

## Factors associated with spontaneous clearance of chronic hepatitis C virus infection

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24 **Abbreviations:** HCV, hepatitis C virus; CHC, chronic hepatitis C virus infection; IL28B,  
25 interleukin-28B; Gt1, HCV genotype 1; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HDV, hepatitis delta virus;  
26 HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; WoSSVC, West of Scotland Specialist Virus Centre;  
27 NHSGGC, NHS Greater Glasgow & Clyde; DBS, dried blood spot; HPS, Health Protection  
28 Scotland; BMI, body mass index; Gt3, HCV genotype 3; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen;  
29 IFN, interferon; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; PWID, people who inject drugs

30 **Keywords:** HCV; spontaneous clearance; gender; HBV/HCV coinfection

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37 provided critical revisions and approved the final manuscript.

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46 Abstract

47 **Background & Aims:** Spontaneous clearance of chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection  
48 (CHC) is rare. We conducted a retrospective case control study to identify rates and factors  
49 associated with spontaneous clearance of CHC.

50 **Methods:** We defined a case as an individual who spontaneously resolved CHC, and a  
51 control as an individual that remained chronically infected. We used data obtained on HCV  
52 testing between 1994 and 2013 in the West of Scotland to infer case/control status.

53 Specifically, untreated patients with  $\geq 2$  sequential samples positive for HCV RNA  $\geq 6$   
54 months apart followed by  $\geq 1$  negative test, and those with  $\geq 2$  positive samples  $\geq 6$  months  
55 apart with no subsequent negative samples were identified. Control patients were randomly  
56 selected from the second group (4/patient of interest). Case notes were reviewed and patient  
57 characteristics obtained.

58 **Results:** 25,113 samples were positive for HCV RNA, relating to 10,318 patients. 50 cases of  
59 late spontaneous clearance were identified, contributing 241 person-years follow-up. 2518  
60 untreated, chronically infected controls were identified, contributing 13,766 person-years  
61 follow-up, from whom 200 controls were randomly selected. Spontaneous clearance was  
62 positively associated with female gender, hepatitis B co-infection, younger age at infection  
63 and lower HCV RNA load. Spontaneous clearance was negatively associated with current  
64 intravenous drug use. The incidence rate of spontaneous clearance was 0.36/100 person-years  
65 follow-up, occurring after a median 50 months diagnosis.

66 **Conclusions:** Spontaneous clearance of CHC occurs infrequently but is associated with  
67 identifiable host and viral factors. More frequent RNA monitoring may be appropriate in  
68 selected patients.

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70 Introduction

71 Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is an enveloped, positive sense, single stranded RNA virus which  
72 causes both acute and chronic hepatitis [1, 2]. Chronic HCV infection (CHC) is a global  
73 public health problem, estimated to affect approximately 185 million individuals worldwide  
74 and 37,000 persons in Scotland [3]. Chronic hepatitis C develops in around 75% of people  
75 who acquire HCV infection, and it is defined as viral persistence beyond six months post  
76 exposure [3, 4].

77 Spontaneous clearance of HCV in the acute phase (<6 months) occurs in around 20-40% of  
78 people who acquire HCV infection [2, 5]. Predictors of clearance remain poorly elucidated,  
79 however host factors, including gender [2, 6-8] and immune response [9], and viral factors,  
80 such as HCV genotype and quasispecies diversity [2], appear to be important. Host genetics  
81 are relevant, and the strongest host factor associated with clearance is a favourable  
82 interleukin-28B (IL28B) gene polymorphism [2, 8, 10].

83 Spontaneous clearance of HCV in the chronic phase is less well understood [11]. It has been  
84 reported in the literature following superinfection with hepatitis B virus (HBV) [12, 13] or  
85 following hepatitis delta virus (HDV) superinfection of human immunodeficiency virus  
86 (HIV)-HBV co-infected subjects [14]. Case reports have also described clearance following  
87 the withdrawal of immunosuppressive medication [15], in the context of liver transplantation  
88 or surgery [16, 17], following the development of hepatocellular carcinoma [18] and during  
89 pregnancy/parturition [19, 20]. Additionally, spontaneous HCV RNA negativity has been  
90 described in HIV-HCV co-infected patients, including those with hepatic decompensation,  
91 following initiation or optimisation of antiretroviral therapy [21-23].

