

Tolerability of Treatments for Viral Hepatitis

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Abstract

Interferon- α is the most widely used antiviral drug in chronic hepatitis B and C. Tolerability is usually good and serious adverse effects are rare. Most of the adverse effects are mild or transient and do not necessitate drug withdrawal. More than 90% of patients who are given interferon- α achieve 6 months to 1 year of treatment without serious adverse effects. The serious adverse effects usually occur in predisposed patients with pre-existing organ dysfunction. Nevertheless, careful selection of patients for therapy and observation during therapy are recommended.

Nucleoside analogues are promising drugs in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B through inhibition of viral DNA polymerase. Lamivudine has been licensed for use in this indication. Its tolerability is excellent even when used for periods of

1 year or more. The main concern is the relatively high incidence of viral resistance resulting in breakthrough during or relapse after therapy.

In the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, ribavirin, in combination with interferon- α is currently the reference therapy. The main adverse effect is haemolytic anaemia, which necessitates careful monitoring and adjustment of dosage in many cases. Recently, large trials showed the better efficacy of pegylated interferons as compared with standard interferon. The combination of pegylated interferon with ribavirin is under evaluation.

Chronic viral hepatitis is the main cause of liver disease and cirrhosis worldwide. Several viruses responsible for chronic hepatitis have been identified in the last 30 years. Numerous antiviral drugs have been tested for their ability to inhibit viral replication and decrease the activity of the liver disease in order to prevent the development of cirrhosis or hepatocellular carcinoma. However, the adverse effect profiles of these agents limit their use. Several excellent reviews have addressed these issues.^[1-3]

This review will describe the tolerability of drugs used for the treatment of viral hepatitis. In the first part the adverse effects of interferon- α , the most widely used antiviral drug, will be reviewed. In the second part, the adverse effects of other immunomodulatory drugs and of the nucleoside analogues will be addressed.

1. Interferon- α

Interferon- α has been used since 1976 for the treatment of chronic hepatitis B.^[4] Ten years later, a pilot study showed a beneficial effect in chronic 'non-A non-B' hepatitis^[5] (later described as chronic hepatitis C). Interferon- α is the only known effective agent in chronic hepatitis D.^[6] It is a potent antiviral agent with complex mechanisms of action that are not fully understood. As well as inducing 2'-5' oligoadenylate synthetase, it also has immune effects. Which of its pleiotropic effects are responsible for its antiviral activity and which ones for its adverse effects is not known.

The extensive use of this drug led to numerous accounts of its adverse events.^[1-3] A recent survey of 11 241 patients treated with interferon- α reported a 1.2% increase of severe adverse effects.^[7] Psychiatric and autoimmune (mainly thyroiditis)

complications were the most frequent and severe adverse effects observed in the various studies. Therefore, careful selection of patients for treatment, and appropriate follow-up is recommended.

1.1 General Manifestations

A flu-like syndrome occurs frequently at the initiation of interferon- α treatment. Fever, myalgias, arthralgias and headache occur in the hours following its injection, but their intensity diminishes as treatment is continued. Symptoms abate with oral administration of paracetamol.

Asthenia, weakness, anorexia, nausea and body-weight loss may be sustained under treatment, leading to interferon dose reduction in 10 to 40% of the patients, or cessation of treatment in 5 to 10% of patients who are treated at dosages of 5 to 6 million units 3 times a week.^[8,9]

1.2 Psychiatric, Neurological and Sensorial Manifestations

Depression is a common adverse effect of interferon- α therapy and 1 of the main causes for cessation of treatment. It may be observed in 14 to 39% of patients (being more frequent as treatment duration increases).^[1] Severe depression which leads to suicide, has been reported in patients on interferon- α therapy^[10,11] and antidepressant therapy has been advocated.^[12] Rare psychiatric adverse effects such as delirium, psychotic manifestations and paranoid ideations have been described, especially in patients with pre-existing disorders.^[13] These complications may be prevented by careful psychiatric assessment of the patient before therapy. Difficulty in concentrating, lack of motivation, sleep disturbance and perturbations of cognitive

functions have been described.^[14] The frequency of anxiety or irritability can be as high as 35% in some studies.^[15] Epileptic seizures and electroencephalographic changes have also been associated with interferon- α therapy.^[16,17]

Severe neurological manifestations such as ataxia, encephalitis, peripheral neuropathy occur rarely and have been described only in patients with cancer receiving dosages above 50 million units interferon- α per day.^[18] Regressive axonal polyneuropathy occurred in a patient who was treated for chronic hepatitis C.^[19] Low dose interferon- α was suspected to have triggered a trigeminal sensory neuropathy.^[20]

Ophthalmological manifestations such as retinal ischaemia with haemorrhage and cotton-wool spots^[21] have been observed, as have cases of optical neuropathy, following interferon- α .^[22,23] Before initiating interferon therapy, retinal examination should be performed in patients with pre-existing optical disorders.

