatocytes in histological analysis (or > 5.6% by quantitative fat/water-selective magnetic resonance imaging or proton magnetic resonance

Table 1 Overview of important studies concerning the management of metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease/non-alcoholic steatohepatitis patients

	Ref.	Study design	No. of patients	Liver disease	Main findings
Diet/physical exercise	Berzigotti <i>et al</i> [57], 2017	Prospective, uncontrolled	60 (50 completed the study)	Cirrhosis, BMI ≥ 26 kg/m ² , portal hypertension	Moderate exercise was safe in patients with compensated cirrhosis Diet and moderate exercise reduced body weight and portal pressure Weight loss $\geq 10\%$ is associated with more pronounced portal pressure reduction
	Wong <i>et al</i> [55], 2018	Randomized controlled trial	154	NAFLD	Regular exercise associated with significantly more frequent remission of NAFLD (assessed by proton-magnetic MR-spectroscopy) NAFLD remission in 67% of non-overweight patients (baseline BMI < 25 kg/m ²) with lifestyle intervention
Dyslipidemia	Unger <i>et al</i> [150], 2019	Retrospective	1265	CLD	34.2% of non-advanced and 48.2% of advanced CLD patients did not receive guideline-conform statin therapy Guideline-conform statin use was associated with improved overall survival in compensated, but not in decompensated CLD patients
	Abraldes <i>et al</i> [69], 2009	Randomized controlled trial	59	Cirrhosis and portal hypertension	Simvastatin reduced portal pressure (-8.3) in both patients, who did and did not also receive beta-blockers Simvastatin improved liver perfusion The effects of simvastatin were additive to beta-adrenergic blockade
	Nelson <i>et al</i> [72], 2009	Randomized controlled trial	16	NASH	Simvastatin reduced low-density lipoprotein by 26% Simvastatin was well-tolerated Simvastatin did not histologically improve NASH (but small sample size, only $n = 10$ follow-up biopsies)
T2DM	Lavine <i>et al</i> [108], 2011	Randomized controlled trial	173	NAFLD	Sustained ALT level reduction was similar in the metformin and placebo group Metformin did not change the NAFLD activity score
	Cusi <i>et al</i> [102], 2016	Randomized controlled trial	101	NASH and prediabetes/T2DM	Significantly more patients receiving pioglitazone (59%) resolved NASH compared to placebo (23%) Pioglitazone improved fibrosis score (-0.9 vs placebo 0.0) Pioglitazone improved insulin sensitivity in liver, muscle and adipose tissue
	Armstrong <i>et al</i> [104], 2016	Randomized controlled trial	52	NASH	Significantly more patients receiving liraglutide (39%) resolved NASH compared to placebo (9%) Significantly less patients receiving liraglutide (9%) exhibited fibrosis progression compared to placebo (36%) Liraglutide was safe and well-tolerated
Bariatric surgery	Lassailly <i>et al</i> [114], 2015	Prospective	109	NASH	NASH was resolved in 85% of patients one year after surgery and even in 94% with mild NASH before surgery (assessed <i>via</i> biopsy) NASH persistence was higher in patients after gastric banding (30.4%) compared to gastric bypass (7.6%)

Post-LT	Goossens <i>et al</i> [117], 2016	Retrospective	59	NASH	NASH is an independent predictor of overall mortality after bariatric surgery NASH may reduce the overall survival benefit of bariatric surgery
	Eilenberg <i>et al</i> [118], 2018	Retrospective	10	NAFLD/NASH	Liver dysfunction, liver steatosis/fibrosis and cirrhosis may occur after bariatric surgery Lengthening of the alimentary or common limb may lead to a clinical improvement in these patients
	Krasnoff <i>et al</i> [151], 2006	Randomized controlled trial	151	Post-LT	Exercise and dietary counseling intervention improved exercise capacity and self-reported general health Adherence to the intervention was associated with positive trends in exercise capacity and body composition (% body fat)
	Zamora-Valdes <i>et al</i> [152], 2018	Prospective	29	NAFLD/NASH/obese ACLD	Patients, who received sleeve gastrectomy at the time of LT had more pronounced and sustained weight loss They also had a lower prevalences of hepatic steatosis, hypertension and insulin resistance 3 yr after LT
	Patel <i>et al</i> [139], 2019	Retrospective	495	Post-LT	Statins were underused after LT (54.3% of patients with known coronary artery disease did not receive statin therapy) Statin use was well-tolerated Statin therapy was associated with improved overall survival

BMI: Body mass index; NAFLD: Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; CLD: Chronic liver disease; NASH: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus; LT: Liver transplantation; ACLD: Advanced chronic liver disease.

spectroscopy), and exclusion of secondary causes as well as alcoholic fatty liver disease, *e.g.* daily alcohol consumption of < 30 g for men and < 20 g for women, commonly resulting in difficulties to differentiate between alcoholic fatty liver disease and MAFLD in retrospective studies[15]. The severity of MAFLD can vary, ranging from simple steatosis[16] to NASH with chronic inflammation and fibrosis to liver cirrhosis[17,18]. Unfortunately, NASH diagnosis can, to date, only be made histologically by presence of macrovesicular steatosis, ballooning degeneration of hepatocytes, scattered inflammation, and Mallory-Denk bodies[19]. This limitation has led to the search for alternative non-invasive diagnostic procedures that avoid the need for liver biopsy, reviewed by *e.g.* Paternostro *et al*[20], to identify patients that are most likely to suffer from liver-related complications[21].

Before significant fibrosis develops, however, several factors contribute to the development of MAFLD, such as nutrition[22-24], insulin resistance[25,26], adipokines [27], gut microbiota[28,29], and genetic as well as epigenetic factors[30,31]. The close association of energy metabolism and fatty liver disease is illustrated by the fact that MAFLD patients suffer from increased risk for cardiovascular disease[32,33], T2DM[34-36], as well as chronic kidney disease[37]. According to a meta-analysis by Younossi *et al*[38], 51.3% of NAFLD and 81.8% of NASH patients are obese, 22.5% and 43.6% suffer from T2DM, and 69.2% and 72.1% from dyslipidemia, respectively[38]. This indicates that neither of the diseases should be addressed in an isolated fashion as they impact each other and contribute to disease progression. Thus, MAFLD patients must be seen as metabolically multimorbid, which is reflected by increased cardiovascular mortality compared to liver-related mortality in individuals without significant liver fibrosis[38]. Once liver fibrosis develops, however, liver-related mortality becomes more relevant. Recent evidence from high quality studies suggests that concomitant fibrosis, and especially cirrhosis, rather than NASH *per se* significantly increase liver-related morbidity and mortality[39-41]. Thus, well-established tools such as transient elastography with adapted cutoff values may allow risk stratification, and identification of significant fibrosis should result in state-of-the-art therapy with a liver-centered approach[20].

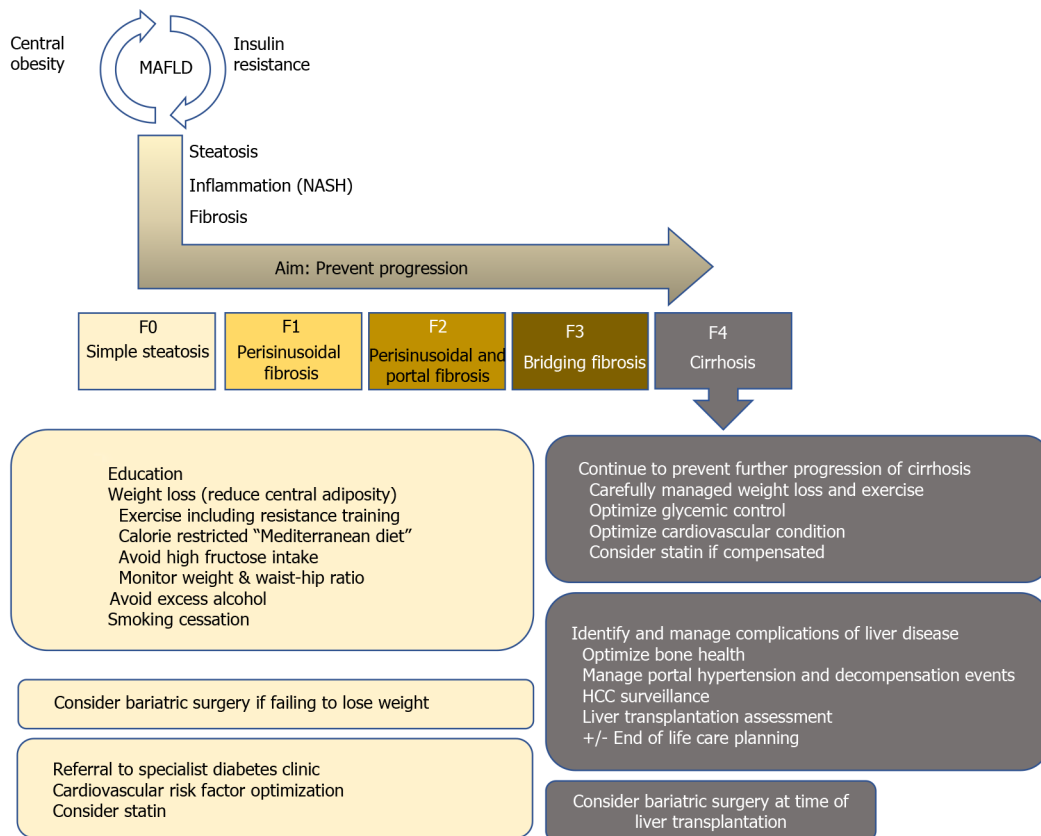


Figure 1 Treatment recommendations based on liver fibrosis severity in metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease patients. HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; MAFLD: Metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease; NASH: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis.

THERAPEUTIC OPTIONS IN MAFLD/NASH

As mentioned above, the first step in risk stratification for individual patients should be assessment of presence/absence of liver fibrosis. In case of absence of liver fibrosis, regardless of the underlying etiology, removal of the damaging agent is vital to prevent development of fibrosis and subsequent portal-hypertensive decompensation events. In MAFLD, lifestyle modifications should be seen as the cornerstone of causative treatment, as obesity, high-fat diet and physical inactivity are strongly associated with development as well as progression of the disease[42]. Unfortunately, to date, no pharmacological treatment has specifically been approved for MAFLD, and current trials on drugs for MAFLD or NASH target mostly metabolic pathways to improve insulin resistance or dyslipidemia. As of 2018, more than 300 substances were in clinical trials for MAFLD/NASH[43,44]. However, the majority of trials have fallen short of proving efficacy and the most effective, to date, are repurposed drugs such as statins[45]. In terms of newly developed compounds, a recent prospective, placebo-controlled study of obeticholic acid (OCA), which is a farnesoid X receptor agonist that was shown to decrease hepatic fibrosis and reduce inflammation in preclinical studies, found that OCA improved fibrosis severity in patients with NASH[46]. Of note, however, complete NASH resolution was not more common in patients treated with either OCA dosing intensity (placebo: 8%; OCA 10 mg daily: 11%; OCA 25 mg daily, 12%), and overall fibrosis improvement was still only achieved in approximately 1/4 of patients (fibrosis improvement of ≥ 1 stage: Placebo: 12%, OCA 10 mg daily: 18%, and OCA 25 mg daily: 23%), highlighting the complexity of NASH treatment. Nevertheless, with this first successful trial, a broader repertoire of pharmacological agents will hopefully be available in the near future.

OBESITY MANAGEMENT, DIET AND EXERCISE

Adequate therapy for obesity is of utmost relevance, as obesity *per se* independently increases the risk for cardiovascular disease[47] and independently predicted clinical decompensation in a subgroup-analysis of a placebo-controlled trial assessing beta

blockers for the prevention of esophageal varices, irrespective of the underlying etiology[48]. Furthermore, morbidly obese patients, defined as patients with a body mass index (BMI) ≥ 40 kg/m², have a significantly higher LT waiting list mortality, and benefit more from LT according to Schlansky *et al*[49], although the cause of death was not available from this United Network for Organ Sharing registry based study[49].

Lifestyle interventions are crucial, as a weight loss of 7%-10% of initial body weight is already associated with histological improvement in MAFLD with a reduction of steatosis, ballooning and lobular inflammation[50,51]. Even lower rates of sustained weight loss (about 5%) can decrease steatosis[52], liver enzymes[53] and the risk of developing T2DM[54]. Remission of MAFLD due to lifestyle interventions has also been demonstrated in non-obese patients with MAFLD[55] despite the fact that the underlying causes of lean MAFLD are unclear[56]. Guidelines suggest that the lifestyle modifications recommended to patients with MAFLD should be structured and include prescribed physical activity including resistance training, a calory restricted “Mediterranean” diet, avoidance of high fructose foods and avoidance of excess alcohol consumption. In addition, smoking cessation is important to improve the cardiovascular risk profile.

Both diet and exercise are safe in patients with compensated cirrhosis[57], have been shown to be highly effective for treatment of risk factors (cardiovascular disease and T2DM, respectively)[50,51,58], and lower portal pressure in overweight CLD patients regardless of etiology[57]. Importantly, however, recommendations for weight loss in obese NAFLD/NASH patients with cirrhosis are more cautious, as uncontrolled weight loss in decompensated patients may worsen sarcopenia and frailty[47]. Thus, diligent planning of diet and exercise is required to ensure weight loss with an adequate intake of nutrients, especially proteins. It should also be considered to be mandatory to investigate, whether patients have an indication for non-selective beta-blocker (NSBB) prophylaxis against variceal hemorrhage before enrollment into an exercise program, as NSBB counteract exercise-mediated increases of hepatic venous pressure gradient (HVPG)[59,60].

Importantly, evidence from a recently published randomized controlled trial suggests that once-weekly subcutaneous semaglutide leads to sustained and clinically relevant weight reduction (mean weight loss -14.9% in semaglutide-treated patients compared to -2.4% in the placebo group, respectively), with a more pronounced amelioration of cardiometabolic risk factors and patient-reported physical functioning in non-diabetic obese individuals[61]. Thus, these first encouraging results suggest that more effective pharmacological therapies may become available in the future.

DYSLIPIDEMIA

Dyslipidemia is a major risk factor for the development and progression of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease[62] and often presents as a comorbidity in patients with CLD[63]. Lipid profiles can be altered by liver diseases due to impaired cholesterol synthesis, leading to a seemingly improved lipid profile with CLD disease progression[63]. Nevertheless, pharmacologically, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase inhibition *via* statins is by far the most important treatment option for dyslipidemia, leading to a decrease of systemic levels of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, as well as other pleiotropic effects[64]. Generally, statins are well-tolerated, however, 10%-15% of patients experience adverse events such as myalgia with or without increase of creatin kinase[64,65]. From a liver perspective, the long-standing dogma that statin therapy is contraindicated in patients with CLD has been proven to be outdated[63]. We and others could show that in real-life settings, statins are underutilized in CLD patients[63,66]. Despite clear indications for statin utilization to reduce cardiovascular morbidity and mortality, outlined in the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association guidelines, we found that 34.2% of patients with non-advanced CLD and 48.2% patients with advanced CLD did not receive statins despite having a clear indication, and we found that guideline-conformed statin use translated to improved overall survival of compensated CLD, but not decompensated CLD patients[63]. Others have found that statins directly influence liver-specific outcome by lowering the risk of hepatic decompensation [67,68], potentially by reducing HVPG, improving hepatocyte function[69] and ameliorating sinusoidal endothelial dysfunction[70,71], overall indicating that statins should at least be prescribed in patients with non-cirrhotic CLD with cardiovascular risk profiles. In a small pilot trial, simvastatin did improve lipid profiles, but did not affect steatosis levels and necroinflammation in 16 NASH patients. However, it also

did not do any harm although results have to be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size[72].

Overall, most studies have found that, if adhering to available guidelines for statin initiation in patients without decompensated liver disease, adverse events rates are low, and the majority of studies reported beneficial effects of statins in compensated CLD, irrespective of CLD etiology[73-79].

T2DM

An association between MAFLD and T2DM is well-established[80]. MAFLD and T2DM commonly coexist[81,82] and even in T2DM patients with normal serum alanine aminotransferase levels, the prevalence of liver steatosis is high[83]. Conversely, many studies demonstrated high rates of NASH in T2DM patients[84-86], and it has also been shown that T2DM is strongly associated with liver fibrosis[87-90]. Two studies based on liver histology found that MAFLD patients with T2DM commonly develop severe fibrosis, namely 40.3% and 41.0%, respectively[85,86]. Other studies, assessing liver stiffness by transient elastography, showed that 17.7% and 5.6% of diabetic patients suffer from advanced fibrosis[91,92]. This is of high importance, as liver fibrosis is the crucial factor associated with long-term outcome in MAFLD patients[93,94] and indeed, MAFLD and T2DM synergistically lead to an increased rate of adverse outcomes[95] including increased liver-related and overall mortality[96,97].

Thus, regulation of insulin sensitivity is essential in patients with MAFLD and there is growing evidence for pharmacological treatments that are effective for treating both T2DM and MAFLD[93]. Pioglitazone, an insulin sensitizer that stimulates adipocyte differentiation by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ agonism[98], has, for example, shown beneficial effects on NAFLD. Pioglitazone reduced biopsy-assessed NAFLD severity and liver fat content in patients with[99], but also without T2DM[100] upon short-term treatment. Moreover, a randomized controlled trial showed significantly more frequent resolution of NASH in patients treated with pioglitazone (34%) than with placebo (19%)[101]. However, fibrosis was not ameliorated and also insulin resistance only partially decreased, which may be attributable to the low administered pioglitazone dose of 30 mg *per day*[93]. In another randomized controlled trial in NASH patients with T2DM or prediabetes, 45 mg pioglitazone *per day* improved histological NAFLD activity score, fibrosis and insulin sensitivity[102]. Importantly, side effects of pioglitazone include weight gain, fluid retention with increased risk of congestive heart failure, as well as decrease of bone mineral density, resulting in atypical fractures[98], which has to be actively screened for when prescribing pioglitazone in MAFLD patients.

Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) receptor agonists also represent a valuable treatment option for patients with MAFLD, as they improve glucose-dependent insulin secretion, but also promote weight loss and lower liver transaminase levels[103]. In a pilot trial, subcutaneous liraglutide decreased liver fat content and was associated with more frequent NASH resolution, as compared to placebo (39% *vs* 9%)[104]. In contrast, metformin, the first-line T2DM medication, does not consistently improve hepatic steatosis or inflammation in patients with NASH[105-109]. Overall, however, antidiabetic drugs show great promise for treatment of MAFLD/NASH (and weight loss) but more adequately designed randomized controlled trials, are needed.

BARIATRIC SURGERY AND MAFLD/NASH REGRESSION

As mentioned above, the co-existence of several metabolic diseases, summarized as metabolic syndrome, has led to the development of invasive/surgical treatment options. While bariatric surgery was a niche phenomenon for several years, its benefit with regards to weight loss and subsequent improvement of insulin resistance/T2DM is established by now[110]. Moreover, due to improved success rates with regards to weight loss compared to conservative approaches, bariatric surgery patients have a significantly better 10-year[111] and 20-year overall survival than comparable patients that were treated conservatively, although, despite this improvement, their life expectancy is still lower than the general population's[112]. Recent evidence suggests that the major benefit results from weight loss itself and is not attributed to any other metabolic effects of bypass surgery. These assumptions come from a study that compared patients with Y-Roux bypass to patients who lost the same amount of

weight by dietary/lifestyle changes and observed similar effects, indicating that bypass surgery *per se* does not alter metabolism more than weight loss itself[113]. In terms of liver-specific outcomes, bariatric surgery has not been taken into account as treatment option in several meta-analyses on NASH resolution, despite available properly designed studies. In general, bariatric surgery results in resolution of NASH in the majority of patients (85% in a study by Lassailly *et al*[114], with 64.2% of patients undergoing bypass surgery and 5.5% of sleeve gastrectomy) and regression of fibrosis[114]. However, not all procedures are equal, and Y-Roux bypass is considered to be the most effective strategy for sustainable weight loss to date[115]. A recent hierarchical network meta-analysis included 48 high-quality trials and found that pioglitazone and Y-Roux gastric bypass had the best effect on improvement of NAFLD Activity Score[116], suggesting a causative connection between glucose metabolism and fatty liver development. While bariatric surgery impacts on NASH, NASH and liver fibrosis, expectedly, also impact on postoperative outcome after bariatric surgery[117]. This, again, highlights that metabolic diseases do not exist as isolated diseases but must be treated together. Importantly, bariatric surgery is only offered to severely obese patients, while the general population is often overweight, but not obese, and thus not eligible for surgery, warranting further basic research studies disentangling the mechanisms of MAFLD/NASH development. Noteworthy, a very small fraction of patients develops NASH or suffers from NASH/fibrosis aggravation after bariatric surgery, requiring adequate post-operative care for early detection of complications and further emphasizing the need for ongoing research[118]. Considering that bariatric surgery is increasingly utilized, prospective studies answering the remaining questions on the connection of insulin resistance, fatty liver, and fibrosis progression should become available in the near future.

OBESITY AND MAFLD/NASH BEFORE AND AFTER LT

In general, patients with cirrhosis/end-stage liver disease should be managed according to available guidelines for the treatment of portal hypertension, as liver-related mortality is the main cause of death in end-stage liver disease, with special regard to the above-mentioned pitfalls in obese patients[119]. According to the 2018 Organ Procurement and Transplantation Network/Scientific Registry of Transplant Recipients LT report, 36.9% of adult patients undergoing LT were obese [BMI (30 kg/m²) including 14.8% with a BMI of more than 35 (kg/m²)[120]. Despite the caveat that BMI is not an ideal parameter in patients with end-stage liver disease due to ascites, these data still highlight obesity as an important comorbidity in LT. Due to increasing experience in treatment of these patients, morbid obesity [BMI (40 kg/m²)] is no longer seen as a contraindication for LT[47], as morbidly obese patients clearly profit from LT[49,121]. However, specific challenges include technical difficulties during surgery, as well as higher morbidity in the postoperative course, especially due to an increased risk of infections[122-125]. Ultimately, these challenges translate to an increased 30 d mortality[126]. However, outcomes seem to be gradually improving, as Schlansky *et al*[49] could detect impaired post-OP survival before but not after 2007[49]. In terms of long-term outcomes of NASH LT recipients, survival rates are comparable to other etiologies despite the fact that Malik *et al*[127] found an alarming 50% 1-year mortality rate among obese NASH patients ≥ 60 years old with T2DM and arterial hypertension[127]. Thus, pre-transplant work-up warrants extensive risk-benefit evaluation on a case-to-case basis before listing for LT to avoid unexpected complications[128].

Following LT, weight gain is common irrespective of the underlying CLD and type of transplanted organ. In general, approximately one in three LT recipients becomes overweight or obese within 3 years[129] and decreased physical activity, excess energy intake and older age favor development of sarcopenic obesity with increased risk of cardiovascular and metabolic comorbidities[130,131]. Although a clear research agenda has been set out in 2014 by the American Society for Transplantation[132], outcome measures are heterogeneous, and liver transplant recipients are underrepresented in these studies. A recent review of 2 observational and 3 randomized controlled trials by Dunn *et al*[133] reported that exercise intervention groups generally performed better at strength testing, energy expenditure in metabolic equivalents, and peak or maximal oxygen uptake[133]. An even more recently published prospective study reported that financial incentives resulted in more patients achieving their target of > 7000 steps *per day*, which, however, did not translate into less weight gain[134]. Another study using a smartphone app found that

35% of participants significantly increased their physical performance, but did not report whether this translated into an outcome benefit[135]. Thus, despite positive impacts on surrogate parameters, little to no high-quality evidence is available on whether exercise directly affects overall survival or liver related outcome after transplantation.

Similar to a lack of high-quality data on exercise programs, more prospective studies are needed to evaluate the effect of bariatric surgery at the time of LT. Recently, a meta-analysis of available studies on bariatric surgery during or after LT found that sleeve gastrectomy is the most commonly performed procedure and that bariatric surgery-related morbidity and mortality rates were 37% and 0.6%, respectively. Regarding outcome parameters, BMI was significantly lower in bariatric surgery patients 2 years after LT, with significantly lower rates of arterial hypertension and diabetes mellitus[136]. Of note, however, prospective randomized studies are needed to compare whether the benefits outweigh the risks in terms of overall outcome, which poses several difficulties in this setting.

In addition to weight gain, prevalence of dyslipidemia is high in the post-LT setting and affects approximately 40%-70%[137]. Partly, dyslipidemia and impaired glucose tolerance are metabolic adverse effects of immunosuppressants such as calcineurin inhibitors, mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitors and corticosteroids[8,138]. Thus, statins are commonly used after LT, however, data regarding statin therapy and potential effects on portal pressure and hepatocyte function in the post-transplant setting are scarce and a clear guideline for post-transplant statin use is not available[138]. Nevertheless, it has been shown that dyslipidemia is linked to increased morbidity and mortality in LT recipients and recently, a study by Patel *et al*[139] demonstrated good tolerance of statins and a survival benefit of statin-treated patients after LT, favoring statin use also in this setting[139]. Moreover, experimental studies in rats have demonstrated a graft-protecting effect of statins, when added to the cold storage solution[140,141]. Overall, prospective high-quality studies defining cut-offs are lacking, but available evidence suggests beneficial effects of statins in the post-LT setting.

Despite ameliorated glycogen synthesis, only few patients exhibit improved insulin sensitivity after LT[8]. Contrarily, 10% to 30% of patients suffer from new onset T2DM after LT, which is linked to the use of corticosteroids and tacrolimus[142,143]. In the immediate post-transplant period, insulin is considered the safest and most effective choice for anti-hyperglycemic therapy[144-147]. For the management of persistent T2DM after LT, however, evidence is scarce. A recent meta-analysis concluded that safety and efficacy cannot be concluded for various anti-hyperglycemic agents in the post-transplant setting, as the available studies are not of high enough quality[148]. Thus, anti-hyperglycemic therapy after the first-line metformin should be selected according to patient preference, as well as clinical characteristics such as presence of chronic kidney disease, heart failure or obesity[147,149].

AUTHOR'S PERSPECTIVE

MAFLD/NASH is a complex disease entity that poses challenges for clinical practice and requires interdisciplinary management for optimal patient care. In recent years, several novel concepts have been established, and bariatric surgery has been proven to be an effective treatment option. Additionally, recent trial results suggest that novel therapeutics, or repurposed drugs, may be effective to improve MAFLD or achieve sustainable weight loss and potentially secondary improvement of MAFLD/NASH. Thus, the multifactorial nature of the disease and the interconnectedness of different aspects require up-to-date knowledge, especially as more therapeutics will likely become available. These developments require an individualized treatment plan and should be based on patients' preferences, as compliance is of utmost importance.

In patients with advanced CLD or end-stage NASH, eligibility assessment for LT should be conducted in due time. Once patients undergo orthotopic LT, metabolic comorbidities should be closely monitored and adequately treated. In the future, the special metabolic vulnerability of LT patients will become even more relevant, as NASH as indication for LT is rapidly increasing, emphasizing the importance of future trials in this special patient population.

CONCLUSION

With the growing obesity epidemic and the rising prevalence of MAFLD/NASH, management of patients with CLD has become quite complex. MAFLD/NASH patients are often multimorbid, exhibiting various features of the metabolic syndrome, which altogether increase the risk of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. In the early stages of liver disease without signs of liver fibrosis (MAFLD), management of comorbidities guides the therapy, while in patients who develop NASH and liver fibrosis, liver-related complications and mortality become relevant.

Unfortunately, there is a general lack of high-quality studies reporting important end points, such as fibrosis severity, which impedes comparability of the available results. Lifestyle interventions such as specific diets and exercise represent an etiological treatment for MAFLD/NASH patients and have been proven to be safe even for patients with cirrhosis and portal hypertension. Moreover, it has been shown that even moderate weight loss can lead to histological improvement, making lifestyle intervention an essential part of MAFLD/NASH management. Bariatric surgery is superior for weight loss of morbidly obese patients compared to conservative weight loss regimen, however, the risk of bariatric surgery is higher in patients with CLD and in some patients, severe liver dysfunction after bariatric surgery does occur.

Statins should be prescribed for all compensated patients with dyslipidemia or other risk factors like cardiovascular disease, but are heavily underutilized. While there is evidence that statin therapy is safe and also effective in MAFLD/NASH patients, large randomized controlled trials are still lacking. Concerning T2DM therapy, new anti-hyperglycemic agents such as pioglitazone or GLP-1 agonists are promising, but specific side effects may be detrimental and have to be considered. Metformin remains the first-line antihyperglycemic therapy.

Once end-stage liver disease has developed, obese patients benefit from LT, but also have increased perioperative risk, especially due to infections. After LT, metabolic complications are common. However, to date, there is little high-quality data concerning management of post-LT dyslipidemia and T2DM. Randomized controlled trials are needed to ensure the best possible care for these patient groups.

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Clinical characteristics and outcomes of patients with hepatic angiomyolipoma: A literature review

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Abstract

First reported in 1976, hepatic angiomyolipoma (HAML) is a rare mesenchymal liver tumor occurring mostly in middle-aged women. Diagnosis of the liver mass is often incidental on abdominal imaging due to the frequent absence of specific symptoms. Nearly 10% of HAMLs are associated with tuberous sclerosis complex. HAML contains variable proportions of blood vessels, smooth muscle cells and adipose tissue, which renders radiological diagnosis hazardous. Cells express positivity for HMB-45 and actin, thus these tumors are integrated into the group of perivascular epithelioid cell tumors. Typically, a HAML appears on magnetic resonance imaging (or computed tomography scan) as a hypervascular solid tumor with fatty areas and with washout, and can easily be misdiagnosed as other liver tumors, particularly hepatocellular carcinoma. The therapeutic strategy is not clearly defined, but surgical resection is indicated for symptomatic patients, for tumors showing an aggressive pattern (*i.e.*, changes in size on imaging or high proliferation activity and atypical epithelioid pattern on liver biopsy), for large (> 5 cm) biopsy-proven HAML, and if doubts remain on imaging or histology. Conservative management may be justified in other conditions, since most cases follow a benign clinical course. In summary, the correct diagnosis of HAML is challenging on imaging and relies mainly on pathological findings.

Key Words: Angiomyolipoma; Liver; Tuberous sclerosis complex; Imaging; Pathology;

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Core Tip: Hepatic angiomyolipoma (HAML) is a rare, but not exceptional, mesenchymal liver tumor. HAML contains variable proportions of blood vessels, smooth muscle cells and adipose tissue, which renders its radiological diagnosis challenging. In most cases, this tumor follows a benign clinical course but more aggressive behavior may complicate management, which remains poorly codified. This review presents the main demographic and histological characteristics of HAML, summarizes reported cases of HAML with spontaneous rupture and aggressive behavior, and finally proposes a pragmatic algorithm for the management of HAML based on the most recent knowledge.

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INTRODUCTION

Angiomyolipoma (AML) is a solid mesenchymal tumor, mainly described in the kidney, and belongs to the group of perivascular epithelioid cell tumors (PEComas)[1]. Hepatic localization of AML, described for the first time in 1976[2], is rare, since only around 600 cases were reported after an exhaustive search of the literature up to the year 2017[3]. Hepatic AML (HAML) poses a veritable diagnostic challenge in radiological terms, especially when fat content is low, because this type of tumor may appear as a hypervascular tumor associated with a washout phase that mimics other, more common hypervascular hepatic tumors, such as hepatocellular carcinoma[4-7]. The natural course of HAML is mostly benign, although several cases have been reported to exhibit aggressive behavior with metastasis or recurrence after surgery[8-24], or spontaneous rupture[8,25-33]. These rare but dramatic observations unavoidably compound the complexity of managing patients with HAML. Due to its difficult radiological diagnosis, its potentially aggressive behavior, and its poorly codified management, we aimed to analyze the recent literature regarding this rare, but not exceptional liver tumor, and to provide a pragmatic algorithm for its management according to the most recent knowledge.

PATIENT CHARACTERISTICS

HAML is a tumor usually occurring in a non-cirrhotic liver, and mainly affects middle-aged women. A retrospective analysis of the literature carried out up to 2016 identified 292 patients with one or more HAML, and most of them (nearly 74%) were women, with a median age ranging between 24 years and 53 years across studies[3]. HAML mainly locates in the right liver (60% of cases[7]), is unique in 84% of cases, and median size ranges from 2 cm to 12.7 cm[3,34]. This type of tumor is often detected incidentally during medical check-ups (42% to 72% of cases) since most subjects are asymptomatic[3,34,35]. Symptoms revealing HAML may include abdominal pain or discomfort, bloating, weight loss or, more rarely, discovery of an abdominal mass on palpation[35]. A few cases of spontaneous rupture of HAML have been reported (Table 1)[8,25-33]. Tumor size (≥ 4 cm) and pregnancy are two recognized conditions favoring rupture of renal AML[36,37], but the small number of reported cases of HAML rupture precludes identification of predictors of rupture in the liver. In the ten cases reported in Table 1, tumor size was usually large, between 5 cm and 12 cm (except for one case due to an inflammatory variant of HAML with a subcapsular location[32]), and there was no age preference (mean age: 48 years; range: 22 years to 77 years). All patients underwent emergent or delayed resection of the tumor,

Table 1 Cases of spontaneous rupture of hepatic angiomyolipoma

Ref.	Sex	Age, yr	Symptoms	Abdominal radiological findings	Treatment	Outcomes
Huber <i>et al</i> [25] 1996	F	22	Hemorrhagic shock with clinical symptoms of acute abdomen	CT scan: multiple tumors of the liver (the largest in segment III measured 8 cm) and both kidneys and a splenic lesion with a diameter of 4 cm	Surgical resection of segments II and III	Postoperative course was uneventful. Discharge from hospital 12 d later
Guidi <i>et al</i> [26] 1997	M	74	Sudden onset of upper-quadrant pain	CT scan: liver tumor of 10 cm × 8 cm in the segments I and V and another small mass of 4 cm × 3 cm in segment IV. Fluid was present in the upper abdominal compartments	Surgical resection of the hemorrhagic hepatic mass	Postoperative course was uneventful. Discharge from hospital 8 d later
Tsui <i>et al</i> [27] 1999	F	41	Acute rupture of a subcapsular tumor	9 cm	Surgical resection	Patient in healthy condition 4 yr after surgery
Zhou <i>et al</i> [28] 2008	ND	ND	Hemorrhagic shock	Ultrasonography showed a 5-cm "cavernous hemangioma" in the right hepatic lobe	Emergency laparotomy for hemostasis	No tumor recurrence or metastasis was found during follow-up of 2-3 yr
Ding <i>et al</i> [8] 2011	F	56	ND	A rupture of the tumor measuring 6 cm × 6 cm in segment VI was confirmed by emergent laparotomy	Liver suture followed by segmentectomy	No serious morbidity in the postoperative course
Occhionorelli <i>et al</i> [29] 2013	F	25	Sudden onset of abdominal upper-quadrant pain and hypotension, after two recent syncopal episodes	CT scan showed a hepatic tumor in the left lobe (8.6 cm × 7.2 cm) with suspected peritoneal blood leakage	Hemorrhage initially managed by manual compression, followed by deep and pro-coagulant tissue adhesives. After 48 hours, the patient underwent left-liver lobectomy	Postoperative course was uneventful. Discharge from hospital 9 d later
Aoki <i>et al</i> [30] 2014	F	70	Sudden onset of back pain on the right side	CT scan: hepatic tumor in segment VII measuring 7 cm in diameter accompanied by subcapsular hematoma with extravasation	Transcatheter arterial embolization. Right hepatic lobectomy was carried out 39 d later	Five days after surgery, she had thrombi in the left popliteal vein and the left pulmonary artery. Insertion of an IVC filter which was removed due to sepsis. She was discharged 24 d after surgery. There was no recurrence 42 mo following surgery
Tajima <i>et al</i> [31] 2014	M	38	Upper abdominal pain	CT scan showed a tumor measuring 10.5 cm × 9.5 cm × 7 cm in the posterior segment of the right hepatic lobe that had ruptured into the space between the liver and the diaphragm	Transcatheter arterial embolization was performed. The patient developed fever and the hematoma surrounding the liver was drained. No infection was confirmed but right lobectomy was performed	ND
Kai <i>et al</i> [32] 2015	F	77	Sudden abdominal pain and transient loss of consciousness	CT scan: hemoperitoneum with subcapsular hematoma at the left lobe and a hepatic nodule measuring 2.3 cm in diameter in segment II	Conservative initial treatment with periodic imaging studies. Transcatheter arterial chemoembolization was performed because a diagnosis of HCC was suggested. Surgical resection (laparoscopic left lateral segmentectomy) was performed 4 mo later	Postoperative course was uneventful. Discharge from hospital 7 d later No signs of recurrence at 3.5 yr after surgery
Kim <i>et al</i> [33] 2017	M	31	Sudden onset severe abdominal pain in the right upper quadrant area	CT scan: Mass of approximately 12 cm in the right hepatic lobe with hemorrhage along the perihepatic space	Emergent angiography with embolization. Hepatic resection was performed 15 d later	Postoperative course was uneventful

F: Female; M: Male. ND: Not determined; CT: Computed tomography; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; IVC: Inferior vena cava.

sometimes preceded by preoperative embolization. Routine laboratory tests (including liver tests) are usually normal, as are serum tumor markers (alpha-fetoprotein, carcinoembryonic antigen and carbohydrate antigen 19-9[38].

The association between tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) and renal AML, first described in 1911[39], is observed in 50% of cases, while the association between TSC and HAML is only observed in 5% to 15% of cases[3,40]. TSC is an autosomal dominant genetic disorder with a birth incidence of 1:6000[41], although sporadic cases due to *de novo* mutation are the most frequent presentation in the absence of a family history. TSC results from a mutation of *TSC1* or *TSC2*, which code for hamartin and tuberlin, respectively[42]. These proteins are critical regulators of cell growth and proliferation, potentially through their upstream modulator, mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR). Loss of function or dysfunction of either protein results in the development of hamartomas in numerous organ systems, including the brain, kidneys, heart and liver[43]. In patients with TSC, HAML is frequently associated with renal AML. A recent retrospective study showed that among 25 patients with HAML, 88% also had renal AML, and *TSC2* patients had a higher frequency of HAML compared to *TSC1* patients (18% *vs* 5%; $P = 0.037$)[42]. In contrast to previous reports, the predominance of female gender observed in patients with HAML but no TSC was not observed in patients with the TSC-HAML association[42,44].

IMMUNOHISTOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HAML

Histological examination is the gold standard for HAML diagnosis, since diagnosis by imaging is difficult. Of note, even histological analysis of liver biopsy was shown to misdiagnose HAML in about 15% of cases in a recent multicenter study[34]. The World Health Organization defines PEComas as “mesenchymal tumors containing distinctive perivascular epithelioid cells”. AML, which belongs to the PEComa group, is composed of adipose tissue, smooth muscle and vessels with dystrophic walls (Figure 1). The histological and immunohistochemical characteristics class HAML in the group of PEComas, an entity that brings together tumors of different histology, but with a common immunohistochemical signature, namely co-expression of melanocytic and muscle markers (see below)[1,40,45]. The PEComa family includes AML, clear cell “sugar” tumor of the lung, lymphangiomyomatosis (LAM), and a variety of unusual visceral, intra-abdominal, and soft tissue/bone tumors, described under the term “clear cell myomelanocytic tumor of the falciform ligament/Ligamentum teres”[46]. There is a strong association between AML and TSC, and between LAM and TSC[47], although the link is less marked for other members of the PEComa family[46].

Perivascular epithelioid cells are characterized by their perivascular location, often with a radial arrangement of cells around vessels. Typically, these cells are mostly epithelioid when they are just around the vessels, whereas spindle cells resembling smooth muscle are seen further away from the vessels. In the liver, the aspect is most often only epithelioid without spindle cells. Adipose cells are usually found distant from the blood vessels. Wide variation is seen in the relative proportion of epithelioid, spindle, and lipid-distended cells. Depending on the relative proportion of these different tissues, there are, on the one hand, conventional AMLs with a predominance of lipomatous or myomatous cells or vessels, and, on the other hand, epithelioid AMLs containing at least 10% epithelioid cells[48]. Mixed and myomatous AMLs are the most frequent (respectively 36% and 42% of the 151 HAML cases with informative data)[3]. Another subtype of HAML, namely inflammatory HAML, has also been recognized, although only 14 cases have been reported in the English-language literature[49]. Overall, this tumor is characterized by inflammatory infiltration exceeding 50% of tumor area, and the main types of inflammatory cells are lymphocytes (100%), plasma cells (93%) and histiocytes (71%)[49].

Macroscopically, HAML is well circumscribed, unencapsulated, smooth and brownish in color; however, the existence of hemorrhage or intra-tumor necrosis can change its appearance. On microscopic examination, cells typically have clear or slightly eosinophilic cytoplasm, small, central, round or oval nuclei, with a small nucleolus. “Atypical” AML presents cytological atypia, a multinucleated nucleus, focal necrosis and an increase in the number of mitoses[48].

By immunohistochemistry, these tumors are positive for both melanocytic markers (HBM-45 and melan-A are the more sensitive markers) and smooth muscle markers (actin and/or desmin) with variable extent of staining[46,50]. HBM-45 is the most specific marker of AML[38]. Actin non-immunoreactivity does not exclude a tumor from the PEComa group[51]. Classically, AML does not express epithelial markers (like cytokeratin), S100 protein or alpha-fetoprotein[52]. Estrogen and progesterone receptors are frequently positive in classic renal AML but are only rarely positive in

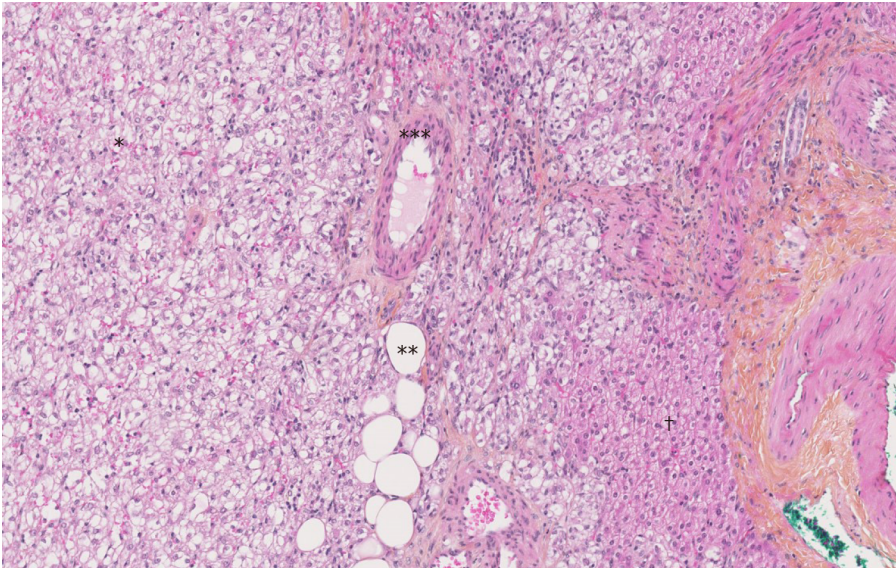


Figure 1 The Hematoxylin-Eosin-Saffron staining image of hepatic angiomyolipoma. There are three components of hepatic angiomyolipoma: vessel (*), adipocytes (**) and numerous epithelioid cells (***). There are fewer hepatocytes (†) (magnification $\times 10$).

extrarenal PEComas, including HAML, suggesting the absence of the role of sex hormones in the pathogenesis and growth of HAML, despite a clear predominance in women[45,53].

There are numerous possible differential diagnoses of PEComas depending on the location and the predominant tissue composing the tumor. Given their uniform expression of melanocytic markers, PEComas may be confused with both conventional melanoma and clear cell sarcoma, but these latter typically have strong expression of S100 protein, and do not stain with smooth muscle actin. Due to its preferential abdominal location, the presence of epithelioid and spindle cells, and the occasional positive KIT (CD117) staining in HAML, the diagnosis of gastrointestinal stromal tumor is sometimes discussed. Depending on the size of the contingent of epithelioid cells, spindle-shaped cells or adipocytes, AML can also be confused with carcinoma, smooth muscle neoplasm or adipocytic tumor[45,54].

PROGNOSIS

The scarcity of PEComas precludes the identification of robust criteria to discriminate benign AML from other tumors with more aggressive behavior. The first description of a likely “malignant” HAML is recent[55], and although the authors do not clearly indicate the malignant nature of this tumor, the reported characteristics (*i.e.*, large size, cytological atypia and presence of necrosis) and the tumor-related death of the patient are robust arguments in favor of a “malignant” case. From a series of 24 PEComas of the soft tissue and gynecologic tract (not including AML) with a median follow-up of 30 mo (range: 10-84), Folpe *et al*[46] observed 3 local recurrences and 5 distant metastases (8/24, 33% of cases), 2 deaths (8%), 4 patients (17%) alive with metastatic or unresectable local disease, and 18 patients (75%) alive with no evidence of disease. A combined analysis of these 24 cases plus 45 other reported cases in the literature with sufficient available follow-up information identified the following variables associated with an increased risk of recurrence or metastasis: tumor size greater than 5 cm, infiltrative growth pattern, high nuclear grade, necrosis, and mitotic activity $> 1/50$ high power field. Consequently, these authors developed a provisional classification of PEComas with increasing aggressive potential (Table 2). Cases of HAML with aggressive behavior are reported in Table 3[8-24]. Regarding HAML, it is mainly the epithelioid type that confers a risk of aggressive behavior[34]. In the review published in 2017, the mortality rate associated with HAML was 0.8%[3].

Imaging findings

The imaging features of HAML vary greatly depending on the highly variable proportion of fat, smooth muscle and vascular elements. Diagnosis can be challenging, and depends mainly on the amount of fat present, which is the key to HAML

Table 2 Classification of perivascular epithelioid cell tumors according to their malignant potential[1,27]

Classification	Criteria
Benign	No worrisome features: (1) Tumor size < 5 cm; (2) No infiltration; (3) Non-high nuclear grade and cellularity; (4) Mitotic activity $\leq 1/50$ HPF; (5) No necrosis; and (6) No vascular invasion
Uncertain malignant potential	Tumor with: (1) Pleomorphism/multinucleated giant cells only; or (2) Size > 5 cm only
Aggressive behavior	Two or more worrisome features: (1) Size > 5 cm; (2) Peripheral infiltration; (3) High nuclear grade and cellularity; (4) Mitotic activity > 1/50 HPF; (5) Ischemic tumor necrosis for large tumor; and (6) Vascular invasion
According to the WHO classification of tumors[1]	As with GISTs, the main predictors of a risk of metastatic behavior are marked nuclear atypia, diffuse pleomorphism and mitotic activity of more than 1 mitosis per 1 mm ²

GIST: Gastrointestinal stromal tumor; HPF: High-power field.

diagnosis. On ultrasound, the lesion is usually well circumscribed, hyperechoic or mixed echoic and after injection of ultrasound contrast, presents rapid enhancement in the arterial phase compared to the adjacent liver. In the portal and delayed phase, HAML can display either hypo, iso or hyperenhancement[4]. Computed tomography (CT) shows a hypodense tumor with fatty areas within the lesion (density around -50 HU). Classically, this solid tumor is hypervascular (Figure 2) with wash-out in the portal and late portal phase [CT or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)]. HAML with few or no vessels on histologic examination show persistent portal and late-phase enhancement, whereas HAML with richly vascularized tissue is more likely to show wash-out[5]. The tumor signal on MRI is hyperintense in T2 weighted sequences and variable in T1 weighted sequences. MRI is the most sensitive imaging technique to detect liver fat using in-phase and opposed-phase T1 gradient echo sequences. The drop-out signal within a liver lesion on the opposed-phase sequences indicates the presence of fat within the lesion (Figure 3A and B). The imaging features on MRI after injection of contrast medium are similar to those observed on CT scan. When using a hepatocyte specific agent (gadoxetic acid or gadobenate dimeglumine), the lesion shows a hyposignal in the hepatobiliary phase (Figure 4).

Data regarding HAML evaluation using fluorine-18-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography (¹⁸F-FDG-PET) are limited. FDG uptake in HAML is variable and the value of ¹⁸F-FDG-PET for diagnosing or managing this type of tumor is unclear[56].

Given the imaging characteristics of HAML (hypervascular lesion with a fat component in a healthy liver and with frequent wash-out), differential diagnoses are benign hepatocytic tumors (steatotic or telangiectasia adenoma, fat focal nodular hyperplasia) and malignant hepatocytic tumors (mainly hepatocellular carcinoma). When the diagnosis is challenging, especially with hepatocellular carcinoma, the absence of a capsule and the visualization of a drainage vein are two useful radiological features that can be helpful for HAML diagnosis when they are present[6].

MANAGEMENT OF HAML

Due to its rarity, the diagnosis of HAML on imaging (and even histological examination[34]) is difficult. Consequently, the clinical management of HAML patients should take place in expert centers for a multidisciplinary work-up involving radiologists, pathologists and hepatologists. Obtaining a liver biopsy is strongly advised to better balance the risk of surgery (resection of centrohepatic tumor will be at higher risk, for instance) against the risk of tumor-related complications. Thus, in the presence of asymptomatic HAML, without cytological atypia on biopsy, but at high risk of complicated resection, regular radiological monitoring will be preferred[34].

Analysis of the literature shows that the majority of patients are treated with surgical resection (84% and 76% of patients in two large case series[3,34]). For other patients, regular radiological monitoring is justified by the uncertainty surrounding the risk of HAML progression. Although the risk of tumor recurrence after resection or metastases has rarely been described, the identification of radiological and especially histological factors predicting an unfavorable course (Table 1) is essential for a collegial therapeutic decision. Furthermore, patient compliance with regular radiological monitoring will also be an important argument in decision-making[3,35].