92 Host factors may be important predictors of clearance in the chronic phase as well as the  
93 acute phase; Raghuraman et al reported a case of HCV clearance at 65 weeks post infection

94 which was associated with reversal of T cell exhaustion and the appearance of neutralising  
95 antibodies [24] and two recent studies looking at HIV-HCV co-infected patients found that  
96 late clearance was associated with a favourable IL28B-CC genotype [5, 23]. However,  
97 interpretation of these studies is limited by the small number of cases.

98 We sought to establish the incidence and factors associated with spontaneous clearance of  
99 CHC amongst a large Scottish cohort.

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115 Patients and methods

116 ***Study design and population:***

117 The West of Scotland Specialist Virus Centre (WoSSVC) is part of the NHS Greater  
118 Glasgow & Clyde Health Board (NHSGGC) which serves a population of > 1 million. Of the  
119 35474 cases of HCV antibody positivity diagnosed in Scotland as of December 2013, 14076  
120 (40%) reside within NHSGGC [25]. The WoSSVC provides the majority of the diagnostic  
121 virology service for the West of Scotland and is the sole provider of HCV RNA testing. Data  
122 were obtained from the WoSSVC on HCV testing over a 20 year period between 1994 and  
123 2013. The study followed a retrospective case-control design; cases were individuals who  
124 spontaneously resolved CHC, and controls were individuals who did not.

125 ***Identifying cases and controls:***

126 All patients must have been tested on either serum or dried blood spot (DBS) for HCV RNA  
127 as part of their clinical care. Patients with a minimum of 2 sequential samples positive for  
128 HCV RNA at least 6 months apart, followed by at least one negative test for HCV RNA,  
129 were identified. These patients were linked with national treatment data obtained from the  
130 Scottish Hepatitis C Clinical Database. This database is held by Health Protection Scotland  
131 (HPS) and contains clinical and treatment data for HCV infected patients attending outpatient  
132 specialist clinics across Scotland [26]. Patients with a history of HCV treatment were then  
133 excluded to create a cohort of individuals with potential spontaneous clearance of chronic  
134 HCV. Clinical records of potential spontaneous clearers were reviewed to confirm the clinical  
135 scenario. Individuals in the spontaneous clearance group with > 1 negative HCV RNA  
136 sample were subcategorised as ‘confirmed’ clearers.

137 Patients with 2 positive HCV RNA samples at least 6 months apart with no subsequent  
138 negative samples were identified as our comparison group. To create a control group of

139 chronically infected patients, individuals were randomly selected from the comparison group  
140 using number generation with a frequency of 4 controls per patient of interest.

141 ***Clinical, demographic and exposure data on cases and controls:***

142 Demographic patient data (age at infection, sex, ethnicity, alcohol intake, body mass index  
143 (BMI), source of infection), HCV markers (liver enzymes, HCV genotype, IL28B genotype,  
144 HCV RNA and history of cirrhosis), HIV, HBV and HDV serostatus and IL28B genotype  
145 were obtained from the Scottish Hepatitis C Clinical Database, augmented by case note  
146 review. Where available, biochemical and haematologic variables were recorded at the time  
147 of the last positive HCV RNA test for all patients, and concurrently with the first negative  
148 HCV RNA test for spontaneous clearers. The date of HCV clearance was estimated using the  
149 midpoint between the time at which the last positive HCV RNA and the first negative HCV  
150 RNA samples were collected. Duration of diagnosis (which serves as a proxy of duration of  
151 infection) was calculated as the interval between the first positive HCV RNA and the time of  
152 HCV clearance for spontaneous clearers; for the control group this was defined as the interval  
153 between the first positive and the last positive HCV RNA results. Follow up was censored at  
154 the last positive HCV RNA test for the control group. Clinical records for case patients were  
155 reviewed and data were collected on hospitalisations or acute events in the 12 months prior to  
156 clearance.

157 ***Incidence of spontaneous resolution of CHC:***

158 The incidence density rate of spontaneous clearance of CHC amongst untreated individuals  
159 was calculated as the number of cases of spontaneous clearance over the total number of  
160 person years follow up.

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163 ***Laboratory testing:***

164 All patients had been tested for HCV RNA as part of their clinical care. Viral load samples  
165 logged as ‘positive’ or ‘detectable’ were recorded as the upper limit of sensitivity for the  
166 given assay. Patients underwent HCV genotyping as part of their routine clinical care.