Auditory adverse events were observed in up to 45% of patients who received interferon- α (tinnitus, dizziness, vertigo and loss of hearing perception).^[24]

1.3 Autoimmune Effects

Appearance of various autoantibodies such as antinuclear, antithyroid or anti-DNA have been frequently described at low dosages of interferon- α .^[25,26] Hypothyroidism (3% of the treated patients) or hyperthyroidism (3% of the treated patients) are the most common autoimmune conditions observed.^[27-29] In a prospective study, in 77 patients with chronic hepatitis C receiving interferon- α , 6.5% developed thyroid dysfunction (3.9% developed hyperthyroidism and 2.6% developed hypothyroidism).^[30] In the majority of case reports, thyroid function usually recovers within a few months after interferon- α withdrawal; however, some patients may need hormonal therapy or carbimazole. The detection of antithyroid antimicrosomal autoantibodies before treatment is predictive of thyroid dysfunction during treatment;^[28,30,31] therefore, assessment of these autoantibodies should be part

of the pretherapeutic assessment. For early detection of thyroid dysfunction during treatment, the concentration of thyroid stimulating hormone should be measured every 3 months in patients without autoantibodies or monthly in patients with autoantibodies.

Development of diabetes mellitus was described during interferon- α therapy for chronic hepatitis B^[32] and C.^[33] Regression after the cessation of treatment is not constant.^[32]

Several case reports have suggested that interferon- α may trigger myasthenia^[34] or lupus-like syndrome.^[35,36] Regression of clinical symptoms was observed in only 1 case after withdrawal of therapy.^[35] Autoimmune liver diseases (primary biliary cirrhosis, autoimmune hepatitis) can be worsened during interferon- α treatment^[37,38]

Type 2 autoimmune hepatitis must be excluded before initiating interferon- α treatment. This disease is difficult to distinguish from chronic hepatitis C because anti-LKM1 (liver kidney microsomal type 1) autoantibodies can be found in both diseases. In true autoimmune hepatitis (i.e. presence of anti-LKM1 antibodies and absence of anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) antibodies), interferon- α treatment leads to exacerbation of the disease.^[38-40] In chronic hepatitis C (defined by the presence of anti-HCV antibodies with detectable serum HCV RNA) anti-LKM1 autoantibodies may be found. Therefore, systematic detection of anti-LKM1 autoantibodies has to be performed before initiation of interferon- α therapy.

The therapeutic approach following detection of anti-LKM1 antibodies is controversial, since little clinical data are available. In our opinion, if anti-LKM1 are present at a high titre, corticosteroid rather than interferon therapy should be the first option.

Occurrence of Raynaud syndrome^[41] and cryoglobulinaemia^[42] have been described during interferon- α therapy as has worsening of cryoglobulinaemia.^[43,44] Sarcoidosis may be another autoimmune complication of interferon- α therapy.^[45] Pathogenesis of lichen planus is unknown but could be of autoimmune origin. That might explain

why interferon- α can reveal^[46] or exacerbate^[47] li-chen planus.

1.4 Haematological Effects

Ten to 50% of interferon- α patients develop leu-coneutropenia or thrombocytopenia during therapy.^[1,48] Anaemia may be observed; however, it is rarely severe at the dose used to treat chronic viral hepatitis.^[49,50] Bone marrow depression is transient and reversible after interferon- α withdrawal.^[51] In some patients, immune mechanisms may induce haemolytic anaemia and thrombocytopenic pur-pura.^[52,53] Under interferon- α therapy appearance of antibodies (antiphospholipids, antihæmophilic factor VIII) may interfere with normal coagulation.^[54,55] A careful follow-up with monthly blood cell counts is recommended.

1.5 Dermatological Effects

Interferon- α therapy may be responsible for psoriasis,^[56] with arthritis involvement^[57] even at dosages normally used in treating chronic viral hepatitis.^[58] Reducing the dose^[59] or stopping treat-ment might be required to reduce the lesions.

Foliaceus pemphigus has been described after interferon- α therapy for chronic hepatitis C.^[60] Other manifestations such as alopecia, pruritus, rashes and dryness have also been described.^[11] Al-oppecia occurs frequently but is reversible after therapy cessation. Erythematous or ulcerative le-sions at the injection point may be seen.