Table 3 Reported cases of hepatic angiomyolipoma with aggressive behavior

Ref.	Sex	Age, yr	Size	Types	Treatment	Duration of follow-up	Outcome
Croquet <i>et al</i> [9] 2000	F	16	19 cm × 12 cm × 8 cm	Epithelioid	SR	6 yr	Recurrence in the liver, associated with renal angiomyolipoma
Dalle <i>et al</i> [10] 2000	F	70	15 cm	Epithelioid	SR	5 mo	Recurrence in the liver with a lesion measuring 15 cm and presence of multiple metastases in the liver
Flemming <i>et al</i> [11] 2000	F	51	2 nodules: 0.5 cm and 15 cm	Epithelioid	SR	3 yr	Recurrence in the right hepatic lobe and presence of multiple metastases
McKinney <i>et al</i> [12] 2005	F	14	11 cm × 7 cm × 8 cm	NS	SR, interferon α	1 yr	Recurrence with a hepatic lesion measuring 9 cm × 6 cm × 14 cm, appearance of lymph nodes and hepatic metastases. Death after disease progression
Parfitt <i>et al</i> [13] 2007	F	60	14 cm × 11 cm	Epithelioid	SR	9 yr	Recurrence in the liver and appearance of metastases in the trapezius muscle, the left lung and the tail of the pancreas
Yang <i>et al</i> [14] 2007	F	37	13 cm × 9 cm × 9 cm	Classic	SR	14 mo	Recurrence in the right hepatic lobe 6 months after SR, appearance of pulmonary metastases 11 mo after SR and death occurred at 14 mo
Deng <i>et al</i> [15] 2008	M	30	18 cm × 14 cm	Classic	SR, Chemotherapy	3 yr and 4 mo	Recurrence with a hepatic lesion measuring 11 cm and metastases in pancreatic tail and portal vein thrombosis 3 yr after SR. Chemotherapy was initiated but 4 mo later pulmonary metastases appeared. Death occurred after disease progression
Nguyen <i>et al</i> [16] 2008	F	43	11 cm × 7.5 cm × 7.5 cm	Classic	SR	6 mo	Recurrence in the liver 6 mo after SR, together with metastases in the peritoneum, omentum, stomach and spleen. Death after disease progression
Xu <i>et al</i> [17] 2009	F	33	2 nodules: 1 cm and 6 cm	Epithelioid	SR	1 yr	Recurrence in the left hepatic lobe
Zeng <i>et al</i> [18] 2010	NS	NS	6 cm	NS	SR	9 yr	Recurrence in the right hepatic lobe with a lesion measuring 6 cm
Butte <i>et al</i> [19] 2011	F;M	54; 41	NS; 9 cm	NS; Epithelioid	SR; SR	53 mo; 41 mo	Recurrence in the liver 53 mo after SR; Occurrence of pulmonary and retroperitoneal metastases 41 mo after SR
Hu <i>et al</i> [20] 2011	F	NS	NS	NS	SR	14 mo	Appearance of local and distant metastases 6 mo after SR. Death occurred 14 mo after SR
Ding <i>et al</i> [8] 2011	F	31	8 cm × 8 cm	NS	SR	7 yr	Recurrence in the right hepatic lobe 6 yr after SR and death occurred one year later
Wang <i>et al</i> [21] 2015	F	37	7 cm × 9 cm	Classic	SR	3 yr	Recurrence of two hepatic nodules in the right lobe (13 cm × 12 cm and 2.3 cm × 1.8 cm) 3 yr after SR. Arterial chemoembolization was performed, followed by liver transplantation
Fukuda <i>et al</i> [22] 2016	M	58	6.3 cm	Epithelioid	SR	9 yr	Metastases occurred in the right lung 7 yr after SR and were treated by pneumonectomy. No recurrence was observed after 2 yr of follow-up
Marcuzzi <i>et al</i> [23] 2018	F	47	3.8 cm × 4.6 cm × 4.7 cm+ 2 hepatic lesions measuring 6 mm and 5 mm	Epithelioid	SR	8 yr and 8 mo	CT scan was performed 6 yr and 4 mo after the initial presentation: the hepatic lesion had grown in size to an estimated 10.9 cm × 9.7 cm × 11.2 cm and the adjacent lesions had grown to 1.9 cm and 2.4 cm with a new lesion on the kidney of 4.6 cm × 5.1 cm. 16 mo later, MRI showed an increase in size of the hepatic lesion (12 cm × 11 cm), and kidney lesion (6.2 cm × 5.6 cm). SR performed 2 mo later. 6 mo after SR, recurrence in the resection line and in the hepatic segment II
Yan <i>et al</i> [24] 2018	NS	NS	15 cm	Epithelioid	SR	9 yr	Recurrence in the liver 9 yr after SR with invasion of the inferior vena cava and diaphragm, and appearance of pulmonary metastases

F: Female; M: Male; NS: Not specified; SR: Surgical resection; CT: Computed tomography; MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging.

The optimal radiological follow-up is not well defined, but the first radiological evaluation may take place at one year, since HAMLs were described to increase by only 0.77 cm per year in a series of 29 patients followed radiologically[3], and radiological progression affected only 6 of the 29 patients (20%). Later, radiological monitoring could be performed twice a year[3], but the frequency will depend on the



Figure 2 Angiomyolipoma in a healthy 33-year-old woman. Abdominal computed tomography on arterial phase showed a hypervascular solid tumor localized in the right posterior segment (arrowheads).

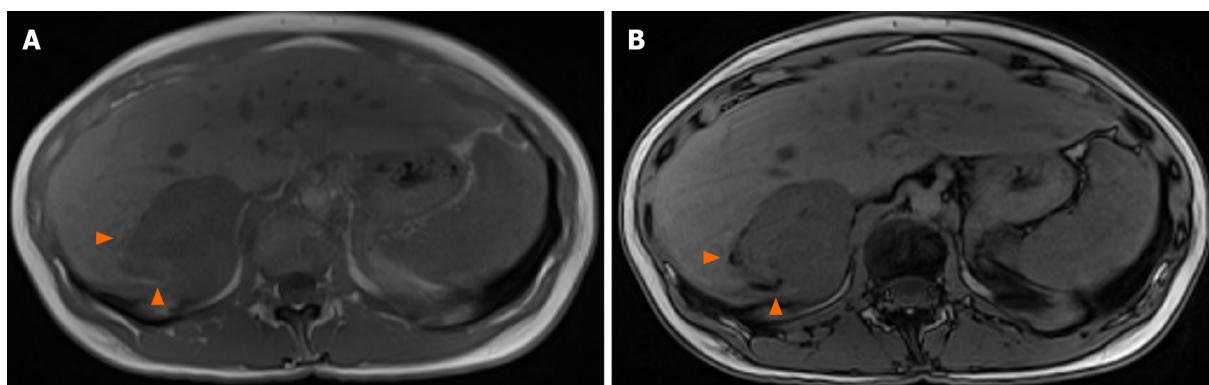


Figure 3 T1 weighted magnetic resonance images. Signal dropout at the periphery of the lesion due to fat contingents (arrowhead). A: In-phase; B: Opposed-phase.

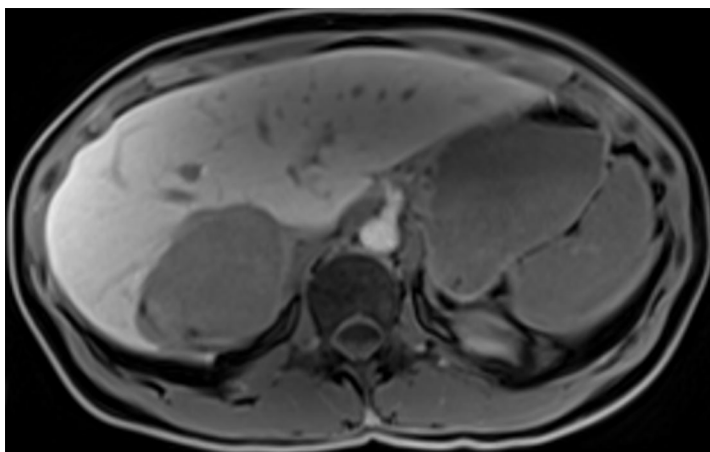


Figure 4 T1 weighted images one hour after hepatocyte-specific agent injection (gadobenate dimeglumine). Hyposignal of the lesion indicates that this is not a hepatocytic tumor.

magnitude of tumor progression during the first years of monitoring. Evidently, persistent tumor progression on successive imaging will require a surgical approach. Surgical resection is therefore recommended when there is uncertainty regarding the histological nature of the lesion after liver biopsy, tumor progression on imaging, tumor-related symptoms, and when the tumor exceeds 5 cm[34,38]. The recurrence rate after surgical resection was 2.4% (6 of 246 patients in the series reported by

Klompenerhouwer *et al*[3]). The local or distant post-resection recurrence rate is 10% in the case of epithelioid-type HAML[52].

Liver transplantation (LT) has sometimes been erroneously performed for a suspected diagnosis of cholangiocarcinoma or hemangiosarcoma mimicking a hepatocellular carcinoma[3,34]. These flawed diagnoses further underline the interest of systematic liver biopsy as well as radiological and anatomopathological expertise. Since the first reported case of LT for HAML in 2010[57], other exceptional cases have been added[21,58]. LT was performed as a last resort treatment for unresectable HAML due to excessive size or a significant number of hepatic tumors.

Other therapeutic alternatives have been reported, such as radiofrequency ablation, arterial embolization or the use of sirolimus[35,42]. mTOR inhibitors, which include sirolimus and everolimus, are immunosuppressive molecules used in transplantation, and which also have antiproliferative properties. In a multicenter, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial (EXIST-2), 118 patients with at least one renal AML larger than 3 cm associated with a definite TSC diagnosis or sporadic LAM were randomized to receive oral everolimus 10 mg/d ($n = 79$, mean dosage: 8.6 mg/d, median duration: 38 wk) or placebo ($n = 39$). The trial showed a beneficial effect of everolimus in reducing the size of AML (response rate: 42% *vs* 0% in the placebo group; $P < 0.0001$). Response was evaluated as a composite endpoint including a reduction $\geq 50\%$ of the AML volume[59].

The favorable outcomes reported in the EXIST-2 trial led to an open label extension undertaken by the same authors. This study demonstrated a pronounced benefit of everolimus for the patients who continued on this drug. The response rate improved from 42% in the primary analysis (median exposure 8.7 mo)[59] to 54% (median exposure 28.9 mo), and the long-term use of everolimus appeared safe[60].

The pooled analysis of two randomized trials[59,61] comparing 109 and 53 patients with renal AML treated respectively with everolimus and placebo for 6 mo confirmed the efficacy of everolimus in reducing tumor volume by 50% or more (risk ratio = 24.69; $P = 0.001$)[62]. Everolimus is currently indicated for the treatment of adult patients with renal AML and TSC not requiring immediate surgery. Some patients with HAML associated with TSC have been treated with sirolimus, which also proved efficacious in reducing tumor volume[54]. The role of mTOR inhibitors for patients with HAML remains undefined, but these molecules could be used, as for the kidney, in a palliative context. The long-term safety profile is consistent with that previously reported and no new safety issues have raised concern[60].

In a retrospective Chinese series (2009-2016) of 92 patients diagnosed with histologically proven HAML measuring between 2 cm and 5 cm, ultrasonography-guided radiofrequency ablation after liver biopsy was used in 22/92 patients. No tumor recurrence was reported, but the duration of follow-up was not indicated[35]. Radiofrequency ablation can therefore advantageously compete with surgery when HAML is relatively small (< 5 cm), and when the location in the liver or the patient's comorbidities are not amenable to safe hepatic surgery.

Arterial embolization[33] is sometimes necessary in the presence of hemorrhagic HAML. There are only eight reported cases of HAML presenting as spontaneous rupture and hemorrhage; the median size of these tumors was 8.5 cm (range: 2.5 cm to 12.5 cm) and three of them were treated with arterial embolization followed by liver resection enabling formal diagnosis of HAML. The main differential diagnosis of hemorrhagic liver tumor in a non-cirrhotic liver is adenoma, which is outside the scope of this review. Therapeutic arterial embolization was used in three other patients with histologically proven HAML (size: 11, 12 and 17 cm) in a retrospective American series[19], and no progression was observed after an average follow-up of 12.7 mo (range, 1-36 mo). The risk of spontaneous hemorrhage seems to be lower for HAML than for kidney AML, which are usually supplied by a single vessel and associated with aneurysms[19]. We propose a decisional algorithm for the management of HAML (Figure 5).

CONCLUSION

HAML is a rare but not exceptional tumor, and usually has a benign course. However, this tumor may display more aggressive behavior with recurrence or metastasis, although there are no robust histological or radiological characteristics to predict the natural course of this type of tumor. Radiological diagnosis is often hazardous due to the variable proportions of the tissues that comprise HAML. Therefore, histological analysis of the tumor and multidisciplinary consultation, whenever possible in an

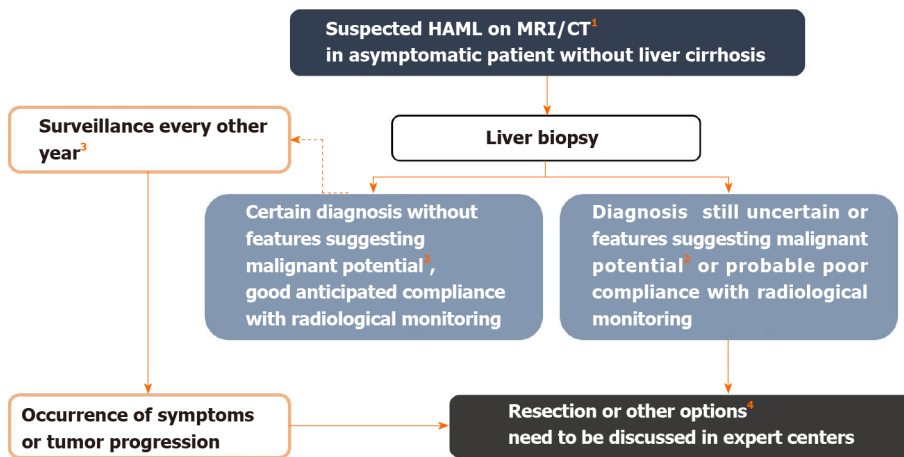


Figure 5 Management algorithm for suspected hepatic angiomyolipoma on imaging. ¹Hepatic angiomyolipoma diagnosis is suggested in the presence of fatty tissue within the solid lesion or presence of wash-out. In the presence of tumor-related symptoms, surgical resection is considered first. ²Features suggesting malignant potential are reported in Table 2. Some authors also recommend surgery in the case of epithelioid-type hepatic angiomyolipoma, which would be at greater risk of progression. Likewise, an association with tuberous sclerosis complex is a condition that increases the risk of malignant transformation, by analogy with renal angiomyolipoma[3]. ³Monitoring maintained despite the benign nature of the initial diagnosis because the aggressive behavior of the tumor is difficult to predict. ⁴Other possible therapeutic options include mTOR inhibitors, radiofrequency ablation, arterial embolization in cases of hemorrhagic rupture, and liver transplantation. Citation: Klompenhouwer AJ, Verver D, Janki S, Bramer WM, Doukas M, Dwarkasing RS, de Man RA, IJzermans JNM. Management of hepatic angiomyolipoma: A systematic review. *Liver Int* 2017; 37(9): 1272-1280. Copyright ©The Author(s) 2017. Published by John Wiley and Sons[3]. MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging; CT: Computed tomography.

expert center, are essential for optimal care of these patients.

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Risk of hepatitis B virus reactivation in patients with autoimmune diseases undergoing non-tumor necrosis factor-targeted biologics

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Abstract

Hepatitis B virus reactivation (HBVr) can occur in patients treated with immunosuppressive medications. Risk stratification for HBVr based on hepatitis B virus (HBV) serology and viral load is an important strategy to determine appropriate HBV monitoring and antiviral prophylaxis use. Recent advances in the understanding of pathophysiology of autoimmune diseases have led the development of cytokine-targeted therapies. Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α inhibitors have been widely used for patients with inflammatory bowel disease, psoriasis, and rheumatic diseases. Further, the clinical benefits of interleukin (IL)-12/23, IL-17, or Janus kinases inhibitors have been demonstrated in these patients. It is well known that TNF- α inhibitor use can lead to HBVr, however, the risk of HBVr in patients undergoing non-TNF-targeted biologics have not been fully understood. In this review, we discuss the risk of HBVr in patients treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics, and immunological mechanisms of these medications causing HBVr.

Key Words: Hepatitis B virus; Autoimmune diseases; Biological therapy; Interleukin-23; Interleukin-17; Janus kinases

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Core Tip: Although the risk of hepatitis B virus reactivation (HBVr) in patients undergoing non-tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-targeted biologics have not been fully understood, some previous studies showed that the risk of HBVr in patients with non-TNF-targeted biologics might be higher than that in patients with TNF- α inhibitors. While patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) should receive antiviral

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prophylaxis when they start non-TNF-targeted biologics, antiviral prophylaxis may be a favorable strategy rather than the pre-emptive strategy in patients with resolved HBV. Large-scale studies are needed to ascertain the differential risk of HBVr between patients with TNF- α inhibitors and non-TNF-targeted biologics.

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus reactivation (HBVr) can occur in patients treated with immunosuppressive therapy and chemotherapy. In the current era of biologics, physicians need to understand the risk of HBVr in patients with autoimmune diseases undergoing anti-cytokine therapies.

The following three components are important for the development of HBVr: (1) The host immune response; (2) The covalently closed circular DNA of the viral genome of HBV (cccDNA); and (3) The use of immunosuppressive drugs[1]. HBV infection induces a series of innate[2] and adaptive[3] immune responses[1]. The host immune responses against hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection recruit adaptive cytotoxic T (Tc) cells to induce both cytolytic-dependent and -independent antiviral effects. In the cytolytic-independent effect, interferons (IFN) play an important role to suppress the HBV replication. To produce neutralizing antibodies to clear circulating HBV, B cells are also recruited to limit the viral spread of HBV (Figure 1)[4]. However, even when clinical resolution of HBV infection is achieved, it does not mean complete elimination of HBV-DNA because cccDNA can persist in the nucleus of hepatocytes and it can be a source of HBVr when immunosuppressive medications are used.

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α is a key cytokine not only in the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases but also in the host immune reactions against HBV infection. TNF- α is synthesized by macrophages and T cells and induce the production of a variety of inflammatory cytokines, suppressing viral replication[5]. TNF- α is also necessary for the proliferation of HBV-specific Tc cells that are essential for suppression of HBV replication[6]. Hence, TNF- α inhibitors (*e.g.*, infliximab, adalimumab, and etanercept) can inhibit the anti-HBV immune response, leading to HBV replication[7]. Indeed, the pooled prevalence of HBVr in patients with autoimmune diseases undergoing TNF- α inhibitors was reported to be 4.2% (95%CI: 1.4%-8.2%)[8].

The signaling pathways involving interleukin (IL)-12/23, IL-17, and Janus kinases (JAKs) have been highlighted as novel specific therapeutic targets for autoimmune diseases. A recent multicenter observational study for patients with psoriasis showed that HBVr was significantly more common among patients receiving anti-TNF- α therapies than IL-17 inhibitors[9]. However, there is still limited data in understanding the risk of HBVr in patients who are treated with biologics which inhibit such specific inflammatory pathways. In the present article, we aimed to review previous literatures which assessed the risk of HBVr in patients treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics and discuss how each medication can influence the development of HBVr.

DEFINITIONS OF HBV INFECTION AND REACTIVATION

The professional societies in the United States [American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD); American Gastroenterological Association (AGA)], Europe [European Association for the Study of the Liver (EASL)] and Asia [Asian Pacific Association for the Study of the Liver (APASL)] have published guidelines to assist providers with HBVr management[10-13]. In this review article, we divide patients into 2 risk groups which is consistent with the professional society guidelines[10-13] when assessing practical management of HBVr.

HBVr in patients with CHB compared to patients with resolved HBV (15.4% *vs* 3.0% risk of HBVr)[8]. Further, another study showed that the pooled rate of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis was 15.6% (95%CI: 2.3-35.7) in patients with CHB who were treated with TNF- α inhibitors. In patients with resolved HBV, the pooled rates of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis in patients who were treated with TNF- α inhibitors and non-TNF-targeted biologics were 1.4% (95%CI: 0.5%-2.6%) and 6.1% (95%CI: 0.0%-16.6%), respectively[14]. Each of the 4 professional societal guidelines recommend testing HBV serology on all candidates for immunosuppressive therapy or chemotherapy to enable appropriate risk stratification (*i.e.* CHB *vs* resolved HBV)[10-13].

Next, the degree of expected iatrogenic immunosuppression should be assessed. Hematopoietic stem cell transplant (HSCT) recipients and B cell-depleting therapies (*e.g.*, rituximab) are high-potency regimens and confer the highest risk of HBVr[10-13]. The AGA guidelines ascertain that anthracyclines (*e.g.*, doxorubicin) and moderate- to high-dose corticosteroids (CS) (*i.e.*, ≥ 10 mg of daily prednisone or equivalent for ≥ 4 wk) confer higher risk than other immunosuppressants[11].

Therapeutic prophylaxis

CHB: In general, the professional societal guidelines recommend HBV prophylaxis, typically entecavir or tenofovir, for all candidates for immunosuppression who have CHB, apart from patients treated with traditional immunosuppressive agents (*e.g.*, thiopurines, methotrexate), intra-articular CSs, or oral CSs ≤ 1 wk[10-13]. The AGA risk stratify this cohort of patients into moderate (1%-10%) and high risk ($> 10\%$) groups for HBVr[11]. Antiviral prophylaxis should be started before and continued after cessation of immunosuppression, generally 12 to 18 mo if high-potency therapies are used and 6 to 12 mo for other therapies[10-13].

Resolved HBV: Guidelines largely agree that resolved HBV patients on high-potency immunosuppression (HSCT recipients and B cell-depleting therapies) should receive HBVr prophylaxis, with the AGA placing this group of patients in the high risk HBVr group ($> 10\%$)[10-13].

For resolved HBV patients not on a high-potency regimen, the guidelines are more dissimilar. AGA recommend prophylaxis for resolved HBV patients at moderate risk (1%-10%) of HBVr, which include patients treated with TNF- α inhibitors, other cytokine or integrin inhibitors, tyrosine kinase inhibitors, moderate- or high-dose CSs for ≥ 4 wk and anthracycline derivatives. In contrast, AASLD, EASL and APASL recommend a pre-emptive therapy for this patient cohort, not prophylaxis, whereby serial lab monitoring (HBV DNA, HBsAg) is performed at 1- to 3-mo intervals on therapy and up to 12 mo after cessation of immunosuppression with on-demand antiviral therapy if needed[10,12,13]. Given that HBsAg seroreversion can lead to fatal acute hepatitis, antiviral therapy should be started immediately, independently of ALT level[11]. Of note, both EASL and APASL recommend treating resolved HBV patients similarly to HBsAg-positive patients if baseline serum HBV-DNA is positive[12,13].

AGA classify resolved HBV patients who are treated with traditional immunosuppressive agents (*e.g.*, thiopurines, methotrexate), low-dose CSs ≥ 4 wk, intra-articular CSs, or any dose of oral CSs for ≤ 1 wk, as low-risk ($< 1\%$) for HBVr and do not recommend prophylaxis, similar to the other society guidelines[10-13].

The risk of HBVr in patients who are treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics

Given the paucity of data on the HBVr risk among patients treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics, we reviewed the existing literature on the risk of HBVr in patients with autoimmune diseases who received non-TNF-targeted biologics and summarized the findings in Tables 1-3. A majority of articles focused on patients with CHB or resolved infection. According to the AGA guideline, CHB and resolved HBV patients treated with non-TNF-targeted therapies are categorized into the moderate-risk HBVr group and therapeutic prophylaxis is recommended. However, AASLD, EASL and APASL recommend serial monitoring among resolved HBV (if HBV DNA is negative) with pre-emptive prophylaxis if HBVr is observed. Therefore, it is important to determine the precise HBVr with non-TNF-targeted biologics to ascertain if a strategy of monitoring/pre-emptive may be too lax, and perhaps a uniform strategy of prophylaxis may be more optimal as recommended by the AGA. Given that patients with resolved infection should be treated similarly to those with CHB patients if their serum HBV-DNA tests are positive at baseline[12,13], we present their baseline HBV-DNA in Tables 1-3.

Table 1 The risk of hepatitis B virus reactivation in patients treated with interleukin-12/23 or interleukin-23 inhibitors

Ref.	Number of HBV patients	HBV status	Disease	Drugs	Prophylaxis	Follow-up	HBV reactivation
Ting <i>et al</i> [27], 2018	54	(1) 10 CHB; and (2) 44 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab	Yes: 2 patients with CHB	24 mo	(1) 2 patients with CHB without prophylaxis. (no hepatitis); and (2) 1 patient with resolved HBV (mild hepatitis)
Solay <i>et al</i> [5], 2018	29	29 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis/HS/AS/RA/CD	Ustekinumab (n = 7)	NA	22 wk	1 patient with psoriasis without prophylaxis (no data regarding hepatitis)
Sanz-Bueno <i>et al</i> [68], 2015	20	20 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-) but viral load was assessed in 7 of 20 patients	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab (n = 6)	No	40 mo	0
Chiu <i>et al</i> [28], 2013	14	(1) 11 CHB; and (2) 3 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline was not available	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab	Yes: 4 patients with CHB	10 mo	(1) 2 patients with CHB without prophylaxis (No hepatitis); and (2) 0
Navarro <i>et al</i> [69], 2013	5	5 CHB	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab (n = 1)	Yes	25 mo	0
Hayashi <i>et al</i> [70], 2014	5	5 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline was not available	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab	No	52 wk	0
Koskinas <i>et al</i> [41], 2013	1	Resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline was not available	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab	No	16 mo	1 with hepatitis (ALT 65 IU/mL)
Steglich <i>et al</i> [71], 2014	1	Resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis	Ustekinumab	Yes	36 mo	0
Duncan <i>et al</i> [43], 2019	1	Resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline was not available	Palmoplantar Psoriasis	Guselkumab	No	12 mo	0

If a study included both of patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) and those with resolved HBV, we labeled the former with (1) and the latter with (2) in the column with HBV status. HBV: Hepatitis B virus; AS: Ankylosing spondylitis; CD: Crohn's disease; CHB: Chronic HBV; HS: Hidradenitis suppurativa; RA: Rheumatoid arthritis; NA: Not available; ALT: Alanine transaminase.

IL-12/23 INHIBITORS

Mechanism of HBV reactivation

The cytokine IL-12 contributes to the differentiation of naïve T cells to T helper 1 (T_H1) cells and IL-23 maintains and expand IL-17 producing T helper (T_H17) cells (Figure 1) [15]. These two cytokines play a central role to regulate T cell-mediated immune responses, which are dysregulated in various autoimmune diseases including psoriasis and Crohn's disease (CD)[15,16]. The clinical benefit of IL-12 and IL-23 inhibition has been demonstrated in psoriasis, CD, and ulcerative colitis by ustekinumab[17-19], which is an antibody against p40, the common subunit of IL-12 and IL-23. IL-12 plays an important role in achieving sustained control of HBV replication. IL-12 can promote cell-mediated immunity by facilitating the production of IFN-γ production by T_H1 cells, resulting in the inhibition of HBV replication[20,21] and the induction of antiviral effects of HBV-specific Tc cells[22,23]. Indeed, patients with CHB who were treated with recombinant human IL-12 exhibited a high proportion of HBV clearance in a dose-dependent manner[24] and the addition of IL-12 to lamivudine enhanced T cell reactivity to HBV and IFN-γ production[25]. Furthermore, patients with CHB responding to IFN-α treatment were shown to have higher IL-12 and IFN-γ expression levels during the treatment[26]. These findings suggest that ustekinumab might theoretically increase the risk of HBVr.

Table 2 The risk of hepatitis B virus reactivation in patients with interleukin-17 inhibitors

Ref.	Number of HBV patients	HBV status	Disease	Drugs	Prophylaxis	Follow-up	HBV reactivation
Chiu <i>et al</i> [52], 2018	49	(1) 25 CHB; and (2) 24 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-) in 11 patients with resolved HBV	Psoriasis	Secukinumab	Yes: 3 patients with CHB	3 mo	(1) 6 patients with CHB without prophylaxis. (no hepatitis); and (2) 1 patient with resolved HBV with positive viral load at baseline (no hepatitis)
Moneva-Leniz <i>et al</i> [72], 2020	4	(1) 2 CHB; and (2) 2 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis/palmoplantar psoriasis	Secukinumab	Yes: 1 patient with CHB and 1 patient with resolved HBV	20 mo	(1) 0; and (2) 0
Feaster <i>et al</i> [73], 2018	1	A carrier of congenital HBV infection ¹	Psoriasis and PsA	Secukinumab	No	24 mo	0
Bevans <i>et al</i> [74], 2018	1	Seropositive hepatitis ¹	Palmoplantar psoriasis and AS	Secukinumab	No	14 mo	0
Yanagihara <i>et al</i> [75], 2017	1	CHB	Psoriasis vulgaris	Secukinumab	Yes	9 mo	0
Peccerillo <i>et al</i> [76], 2018	1	Resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis	Secukinumab	Yes	14 mo	0
Koike <i>et al</i> [53], 2019	1	CHB	Psoriasis and PsA	Ixekizumab	Yes	18 mo	0
Lora <i>et al</i> [54], 2019	1	Resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-)	Psoriasis	Ixekizumab	Yes	12 mo	0

¹A diagnosis in an article was used due to lack of data regarding hepatitis B virus (HBV) serology and viral load. If a study included both of patients with chronic HBV and those with resolved HBV, we labeled the former with (1) and the latter with (2) in the column with HBV status. HBV: Hepatitis B virus; AS: Ankylosing spondylitis; CHB: Chronic HBV; PsA: Psoriatic arthritis.

Table 3 The risk of hepatitis B virus reactivation in patients with Janus kinase inhibitors

Ref.	Number of HBV patients	Serology for HBV infectious	Disease	Drugs	Prophylaxis	Follow-up	HBV reactivation
Chen <i>et al</i> [66], 2018	81	(1) 6 CHB; and (2) 75 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA at baseline (-) but viral load was assessed in 53 patients with resolved HBV	RA	Tofacitinib	Yes: 2 patients with CHB	3-6 mo	(1) 2 patients with CHB without prophylaxis (1 patient developed hepatitis); and (2) 0
Serling-Boyd <i>et al</i> [67], 2021	8	8 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA was assessed in 6 patients, but viral loads were not available	7 RA, 1 PsA	Tofacitinib	Yes: 2 patients	3.1 yr	0
Harigai <i>et al</i> [62], 2020	215	215 resolved HBV. HBV-DNA (-) at baseline in 30 patients with resolved HBV who had detectable post-baseline HBV-DNA	RA	Baricitinib	NA	2.7 yr	8 patients with resolved HBV had HBV-DNA \geq 29 IU/mL (4 patients met the criteria of HBVr in this study, no hepatitis)

If a study included both of patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) and those with resolved HBV, we labeled the former with (1) and the latter with (2) in the column with HBV status. HBV: Hepatitis B virus; CHB: Chronic HBV; PsA: Psoriatic arthritis; RA: Rheumatoid arthritis; NA: Not available; HBVr: Hepatitis B virus reactivation.

Clinical studies in patients with autoimmune diseases

Several studies have assessed the risk of HBVr in patients treated with ustekinumab (Table 1). A retrospective study showed that no HBVr occurred among 2 patients with CHB taking antiviral prophylaxis after starting ustekinumab, whereas, 2 patients (25%) developed HBVr without hepatitis among 8 patients with CHB without antiviral prophylaxis[27]. Another study demonstrated a 29% rate of HBVr after ustekinumab initiation without antiviral prophylaxis in patients with CHB[28]. Given that patients

with CHB have a high risk of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis, these patients require antiviral prophylaxis and appropriate monitoring for HBV-DNA and serology tests after initiating ustekinumab treatment.

A retrospective study on 44 patients with resolved HBV who initiated ustekinumab without antiviral prophylaxis found that 1 patient (2.3%) developed HBVr complicated with mild hepatitis[27]. This patient discontinued concurrent methotrexate when reactivation occurred and HBV-DNA became undetectable without antiviral therapy in 6 mo. In another study involving 7 patients with resolved HBV on ustekinumab, 1 patient (14.3%) developed HBVr. This patient was not on antiviral prophylaxis and started entecavir for treatment of HBVr[5]. These data suggest that there is a certain risk of HBVr in patients with resolved HBV even without detectable HBV-DNA at baseline after starting ustekinumab, suggesting that these patients might need antiviral prophylaxis as is the AGA guidelines preferred option. While the guidelines of AASLD, EASL, APASL recommend pre-emptive therapy if HBV DNA is negative, further studies are warranted in order to understand if these patients require antiviral prophylaxis.

IL-23 INHIBITORS

Mechanism of HBV reactivation

IL-23-specific antagonists, such as tildrakizumab[29,30], risankizumab[31,32], guselkumab[33,34], and brazikumab[35], have been shown to be effective for psoriasis and CD. These medications bind to the p19 subunit on IL-23 and inhibit its interaction with the IL-23 receptors[36]. The potential mechanism of HBVr in patients treated with IL-23 inhibitors is still unclear. Previous studies found that T_H17 cells, which are expanded by IL-23 (Figure 1), increase with the severity of liver damage in patients with CHB[37-39]. An observational, clinical-controlled study also demonstrated that the expression levels of IL-23 and IL-17 were associated with increased possibilities of hepatitis B e-antigen (HBeAg) clearance and HBsAg decline in patients with HBeAg-positive CHB during pegylated IFN therapy[40]. This study also found that high serum IL-23 Levels can predict the response to IFN therapy in patients with HBeAg-positive CHB[40]. Given that T_H17 cells promote the differentiation and function of B cells[41,42], IL-23 might activate the humoral immune response against circulating HBV and play a role to facilitate HBV clearance by IFN therapy (Figure 1). Although this hypothesis suggest that IL-23 inhibitors may abrogate the HBV clearance, it still remains to be elucidated whether these medications contribute to the development of HBVr.

Clinical studies in patients with autoimmune diseases

The data regarding the safety of IL-23 inhibitors in patients with HBV infection is limited. A case report showed that a patient with resolved HBV infection did not develop HBVr 1 year after starting guselkumab (Table 1)[43]. There have been no reported studies focusing on the risk of HBVr in patients treated with other IL-23 inhibitors.

IL-17 INHIBITORS

Mechanism of HBV reactivation

IL-17 is a major effector cytokine of T_H17 cells and mediate host defense mechanisms[44]. Inhibition of IL-17 with secukinumab, ixekizumab, and brodalumab have demonstrated clinical benefits in patients with psoriasis[45-47], psoriatic arthritis[48], and ankylosing spondylitis[49]. T_H17/IL-17 axis is involved in the process of fibrogenesis and increases the expression of proinflammatory cytokines, promoting the recruitment of inflammatory cells in patients with CHB[50]. A previous study showed that Th17 cells were significantly increased in patients with CHB, as well as the expression level of IL-17[51]. They also demonstrated that the suppression of viral replication induced by IFN- α resulted in a decrease in T_H17 cells and IL-17 expression, suggesting that T_H17 cells might play an important role during IFN- α treatment to eliminate HBV[51]. As we described above, T_H17 cells also facilitate B cells[41,42] and would enhance the humoral response to clear circulating HBV (Figure 1). These findings implicate that T_H17/IL-17 axis might be associated with HBV clearance and its inhibition may increase the risk of HBVr.

Clinical studies in patients with autoimmune diseases

A prospective multicenter study on 22 patients with CHB with no antiviral prophylaxis after starting secukinumab showed that 6 patients (27.3%) developed HBVr (Table 2)[52]. Three patients with HBVr started antiviral treatments and their viral loads decreased rapidly within 3 mo. The remaining three patients with HBVr were followed without antiviral drugs and their viral loads remained low without acute hepatitis. Notably, none of the 3 patients with CHB who received antiviral prophylaxis developed HBVr[52]. Hence, this study reinforced the importance of antiviral prophylaxis in patients with CHB starting treatment with IL-17 inhibitors. This study also included 24 patients with resolved HBV who did not receive antiviral prophylaxis and identified one patient (4.2%) with a positive viral load at baseline who developed HBVr without acute hepatitis[52]. This study re-affirmed the EASL and APASL guidelines which recommend antiviral prophylaxis in patients with resolved HBV if their baseline viral loads are positive.

A case report on a patient with CHB treated with ixekizumab and entecavir simultaneously did not develop HBVr after 18 mo of treatment[53]. Another report showed that a patient with resolved HBV did not experience HBVr during follow-up (Table 2)[54]. Given that data regarding the risk of HBVr in patients treated with ixekizumab or brodalumab are still limited, further studies with larger sample sizes are warranted.

JAK INHIBITORS

Mechanism of HBV reactivation

JAKs bind to type I and II cytokine receptors and transmit extracellular cytokine signals to activate various signal transducers and activators of transcription, which drive the proinflammatory machinery of the cellular immune response[55]. The clinical benefit of JAK inhibitors has been demonstrated in patients with rheumatoid arthritis[56,57], psoriatic arthritis[58,59], and ulcerative colitis[60,61]. Important signaling pathways in host-defense include innate antiviral responses *via* IFN- α/β mediated by JAK1-tyrosine kinase 2 complexes, and IFN- γ mediated by JAK1-JAK2 complexes[55]. Hence, JAK inhibitors might counteract the suppressive effects of IFN on viral replication[62,63]. Further, dendritic cells and effective T cell lineages including T_H cells and Tc cells play important roles to defense against HBV-infection (Figure 1)[64]. A previous study demonstrated that a JAK inhibitor can block the differentiation and function of dendritic cells, leading to impaired T cell activation (Figure 1)[65]. Thus, it was suggested that JAK inhibitors might negatively interact with the defense mechanism against HBV infection. Further studies investigating how JAK inhibitors influence the development of HBVr are warranted.

Clinical studies in patients with autoimmune diseases

A retrospective cohort study including 6 patients with CHB showed that 2 out of 4 patients (50%) without antiviral prophylaxis developed HBVr after starting tofacitinib. One patient had an elevated ALT level and started entecavir, resulting in declines in HBV-DNA and ALT levels. Another patient started entecavir and did not develop acute hepatitis. Both patients continued tofacitinib after the development of HBVr. Meanwhile, 2 patients with CHB who received antiviral prophylaxis did not develop HBVr after initiating tofacitinib. Further, in this study, none of 75 patients with resolved HBV received antiviral prophylaxis and no HBVr was observed in this group[66]. Another study also demonstrated that patients with resolved HBV did not develop HBVr after starting tofacitinib (Table 3)[67].

A study assessing data which was integrated from four phase 3 trials of baricitinib in patients showed that, among 215 patients with resolved HBV, 8 patients (3.7%) had a single quantifiable result of HBV-DNA viral load (HBV-DNA level ≥ 29 IU/mL) after initiating baricitinib. Among these 8 patients, 4 patients met the definition of HBVr (HBV-DNA ≥ 100 IU/mL), but no patients developed hepatitis. HBV-DNA at baseline was assessed in 6 patients and all examined patients did not have detectable HBV-DNA level. Antiviral therapy was not used in 5 of 8 patients[62].

All these findings suggest that patients with CHB should receive antiviral prophylaxis when they start JAK inhibitors. As for patients with resolved HBV infection, given that HBVr was occasionally reported even if their HBV-DNA levels were not detected at baseline, an appropriate consultation with hepatologists is necessary. There has been limited data regarding the risk of HBVr in patients with autoimmune diseases who are treated with other JAK inhibitors (*e.g.*, upadacitinib,

filgotinib, peficitinib).

CONCLUSION

In summary, considering antiviral prophylaxis with an appropriate risk stratification is necessary when we start non-TNF-targeted biologics for patients with autoimmune diseases. The frequencies of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis in patients with CHB on IL-12/23, IL-17, and JAK inhibitors are up to 29%, 27%, and 50%, respectively. A meta-analysis demonstrated that the pooled rate of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis was 15.6% (95%CI: 2.3-35.7) in patients with CHB who were treated with TNF- α inhibitors, suggesting that non-TNF-targeted biologics, particularly JAK inhibitors, may have a higher risk of HBVr compared with TNF- α inhibitors. Given that no patients who received antiviral prophylaxis developed HBVr, HBVr is preventable with antiviral therapy in patients with CHB on non-TNF-targeted biologics. As all of professional societies recommended in their guidelines, patients with CHB should receive antiviral prophylaxis when they start non-TNF-targeted biologics. In patients with resolved HBV, the rates of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis in patients on IL-12/23, IL-17, and JAK inhibitors are up to 2.3%, 4.2%, and 0%, respectively. The meta-analysis showed that the pooled rates of HBVr without antiviral prophylaxis in patients who were treated with TNF- α inhibitors and non-TNF-targeted biologics were 1.4% (95%CI: 0.5%-2.6%) and 6.1% (95%CI: 0.0%-16.6%), respectively[14]. These data supported that the risk of HBVr in patients treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics might be higher than that in patients with TNF- α inhibitors even if their HBV status is resolved HBV. According to the AGA guideline, patients with resolved HBV who are treated with non-TNF-targeted biologics are categorized into the moderate risk group and antiviral prophylaxis are recommended for this patient cohort[11]. However, as stated previously, AASLD, EASL and APASL recommend the pre-emptive therapeutic strategy for this cohort, although APASL and EASL do include the caveat of potentially using HBV DNA assessment to aid decision-making[10,12,13]. Given the higher risk of HBVr with non-TNF-targeted biologics compared with TNF- α inhibitors, antiviral prophylaxis may be a favorable strategy rather than the pre-emptive strategy to prevent HBVr in patients with resolved HBV. Large-scale studies are needed to ascertain the differential risk of HBVr between patients with TNF- α inhibitors and non-TNF-targeted biologics and to stratify the risk of HBVr by the type of non-TNF-targeted biologics. While HBsAg seroreversion can lead to fatal acute hepatitis, a consultation with hepatologists or infectious disease specialists is recommended.

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Burden of venous thromboembolism in patients with pancreatic cancer

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Abstract

Pancreatic cancer (PC) is a devastating malignancy with fewer than 10% of patients being alive at 5 years after diagnosis. Venous thromboembolism (VTE) occurs in approximately 20% of patients with PC, resulting in increased morbidity, mortality and significant health care costs. The management of VTE is particularly challenging in these frail patients. Adequate selection of the most appropriate anticoagulant for each individual patient according to the current international guidelines is warranted for overcoming treatment challenges. The International Initiative on Thrombosis and Cancer multi-language web-based mobile application (downloadable for free at www.itaccme.com) has been developed to help clinicians in decision making in the most complex situations. In this narrative review, we will discuss the contemporary epidemiology and burden of VTE in PC patients, the performances and limitations of current risk assessment models to predict the risk of VTE, as well as evidence from recent clinical trials for the primary prophylaxis and treatment of cancer-associated VTE that support updated clinical practice guidelines.

Key Words: Pancreatic cancer; Venous thromboembolism; Low-molecular weight heparin; Direct oral anticoagulant; Multi-language mobile application; Risk-assessment models; Thromboprophylaxis

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Core Tip: Venous thromboembolism (VTE) is a common but potentially life-threatening complication in patients with Pancreatic cancer (PC). There is an urgent need to raise awareness on this underrecognized issue. This review discusses the incidence and risk factors of VTE in PC patients, and the results from recent clinical trials for the primary prophylaxis and treatment of VTE in cancer patients supporting the most recent clinical practice guidelines.

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INTRODUCTION

Pancreatic cancer (PC) is a devastating disease with fewer than 10% of patients being alive at 5 years[1]. Its prevalence continues to increase worldwide[2]. In most cases, there is no effective treatment. Given its dismal prognosis[3], there is an urgent need to improve patient quality of life by integrating best supportive care[4,5].

Venous thromboembolism (VTE) is a frequent but still underrecognized complication in PC patients[6]. According to a recent large population-based cohort study[7], the incidence of PC-associated VTE has doubled from 1997 to 2017, due to increase in PC prevalence, improved survival, advanced age of PC patients, and better detection of incidental VTE with the routine use of computed tomography scans. Primary thromboprophylaxis is a supportive care with a well-documented clinical benefit, which remains unfortunately underused nowadays. Since 2013, the International Initiative on Thrombosis and Cancer (ITAC), a multidisciplinary group of experts from across the globe committed to improve the management of patients with cancer-associated thrombosis through dissemination of educational initiatives to health professionals, strives to raise awareness on this important issue[8].

Anticoagulation therapy is the mainstay of the VTE prevention and treatment, but its management is particularly challenging for the treating physicians in these patients who already suffer from multiple co-morbidities such as renal failure, hepatic failure, thrombocytopenia, and who undergo complex cancer treatment protocols[9,10].

Herein, we discuss the most recent data on the incidence and risk factors of VTE in PC patients, as well as evidence from recent clinical trials of low-molecular-weight heparin (LMWH) and direct oral anticoagulants (DOAC) for the primary prophylaxis and treatment of cancer-associated VTE that support current clinical practices guidelines (CPGs)[8,11,12].

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF VTE IN PC AND IMPACT ON SURVIVAL

Cancer has been demonstrated to be an independent major risk factor for VTE[13]. The extent of this risk mainly depends on cancer type and disease stage. Among all cancer types, PC carries the highest risk for VTE[7,14]. In retrospective cohorts of PC patients, the reported incidence of VTE varies broadly from 5% to 57%[15-33], depending on the study population, the duration of follow-up, the definition of VTE and the methods used for diagnosing VTE.

Due to their large sample sizes, multicenter prospective design, and systematic follow-up, phase 3 randomized control trials (RCTs) conducted in PC patients are expected to provide reliable data on the true incidence of VTE. However, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis of chemotherapeutic and thromboprophylaxis RCTs conducted in PC patients highlighted that VTE events were underreported in chemotherapeutic RCTs[6]. The pooled rate of VTE in chemotherapy studies ($n = 13$, 5694 patients) was 5.9% [95% confidence interval (CI): 3.9-9.0; $I^2 = 94\%$] and significantly lower than the corresponding 16.5% (95%CI: 11.7-23.3; $P < 0.001$) reported in thromboprophylaxis studies ($n = 9$, 631 patients, $I^2 = 69\%$). Importantly, 30 eligible chemotherapy RCTs ($n = 9000$ patients) were excluded from this meta-analysis because they did not report VTE as adverse events[6], which reveals quite clearly a lack of awareness on the burden of VTE among oncologists.

The incidence and risk factors for VTE was recently assessed in a large prospective multicenter cohort of patients with newly diagnosed PC[34], providing real-life contemporary estimates. In this study, 152 out of 731 (20.79%) patients developed a VTE event, with a median time from PC diagnosis to VTE of 4 mo. In competing-risk analysis, the cumulative rates of VTE were approximatively 13% and 20% at 6 mo and 1 year, respectively[34].

The most common VTE events occurring in PC patients are deep vein thrombosis (DVT) and pulmonary embolism (PE)[35], but incidental PE and incidental visceral vein thrombosis (VVT) are increasingly diagnosed, accounting now for approximatively 50% of all reported VTE events[23,30,34,36]. In the BACAP-VTE study[34], DVT, PE, VVT, and combined events were observed in 26%, 17%, 30% and 21% of patients, respectively. Overall, 46% of VTE events were symptomatic and 54% of them were asymptomatic[34].

Early retrospective studies reported no association between VTE and overall survival (OS) in PC patients[21,27]. However, all patients included in these studies had metastatic disease with a short life expectancy. By contrast, later studies reported that the onset of VTE was associated with a poorer prognosis. In a retrospective cohort of 227 patients with unresectable PC, VTE during the course of chemotherapy was associated with a 2.5-fold decrease in progression-free survival (PFS) and a 1.6-fold risk decrease in OS[17]. Similarly, in a small cohort of 135 PC patients, the onset of VTE was significantly associated with increased mortality[23]. Importantly, survival was significantly improved in patients with VTE receiving anticoagulant therapy compared to those who did not receive anticoagulant therapy [hazard ratio (HR) 0.30, 95%CI: 0.12-0.74, $P = 0.009$][23]. Retrospective studies focusing on incidental VTE in PC patients also reported an association between VVT and mortality[36,37]. Similarly, in a prospective cohort of 731 newly diagnosed PC, patients who developed asymptomatic or symptomatic VTE during follow-up had significantly shorter PFS (HR 1.74; 95%CI: 1.19-2.54; $P = 0.004$) and OS (HR 2.02; 95%CI: 1.57-2.60; $P < 0.001$) compared to those who did not developed VTE[34].

RISK FACTORS FOR VTE AND RISK STRATIFICATION IN PC PATIENTS

Several studies have demonstrated that the most important risk factor for VTE in PC patients is the presence of a metastatic disease[16,18,27,31,34,38,39]. In a recent retrospective cohort of 165 PC patients, metastatic disease was associated with a 4.8-fold increase in the risk for VTE; 41 out of 51 patients who developed VTE had metastasis at diagnosis[39]. Similarly, in the BACAP-VTE study[34], metastatic tumors were associated with a 2.5-fold increased risk for VTE compared to non-metastatic tumors.

Major abdominal surgery is also an important risk factor for VTE in PC patients. In an early observational study of 1915 patients with exocrine PC, 127 out of 383 (33.1%) patients requiring pancreatic surgery developed postsurgical VTE[22]. Similarly, 31 out of 209 (14.8%) patients requiring pancreatic surgery developed postsurgical VTE in a large retrospective study of 1,115 conducted in East Asian population[27].

Chemotherapy increases the risk of VTE in cancer patients[40]. Nevertheless, as recently highlighted by Chiasakul *et al*[6], the rates of VTE were underreported in PC chemotherapy RCTs and data on the respective risk of various chemotherapy regimens remain scarce. In recent retrospective or prospective cohorts of PC patients, the rate of VTE did not differ between those receiving gemcitabine-based chemotherapy and those receiving FOLFIRINOX[30,34]. In the subgroup of 273 PC patients included in the CASSINI trial[41], the rates of VTE did not differ between patients treated with 5-fluorouracil-based regimen *vs* gemcitabine-based regimen.

Systematic screening of VTE is not recommended in daily clinical practice. However, all PC patients should receive verbal and written information on the risk factors for VTE, as well as on the signs and symptoms of VTE to promote self-diagnosis and reporting of VTE symptoms.

Over the past ten years, many efforts have been made to develop risk assessment models (RAM) aiming to select cancer patients at highest risk for VTE, and therefore expected to have the best benefit from thromboprophylaxis. However, none of these RAM was designed to specifically assess this risk in PC patients.

The Caprini score is the most widely RAM to assess the risk of VTE in patients undergoing surgery. It has been validated in several types of cancers[42]. However, this model was unable to identify patients at highest risk for VTE in a retrospective cohort of 426 PC patients undergoing preoperative treatment followed by surgical

resection[43].

Furthermore, the Khorana score[44] is the most widely used RAM to assess the risk of VTE in ambulatory cancer patients. It was developed ten years ago[44]. It assigns 1 to 2 points to 5 simple clinical and laboratory variables (primary tumor site, platelet count $\geq 350 \times 10^9/L$, hemoglobin concentration ≤ 10 g/dL or use of erythropoiesis-stimulating agents, leukocyte count $\geq 11 \times 10^9/L$, body mass index (BMI) ≥ 35 kg/m²). Patients are classified as being at “low-risk” (Khorana score = 0), “intermediate-risk” (Khorana score = 1-2), or “high-risk” (Khorana score ≥ 3). All PC patients are classified as being at intermediate- or high-risk. Unfortunately, this model did not discriminate between these two risk categories, neither in retrospective studies of PC patients undergoing chemotherapy[25,28-30,32,39,45], nor in the large prospective BACAP-VTE study[34], nor in the subgroup of 273 PC patients included in the recent CASSINI trial[41] (Table 1), questioning its relevance in this specific population.

Several modifications to this RAM by the addition of other variables to the model have been proposed. The PROTECHT score[46], which includes treatment with cisplatin or carboplatin-based chemotherapy or gemcitabine was found to perform better than the Khorana score in a retrospective analysis of the PROTECHT study, decreasing the number needed to treat (NTT) from 50 to 17. However, this score has not been externally validated in PC patients. More recently, the ONKOTEV score[47] was developed in a prospective cohort of 843 various cancers patients in Italy and Germany, including 253 patient with gastroenteric cancer. The ONKOTEV score assigns one point to four variables, namely: a Khorana score > 2 , a history of previous VTE, a metastatic disease, and a compression of vascular structures by the tumor. The ONKOTEV score demonstrated a significantly higher predictive power compared to the Khorana score in the original development cohort and was recently externally validated in a retrospective single-center cohort of 165 PC patients treated in Portugal with promising results[39]. Ninety-two (55.8%) patients had a metastatic disease at diagnosis and 109 (66.1%) received systemic chemotherapy. At inclusion, 18.2% of patients had an ONKOTEV score of 0, 38.2% of patients had an ONKOTEV score of 1, 33.3% of patients had an ONKOTEV score of 2, and 10.3% of patients had an ONKOTEV score > 2 . During a median observation period of 6.3 mo, 51 out 165 (30.9%) PC patients developed VTE. The cumulative incidence of VTE was 82.4% in patients with an ONKOTEV > 2 compared to 3.3% in those with an ONKOTEV score of 0[39]. These results suggest that the ONKOTEV score could be of help to better stratify PC patients having the highest risk for VTE but deserve further confirmation in prospective cohorts of ambulatory PC patients.

Integration of relevant biomarkers into current RAMs might improve their ability to predict VTE. Faille *et al*[38] recently assessed the diagnosis performances of several biomarkers to predict VTE in a prospective cohort of 50 PC patients, including Factor VIII, D-dimers, von Willebrand factor, free tissue factor pathway inhibitor, micro-vesicle-tissue factor (MV-TF) activity and CA 19.9. In multivariate analysis, baseline D-dimers ≥ 2.16 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (HR 4.9; 95%CI: 1.0-23.1), baseline MV-TF activity 2.37 pg/mL (HR 10.5; 95%CI: 1.5-72.4), and baseline CA 19.9 ≥ 2153 U/mL (HR 9.5; 95%CI: 1.5-60.2) were significantly associated with VTE after adjustment for age and sex, with the best sensitivity and specificity in predicting VTE obtained for CA 19-9[38]. However, these associations were no more significant after adjustment for the presence of metastasis, suggesting once again that the presence of a metastatic disease is the most important risk factor for VTE in PC patients.

The clinical-genetic Thrombo inCode-Oncology (TiC-Onco) score was developed in a prospective cohort of 391 ambulatory patients with various cancers initiating systemic chemotherapy, including 72 (18.5%) patients with PC[48]. Seventy-one out of 391 (18%) patients developed VTE within 6 mo. The prespecified variable selection process selected both clinical variables (tumor site, family history of VTE, BMI ≥ 25 kg/m²) and genetic variables (germline polymorphisms in the *F5*, *F13* and *SERPINA10* genes) for inclusion in the score. In the derivation cohort, the TiC-Onco score performed better than the Khorana score in predicting VTE at 6 mo (sensitivity 49% *vs* 22%, specificity 81% *vs* 82%, positive predictive value 37% *vs* 22%, and negative predictive value 88% *vs* 82%)[48]. Importantly, patients suffering from PC had higher rates of VTE (40%) than patients with other type of cancers (18%), suggesting that PC has a major impact on the accuracy of the TiC-Onco score. However, this model has not yet been externally validated in a cohort of PC patients.

The CATS/MICA score[49] includes two variables, namely: tumour-site risk category (very high *vs* high and high *vs* low or intermediate) and continuous D-dimer levels. It was developed in the prospective Vienna Cancer and Thrombosis Study (CATS) cohort of 1423 ambulatory cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy, including 118 (8%) patients with PC[49]. During a median follow-up of 6 mo, 80 out of

Table 1 Studies assessing the predictive values of risk assessment models in pancreatic cancer patients

Ref.	Study design	Country	Patients analyzed/included	VTE screening at study entry	RAMs	Number of patients in each group	Study or median observation period	Patients with VTE during the overall follow-up, n (%)	Rates of VTE
Pelzer <i>et al</i> [45], 2013	Retrospective analysis of the CONKO-004 RCT	Germany	144/312, APC included in the CONKO-004 trial (control arm)	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 55/144 (38.2%); High risk: 89/144 (61.8%)	12 mo	21/144 (14.6%)	At 6 mo: Intermediate risk: 4/55 (7.2%); High risk: 17/89 (19.1%)
Muñoz Martín <i>et al</i> [25], 2014	Retrospective	Spain	73/84, ambulatory PC patients receiving chemotherapy	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 36/84 (43%); High risk: 48/84 (57%)	2008-2011	30/84 (35.7%)	At 6 mo: Intermediate risk: 4/37 (10.8%); High risk: 10/36 (27.8%)
van Es <i>et al</i> [29], 2017	Retrospective	Netherlands	147/178, ambulatory PC patients starting chemotherapy	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 101/147 (69%); High risk: 46/147 (31%)	2003-2014	20/147 (13.6%)	At 6 mo: Intermediate risk: 9/101 (8.9%); High risk: 4/46 (8.7%)
Kruger <i>et al</i> [28], 2017	Retrospective	Germany	111/172, APC patients undergoing palliative chemotherapy	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 69/111 (38%); High risk: 42/111 (62%)	2002-2012	16/111 (14.4%)	At 6 mo: Intermediate risk: 6/69 (8.6%); High risk: 5/42 (11.9%); During the overall observation period: Intermediate risk: 8/69 (11.6%); High risk: 8/42 (19.0%); $P = 0.4$
Berger <i>et al</i> [30], 2017	Retrospective	Germany	150, PC patients receiving chemotherapy	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 87/150 (58%); High risk: 63/150 (42%)	2010-2014	37/150 (24.7%)	Unspecified; During the overall observation period: no difference between groups ($P = 0.44$)
Godinho <i>et al</i> [39], 2020	Retrospective	Portugal	165 newly diagnosed PC patients	No	Khorana score; Onkotev score	Khorana score: Intermediate risk: 106/165 (64%); High risk: 59/165 (36%). Onkotev score: Score 0: 30/165 (18.2%); Score 1: 63/165 (38.2%); Score 2: 55/165 (33.3%); Score ≥ 3 : 17/165 (10.3%)	6.3 mo	51/165 (31%)	During the overall observation period: Khorana score: Intermediate risk: 28/106 (26.4%); High risk: 23/59 (38.9%). Onkotev score: Score 0: 1/30 (< 10%); Score 1: 8/63 (< 10%); Score 2: 28/55 (41.8%); Score ≥ 3 : 14/17 (70.6%)
Kim <i>et al</i> [32], 2018	Retrospective	Korea	216 metastatic PC patients receiving palliative chemotherapy	No	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 135/216 (62.5%); High risk: 81/216 (37.5%)	2005-2015	50/216 (23.1%)	During the overall observation period: Intermediate risk: 30/135

									(22.2%); High risk: 20/81 (24.7%); $P = 0.677$
Frere <i>et al</i> [34], 2020	Prospective	France	675 newly diagnosed PC patients	Yes, patients excluded if VTE at diagnosis	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 492/675 (73%); High risk: 183/675 (27%)	2014-2019; 19.3 mo	141/675 (20.8%)	During the total follow-up: Intermediate risk: 108/492 (22%); High risk: 33/183 (18%); $P = 0.26$
Vadhan-Raj <i>et al</i> [41], 2020	Retrospective subgroup analysis of the CASSINI RCT	International	138 PC patients undergoing chemotherapy included in the CASSINI trial (control arm)	Yes, patients excluded if VTE at diagnosis	Khorana score	Intermediate risk: 100/138 (72.5%); High risk: 38/138 (27.5%)	6 mo	18/138 (13.0%)	At 6 mo: Intermediate risk: 14/100 (14.0%); High risk: 4/38 (10.5%)

APC: Advanced Pancreatic cancer; PC: Pancreatic cancer; RAM: Risk assessment model; VTE: Venous thromboembolism.

1423 patients (6%) developed VTE. In the CATS cohort, the C-index of the model was 0.66 (95% CI: 0.63-0.67) compared to 0.61 (95% CI: 0.51-0.70) for the Khorana score[49]. The score was then validated in the prospective Multinational Cohort Study to Identify Cancer Patients at High Risk of Venous Thromboembolism (MICA) cohort ($n = 832$), including 116 (14%) patients with PC[49]. Using this RAM, all PC patients are classified at intermediate or high risk of VTE. Of note, the CATS/MICA score has not yet been externally validated in a cohort of PC patients.

Finally, machine learning methods are increasingly used for the development of prediction models. Two recent studies conducted in various cancer patients[50] or in ovarian cancer patients[51] have demonstrated that such models could improve the prediction of VTE compared to conventional methods.

WHEN SHOULD WE CONSIDER PRIMARY PROPHYLAXIS IN PC PATIENTS?

Surgical PC patients

Prolonged thromboprophylaxis following major abdominal surgery has been shown to decrease the rate of VTE by approximately 50%[52]. Accordingly, all current CPGs recommend using thromboprophylaxis in surgical PC patients[8,11]. In those undergoing laparotomy or laparoscopic surgery without contraindications to LMWH, the highest LMWH prophylactic dose should be used for an extended duration of 4 wk (Grade 1A)[8]. External compression devices alone should be used only in patients with contraindications to anticoagulants (Grade 2B)[8]. Inferior vena cava filters should not be used systematically in this setting (Grade 1A)[8]. The risks of VTE should be balanced by the competing risk of bleeding. Numerous factors such as advanced or metastatic disease, older age, anemia, thrombocytopenia, renal impairment, liver dysfunction, and concomitant anticancer therapies may potentiate the overall bleeding risk and should be taken into account. The careful evaluation of each individual profile is warranted for overcoming management challenges.

Hospitalized PC patients

Acute medical illness and bed rest constitute transient factors increasing the risk of VTE in hospitalized cancer patients. Although there is no large RCT specifically demonstrating the benefit of thromboprophylaxis in cancer inpatients, RCTs conducted in non-cancer inpatients have demonstrated that LMWH improves survival and reduces VTE in general medical patients hospitalized with acute medical conditions, and recommendations for cancer patients have been extrapolated from these RCTs. The ITAC CPGs[8] recommend using LMWH at prophylactic doses or unfractionated heparin (UFH) or Fondaparinux in PC inpatients without contraindications to anticoagulants (Grade 1B)[8]. Due to the lack of data on the efficacy and safety of DOAC in this setting, they should not be used (Best clinical practice)[8].

Ambulatory PC patients

Most cancer patients develop VTE in the outpatient setting[53]. The net clinical benefit of primary thromboprophylaxis in advanced PC patients has been firmly established in two pivotal RCTs[54,55] which specifically addressed the efficacy and safety of LMWH in this setting (Table 2). Based on the results of these two trials, the ITAC CPGs recommend using primary thromboprophylaxis with LMWH in ambulatory advanced PC patients receiving chemotherapy with a Grade 1B evidence level since 2013[8,56,57].

The FRAGEM trial randomized 123 advanced PC patients to receive gemcitabine plus weight-adjusted therapeutic doses of dalteparin for 12 wk or gemcitabine alone[54]. The coprimary endpoints were the rate of symptomatic or incidentally diagnosed VTE events during the 12-wk anticoagulation period and the rate of symptomatic or incidentally diagnosed VTE events during the overall follow-up period. The rate of VTE was significantly lower in the dalteparin arm (3.4% *vs* 23% in the control arm, risk ratio 0.145, 95%CI: 0.035-0.612, $P = 0.002$), resulting in a NNT of 6 patients to prevent 1 VTE event. No VTE-related deaths occurred in the dalteparin arm compared to 5 (8.3%) VTE-related deaths in the control arm. The rates of major bleeding did not differ between the 2 arms and were lower than 3%, with only 2 patients experiencing a major bleeding requiring anticoagulation discontinuation. Of note, patients in the dalteparin arm experienced more minor bleeding such as skin bruising or epistaxis (9% *vs* 3% in the gemcitabine alone arm)[54]. There was no difference in PFS or OS between the two arms.

The PROSPECT-CONKO 004 trial randomized 312 advanced PC patients to receive supra-prophylactic doses of enoxaparin during the first 3 mo of chemotherapy or chemotherapy alone[55]. Unlike in FRAGEM, incidental VTE events were excluded from the analysis. The cumulative incidence rate of symptomatic VTE within the first 3 mo was 1.3% in the enoxaparin arm compared to 10.2% in the control arm (HR 0.12, 95%CI: 0.03-0.52), resulting in a NNT of 11 patients to prevent 1 VTE event. The rates of major bleeding events were similar in both arms. PFS and OS did not differ between the 2 arms[55].

Two additional phase III double-blinded placebo-controlled trials (the PROTECHT [58] and the SAVE-ONCO studies[59]) evaluated the efficacy and safety of primary thromboprophylaxis with prophylactic doses of other LMWH in ambulatory cancer patients receiving chemotherapy. In the PROTECHT study ($n = 1150$)[58], while nadroparin reduced the rate of VTE from 3.9% to 2.0% ($P = 0.02$) without difference in major bleeding in the overall population, the rates of VTE did not differ between the two arms in the subgroup of 53 PC patients ($P = 0.755$). In the SAVE-ONCO study ($n = 3221$)[59] the rate of VTE was 1.2% in the semuloparin arm compared to 3.4% in the placebo arm (HR 0.36, 95%CI: 0.21-0.60; $P < 0.001$) in the overall population, without difference in major bleeding (HR 1.05, 95%CI: 0.55-1.99). The absolute VTE risk reduction with semuloparin appeared to be much higher in the subgroup of 254 PC patients. The magnitude of the VTE risk reduction was similar to that obtained with therapeutic doses of dalteparin in the FRAGEM study[54] or with supra-prophylactic doses of enoxaparin in the PROSPECT-CONKO 004 study[55].

More recently, two randomized placebo-controlled trials assessed the efficacy and safety of primary thromboprophylaxis with prophylactic doses of DOACs (apixaban 2.5 mg twice daily for up to 6 mo in the AVERT trial[60]; rivaroxaban 10 mg once daily for up to 6 mo in the CASSINI trial[61]) in cancer patients with a Khorana score ≥ 2 undergoing chemotherapy. Results from a subgroup of PC patients were reported only for the CASSINI trial[41]. Among the 273 PC patients included in this prespecified subgroup analysis, 214 (78%) had a locally advanced or metastatic PC and 271 (99.3%) were receiving cytotoxic chemotherapy (fluorouracil-based in 47.6% of cases and gemcitabine-based in 44.7% of cases). Rivaroxaban did not significantly reduce the rates of the primary efficacy endpoint of symptomatic DVT, asymptomatic proximal DVT, any PE and VTE-related death within the 6 mo observation period (absolute difference of 3.4%, $P =$ not significant). However, most of VTE events occurred after discontinuation of rivaroxaban (61.5%) compared to placebo (22.2%). During the intervention period, rivaroxaban significantly reduced the rates of the primary efficacy endpoint from 10.1% to 3.7% (absolute difference of 6.4%, HR 0.35, 95%CI: 0.13-0.97, $P = 0.034$), resulting in a NTT of 16 patients to prevent 1 event. Importantly, 2 out of 5 events in the rivaroxaban arm and 5 out of 14 events in the placebo arm were asymptomatic lower-extremity proximal DVT diagnosed by ultrasound screening during the follow-up, leading to overestimate the rates of VTE in both arms. The rates of major bleeding and all-cause mortality did not differ between the two arms[41].

Table 2 Studies assessing the clinical benefit of anticoagulants for the prevention of venous thromboembolism in ambulatory pancreatic cancer patients

	PROTECHT	SAVE ONCO	FRAGEM	CONKO-0004	CASSINI
	Agnelli <i>et al</i> [58], 2009	Agnelli <i>et al</i> [59], 2012	Maraveyas <i>et al</i> [54], 2012	Pelzer <i>et al</i> [55], 2015	Khorana <i>et al</i> [61], 2019 and Vadhan-Raj <i>et al</i> [41], 2020
Population	Ambulatory patients > 18 yr on chemotherapy with metastatic or locally advanced lung, gastrointestinal, breast, ovarian, or head and neck cancer	Patients with metastatic or locally advanced lung, pancreatic, gastric, colorectal, bladder, and ovarian cancer beginning to receive a course of chemotherapy	Patients aged 18 yr or older; Histologically/cytologically confirmed advanced or metastatic pancreatic cancer; KPS: 60-100	Patients with histologically proven advanced pancreatic cancer were randomly assigned to ambulant first-line chemotherapy	Adult ambulatory patients with various cancers initiating a new systemic regimen and at increased risk for VTE (defined as Khorana score ≥ 2)
Study design	Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind, multicenter study	Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind, multicenter study	Randomized, controlled Phase 2b study	Prospective, open label, randomized, multicenter and group-sequential 2b trial	Double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel-group, multicenter study
Intervention	Arm A: nadroparin 3800 IU/d; Arm B: placebo; For duration of chemotherapy (up to 4 mo maximum)	Arm A: Semuloparin, 20 mg/d; Arm B: placebo; For duration of chemotherapy (median: 3.5 mo)	Arm A: Gemcitabine + Dalteparin 200 IU/kg s.c., o.d., for 4 wk, followed by a step-down regimen to 150 IU/kg for a further 8 wk); Arm B: Gemcitabine alone; For up to 12 wk	Arm A: Enoxaparin 1 mg/kg per day; Arm B: No enoxaparin	Arm A: rivaroxaban 10 mg o.d. up to day 180; Arm B: placebo up to day 180
Number of patients analyzed	Overall population: Arm A: 769 patients; Arm B: 381 patients. PC subgroup: Arm A: 36 patients; Arm B: 17 patients	Overall population: Arm A: 1608 patients; Arm B: 1604 patients. PC subgroup: Arm A: 126 patients; Arm B: 128 patients	Arm A: 59 patients; Arm B: 62 patients	Arm A: 160 patients; Arm B: 152 patients	Overall population: Arm A: 420 patients; Arm B: 404 patients. PC patients: Arm A: 135 patients; Arm B: 138 patients
Follow-up	120 d	3 mo	3 mo	3 mo	6 mo
Thromboembolic endpoint events	Overall population: Arm A: 11/769 (1.4%); Arm B: 11/381 (2.9%); $P = 0.02$. PC subgroup: Arm A: 3/36 (8.3%); Arm B: 1/17 (5.9%); $P = 0.755$	Overall population: Arm A: 20/1608 (1.2%); Arm B: 55/1064 (5.2%); HR 0.36 (95%CI: 0.21-0.60); $P < 0.001$. PC subgroup: Arm A: 3/126 (2.4%); Arm B: 14/128 (10.9%); HR 0.22 (95%CI: 0.06-0.76); $P = 0.015$. At 3 mo: Arm A: 2/59 (3%); Arm B: 14/62 (23%); RR 0.145 (95%CI: 0.035-0.612); $P = 0.002$	At 3 mo: Arm A: 2/160 (1.25%); Arm B: 15/152 (9.8%); HR 0.12 (95%CI: 0.03-0.52); $P = 0.001$. Entire study: Arm A: 7/59 (12%); Arm B: 17/62 (28%); RR 0.419 (95%CI: 0.187-0.935); $P = 0.039$	Cumulative incidence rates: Arm A: 6.4%; Arm B: 15.1%; HR 0.40 (95%CI: 0.19-0.83); $P = 0.01$	Overall population: Up-to-day-180 observation period: Arm A: 25/420 (5.95%); Arm B: 37/421 (8.79%); HR 0.66 (95%CI: 0.40-1.09); $P = 0.101$; NNT = 3.5. Intervention period: Arm A: 11/420 (2.62%); Arm B: 27/421 (6.41%); HR 0.40 (95%CI: 0.20-0.80); $P = 0.007$; NNT = 26. PC subgroup: Up-to-day-180 observation period: Arm A: 13/135 (9.6%); Arm B: 18/138 (13.0%); HR 0.70 (95%CI: 0.34-1.43); $P = 0.329$. Intervention period: Arm A: 5/135 (3.7%); Arm B: 14/138 (10.1%); HR 0.35 (95%CI: 0.130-0.96); $P = 0.043$; NNT = 16
Bleeding	Overall population: Major bleeding: Arm A: 5/769 (0.7%); Arm B: 0/381; $P = 0.18$. Minor bleeding: Arm A: 57/769 (7.4%); Arm B: 30/381 (7.9%); $P = \text{not significant}$. PC subgroup: $P = \text{not significant}$	Overall population: Major bleeding: Arm A: 19/1589 (1.2%); Arm B: 18/1583 (1.1%); OR 1.05 (95%CI: 0.55-2.04). CRNMB: Arm A: 26/1589 (2.8%); Arm B: 14/1583 (0.9%); OR 1.86 (95%CI: 0.98-3.68). PC subgroup: $P = \text{not significant}$	ISTH severe: Arm A: 2/59 (3%); Arm B: 2/62 (3%). ISTH non severe: Arm A: 5/59 (9%); Arm B: 2/62 (3%)	Major bleeding: Arm A: 8.3%; Arm B: 6.9%; HR 1.23 (95%CI: 0.54-2.79); $P = 0.63$	Overall population: Major bleeding: Arm A: 8/405 (1.98%); Arm B: 4/404 (0.99%); HR 1.96 (95%CI: 0.59-6.49) $P = 0.265$; NNH = 101. CRNMB: Arm A: 2.72%; Arm B: 1.98%; HR 1.96 (95%CI: 0.59-6.49); $P = 0.265$; NNH = 101. PC subgroup: Major bleeding: Arm A: 2/130 (1.5%); Arm B: 3/131 (2.3%); HR 0.67 (95%CI: 0.11-3.99); $P = 0.654$. CRNMB: Arm A: 3/131 (2.3%); Arm B: 2/130 (1.5%); HR 2.47 (95%CI: 0.48-12.72); $P = 0.264$
Survival	Overall population: Arm A: 33/769	Not significant	Arm A: 8.7 mo; Arm B: 9.7 mo	Arm A: 8.2 mo; Arm B: 8.51 mo;	Overall population: All-cause mortality: Arm A: 20.0%;

(4.3%); Arm B: 16/381
(4.2%); $P =$ not
significant. PC
subgroup: not
significant

HR 1.01 (95%CI: 0.87-1.38); $P =$
0.44
Arm B: 23.8%; HR 0.83
(95%CI 0.62-1.11); $P =$ 0.213.
PC subgroup: Arm A: 34/135
(25.2%); Arm B: 33/138
(23.9%)

CI: Confidence interval; CRNMB: Clinically relevant non-major bleeding; HR: Hazard ratio; ISTH: International society of thrombosis and haemostasis; KPS: Karnofsky performance status; o.d.: Once daily; NTT: Number needed to treat; OR: Odds ratio; PC: Pancreatic cancer; RR: Risk ratio.

Recently, a systematic review and meta-analysis aggregated the data from the 1003 PC patients enrolled in the 5 above-mentioned RCTs[62]. Primary thromboprophylaxis was estimated to significantly reduce the risk of symptomatic VTE by approximately 69%, resulting in a NTT of 11.9 to prevent one VTE event, without increase in the risk of major bleeding. Sensitivity analyzes showed that primary prophylaxis with LMWH or DOAC, and prophylactic doses or supra-prophylactic doses of anticoagulants reduced the risk of VTE with the same magnitude.

In light of the results from the AVERT and CASSINI trials, the ITAC[8] and ASCO[11] CPGs now recommend thromboprophylaxis with apixaban or rivaroxaban in cancer outpatients undergoing chemotherapy having a Khorana score ≥ 2 , no bleeding risk and no drug-drug interactions (Grade 1B)[8]. Since the Khorana score assigns + 2 points for PC, thromboprophylaxis with DOAC or LMWH may be now offered in all ambulatory PC patients. Decisions to initiate thromboprophylaxis should be made based on a multidisciplinary patient-centered approach, after close discussion with the patient.

Nevertheless, primary thromboprophylaxis has not been yet widely adopted in PC outpatients, mainly due to fear of bleeding in otherwise frail subjects and inherent costs for such therapy.

HOW TO TREAT VTE IN PC PATIENTS?

A step-based adapted approach

For many years, monotherapy with LMWH has been the standard of care to treat cancer-associated VTE, based on the results of 5 landmark RCTs comparing LMWH to vitamin K antagonists[63-67]. However, positive results from 4 recent RCTs comparing DOAC to LMWH monotherapy for the treatment of cancer-associated thrombosis [68-71] (Table 3) prompted current updated CPGs to include DOACs as a new first-line option in selected patients, but not all[8,11].

The ability to now use oral-only anticoagulation strategies, precluding the need for long-term daily injection and dose adjustment, may seem appealing but adds to the complexity of decision making. Appropriate selection of anticoagulants appears more than ever as a critical element of high-quality care for cancer patients with VTE, and numerous factors must be taken into consideration when choosing one anticoagulant rather than the other[72]. A personalized approach is warranted.

The ITAC CPGs recommend using LMWH for the initial and long-term treatment of established VTE when creatinine clearance is ≥ 30 mL per min (Grade 1B)[8]. For patients without risk of gastrointestinal or genitourinary bleeding, rivaroxaban (in the first 10 d) or edoxaban (started after at least 5 d of parenteral anticoagulation) can also be used (Grade 1B)[8]. UFH provides an alternative option when LMWH or DOACs are contraindicated, or not available (Grade 2C)[8]. Anticoagulation should be continued for at least 6 mo (Grade 1A) or indefinitely while cancer is active or treated [8].

LMWH are the preferred option in patients with VVT due their short half-life and possible dose reduction in case of esophageal varices.

Briefly, DOAC are a reasonable option in ambulatory PC patients with DVT or PE with an intact upper gastrointestinal tract, without nausea or vomiting, with a low risk of bleeding, with a platelet count $> 50000/\text{mm}^3$, with a creatinine clearance > 30 mL/min, without severe hepatic impairment and for whom no surgical intervention is planned. They should not be used in patients with creatinine clearance < 30 mL/min, luminal gastrointestinal lesion, platelet count $< 50000/\text{mm}^3$, high bleeding risk, recent or planned surgery, or potential drug-drug interactions[73,74].

A step-based adapted approach (Figure 1), incorporating tumor type, careful examination of bleeding risk, potential drug-drug interactions, and patient preferences, has been proposed by several authors[73,74]. The multi-language web-

Table 3 Randomized trials assessing the efficacy and safety of direct oral anticoagulants in cancer patients with venous thromboembolism

	HOKUSAI-CANCER VTE[68] (n = 1050)		SELECT-D[69] (n = 406)		ADAM-VTE[70] (n = 300)		CARAVAGGIO[71] (n = 1155)	
	Edoxaban	Dalteparin	Rivaroxaban	Dalteparin	Apixaban	Dalteparin	Apixaban	Dalteparin
Dose	LMWH × 5 d, then 60 mg OD	200 IU/kg × 1 mo, then 150 U/kg daily	15 mg BID × 3 wk, then 20 mg OD × 6mo	200 IU/kg × 1 mo, then 150 U/kg daily	10 mg BID × 7 d, then 5 mg BID × 6 mo	200 IU/kg × 1 mo, then 150 U/kg daily	10 mg BID × 7 d, then 5 mg BID × 6 mo	200 IU/kg × 1 mo, then 150 U/kg daily
Patients	Patients with active cancer and symptomatic or incidental popliteal, femoral or iliac or IVC DVT, symptomatic or incidental PE		Patients with active cancer and symptomatic DVT, symptomatic PE, or incidental PE		Active cancer patients with acute DVT (including upper extremity), PE, splanchnic or cerebral vein thrombosis		Patients with active or recent cancer and acute DVT or PE	
PrimaryEndpoint	Composite of recurrent VTE/major bleeding at 12 mo		VTE recurrence over 6 mo		Primary safety: Major bleeding at 6mo; secondary efficacy: VTE at 6 mo		Efficacy: Recurrent VTE at 6 mo; Safety: Major bleeding at 6 mo	
Follow-up	12 mo		6 mo		6 mo		6 mo	
Recurrent VTE (%)	41/525 (7.9)	59/525 (11.3)	8/203 (4)	18/203 (11)	1/145 (0.7)	9/142 (6.3)	32/576 (5.6)	46/579 (7.9)
HR (95%CI) for recurrent VTE	0.71 (0.48-1.06), <i>P</i> = 0.006		0.43 (0.19-0.99)		0.099 (0.013-0.780), <i>P</i> = 0.03		0.63 (0.37-1.07, <i>P</i> < 0.001)	
Major bleeding (%)	36/525 (6.9)	21/525 (4.0)	11/203 (4)	6/203 (6)	0/145 (0)	2/142 (1.4)	22/576 (3.8)	23/579 (4)
HR (CI) for major bleeding	1.77 (1.03-3.04)		1.83 (0.68-4.96)		Not estimable		0.82 (0.40-1.69, <i>P</i> = 0.6)	
CRNMB (%)	76/525 (14.6)	58/525 (11.1)	25/203 (12.3)	7/203 (3.4)	9/145 (6.2)	7/142 (4.9)	52/576 (9)	35/579 (6.0)
HR (95%CI) for CRNMB	1.38 (0.98-1.94)		3.76 (1.63-8.69)		0.931 (0.43-2.02), <i>P</i> = 0.88		1.42 (0.88-2.30)	

DVT: Deep vein thrombosis; PE: Pulmonary embolism; VTE: Venous thromboembolism; CI: Confidence interval; CRNMB: Clinically relevant non-major bleeding; HR: Hazard ratio; LMWH: Low-molecular-weight heparin.

based mobile application developed by the ITAC (downloadable for free at www.itaccme.com) based on such decision-tree algorithms is paramount to help clinicians in decision making[8].

Patients should be actively involved in treatment decisions and those treated with anticoagulants should be educated on the rationale for their treatment, the potential treatment safety concerns, and the risk of drug-drug interactions to ensure optimal adherence and treatment outcomes.

Incidental VTE is associated with high risks of recurrent VTE and VTE-related mortality[75-77] and should be treated as symptomatic VTE[8].

CONCLUSION

VTE is a common and potentially life-threatening complication in PC patients. Strict adherence to current evidence-based guidelines and dedicated patient education programs are warranted to optimize both the primary thromboprophylaxis and the treatment of VTE in PC patients. Clinical innovative tools, such as the multi-language web-based mobile application developed by the ITAC (downloadable for free at www.itaccme.com) will be paramount to assist clinicians in rigorously implementing updated CPGs and further decrease the burden of VTE in PC patients.

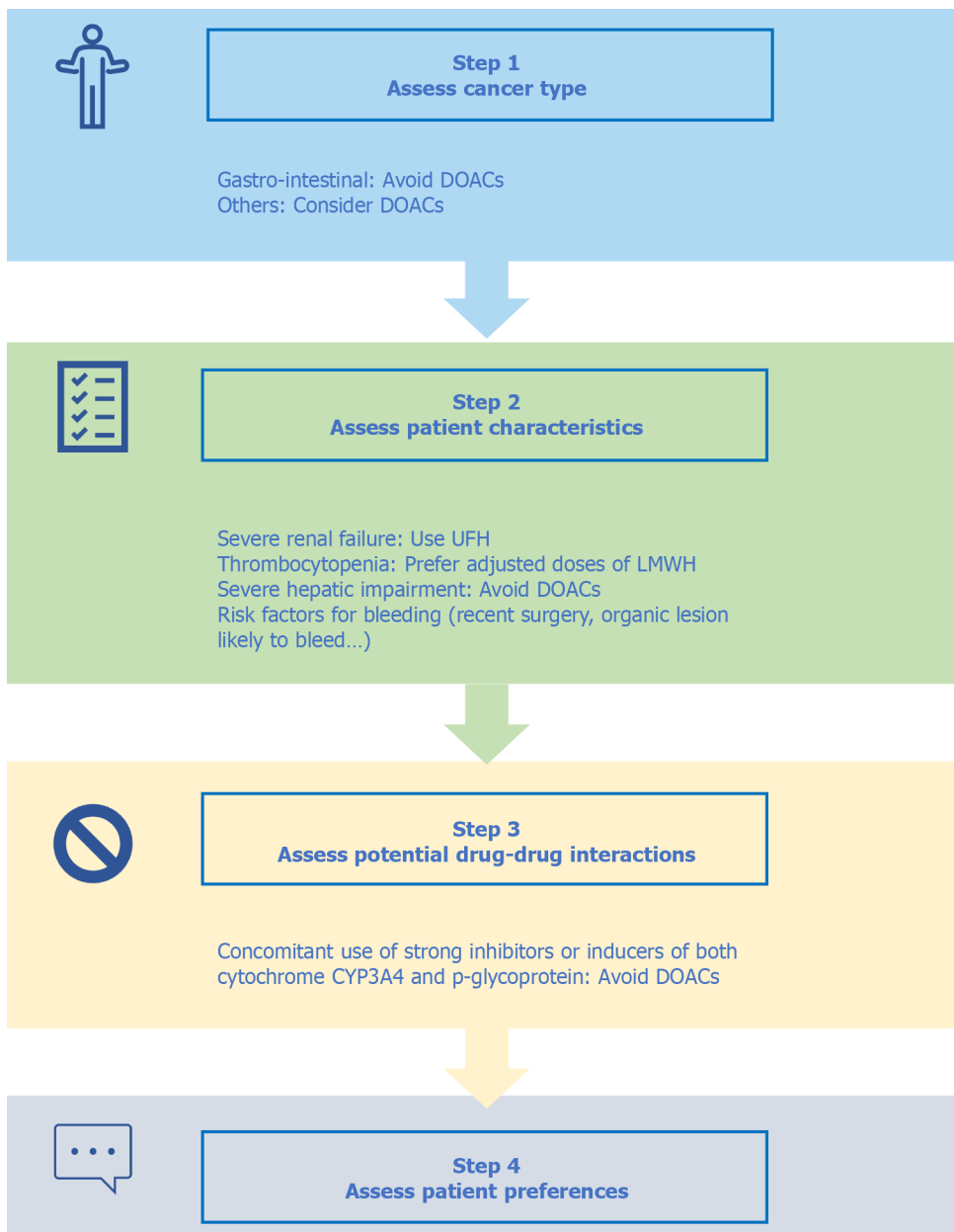


Figure 1 Four step adapted approach for the treatment of cancer-associated venous thromboembolism. DOACs: Direct oral anticoagulants; UFH: Unfractionated heparin; LMWH: Low-molecular-weight heparin; CYP3A4: Cytochrome P450 3A4.

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Pathophysiological mechanisms underlying gastrointestinal symptoms in patients with COVID-19

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Abstract

Gastrointestinal (GI) symptoms, such as diarrhea, abdominal pain, vomiting, and anorexia, are frequently observed in patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). However, the pathophysiological mechanisms connecting these GI symptoms to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infections remain elusive. Previous studies indicate that the entry of SARS-CoV-2 into intestinal cells leads to downregulation of angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptors resulting in impaired barrier function. While intestinal ACE2 functions as a chaperone for the amino acid transporter B0AT1, the B0AT1/ACE2 complex within the intestinal epithelium acts as a regulator of gut microbiota composition and function. Alterations to the B0AT1/ACE2 complex lead to microbial dysbiosis through increased local and systemic immune responses. Previous studies have also suggested that altered serotonin metabolism may be the underlying cause of GI disorders involving diarrhea. The findings of elevated plasma serotonin levels and high fecal calprotectin in COVID-19 patients with diarrhea indicate that the viral infection evokes a systemic inflammatory response that specifically involves the GI. Interestingly, the elevated proinflammatory cytokines correlate with elevated serotonin and fecal calprotectin levels further supporting the evidence of GI inflammation, a hallmark of functional GI disorders. Moreover, the finding that rectal swabs of COVID-19 patients remain positive for SARS-CoV-2 even after the nasopharynx clears the virus, suggests that viral replication and shedding from the GI tract may be more robust than that of the respiratory tract, further indicating fecal-oral transmission as another important route of viral spread. This review summarized the evidence for pathophysiological mechanisms (impaired barrier function, gut inflammation, altered serotonin metabolism and gut microbiota dysbiosis) underlying the GI symptoms in patients with COVID-19.

Key Words: COVID-19; Gastrointestinal symptoms; Gut microbiota dysbiosis; Impaired

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Core Tip: Since the declaration of the pandemic on March 11, 2020 by the World Health Organization, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infection has quickly become a global health threat. In addition to respiratory symptoms, gastrointestinal (GI) symptoms have been widely observed in coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) patients. Here, we have summarized the GI symptoms seen in COVID-19 patients that have been reported in nineteen studies and recapitulated potential mechanisms that are responsible for the GI symptoms in COVID-19 patients. This biochemical understanding may assist in new therapeutic approaches.

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INTRODUCTION

Since December 2019, an acute respiratory infection, referred to as severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), caused by the novel coronavirus has rapidly spread worldwide[1-3]. In the United States alone, 198589 deaths (60.3/100000) have been reported due to the coronavirus pandemic from February 13, 2020 to September 19, 2020[4].

Based on next-generation sequencing data from patient samples, SARS-CoV-2 is closely associated with two bat-derived SARS-like coronaviruses, bat-SL-CoVZC45 and bat-SL-CoVZXC21 (88% identity)[5]. The binding of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein to the host receptor, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), is critical for viral invasion[6]. This viral infection may be asymptomatic or cause symptoms, such as fever, cough, headache, and myalgia[7-9]. Interestingly, up to 40% of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) patients experience gastrointestinal (GI) symptoms, including diarrhea, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and abdominal pain (Table 1). In order to provide appropriate medical care to COVID-19 patients, it is necessary to explore pathophysiological mechanisms underlying their GI symptoms.

In this review, we summarized the studies that describe the various GI symptoms in COVID-19 patients and highlighted the likely underlying pathophysiological mechanisms. These insights offer potential new therapeutic approaches for containment of the global inflammatory response. Furthermore, we also shed light on the importance of the altered gut microbiota profile in the possible pathogenesis of COVID-19.

CLINICAL PRESENTATION OF COVID-19 PATIENTS WITH GI SYMPTOMS

The clinical severity of COVID-19 patients may be stratified into three grades: Placid, ordinary, and grave cases. The incubation period of SARS-CoV-2 ranges from 1-14 d, but is more commonly 3-7 d. The typical clinical presentation of SARS-CoV-2 consists of fever, fatigue, dry cough, and shortness of breath. Other common symptoms involve congestion and rhinorrhea, pharyngalgia, myalgias, and diarrhea. In grave cases, the infection culminates in acute respiratory distress syndrome, which is associated with a high degree of mortality. Although the majority of symptomatic SARS-CoV-2 cases present with pulmonary symptoms, extra-pulmonary symptoms are also common, and several case studies have described the presence of digestive symptoms in the SARS-CoV-2 infection.

We identified and analyzed the GI symptoms of COVID-19 patients reported in nineteen published papers, which included diarrhea, nausea, abdominal pain, vomiting, anorexia, and bleeding (Table 1). Out of the nineteen papers, thirteen were

Table 1 Clinical presentation of gastrointestinal symptoms among coronavirus disease 2019 patients, *n* (%)

Ref.	Number of patients	Diarrhea	Anorexia	Nausea	Vomiting	Abdominal pain	GI Bleeding
Ha <i>et al</i> [12]	80	10 (12.5)	-	6 (7.5)	2 (2.5)	7 (8.8)	1 (1.3)
Jin <i>et al</i> [10]	651	53 (8.1)	-	10 (1.5)	11 (1.7)	-	-
Lin <i>et al</i> [11]	95	23 (24.2)	17 (17.9)	17 (17.9)	4 (4.2)	2 (2.1) ¹	2 (2.1) ²
Zhang <i>et al</i> [65]	139	18 (12.9)	17 (12.2)	24 (17.3)	7 (5)	8 (5.8)	-
Wang <i>et al</i> [66]	138	14 (10.1)	55 (39.9)	14 (10.1)	5 (3.6)	3 (2.2)	-
Chen <i>et al</i> [67]	99	2(2)	-	1 (1) ³	-	-	-
Chen <i>et al</i> [68]	9	2 (22.2)	-	-	-	-	-
Young <i>et al</i> [13]	18	3 (16.7)	-	-	-	-	-
Chang <i>et al</i> [69]	13	1 (7.7)	-	-	-	-	-
Liu <i>et al</i> [70]	137	11 (8)	-	-	-	-	-
Pan <i>et al</i> [71]	204	35 (17.2)	81 (39.7)	-	4 (2)	2 (1)	-
Wang <i>et al</i> [72]	69	10 (14.5)	7 (10.1)	-	3 (4.3)	-	-
Yang <i>et al</i> [73]	52	-	-	-	2 (3.8)	-	-
Spiteri <i>et al</i> [74]	38	1 (2.6)	-	1 (2.6)	-	-	-
Han <i>et al</i> [75]	206	67 (32.5)	32 (15.5)	-	24 (11.7)	9 (4.4)	-
Nobel <i>et al</i> [76]	278	56 (20.1)	-	63 (22.7) ³	-	-	-
Zhou <i>et al</i> [77]	254	46 (18.1)	-	21 (8.3)	15 (5.9)	3 (1.2)	-
Cholankeril <i>et al</i> [78]	116	12 (10.3)	22 (25.3)	12 (10.3)	5 (4.3)	10 (8.8)	-
Redd <i>et al</i> [79]	318	107 (33.7)	110 (34.8)	84 (26.4)	49 (15.4)	46 (14.5)	2 (0.63)
Total	2914	471 (16.2)	341 (11.7)	253 (8.7)	131 (4.5)	90 (3.1)	5 (0.2)

¹Epigastric discomfort.²Upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage.³Nausea and vomiting. GI: Gastrointestinal.

from China, four were from the United States, one was from Singapore, and one was from Europe. Among GI symptoms, diarrhea was the most prevalent, accounting for 2% to 33.7% of all patients. The median duration period of diarrhea in COVID-19 patients was 4 d with a range of 1 d to 9 d[10]. Other frequently reported GI symptoms were anorexia (341/2914, 11.7%), nausea (253/2914, 8.7%), vomiting (131/2914, 4.5%), abdominal pain (90/2914, 3.1%) and bleeding (5/2914, 0.2%). GI symptoms were more frequently reported during hospitalization than at the time of admission[11]. We have also recently reported a strong correlation between diarrhea and the severity of the disease[12]. These data suggest that GI symptoms should be included in the assessment of the disease severity in COVID-19.

Previously, it was shown that RNA from SARS-CoV-2 was found in fecal samples (four out of eight patients) regardless of the presence of diarrhea[13]. Furthermore, another study demonstrated that SARS-CoV-2 RNA was found in the feces of 22/42 (52.4%) COVID-19 patients with GI symptoms. Among 23 COVID-19 patients without GI symptoms, SARS-CoV-2 RNA was found in the feces of 9 (39.1%) patients[11]. Although the clinical relevance of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in fecal material remains unclear, understanding the biochemical mechanisms behind the SARS-CoV-2 mediated induction of GI symptoms is important to gain further understanding of the pathophysiology of COVID-19. Therefore, we described potential mechanisms, by which GI symptoms might occur in COVID-19 patients and proposed new therapeutic strategies to modulate the global inflammatory response.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL MECHANISMS FOR GI SYMPTOMS IN COVID-19

Intestinal ACE2 receptor mediated impaired barrier function

ACE2 has emerged as a critical regulator of the renin angiotensin system (RAS) by metabolizing angiotensin (Ang) II into the beneficial peptide Ang 1-7[14]. ACE2 has also been identified as the key receptor for SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2[15]. Spike protein exposure led to increased Ang II and pulmonary edema, which was mediated by angiotensin II type I receptor (AT1R)[16]. Given the similarities between the SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2 spike proteins, a similar mechanism of spike-mediated ACE2 down-regulation most likely underlies tissue damage in COVID-19 by skewing the RAS[16].

The pathophysiology of GI symptoms in COVID-19 remains poorly understood. However, evidence points to a role of ACE2 cell-surface receptors and SARS-CoV-2 induced inflammatory processes in the GI tract[17]. A vital structural protein of SARS-CoV-2 is the spike glycoprotein (S). It consists of two functional units, S1 and S2, that bind to the host cell ACE2 receptor by membrane fusion, replicates through replication-transcription complexes, and promotes proliferation by interfering with and suppressing the host's immune response[18]. SARS-CoV-2 is highly concentrated in air droplets exhaled by infected subjects and inhalation of these particles by a noninfected individual may lead to infection of the recipient's respiratory tract *via* ACE2 receptors. The respiratory tract is one of the primary sites of viral entry. Interestingly, ACE2 receptors are also highly expressed in the digestive tract making it another potential route of SARS-CoV-2 infection[19]. In the gut, ACE2 has a completely different function independent of RAS. ACE2 stabilizes neutral amino acid transporters, such as B0AT1 and loss of ACE2 compromises intestinal uptake of certain dietary amino acids, such as tryptophan[20]. Because tryptophan plays an important role in immunity, ACE2 knockout mice exhibited altered gut microbiota and developed more severe dextran sulfate sodium-induced colitis compared with wild-type control mice[21]. These studies implicated ACE2 in SARS-CoV-2 infections in the gut.

ACE2 plays a major role in amino acid transport in the intestinal epithelium, a mechanism linked to the production of antimicrobial peptides, which suggests its role in intestinal barrier maintenance and gut microbiota equilibrium[22]. ACE2 controls expression of B0AT1 in the intestine, which is the primary apical membrane transporter in the intestine that permits Na⁺ coupled uptake of neutral amino acids, such as tryptophan[23]. Notably, B0AT1 substrates, such as tryptophan and glutamine, signal to downregulate lymphoid pro-inflammatory cytokines, maintain the integrity of intestinal tight junctions, activate the release of antimicrobial peptides, and modulate mucosal cell autophagy as defense mechanisms[23]. Altered B0AT1 expression mediated through ACE2 in COVID-19 may be a major contributor to the leaky gut. Thus, it is possible that SARS-CoV-2 mediated disruption of the gut barrier could lead to a systemic elevation of bacterial lipopolysaccharide and peptidoglycan, further worsening GI inflammation. For instance, one study showed that the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 (S1 subunit) interacted with the ACE2 complex and the tryptophan amino acid transporter B0AT1[24]. Furthermore, downregulated intestinal ACE2-B0AT1 cell surface expression led to a series of downstream sequelae to promote a leaky gut as well as gut microbiota dysbiosis[23,24]. Therefore, ACE2 mediated impaired barrier function in combination with microbial dysbiosis may contribute to the cytokine storm seen in patients severely ill with COVID-19 and may also be responsible for their GI symptoms.

Gut inflammation in COVID-19 patients with diarrhea

Fecal calprotectin (FC) has evolved as a reliable fecal biomarker allowing detection of intestinal inflammation in inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) and infectious colitis[25]. Previous studies have shown that COVID-19 patients with diarrhea without IBD had high FC compared to patients without diarrhea, indicating that the infection evokes a significant intestinal inflammatory process[25]. Furthermore, FC levels correlated significantly with the pro-inflammatory interleukin - 6 (IL-6) serum concentrations, and a murine study showed that deficiency of ACE2 results in highly increased susceptibility to intestinal inflammation induced by epithelial damage[21]. Collectively, the aforementioned studies highlighted that GI inflammation was overrepresented in patients with COVID-19 that also had functional GI disorders (FGIDs) or post-infection (PI) GI disorders.

Alterations in serotonin metabolism in COVID-19 patients

We have reported that plasma serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine, 5-HT) levels were elevated in COVID-19 patients with diarrhea[12]. 5-HT is a hormone and neurotransmitter that has a monoamine structure. 5-HT synthesis begins with the amino acid L-tryptophan, which is converted to 5-hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) *via* the rate-limiting enzyme tryptophan hydroxylase (TPH). 5-HTP is then rapidly decarboxylated by aromatic L-amino acid decarboxylase to produce 5-HT[26,27]. 5-HT either circulates in our body or is absorbed by the cells that express serotonin reuptake transporter to act or decompose, resulting in 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA)[28]. TPH is an enzyme specifically found in 5-HT producing cells, and there are two different isoforms, TPH1 and TPH2[29,30]. TPH1 dependent 5-HT synthesis occurs in enterochromaffin (EC) cells in GI tract, while TPH2 is involved in 5-HT synthesis in the central nervous system and enteric nervous system[31,32].

Since 95% of total 5-HT is produced by EC cells in GI tract, 5-HT has been widely studied for GI functions, especially in GI motility. Many studies have demonstrated that 5-HT is important for colonic peristaltic reflexes and GI transit[33-35]. Moreover, altered 5-HT levels are closely associated with irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), and it has been shown that platelet-depleted plasma 5-HT levels are increased in IBS patients with diarrhea[36]. Therefore, approaches to target 5-HT signaling have been proposed as a way to alleviate GI dysmotility. A total of seven classes of 5-HT receptors have been identified, and it is well-known that 5-HT₁, 5-HT₂, 5-HT₃, 5-HT₄, and 5-HT₇ are expressed in the GI tract to influence gut motor function[37]. 5-HT₃ antagonists are especially effective in treating IBS with diarrhea[38,39] and 5-HT₄ agonists are effective in treating IBS with constipation[40,41].

Previously, we have reported that plasma 5-HT levels are increased in COVID-19 patients and are directly correlated to the severity of COVID-19 symptoms. Moreover, COVID-19 patients with diarrhea had increased plasma 5-HT and a lower ratio of plasma 5-HIAA/5-HT levels compared to healthy subjects or COVID-19 patients without diarrhea[12]. These data suggest that 5-HT is not being broken down into 5-HIAA, and 5-HT remains in some COVID-19 patients' for a longer duration, resulting in GI symptoms such as diarrhea. Thus, regulating the amount of 5-HT might be a therapeutic modality for COVID-19 patients with diarrhea.

Gut microbiota dysbiosis in COVID-19 patients

From ancient times, viral infectious diseases have been plaguing mankind through a wide-range of clinical manifestations. Moreover, scientific annals depict the occurrence of life-threatening viral diseases that are enumerated as epidemics and pandemics[42]. Examples include: The flu, polio, Ebola, acquired immune deficiency syndrome, and the very recent COVID-19. In 2020 the past several months, COVID-19 has reached pandemic status, exposing the world to imminent danger. Previously, two other similar viral infections including the Middle East respiratory syndrome virus and SARS-CoV have been reported[43]. SARS-CoV-2 is an enveloped virus in the *Coronaviridae* family. They harbor single stranded RNA as their genetic material that has positive polarity. Some studies published during the recent pandemic of COVID-19 have provided insight into parameters pertaining to the transmission, susceptibility, clinical presentation, and laboratory findings of this potential pathogen[44,45]. Although respiratory droplets and contact are the prime route of transmission for SARS-CoV2, there have been some instances where prolonged exposure to aerosols with high concentrations of the virus may facilitate transmission. Symptoms and severity of COVID-19 differ from patient to patient[46]. In general, humans of all ages are susceptible. However, individuals with an attenuated immune response including elderly, infants, children below 6 years old, patients with underlying diseases (transplants, cancers, diabetes, asthma, heart ailment, and other peril maladies) are at higher risk.

To inject their genetic material into the host, SARS-CoV-2 pierces the pulmonary epithelial cells of the lower respiratory tract thereby commandeering the host's cellular machinery[47]. Moreover, this process is enhanced by the spike (S) protein that interacts with ACE2[47,48]. Thus, the importance of the gut and its microbiome cannot be underestimated. The knowledge in gut research has augmented with a plethora of scientific annals that point towards the role of gut microbes in many degenerative and infectious diseases[49]. Gut dysbiosis has been reported in patients with COVID-19 with enrichment of pathogens and depletion of beneficial commensals[17]. An inverse correlation between the abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* (*F. prausnitzii*) and disease severity has been observed. *F. prausnitzii* has anti-inflammatory properties, and its depletion has been related to IBS[17]. Another study showed the gut

microbiome composition was significantly altered in patients with COVID-19 compared with non-COVID-19 individuals irrespective of whether patients had received medication[50]. Several gut commensals with known immunomodulatory potential such as *F. prausnitzii*, *Eubacterium rectale* and Bifidobacteria were underrepresented in patients and remained hampered in samples collected up to 30 d after disease resolution[17,51]. Moreover, this perturbed composition exhibited stratification with disease severity concordant with elevated concentrations of inflammatory cytokines and blood markers such as C-reactive protein, lactate dehydrogenase, aspartate aminotransferase and gamma-glutamyl transferase[17]. The depletion of several bacterial species in the COVID-19 cohort was linked to increased concentrations of tumor necrosis factor-alpha, C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10, C-C motif chemokine ligand 2 and IL-10. These studies highlighted the need to understand how gut microorganisms are involved in inflammation and COVID-19 pathogenesis[50].

Another study found a signature of active gut viral infection in a subset of patients with COVID-19 even in the absence of GI symptoms, suggesting a 'quiescent' GI infection of SARS-CoV-2[52]. The transcriptional activity of viral infection and replication persisted in the gut even after respiratory clearance of SARS-CoV-2. Fecal samples with a signature of high SARS-CoV-2 infectivity harbored a higher abundance of opportunistic pathogens, for instance, *Morganella morganii*, *Collinsella aerofaciens*, *Streptococcus infantis*, and *Collinsella tanakaei* and an enhanced capacity for the biosynthesis of nucleotides and amino acids, along with carbohydrate metabolism, whereas fecal samples with a signature of no SARS-CoV-2 infection had a higher abundance of short-chain fatty acid producing bacteria, for instance, *Bacteroides stercoris*, *Parabacteroides merdae*, *Lachnospiraceae bacterium*, and *Alistipes onderdonkii*[52]. This study provided evidence for active and prolonged 'quiescent' GI infection even in the absence of GI manifestations and after recovery from respiratory infection of SARS-CoV-2. The gut microbiota of patients with active SARS-CoV-2 GI infection was characterized by enrichment of opportunistic pathogens; loss of salutary bacteria and increased functional capacity for nucleotides, along with increased amino acid biosynthesis and carbohydrate metabolism[52].