1.6 Metabolic Effects

The effect of interferon- α on lipid metabolism is controversial. Some authors have found a de-crease in both high density and low density lipo-protein cholesterol.^[61] Others did not find such dis-orders but reported an increase in triglycerides^[62] which may lead to pancreatitis.

1.7 Pulmonary Effects

Interstitial pneumonia has been described^[63] and may occur at the beginning of interferon- α ther-

Table I. Minor or mild adverse effects of interferon- α

Flu-like syndrome	Asthenia, myalgia, headache, arthralgia, chills, anorexia, fever, weakness, nausea
Neuropsychiatric	Difficulty concentrating, lack of motivation, sleep disturbance, perturbations of the cognitive functions, anxiety, irritability
Dermatological	Alopecia, pruritus, rashes, dryness, erythema and ulceration at the injection site
Digestive	Nausea, diarrhoea, abdominal pain
Laboratory	Decrease in red and white blood cell count, platelet count, increase in serum triglyceride and transaminases, proteinuria

apy; however, it is reversible after cessation of ther-apy.

1.8 Digestive and Hepatic Effects

At the dose of interferon- α used in chronic viral hepatitis, one-third of patients may have mild or moderate gastrointestinal manifestations such as nausea, diarrhoea or abdominal pain.^[64]

Interferon- α treatment can be associated with an increase in serum ALT. In chronic hepatitis B, cy-tolysis can lead to fatal hepatic decompensation in patients with cirrhosis.^[65] This is related to an im-mune-mediated hepatocyte lysis reflected by an in-crease in serum ALT and frequently associated with hepatitis Be antigen seroconversion. It has to be distinguished from the usually mild ALT elevation that occurs as a direct result of interferon- α . This effect whose mechanisms are unknown may also be seen in interferon- α patients who do not have hepatitis.

In patients with chronic hepatitis B, the associ-ation of elevated ALT levels with decreasing serum HBV (hepatitis B virus) DNA is a substantial argu-ment for seroconversion hepatitis. Finally, one should not forget that if anti-LKM1 or antiactine antibodies are present, exacerbation of an autoim-mune hepatitis is possible with interferon- α treat-ment. Thus, monitoring of ALT is part of the follow-up to interferon- α treatment .

1.9 Renal Effects

Proteinuria and nephrotic syndrome have been described in patients treated with high dose

interferon- α for malignant diseases.^[66] If glomerulonephritis occurs, it is difficult to assess the respective contributions of interferon- α therapy and the viral disease.

1.10 Cardiac Effects

The rare but severe cardiac adverse effects of interferon- α , observed at the doses used for chronic viral hepatitis, are rhythm disorders (atrial fibrillation, tachycardia),^[67] ischaemic heart disease and atrioventricular block.^[68] These complications are usually observed in patients with pre-existing cardiopathy. In such patients, interferon- α therapy should be given cautiously and carefully monitored. Electrocardiographic assessment should be systematic before initiation of therapy. Hypotension or hypertension may occur during the flu-like syndrome at the initiation of treatment.

1.11 Pregnancy

Interferon- α is contraindicated in pregnant women. Effective contraception is mandatory before starting treatment; however, no consequences of interferon- α treatment during pregnancy have been established, and the heavy molecular weight of interferon- α should in theory prevent transplacental passage^[69]

Table II. Serious adverse effects of interferon- α

Neuropsychiatric	Ataxia, encephalitis, peripheral neuropathy, epileptic seizure, trigeminal neuropathy, vertigo, loss of hearing, retinal ischaemia, retinal haemorrhages, cotton-wool spots, optical neuropathy, depression, suicide, delirium, psychotic manifestations
Autoimmune	Diabetes mellitus, autoimmune diseases, lichen planus
Haematological	Anaemia, leucopenia, bone marrow depression, thrombocytopenia
Dermatological	Psoriasis, foliaceus pemphigus
Pulmonary	Interstitial pneumonia
Hepatic	Hepatic failure, autoimmune hepatitis
Renal	Proteinuria, nephrotic syndrome
Transplanted patient	Rejection
Cardiac	Rhythm disorders (atrial fibrillation, tachycardia), atrioventricular block, hypotension or hypertension

Table III. Life-threatening adverse effects of interferon- α

Hepatic	Liver failure in cirrhosis or autoimmune hepatitis
Psychiatric	Suicide in depressed patients
Cardiac	Arrhythmia, sudden death, ischaemic heart disease
Haematological	Bone marrow suppression

1.12 Patients with Transplants

The risk of rejection of transplanted organs is high during interferon- α therapy.^[70,71] Preliminary studies suggest that the risk of rejection is lower when interferon- α is used in combination with ribavirin for the treatment of HCV recurrence in patients with liver transplants.