In addition, bacterial groups belonging to the genus *Bacteroides*, known to downregulate the ACE2 expression in the murine colon, inversely correlated with fecal SARS-CoV-2 nucleic acid loads. Similarly, SARS-CoV-2 infection of GI epithelial cells has been associated with: (1) Lamina propria infiltration of plasma cells and lymphocytes, and edema in the stomach, duodenum, and rectum; (2) Increased levels of FC; (3) Higher fecal levels of IL-8 and lower levels of the anti-inflammatory IL-10 when compared with uninfected controls[53]; (4) SARS-CoV-2-specific IgA and limited inflammatory cytokines were also present in the stool of patients with acute COVID-19; and (5) Gut microbiota dysbiosis. Interestingly, gut microbiota dysbiosis persisted after the resolution of SARS-CoV-2 infection, suggesting that microbiota perturbation may contribute to the persistence of gut dysfunction and symptoms even after the infection has subsided. Indeed, the persistent microbial dysbiosis may contribute to maintaining a chronic state of low-grade GI inflammation, increased intestinal permeability, increased sensory perception, and bile acid malabsorption, which have all been previously associated with symptoms of GI motility disorders.

Post-COVID-19 functional GI disorders

Evidence supports the development of FGIDs after a bout of viral, bacterial, or protozoal gastroenteritis or after resolution of an acute flareup of GI inflammatory diseases such as IBD[54]. Individual susceptibility to these so-called postinfectious functional gastrointestinal disorders (PI-FGIDs) involves genetic predisposition and the presence of pre-existing psychological disturbances such as anxiety and/or depression[55,56]. PI-FGIDs have also been associated with dysregulation of gut motility, visceral hypersensitivity, microbial dysbiosis, intestinal barrier dysfunction, bile acid malabsorption, and alterations in serotonin metabolism[54,57]. Current data suggest that the resolution of the SARS-CoV-2 infection may lead to persistent GI dysfunction resembling certain aspects of PI-FGIDs[17]. Transient non-specific gut inflammation is the common trigger for long-lasting symptoms of FGIDs, regardless of the initiating event (*i.e.*, viral, parasitic, bacterial, after resolution of IBD flares)[58].

SARS-CoV-2 in stool: Suggesting fecal-oral transmission

Evidence of fecal shedding of viral RNA further supports viral replication in the digestive tract and potentially a fecal-oral route of transmission. Studies showed that more than one-half of COVID-19 patients tested positive for fecal SARS-CoV-2 RNA[59]. One study in a group of pediatric patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 had positive rectal swabs for SARS-CoV-2, even after the nasopharynx was cleared of the

virus, suggesting that viral shedding from the digestive tract might be more prolonged than that from the respiratory tract[60]. Another study showed that SARS-CoV-2 can infect the enterocytes of bats in an organoid culture system of bat intestinal epithelium [61]. One study indicated that infection by SARS-CoV-2 led to an altered fecal microbiome during hospitalization[62]. The authors showed enrichment of opportunistic pathogens and depletion of commensals during SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Coprobacillus*, *Clostridium ramosum*, and *Clostridium mathewayi* were found more commonly in patients with severe COVID-19. In contrast, the presence of *F. prausnitzii* was correlated with milder disease. Gut microbial dysbiosis persisted in the majority of COVID-19 patients in spite of clearance of the virus, suggesting that exposure to SARS-CoV-2 might be associated with more long-lasting deleterious effects to the healthy gut microbiome [23,62]. These studies support the possibility for SARS-CoV-2 fecal-oral route of transmission. Therefore, from both clinical and public health standpoints, it is critical to fully understand all routes of transmission of SARS-CoV-2. If high levels of infectious viruses are present in the intestinal lumen of infected patients, especially in asymptomatic patients, this poses risks during endoscopy and colonoscopy to gastroenterologists, endoscopy personnel and other patients. For the general public, infectious viral particles in the feces shed by infected individuals, if aerosolized, have great implications in confined environments such as cruise ships, hospitals, individual households, and densely populated housing, such as those in regions with poor sanitation[19].

CONCLUSION

GI symptoms are overrepresented in patients with COVID-19. A proportion of patients affected by COVID-19 may develop PI-FGIDs based on the following pathophysiological mechanisms: Intestinal barrier dysfunction, chronic low-grade intestinal inflammation, altered serotonin metabolism, and gut microbiota dysbiosis. The question of whether gut inflammation is associated with gut microbiota dysbiosis in patients, which may have a central role in the COVID-19 disease progression warrants further investigation. However, there is mounting evidence that gut microorganisms are linked to GI inflammatory diseases, which highlights the urgent need to understand the specific roles of gut microorganisms that are responsible for the immune dysfunction and systemic inflammation in COVID-19.

The abundance of SARS-CoV-2 viral RNA in stool and the stability of the virus in the environment suggest that fecal contamination may be an important modality for the spread among human hosts. Fecal sources may lead to viral transmission, especially when aerosols are generated. The significance of GI involvement in COVID-19 patients requires attention in clinical practices, such as incorporation of rectal swab testing before discharging patients, as well as the importance of personal protective equipment in the endoscopy setting. These precautions will be imperative in our battle against COVID-19[63].

Considering the critical role of the ACE2 receptor in the pathogenesis of COVID-19 and the potential impact on severity of symptoms in some patients, several therapeutic approaches have been evaluated such as a soluble form of ACE2 (rhACE2), ACE2 blockers, TMPRSS2 inhibitors, and Ang 1-7 receptor agonists. Some of these therapeutic approaches appeared to show promising results and are currently in clinical trials. Another strategy to manage COVID-19 might be to restore the microbiota during the dysbiosis through prebiotic and/or probiotic interventions and dietary nutritional supplementation[64].

This review sheds light on the studies that formulate the pathophysiological mechanisms (impaired barrier function, gut inflammation, altered serotonin metabolism and gut microbiota dysbiosis) underlying GI symptoms in patients with COVID-19 (Figure 1). To the best of our knowledge we are the first to propose altered serotonin metabolism in the pathogenesis of COVID-19 associated with diarrhea. This novel insight of serotonin metabolism might be a key player underpinning GI symptoms and severity in patients with COVID-19 as altered serotonin signaling modulates the majority of pathological mechanisms in patients with FGIDs. Therapeutic modalities regulating serotonin signaling might offer potential treatment options in a subset of COVID-19 patients. Furthermore, we highlighted the important concept of post-SARS-CoV-2-FGIDs, which warrants future studies to dissect persistent GI symptoms after the clearance of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Scientists and clinicians should be aware of this new clinical scenario, and additional studies will be needed to further characterize and uncover the pathophysiological mechanisms of this

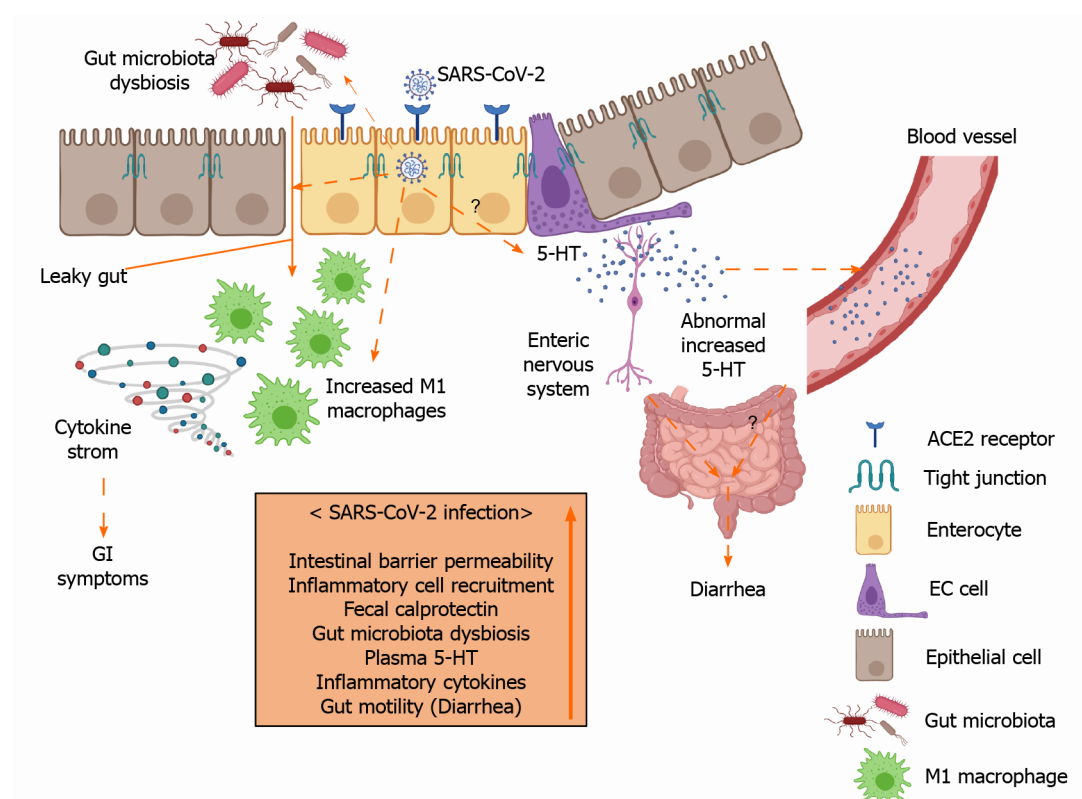


Figure 1 A simplified diagram of the potential pathological mechanisms for gastrointestinal symptoms associated with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 infection. The figure was created with BioRender.com. SARS-CoV-2: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; 5-HT: 5-hydroxytryptamine; EC cell: Enterochromaffin; ACE2 cell: Angiotensin converting enzyme 2.

phenomenon. Furthermore, studies are warranted to elucidate the following: (1) the cause-and-effect relationship between changes in relative abundance of gut bacteria and COVID-19; (2) the possibility that the microbiota plays a role in illness severity; and (3) the relationship between the host's immune response (regulatory T cell response) to SARS-CoV-2 resulting in a high or low cytokine storm.

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Retrospective Cohort Study

Risk factors and prognostic value of acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding in Crohn's disease

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Institutional review board statement: The study was

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding (LGIB) is an uncommon but challenging complication of Crohn's disease (CD).

AIM

To identify the predictors of acute severe LGIB and to evaluate the impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course in CD patients.

METHODS

A retrospective inception cohort study was conducted in 75 CD patients with acute severe LGIB and 1359 CD patients without acute severe LGIB who were diagnosed between February 1991 and November 2019 at Asan Medical Center, a tertiary university hospital in Korea. Multivariable analysis with Cox proportional hazard regression was performed to identify the risk factors for acute severe LGIB. A matched analysis using 72 patients with bleeding and 267 matched patients without within the cohort was also conducted to investigate whether acute severe LGIB is a predictor of clinical outcomes of CD.

RESULTS

Multivariable Cox regression analysis revealed that early use of thiopurines [hazard ratio (HR): 0.23, 95% confidence interval (CI): 0.12-0.48; $P < 0.001$] and female sex (HR: 0.51, 95%CI: 0.27-0.94; $P = 0.031$) were significantly associated

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with a lower risk of acute severe LGIB. The cumulative risks of behavioral progression and intestinal resection were not significantly different between the two matched groups ($P = 0.139$ and $P = 0.769$, respectively). The hospitalization rate was higher in the bleeding group than in the matched non-bleeding group (22.1/100 vs 13.2/100 patient-years; $P = 0.012$). However, if hospitalizations due to bleeding episodes were excluded from the analysis, the hospitalization rate was not significantly different between the bleeding group and the matched non-bleeding group (14.5/100 vs 13.2/100 patient-years; $P = 0.631$).

CONCLUSION

Early use of thiopurines may reduce the risk of acute severe LGIB. History of acute severe LGIB may not have a significant prognostic value in patients with CD.

Key Words: Gastrointestinal hemorrhage; Lower gastrointestinal tract; Crohn's disease; Risk factors; Cohort studies; Clinical course

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Core Tip: A retrospective cohort study was conducted to identify the predictors of acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding (LGIB) in Crohn's disease (CD) and the impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course thereof. In multivariable analysis, early use of thiopurines and female sex were associated with a lower risk of acute severe LGIB. Moreover, matched analyses within the cohort demonstrated that the risks of behavioral progression, intestinal resection, and hospitalization due to non-bleeding causes did not significantly differ according to bleeding, which suggests that a history of acute severe LGIB may not have a significant prognostic value in CD.

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INTRODUCTION

Acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding (LGIB) is an uncommon manifestation that occurs in 0.6%-6.0% of patients with Crohn's disease (CD); however, it is a challenging problem with high rates of recurrence (21.4%-41.4%)[1-5], surgery (7.1%-39.7%)[1-4], and mortality (0%-8.2%)[2,3]. Despite this clinical importance, acute severe LGIB in CD has not been well-studied. Two studies have evaluated the risk factors for acute severe LGIB[1,3]; however, because the patient populations in these studies were not inception cohorts, it is still unknown what characteristics at the time of CD diagnosis predispose a patient to acute severe LGIB. Moreover, no previous studies have evaluated the impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course of CD. Therefore, by using a well-defined hospital-based inception cohort, we aimed to identify the risk factors for acute severe LGIB in CD and to investigate whether a history of acute severe LGIB is a predictor of a worse clinical course for CD.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Between February 1991 and November 2019, a total of 4010 patients with CD were registered at the Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) Center of Asan Medical Center, a tertiary university hospital in Seoul, Korea. Of these 4010 patients, 1437 had been first diagnosed and/or first treated with CD at Asan Medical Center. Among them, 78

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patients experienced acute severe gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding and 1359 patients did not. Of the 78 patients, 75 with acute severe LGIB were finally selected for this study after those with postoperative bleeding ($n = 1$), upper GI bleeding ($n = 1$), or anal bleeding ($n = 1$) were excluded.

To identify the risk factors for acute severe LGIB, we performed a retrospective cohort study in the 75 patients with acute severe LGIB and 1359 patients without acute severe LGIB. In addition, to investigate whether acute severe LGIB is a predictor of a worse clinical course of CD, a matched cohort analysis was performed by matching patients without acute severe LGIB to those with acute severe LGIB at a ratio of 4:1 in terms of sex, age at CD diagnosis (± 5 years), calendar year of CD diagnosis (± 5 years), and disease location and behavior at CD diagnosis. According to the matching conditions, a total of 72 patients with acute severe LGIB were matched to 267 patients without. The selection process for our study population is shown as a flowchart (Figure 1). The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Asan Medical Center.

Data collection

The patients' demographic and clinical information were retrieved from the Asan IBD Registry, which has been prospectively maintained since 1997. Information missing in the IBD registry was obtained by reviewing the medical records. To identify the risk factors for acute severe LGIB, we retrieved data on sex, date of birth, date of CD diagnosis, date of acute severe LGIB, disease location and behavior at diagnosis, smoking status at diagnosis, early use of medications including corticosteroids, thiopurines, and anti-tumor necrosis factor (TNF) agents, diagnostic modalities for identification of bleeding site, identified bleeding site, and date of final follow-up. In addition, to investigate whether acute severe LGIB is a predictor of a worse clinical course of CD, we additionally retrieved data on medications (*i.e.*, corticosteroids, thiopurines, and anti-TNF agents), progression of disease behavior, intestinal resection, and hospitalization.

Definitions and classifications

CD was diagnosed using standard clinical, radiological, endoscopic, and histopathological criteria[6]. Acute severe LGIB was defined as acute overt rectal bleeding that resulted in (1) an abrupt decrease in the hemoglobin level to < 9 g/dL or at least 2 g/dL below the baseline; and/or (2) transfusion of at least two units of blood within 24 h[1]. The ligament of Treitz was regarded as the anatomic landmark separating LGIB from upper GI bleeding. Postoperative bleeding was defined as bleeding that occurred within 1 mo after intestinal surgery. The lesion found was defined as the bleeding site when it showed active bleeding or adherent blood clot[2]. Early use of corticosteroids was defined as the initiation of treatment within 3 mo of diagnosis[7]; early use of thiopurines or anti-TNF agents was defined as the initiation of therapy within 6 mo of diagnosis[8,9] and at least 6 mo before the first intestinal resection and acute severe LGIB episode[7,10]. In the matched analysis, each matched patient in the non-bleeding group was given an index date that corresponded to the date of acute severe LGIB in the matched patient in the bleeding group, such that the time interval between CD diagnosis and the index date of each non-bleeding patient was equal to that between CD diagnosis and the acute severe LGIB date for the matched bleeding patient. Disease location and behavior were defined according to the Montreal classification[11]. Behavioral progression was defined as the development of stricturing or penetrating disease in patients who had non-stricturing, non-penetrating disease at the start of follow-up. Hospitalization was defined as care in a hospital setting for ≥ 3 d for flare-ups or complications of CD[12]. Hospitalizations only for disease evaluation or due to conditions unrelated to CD were excluded. Index hospitalization was defined as the first hospitalization for acute severe LGIB.

Statistical analyses

Categorical variables are expressed as numbers with percentages, and continuous variables are expressed as medians with interquartile ranges (IQRs). The Chi-squared test or Fisher's exact test was used to compare categorical variables, as appropriate, and the *t*-test was used to compare continuous variables. Multivariable analysis with Cox proportional hazard regression was performed to identify the risk factors for acute severe LGIB and to calculate their hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs). All variables with *P* values < 0.2 in the univariate analysis were included in the multivariable analysis, and backward elimination was performed. In the matched analyses, the balance in the distribution of baseline characteristics

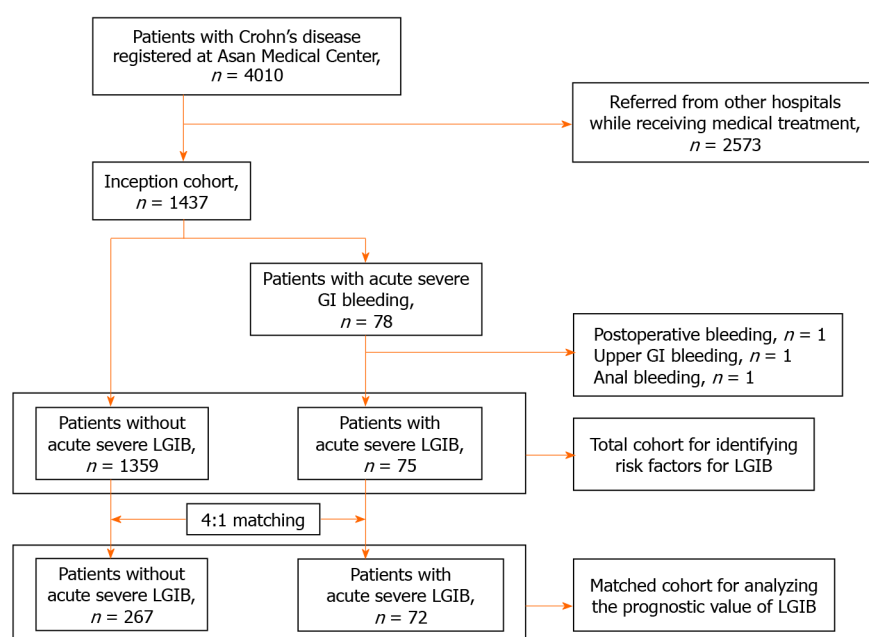


Figure 1 Flowchart of study patients. GI: Gastrointestinal; LGIB: Lower gastrointestinal bleeding.

between the matched groups was quantified using the standardized mean difference (SMD). An SMD < 0.1 was regarded to indicate a fair balance of confounders between the matched groups[13]. Disease courses such as medication use, behavioral progression, and intestinal resection before the bleeding/index date were compared between the matched groups using conditional logistic regression analysis. Cumulative risks of medication use, behavioral progression, and intestinal resection after the bleeding/index date were calculated using the Kaplan-Meier method, and the values were compared between the matched groups using the log-rank test. Hospitalization rates *per* 100 patient-years of follow-up were calculated in both the bleeding group and the non-bleeding group, and the relative rates and associated CIs were estimated using Poisson regression with generalized estimating equation. *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Statistical evaluations were performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC, United States) and R version 3.6.2 for Windows (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). The statistical methods of this study were reviewed by Kim YJ from the Department of Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics at Asan Medical Center, University of Ulsan College of Medicine.

RESULTS

Characteristics of patients and bleeding episodes

During a median follow-up of 84.8 mo (IQR 43.2-141.8), 75 (5.2%) of 1437 patients developed the first episode of acute severe LGIB. The cumulative risks of bleeding at 1, 5, 10, and 20 years after CD diagnosis were 3.0%, 4.4%, 5.9%, and 11.6%, respectively. Sixty-three of the 75 patients were men, yielding a male-to-female ratio of 5.2:1. The median age at the first bleeding episode was 27.0 years (IQR 21-34), and the median duration of CD at the first bleeding episode was 7.7 mo (IQR 0-42.1). After excluding 26 patients who were first diagnosed with CD at the time of bleeding, the median duration of disease at the first bleeding episode in the other 49 patients was 31.0 mo (IQR 8.0-66.0).

Of the 75 patients with acute severe LGIB, bleeding sites were identified in 19 (25.3%) patients through ileocolonoscopy, computed tomography, angiography, bleeding scan, and surgery. Capsule endoscopy or double-balloon enteroscopy was not used in the evaluation of acute severe LGIB. In the patients as a whole, the sites of bleeding were the jejunum in 2, the ileum in 12, and the colon in 5. Ileocolonoscopy was performed in 66 patients and revealed bleeding sites in 7 (10.6%) patients (colon, *n* = 5; terminal ileum, *n* = 2). Computed tomography was performed in 55 patients and revealed bleeding sites in 6 (10.9%) patients (jejunum, *n* = 2; ileum, *n* = 4). Mesenteric

angiography was performed in 14 patients and identified bleeding sites in the ileum in 4 (28.5%) patients. Radionuclide bleeding scan was performed in 22 patients and identified bleeding sites in the ileum in 4 (18.2%) patients. Surgery was performed to control bleeding in 4 patients and revealed ileal ulcers with adherent blood clots in 2 (50%) patients.

Risk factors for acute severe LGIB

Table 1 shows the baseline demographic and clinical characteristics according to the presence of acute severe LGIB. The proportions of male patients and patients with ileal disease at diagnosis were significantly higher in the bleeding group ($P = 0.045$ and $P = 0.002$, respectively), whereas the proportion of patients with early use of thiopurines was significantly higher in the non-bleeding group ($P < 0.001$). There were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of age at diagnosis, disease behavior at diagnosis, smoking status at diagnosis, early use of corticosteroids, and early use of anti-TNF agents.

Multivariable Cox regression analysis revealed that female sex (HR: 0.51, 95%CI: 0.27-0.94; $P = 0.031$) and early use of thiopurines (HR: 0.23, 95%CI: 0.12-0.48; $P < 0.001$) were significantly associated with a lower risk of acute severe LGIB (**Table 2**). In addition, patients with ileal disease at diagnosis showed a trend toward a higher risk of bleeding compared with those with colonic disease at diagnosis (HR: 6.58, 95%CI: 0.90-48.12; $P = 0.063$).

Impact of acute severe LGIB on the clinical course of CD

In the matched analysis between patients in the non-bleeding group and the bleeding group, the baseline characteristics including age at diagnosis, sex, disease location at diagnosis, and disease behavior at diagnosis were well-balanced between the matched groups (**Table 3**). The median duration of follow-up from CD diagnosis to the bleeding/index date was 7.1 mo (IQR 0.9-38.6) among 72 patients with acute severe LGIB and 8.7 mo (IQR 0.01-38.6) among 267 matched patients without ($P = 0.423$). During the follow-up period before the bleeding/index date, there were no significant differences in the rates of medication use, behavioral progression, intestinal resection, and hospitalization between the two matched groups (**Tables 4 and 5**).

The median duration of follow-up from the bleeding/index date to the last follow-up was 105.2 mo (IQR 50.7-135.3) in the bleeding group and 84.4 mo (IQR 46.7-144.2) in the matched non-bleeding group ($P = 0.766$). During the follow-up period after the bleeding/index date, the cumulative risks of receiving corticosteroids and thiopurines were not significantly different between the two matched groups ($P = 0.068$ and 0.248 , respectively; **Figure 2A and B**). In contrast, the cumulative risk of receiving anti-TNF agents was significantly higher in the bleeding group ($P = 0.035$; **Figure 2C**). The cumulative risk of behavioral progression did not significantly differ between the two matched groups ($P = 0.139$; **Figure 3A**). Intestinal resection was performed in 13 (18.1%) of the 72 patients in the bleeding group and 53 (19.9%) of the 267 patients in the matched non-bleeding group ($P = 0.86$). Four (30.8%) of the 13 patients who underwent intestinal resection in the bleeding group underwent surgery due to acute severe LGIB. The cumulative risks of intestinal resection did not significantly differ between the two matched groups ($P = 0.769$; **Figure 3B**). The hospitalization rate after the bleeding/index date was significantly higher in the bleeding group than in the matched non-bleeding group (22.1/100 vs 13.2/100 patient-years; $P = 0.012$), even when the index hospitalization was excluded from the analysis. However, if all hospitalizations due to bleeding episodes were excluded from the analysis, the hospitalization rate did not significantly differ between the bleeding group and the matched non-bleeding group (14.5/100 vs 13.2/100 patient-years; $P = 0.631$; **Table 5**).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we investigated the risk factors for acute severe LGIB in CD and the impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course of CD by using a well-defined hospital-based inception cohort. To our knowledge, this is the first study that evaluated the prognostic value of acute severe LGIB in CD. Our results demonstrated that early use of thiopurines and female sex were negatively associated with the risk of bleeding and that there were no significant differences in the clinical course of CD including the rates of medication use (*e.g.*, corticosteroids and thiopurines), behavioral progression, intestinal resection, and hospitalization due to non-bleeding causes between patients who experienced acute severe LGIB and those who did not.

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of patients with Crohn's disease according to the presence of acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding

	Bleeding group (n = 75)	Non-bleeding group (n = 1359)	P value
Age at diagnosis, years (median, IQR)	23.6 (18.9-31.9)	23.2 (18.6-33.5)	0.952
Sex, male, n (%)	63 (84.0)	1000 (73.6)	0.045
Disease location at diagnosis, n (%)			0.002
Ileum	34 (45.3)	377 (27.7)	
Colon	1 (1.3)	81 (6.0)	
Ileocolon	40 (53.4)	901 (66.3)	
Upper GI modifier at diagnosis, n (%)	15 (20)	355 (26.1)	0.238
Disease behavior at diagnosis, n (%)			0.157
Non-stricturing, non-penetrating	59 (78.6)	1012 (74.5)	
Stricturing	11 (14.7)	155 (11.4)	
Penetrating	5 (6.7)	192 (14.1)	
Perianal modifier at diagnosis, n (%)	32 (42.7)	686 (50.5)	0.204
Smoking status at diagnosis, n (%)			0.540
Never smokers	51 (68.0)	874 (64.3)	
Ex-smokers	3 (4.0)	99 (7.3)	
Current smokers	21 (28.0)	386 (28.4)	
Early use of medications, n (%)			
Corticosteroids	21 (28.0)	399 (29.4)	0.840
Thiopurines	10 (13.3)	649 (47.8)	< 0.001
Anti-TNF agents	1 (1.3)	43 (3.2)	0.560

IQR: Interquartile range; GI: Gastrointestinal; TNF: Tumor necrosis factor.

However, the use of anti-TNF agents was more common in the bleeding group.

To date, only two studies have investigated the risk factors of acute severe LGIB in CD[1,3], with Kim *et al*[1] reporting that the use of thiopurines was associated with a lower risk of bleeding[1] and Li *et al*[3] confirming this result[3]. Li *et al*[3] also reported that left colon involvement and a history of bleeding were associated with a higher risk of bleeding. Similar to the results of previous studies, our present study demonstrated that early use of thiopurines was associated with a lower risk of bleeding. Thiopurines are effective for maintaining remission in patients with CD[14,15], and some studies have also reported that early use of thiopurines is associated with a lower risk of intestinal resection in patients with CD, albeit there are some disagreements in the literature[7,10,16]. Given the results of these previous studies, it can be assumed that early use of thiopurines can lower the risk of bleeding in patients with CD.

Another risk factor for bleeding in our study was male sex. In most population-based cohort studies, sex was not associated with the risk for surgery in patients with CD[7,17,18]. As a result, sex has not been considered a prognostic factor of CD[19]. However, sex differences in the phenotypic characteristics and clinical course of CD are increasingly being recognized[20]. Mazon *et al*[21] reported that only male sex was independently associated with complicated diseases such as stricturing disease, penetrating disease, perianal disease, and abdominal surgery[21]. Some studies have also shown that male sex was significantly associated with a higher risk for surgery[22-24]. These results collectively suggest that male sex may be a real risk factor for bleeding. Further studies are required to confirm whether male sex is an independent risk factor for bleeding in patients with CD.

In the present study, patients with ileal disease at diagnosis had a higher risk of bleeding compared with those with colonic disease at diagnosis, although the result did not reach statistical significance. This is in line with the results of previous studies

Table 2 Risk factors of acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding in patients with Crohn's disease

	Univariate analysis		Multivariable analysis	
	HR (95%CI)	P value	HR (95%CI)	P value
Age at diagnosis	1.01 (0.98-1.03)	0.663		
Sex				
Male	Reference		Reference	
Female	0.51 (0.28-0.95)	0.035	0.51 (0.27-0.94)	0.031
Disease location at diagnosis				
Colon	Reference		Reference	
Ileum	7.56 (1.04-55.26)	0.046	6.58 (0.90-48.12)	0.063
Ileocolon	3.60 (0.50-26.22)	0.206	3.86 (0.53-28.09)	0.182
Upper GI modifier at diagnosis				
No	Reference			
Yes	0.78 (0.45-1.38)	0.401		
Disease behavior at diagnosis				
Non-stricturing, non-penetrating	Reference			
Stricturing	1.10 (0.58-2.10)	0.763		
Penetrating	0.45 (0.18-1.13)	0.067		
Perianal modifier at diagnosis				
No	Reference		Reference	
Yes	0.71 (0.45-1.12)	0.142	0.74 (0.42-1.19)	0.209
Smoking status at diagnosis				
Never smokers	Reference			
Ex-smokers	0.59 (0.18-1.88)	0.368		
Current smokers	0.93 (0.56-1.55)	0.783		
Early use of medications				
Corticosteroids	0.94 (0.57-1.58)	0.840		
Thiopurines	0.17 (0.09-0.34)	0.001	0.23 (0.12-0.48)	< 0.001
Anti-TNF agents	0.41 (0.12-3.21)	0.560		

HR: Hazard ratio; CI: Confidence interval; GI: Gastrointestinal; TNF: Tumor necrosis factor.

that ileal disease is a predictor of complicated behavior[25] and surgery[17,26,27], whereas colonic disease is a predictor of a milder disease course[17,28]. However, other studies reported contrasting results in that bleeding was more common in patients with colonic involvement than in those with isolated small bowel disease[2,29]. These conflicting results warrant further targeted investigation.

The impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course of CD has not been investigated to date. To investigate this issue after controlling for potential confounders, we performed a matched cohort study. In our matched analyses, the cumulative risks of behavioral progression and intestinal resection after the bleeding/index date did not significantly differ between the bleeding group and the matched non-bleeding group. In particular, although 31% of the patients in the bleeding group who underwent intestinal resection received surgery due to bleeding, the overall rate of intestinal resection in the bleeding group was not significantly higher than that in the matched non-bleeding group. Moreover, when we excluded the hospitalizations due to bleeding episodes from the analysis, the hospitalization rate was not significantly different between the two matched groups. These results suggest that a history of acute severe LGIB may not have a significant prognostic value in patients with CD. However, a definite conclusion on this issue cannot be made

Table 3 Comparison of the baseline parameters between patients with acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding and matched patients without

	Before matching			After matching		
	Bleeding group (n = 75)	Non-bleeding group (n = 1359)	SMD	Bleeding group (n = 72)	Non-bleeding group (n = 267)	SMD
Age at diagnosis, years (median, IQR)	23 (18-32)	23 (18-33)	0.009	22 (18-31.5)	23 (18-30)	0.061
Male, n (%)	63 (84.0)	1000 (73.6)	0.257	63 (87.5)	234 (87.6)	0.004
Disease location at diagnosis, n (%)			0.391			0.020
Ileum	34 (45.3)	377 (27.7)		31 (43.1)	111 (41.6)	
Colon	1 (1.3)	81 (6.0)		1 (1.4)	4 (1.5)	
Ileocolon	40 (53.3)	901 (66.3)		40 (55.6)	152 (56.9)	
Disease behavior at diagnosis, n (%)			0.301			0.030
Non-stricturing, non-penetrating	59 (78.7)	1012 (74.5)		58 (80.6)	219 (82.0)	
Stricturing	11 (14.7)	155 (11.4)		9 (12.5)	32 (12.0)	
Penetrating	5 (6.7)	192 (14.1)		5 (6.9)	16 (6.0)	

SMD: Standardized mean difference; IQR: Interquartile range.

Table 4 Comparison of the outcome parameters between patients with acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding and matched patients without during the period before the bleeding/index date

	Bleeding group (n = 72)	Non-bleeding group (n = 267)	Matched OR (95%CI)	P value
Use of medications, n (%)				
Corticosteroids	19/72 (26.4)	78/267 (29.2)	0.82 (0.43-1.57)	0.55
Thiopurines	27/72 (37.5)	108/267 (40.4)	0.74 (0.36-1.51)	0.40
Anti-TNF agents	6/72 (8.3)	27/267 (10.1)	0.68 (0.24-1.91)	0.47
Behavioral progression, n (%)	10/58 (17.2)	21/219 (9.6)	1.96 (0.87-4.44)	0.10
Intestinal resection, n (%)	13/72 (18.1)	30/267 (11.2)	1.83 (0.73-4.58)	0.20

OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence interval; TNF: Tumor necrosis factor.

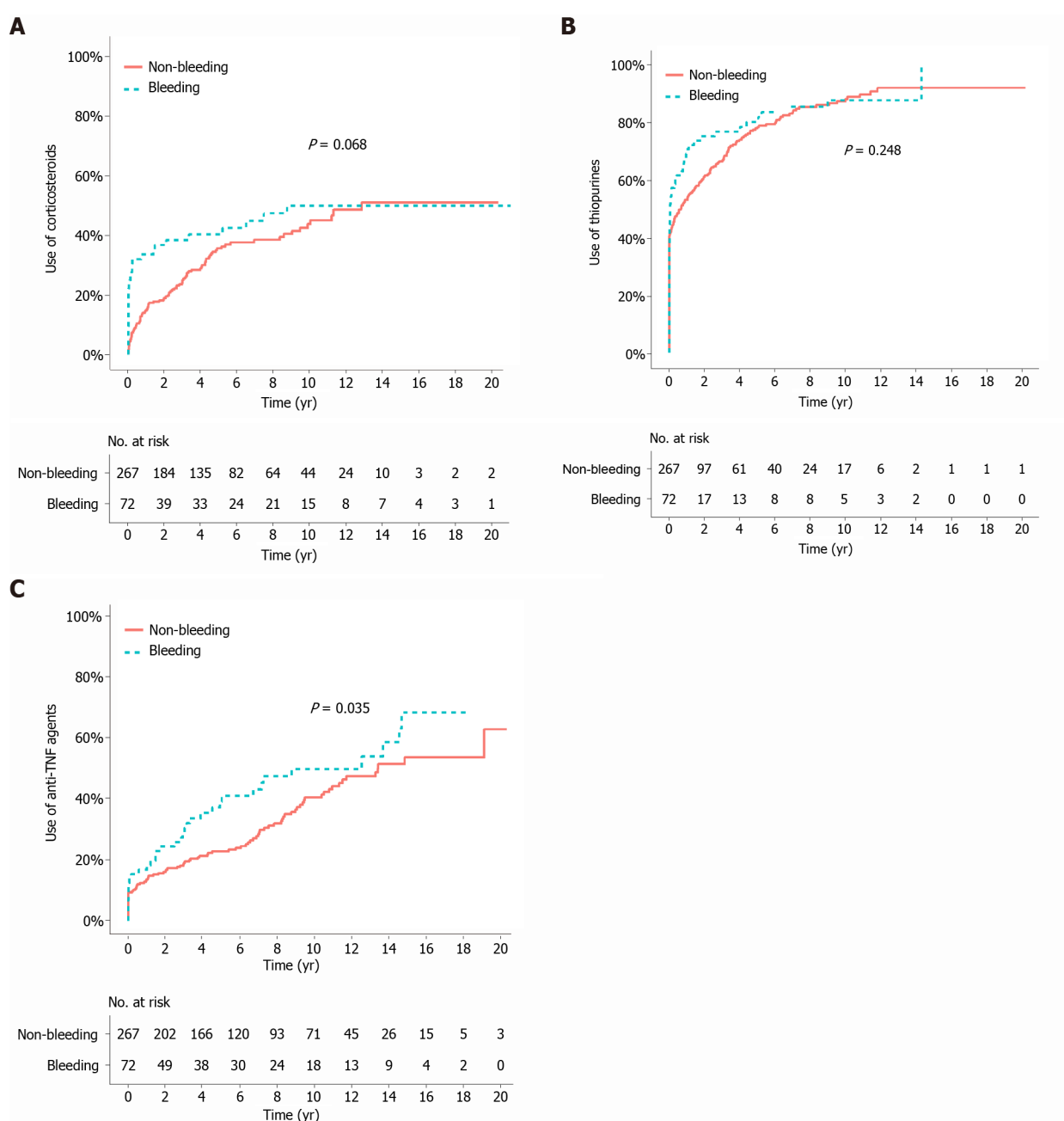
because anti-TNF agents were more commonly used in the bleeding group than in the matched non-bleeding group. In addition, the rate of all-cause hospitalization was higher in the bleeding group than in the matched non-bleeding group; this is an expected result considering the high recurrence rates (21.4%-41.4%) of acute severe LGIB reported in previous studies[1-5]. A higher need for anti-TNF agents and a higher rate of hospitalization in the bleeding group indicate that a history of acute severe LGIB may have some prognostic value. Regardless of whether acute severe LGIB in CD is a poor prognostic factor, it is a common practice to use anti-TNF agents to lower the risk of rebleeding in CD patients who develop acute severe LGIB[1,5,30-32], and major disease outcomes including behavioral progression and intestinal resection in the bleeding group are comparable with those in the non-bleeding group.

The strength of our present study is that we used a well-defined inception cohort, which enabled us to identify the patients' demographic and clinical characteristics at the time of or at an early stage of CD diagnosis that could predict the occurrence of acute severe LGIB. However, our study has some limitations. First, although our results suggested that male sex was associated with a higher risk of bleeding, we cannot exclude the possibility that this difference was derived from non-biological

Table 5 Comparison of the hospitalization rate between patients with acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding and matched patients without

Hospitalization rate (per 100 patient-years)	Bleeding group (n = 72)	Non-bleeding group (n = 267)	Hospitalization rate ratio (95%CI)	P value
Before bleeding/index date (95%CI)	21.0 (14.5-30.5)	23.6 (19.0-29.2)	0.89 (0.58-1.37)	0.599
After bleeding/index date (95%CI)				
Excluded: Index hospitalization	22.1 (16.5-29.4)	13.2 (11.2-15.5)	1.67 (1.20-2.33)	0.012
Excluded: Hospitalizations due to bleeding	14.5 (10.3-20.4)	13.2 (11.2-15.5)	1.10 (0.75-1.60)	0.631

CI: Confidence interval.

**Figure 2 Cumulative risks of receiving medications after the bleeding/index date according to bleeding.** A: Corticosteroids ($P = 0.068$); B: Thiopurines ($P = 0.248$); C: Anti-tumor necrosis factor agents ($P = 0.035$). TNF: Tumor necrosis factor.

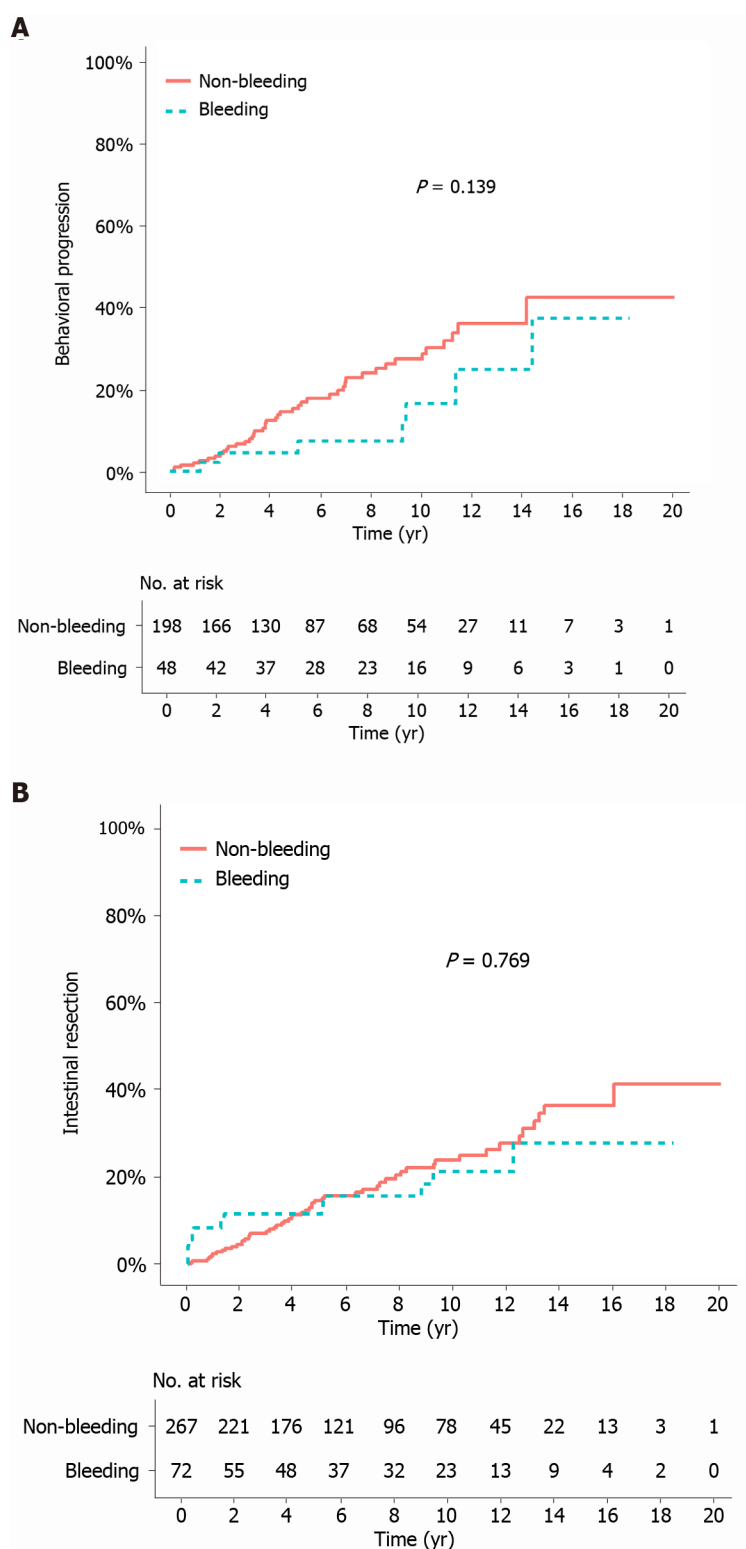


Figure 3 Cumulative risks of behavioral progression and intestinal resection after the bleeding/index date according to bleeding. A: Behavioral progression ($P = 0.139$); B: Intestinal resection ($P = 0.769$).

causes such as sex differences in access to health care or adherence to therapy in patients with IBD[33-35]. Second, our result that male sex is a risk factor for bleeding may not be generalized in Western patients considering the sex-related differences between Asian and Western patients with CD. For example, the male predominance in the incidence of CD is evident in Asian populations but not in Western populations [36].

CONCLUSION

Our results suggest that early use of thiopurines may reduce the risk of acute severe LGIB. In addition, a history of acute severe LGIB may not have a significant impact on the subsequent clinical course of patients with CD in terms of behavioral progression, intestinal resection, and hospitalization due to non-bleeding causes. Further studies are needed to determine whether our results on the prognostic value of acute severe LGIB were biased by the differential use of anti-TNF agents between patients with acute severe LGIB and those without.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Acute severe lower gastrointestinal bleeding (LGIB) is an uncommon but challenging complication of Crohn's disease (CD).

Research motivation

Acute severe LGIB in CD has not been well-studied.

Research objectives

To identify the predictors of acute severe LGIB and to evaluate the impact of acute severe LGIB on the subsequent clinical course in patients with CD.

Research methods

A hospital-based retrospective inception cohort study was conducted. Multivariable analysis with Cox proportional hazard regression was performed to identify the predictors of acute severe LGIB. A matched analysis within the cohort was also conducted to investigate whether acute severe LGIB is a predictor of clinical outcomes of CD. Disease courses were compared using conditional logistic regression analysis.

Research results

Early use of thiopurines and female sex were associated with a decreased risk of acute severe LGIB. The risks of behavioral progression, intestinal resection, and hospitalization due to non-bleeding causes did not significantly differ between the bleeding group and the matched non-bleeding group.

Research conclusions

Early use of thiopurines may reduce the risk of acute severe LGIB. History of acute severe LGIB may not have a significant prognostic value in patients with CD.

Research perspectives

Further studies are needed to investigate whether our findings on the possible null prognostic value of acute severe LGIB in CD was biased by the differential use of anti-tumor necrosis factor agents between patients with acute severe LGIB and those without.

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Retrospective Study

Changes in the nutritional status of nine vitamins in patients with esophageal cancer during chemotherapy

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Many studies have investigated the relationships between vitamins and esophageal cancer (EC). Most of these studies focused on the roles of vitamins in the prevention and treatment of EC, and few studies have examined the changes in vitamin nutritional status and their influencing factors before and after chemotherapy for EC. Chemotherapy may have a considerable effect on EC patients' vitamin levels and hematological indicators.

AIM

To research the nutritional status of multiple vitamins in EC patients during chemotherapy and to assess its clinical significance.

METHODS

EC patients admitted to our center from July 2017 to September 2020 were enrolled in this study. Serum concentrations of nine vitamins (A, D, E, B₉, B₁₂, B₁, C, B₂ and B₆), hemoglobin, total protein, albumin, blood calcium, blood phosphorus concentrations and body mass index (BMI) were measured in all EC patients. The changes in nine vitamins, hematological indicators and BMI were compared before and after two cycles of chemotherapy. The possible influential factors were analyzed.

RESULTS

In total, 203 EC patients receiving chemotherapy were enrolled in this study. Varying degrees of vitamin A, D, C and B₂ deficiency and weight loss were found in these patients, and the proportions of vitamin B₂ and vitamin C deficiencies increased significantly after chemotherapy (both $P < 0.05$). Serum concentrations

Informed consent statement:

Patients were not required to give informed consent to the study because the analysis used anonymous clinical data that were obtained after each patient agreed to treatment by written consent.

Conflict-of-interest statement: All authors hereby declare that there is no personal conflict of interest that may cause impact or bias to the results of this study. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Data sharing statement: No additional data are available.

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of vitamins A, C, B₂ and B₆ and BMI before and after chemotherapy were statistically significant (all $P < 0.05$). Multivariate analysis showed that vitamin A levels significantly differed between male and female EC patients, whereas vitamin D concentration significantly differed in EC patients in different stages (all $P < 0.05$). Correlations were observed between the changes in serum concentrations of vitamin A and C before and after two cycles chemotherapy and the change in BMI ($P < 0.05$). Hemoglobin, total protein, serum albumin and blood calcium concentrations significantly decreased in EC patients after chemotherapy (all $P < 0.05$), while the blood phosphorus level significantly increased after chemotherapy ($P < 0.05$). Using the difference in vitamin concentrations as the independent variables and the difference in BMI as the dependent variable, logistic regression analysis revealed statistically significant differences for vitamin A, vitamin D and vitamin C ($F = 5.082$, $P = 0.002$).

CONCLUSION

Vitamin A, D, C and B₂ were mainly deficient in patients with EC during chemotherapy. Multivitamin supplementation may help to improve the nutritional status, chemotherapy tolerance and efficacy.

Key Words: Esophageal cancer; Chemotherapy; Vitamins; Nutritional status; Body mass index

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Core Tip: This retrospective study investigated the changes in serum vitamins before and after chemotherapy for esophageal cancer. Vitamin deficiencies are common in esophageal cancer patients during chemotherapy and may be associated with the change in body mass index. There were correlations between the changes in vitamin A and C concentrations and the change in body mass index during chemotherapy. Vitamin A level after chemotherapy showed a significant difference between males and females, and the vitamin D level after chemotherapy showed a significant difference among different stages. Vitamin supplementation may reduce the adverse effects of chemotherapy and improve the nutritional status.

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INTRODUCTION

Esophageal cancer (EC) is the ninth most commonly diagnosed cancer and the sixth leading cause of cancer death worldwide[1]. The incidence and mortality rates of EC are highly heterogeneous in terms of gender, histological type, geographic distribution and race[2]. The morbidity and mortality of EC in China are higher than the global averages[3]. Chemoradiotherapy remains the mainstay of treatment for patients with advanced EC. The most common complications during chemoradiotherapy in EC patients include weight loss, malnutrition, bone marrow suppression, electrolyte disturbances, hypoproteinemia and decreased quality of life[4-7]. Multiple vitamins are involved in the pathogenesis, progression and prognosis of tumors and are closely related to the tumor microenvironment. Vitamin testing is valuable in tumor patients as it can identify whether there is a specific vitamin deficiency and/or justify vitamin therapy. Most clinical studies have shown that vitamin nutritional status varies greatly in tumors of different systems[8]. Although many studies have investigated the relationships between vitamins B, A, D and C with EC, most of these studies focused on the roles of vitamins in the prevention and treatment of EC. Few studies have examined the changes in vitamin nutritional status and their influencing factors before and after chemotherapy for EC.

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Many vitamins have antitumor effects and are closely related to the occurrence, progression, prognosis and recovery of tumors. Vitamin supplementation can lower the risk of tumorigenesis and prevent abnormal DNA methylation changes in tumor cells[9]. With the advances in nutritional therapy in China, nutritional screenings, assessments and interventions have increasingly been applied in tumor patients. The standardized nutritional therapies involve three major macronutrients including carbohydrates, proteins and fats and have specific requirements on micronutrients. Nutritional therapy for tumor patients provides nutrients and energy and focuses on the metabolism-regulating roles of nutrients[10]. Vitamin supplementation is a common nutritional therapy for tumor patients in clinical practice. Serum vitamin levels vary among patients with different tumors. Zhang *et al*[11] analyzed the vitamin nutritional status of approximately 1000 hospitalized tumor patients and found that vitamin B1 concentrations were low in patients with digestive system tumors such as EC and gastric cancer. A study on postoperative nutritional deficiencies in patients with EC or gastric cancer revealed that the incidence of ferritin, folic acid, vitamin B₁₂ and vitamin D deficiencies was 42.86%, 9.52%, 6.35% and 36.67%, respectively, and the vitamin levels were significantly improved after nutritional interventions[12]. In another study[13], most patients with advanced tumors had vitamin (particularly vitamins D, B₆ and C) deficiency symptoms during palliative care, and further analysis revealed a correlation between the degree of vitamin deficiency and clinical discomfort in these patients. Most vitamins were found to be negatively associated with the risk of colorectal and gastric cancer in addition to EC in an observational study, yet interventional treatment failed to demonstrate a clear preventive effect in these malignancies [14].

In the current study, we analyzed the effects of chemotherapeutic drugs on EC patients' vitamin levels and hematological indicators by detecting the changes in nine vitamins and hematological indicators (*e.g.*, hemoglobin, total protein, serum albumin and electrolytes) before and after chemotherapy, with an attempt to provide evidence for clinical vitamin supplementation and nutritional therapies. Our findings may be valuable for the implementation of tailored nutritional interventions, which will help to reduce chemotherapy-related complications, alleviate treatment resistance and improve chemotherapy efficacy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subjects

In total, 203 EC patients (181 men and 22 women) aged 37-78 yrs (mean: 60.03 ± 7.95 years) who were receiving chemotherapy in our center between July 2017 and September 2020 were enrolled in this study. The vast majority of subjects had esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (*n* = 192, 94.58%), and 166 patients (81.77%) were in stage III-IV (Table 1). The inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) pathologically confirmed esophageal malignancies, with indications for chemotherapy, regardless of gender; (2) aged 18-80 years; (3) an expected survival of > 6 mo; and (4) a Karnofsky performance status score of ≥ 70 points. The exclusion criteria included: (1) contraindications to chemotherapy; (2) coexisting tumors in other systems; (3) coexisting primary blood diseases or endocrine diseases; (4) coexisting cardiopulmonary dysfunction; and (5) coexisting psychiatric disorders.

Methods

Determination of vitamin concentrations and hematological indicators: Vitamin levels were measured using electrochemiluminescence with an LK3000VI vitamin detector (Tianjin Lanbiao Electronic Technology Development Co., Ltd., Tianjin, China) pre- and postchemotherapy in EC patients. The normal thresholds were as follows: hemoglobin: 137-179 g/L in males and 116-155 g/L in females; total protein: 55-88 g/L; serum albumin: 35-50 g/L; blood calcium: 2.09-2.54 mmol/L; blood phosphorus: 0.89-1.60 mmol/L; vitamin A: 0.52-2.20 mmol/L; vitamin D: 25-200 nmol/L; vitamin E: 10-15 mg/mL; vitamin B₆: 6.8-36.3 nmol/L; vitamin B₁₂: 200-900 pg/mL; vitamin B₁: 50-150 nmol/L; vitamin C: 34-114 mmol/L; vitamin B₂: 4.26-18.42 mg/L; and vitamin B₉: 14.6-72.9 nmol/L.

Chemotherapy regimens: Of these 203 EC patients, 168 were treated with induction chemotherapy, 15 with postoperative adjuvant chemotherapy and 20 with postrelapse chemotherapy. The specific regimens were as follows: (1) squamous cell carcinoma: paclitaxel + platinum; (2) adenocarcinoma: oxaliplatin + fluorouracil; and (3) small cell

Table 1 Baseline data of esophageal cancer patients (*n* = 203)

Clinical features	<i>n</i>	(%)
Gender		
Males	181	89.16
Females	22	10.84
Age		
< 60 yr	94	46.31
≥ 60 yr	109	53.69
Tumor stage		
II	16	7.88
III	98	48.28
IV	68	33.50
Uncertain	21	10.34
Pathologic type		
Squamous cell carcinoma	192	94.58
Nonsquamous cell carcinoma	11	5.42
Treatment		
Induction chemotherapy	168	82.76
Postoperative adjuvant chemotherapy	15	7.39
Postrelapse chemotherapy	20	9.85
Primary tumor site		
Cervical	14	6.90
Upper thoracic	28	13.79
Middle thoracic	77	37.93
Lower thoracic	84	41.38

carcinoma: etoposide + platinum. All of these regimens were repeated every 3 wk.

Statistical methods

SPSS 24.0 statistical software was used for analyzing the data. Normally distributed data were expressed as mean ± SD, and intergroup comparisons were based on the paired-sample *t*-test. Non-normally distributed data were expressed as quartiles and medians, and the rank sum test was applied for comparisons between two groups. The Spearman method was used to test for correlations between the changes in multiple vitamin serum concentrations (the independent variables) and body mass index (BMI) (the dependent variable) during chemotherapy using. *P* value < 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Variation in BMI and hematological parameters in EC patients during chemotherapy

BMI declined after chemotherapy in 133 cases (65.52%). The number of patients with anemia increased from 119 before chemotherapy to 182 after chemotherapy. The differences in these proportions were statistically significant (*P* < 0.05) (Table 2).

Vitamin levels in EC patients pre- and postchemotherapy

Vitamin A, C, B₂ and B₆ concentrations significantly differed before and after chemotherapy (all *P* < 0.05) (Table 3).

Table 2 Changes in body mass index and hematological indicators in esophageal cancer patients before and after chemotherapy [n (%)]

Item	Before chemotherapy	After chemotherapy	χ^2/Z	P value
Body mass index (kg/m ²)			-2.646	0.008
< 18.5	25 (12.32)	22 (10.84)		
18.5-23.9	103 (50.74)	123 (60.59)		
> 23.9	75 (36.95)	58 (28.57)		
Hemoglobin (g/L)			55.710	< 0.001
Decreased	119 (58.62)	182 (89.66)		
Normal	84 (41.38)	21 (10.34)		
Serum albumin (g/L)			2.717	0.099
Decreased	34 (16.75)	47 (23.15)		
Normal	169 (83.25)	156 (76.85)		
Serum calcium (mmol/L)			4.780	0.029
Decreased	21 (10.34)	36 (17.73)		
Normal	182 (89.66)	167 (82.27)		
Blood phosphorus (mmol/L)			2.382	0.123
Decreased	23 (11.33)	13 (6.40)		
Normal	180 (88.67)	190 (93.60)		

Table 3 Vitamin concentrations in esophageal cancer patients before and after chemotherapy

Item	Before chemotherapy (Q1-Q3) median	After chemotherapy (Q1-Q3) median	Z	P value
Vitamin A (μmol/L)	(0.561-0.980) 0.741	(0.528-0.858) 0.678	-3.465	0.001
Vitamin D (nmol/L)	(33.618-49.939) 41.383	(33.235-46.473) 38.832	-1.599	0.110
Vitamin E (μg/mL)	(10.898-11.673) 11.267	(10.905-11.867) 11.298	-1.678	0.093
Vitamin B ₉ (nmol/L)	(14.529-23.014) 18.718	(13.859-22.037) 17.539	-1.578	0.115
Vitamin B ₁₂ (pg/mL)	(491.023-598.303) 557.219	(491.112-590.338) 546.789	-0.326	0.745
Vitamin B ₁ (nmol/L)	(75.056-97.909) 84.070	(75.826-93.322) 83.095	-1.477	0.140
Vitamin C (μmol/L)	(34.324-38.543) 36.075	(33.299-37.849) 35.259	-3.824	< 0.001
Vitamin B ₂ (μg/L)	(4.182-5.050) 4.501	(4.105-4.761) 4.284	-2.631	0.009
Vitamin B ₆ (nmol/L)	(29.702-33.645) 31.747	(28.875-32.868) 31.363	-2.351	0.019

Q1-Q3: Quartiles 1-3.

Vitamin deficiencies in EC patients undergoing chemotherapy

Deficiencies of vitamin A, D, C and B₂ were detected pre- and postchemotherapy, and the proportion of each of these four vitamin deficiencies increased after chemotherapy. In particular the proportions of vitamin C and B₂ deficiencies (24.46% *vs* 38.85%) increased significantly (both $P < 0.05$) (Table 4). Three EC patients had excessively high vitamin A concentrations before chemotherapy, which decreased to normal levels in 2 cases and to vitamin A deficiency in 1 case after chemotherapy. None of the other five vitamin (E, B₉, B₁₂, B₁, B₆) deficiencies were detected during chemotherapy.

Changes in hematological indicators in EC patients pre- and postchemotherapy

Hemoglobin, total protein, serum albumin and blood calcium concentrations significantly decreased, and blood phosphorus concentrations significantly increased after chemotherapy (all $P < 0.05$) (Table 5).

Table 4 Vitamin deficiencies in esophageal cancer patients before and after chemotherapy, *n* (%)

Item	Before chemotherapy		After chemotherapy		χ^2	<i>P</i> value
	Normal	Deficiency	Normal	Deficiency		
Vitamin A ($\mu\text{mol/L}$)	163 (81.50)	37 (18.50)	158 (79.00)	42 (21.00)	0.485	0.486
Vitamin D (nmol/L)	194 (95.57)	9 (4.43)	191 (94.09)	12 (5.91)	0.235	0.629
Vitamin C ($\mu\text{mol/L}$)	155 (76.35)	48 (23.65)	133 (65.52)	70 (34.48)	6.682	0.010
Vitamin B ₂ ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	139 (68.47)	64 (31.53)	108 (53.20)	95 (46.80)	9.677	0.002

Table 5 Changes in hematological indicators in esophageal cancer patients before and after chemotherapy

Item	Before chemotherapy (mean \pm SD)	After chemotherapy (mean \pm SD)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> value
Hemoglobin (g/L)	130.070 \pm 16.484	115.010 \pm 14.584	15.342	< 0.001
Total protein (g/L)	66.572 \pm 5.726	64.499 \pm 5.528	5.032	< 0.001
Serum albumin (g/L)	38.880 \pm 4.138	37.546 \pm 3.719	4.355	< 0.001
Blood calcium (mmol/L)	2.240 \pm 0.128	2.207 \pm 0.132	2.835	0.005
Blood phosphorus (mmol/L)	1.130 \pm 0.200	1.180 \pm 0.184	-2.818	0.005

SD: Standard deviation.

Factors affecting vitamins and hematological indicators in EC patients

After adjustment for covariates of each indicator before chemotherapy, vitamin A levels after chemotherapy showed a significant difference between males and females. Vitamin D levels after chemotherapy showed a significant difference among different tumor grades (both $P < 0.05$). No statistically significant differences were shown for the other baseline data (all $P > 0.05$) (Table 6).

Correlation between vitamin concentrations and BMI during chemotherapy in EC patients

There were correlations between the changes in serum vitamin A and C concentrations and the change in BMI before and after chemotherapy ($P < 0.05$) (Table 7).

Regression analysis of vitamins and BMI in EC patients

Using the difference in vitamin concentrations as the independent variables and the difference in BMI as the dependent variable, logistic regression analysis revealed statistically significant differences for three vitamins ($F = 5.082$, $P = 0.002$) (Table 8).

DISCUSSION

It was found that EC patients had different degrees of vitamin deficiency during chemotherapy, and the hemoglobin, total protein, serum albumin concentration and blood calcium concentration significantly decreased after chemotherapy. In addition, the proportions of patients with weight loss, anemia and hypoproteinemia also significantly increased. Our subjects were most deficient in vitamin B₂ and vitamin C followed by vitamins A and D.

In the current study, EC patients undergoing chemotherapy were most deficient in vitamin B₂ (31.53% and 46.80% before and after chemotherapy, respectively), and vitamin B₂ concentration significantly decreased after chemotherapy ($P < 0.05$). Vitamin B₁, B₉, B₁₂ and B₆ deficiency or excess was not found in any of our EC patients. A comparison of vitamin levels before and after chemotherapy suggested that vitamin B₆ concentrations decreased significantly after chemotherapy but were still within the normal range. It has been reported that B vitamin intake is correlated with the risk of EC. Appropriate supplementation with vitamins B₆ and B₉ (also known as folate) can reduce the risk, while higher intake of vitamin B₁₂ may increase the risk[15,16]. A study of residents in Yanting County, Sichuan Province, a high-incidence area of EC in

Table 6 Factors affecting various indicators in esophageal cancer patients during chemotherapy

Item	Gender (Males/females)		Age (≥ 60 yr/ < 60 yr)		Tumor grades (grades II/III/IV)		Tumor location (cervical/upper, middle, lower thoracic)	
	F	P value	F	P value	F	P value	F	P value
Body mass index	0.014	0.904	0.042	0.837	0.672	0.512	0.718	0.542
Hemoglobin	0.044	0.834	0.757	0.385	0.747	0.475	0.195	0.900
Serum albumin	0.707	0.402	3.387	0.067	0.210	0.811	2.554	0.057
Vitamin A	5.407	0.021	0.059	0.809	0.151	0.860	0.692	0.558
Vitamin D	0.594	0.442	0.326	0.568	6.899	0.001	0.324	0.808
Vitamin C	3.774	0.053	0.537	0.464	2.633	0.075	2.261	0.083
Vitamin B ₂	0.178	0.674	0.863	0.354	0.381	0.684	2.273	0.081

The descriptive statistics of each indicator before and after chemotherapy are shown in Tables 3 and 5.

Table 7 Relationships between the differences in vitamins before and after chemotherapy and the difference in body mass index before and after chemotherapy in esophageal cancer patients

Difference in vitamin concentration	Difference in BMI	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i> value
Vitamin A	0.240	0.001
Vitamin D	-0.080	0.259
Vitamin E	-0.095	0.177
Vitamin B ₉	-0.016	0.824
Vitamin B ₁₂	-0.053	0.449
Vitamin B ₁	0.021	0.771
Vitamin C	0.188	0.007
Vitamin B ₂	-0.102	0.149
Vitamin B ₆	-0.078	0.269

BMI: Body mass index.

Table 8 Regression analysis of the relationships between the concentrations of various vitamins and body mass index in 203 esophageal cancer patients

Independent variables (differences)	Dependent variable (difference in BMI)		
	B (coefficient)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> value
Constant	0.365	4.978	< 0.001
Vitamin A	0.304	1.877	0.062
Vitamin D	-0.009	-2.355	0.020
Vitamin C	0.026	1.793	0.074

BMI: Body mass index.

China, found that riboflavin intake was markedly deficient, and riboflavin supplements in high-risk groups reduced the incidence of EC[17]. In a multicenter study in China, whole blood riboflavin was tested in 764 EC patients (and in controls), and the analysis revealed that whole blood riboflavin levels were not significantly correlated with the prevalence of EC. However, high whole blood riboflavin level was more

favorable for the survival of elderly EC patients aged 50-70 yrs[18]. Therefore, B vitamin supplementation in EC patients undergoing chemotherapy is beneficial to improve vitamin nutritional status and reduce complications.

In our research, the proportion of vitamin C deficiency cases was 23.65% and 34.48%, before and after chemotherapy, respectively. The difference was statistically significant, and vitamin C was the most deficient vitamin after chemotherapy. Thus, chemotherapy may have a considerable effect on vitamin C levels in EC patients. A meta-analysis showed a negative correlation between dietary vitamin C intake and EC risk and concluded that a high level of vitamin C may prevent EC[19]. Vitamin C supplementation was found to downregulate nuclear factor kappa B activity and significantly decrease proinflammatory cytokine levels in EC patients treated with neoadjuvant radiotherapy[20].

In the current study, vitamin A and D deficiencies were found in EC patients both before and after chemotherapy, and their proportions increased following chemotherapy. However, the changes in the proportions were not statistically significant after chemotherapy. Further stratified analysis of the baseline data showed that the change in vitamin A concentration during chemotherapy might be associated with gender, while vitamin D might differ among different tumor stages. Vitamins A and D are mainly derived from food sources. EC itself can affect the intake and absorption of food, and chemotherapy drugs further damage the nutritional status of patients, resulting in more significant vitamin deficiencies in patients after treatment. In the current study, we further analyzed the difference between vitamin concentrations and BMI in EC patients before and after chemotherapy and found that vitamins A and C were significantly correlated with the change in BMI. Regression analysis of multiple vitamins and BMI revealed a statistically significant overall model for three vitamins (A, D and C). Therefore, body weight, vitamin levels and hematological indicators interact with each other during chemotherapy in EC patients, and the supplementation of macronutrients and micronutrients are equally important. Developing holistic care is the key to nutritional therapy for tumor patients.

There were different degrees of vitamin A and D deficiencies in EC patients treated with chemotherapy, and a higher proportion of vitamin A deficiency than vitamin D deficiency and no vitamin E deficiency was detected during our observation. A meta-analysis suggested that vitamin A levels were negatively correlated with EC risk[21], and further studies are needed to confirm whether it affects the prognosis of EC patients. Vitamin D has been found to inhibit tumor cell proliferation, induce cell differentiation, promote apoptosis and suppress angiogenesis[22]. A meta-analysis did not observe an association between vitamin D levels and the development of esophageal lesions[23]. Another study reported that appropriate vitamin D supplementation in postoperative EC patients improved quality of life and disease-free survival, and further multivariate analysis found that vitamin D supplementation was an independent prognostic factor for disease-free survival but was not associated with overall survival[24].

This study had some limitations: (1) the sample size was not large due to the single center retrospective design of the study; (2) a control group was not included, and it is unclear whether vitamin supplementation is beneficial in EC patients undergoing chemotherapy; (3) the results might be biased due to different disease states and chemotherapy regimens; and (4) some patients might have received targeted therapy or immunotherapy during chemotherapy, which may have had an impact on the study results. In addition, no data on response rate or overall survival were included in our analysis, and the relationship between vitamin nutritional status and prognosis in EC patients requires further investigation in multicenter prospective studies.

CONCLUSION

Vitamin deficiencies (mainly vitamins A, D, C and B₂ deficiencies) are common in EC patients during chemotherapy and may be associated with the change in BMI. In addition, chemotherapy drugs decrease hematological indicators such as hemoglobin and albumin. Appropriate nutritional interventions and vitamin supplementation can reduce the adverse effects of chemotherapy, improve overall nutritional status of patients and improve drug tolerability and quality of life.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Few studies have examined the changes in vitamin nutritional status and their influencing factors during chemotherapy for esophageal cancer (EC). Most vitamins were found to be negatively associated with the risk of colorectal and gastric cancer in addition to EC, yet interventional treatment failed to demonstrate a clear preventive effect in these malignancies. In our study, the effects of chemotherapeutic drugs on EC patients' vitamin levels and hematological indicators were analyzed.

Research motivation

We analyzed the effects of chemotherapeutic drugs on EC patients' vitamin levels and hematological indicators by detecting the changes in nine vitamins and hematological indicators before and after chemotherapy, with an attempt to provide evidence for vitamin supplementation. Many oncologists believe that vitamin testing is valuable in tumor patients as it can identify whether there is a specific vitamin deficiency and/or justify vitamin therapy. Our findings may be valuable for the implementation of tailored nutritional interventions.

Research objectives

To explore multiple vitamin levels and the possible influential factors in EC patients treated with chemotherapy. Varying degrees of vitamin deficiency and weight loss were found in these patients. Vitamin supplementation may reduce the adverse effects of chemotherapy.

Research methods

Vitamin nutritional status was measured using the electrochemiluminescence method with an LK3000VI vitamin detector before and after two cycles of chemotherapy in EC patients. Statistical analysis was performed using the SPSS 24.0 software package. The latent correlations between multiple vitamin levels (the independent variables) and body mass index (the dependent variable) during chemotherapy were analyzed using the Spearman method.

Research results

Varying degrees of vitamin A, D, C and B₂ deficiency and weight loss were found in EC patients. Statistically significant differences were shown in vitamins A, C, B₂ and B₆ levels and body mass index before and after chemotherapy. Multivariate analysis showed that vitamin A levels significantly differed between male and female EC patients, whereas vitamin D concentrations significantly differed in EC patients in different stages. Correlations were observed between the changes in serum vitamin A and C levels pre- and postchemotherapy and the variation in body mass index.

Research conclusions

Varying degrees of vitamin deficiency and weight loss were found in EC patients undergoing chemotherapy. Vitamin supplementation may help to improve the nutritional status, chemotherapy tolerance and efficacy. To detect the concentrations of vitamins is valuable for EC patients.

Research perspectives

A multicenter prospective study should be performed to reveal the suitable vitamin replenishment programs and potential effects on treatment outcomes and the adverse effects of chemotherapy in EC patients. Thus, randomized control studies and intervention are needed to verify our finding.

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Observational Study

Effects of sepsis and its treatment measures on intestinal flora structure in critical care patients

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Sepsis is a common disease in intensive care units, with high morbidity and mortality. Intestinal microecology plays a vital part in the development and progression of this disease, possibly because sepsis and its treatment cause specific changes in the composition of the intestinal flora.

AIM

To investigate the characteristics of intestinal flora disturbance in sepsis patients treated with antibiotics.

METHODS

In this prospective comparative study, we enrolled ten patients with sepsis (sepsis group), hospitalized in the Department of Critical Care Medicine of the General Hospital, Ningxia Medical University, China (a class IIIa general hospital) from February 2017 to June 2017; ten patients without sepsis hospitalized in the same period (non-sepsis group) and ten healthy individuals (control group) were also enrolled. Fecal samples collected from the three groups were subjected to 16S rRNA gene sequencing and the intestinal flora diversity, structure, and composition were determined. Additionally, the dynamics of the intestinal flora diversity, structure, and composition in sepsis patients were investigated via 16S rRNA gene sequencing of samples collected 0 d, 3 d, and 7 d after admittance to the intensive care unit. Correlations between the serum levels of procalcitonin, endotoxin, diamine oxidase, and D-lactic acid and the intestinal flora composition

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of sepsis patients were also investigated.

RESULTS

Compared with the healthy control group, sepsis and non-sepsis patients showed reduced intestinal flora α -diversity and a distinct flora structure, with Firmicutes as the dominant phylum, and significantly decreased proportions of Bacteroidetes, as well as *Prevotella* and *Lachnospira*, among other genera. Of note, the proportion of *Enterococcus* was significantly increased in the intestinal tract of sepsis patients. Interestingly, the α -diversity in the sepsis group decreased gradually, from days 1 to 7 of treatment. However, pairwise comparisons showed that both the diversity and structure of the intestinal flora were not significantly different considering the three different time points studied. Curiously, the serum levels of procalcitonin, endotoxin, diamine oxidase, and D-lactic acid in sepsis patients correlated with the prevalence of various bacterial genera. For example, the prevalence of *Ruminococcus* was positively correlated with serum procalcitonin, endotoxins, and diamine oxidase; similarly, the prevalence of *Roseburia* was positively correlated with serum procalcitonin, endotoxins, and D-lactic acid.

CONCLUSION

Sepsis patients in intensive care units show dysbiosis, lasting for at least 1 wk.

Key Words: Sepsis; Intestinal flora; *16S rRNA* gene sequencing; Dynamic changes; Intestinal barrier index; Procalcitonin

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Core Tip: As the largest reservoir of bacteria and endotoxins in the body, the intestinal tract is regarded as the “engine” of sepsis and multiple organ dysfunction. Through *16S rRNA* gene sequencing, we observed that intestinal flora disturbance occurs in sepsis patients. Notably, here, we revealed for the first time the intestinal flora dynamic changes in sepsis patients during treatment. We found that the abundance of some intestinal bacteria in sepsis patients significantly correlated with infection- and intestinal barrier-related clinical indicators. These findings add to the understanding of the intestinal flora in sepsis, providing a basis for the reversal of dysbiosis.

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INTRODUCTION

Sepsis refers to the life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by imbalanced responses to infection[1]. As the largest reservoir of bacteria and endotoxins in the body, the intestinal tract is regarded as the “engine” of sepsis and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome. Under normal circumstances, the intestinal flora plays beneficial roles in the context of human physiology and immunity[2-3], existing in a homeostatic state important for the maintenance of human health. However, in the context of critical illness, homeostasis is interrupted, leading to abnormal changes in the types, quantities, proportions, and locations of microorganisms in the intestinal tract[4], thus increasing susceptibility to sepsis. In fact, studies have shown that there is a dose-response relationship between the degree of intestinal microecological disturbance and the incidence of subsequent severe sepsis[5]. Therefore, an improved understanding of the status and degree of intestinal flora disturbances in sepsis patients is of great significance; for instance, the establishment of strong intestinal microecology-based biomarkers will allow for the accurate prediction of prognosis of sepsis patients and the consequent adoption of adequate treatment measures. However, there are few reports on the sepsis-related intestinal flora and its dynamic

changes.

High-throughput 16S *rRNA* gene sequencing allows for a comprehensive understanding of the intestinal flora structure, and it is the standard technology used for human intestinal flora analysis[6]. In this study, the diversity and composition of the intestinal flora in sepsis patients, non-sepsis patients, and healthy individuals were analyzed and compared. The dynamic changes in the intestinal flora α -diversity and structure throughout a 1 wk period [1, 3, and 7 d after admittance to the intensive care unit (ICU)] were also investigated to disclose the transformation of the intestinal flora in the context of antibiotic treatment. In addition, the potential relationships between the intestinal flora imbalance and clinical indicators in sepsis were investigated *via* correlation analysis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

General information

This is a prospective observational study, including ten sepsis patients (sepsis group) admitted to the ICU of the General Hospital, Ningxia Medical University, China from February 2017 to June 2017, ten patients without sepsis (non-sepsis group) admitted to the same ICU during the same time period, and ten local healthy individuals (control group). The inclusion criteria for sepsis patients were as follows: 18-75 years old; sepsis patients meeting the latest definition of sepsis in “Sepsis-3.0” issued by the Society of Critical Care Medicine (SCCM) in 2016[7]; and estimated time of more than 2 d spent in the ICU after enrollment. The inclusion criteria for the non-sepsis patients were as follows: 18-75 years old; and patients admitted to the ICU at the same period owing to diseases other than sepsis, such as multiple injuries and high-risk operations. Of note, we tried to match the age, underlying disease, and surgical site with those in patients in the sepsis group. Because there was no definite infection, the non-sepsis group was not given antibiotics before the fecal samples were collected. The exclusion criteria were as follows: Not meeting the inclusion criteria; perianal infection; patients subjected to enterostomy; and patients with chronic gastrointestinal diseases. Additionally, the requirements for the healthy control group were as follows: Matched age with the aforementioned two groups of patients; good health; no history of chronic or metabolic diseases (*e.g.*, hypertension, coronary heart disease, diabetes, hepatitis, and hyperthyroidism); no history of digestive tract diseases or digestive tract surgery; and not using antibiotics, probiotics, enteral nutrients, or other drugs within 3 mo before enrollment. Informed consent was obtained from all patients or their immediate family members, and this study was approved by the hospital ethics committee (ethics approval number: 2016-258).

Research methods

The general clinical data of patients in the sepsis and non-sepsis groups were recorded, including age, main diagnosis, operation type (abdominal cavity organ operation and non-abdominal cavity organ operation), clinical infection site, pathogenic bacterial agent (based on qualitative culture), and use of antibiotics (Tables 1-3). The acute physiology and chronic health (APACHE II) score and sequential organ failure assessment (SOFA) score of patients on the day of ICU admission were recorded (Table 1). The primary infection site, surgical site, and use of antibiotics in the sepsis group were also recorded (Table 2), as were the positive results of blood, urine, sputum, and other body fluids collected from patients with sepsis (Table 3). Additionally, venous blood samples were collected from patients with sepsis on days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the ICU, and procalcitonin (PCT) was detected by immunochromatography [PCT-Q detection card produced by BRAHMS GmbH in Germany, provided by Thermo Fisher Scientific (China) Co., Ltd.], while the levels of serum D-lactic acid (D-Lac), bacterial endotoxin (endotoxin), and diamine oxidase (DAO) were determined using the JY-DLT intestinal barrier function biochemical index analysis system (Beijing Zhongsheng Jinyu Diagnosis Technology Co., Ltd., China.) within 0.5 h after blood collection.

Collection of stool samples and sequencing

Stool samples were collected from sepsis patients on days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the ICU, from non-sepsis patients on day 1 after admission to the ICU, and from healthy controls. Samples from patients were taken from a deep part of the fresh stool of patients by using a sampling spoon, and the stool samples were quickly placed in a special stool sample box. The stool samples of healthy control subjects were collected

Table 1 Comparison of the general information among the three groups of individuals

Indicator	Control group (n = 10)	Non-sepsis group (n = 10)	Sepsis group (n = 10)	H/F/ χ^2 /Z/t value	P value
Age (yr, mean \pm SD)	55 (48.75, 55.25)	59 (50.00, 74.00) ^a	63.50 (44.75, 76.25) ^{a,b}	2.05	0.36
BMI (kg/m ² , mean \pm S)	23.95 \pm 2.04	27.19 \pm 4.40 ^b	23.91 \pm 4.09 ^{a,b}	2.64	0.09
Underlying disease (cases)				0.84	0.65
Multiple injuries		3	4		
Malignant tumor		5	3		
Other diseases		2	3		
Type of operation (cases)				0.00	1.00
Surgery on abdominal hollow viscera	-	5	5		
Surgery on non-abdominal hollow viscera	-	5	5		
APACHE II score on day 1 [points, M (P_{25} , P_{75})]	-	10.00 (7.00, 17.00)	19.00 (15.25, 21.50)	-2.40	0.02
SOFA score on day 1 (points, mean \pm SD)	-	3.30 \pm 1.42	10.80 \pm 2.97	-7.20	0.00

APACHE II score: Acute Physiologic Assessment and Chronic Health Evaluation II Scoring System; SOFA score: Sequential Organ Failure Assessment Score; BMI: Body mass index.

^a $P < 0.05$.

^b $P < 0.01$.

Table 2 General clinical information of the patients in the sepsis group

Patient No.	Primary infection site	Surgical site	Categories of antibiotics used within 7 d after admission to the ICU
S1	Lungs	-	Broad-spectrum penicillins
S2	Abdominal cavity	Hollow viscera	Carbapenems + glycopeptides
S3	Lungs	Hollow viscera	Carbapenems + oxazolidinones
S4	Lungs	Joint	Broad-spectrum penicillins + carbapenems
S5	Abdomen	Hollow viscera	Broad-spectrum penicillins + glycopeptides
S6	Lungs	-	Broad-spectrum penicillins + tetracyclines
S7	Lungs	-	Carbapenems + broad-spectrum penicillins
S8	Abdominal cavity	-	Carbapenems
S9	Abdominal cavity	Hollow viscera	Carbapenems
S10	Abdominal cavity	Hollow viscera	Carbapenems + glycopeptides

Note: S_n represents the sepsis patient number n in the sepsis group; e.g., S1 represents sepsis patient No. 1. ICU: Intensive care unit.

in a special stool sample box after normal defecation. Then, the small stool boxes filled with samples were sealed, labeled, placed in a liquid nitrogen tank, and transferred to a -80 °C freezer for storage.

Each stool sample was added to 790 μ L of lysis buffer [4 M guanidine thiocyanate, 250 μ L; 10% N-lauroyl sarcosine, 40 μ L; 5% N-lauroyl sarcosine-0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), 500 μ L] together with 1 g glass beads (0.1 mm, Biospec Products, Inc., United States). After sufficient vortex-based homogenization, bead beating was performed for 10 min at full speed. The subsequent extraction was carried out according to the instructions of the extraction kit manufacturer (E.Z.N.A.® Stool DNA Kit, Omega Bio-tek, Inc., GA). The V3–V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified with the primers 341F/805R (341F: 5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3'; 805R: 5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3'), and the PCR products were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq 2*300 bp platform. The raw sequencing data and accompanying information are available in the Sequence Read Archive database under the accession

Table 3 Pathogenic bacteria isolated in the sepsis group

Pathogenic bacteria	Cultured sample	Patient No.	Corresponding sample collection time (day <i>n</i> after admission to the ICU)
<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	Sputum	S5, S6, S8	4, 13, 23
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	Sputum	S6, S7	1, 8
<i>Enterococcus</i>	Sputum	S7	23
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Blood	S7	1

Sn represents the sepsis patient number *n* in the sepsis group; e.g., S5 represents sepsis patient No. 5. In the table, sputum and blood samples from patients in the sepsis group were subjected to qualitative cultures, and bacterial colonization and contamination were ruled out. ICU: Intensive care unit.

number PRJNA691455.

Bioinformatics and statistical analysis

The clinical data were processed and analyzed using SPSS 19.0 software. All data were first tested for normality and homogeneity of variance. Data conforming to a normal distribution and homogeneity of variance are expressed as the mean \pm SD, and the *t*-test or analysis of variance were used for statistical analysis. Data not conforming to a normal distribution are expressed as medians (P_{25} , P_{75}), and the rank-sum test was used for statistical analysis. The χ^2 test was used to compare enumeration data, and $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

USEARCH 8.0 was used to process the raw sequencing data, and operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were classified according to 97% sequence similarity. The OTU representative sequences were compared against the SILVA database (SSU123; <http://www.arb-silva.de>) with a 70% confidence threshold, and the taxonomic status of each 16S *rDNA* sequence was obtained. The α -diversity of each sample was evaluated using the Shannon–Wiener and Simpson's diversity indexes, and the significance of differences was tested using either the nonparametric Mann–Whitney *U* test or the Kruskal–Wallis rank-sum test. Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) and the calculation of the linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) were performed using the R software package (<http://www.R-project.org/>); heatmaps were also obtained using the R software. Spearman correlation analysis was also carried out to assess the relationships between relevant parameters.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the participants

A total of ten sepsis patients, ten non-sepsis patients, and ten healthy individuals were included in this study. Table 1 shows that there were no significant differences with respect to age or body mass index among the groups, as revealed by variance analysis ($P > 0.05$). The underlying diseases of the patients in the sepsis and non-sepsis groups were divided into three categories: Multiple injuries, malignant tumors, and other diseases (including benign tumors and intestinal obstruction). Of note, there were no significant differences in the underlying diseases and operation types between the sepsis and non-sepsis groups as revealed by the χ^2 test ($P > 0.05$), indicating that the groups were matched (and accurate comparisons were possible). The APACHE II and SOFA scores in the sepsis group were significantly higher than those in the non-sepsis group on day 1 of ICU admission ($P < 0.05$), suggesting that the patients in the sepsis group had worse pathology (with acute organ dysfunction) compared with those in the non-sepsis group.

Comparison of intestinal flora structure in healthy individuals and non-sepsis and sepsis patients on day 1 after ICU admittance

A total of 49 fecal samples were included for analysis. Of note, one stool sample in the sepsis group (patient S3, day 3) was missing owing to a problem in specimen collection. After quality control procedures, 629665 high-quality sequences were obtained, and the qualified reads were clustered into 440 species-level OTUs using 97% as the similarity cutoff. In this study, the number of qualified reads of inpatients

in the ICU was generally much lower than that of healthy controls. To understand whether these differences were due to low bacterial numbers, we randomly selected five specimens from each group to quantify the total bacteria in the feces. Regardless of whether bacteria were counted as bacterial copy number per gram fecal samples (mean bacterial copy numbers in sepsis, non-sepsis, and healthy control groups, $5.07E + 11$, $1.36E + 12$, and $9.27E + 12$, respectively) or per nanogram bacterial DNA ($9.02E + 06$, $3.54E + 07$, and $4.90E + 07$, respectively), there was a significant overall decreasing trend in both the sepsis and non-sepsis groups relative to that in healthy controls. Therefore, altogether, these results suggest that the low number of qualified reads in some samples in the sepsis and non-sepsis group is secondary to the significantly reduced number of intestinal bacteria, probably because of the use of large amounts of antibiotics in the ICU.

α -diversity: The Mann-Whitney test showed that the α -diversity in the non-sepsis and sepsis groups on day 1 after ICU admittance was significantly lower than that in the control group ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, the diversity of the intestinal flora in sepsis patients was lower than that in non-sepsis patients; however, this difference was not significant (Figure 1 and Table 4).

Overall structural comparison of the intestinal flora: The PCoA plot based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between samples revealed that the flora composition in sepsis patients was similar to that in non-sepsis patients on day 1 after ICU admittance (Figure 2). In line with these results, Adonis analysis showed no significant difference in the composition of the intestinal flora between sepsis and non-sepsis patients on day 1 after ICU admittance ($P > 0.05$). However, the difference in the flora composition between these groups and normal controls was extremely significant (Adonis $P < 0.05$).

Comparison of intestinal flora compositions at the phylum level: The flora composition results revealed that Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes were the dominant phyla in healthy individuals, accounting for more than 70% of the total bacteria. Meanwhile, in sepsis and non-sepsis patients, Firmicutes was the dominant phylum in the intestinal flora (Figure 3A); the proportion of Bacteroidetes decreased significantly compared to that in healthy individuals ($P < 0.05$), and the relative abundance of Proteobacteria increased compared to that in normal controls, although the difference was not significant. Of note, the proportion of Fusobacteria in the intestinal tract of non-sepsis patients was significantly higher than that in both healthy controls and sepsis patients ($P < 0.05$; Figure 3B).

Comparison of intestinal flora compositions at the genus and OTU levels: The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the proportions of *Prevotella*, *Subdoligranulum*, *Lachnospira*, *Phascolarctobacterium*, *Alloprevotella*, *Megamonas*, and *Parasutterella* in the intestinal tract of patients in the non-sepsis and sepsis groups decreased significantly compared to those in the healthy control group ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, the abundance of *Enterococcus* was much higher in the intestinal tract of sepsis patients than in non-sepsis patients and healthy controls. In contrast, the abundance of *Fusobacterium*, *Anaerococcus*, and *Peptostreptococcus* was significantly higher in the intestinal tract of non-sepsis patients than in healthy controls and sepsis patients (Figure 4A).

Additionally, as per the heatmap analysis (random forest-based), 64 key OTUs were different among the three groups (Figure 4B). Among these, the relative abundance of OTUs assigned to the genera *Subdoligranulum*, *Alistipes*, *Megamonas*, *Blautia*, *Bacteroides*, *Dialister*, *Anaerostipes*, *Lachnospira*, *Roseburia*, *Pseudobutyryivibrio*, *Parasutterella*, *Prevotella*, *Coprococcus*, *Parabacteroides*, *Paraprevotella*, and *Bifidobacterium* was lower in the non-sepsis and sepsis groups than in the normal control group, whereas the abundance of OTUs assigned to the genera *Peptostreptococcus*, *Enterococcus*, *Thermoanaerobacterium*, and *Anoxybacillus* was decreased in the intestinal microbiota of the normal control group. In addition, the relative abundance of OTUs assigned to the genera *Granulicatella* and *Streptococcus* was lower in the sepsis group than in the non-sepsis group.

Dynamic changes in intestinal flora structure in sepsis patients undergoing treatment

α -diversity: The Mann-Whitney test showed that the α -diversity in the sepsis group decreased significantly within 1 wk (from days 1 to 7 after the initiation of ICU treatment) compared to that in the control group; importantly, these differences were significant ($P < 0.05$). Of note, on days 1, 3, and 7 of treatment, the α -diversity of the intestinal flora decreased gradually, but pairwise comparisons did not show

Table 4 Statistical comparison of the α -diversity indexes of the intestinal flora in the three groups of individuals

α -diversity index	<i>P</i> value		
	Control-median vs non-sepsis-median	Control-median vs sepsis-median	Non-sepsis-median vs sepsis-median
Ace	0.003	0.002	0.247
Chao	0.002	0.003	0.393
Shannon	0.023	0.035	0.795
Simpson	0.035	0.023	0.739
Observed OTUs	0.001	0.002	0.623

The Ace and Chao indexes reflect the microbial abundances in samples. Larger values indicate higher microbial abundance. The Shannon and Simpson indexes reflect the microbial diversity of samples. A larger Shannon index indicates a higher diversity, whereas a larger Simpson index indicates a lower diversity. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. OTUs: Operational taxonomic units.

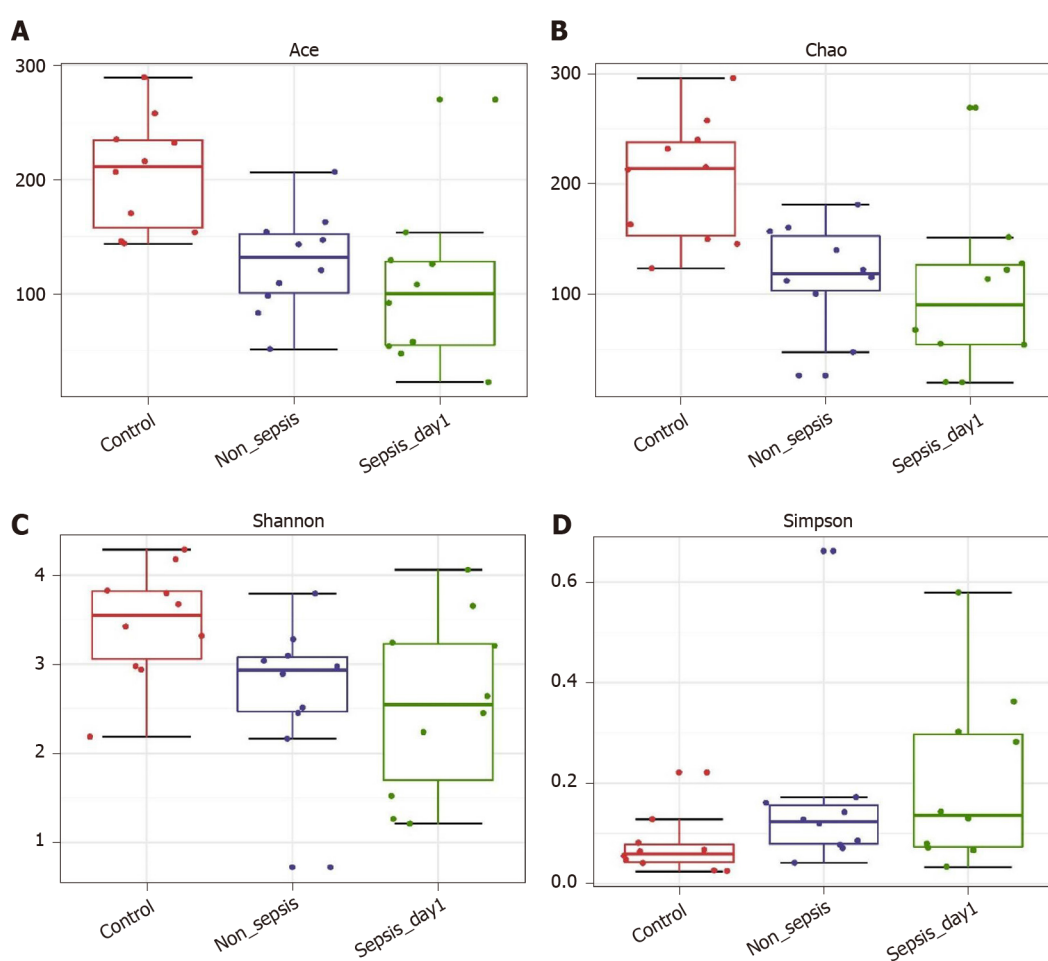


Figure 1 α -diversity indexes of fecal microbiota in normal individuals, non-sepsis patients, and sepsis patients. A: ACE estimator; B: Chao 1 estimator; C: Shannon index; D: Simpson index.

significant differences. This suggests that antibiotics killed many intestinal bacteria, and that the diversity of the intestinal flora not only did not recover but also showed a downward trend when antibiotics were continuously used (Figure 5 and Table 5).

Overall intestinal flora composition changes in sepsis patients within 1 wk after treatment: The PCoA plot based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between samples showed that the intestinal flora composition in sepsis patients within 1 wk of treatment (from days 1 to 7 after ICU admittance) was different from that in normal controls (Figure 6); Adonis analysis showed that the difference between sepsis patients

Table 5 Variation in the α -diversity indexes of the intestinal flora in patients with sepsis within 1 wk of treatment (days 1, 3, and 7 after intensive care unit admittance)

α -diversity index	P value		
	Day 1 vs day 3	Day 1 vs day 7	Day 3 vs day 7
Ace	0.066	0.121	0.347
Chao	0.205	0.384	0.595
Shannon	0.653	0.307	0.487
Simpson	0.595	0.241	0.347
Observed OTUs	0.177	0.384	0.623

OTUs: Operational taxonomic units.

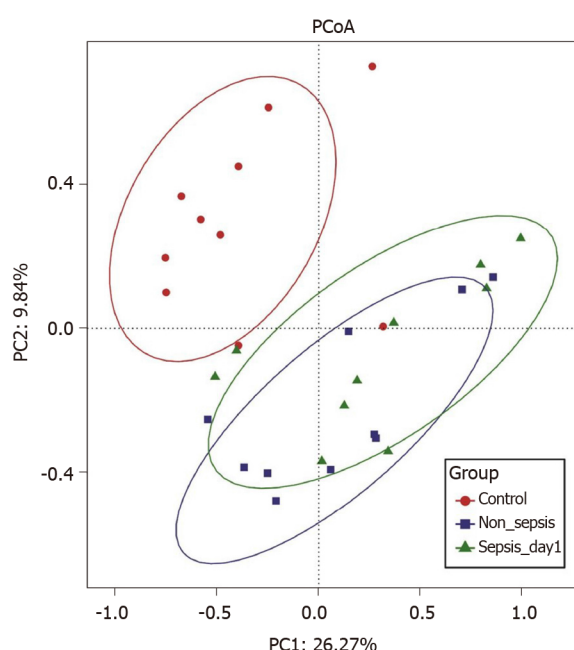


Figure 2 Principal coordinate analysis of intestinal flora among normal individuals, sepsis patients, and non-sepsis patients. Principal coordinate analysis was plotted based on the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity between samples. The ellipses highlight the clustering of the fecal microbiomes according to groups (red: Healthy control group; blue: Non-sepsis group; green: Day 1 of sepsis).

and normal controls was extremely significant ($P < 0.05$). However, the structure of the intestinal flora of sepsis patients did not differ significantly with respect to the different days after ICU admittance in the sepsis group.

Identification of differential bacterial taxa between sepsis patients 1 wk after treatment and normal individuals: To screen for the bacterial genera associated with significant differences in the intestinal flora of sepsis patients within 1 wk of admission to the ICU, we reduced the dimensions *via* the calculation of LEfSe to obtain the linear discriminant analysis scores. Compared to normal controls, in sepsis patients, some harmful bacteria such as *Coprococcus* disappeared from the intestinal flora within 1 wk of ICU treatment, indicating the efficacy of drugs against pathogenic bacteria (Figure 7). At the same time, the abundance of most of the beneficial bacteria, such as *Prevotella* and *Bifidobacterium*, also decreased, indicating that the effect of drug treatment, especially antibiotics, was not limited to harmful bacteria. However, the abundance of some bacteria, such as *Enterococcus* and *Hemophilus*, still increased despite the action of antibiotics, indicating that these bacteria were resistant to the antibiotics used.

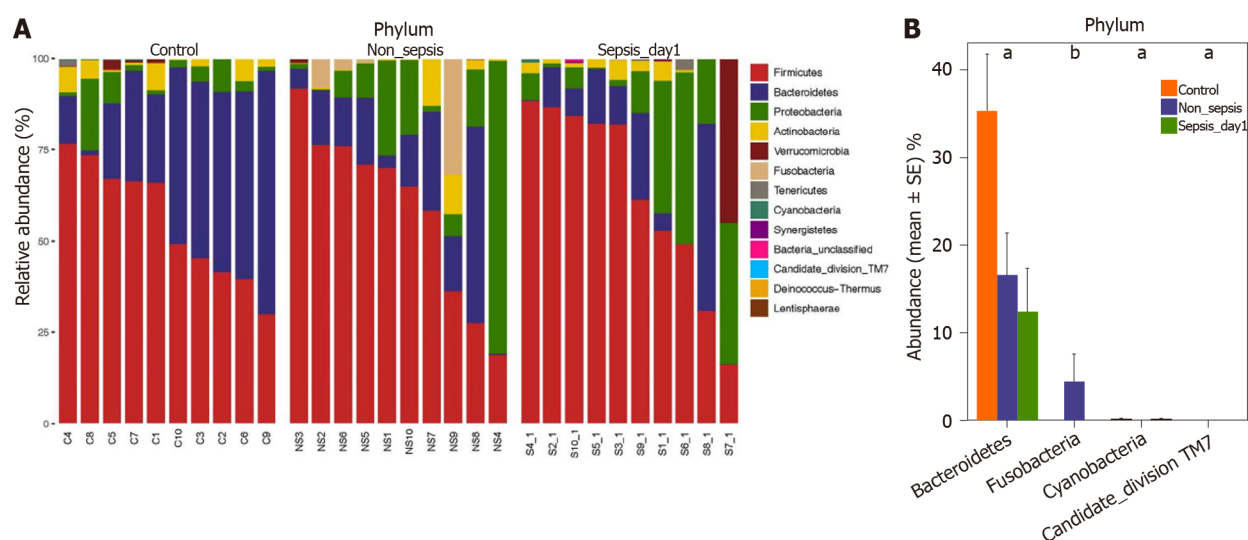


Figure 3 Composition and comparison of the fecal microbiota among normal individuals, sepsis patients, and non-sepsis patients at the phylum level. A: Composition of the fecal microbiota at the phylum level among three groups; B: Comparison of the fecal microbiota at the phylum level among three groups. The average abundance of each phylum is depicted as the mean \pm SE. *P* values were calculated using the Kruskal–Wallis rank-sum test: ^a*P* < 0.05, ^b*P* < 0.01.

Correlation analysis between clinical indicators and abundance of intestinal bacterial genera in patients with sepsis

There were ten patients in the sepsis group (S1–S10). Venous blood samples were collected on days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the ICU to determine the levels of permeability-related D-Lac, endotoxin, and DAO and infection-related PCT. In the blood of sepsis patients, the levels of D-Lac, endotoxin, DAO, and PCT were 20.96 ± 11.90 mg/L, 10.65 ± 7.92 U/L, 19.58 ± 17.61 U/L, and 7.23 ± 13.92 ng/mL, respectively.

Based on the Spearman correlation analysis, significant correlations were established between clinical indicators and abundance of intestinal bacterial genera in sepsis patients (Figure 8). The number of days of admission in the ICU negatively correlated with the abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Ruminococcus* (*P* < 0.05). The abundance of *Roseburia* and *Parasutterella* was positively correlated (*P* < 0.05), while that of *Prevotella*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Finegoldia* was negatively correlated with the levels of D-Lac (*P* < 0.05). Additionally, the abundance of *Ruminococcus*, *Roseburia*, *Sutterella*, *Peptostreptococcus*, *Escherichia-Shigella*, *Dorea*, *Bilophila*, *Coprobacter*, *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*, *Parabacteroides*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Alistipes*, and *Parasutterella*, as well as some genera belonging to Lachnospiraceae, Christensenellaceae, Ruminococcaceae, and Erysipelotrichaceae, was positively correlated with the levels of PCT (*P* < 0.05). Conversely, the abundance of *Stenotrophomonas* and *Enterococcus* was negatively correlated with the levels of PCT (*P* < 0.05). The abundance of *Peptostreptococcus*, *Roseburia*, *Collinsella*, *Dorea*, and *VadinBB60* group norank was also positively correlated with the endotoxin levels (*P* < 0.05), while that of *Dialister*, *Peptostreptococcus*, with the endotoxin lev $Peptostreptococcus$, *Dorea*, *Hemophilus*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Collinsella*, and *Blautia* was positively correlated with the levels of DAO (*P* < 0.05).