1.13 Summary

Interferon- α therapy is associated with numerous adverse effects. However, the most common (observed in up to 10% of the treated patients) adverse effects are minor or mild and do not require any dose modification (table I). More than 90% of patients can receive 6 months to 1 year of treatment without serious adverse effects. The risk of serious complications during interferon- α therapy is low (table II).

In the retrospective survey of 11 241 patients,^[72] 0.04% of the patients had fatal complications related to therapy. The risk of life-threatening adverse effects is 0.07% (table III); serious adverse effects occurred in 1.2% of patients. A meta-analysis^[73] showed a dose-dependent incidence of adverse effects (table IV). However, high doses (6 million units) compared with usual doses (3 millions units) do not lead to significantly more serious adverse effects (82 vs 73% in a recent study)^[74]. Similarly, the nature of adverse events described with pegylated interferon- α is the same as nonpegylated interferon- α . The incidence of cutaneous lesions at the injection site and of neutropenia is slightly higher.

Serious adverse effects usually occur in predisposed patients with pre-existing organ dysfunction. Thus, candidates for interferon- α therapy should

Table IV. Meta-analysis of the most common adverse effects (%) according to the dose of interferon- α ^[73]

	Flu-like	Depression	Alopecia	White blood cell decrease	Platelets decrease	Thyroid	Stopped therapy	Decreased therapy
3 MU	41	7	16	9	8	2	4	9
>5 MU	76	10	19	13	4	2	5	22

MU = million units.

be carefully assessed so that those with psychiatric, thyroid, cardiac or neurological contraindications are excluded (table V).

2. Other Cytokines and Immune Modifiers

2.1 Interleukin-2

This cytokine generates and regulates T cell responses. Its adverse effects are similar to the common adverse effects seen during interferon- α therapy: fever, asthenia, chills, myalgia and an influenza-like syndrome occur in a large proportion of patients.^[75] Bronchospasm may be observed in predisposed patients.

2.2 Thymosin α -1, Thymopentin

Peptides of thymic origin have been shown to trigger maturational events in lymphocytes, to augment T cell function and induce the reconstitution of immune defects. Studies of thymosin α -1 in chronic hepatitis B and C (alone or in combination with interferon- α) show that there is discomfort at the site of injection and that mild fatigue occurs.^[76-79] Thymopentin shows the same adverse effects and also mild dyspepsia and upper abdominal pain.^[80]

3. Nucleoside Analogues

Nucleoside analogues have been shown to inhibit viral nucleic acid polymerases. Many of them were used in early trials but did not show a significant effect (aciclovir, azidothymidine).

Others were excluded from clinical use because of severe (adenine arabinoside, foscarnet) or fatal (fialuridine) toxicity. Others (ganciclovir) are difficult to use because of the need for infusion administration. More recently introduced nucleosides are widely used because of their good efficacy and

safety profiles. Ribavirin is now the reference treatment for hepatitis C, in combination with interferon- α . Lamivudine has been recently registered for the treatment of chronic hepatitis B whilst others are currently under evaluation.

3.1 Ribavirin

Data from recent, large randomised controlled trials show that the combination of interferon- α with ribavirin is more effective than interferon- α alone in treating chronic hepatitis C with a 40% sustained response rate.^[81-83] These results suggest that this drug combination is the treatment of choice in chronic hepatitis C. In practice, it is widely used.^[84]

Ribavirin is contraindicated during pregnancy as teratogenic effects were described in animal studies.^[85] The main adverse effect of ribavirin is haemolysis as a consequence of toxic accumulation inside red blood cells. A decrease in haemoglobin levels (2 g/dl on average) may be expected in 30% of patients.^[81-88] Anaemia is more marked (haemoglobin less than 10 g/dl) in those patients who have relatively low haemoglobin levels before treatment (<13 g/dl in men and <12 g/dl in women) and occurs generally within the first weeks of therapy. Therefore, haemoglobin levels should be checked every week during the first month of treatment. The initial dosage (1000 to 1200 mg/day) must be decreased (400 to 600 mg/day) if haemoglobin levels fall below 11 g/dl, then stopped if haemoglobin level does not stabilise.

Insomnia, anxiety, minor depressive symptoms have been reported. Ribavirin may cause moderate pruritus, rashes and alopecia.^[89,90] Other minor effects such as hyperuricaemia, myalgia, asthenia and nausea may also occur.