DISCUSSION

Characteristics of intestinal flora structure in sepsis patients

Sepsis is associated with high morbidity and mortality worldwide, and its timely identification and treatment are difficult. Therefore, improving the diagnosis and treatment of sepsis is essential from a global health perspective[8]. In February 2016, the SCCM and the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine jointly released the definition of sepsis in “Sepsis 3.0” as follows: “Life-threatening organ dysfunction due to a dysregulated host response to infection”[7]. This definition emphasizes the close relationship between sepsis and organ dysfunction; of note, the intestinal tract is recognized as the “engine” of organ dysfunction. The intestinal flora, as an important component of the intestinal tract, plays major physiological roles in the context of

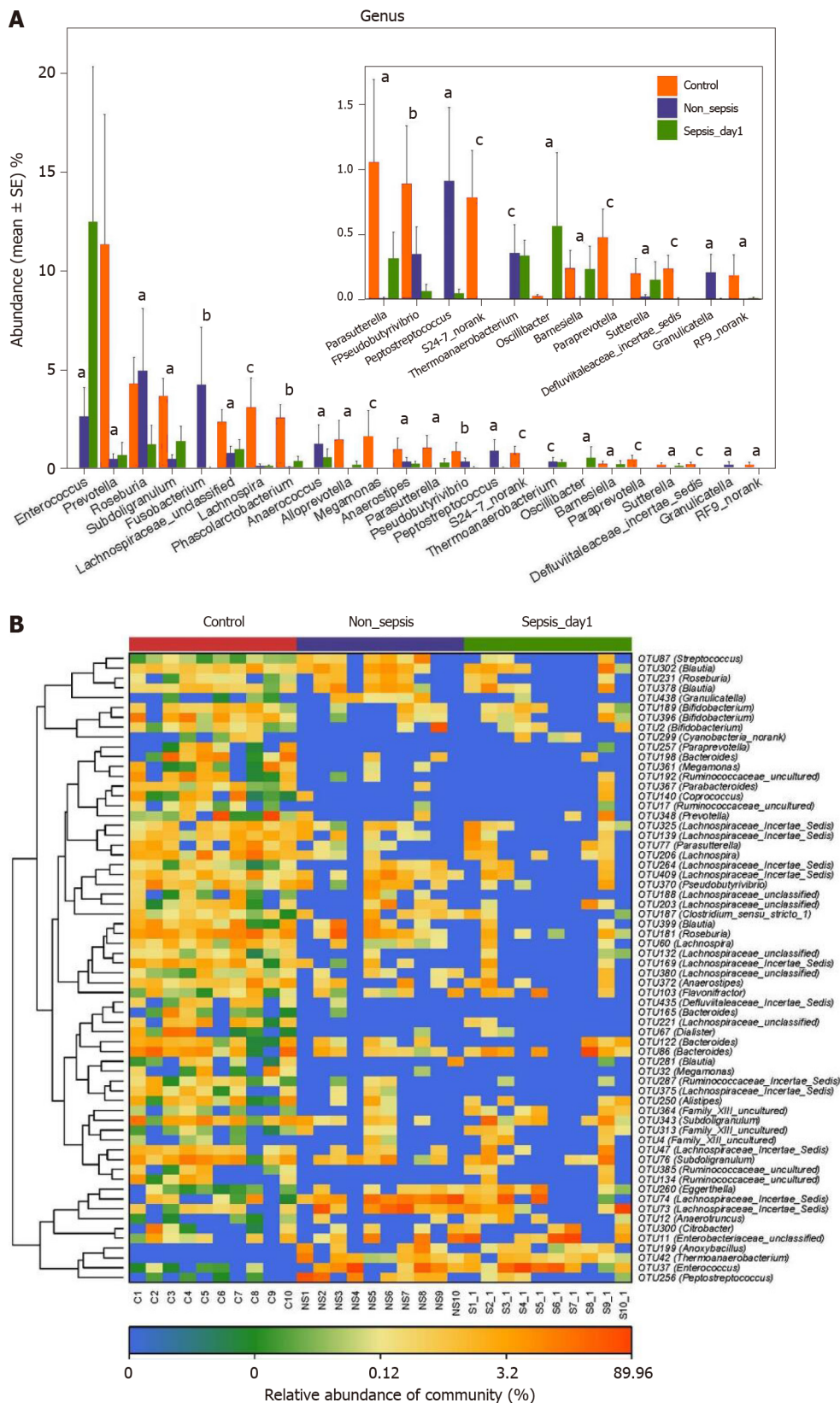


Figure 4 Key phylotypes showing significant differences among normal individuals, sepsis patients, and non-sepsis patients. A: Comparison of the fecal microbiota at the genus level among the three groups. The average abundance of each genus is depicted as the mean \pm SE. *P* values were calculated using the Kruskal–Wallis rank-sum test: ^a*P* < 0.05; ^b*P* < 0.01, ^c*P* < 0.001; B: Heatmap representing the relative abundance of differential operational taxonomic units (OTUs) among the three groups. The key OTUs whose relative abundance was above 1%, as per random forest-based models are displayed in the “figure”.

biosynthesis and metabolism; however, critical diseases lead to many changes in the diversity of the intestinal flora, causing excessive growth of pathogenic bacteria[9,10].

By comparing the intestinal flora of sepsis patients and healthy controls, we confirmed that there are marked differences in the abundance, distribution, and structure of the intestinal flora in the context of sepsis. In sepsis patients, normal bacteria decreased or disappeared, while the abundance of abnormal bacteria increased sharply. At the phylum level, the abundance of Firmicutes increased significantly, while that of Bacteroidetes decreased significantly in the intestinal flora of sepsis patients *vs* non-septic critically ill patients; of note, the number of bacteria in the phylum Fusobacterium also decreased significantly. At the genus level, in addition to the decrease in the abundance of beneficial symbiotic bacteria such as *Prevotella* and *Lachnospira*, as well as of other genera, including *Fusobacterium* and *Peptostreptococcus*, we found that the abundance of *Enterococcus* increased significantly in the intestinal flora of sepsis patients *vs* non-septic critically ill patients. Therefore, our results suggest that dysbiosis in sepsis shows three major features. First, as the abundance and diversity of the intestinal flora decrease, the structure of the intestinal flora changes, and the differences among individuals are greater[11]. Second, the abundance of dominant obligate anaerobes decreases and that of facultative anaerobes increases[11,12]. Third, the abundance of beneficial symbiotic bacteria decreases, while that of pathogenic bacteria increases, possibly becoming predominant[11,13].

The occurrence of intestinal microecological disorders in sepsis patients is not surprising. First, the physiological state of sepsis patients is completely different from that at homeostasis; specifically, intestinal hypoperfusion and reperfusion injury lead to changes in the intestinal environment and blood supply to the intestinal mucosa, resulting in intestinal mucosal inflammation and, consequently, a series of changes in the intestinal environment, such as increased nitrate concentrations[11] and altered mucosal oxygen gradient[12]. These changes are favorable to the growth of Proteobacteria, leading to the expansion of many clinically familiar pathogenic Gram-negative bacilli, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Escherichia coli*, as well as *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus*[14,15]. Second, ICU patients are exposed to various endogenous regulators (such as increased catecholamine production and changes in glucose metabolism) and clinical interventions (such as proton pump inhibitors, opioids, nutritional support, and antibiotics), which affect the living environment of the intestinal flora to varying degrees and, thus, affect the flora structure[16]. Finally, the intestinal mucosa will be damaged and thinned in critically ill patients[17,18]; such mucosal damage leads to the loss of the normal habitat of symbiotic microorganisms, subsequently leading to intestinal microecological disorders.

Dynamic changes in the structure of the intestinal flora of sepsis patients within 1 wk after treatment initiation

Our study suggests that the abundance, distribution, and diversity of the intestinal flora in sepsis patients do not change significantly within 1 wk of ICU admittance. However, in relation to the gut microbiome of healthy subjects, the numbers of most beneficial bacteria, such as *Prevotella* and *Bifidobacterium*, were below the detection limit in sepsis patients, whereas the abundance of infection-related bacteria, such as *Enterococcus* and *Hemophilus*, increased despite the action of antibiotics (with the exception of *Coprococcus*, which decreased in abundance to below the detection limit). These results indicate that patients with intestinal flora disorders associated with sepsis could not recover in a short time, and while the drugs were effective against the bacteria causing infection, they also affected bacteria in the intestines. In fact, the effects of drug treatment, especially antibiotics, on bacteria were not limited to harmful bacteria; the proportion of beneficial intestinal bacteria also decreased. Other studies have also shown that the long-term use of antibiotics changes the normally healthy intestinal flora and leads to the emergence of drug resistance; worrisome enough, the long-term use of antibiotics has the potential to generate organism reservoirs with a multi-drug resistance gene pool[19]. Ma *et al*[20] used rat models with third-degree burns on 30% of the total surface area of the back and quantified/identified the intestinal bacteria after treatment. The results showed that the number of cocci in the gastrointestinal contents of rats increased significantly, and the coccus/bacillus ratio was seriously inverted after treatment with Rocephin. It was considered that broad-spectrum antibiotics destroyed the intestinal microecological balance; of note, the conditional pathogenic intestinal flora showed potential to affect health, disease, and drug action. Our study also revealed that the abundance of *Enterococcus* increased significantly in sepsis patients, which might be related to the use of broad-spectrum antibiotics.

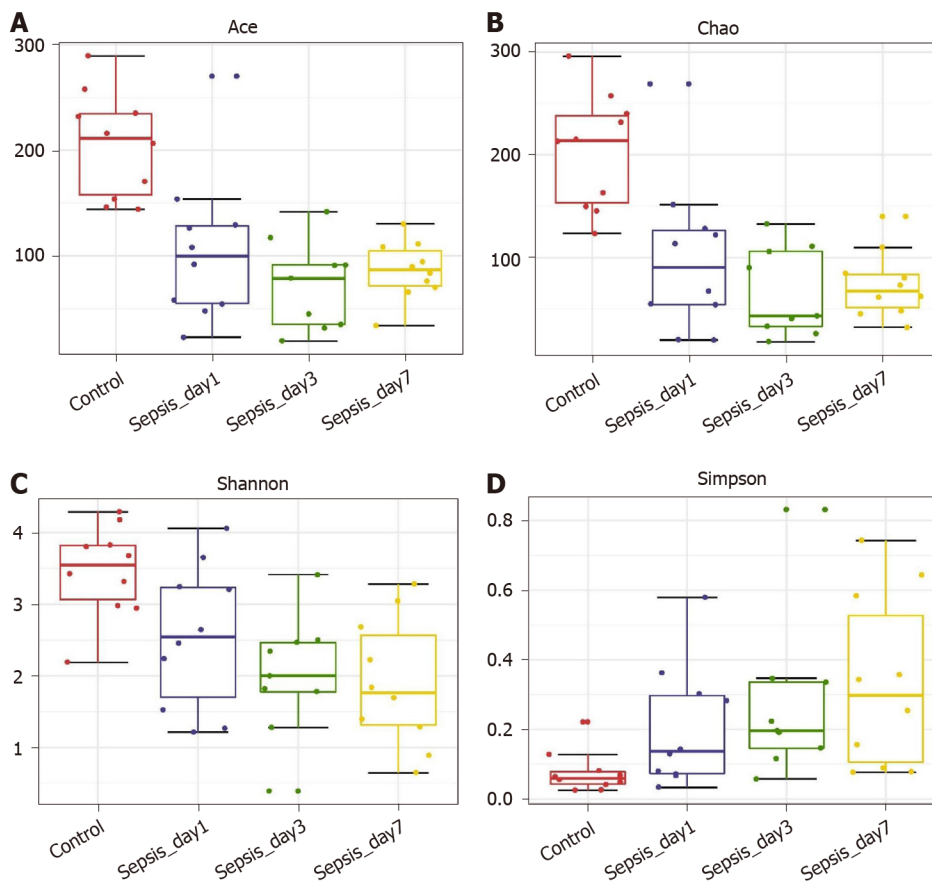


Figure 5 α -diversity indexes of the fecal microbiota in sepsis patients on days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the intensive care unit vs healthy individuals. A: ACE estimator; B: Chao 1 estimator; C: Shannon index; D: Simpson index.

Correlation between the abundance of intestinal bacterial genera and clinical indicators in patients with sepsis

Our study showed a clear correlation between the abundance of intestinal flora components and clinical indicators in sepsis. The clinical indicators used in this study were D-Lac, endotoxin, DAO, and PCT. Under normal circumstances, D-Lac is produced *via* the methylglyoxal metabolism, and its content in the blood is very small. However, when glycolysis results in increases in a large number of gastrointestinal bacteria and the intestinal barrier function is impaired, the content of D-Lac increases sharply. Endotoxins are cell wall components of Gram-negative bacteria that are released only when bacteria are lysed and die. DAO is a highly active intracellular enzyme in the upper villi of the intestinal mucosa of mammals, including humans. Its activity is closely associated with nucleic acid and protein synthesis in mucosal cells. Therefore, the above three indicators can reflect the integrity and damage degree of the intestinal mechanical barrier. Additionally, PCT reflects the active level of the systemic inflammatory response, and the factors affecting its levels include the size and type of the infected organ, the type of pathogenic bacteria, the degree of inflammation, and the state of immune responses. Our study showed that serum PCT, endotoxin, DAO, and D-Lac levels in patients with sepsis were correlated with the abundance of various intestinal bacterial genera. Of note, some of these genera were correlated with multiple clinical indicators at the same time. For example, the abundance of *Peptostreptococcus* and *Dorea* was positively correlated with the serum levels of PCT, endotoxin, and DAO; moreover, the abundance of *Roseburia* was positively correlated with the serum levels of PCT, endotoxin, and D-Lac.

Among these genera, the abundance of *Ruminococcus* had the highest positive correlation with PCT. *Ruminococcus* is an important constituent of the normal intestinal microbiota. A study published in 2017[21] using samples from young Han Chinese individuals revealed changes in the intestinal flora of the Chinese population and showed that the genera *Ruminococcus* and *Fusobacterium*, among others, were relatively highly abundant in obese Chinese individuals, whereas the abundance of *Bacteroides* was greatly reduced. Of note, two *Ruminococcus* species, *Ruminococcus torques* and

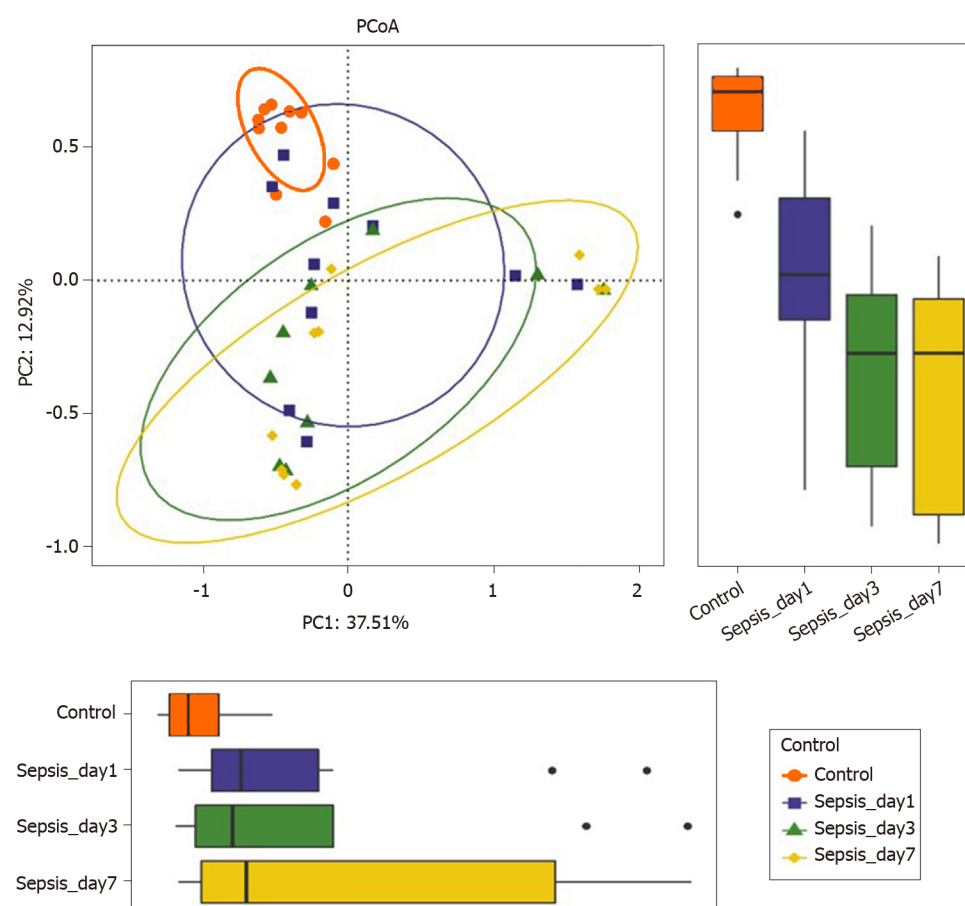


Figure 6 Principal coordinate analysis of the intestinal flora in sepsis patients on days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the intensive care unit versus healthy individuals. Principal coordinate analysis was plotted based on the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity between samples. The ellipses highlight the clustering of the fecal microbiomes according to the groups (red: Healthy control group; blue: Sepsis patients on day 1; green: Sepsis patients on day 3; yellow: Sepsis patients on day 7).

Ruminococcus gnavus, should be mentioned because they are related to inflammatory bowel disease[22] and metabolic disorder[23]. Importantly, from the significant decrease in the number and abundance of intestinal bacteria, including the decrease in abundance of the phylum Bacteroidetes, the increase in abundance of the phylum Verrucomicrobia, and the increase in abundance of the genus *Ruminococcus* in sepsis patients, we can establish a parallel with the results of the study of obese Chinese individuals. In clinical practice, it is known that obese individuals have more significant characteristics of insulin resistance and dyslipidemia, with a more significant inflammatory phenotype, which are risk factors for cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, osteoporosis, and some cancers among other diseases[24]. Interestingly, patients with sepsis also have clinical manifestations such as insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and inflammatory responses, which have adverse effects on the severity of illness and prognosis[25]. Therefore, we boldly speculate that the intestinal phenotype of obese patients makes them more susceptible to the complications of sepsis, which might be of great significance for the treatment and prevention of sepsis. Of course, the sample size in this study was small, and thus, it is necessary to conduct larger, multicenter studies to support our findings; moreover, the proposed mechanisms require further validation in animal studies for clarification.

There is a correlation between intestinal flora disorders and intestinal barrier dysfunction in sepsis patients. Our research showed that the abundance of *Roseburia* in the intestinal tract of sepsis patients was definitely related to the levels of serum markers of intestinal barrier function. *Roseburia* is one of the main bacterial genera producing butyrate in the human intestinal flora[26,27]. Butyrate is the main energy source of colonic epithelial cells. Research suggests that the abundance of bacteria producing butyrate in the intestinal tract of critically ill patients decreases or disappears, which leads to a decrease in butyrate production and the apoptosis of intestinal epithelial cells due to “starvation”[26]. Importantly, one study showed that the genus *Roseburia* can improve the intestinal ecosystem, prevent intestinal leakage,

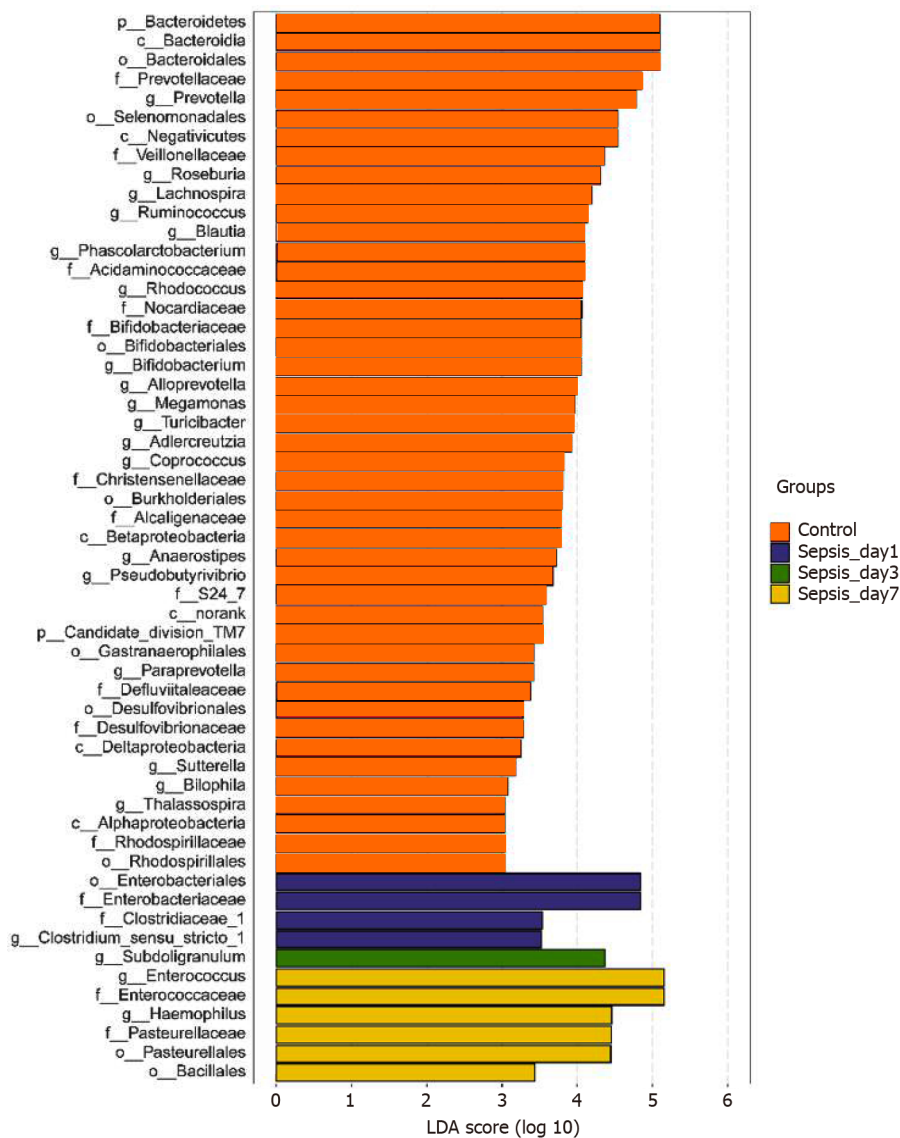


Figure 7 Linear discriminant analysis scores indicating significant differences in the fecal microbiota between the sepsis patients within 1 wk after admission to the intensive care unit and the normal control group. Red: Enriched taxa in the healthy control group; blue: Enriched taxa in sepsis patients on day 1; green: Enriched taxa in sepsis patients on day 3; yellow: Enriched taxa in sepsis patients on day 7.

and reduce the incidence of diabetes[27]. Conversely, other studies have shown that the abundance of *Roseburia* is significantly reduced in patients with Crohn's disease[28] and inflammatory bowel disease[29]. Our study showed that the abundance of intestinal *Roseburia* was positively correlated with serum PCT, endotoxin, and D-Lac levels in sepsis patients, indicating that the intestinal barrier function is more severely damaged and the systemic inflammatory response is more serious with a higher content of *Roseburia*, which seems to contradict the results of existing research. We speculate that systemic inflammatory responses in sepsis patients cause intestinal damage and that the body has a self-regulatory effect on this damage. In addition, a recently published study[30] showed that immune cells and autoantibodies of patients with antiphospholipid syndrome (an autoimmune disease) could cross-react with the mimic epitopes of *Roseburia*; in line with this, *Roseburia* could also cause autoimmune diseases in susceptible mice. Once again, these results suggest that the positive and negative effects of intestinal bacteria are not invariable.

Bacteria can perceive the changes in the host internal environment and then change their own toxic factors to become pathogenic. Under various stimuli such as sepsis, trauma, and burns, a healthy bacterial strain might be transformed into a pathogenic bacterium within a few hours[31]. For example, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was injected into the ceca of mice in a sham operation group for culture, and then, the bacteria were collected and implanted into the undamaged abdominal cavity of mice; it was found that no death occurred. However, the same strain was injected into the ceca of mice

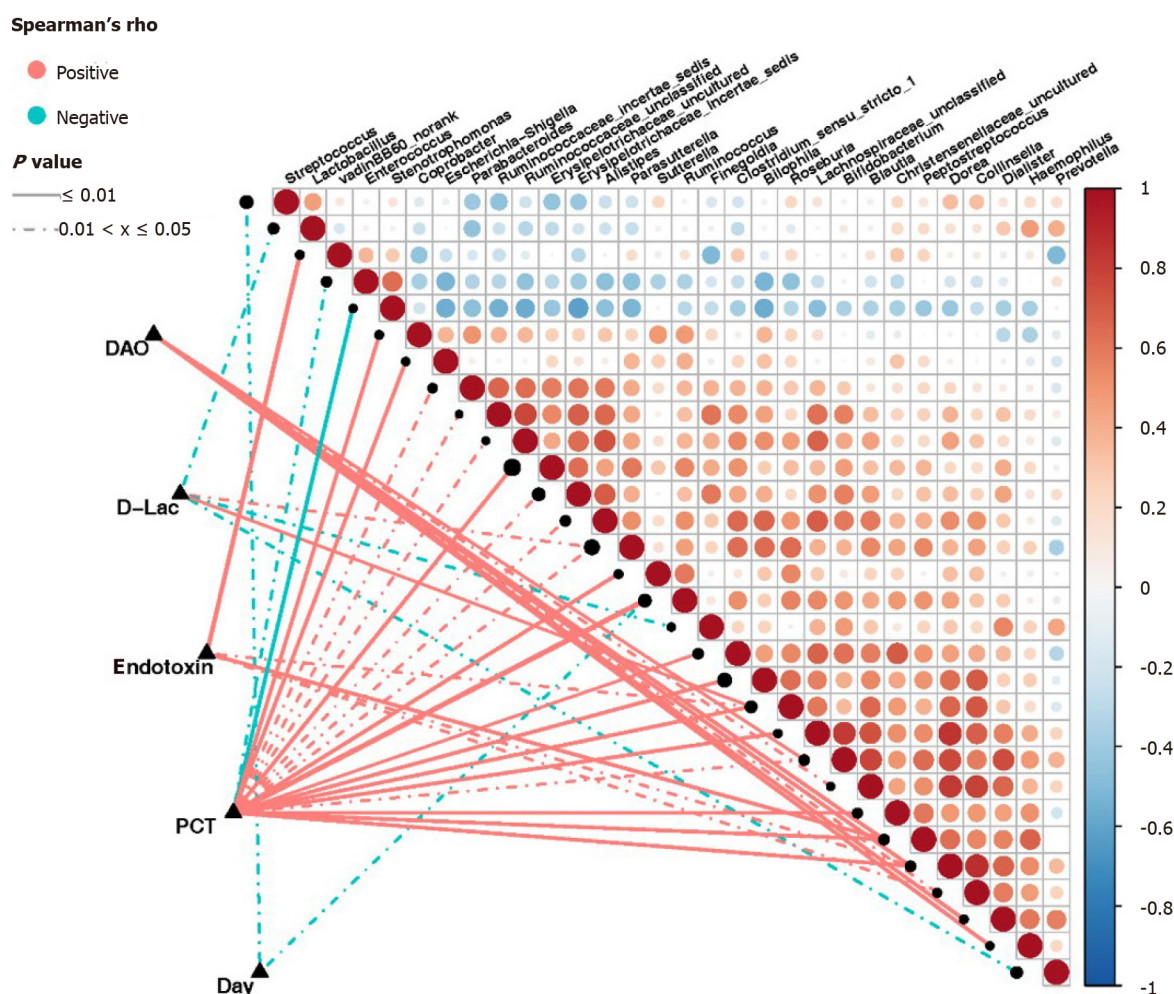


Figure 8 Correlation between clinical indicators and abundance of fecal microbiota in sepsis patients. Heatmap showing partial Spearman's correlation coefficients among 30 genera and clinical indexes. Connecting lines represent the correlation coefficient values above 0.4 (red, positive correlation) or below -0.4 (blue, negative correlation). Solid lines represent $P \leq 0.01$. Dotted lines represent $0.01 < P \leq 0.05$. The intensity of shading in the circles is proportional to the magnitude of the association. In the figure, "day" indicates the collection time of stool samples from sepsis patients after admission to the intensive care unit (ICU) (days 1, 3, and 7 after admission to the ICU). D-Lac: d-lactic acid; PCT: Procalcitonin; DAO: Diamine oxidase.

after 30% hepatectomy for culture, and then were collected and implanted into the undamaged abdominal cavities of mice, which led to their deaths[32]. Although the mechanisms underlying such transformations remain inconclusive, these results suggest that the host environment can not only change the diversity of bacterial species but also change their virulence. Therefore, the beneficial or harmful effects of a specific bacterium are not absolute; they can be influenced by many factors.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we report that sepsis patients in the ICU showed intestinal microecological disorders, lasting for at least 1 wk. Furthermore, intestinal microecological disorder was correlated with inflammation-related and intestinal barrier-related indexes in sepsis. However, this study is not without limitations. The sample size was small, and thus, it is necessary to carry out larger and multicenter studies to support these findings. Additional animal studies might be needed to clarify the related molecular mechanisms.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Sepsis is a common disease in intensive care units, with high morbidity and mortality. Intestinal microecology plays a vital part in the development and progression of this disease, possibly because sepsis and its treatment cause specific changes to the intestinal flora. However, there are few studies on the sepsis-related intestinal flora and its dynamic changes. An improved understanding of the status and degree of intestinal flora disturbances in sepsis patients is of great significance, to allow for the accurate evaluation of the disease condition and prognosis and to optimize the treatment measures.

Research motivation

Studies have shown a dose-response relationship between the degree of intestinal microecological disturbance and the incidence of subsequent severe sepsis. Critical illness leading to abnormal changes in the types, quantities, proportions, and locations of microorganisms in the intestinal flora may, thus, increase susceptibility to sepsis. Therefore, an improved understanding of the status and degree of intestinal flora disturbances in sepsis patients is of great clinical significance.

Research objectives

The main objective of this study was to investigate the characteristics of intestinal flora disturbance in sepsis patients treated with antibiotics.

Research methods

We enrolled ten patients with sepsis admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU), ten patients without sepsis admitted to the ICU in the same period, and ten healthy individuals (sepsis group, non-sepsis group, and control group, respectively). Using 16S *rRNA* gene sequencing technology, the fecal samples of the three groups were analyzed, and the intestinal flora diversity, structure, and composition were compared. The fecal samples of sepsis patients on days 1, 3, and 7 after ICU admittance were also analyzed, and the dynamics of the diversity, structure, and composition of the intestinal flora of sepsis patients were compared. Lastly, the serum levels of procalcitonin, endotoxin, diamine oxidase, and D-lactic acid were determined in sepsis patients on days 1, 3, and 7 after ICU admittance and correlated with the abundance of intestinal bacteria.

Research results

Sepsis patients showed a reduced intestinal flora α -diversity and a different flora structure, with Firmicutes as the dominant bacteria, and significantly decreased proportions of Bacteroidetes, as well as *Prevotella*, *Lachnospira*, and other genera. *Enterococcus* was significantly increased in the intestinal tract of sepsis patients. Additionally, from days 1 to 7 of treatment, the α -diversity of the intestinal flora in the sepsis group decreased gradually, although without statistical significance. Of note, some harmful bacteria such as *Coprococcus* disappeared, the abundance of beneficial bacteria such as *Prevotella* and *Bifidobacterium* decreased, while that of *Enterococcus* and other genera increased. Interestingly, the serum levels of procalcitonin, endotoxin, diamine oxidase, and D-lactic acid in sepsis patients correlated with the abundance of various intestinal bacterial genera.

Research conclusions

In this study, we report the characteristics of sepsis intestinal flora disturbance and reveal, for the first time, the dynamic characteristics of the intestinal flora in sepsis patients under antibiotic treatment. Altogether, our results suggest that sepsis patients in the ICU show intestinal microecological disorders, lasting for at least 1 wk. Importantly, we also show that the intestinal microecological disorder in sepsis patients is correlated with inflammation-related and intestinal barrier-related indexes. Of note, the sample size of this study was small, and thus, it is necessary to conduct larger and multicenter studies to support these findings.

Research perspectives

We plan to carry out animal studies to clarify the molecular mechanisms of intestinal flora disturbance in sepsis.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Observational Study

Gut microbiota dysbiosis in Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus: An observational study

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Gut microbiota dysbiosis is reportedly actively involved in autoimmune diseases such as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM). However, the alterations in the gut microbiota and their correlation with fasting blood glucose (FBG) in Chinese children with T1DM remain unclear.

AIM

To investigate alterations in the gut microbiota in Chinese children with T1DM

guardian, provided informed written consent prior to study enrollment.

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and their associations with clinical indicators.

METHODS

Samples from 51 children with T1DM and 47 age-matched and gender-matched healthy controls were obtained, to explore the structural and functional alterations in the fecal microbiota. The V3-V4 regions of the 16S rRNA gene were sequenced on a MiSeq instrument, and the association with FBG were analyzed.

RESULTS

We found that the bacterial diversity was significantly increased in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota, and changes in the microbial composition were observed at different taxonomic levels. The T1DM-reduced differential taxa, such as *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, and *Flavonifractor plautii*, were negatively correlated with FBG, while the T1DM-enriched taxa, such as *Blautia*, *Eubacterium hallii* group, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Dorea longicatena*, were positively correlated with FBG. *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, and *Anaerostipes hadrus*, either alone or in combination, could be used as noninvasive diagnostic biomarkers to discriminate children with T1DM from healthy controls. In addition, the functional changes in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota also suggest that these fecal microbes were associated with altered functions and metabolic activities, such as glycan biosynthesis and metabolism and lipid metabolism, which might play vital roles in the pathogenesis and development of T1DM.

CONCLUSION

Our present comprehensive investigation of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota provides novel insights into the pathogenesis of the disease and sheds light on the diagnosis and treatment of T1DM.

Key Words: Dysbiosis; Fasting blood glucose; Sequencing; Metabolism; Type 1 diabetes mellitus

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Core Tip: Alterations in the gut microbiota play vital roles in the development of autoimmune diseases such as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM). Our present study explores the overall structure and composition of the fecal microbiota in Chinese children with T1DM and its association with fasting blood glucose (FBG). We found that the bacterial diversity increased significantly in children with T1DM and that several key functional taxa were correlated with FBG. These key functional bacteria could be used as noninvasive diagnostic biomarkers to discriminate T1DM patients from healthy controls. This comprehensive investigation of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota provides novel insights into the pathogenesis of T1DM.

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INTRODUCTION

Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), a chronic autoimmune disease that usually begins in childhood, results from the destruction (or loss) of pancreatic β -cells, which leads to an inability to produce insulin and a need for the administration of exogenous insulin. T1DM ranks as the second most common autoimmune disease among children. The peak incidence of T1DM is clearly within the age group of 10–14 years and declines thereafter. One nationwide, population based study demonstrated that the incidence

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of T1DM in children is 1.93 (ranging from 0.83 to 3.03) per 100000 person-years in China, with an annual increase of approximately 6.5%[1]. T1DM can cause life-changing and life-threatening health complications in many organs and tissues rich in capillary vessels, such as the kidney, retina, and nerves, resulting in premature death. Children with T1DM often have to be treated for hypertension, dyslipidemia, microalbuminuria, and nephropathy, among other conditions[2]. Its early onset and chronicity make T1DM a disease of considerable importance. Currently, T1DM and its related comorbidities are considered major public health concerns.

Over the last few decades, considerable progress has been made in research on the pathogenesis and treatment of T1DM. However, its precise etiology and pathological mechanisms remain largely unclear. Both genetic susceptibility and environmental factors contribute to the development of T1DM[3]. The genetic susceptibility associated with T1DM is fairly well known, whereas the environmental factors remain poorly defined despite intensive research. Among the environmental risk factors associated with T1DM are industrial and economic advances (such as high levels of hygiene), changes in diet, and the emergence of more sedentary lifestyles[4], which can affect the environmental exposure of children. This altered environmental exposures can directly and indirectly influence the early-life gut microbiota.

Numerous clinical and experimental reports provide growing evidence of a close link between an altered gut microbiota (also defined as dysbiosis) and T1DM[5-12]. A previous study found that T1DM-related dysbiosis is associated with reduced integrity and increased permeability of the gut mucosa, which leads to bacterial penetration, and can stimulate the immune system to produce antibodies. Cross-reaction of these antibodies and surface antigens of pancreatic beta cells, as well as T cell cross-reactivity, results in the destruction of pancreatic β -cells and the development of T1DM[13]. Specifically, the Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio is significantly reduced in Finnish children with T1DM[14]. Leiva-Gea *et al*[6] demonstrated that *Bacteroides* and *Veillonella* are markedly enriched in patients with T1DM, whereas *Faecalibacterium* and *Roseburia* are significantly reduced[6]. Livanos *et al*[11] showed that early-life antibiotic treatments alter the gut microbiota and its metabolic capacities, intestinal gene expression, and T-cell populations, thereby accelerating T1DM onset in non-obese diabetic mice[11]. Taken together, these findings show that early dysbiosis of the gut microbiota can be used as a promising biomarker for T1DM.

Most of the previous studies on the T1DM-associated microbiota were conducted in the United States and Europe. However, differences in lifestyle, dietary constitution, environmental exposures, and host genetic background between Chinese and Western populations may contribute to disparities in the baseline microbiota composition, which may influence the roles of specific bacteria in the etiopathology of T1DM. The present study aimed to explore the T1DM-associated gut microbiota in Chinese children by using the 16S rRNA gene high-throughput sequencing platform. We also evaluated the correlation between the T1DM-associated gut microbiota and fasting blood glucose (FBG). Our findings suggest novel targets for noninvasive early diagnosis and personalized treatment of T1DM.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participant selection

A total of 51 children with newly confirmed T1DM (aged 6-14 years) and 47 age-, gender-, and education-matched healthy controls were enrolled from Linyi People's Hospital (Linyi, China) and the First Affiliated Hospital, School of Medicine, Zhejiang University (Hangzhou, China) from June 2019 to November 2019. The diagnosis of T1DM was based on the criteria of the American Diabetes Association: T1DM-associated autoimmunity (*i.e.*, formation of islet autoantibodies); the classic trio of symptoms associated with disease onset, *i.e.*, polydipsia, polyphagia, and polyuria along with hyperglycemia; an immediate need for exogenous insulin replacement and lifetime treatment. All the T1DM children were treated with only insulin. The FBG level of these participants was determined in the morning (Table 1). The following exclusion criteria were established: Body mass index (BMI) ≥ 30 kg/m²; use of antibiotics, probiotics, prebiotics, or synbiotics in the previous month; known active infections such as bacterial, fungal, chlamydial, or viral infections; and other diseases such as irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), inflammatory bowel disease or other autoimmune diseases. The protocols for the present study were approved by the Ethics Committee of the First Affiliated Hospital, School of Medicine, Zhejiang University. Informed written consent was obtained from the subjects' guardians before

Table 1 Fundamental information of subjects

Parameter	T1DM children (n = 51)	Healthy controls (n = 47)	P value
Age (yr)	10.38 ± 3.59	9.58 ± 4.35	0.284
Gender (male/female)	24/27	21/26	0.816
BMI (mean ± SD)	18.54 ± 4.21	18.98 ± 3.26	0.732
Age of onset (years, mean ± SD)	5.58 ± 3.45	-	-
FBG (mmol/L, mean ± SD)	11.87 ± 2.75	4.83 ± 0.41	0.000
Triglycerides (mmol/L, mean ± SD)	0.95 ± 0.38	0.88 ± 0.29	0.257
Antibiotics use, n	0	0	-
Insulin use, n	51	0	-
Other autoimmune diseases	0	0	-

T1DM: Type 1 diabetes mellitus; FBG: Fasting blood glucose; BMI: Body mass index; SD: Standard deviation.

enrollment.

Fecal sample collection and microbial DNA extraction

According to our previous studies, approximately 2 g of fresh fecal sample was collected in a sterile plastic cup, and stored at -80 °C within 15 min after preparation until use. Bacterial genomic DNA was extracted from 300 mg of homogenized feces using a QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with additional glass-bead beating steps on a Mini-Beadbeater (FastPrep; Thermo Electron Corporation, Boston, MA, United States). The amount of DNA was determined using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Electron Corporation); the integrity and size were checked by 1.0% agarose gel electrophoresis on a gel containing 0.5 mg/mL ethidium bromide. All DNA was stored at -20 °C before further analysis.

Amplicon library construction and sequencing

Amplicon libraries were constructed with the Illumina sequencing-compatible and barcode-indexed bacterial polymerase chain reaction primers 338F (5'-ACTCCTRCGG-GAGGCAGCAG-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACCVGGGTATCTAAT-3'), which targeted the V3-V4 regions of 16S rRNA gene. All PCRs were performed with KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix using the manufacturer's protocol (KAPA Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) and approximately 50 ng of extracted DNA was used per reaction. Thermocycling conditions were as follows: 30 cycles of 95 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C for 1 min, followed by a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. All PCRs were performed in triplicate in a volume of 50 µL, and the samples were combined after PCR. The amplicon library was prepared using a TruSeq™ DNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA, United States). Prior to sequencing, the PCR products were extracted with the MiniElute Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and quantified on a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Electron Corporation) and Qubit 2.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen). The purified amplicons were then pooled in equimolar concentrations and the final concentration of the library was determined by Qubit (Invitrogen). Negative DNA extraction controls (lysis buffer and kit reagents only) were amplified and sequenced as contamination controls. Sequencing was performed on a MiSeq instrument (Illumina) using a 300 × 2 V3 kit together with PhiX Control V3 (Illumina)[15,16].

Bioinformatic analysis

The 16S rRNA gene sequence data set generated from the Illumina MiSeq platform was inputted to QIIME2 (version 2020.11), and all steps of sequence processing and quality control were performed in QIIME2 with default parameters[15,16]. Before the following data analysis, these reads of each sample were normalized to even sampling depths and annotated using the Greengenes reference database (version 13.8) with both the Ribosomal Database Project Classifier and UCLUST version 1.2.22 methods implemented in QIIME. Alpha diversity, including the observed species, abundance-based coverage estimator (ACE), Chao1 estimator, Shannon, Simpson, Evenness, and

PD whole tree indices, was calculated at a 97% similarity level. Beta diversity was measured by the unweighted UniFrac, weighted UniFrac, Jaccard, and Bray-Curtis distances calculated by QIIME2, which were visualized by principal coordinate analysis (PCoA). The differences in the composition of the fecal microbiota at different taxonomic levels were analyzed with Statistical Analysis of Metagenomic Profiles (STAMP) software package v2.1.3 and by the linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) method. PiCRUST v1.0.0 was used to identify predicted gene families and associated pathways from inferred metagenomes of taxa of interest identified from the compositional analyses. The sparse compositional correlation (SparCC) algorithm was used for correlation analysis, and the results were visualized using Cytoscape v3.4.1.

Statistical analysis

For continuous variables, independent *t*-tests, White's nonparametric *t*-tests, and Mann-Whitney *U*-tests were applied. For categorical variables between groups, Pearson's chi-square test or Fisher's exact test was used, depending on assumption validity. For correlation analyses, Spearman's rank correlation test was used. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS V19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States) and STAMP V2.1.3. GraphPad Prism version 6.0 (San Diego, CA, United States) was used to prepare graphs. All tests of significance were two sided, and $P < 0.05$ or corrected $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Accession number

The sequence data from this study are deposited in the GenBank Sequence Read Archive with the accession number SRP287193.

RESULTS

Altered bacterial diversity in children with T1DM

No significant differences were noted in age, gender, race, BMI, or lipid levels between Chinese children with T1DM and healthy controls ($P > 0.05$). The FBG level was significantly higher in children with T1DM than in healthy controls (Figure 1; $P < 0.05$). A total of 3961145 high-quality reads (1857135 reads in healthy controls and 2104010 reads in children with T1DM) with an average of 40420 reads per sample were obtained for subsequent microbiota analysis. Deeper sequencing identified the majority of the bacterial phylotypes [640 operational taxonomic units (OTUs)] present in the fecal microbiota. The Good's estimator of coverage was 99.93%.

For bacterial diversity analyses, the Shannon and Simpson indices differed significantly between children with T1DM and healthy controls ($P < 0.05$; Figure 2A and B), with an increased diversity in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota. However, richness indices, such as the ACE and Chao1 indices, showed no significant changes between the two groups ($P > 0.05$; Figure 2C and D). Owing to the significant inter-individual variations, PCoA based on unweighted UniFrac, weighted UniFrac, and Bray-Curtis algorithms could not separate the two groups into different clusters (Figure 2E-G). Based on the Venn diagram in Figure 2H and Shannon rarefaction curves (Figure 2I), we observed a slightly higher number of OTUs in children with T1DM. Taken together, the results of our deeper sequencing analysis indicated increased fecal microbial diversity in children with T1DM.

Altered fecal microbiota composition in children with T1DM

The overall microbial compositions in children with T1DM and healthy controls were examined at different taxonomic levels from phylum to species. Using the RDP Classifier, sequences were annotated as follows: 11 phyla, 29 orders, 53 families, 184 genera, and 271 species. LEfSe identified many key bacterial phylotypes, mainly at the genus and species levels, that could potentially distinguish children with T1DM from healthy controls (Figure 3A and B). A representative cladogram demonstrated dysbiosis of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota among children with T1DM.

Specifically, no one phylum was observed to differ significantly between children with T1DM and healthy controls. However, the dysbiotic indicator, the Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes (F/B) ratio, was markedly increased in children with T1DM (Supplementary Figure 1), which suggested that fecal microbial dysbiosis occurred in patients with T1DM. At the order level, we found that Erysipelotrichales, Enterobacteriales, and Coriobacteriales were enriched in children with T1DM, while Selenomonadales was markedly reduced ($P < 0.05$; Figure 3C). At the family level, Lachnospiraceae,

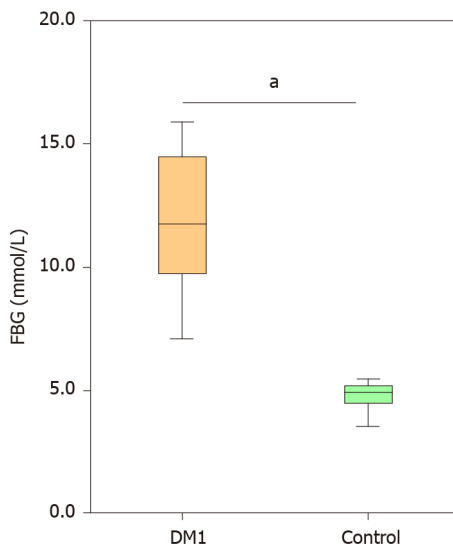


Figure 1 Comparison of the levels of fasting blood glucose between Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and healthy controls. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD. ^a $P < 0.05$, compared with control group. FBG: Fasting blood glucose; DM1: Type 1 diabetes mellitus.

Erysipelotrichaceae, Enterobacteriaceae, and Coriobacteriaceae were significantly enriched in children with T1DM ($P < 0.05$; Figure 3C).

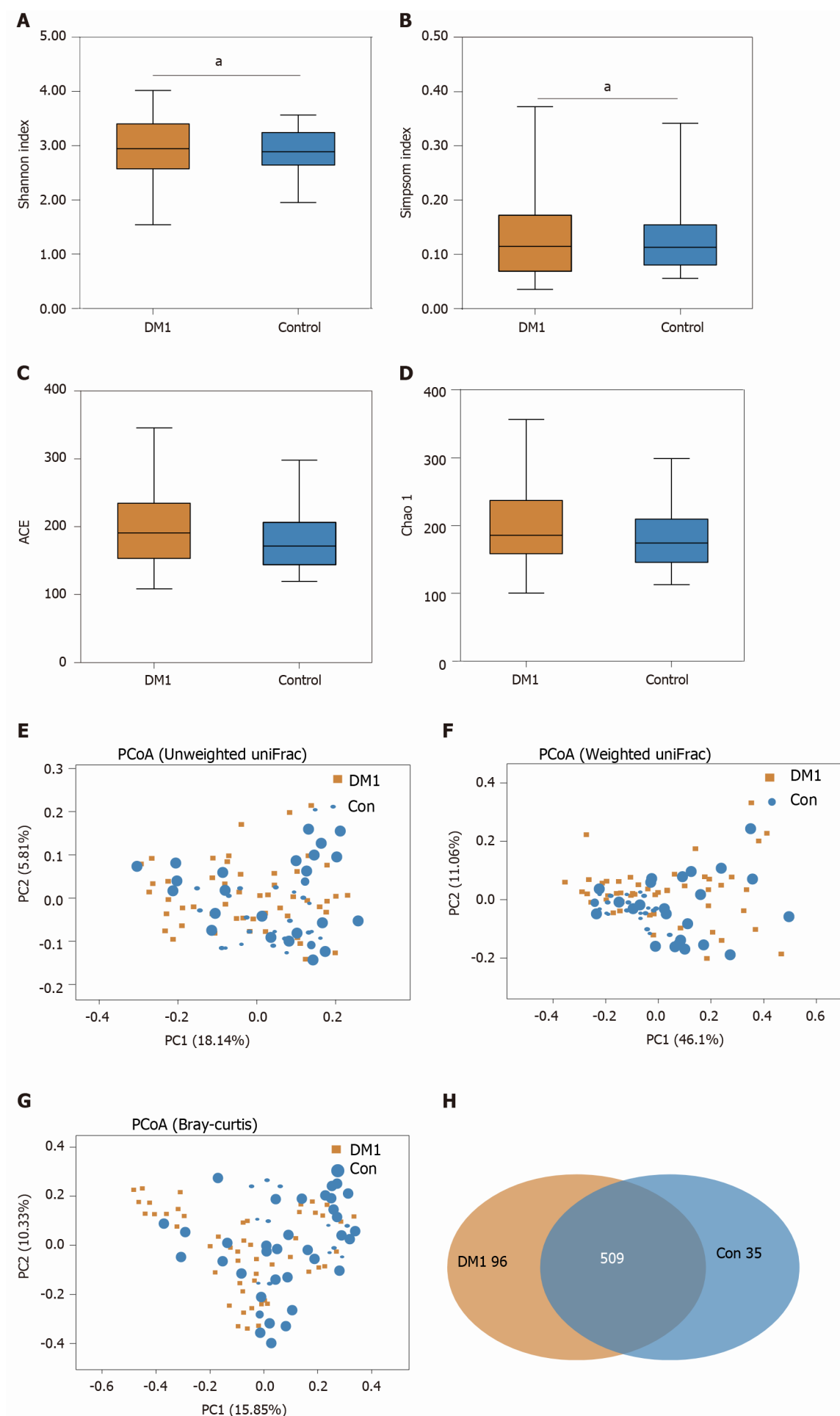
At the genus level, *Blautia*, *Anaerostipes*, unclassified Lachnospiraceae, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, unclassified Peptostreptococcaceae, *Dorea*, *Collinsella*, and *Klebsiella* were significantly enriched in children with T1DM, whereas *Parabacteroides*, *Flavonifractor*, and uncultured Ruminococcaceae were markedly reduced ($P < 0.05$; Figure 3C). At the species level, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, *Ruminococcus* sp._5_1_39BFAA, *Dorea longicatena*, and *Collinsella aerofaciens* were enriched in children with T1DM, while seven species, namely, *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, *Bacteroides dorei*, *Flavonifractor plautii*, *Parabacteroides merdae*, and *Parabacteroides distasonis* ATCC8503 were markedly reduced ($P < 0.05$; Figure 3C). Figure 4 shows a heatmap of bacterial genera in children with T1DM and healthy controls, presenting the relative percentages of most genera identified in each sample.

The overall structure of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota was the result of dynamic interactions between community members. The SparCC algorithm with false discovery rate adjustment was employed to generate correlation-based microbial interaction networks based on the relative abundance of OTUs between the two groups (Figure 5). We found a more complex network of interactions in healthy controls than in children with T1DM. More positive and negative correlations among bacteria were found in the healthy controls. Based on our present findings, dysbiosis of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota was observed in children with T1DM.

A fecal microbiota-based signature discriminates patients with T1DM from healthy controls

As mentioned above, several taxa were identified as key functional differentially abundant bacteria. These differentially abundant taxa, including *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, and *Flavonifractor plautii*, were negatively correlated with FBG, while *Blautia*, *Eubacterium hallii* group, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Dorea longicatena* were positively correlated with FBG ($P < 0.05$; Figure 6). These correlation analyses indicated that key T1DM-associated functional bacteria actively participated in the regulation of glycemic levels in children.

We evaluated the potential value of the key functional differentially abundant taxa as biomarkers, including *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, and *Anaerostipes hadrus*. First, using only one of the differential bacteria as a predictor, we generated the receiver operating characteristic curves, with the area under the curve (AUC) ranging from 0.294 to 0.690 (Figure 7A). Multivariable stepwise logistic regression analysis was then performed to evaluate the list of T1DM-associated taxa, to distinguish T1DM patients from healthy controls (Figure 7B). We found that a combination of four taxa, including *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, and *Anaerostipes hadrus*, could significantly improve the predictive performance (AUC = 0.830). Based on our present findings, these key differentially abundant taxa could be used as potential



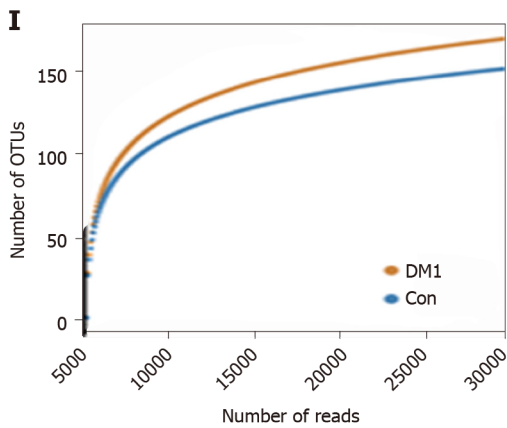


Figure 2 Altered bacterial diversity and richness of the fecal microbiota in Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus. A-D: The diversity indices, such as Shannon (A), and Simpson (B), and the richness indices, such as the abundance-based coverage estimator (C), and Chao1 (D), were used to evaluate the overall structure of the fecal microbiota in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and healthy controls. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD. Unpaired *t*-tests (two-tailed) were used to analyze variation between the two groups; E-G: Principal coordinate analysis plots of individual fecal microbiota based on unweighted (E) and weighted (F) UniFrac distance, and Bray–Curtis dissimilarity (G) in patients with T1DM and healthy controls. Each symbol represents a single sample; H: Venn diagram illustrating the overlap of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) in T1DM-associated fecal microbiota between the two groups; I: Rarefaction curves used to estimate the richness (at a 97% level of similarity) of T1DM-associated fecal microbiota between the two groups. The vertical axis shows the expected number of OTUs after sampling the number of tags or sequences shown on the horizontal axis. **P* < 0.05. OTUs: Operational taxonomic units; ACE: Abundance-based coverage estimator; PCoA: Principal coordinate analysis; Con: Control; DM1: Type 1 diabetes mellitus.

biomarkers for discriminating between T1DM patients and healthy controls.

T1DM-associated microbial functional alterations

To study the functional and metabolic changes in microbial communities between patients with T1DM and controls, we inferred the metagenomes from the 16S rRNA data and analyzed the functional potential of the fecal microbiota using PiCRUST software, based on closed-reference OTU picking. We compared 64 Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genome (KEGG) pathways at level 2, and identified five KEGG categories with significantly differential abundances between children with T1DM and healthy controls. We found that glycan biosynthesis and metabolism and lipid metabolism were significantly reduced in children with T1DM (*P* < 0.05; Figure 8), which suggests that they might play crucial roles in the development of T1DM.

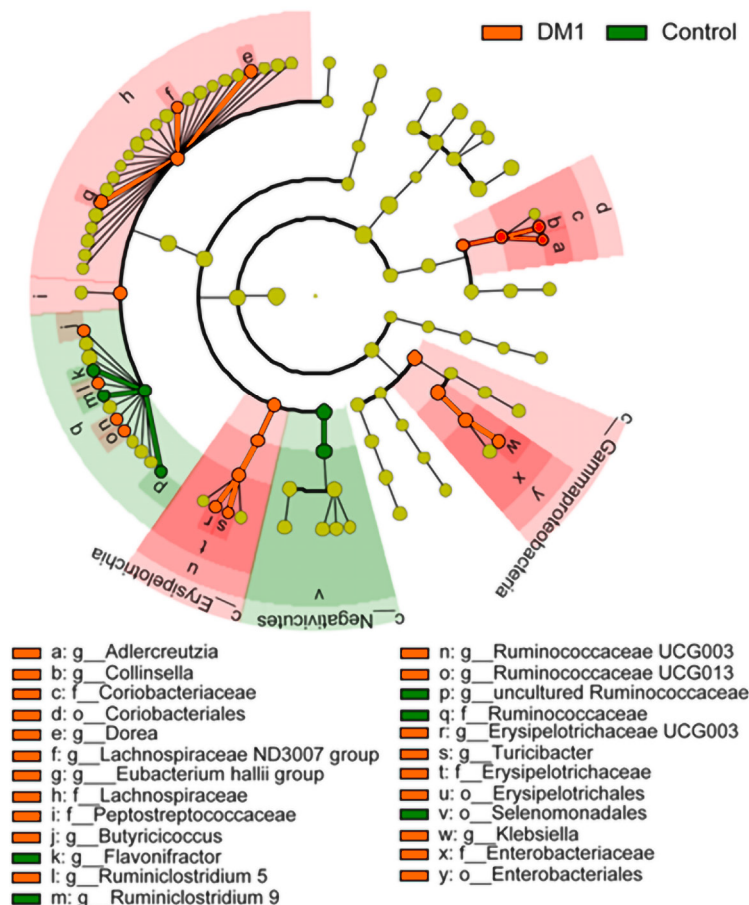
Specifically, nine pathways at level 3, including transcription factors, the phosphotransferase system, methane metabolism, and peptidoglycan biosynthesis, were significantly increased in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota. Furthermore, 18 other pathways, including glycan degradation, glycosaminoglycan degradation, and insulin signaling pathway, were markedly reduced in the T1DM-associated microbiota. Together, these functional alterations in the fecal microbiota, especially that in glycan metabolism, were likely associated with the pathogenesis and development of T1DM.

DISCUSSION

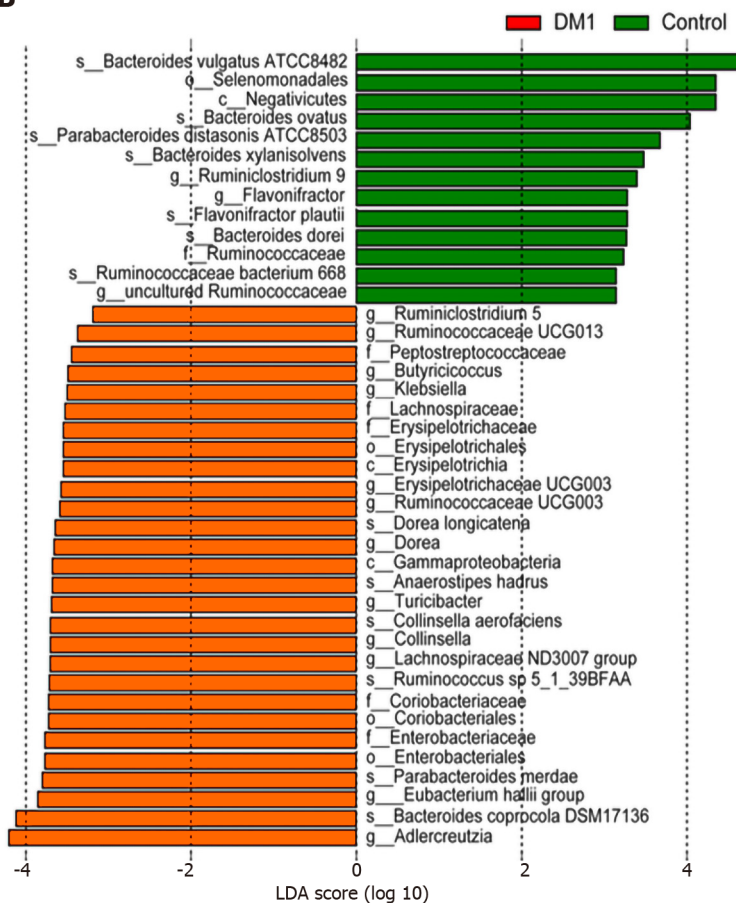
As a chronic autoimmune disease, T1DM is affected by genetic and non-genetic factors. With the advent of high-throughput sequencing technology, numerous studies have found that non-genetic factors, such as an optimal balance of the gut microbiota, play vital roles in regulating the host immune system and preventing the development of T1DM. A recent study demonstrated that a dysbiotic gut microbiota limits the effects of therapy in T1DM, while depletion of gut microbiota resistance enhances stem cell therapy in T1DM[17]. Our present T1DM-associated gut microbiota analysis excluded the influence of physiological factors such as the age, gender, and race of the enrolled participants. Most of the children with T1DM were newly diagnosed cases and were treated with only insulin. Without any additional treatment options, our present microbiota analysis could determine the actual correlations and roles of gut bacteria in the development of T1DM.

In the present study, the bacterial diversity of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota was significantly increased[6,8,10,18], which is inconsistent with the findings of previous studies. Several case-control studies have reported that the bacterial diversity

A



B



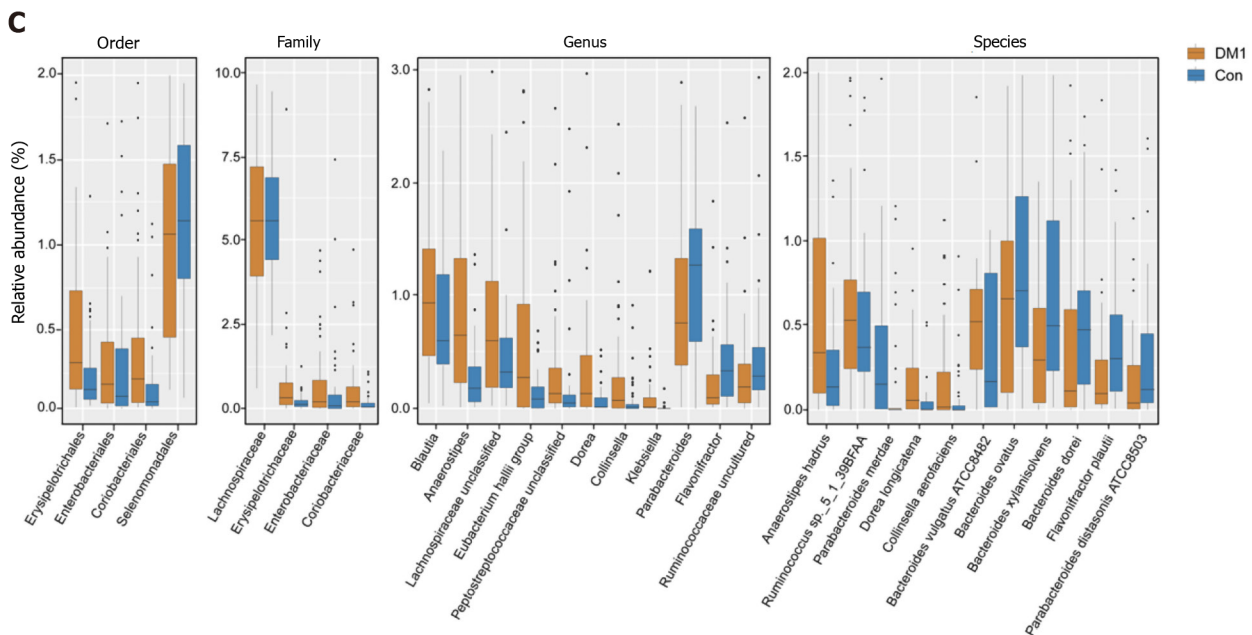


Figure 3 Differential bacterial taxa between Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and healthy controls. The linear discriminant analysis effect size identifies the taxa with the greatest differences in abundance between children with type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and healthy controls. A and B: Only the taxa meeting a significant linear discriminant analysis threshold value of > 2 are shown; C: Comparisons of the relative abundance of abundant bacterial taxa at the levels of the order, family, genus, and species. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD. Mann-Whitney *U*-tests were used to analyze variation between children with T1DM and healthy controls. Con: Control; DM1: Type 1 diabetes mellitus.

of the gut microbiota is not significantly different in children with T1DM[8,10,18]. However, Leiva-Gea *et al*[6] found that T1DM is associated with a significantly lower microbiota diversity[6]. Furthermore, de Goffau *et al*[5] indicated that the age of children may influence bacterial diversity, and older children with T1DM tend to have a higher bacterial diversity[5]. In addition, differences in geographic location could influence the gut microbiota in early childhood, which might explain the disparity in bacterial diversity among different T1DM-associated microbiota studies. As significant inter-personal variations were observed, our PCoA could not separate the children with T1DM from healthy controls in these case-control studies. This indicates that β -diversity was similar between children with T1DM and healthy controls. In contrast to microbiota shifts in other childhood diseases, such as antibiotic-associated diarrhea, our present α - and β -diversity analyses showed increased bacterial diversity in children with T1DM, which could be used as a potential target dietary intervention in T1DM.

Inconsistent with previous findings regarding bacterial diversity, our LEfSe analysis showed that several taxa could be used as biomarkers to discriminate T1DM children from healthy controls. Consistent with previous human and animal studies, Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes were the two most predominant phyla, accounting for more than 93% of the gut microbiota in children. Most of the differentially abundant taxa at the genus and species levels belonged to these two phyla. However, the dominant phyla showed no significant differences between the two groups. The composition of the gut microbiota at the phylum level varied with age, and a greater relative abundance of Bacteroidetes was observed among older individuals. Despite the absence of differentially abundant phyla, the F/B ratio was significantly higher in children with T1DM. The F/B ratio is an indicator of gut dysbiosis, which is positively correlated with BMI[19]. Alterations in the F/B ratio may be important, as this ratio can influence efficiency in the processing of indigestible complex polysaccharides in the diet[20,21]. A previous study reported that the F/B ratio showed a significant decline in adults with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)[22]. Although the change patterns are not always consistent in patients with diabetes, an altered F/B ratio demonstrates a dysbiotic gut microbiota compared with healthy controls.

Specifically, we found that several genera and species of the phyla Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes were significantly altered in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota. Interestingly, the co-network analysis indicated that interactions among altered bacterial species and abundant species play an important role in shaping the overall structure and composition of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota. We found a more

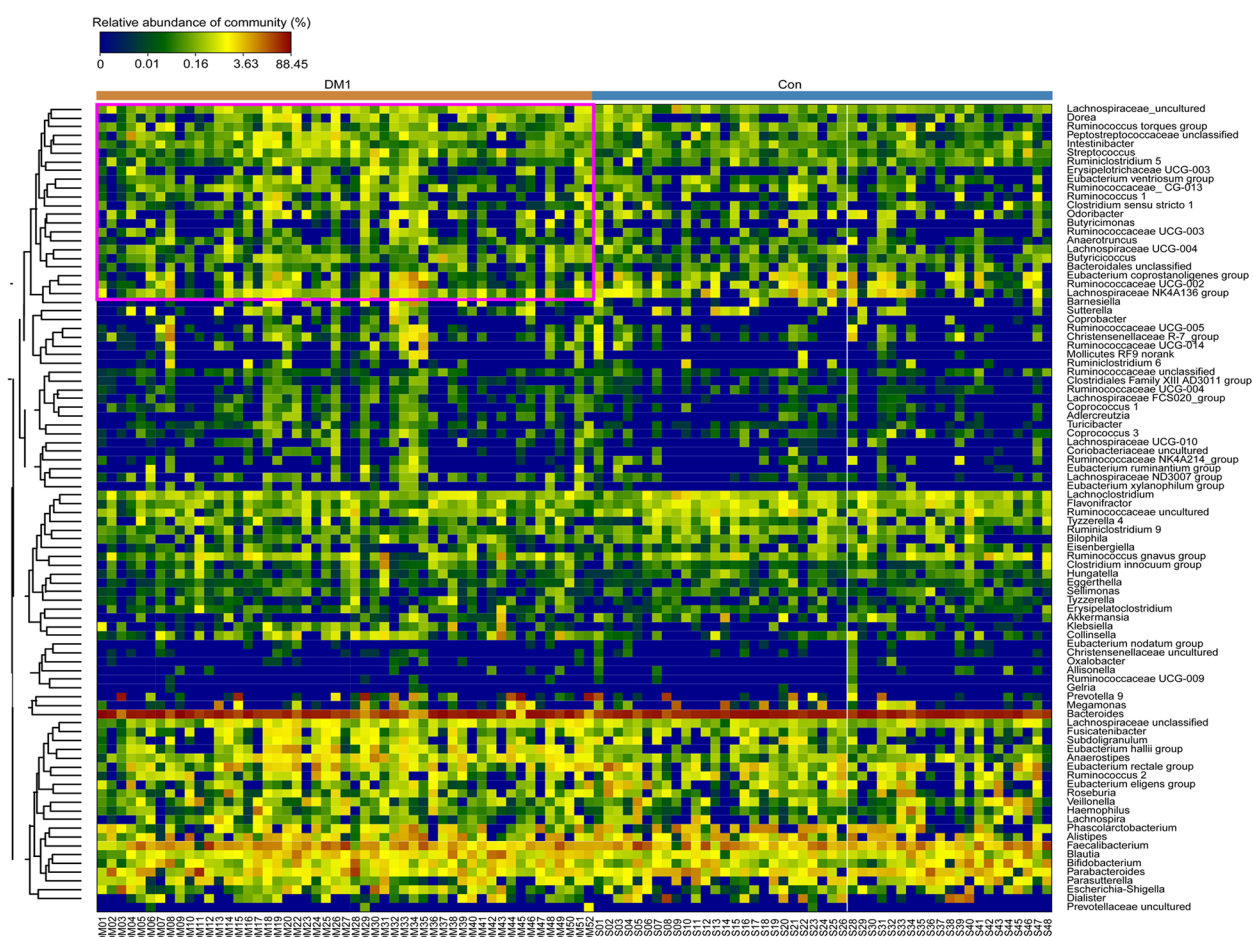


Figure 4 Heatmap of the type 1 diabetes mellitus-associated fecal microbiota at the genus level. The color of the spots in the panel represents the relative abundance (normalized and log₁₀-transformed) of the genus in each sample. Relative abundance of the bacteria in each genus is indicated by a gradient of color from blue (low abundance) to red (high abundance). Genera were organized according to Spearman's correlation analysis, based on their relative abundances. Taxonomic classifications of the genus are shown on the right.

complex network of interactions in healthy controls than in children with T1DM, with more positive and negative correlations in healthy controls. These differentially abundant bacterial species played vital roles in regulating blood glucose in children. *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, a highly abundant gram-negative obligate anaerobe, constitutes part of the core gut microbiota in healthy humans and is generally considered beneficial[23]. We found that the level of *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482 was significantly reduced in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota and negatively correlated with FBG. Leiva-Gea *et al*[6] also found that the prevalence of *Bacteroides vulgatus* was significantly reduced in patients with T2DM, which can be considered a gut microbiota signature associated with the development of T2DM. Pedersen *et al*[24] identified *Bacteroides vulgatus* as the main species driving the association between the biosynthesis of branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) and insulin resistance, suggesting that it may directly impact host metabolism[24]. Similar to our present findings, Yoshida *et al*[25] also revealed a significantly lower abundance of *Bacteroides vulgatus* in patients with coronary artery disease. Gavage with live *Bacteroides vulgatus* can attenuate atherosclerotic lesion formation in atherosclerosis-prone mice. Such action can thereby markedly ameliorate endotoxemia, directly reduce gut microbial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) production, and effectively suppress proinflammatory immune responses. These studies suggest that *Bacteroides vulgatus* plays a beneficial role in regulating blood glucose and preventing the development of T1DM.

Another dominant species of the genus *Bacteroides* in the human gut microbiota, *Bacteroides dorei*, shares similar 16S rRNA sequencing patterns with *Bacteroides vulgatus*. Leonard *et al*[26] found that cesarean section delivery is associated with a reduced abundance of the beneficial species, *Bacteroides vulgatus* and *Bacteroides dorei* [27]. Altered relative abundance of *Bacteroides dorei* can significantly influence the composition of the gut microbiota, and this species can be considered a keystone species[27]. A previous study showed that increased abundance of *Bacteroides dorei*

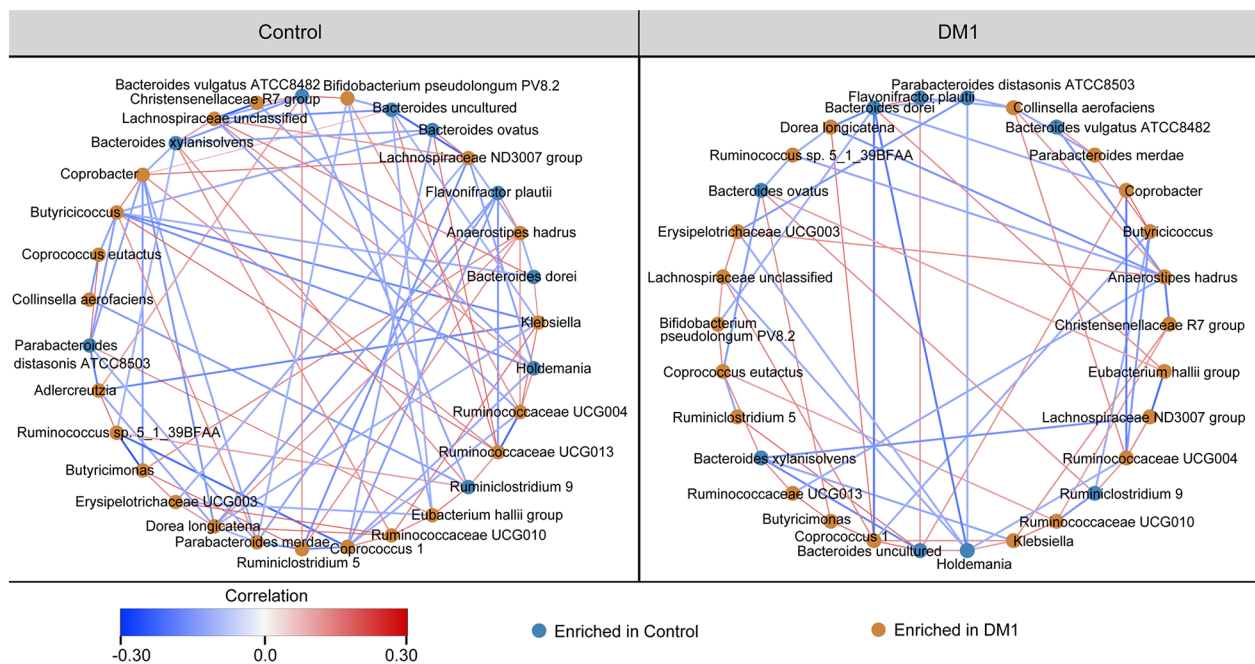


Figure 5 Correlation strengths of the abundant fecal microbiota in Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and healthy controls. Correlation network of the abundant fecal microbiota in healthy controls and children with type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) is shown. Correlation coefficients were calculated with the sparse correlation for compositional data algorithm. The Cytoscape version 3.4.0 software was used for network construction. Red and blue lines represent positive and negative correlations, respectively. The correlation network became simpler in T1DM. DM1: Type 1 diabetes mellitus.

leads to reduced gut microbial production of LPS, which improves immune function through mechanisms such as major histocompatibility complex production and T cell activation[25]. Anonye *et al*[28] also found that *Clostridium difficile* growth is significantly reduced in the presence of *Bacteroides dorei*[28]. However, a recent study on gestational diabetes identified *Bacteroides dorei* as a putative biomarker of impaired carbohydrate tolerance, and suggested that it played a role in the regulation of glucose tolerance in pregnant women[29]. However, our present correlation analysis found no significant association between *Bacteroides dorei* and FBG. Inconsistent with our present alteration patterns, previous studies have found that higher levels of *Bacteroides dorei* may contribute to the onset of T1DM, and may be potential monitoring and therapeutic microbial markers for T1DM[30]. *Bacteroides ovatus* is a common member of the human gut microbiota, with a broad capability to degrade complex glycans[31]. It makes considerable contributions to the overall differences between T1DM cases and controls. Consistent with our results, Giongo *et al*[14] found that *Bacteroides ovatus* accounted for nearly 24% of the total increase in the phylum Bacteroidetes among children with T1DM[14] and for the first time established a causal relationship between *Bacteroides ovatus* and metabolic homeostasis. Their findings demonstrated that *Bacteroides ovatus* may be a potentially beneficial intestinal bacterial species. Similar to *Bacteroides vulgatus*, *Bacteroides ovatus* can also regulate BCAA metabolism, and alleviate metabolic syndrome. A recent study performed by Yang *et al*[32] demonstrated that specific strains of *Bacteroides ovatus* are capable of inducing high levels of mucosal immunoglobulin A (IgA) production in the large intestine, which can be used to modulate the host immune response[32]. In addition, as one of the active immunomodulators, oral gavage of *Bacteroides ovatus* could significantly increase the efficacy of erlotinib and induce the expression of CXCL9 and interferon-gamma in a murine lung cancer model, which was positively correlated with treatment outcomes[33]. Another *Bacteroides* species with reduced levels in T1DM, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, is a xylan-degrading bacterium isolated from human feces. Following a safety evaluation of a *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* strain (DSM 23964), a previous study reported its potential probiotic properties[34]. Consistent with a previous study on patients with atherosclerosis[35], *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* is reportedly an important contributor to folate transformations II and glycolysis III, and it is significantly more abundant in healthy controls than in patients with T1DM. Qiao *et al*[36] also found that *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* can alleviate nonalcoholic hepatic steatosis and provided evidence of the benefits of the gut *Bacteroides*-folate-liver pathway[36]. *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* is considered a probiotic bacterium that is positively correlated with anti-

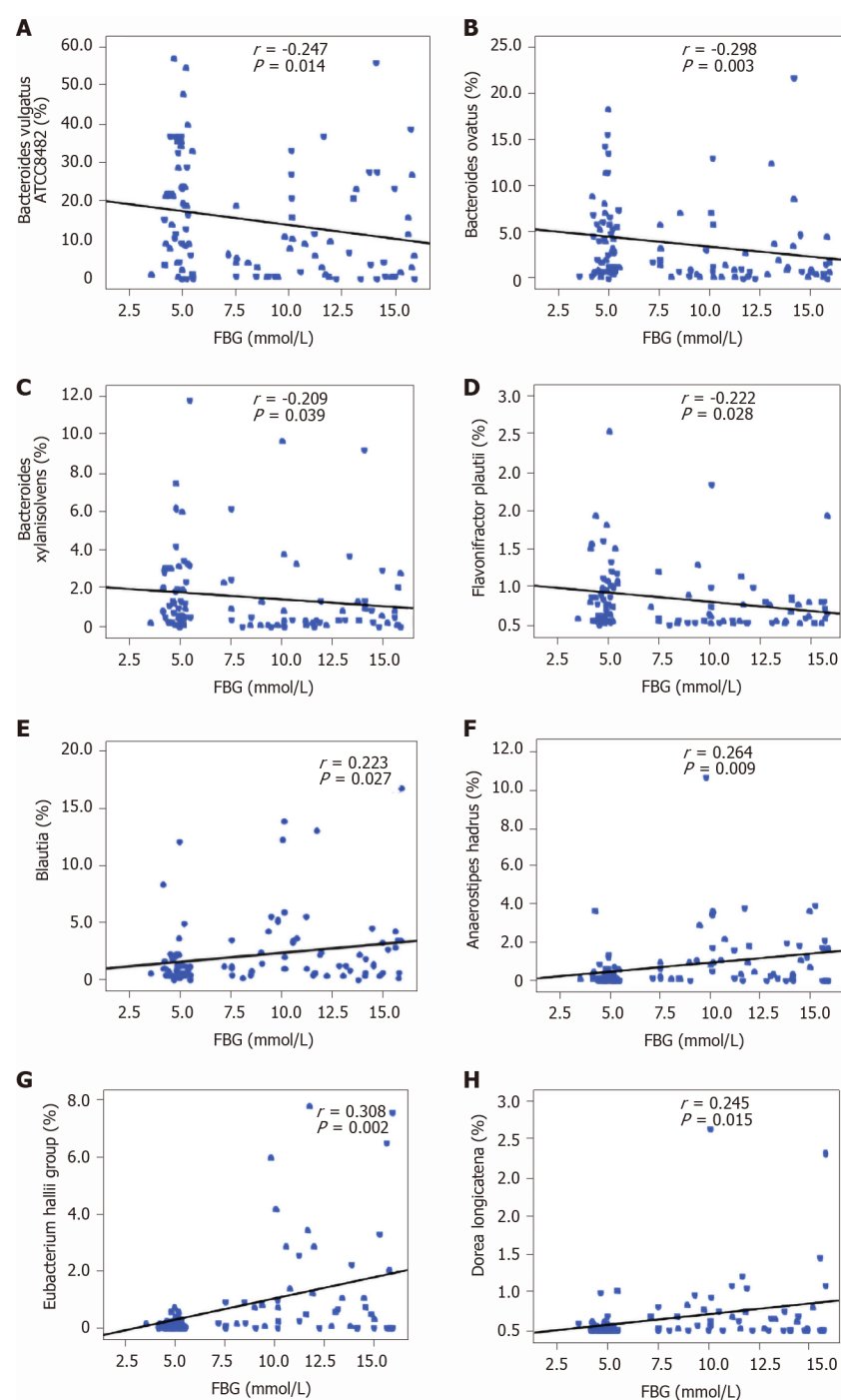


Figure 6 Correlation between key bacteria in type 1 diabetes mellitus-associated fecal microbiota and fasting blood glucose. The different taxa, including *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, and *Flavonifractor plautii*, were negatively correlated with fasting blood glucose (FBG), while *Blautia*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Dorea longicatena* were positively correlated with FBG. Spearman's rank correlation and probability were used to evaluate statistical significance. A: *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482; B: *Bacteroides ovatus*; C: *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*; D: *Flavonifractor plautii*; E: *Blautia*; F: *Anaerostipes hadrus*; G: *Eubacterium hallii*; H: *Dorea longicatena*. FBG: Fasting blood glucose.

inflammatory/tumor markers and negatively correlated with proinflammatory/tumor markers[37]. Sufficient evidence has supported and facilitated authorization of the use of heat-inactivated *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* in the European Union[38]. *Flavonifractor plautii*, a Gram-positive anaerobic bacterium, is a member of *Clostridium* cluster IV in the Ruminococcaceae family, and has been isolated worldwide from human feces. Our data showed a lower level of *Flavonifractor plautii* in children with T1DM than in healthy controls. This finding suggests that *Flavonifractor plautii* plays a beneficial role in regulating the metabolism of blood glucose. Similar to our present findings, Borgo *et al*[39] found that *Flavonifractor plautii* is negatively correlated with BMI[39]. Kasai *et al*[40] found that the fraction of *Flavonifractor plautii* is significantly lower in feces from obese subjects than in feces from non-obese[40]. Recently, Mikami *et al*[41] suggested

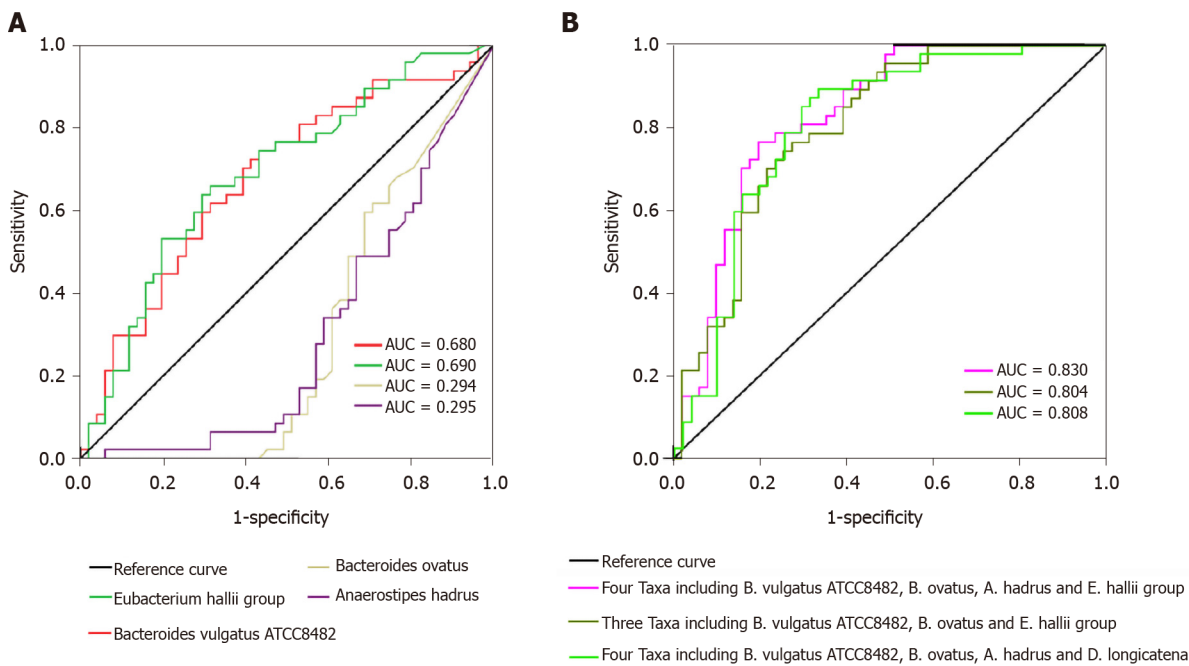


Figure 7 Receiver operating characteristic curves for different taxa, including *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and the *Eubacterium hallii* group, which were used either alone or in combination to discriminate between patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus and healthy controls. A: Alone; B: Combination. AUC: Area under the curve.

that oral administration of *Flavonifractor plautii* prevents the accumulation of tumor necrosis factor- α -encoding transcripts in the adipose tissue of obese mice, thereby suppressing adipose tissue-associated chronic inflammation[41]. In addition, their group also found that *Flavonifractor plautii* alleviates antigen-induced Th2 immune responses, and can be used as a potential anti-allergic probiotic[42]. *Flavonifractor plautii* abundance in fecal samples has now been proposed as a biomarker of health status[39]. *Parabacteroides distasonis*, a core member of the gut microbiota in humans, is also reportedly a beneficial commensal gut microorganism in different pathophysiological models due to its anti-inflammatory and barrier restorative abilities. The abundance of *Parabacteroides distasonis* is relatively low in patients affected by obesity, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), and multiple sclerosis[43–45]. A recent study indicated that *Parabacteroides distasonis* modulates host metabolism and alleviates obesity and metabolic dysfunctions *via* the production of succinate and secondary bile acids[46]. Colonization of antibiotic-treated or germ-free mice with a single *Parabacteroides distasonis* strain induced Treg differentiation[43]. The abundance of another *Parabacteroides* species, *Parabacteroides merdae*, was also reduced in children with T1DM, indicating its beneficial role during T1DM development. Wang *et al*[47] recently reported that enrichment of *Parabacteroides merdae* is positively correlated with longevity[47]. These bacteria exhibit promising potential beneficial effects on human health in a strain-dependent manner. Thus, several strains could contribute to the development of chronic diseases.

The proportional abundances of four species, namely, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, *Ruminococcus* sp. 5_1_39BFAA, *Dorea longicatena*, and *Collinsella aerofaciens*, were significantly increased in children with T1DM. *Anaerostipes hadrus*, one of the core species isolated from human feces, is able to produce large amounts of butyrate from both L-sorbose and xylitol and can consume acetate[48]. Zhang *et al*[49] found that *Anaerostipes hadrus* can significantly aggravate colitis in dextran sulfate sodium-treated mice, but exerts no detrimental effects in healthy mice[49]. Recently, Zeevi *et al*[50] observed that several genomic structural variants of *Anaerostipes hadrus* are negatively correlated with weight, waist circumference, median blood glucose levels, and BMI and positively correlated with HDL cholesterol levels[50]. The functions of *Anaerostipes hadrus* structural variants are not consistent with those of the wild type, which is strongly associated with lower metabolic risk. *Ruminococcus* sp. 5_1_39BFAA, a member of the genus *Blautia*, is positively associated with FBG. A previous study reported that *Ruminococcus* sp. 5_1_39BFAA is enriched among elderly patients with hypertension and reduced exercise capacity[51]. To date, no studies have extensively investigated the roles and mechanisms of *Ruminococcus* sp. 5_1_39BFAA. *Blautia* is associated with

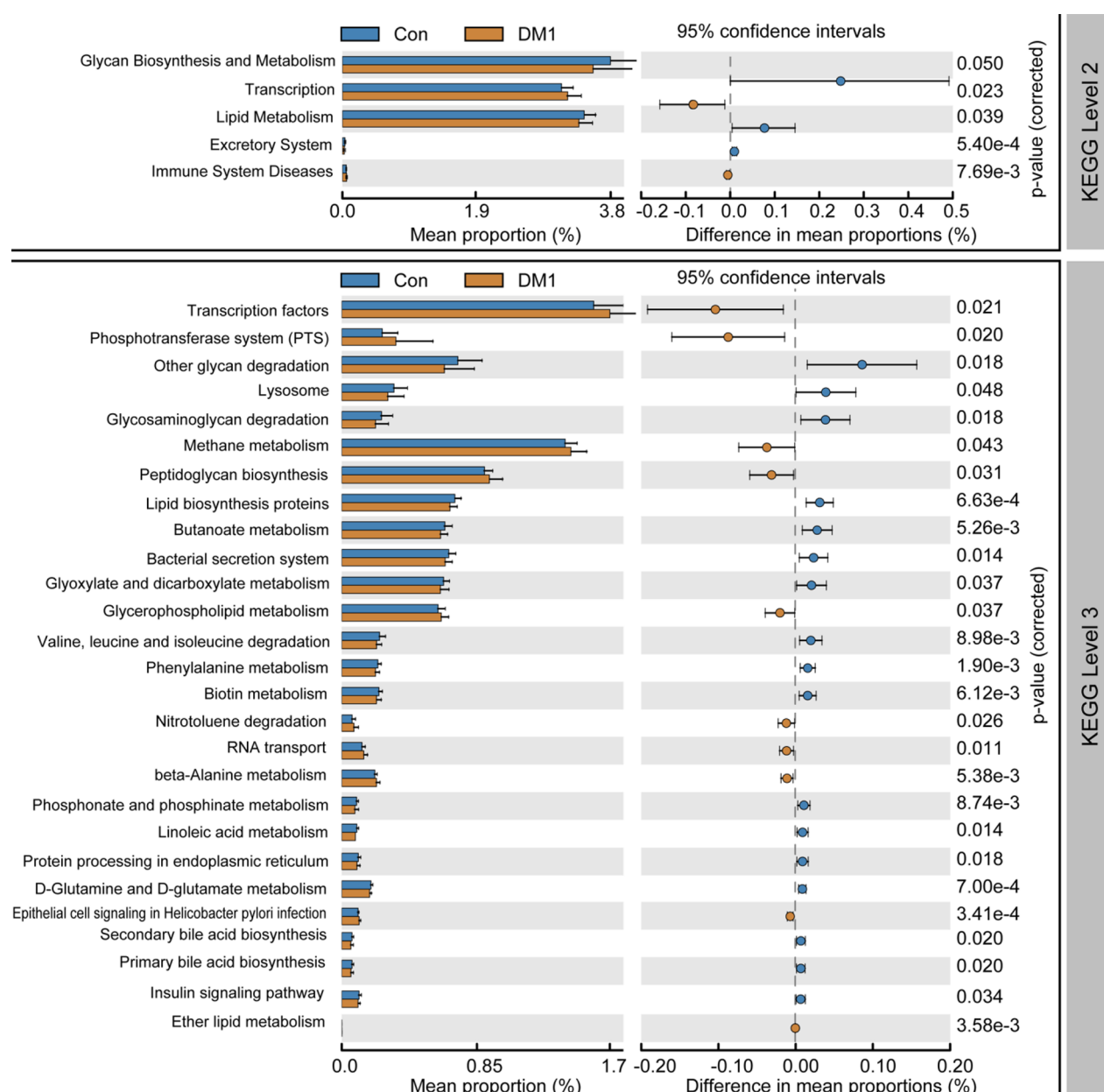


Figure 8 PiCRUST-based fecal microbiome study among Chinese children with type 1 diabetes mellitus and healthy controls. Different bacterial functions were evaluated based on the two-sided Welch's *t*-test. Comparisons between the two groups for each Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genome functional category (level 2 and level 3) are shown by percentage. The Benjamini–Hochberg method was used for multiple testing correction, based on the false discovery rate using the Statistical Analysis of Metagenomic Profiles software. KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genome; Con: Control; DM1: Type 1 diabetes mellitus.

blood glucose regulation, lipid metabolism, and regulation of T cell differentiation [6,52]. However, increased proportions of *Blautia* have been reported in various diseases, such as IBS, NAFLD, and Crohn's disease. A previous case-control study also found that the abundance of *Blautia* is increased in children with T1DM, and is positively correlated with HbA1c, the number of T1DM autoantibodies, and the titers of tyrosine phosphatase autoantibodies [52]. Consistent with the findings of Kostic *et al* [53], the present study demonstrated that *Blautia* is positively correlated with the levels of FBG in children with T1DM. *Dorea longicatena*, a new member of *Clostridium* cluster XIVa in the Lachnospiraceae family, can produce acetate as a fermentation product. Mortaş *et al* [54] found that *Dorea longicatena* is significantly more abundant in individuals working the night shift [54]. Yang *et al* [55] found that *Dorea* is a biomarker of the risk for colorectal cancer [55]. Higher abundance of the *Dorea* genus is associated with increased intestinal permeability. In contrast with our present findings, Brahe *et al* [56] reported that *Dorea longicatena* is negatively correlated with markers for insulin resistance, such as glucose and insulin, in obese female participants [56]. Nevertheless, the increased abundance of *Dorea longicatena* in T1DM could be actively

involved in regulating host metabolism. *Collinsella aerofaciens*, one of the most abundant Actinobacteria in the gastrointestinal tract of healthy humans, shows increased abundance in the feces of patients with T1DM; one of its subspecies is capable of butyrate production[57]. Increased *Collinsella* abundance has been associated with both positive and negative health conditions, but there is no consensus on its health effects. Cohort studies have identified increases in *Collinsella* abundance in the fecal microbiota of patients with T2DM, atherosclerosis, and IBS[58-60]. Turnbaugh *et al*[61] reported that the enrichment of *Collinsella aerofaciens* is linked to BMI, with an increased prominence of *Collinsella aerofaciens* in obese individuals than in lean twins and their mothers[61]. Another abundant bacterium in T1DM, the *Eubacterium hallii* group (an anaerobic, Gram-positive, catalase-negative bacterium of the Lachnospiraceae family), is a metabolically versatile species that can contribute to intestinal butyrate and propionate formation[62,63]. We observed a positive correlation between the *Eubacterium hallii* group and FBG. Consistent with the present data, Ye *et al*[64] found that the abundance of the *Eubacterium hallii* group was significantly higher in patients with gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) who failed to make lifestyle modifications for glycemic control, which is also positively correlated with FBG[64]. They also showed that the *Eubacterium hallii* group can be used to distinguish GDM patients and patients who failed glycemic control from healthy controls. As mentioned by Schwab *et al*[63], the *Eubacterium hallii* group may actively contribute to metabolic interactions[63]. However, Udayappan *et al*[65] observed that oral treatment with the *Eubacterium hallii* group can improve insulin sensitivity in db/db mice[65], which is inconsistent with the present findings. Our ROC analysis found that the bacteria mentioned above, such as *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, and *Anaerostipes hadrus*, can be used as potential biomarkers to discriminate children with T1DM from healthy controls. These bacteria in patients with T1DM might contribute to alterations in microbial functions and actively participate in the development of T1DM. Therefore, they could be used as novel targets for non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers and personalized treatment of T1DM in the future.

There are several limitations of the present study. First, our case-control study only explored the characteristics of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota, whereas alterations in the fecal microbiota after successful treatment were not investigated. Second, the fecal microbial signature and corresponding metabolites, as well as the diagnostic model associated with T1DM, still require further clinical studies with a larger sample size to validate the results. Third, the relatively weak correlations between key differential functional bacteria and FBG could not indicate an obvious primary or secondary relationship. More clinical indicators should be added into these correlation analyses in future studies. Fourth, culturomics should be used to identify T1DM-associated bacteria. Further animal experiments could help to determine the cause-effect relationship between these bacteria and the pathogenesis of T1DM.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the present study investigated the altered profiles of fecal microbiota in children with T1DM. High-throughput sequencing identified the detailed composition and diversity of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota at a much deeper level. We found that bacterial diversity was significantly increased in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota. We also observed microbial compositional changes at different taxonomic levels. The proportions of *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, *Flavonifractor plautii*, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Dorea longicatena* at the species level and *Blautia* and the *Eubacterium hallii* group at the genus level showed significant differences between children with T1DM and healthy controls, and were markedly correlated with FBG. Furthermore, *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482 and *Bacteroides ovatus*, either alone or in combination, can be used as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers to distinguish between patients with T1DM and healthy controls. In addition, functional changes in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota suggest that the alterations are associated with the functions and metabolic activities of the microbiota, which might play vital roles in the pathogenesis and development of T1DM. Thus, our comprehensive investigation of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota provides novel insights into the pathogenesis of T1DM.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Gut microbiota dysbiosis is reportedly actively involved in autoimmune diseases such as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM). However, the alterations in the gut microbiota and their correlation with fasting blood glucose (FBG) in Chinese children with T1DM remain unclear.

Research motivation

Most of the previous studies on the T1DM-associated microbiota were conducted in the United States and Europe. However, differences in lifestyle, dietary constitution, environmental exposure, and host genetic background between Chinese and Western populations may contribute to disparities in the baseline microbiota composition, which may influence the roles of specific bacteria in the etiopathology of T1DM.

Research objectives

Our present study aimed to investigate alterations in the gut microbiota in Chinese children with T1DM and their associations with clinical indicators.

Research methods

Samples from 51 children with T1DM and 47 age- and gender-matched healthy controls were obtained to explore the structural and functional alterations in the fecal microbiota. The V3-V4 regions of the 16S rRNA gene were sequenced on a MiSeq instrument and the association with FBG was analyzed.

Research results

We found that the bacterial diversity was significantly increased in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota, and changes in the microbial composition were observed at different taxonomic levels. The T1DM-reduced differentially abundant taxa, such as *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens*, and *Flavonifractor plautii*, were negatively correlated with FBG, while the T1DM-enriched taxa, such as *Blautia*, *Eubacterium hallii* group, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Dorea longicatena*, were positively correlated with FBG. *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC8482, *Bacteroides ovatus*, the *Eubacterium hallii* group, and *Anaerostipes hadrus*, either alone or in combination, could be used as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers to discriminate children with T1DM from healthy controls. In addition, the functional changes in the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota also suggest that these fecal microbes were associated with altered functions and metabolic activities, such as glycan biosynthesis and metabolism and lipid metabolism, which might play vital roles in the pathogenesis and development of T1DM.

Research conclusions

Our present comprehensive investigation of the T1DM-associated fecal microbiota provides novel insights into the pathogenesis of the disease and sheds light on the diagnosis and treatment of T1DM.

Research perspectives

Further causal-development studies based on the present results will expand the knowledge on the pathogenesis of T1DM, which will help to provide microbiota-targeted T1DM diagnosis and treatment.

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Selection of first-line systemic therapies for advanced hepatocellular carcinoma: A network meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

The majority of clinical trials of first-line systemic treatments for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) used placebo or sorafenib as comparators, and there are limited data providing a cross comparison of treatments in this setting, especially for newly-approved immune checkpoint inhibitor and vascular endothelial growth factor inhibitor combination treatments.

AIM

To systematically review and compare response rates, survival outcomes, and safety of first-line systemic therapies for advanced hepatocellular carcinoma.

METHODS

We searched PubMed, Science Direct, the Cochrane Database, Excerpta Medica Database, and abstracts from the American Society of Clinical Oncology 2020 annual congress. Eligible studies were randomized controlled trials of systemic therapy enrolling adults with advanced/unresectable HCC. Risk of bias was assessed with the Cochrane risk of bias tool for randomized controlled trials. A network meta-analysis was used to synthesize data and perform direct and indirect comparisons between treatments. *P* value, a frequentist analog to the surface under the cumulative ranking curve, was used to rank treatments.

RESULTS

In total, 1398 articles were screened and 27 included. Treatments compared were atezolizumab plus bevacizumab, brivanib, donafenib, dovitinib, FOLFOX4, lenvatinib, linifanib, nintedanib, nivolumab, sorafenib, sunitinib, vandetanib, 11 sorafenib combination therapies, and three other combination therapies. For

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overall response rate, lenvatinib ranked 1/19, followed by atezolizumab plus bevacizumab and nivolumab. For progression-free survival (PFS), atezolizumab + bevacizumab was ranked 1/15, followed by lenvatinib. With the exception of atezolizumab + bevacizumab [hazard ratios (HR)_{PFS} = 0.90; 95% confidence interval (CI): 0.64-1.25], the estimated HRs for PFS for all included treatments *vs* lenvatinib were > 1; however, the associated 95%CI passed through unity for bevacizumab plus erlotinib, linifanib, and FOLFOX4. For overall survival, atezolizumab plus bevacizumab was ranked 1/25, followed by vandetanib 100 mg/d and donafinib, with lenvatinib ranked 6/25. Atezolizumab + bevacizumab was associated with a lower risk of death *vs* lenvatinib (HR_{OS} = 0.63; 95%CI: 0.44-0.89), while the HR for overall survival for most other treatments *vs* lenvatinib had associated 95%CIs that passed through unity. Vandetanib 300 mg/d and 100 mg/d were ranked 1/13 and 2/13, respectively, for the lowest incidence of treatment terminations due to adverse events, followed by sorafenib (5/13), lenvatinib (10/13), and atezolizumab + bevacizumab (13/13).

CONCLUSION

There is not one single first-line treatment for advanced HCC associated with superior outcomes across all outcome measurements. Therefore, first-line systemic treatment should be selected based on individualized treatment goals.

Key Words: Hepatocellular carcinoma; Systemic therapy; Meta-analysis; Lenvatinib; First-line; Immune therapy

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Core Tip: The present network meta-analysis is the first to compare data from randomized trials of all first-line systemic therapies for hepatocellular carcinoma including chemotherapy, targeted drugs, immunotherapy, and combination therapies. Furthermore, the analysis represents a comprehensive cross comparison of outcomes, including tumor response rates, survival, and safety and included a sub-analysis in patients with hepatitis B virus infection. Our results showed that atezolizumab plus bevacizumab was ranked first for progression-free survival and overall survival but also had the highest rate of discontinuations due to adverse events. Lenvatinib ranked first for overall response rate and second for progression-free survival.

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INTRODUCTION

Liver cancer is the sixth most common cancer globally, accounting for 4.7% of all new cancer cases in 2018, and represents the third most common cause of cancer-related death worldwide behind lung and colorectal cancer[1]. Of the primary liver cancers, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the most prevalent histological subtype and accounts for 80%-85% of cases[2]. Surgical resection and liver transplant are associated with the best survival outcomes for patients with HCC, and are potentially curative treatments[3]. Locoregional therapies including arterially directed therapies, ablation, and radiotherapy are also associated with good survival outcomes in patients with unresectable disease confined to the liver[4]. However, over 50% of patients with HCC are diagnosed at an advanced stage or with other characteristics that preclude surgical or locoregional treatment[5]. For these patients, systemic therapy is usually the recommended treatment option[4,6].