In recent large randomised controlled trials, combination therapy of ribavirin with interferon- α did not significantly increase the frequency of adverse effects in selected patients compared with monotherapy with interferon- α .^[81] However, in patients treated outside of protocols, the adverse effects of combination therapy should be carefully monitored, especially depression where there is a risk of suicide. Patients older than 50 years or with pre-existing cardiopathy may develop cardiac complications: a careful cardiac assessment is mandatory before treatment. In particular, because of anaemia, ribavirin may induce decompensation of coronary insufficiency.

3.2 Lamivudine

Lamivudine is a potent inhibitor of the HBV DNA polymerase. At a dosage of 100 mg/day for 1 year, it produces a sustained virological response in 20% of cases and is now widely used in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B.^[91] This new nucleoside analogue does not pass mitochondrial membranes and therefore its toxicity is believed to be very mild.

Lamivudine administration is usually well tolerated and is associated with few adverse effects: dizziness, headache and muscle ache.^[92] The main concern about lamivudine therapy is the occurrence of viral breakthrough during treatment and of relapse after withdrawal of treatment. Breakthrough with reappearance of serum HBV DNA

during lamivudine administration is related to the occurrence of an HBV mutant resistant to lamivudine. It is observed in about 20% of patients after 1 year of therapy. The clinical significance and management of this breakthrough is not well defined. It has been suggested that continuation of lamivudine administration might decrease the severity of the breakthrough. Severe reactivation seems to be rare but may occur in cirrhotic patients.

In patients who have responded to lamivudine therapy, withdrawal of the drug frequently causes a relapse which may be severe in patients with cirrhosis. Mild adverse effects such as anaphylactoid reaction, angiodema and urticaria have been reported with lamivudine treatment.^[93] Lamivudine may exacerbate peripheral neuropathy at higher dosages than those used for chronic hepatitis B infection (300 to 600mg daily).^[94] With all nucleoside analogues, contraceptive treatment is needed since they can induce fetal abnormalities by interfering with DNA synthesis. However, studies are underway on the use of lamivudine during pregnancy in HIV infection to prevent vertical transmission of the virus.

3.3 Other Nucleoside Analogues

Many other nucleoside analogues have been evaluated for the treatment of chronic hepatitis B infection including famciclovir, adefovir dipivoxil and entecavir.

Trials of famciclovir have shown a significant but moderate antiviral effect with a poor sustained response.^[95] Therefore, the development of the drug in this indication has been halted. Tolerance observed in trials was good with few and mild adverse effects. Anorexia, nausea, weakness, tiredness, diarrhoea and headache were relatively rare adverse effects.^[96] A report of an acute necroticohaemorrhagic pancreatitis after famciclovir administration in a patient with renal impairment^[97] suggests that such adverse effects might happen if toxic metabolites accumulate in circumstances such as renal dysfunction.

Adefovir dipivoxil is currently being assessed in clinical trials. Preliminary studies indicate that

Table V. Contraindications of interferon- α therapy

Neurological	Ataxia, encephalitis, peripheral neuropathy, epileptic seizures
Psychiatric	Depression, delirium, psychotic ideation
Hepatic	Cirrhosis and autoimmune liver diseases
Autoimmune manifestations	Antithyroid autoantibodies, diabetes mellitus
Cardiac	Coronary artery disease, rhythm disorders (atrial fibrillation, tachycardia) and atrioventricular block
Ophthalmological	Retinal haemorrhages, cotton-wool spots, optical neuropathy
Other conditions	Patients with transplants, pregnancy
Laboratory	Thrombocytopenia, leucopenia, anaemia, high titers of autoantibodies

it is well tolerated at a dosage of 10 mg/day. Nephrotoxicity has been observed with a dosage equal or higher than 30 mg/day in patients with HIV infection. Phase II studies of entecavir have shown good tolerability. Phase III studies of these new nucleoside analogues will determine their efficacy and tolerability in patients with chronic hepatitis B.

4. Conclusion

Interferon- α is the most widely used antiviral drug in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B and C. Its tolerability is usually good and serious adverse effects are rare. Nevertheless, careful selection of patients for therapy is required as is monitoring during treatment.

In the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, ribavirin, in combination with interferon- α is currently the treatment of choice. Its main adverse effect, haemolytic anaemia, needs to be monitored and in many cases the dosage may need adjustment.

Nucleoside analogues are promising drugs in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B through inhibition of viral DNA polymerase. Lamivudine, recently registered, shows excellent tolerability even when used for periods of 1 year or more. The new nucleoside analogues, adefovir dipivoxil and entecavir, are being assessed in large phase III trials.

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