Over the past 3 years, the number of approved first-line systemic therapies for patients with HCC has expanded greatly, and numerous drugs and drug combinations have been evaluated in this setting[7]. Between 2007 and 2018, sorafenib was the only

approved systemic treatment for HCC based on the results of the Phase III SHARP trial, which showed a survival benefit for sorafenib *vs* placebo[8]. In the decade following the approval of sorafenib, numerous unsuccessful trials of systemic therapies in advanced HCC were conducted until the approval of lenvatinib in 2018[9]. Lenvatinib was approved for first-line use in advanced HCC following the successful outcome of the Phase III REFLECT trial. In this trial, lenvatinib showed a non-inferior overall survival (OS) *vs* sorafenib for the treatment of advanced HCC[10]. Since the approval of lenvatinib, the immunotherapy drugs nivolumab and pembrolizumab, as well as other tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKI), have been approved for the second-line treatment of HCC. Most recently, combination therapy with the anti-PD-L1 agent atezolizumab plus bevacizumab demonstrated better OS and progression-free survival (PFS) than sorafenib in the Phase III IMbrave 150 trial[11].

The expansion of first-line treatment options for advanced HCC represents a significant advance in the treatment of this disease. However, further data would be useful to inform treatment selection. Most clinical trials of first-line therapies for HCC used placebo or sorafenib as comparators and there are limited data providing a cross comparison of the efficacy and safety of drugs in this setting. Furthermore, although lenvatinib is widely seen as a standard of care in real clinical practice and is a recommended first-line therapy in most international treatment guidelines[4,12,13], there are limited head-to-head data comparing lenvatinib with other systemic therapies. Finally, although historically systemic treatments for HCC were associated with low tumor response rates, recently approved therapies have been associated with response rates > 30%[14]. This has led to renewed interest in tumor response rates in HCC, and investigation of downstaging and conversion therapy strategies. A comparison of response rates for all currently available therapies would therefore be of clinical value.

This network meta-analysis was conducted to systematically review and compare the response rates, survival outcomes, and safety reported by randomized trials of first-line systemic therapies in patients with advanced unresectable HCC, and to provide a comparison between lenvatinib and other systemic therapies in this setting. Two recent meta-analyses have investigated a similar topic to the present study; however, one did not include data on atezolizumab plus bevacizumab and excluded non-targeted therapies[15], and a more recent analysis focused on treatment sequencing by investigating survival outcomes only[16]. Therefore, although there is some overlap with the present analysis, these studies are complementary to each other. In particular, the present analysis is the first to include data on donafenib, a Chinese drug that has shown a superior OS to sorafenib in a Phase III trial[17]. Furthermore, our analysis includes data on survival, response rate, and safety, which in combination are important for treatment decision-making, particularly for patients who may be candidates for downstaging. Finally, the present meta-analysis included a sub-group analysis of patients with HBV infection, which is an important population in the Asia-Pacific region and has not been covered by other current meta-analyses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The analysis methods and inclusion criteria for this study were specified in advance and the protocol was prospectively submitted for registration in the PROSPERO database on May 26, 2020. This report has been written in line with the PRISMA guidelines for network meta-analyses.

Eligibility criteria

This analysis included randomized controlled trials conducted in adult patients (age ≥ 18 years) with advanced or unresectable HCC not eligible for, or with disease progression after, surgical or locoregional therapies. Eligible studies included patients with Child-Pugh Class A or B liver function, ≥ 1 measurable lesion, and no evidence of untreated brain or meningeal metastases. Eligible studies were also required to report at least an assessment of tumor response, survival [OS, PFS, or time to progression (TTP)], and safety. The analysis excluded studies including patients with Child-Pugh Class C liver function, patients receiving anticoagulation therapy or antiretroviral therapy for HIV, and patients who had received previous systemic treatment. These broad eligibility criteria covered a number of trials reporting negative results *vs* sorafenib. Although the analysis therefore includes multiple therapies that failed clinical trials in HCC, this allowed the collection of data for sorafenib from studies conducted over a wide time range, which improved the precision of the analysis.

Information sources, search strategy, and study selection

Studies were identified by searching the following electronic databases: PubMed, Science Direct, and the Cochrane Database, and Excerpta Medica Database Abstracts from the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) 2020 annual congress were also searched. The search was completed on May 21, 2020 using the search terms shown in [Figure 1](#).

The Cochrane risk of bias tool for randomized controlled trials was used to assess the quality and risk of bias of studies included in the analysis[18].

Data extraction

Data were independently extracted by two evaluators (Luo JF and Huang XQ) and cross-checked. In the case of disagreement, the original documents were checked and the correct data confirmed. General information extracted included journal name, document title, publication time, author, country, region where the lead author was located, and the country and region where the research was conducted. Demographics and baseline characteristics extracted were patient age, gender, Barcelona clinic liver cancer classification, Eastern Co-operative Oncology Group performance status, prevalence of HBV infection, and presence of extrahepatic vascular infiltration and extrahepatic metastasis. Details of interventions extracted included dosage and dose schedule. Efficacy and safety endpoints extracted (where available) were overall response rate [ORR; assessed by response evaluation criteria in solid tumours (RECIST) v1/1.1 for all included studies], OS, PFS, TTP, incidence of Grade ≥ 3 adverse events (AE), incidence of treatment interruption due to adverse events (AEs), and incidence of dose reductions due to AEs.

Statistical analysis

For OS, PFS, TTP, and other survival endpoints, hazard ratios (HR) were estimated to compare treatments. For discrete variables such as ORR, and incidence of AEs, estimated risk ratios were calculated to compare treatments. Selection of a fixed effect or random effect model was based on the level of heterogeneity in the data, assessed using the Higgins I^2 statistic and defined as $I^2 \leq 50\%$ and $I^2 > 0.1$. If no obvious data heterogeneity was found, a fixed effect model was adopted, otherwise a random effect model was utilized. For endpoints reported in a relatively small number of studies (< 6), a fixed effects model was adopted.

A network meta-analysis was used to synthesize information from the included studies, and perform direct and indirect comparisons using a method based on the frequency school of Rücker *et al*[19,20]. The Q statistic was used to assess the consistency of direct and indirect evidence in the treatment network(s) studied. If no obvious inconsistency ($P > 0.1$) was found, a fixed effect model was adopted, otherwise a random effect model was utilized. P value, a frequentist analog to the surface under the cumulative ranking curve, was used to rank treatments[21]. A funnel chart was used to evaluate publication bias; a symmetrical graph indicates a low influence of publication bias and an asymmetric graph indicates possible publication bias. A post-hoc analysis of all studies reporting data from patients with HBV-related HCC was also included to assess OS, PFS, and safety in these patients.

All statistical analyses were performed using Rv3.6. The Robias toolkit was used for evaluation of literature quality and Netmeta was used for the network meta-analysis.

RESULTS

Studies included in the analysis

In total, 1398 articles were screened: PubMed/MEDLINE, $n = 114$; Science Direct, $n = 312$; Cochrane Database, $n = 355$; Excerpta Medica Database, $n = 561$; and the ASCO 2020 abstract book, $n = 12$ ([Figure 1](#)). After removing duplicates and top-line screening of abstracts for suitability, a total of 86 articles were reviewed in detail, of which 27 met the full inclusion criteria ([Table 1](#)). These 27 articles corresponded to 27 different studies ([Supplementary Figure 1](#)).

Study characteristics

Of the 27 studies included, 25 investigated targeted treatment regimens (nintedanib, mapatumumab + sorafenib, atezolizumab + bevacizumab, doxorubicin + sorafenib, dovitinib, tigatuzumab + sorafenib, vandetanib, brivanib, linifanib, lenvatinib, nivolumab, sunitinib, sorafenib + erlotinib, sorafenib (two studies), nintedanib,

Table 1 Details of included studies

Ref.	Year	Experimental arm(s)	Comparator arm	Primary endpoint	Analysis timing	Survival outcomes, mo
Yen <i>et al</i> [47]	2018	Nintedanib	Sorafenib	TTP	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 2.7 <i>vs</i> 3.7; OS: 10.2 <i>vs</i> 1.1
Ciuleanu <i>et al</i> [48]	2016	Mapatumumab + sorafenib	Placebo + sorafenib	TTP	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 3.2 <i>vs</i> 4.3; OS: 10.0 <i>vs</i> 10.1
Finn <i>et al</i> [11]	2020	Atezolizumab + bevacizumab	Sorafenib	OS and PFS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 6.8 <i>vs</i> 4.3; OS: NE <i>vs</i> 13.2
Abou-Alfa <i>et al</i> [49]	2010	Doxorubicin + sorafenib	Doxorubicin + placebo	TTP	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 6.0 <i>vs</i> 2.7; OS: 13.7 <i>vs</i> 6.5
Cheng <i>et al</i> [50]	2016	Dovitinib	Sorafenib	OS and TTP	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TTP: 4.1 <i>vs</i> 4.1; OS: 8.0 <i>vs</i> 8.4
Cheng <i>et al</i> [28]	2015	Tigatuzumab (6 + 2) + sorafenib; Tigatuzumab (6 + 6) + sorafenib	Sorafenib	TTP	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TTP: 3.0 <i>vs</i> 3.9 <i>vs</i> 2.8; OS: 8.2 <i>vs</i> 12.2 <i>vs</i> 8.2
Hsu <i>et al</i> [51]	2012	Vandetanib 300 mg/d; Vandetanib 100 mg/d	Placebo	Tumor stabilization rate	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 1.1 <i>vs</i> 0.7 <i>vs</i> 1.0; OS: 6.0 <i>vs</i> 5.8 <i>vs</i> 4.3
Johnson <i>et al</i> [22]	2013	Sorafenib	Brivanib	OS	PFS: No; OS: Final	PFS: 4.1 <i>vs</i> 4.2; OS: 9.9 <i>vs</i> 9.5
Cainap <i>et al</i> [24]	2015	Linifanib	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 4.2 <i>vs</i> 2.9; OS: 9.1 <i>vs</i> 9.8
Kudo <i>et al</i> [10]	2018	Lenvatinib	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: No; OS: Final	PFS: 7.4 <i>vs</i> 3.7; OS: 13.6 <i>vs</i> 12.3
Yau <i>et al</i> [23]	2019	Nivolumab	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 3.7 <i>vs</i> 3.8; OS: 16.4 <i>vs</i> 14.7
Cheng <i>et al</i> [29]	2013	Sunitinib	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 3.6 <i>vs</i> 3.0; OS: 7.9 <i>vs</i> 10.2
Zhu <i>et al</i> [26]	2015	Sorafenib + erlotinib	Sorafenib + placebo	OS	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TTP: 3.2 <i>vs</i> 4.0; OS: 9.5 <i>vs</i> 8.5
Llovet <i>et al</i> [52]	2008	Sorafenib	Placebo	OS and TTP	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TSP: 5.5 <i>vs</i> 2.8; OS: 10.7 <i>vs</i> 7.9
Cheng <i>et al</i> [25]	2009	Sorafenib	Placebo	-	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TTP: 2.8 <i>vs</i> 1.4; OS: 6.5 <i>vs</i> 4.2
Palmer <i>et al</i> [53]	2018	Nintedanib	Sorafenib	TTP	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 5.3 <i>vs</i> 3.9; OS: 11.9 <i>vs</i> 11.4
Thomas <i>et al</i> [54]	2018	Bevacizumab + erlotinib	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: No; OS: Final	PFS: 4.4 <i>vs</i> 2.8; OS: 8.6 <i>vs</i> 8.6
Abou-Alfa <i>et al</i> [55]	2019	Sorafenib + doxorubicin	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 4.0 <i>vs</i> 3.7; OS: 9.3 <i>vs</i> 9.4
Tak <i>et al</i> [27]	2018	Sorafenib	Sorafenib + resminostat	TTP	TTP: Final; OS: Final	TTP: 2.8 <i>vs</i> 2.8; OS: 14.1 <i>vs</i> 11.8
Jouve <i>et al</i> [56]	2019	Sorafenib + pravastatin	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 5.0 <i>vs</i> 5.4; OS: 10.7 <i>vs</i> 10.5
Lee <i>et al</i> [57]	2016	AEG35156 + sorafenib	Sorafenib	PFS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 4.0 <i>vs</i> 2.6; OS: 6.5 <i>vs</i> 5.4
Assenat <i>et al</i> [58]	2019	Sorafenib + GEMOX	Sorafenib	PFS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 6.2 <i>vs</i> 4.6; OS: 13.5 <i>vs</i> 14.8
Azim <i>et al</i> [59]	2018	Sorafenib + tegafur-uracil	Sorafenib	TTP	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 6.0 <i>vs</i> 6.0; OS: 8.2 <i>vs</i> 10.5
Koeberle <i>et al</i> [60]	2016	Sorafenib	Sorafenib + everolimus	PFS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 6.6 <i>vs</i> 5.7; OS: 10.0 <i>vs</i> 12
Bi <i>et al</i> [17]	2020	Donafinib	Sorafenib	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 3.7 <i>vs</i> 3.6; OS: 21.1 <i>vs</i> 10.3
Qin <i>et al</i> [61]	2013	FOLFOX4	Doxorubicin	OS	PFS: Final; OS: Final	PFS: 2.9 <i>vs</i> 1.8; OS: 6.4 <i>vs</i> 5.0

Yeo <i>et al</i> [62]	2005	Doxorubicin	PIAF	OS	PFS: No; OS: Final	OS: 6.8 vs 8.7
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FOLFOX4: Oxaliplatin/folinic acid/5-fluorouracil; GEMOX: Gemcitabine and oxaliplatin; NE, Not reported; OS, Overall survival; PFS, Progression-free survival; PIAF, Cisplatin/interferon α -2b/doxorubicin/5-fluorouracil; TTP, Time to progression.

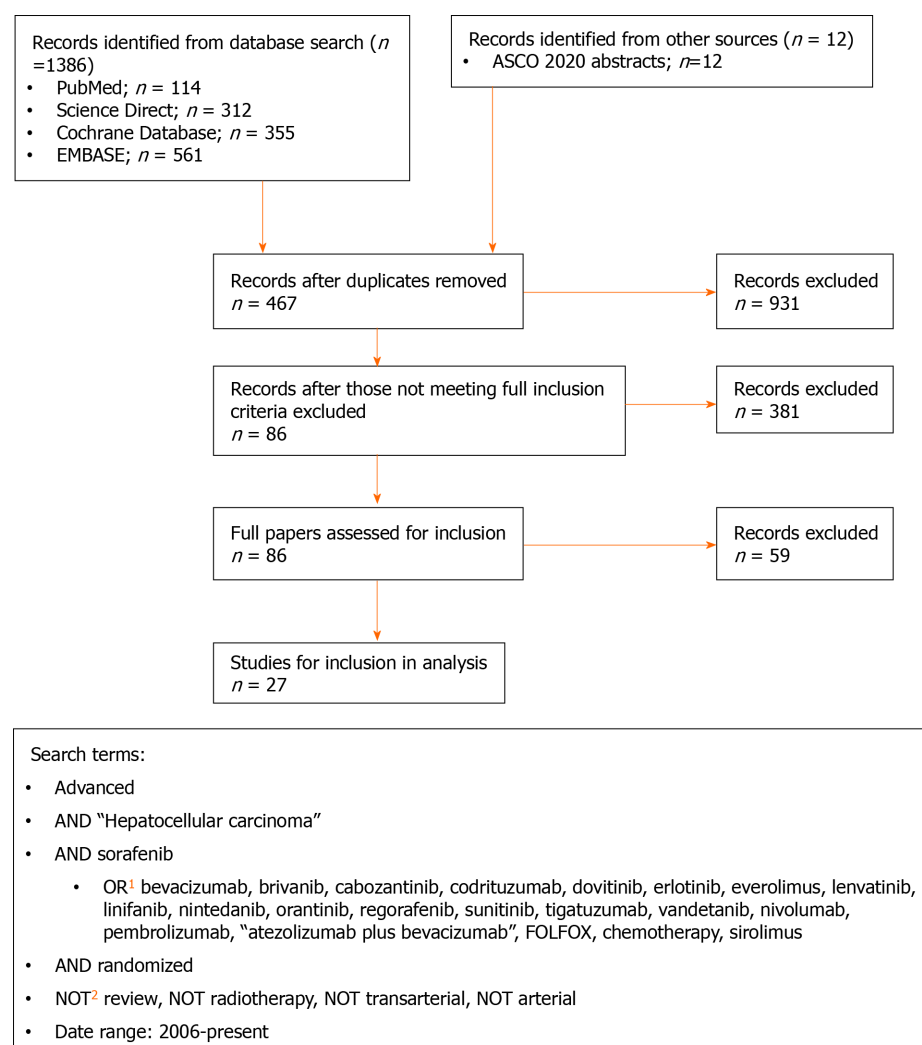


Figure 1 Flow chart of study selection and search terms. Different therapeutics were searched for using individual searches to allow easier processing of the results; NOT was used for databases allowing use of this operator. ASCO: American Society of Clinical Oncology.

bevacizumab + erlotinib, sorafenib + doxorubicin, sorafenib + resminostat, sorafenib + pravastatin, AEG35156 (a second-generation synthetic antisense oligonucleotide inhibitor of cellular expression of the X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein) + sorafenib, sorafenib + gemcitabine and cisplatin, sorafenib + tegafur-uracil, sorafenib + everolimus, and donafinib) and two investigated combination chemotherapy regimens [oxaliplatin/folinic acid/5-fluorouracil (FOLFOX4) and cisplatin/interferon α -2b/doxorubicin/5-fluorouracil] (Table 1). Twenty-one of the included studies used sorafenib as the comparator treatment, three used doxorubicin, and three studies were placebo controlled (including the two Phase III studies of sorafenib). The majority of the studies had OS ($n = 12$) or PFS/TTP ($n = 10$) as the primary endpoint, and almost all had reported final data for these endpoints.

Quality assessment

Study design characteristics are summarized in Supplementary Table 1. In brief, all 27 studies selected for inclusion were randomized controlled studies (20 provided details of the randomization scheme used and seven articles did not specify), seven of the studies used double blinding and 20 were open label, and 24 included a data flow

chart. Overall, the quality of the included studies was considered relatively high (Figure 1).

Patient description

All of the studies included patients with advanced HCC who had not received previous treatment. Overall, the total of 10256 patients included in the analysis were predominantly male and had median ages ranging from 49 to 68 years, and most of the studies included > 50% of patients with extrahepatic metastasis (Table 2).

Evaluation of efficacy

Overall response rate: A total of 18 studies reported ORR, including 19 interventions and allowing 20 comparisons (Figure 2A). No significant heterogeneity was detected between the studies ($\tau^2 = 0$; $I^2 = 0\%$; $P = 0.9502$) and a fixed effect model was selected. P value for ORR showed that lenvatinib was associated with the best ORR among all treatments included in the analysis ($P = 0.9042$) (Figure 2B). Atezolizumab + bevacizumab ranked second ($P = 0.8045$) and nivolumab ranked third ($P = 0.7834$). Using lenvatinib as the comparator, all treatments included in the analysis had an estimated risk ratio for ORR (RR_{ORR}) of < 1, except for AEG35156 + sorafenib, which had an estimated RR_{ORR} of 1.3451 [95% confidence interval (CI): 0.07-25.21] (Figure 2B).

Progression-free survival: A total of 15 studies reported PFS, including 15 interventions and allowing 15 comparisons (Figure 3A). No significant heterogeneity was detected ($\tau^2 = 0$; $I^2 = 0\%$; $P = 0.7361$) and a fixed effect model was selected. Atezolizumab + bevacizumab was ranked first for PFS ($P = 0.9501$), followed by lenvatinib ($P = 0.9041$). Nivolumab ranked sixth ($P = 0.558$) (Figure 3B). With the exception of atezolizumab + bevacizumab ($HR_{\text{PFS}} = 0.90$; 95%CI: 0.64-1.25), the estimated HRs for PFS for all included treatments *vs* lenvatinib were > 1; however, the associated 95%CI passed through unity for bevacizumab plus erlotinib, linifanib, and FOLFOX4.

Time to progression: A total of 17 studies reported TTP, including 17 interventions and allowing 19 comparisons (Figure 3C). No significant heterogeneity was detected between studies ($\tau^2 = 0$; $I^2 = 0\%$; $P = 0.9028$) and a fixed effect model was selected. Lenvatinib was ranked first for TTP ($P = 0.9888$) followed by linifanib ($P = 0.9067$) and sorafenib + doxorubicin ($P = 0.7344$) (Figure 3D). When compared with lenvatinib, all other treatments in the analysis had an estimated $HR_{\text{TTP}} > 1$, although the associated 95%CI passed through unity for linifanib and sorafenib plus tegafur-uracil.

Overall survival: A total of 24 studies reported OS, including 25 interventions and allowing 28 comparisons (Figure 3E). No significant heterogeneity was detected between studies ($\tau^2 = 0$; $I^2 = 0\%$; $P = 0.9802$) and a fixed effect model was selected. Atezolizumab + bevacizumab was ranked highest for OS ($P = 0.9651$) followed by vandetanib 100 mg/d ($P = 0.8653$), donafinib ($P = 0.7958$), and nivolumab ($P = 0.7701$) (Figure 3F). Lenvatinib ranked sixth ($P = 0.6675$). Atezolizumab + bevacizumab was associated with a lower risk of death *vs* lenvatinib ($HR_{\text{OS}} = 0.63$; 95%CI: 0.44-0.89), and the HR_{OS} for most other treatments *vs* lenvatinib had associated 95%CI that passed through unity.

Outcomes in patients with HBV infection: Ten studies included sub-analyses of patients with HBV infection, including data on the following treatments: atezolizumab + bevacizumab[11], brivanib[22], nivolumab[23], lenvatinib[10], linifanib[24], sorafenib[25], sorafenib + erlotinib[26], sorafenib + resmetinib[27], tigatuzumab + sorafenib[28], and sunitinib[29]. A total of three studies reported PFS in patients with HBV infection, including four interventions and three comparisons (Supplementary Figure 2A). A fixed effect model was selected for the analysis. Lenvatinib ranked first for PFS ($P = 0.8786$) followed by atezolizumab + bevacizumab ($P = 0.7746$) and donafinib ($P = 0.2972$) (Figure 2B). A comparison of HRs for PFS *vs* lenvatinib is shown in Supplementary Figure 2B. A total of nine studies reported OS, including ten interventions and allowing nine comparisons (Supplementary Figure 2C). A random effect model was selected for the analysis. Atezolizumab + bevacizumab ranked first ($P = 0.9751$), followed by lenvatinib ($P = 0.8308$) and nivolumab ($P = 0.7732$) (Supplementary Figure 2D). Comparison with lenvatinib revealed that atezolizumab + bevacizumab had an estimated $HR_{\text{OS}} < 1$ and all other interventions had an $HR_{\text{OS}} > 1$ (Supplementary Figure 2D).

Table 2 Patient characteristics in the included studies

Ref.	Year	Treatments	n	Age, median	Males, %	ECOG 0/1–2, %	Extrahepatic disease, %
Yen <i>et al</i> [47]	2018	Nintedanib	63	58	91	55.6/44.5	68.3
		Sorafenib	32	62	81	56.3/43.8	68.3
Ciuleanu <i>et al</i> [48]	2016	Mapatumumab + sorafenib	50	60	52	36.0/64.0	66.0
		Placebo + sorafenib	51	61	77	33.3/66.6	49.0
Finn <i>et al</i> [11]	2020	Atezolizumab + bevacizumab	336	64	82	62.0/38.0	63.0
		Sorafenib	165	66	83	62.0/38.0	56.0
Abou-Alfa <i>et al</i> [49]	2010	Doxorubicin + sorafenib	47	66	66	-	51.1
		Doxorubicin + placebo	49	65	86	-	79.6
Cheng <i>et al</i> [50]	2016	Dovitinib	82	56	89	63.0/37.0	-
		Sorafenib	83	56	81	64.0/35.0	-
Cheng <i>et al</i> [28]	2015	Tigatuzumab (6 + 2) + sorafenib	53	63	85	60.4/39.6	-
		Tigatuzumab (6 + 6) + sorafenib	54	63	83	57.4/42.6	-
		Sorafenib	55	66	80	54.5/45.5	-
Hsu <i>et al</i> [51]	2012	Vandetanib 300 mg/d	19	55	95	-	-
		Vandetanib 100 mg/d	25	61	68	-	-
		Placebo	23	56	87	-	-
Johnson <i>et al</i> [22]	2013	Sorafenib	578	60	84	61.0/39.0	62.0
		Brivanib	577	61	84	64.0/36.0	63.0
Cainap <i>et al</i> [24]	2015	Linifanib	514	59	86	62.8/37.2	59.7
		Sorafenib	521	60	84	66.2/33.8	56.8
Kudo <i>et al</i> [10]	2018	Lenvatinib	478	63	85	-	-
		Sorafenib	476	62	84	-	-
Yau <i>et al</i> [23]	2019	Nivolumab	371	65	85	-	-
		Sorafenib	372	65	85	-	-
Cheng <i>et al</i> [29]	2013	Sunitinib	530	59	82	52.5/46.8	78.9
		Sorafenib	544	59	84	52.9/46.7	76.3
Zhu <i>et al</i> [26]	2015	Sorafenib + erlotinib	362	60	82	61.3/38.7	56.6
		Sorafenib + placebo	358	61	80	60.3/39.7	61.2
Llovet <i>et al</i> [52]	2008	Sorafenib	299	65	87	54.0/46.0	53.0
		Placebo	303	66	87	54.0/46.0	50.0
Cheng <i>et al</i> [25]	2009	Sorafenib	150	51	85	25.3/74.6	68.7
		Placebo	76	52	87	27.6/72.4	68.4
Palmer <i>et al</i> [53]	2018	Nintedanib	62	66	77	51.6/48.4	64.5
		Sorafenib	31	64	84	58.1/33.0	67.7
Thomas <i>et al</i> [54]	2018	Bevacizumab + erlotinib	47	61	NR	32.0/68.0	40.0
		Sorafenib	43	61	NR	40.0/60.0	25.0
Abou-Alfa <i>et al</i> [55]	2019	Sorafenib + doxorubicin	180	62	85	36.1/63.9	-
		Sorafenib	176	62	87	39.8/60.2	-

Tak <i>et al</i> [27]	2018	Sorafenib	84	62	87	-	56.0
		Sorafenib + resminostat	86	65	80	-	51.8
Jouve <i>et al</i> [56]	2019	Sorafenib + pravastatin	162	68	96	-	29.0
		Sorafenib	161	68	88	-	30.4
Lee <i>et al</i> [57]	2016	AEG35156 + sorafenib	31	61	87	3.2/96.8	-
		Sorafenib	17	54	88	11.8/88.3	-
Assenat <i>et al</i> [58]	2019	Sorafenib + GEMOX	39	62	86	-	77.0
		Sorafenib	44	65	92	-	61.0
Azim <i>et al</i> [59]	2018	Sorafenib + tegafur-uracil	36	59	86	69.4/30.6	52.8
		Sorafenib	38	59	90	65.8/34.2	47.4
Koeberle <i>et al</i> [60]	2016	Sorafenib	46	65	87	72.0/28.0	57.0
		Sorafenib + everolimus	59	66	81	59.0/41.0	54.0
Bi <i>et al</i> [17]	2020	Donafinib	328	53	86	61.3/38.7	-
		Sorafenib	331	53	88	66.8/33.2	-
Qin <i>et al</i> [61]	2013	FOLFOX4	184	50	90	-	-
		Doxorubicin	187	49	87	-	-
Yeo <i>et al</i> [62]	2005	Doxorubicin	94	54	90	87.2/12.8	-
		PIAF	94	49	93	92.6/7.4	-

ECOG: Eastern Co-operative Oncology Group; FOLFOX4: Oxaliplatin/folinic acid/5-fluorouracil; GEMOX: Gemcitabine and oxaliplatin; NR: Not reported; PIAF: Cisplatin/interferon α -2b/doxorubicin/5-fluorouracil.

Safety

Grade ≥ 3 adverse events: In total, 17 studies reported data on the incidence of Grade ≥ 3 AEs, including 19 interventions and allowing 21 comparisons (Supplementary Figure 3A). No significant heterogeneity was detected between studies (tau-squared = 0; $I^2 = 0\%$; $P = 0.4493$) and a fixed effect model was selected. Nivolumab ranked 2/19 ($P = 0.9351$), sorafenib ranked 8/19 ($P = 0.5040$), atezolizumab + bevacizumab ranked 11/19 ($P = 0.4167$), and lenvatinib ranked 16/19 ($P = 0.2468$) for incidence of Grade ≥ 3 AEs (higher ranking indicated a lower incidence of AEs) (Supplementary Figure 3B).

Treatment termination due to adverse events: A total of 13 studies reported the incidence of treatment termination due to AEs, including 13 interventions and allowing 15 comparisons (Supplementary Figure 3C). A degree of heterogeneity was detected between studies (tau-squared = 0.1536; $I^2 = 65\%$; $P = 0.0573$) and a random effect model was selected. After ranking all interventions from the lowest to highest incidence of terminations due to AEs, vandetanib 300 mg/d and 100 mg/d were ranked first and second ($P = 0.8036$ and 0.7252 , respectively), sorafenib ranked 5/13 ($P = 0.5372$), nintedanib ranked 8/13 ($P = 0.4251$), lenvatinib ranked 10/13 ($P = 0.3907$), and atezolizumab + bevacizumab ranked 13/13 ($P = 0.2584$) (Supplementary Figure 3D).

DISCUSSION

Following an expansion of first-line systemic treatment options for HCC over the past decade, international treatment guidelines now recommend sorafenib, lenvatinib, and atezolizumab plus bevacizumab in this setting, as well as nivolumab and FOLFOX (off-label use in many countries, but approved by the China National Medical Products Administration) for selected patients[4,12,13]. Numerous other therapies and combinations of therapies have also been unsuccessfully investigated in first-line advanced HCC management. However, most trials of systemic therapy for HCC used sorafenib as the comparator, as it was the only approved systemic therapy available at the time, and this limits the clinicians' ability to compare currently available treatment options. The present study represents one of the most comprehensive systematic

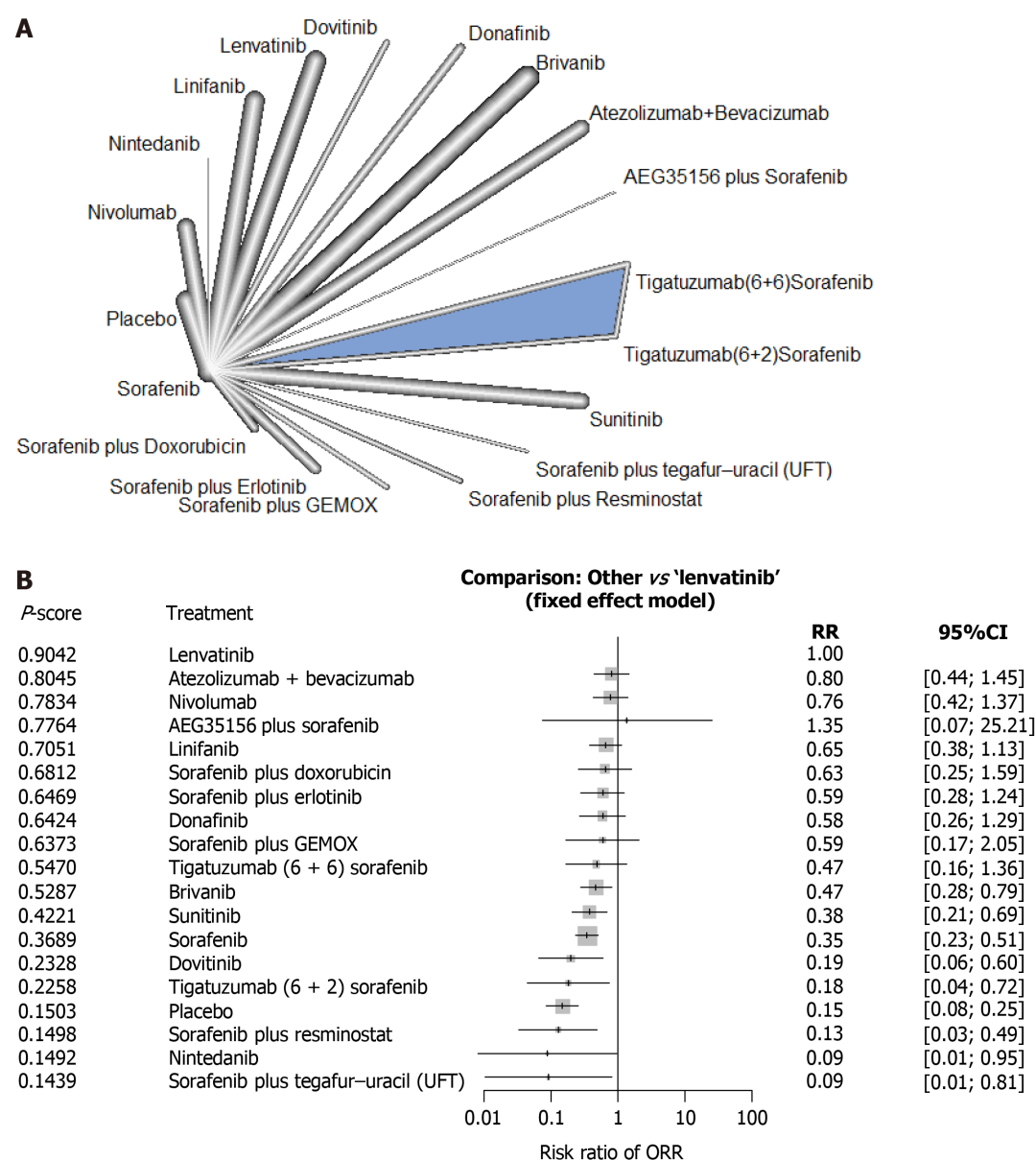
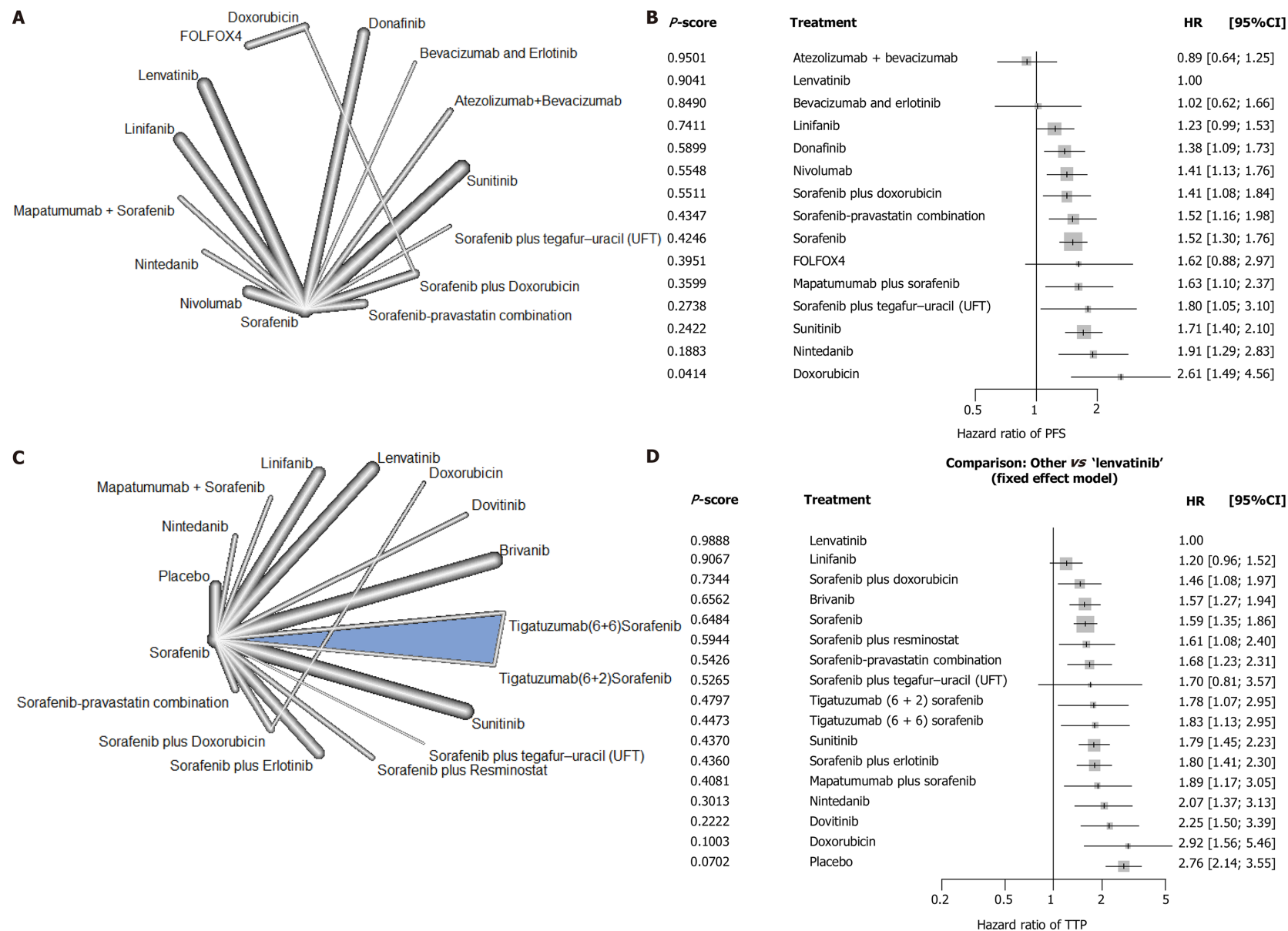


Figure 2 Response rates of first-line systemic therapy in patients with advanced hepatocellular carcinoma. A: Network diagram; B: Interventions ranked by *P* value with risk ratios and 95% confidence interval for overall response rate for each treatment vs lenvatinib. CI: Confidence interval; GEMOX: Gemcitabine and oxaliplatin; ORR: Overall response rate; RR: Risk ratio.

reviews and meta-analyses of first-line systemic treatments for advanced unresectable HCC conducted to date, and compares the treatment outcomes and safety of lenvatinib with multiple other systemic therapies, including immunotherapy (nivolumab) and combined therapy with immunotherapy and a TKI (atezolizumab + bevacizumab).

Our results show that atezolizumab plus bevacizumab is associated with the best OS outcomes of all therapies included in the analysis. This result is supported by findings from a recent meta-analysis that investigated optimal treatment sequencing for HCC and also reported that atezolizumab plus bevacizumab had a higher OS benefit *vs* lenvatinib ($HR_{OS} = 0.63$; 95%CI: 0.44-0.89), nivolumab ($HR_{OS} = 0.68$; 95%CI: 0.48-0.98), and sorafenib ($HR_{OS} = 0.58$; 95%CI: 0.42-0.80)[16]. Atezolizumab plus bevacizumab is the first combined immunotherapy and vascular-targeted regimen to be recommended as a first-line treatment option in the National Comprehensive Cancer Network HCC guidelines[4]. The long OS associated with atezolizumab plus bevacizumab may be related to the 'long tail' effect characteristic of immune checkpoint inhibitors, which was also observed in the Phase III Checkmate 459 study of nivolumab. A number of studies have identified several mechanisms by which angiogenesis-related processes can enhance immune checkpoint inhibitors therapy, including vascular normalization, reduction of hypoxia, and increasing tumor infiltr-



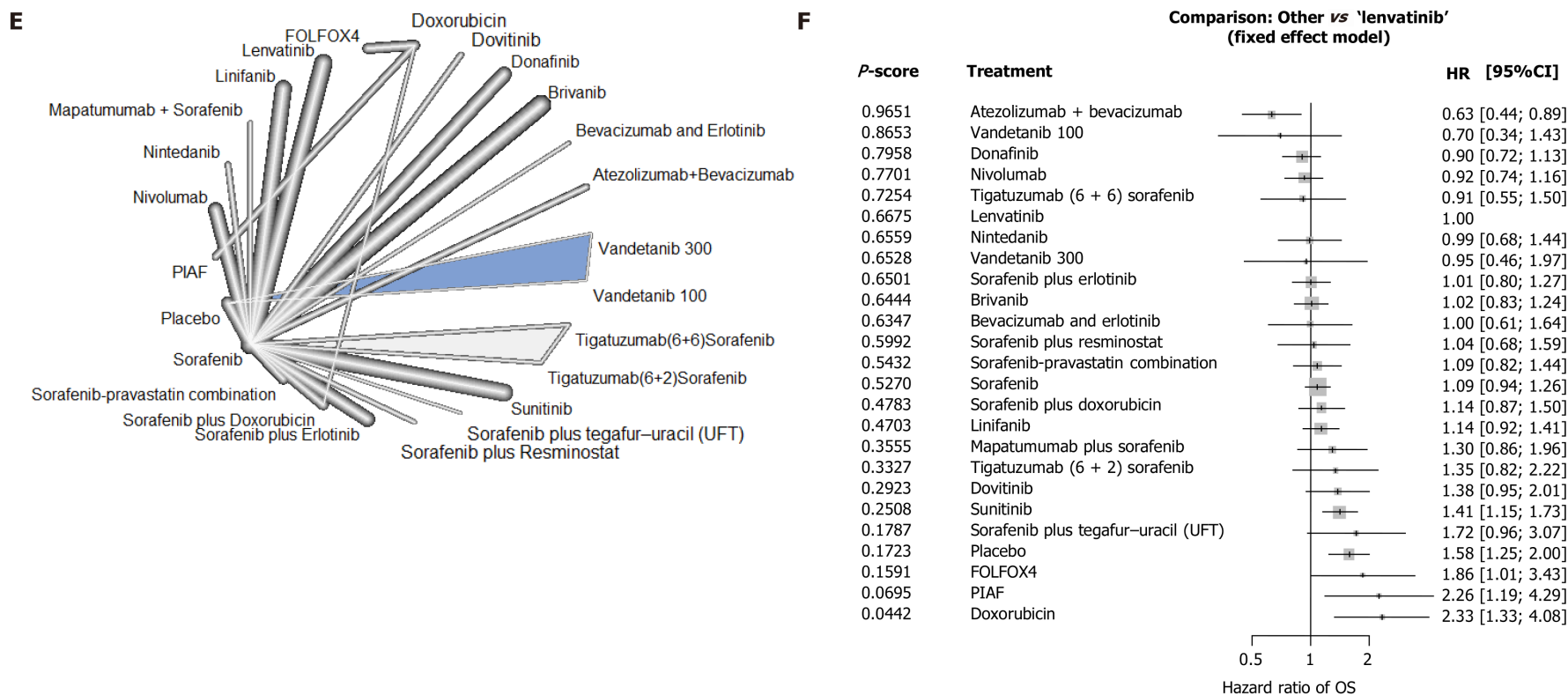


Figure 3 Survival outcomes in patients with advanced hepatocellular carcinoma following first-line systemic therapy. A, C, and E: Network diagrams; B: Interventions ranked by *P* value with hazard ratios for progression-free survival, D: Time to progression and F: overall survival for each treatment vs lenvatinib. CI: Confidence interval; FOLFOX4: Oxaliplatin/folinic acid/5-fluorouracil; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; HR: Hazard ratio; OS: Overall survival; PIAF: Cisplatin/interferon α -2b/doxorubicin/5-fluorouracil; TTP: Time to progression.

rating lymphocytes[30]. Although bevacizumab monotherapy failed Phase II trials in unresectable HCC, in combination with atezolizumab it led to superior efficacy compared with bevacizumab monotherapy[31]. However, consideration of treatment safety and tolerability is also an important factor in clinical decision-making. Our analysis revealed that atezolizumab plus bevacizumab was associated with the highest incidence of discontinuation due to AEs. This may be associated with the relatively long time to progression and duration of treatment reported for atezolizumab plus bevacizumab, but as treatment discontinuations due to AEs usually involve uncontrolled Grade ≥ 3 AEs, this would likely be a weak association. In addition, the prescribing information for bevacizumab highlights a possible risk of bleeding, and requires termination of bevacizumab at least 4 wk before surgery[32]. Therefore, in

patients with high risk of gastric esophageal varices and patients with the potential to undergo any surgical procedures, atezolizumab plus bevacizumab should be used carefully, to manage the risk of bleeding events. Atezolizumab plus bevacizumab may be more suitable for patients who are unsuitable for surgery but with good liver function and limited cirrhosis, who have the potential to achieve a long-term survival benefit with systemic therapy.

The results of this meta-analysis show that there is currently not one single systemic treatment for advanced HCC associated with superior outcomes across all outcome measurements (ORR, OS, PFS, and safety). This highlights the importance of individualized treatment selection based on specific treatment goals. For example, a number of studies have shown that lenvatinib or lenvatinib combination therapy[33] can allow patients to achieve downstaging and become eligible for surgery[34-36]. For patients with HCC ineligible for surgical intervention at diagnosis, we are of the opinion that treatment selection should be objective based. In patients without serious underlying liver disease and for whom surgery may be possible, systemic treatments with the highest ORR are the optimal choice. Conversely, for patients with poor liver function, underlying liver disease, or local advanced HCC, selection of therapies based on longer OS may provide the most benefit.

In our analysis, lenvatinib had superior short-term efficacy compared with all other systemic therapies investigated. Lenvatinib ranked first for ORR and TTP, and second for PFS after atezolizumab plus bevacizumab. This finding is supported by the results of another recent network meta-analysis presented at the ASCO Gastrointestinal Symposium 2021 that also ranked atezolizumab plus bevacizumab first for OS but lenvatinib first for ORR[37]. In addition, although direct comparison of the ORRs (RECIST v1.1) reported for atezolizumab plus bevacizumab and lenvatinib in the IMbrave 100 and REFLECT studies appears to show a moderately higher ORR for atezolizumab plus bevacizumab (27% *vs* 18%)[10,11], our network analysis provides a more robust comparison of the two therapies by comparing both to sorafenib. There are several possible mechanistic explanations for this finding. First, preclinical studies show that lenvatinib has multiple targets including VEGFR1-3, FGFR1-4, PDGFR α , RET, and KIT, and this broad spectrum of activity may be one factor explaining the high response rates associated with this therapy[38]. Furthermore, lenvatinib is a type V TKI with fast binding and relatively slow dissociation compared with other TKIs[39]. In addition to anti-vascular effects, lenvatinib also has a regulatory effect on the immune microenvironment of liver cancer[40]. Preclinical research has shown that, compared with sorafenib, lenvatinib has a significant anti-tumor effect in immunodeficient mice, suggesting that lenvatinib may activate immune function by decreasing the number of tumor-associated macrophages, increasing the proportion of activated CD8⁺ cells[40], and increasing activation and infiltration of natural killer cells[41].

HBV-related liver cancer is particularly prevalent in Asian populations, especially in China where 69%-80% of liver cancers have an HBV etiology[42,43]. Our meta-analysis of data from patients with HCC and HBV infection suggested that, in terms of OS, atezolizumab plus bevacizumab, lenvatinib, and nivolumab are the three most effective treatments in this patient population. For PFS, lenvatinib ranked first over atezolizumab plus bevacizumab. This finding supports previous meta-analyses that have shown lenvatinib to have a particularly strong anti-tumor effect *vs* sorafenib in patients with HBV-related HCC[44,45]. It is unclear why lenvatinib may have a particularly good anti-tumor effect in HBV-related HCC, but it may be due to the impact of lenvatinib on the immune microenvironment, as described above. In addition, the China National Health and Health Commission guidelines for diagnosis and treatment of primary liver cancer in China (2019 edition) recommend lenvatinib as a systemic therapy with good efficacy in patients with HBV-related liver cancer[46].

This network meta-analysis had several possible limitations. First, the quality of studies included in the analysis had some heterogeneity; for example, the analysis included both large Phase III clinical trials, such as REFLECT and Checkmate 459, and smaller Phase II clinical studies. Second, there was also heterogeneity in the patient populations included in the analysis, including patients from different geographic regions, of different races, and different proportions of patients with HBV infection. Additionally, it should be noted that second-line therapeutic options for HCC have greatly improved over the past decade. As a result, estimates of first-line OS from older studies are generally shorter than those from more recent studies. However, among the therapies included in this analysis that are currently approved for first-line HCC, only sorafenib has OS data old enough to potentially be biased by this phenomenon. Fortunately, our analysis was based on pooled data from the pivotal study of sorafenib in 2008 and comparator arms of trials conducted between 2008 and 2020, which limits the potential effect of bias from improvements in second-line

therapies[47-62]. Finally, because multiple interventions were included in the analysis, several had data from only one study and therefore a relatively small sample size, which may have led to bias.

CONCLUSION

This network meta-analysis of first-line systemic therapies for advanced HCC revealed that atezolizumab plus bevacizumab is associated with the best OS and PFS, but also with a high incidence of discontinuation due to AEs. The results also showed that lenvatinib is associated with the best ORR of all systemic therapies included in the analysis, as well as a relatively high PFS, particularly in patients with HBV-related liver cancer in whom lenvatinib ranked first for PFS, over atezolizumab plus bevacizumab. Therefore, in patients with unresectable advanced HCC, systemic treatment should be selected based on the individualized treatment goals of each patient.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

The recent expansion of first-line systemic therapy options for patients with advanced hepatocellular carcinoma represents a significant advance in the treatment of this disease. However, the majority of clinical trials in first-line hepatocellular carcinoma management used placebo or sorafenib as comparators, and there are limited data providing a cross comparison of the efficacy and safety of treatments in this setting, especially for newly-approved immune checkpoint inhibitor and vascular endothelial growth factor inhibitor combination treatments.

Research motivation

Clinical trials of recently-approved therapies for hepatocellular carcinoma have revealed differing profiles of efficacy and safety, and comparative data to inform selection of first-line treatments for individual patients are limited. Furthermore, although lenvatinib is widely seen as a standard of care in real clinical practice, and is a recommended first-line therapy in most international treatment guidelines, there are limited head-to-head data comparing lenvatinib with other systemic therapies.

Research objectives

The objectives of this network meta-analysis were to systematically review and compare the response rates, survival outcomes, and safety of first-line systemic therapies for advanced hepatocellular carcinoma, and to provide a comparison between lenvatinib and other systemic therapies in this setting. The study also included a sub-group analysis of patients with hepatitis B virus infection, which is an important population in the Asia-Pacific region and has not been covered by other current meta-analyses.

Research methods

We searched PubMed, Science Direct, the Cochrane Database, Excerpta Medica Database, and abstracts from the American Society of Clinical Oncology 2020 annual congress. Eligible studies were randomized controlled trials of systemic therapy enrolling adults with advanced/unresectable hepatocellular carcinoma. A network meta-analysis was used to synthesize data and perform direct and indirect comparisons between treatments for endpoints including (where available) overall response rate, overall survival, progression-free survival, time-to-progression, incidence of Grade ≥ 3 adverse events, incidence of treatment interruptions due to adverse events, and incidence of dose reductions due to adverse events. *P* value, a frequentist analog to the surface under the cumulative ranking curve, was used to rank treatments.

Research results

Treatments included in the analysis were atezolizumab plus bevacizumab, brivanib, donafenib, dovitinib, FOLFOX4, lenvatinib, linifanib, nintedanib, nivolumab, sorafenib, sunitinib, vandetanib, 11 sorafenib combination therapies, and three other

combination therapies. Atezolizumab plus bevacizumab was ranked first for progression-free survival and overall survival but also had the highest rate of discontinuations due to adverse events. Lenvatinib ranked first for overall response rate and second for progression-free survival. Our findings show that first-line systemic treatment should be selected based on individualized treatment goals and provide valuable comparative data that can help to inform treatment decisions.

Research conclusions

Our findings suggest that there is no one single first-line treatment for advanced hepatocellular carcinoma associated with superior outcomes across all outcome measurements. Therefore, first-line systemic treatment should be selected based on individualized treatment goals.

Research perspectives

Future research should continue to evaluate new therapeutic strategies for hepatocellular carcinoma in the context of existing treatments, and provide further information to support treatment selection for individual patients.

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