167 ***Statistical analysis:***

168 Continuous variables are expressed as medians and interquartile ranges, and categorical  
169 variables are recorded as number and percentages. Categorical variables were compared  
170 using chi-square testing and continuous variables were analysed using the exact Wilcoxon  
171 Mann-Whitney test. P values are 2-sided and values of <0.05 were considered significant.  
172 The IBM SPSS Statistics 22 software was used for data analysis and missing variables were  
173 handled by listwise deletion.

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184 Results

185 ***Derivation of final sample (Figure 1):***

186 A total of 25,113 samples were positive for HCV RNA, relating to 10,318 patients. Of these,  
187 1430 patients had 2 sequential positive results followed by a negative result. Following  
188 linkage to the Scottish Hepatitis C Clinical Database 1314 patients were identified as  
189 treatment experienced and were thus excluded, leaving 116 patients of interest. Ten patients  
190 were excluded following case note review as examination of full laboratory data showed that  
191 the HCV RNA positive samples were not sequential, suggesting 2 or more episodes of  
192 spontaneous clearance during acute infection rather than spontaneous clearance of CHC. A  
193 further 48 patients had exposure to HCV treatment that had not yet been recorded on the  
194 national database. For 7 patients, patient identifiers held in the database did not link with a  
195 clinical record. One patient had been incorrectly coded as negative, but on review of the  
196 laboratory data was found to have quantifiable HCV RNA. After these exclusions, 50 case  
197 patients remained and were included in downstream analysis, contributing 241 person-years  
198 follow up. Two patients were classified as spontaneous clearers solely on the basis of DBS  
199 testing, 1 of whom went on to have a positive serum HCV RNA test in the absence of  
200 ongoing risk exposure. A further 2 patients who were classified as spontaneous clearers on  
201 the basis of serum HCV RNA testing developed HCV RNA positivity > 1 year post probable  
202 clearance; 1 patient admitted to ongoing IDU. Twenty-seven patients went on to have at least  
203 1 further negative HCV RNA test (26 serum samples and 1 DBS) and were subcategorised as  
204 'confirmed' clearers.

205 For the comparison group, 3329 patients with 2 positive HCV-RNA samples at least 6  
206 months apart with no subsequent negative samples were identified of whom 955 were  
207 treatment experienced. The remaining 2374 were untreated, contributing 13766 person-years

208 follow up. Our control population comprised 200 randomly selected patients from this  
209 untreated cohort.

#### 210 *Incidence of spontaneous clearance of CHC:*

211 The overall incidence density rate of spontaneous clearance of CHC amongst the untreated  
212 patient population was 0.36 per 100-person-years follow up. When restricting the analysis to  
213 patients with 'confirmed' clearance, the incidence rate was 0.19 per 100-person-years follow  
214 up.

#### 215 *Characteristics of cases and controls:*

216 Table 1 summarises the main demographic and clinical characteristics of the study  
217 populations. The majority of patients were white, with a history of IDU as the risk factor for  
218 acquisition of HCV. There was a similar incidence of Gt1 and genotype 3 (Gt3) infections.  
219 There were no significant differences in HCV genotype, ethnicity or risk group between the  
220 two populations. Ongoing IDU was positively associated with chronicity of infection  
221 ( $p=0.034$ ).

222 Patients who spontaneously cleared CHC were more likely to be female ( $p = 0.001$ ) and to  
223 have been diagnosed at a younger age (28.5 years vs. 33 years;  $p = 0.022$ ). Median age at  
224 diagnosis in females was not significantly different between the two groups (27 years vs. 31.5  
225 years;  $p=0.144$ ). The age at which males and females were diagnosed in each group was  
226 similar (cases,  $p=0.200$ ; controls,  $p=0.108$ ).

227 There was no difference in the distribution of duration of diagnosis between groups (median  
228 duration 50 months v 50 months;  $p= 0.854$ ) (Figure 2). The minimum duration of diagnosis in  
229 the spontaneous clearance group was 9 months and the maximum duration was 182 months,  
230 compared with 7 months and 195 months in the comparator group. As spontaneous clearance  
231 may be more likely in early infection, a subgroup analysis was performed for case patients

232 (n=41) and control patients (n=144) with at least 24 months confirmed viraemia and showed  
233 identical findings (Supplementary data: Table 1).

234 Median ALT levels were similar between cases and controls at the time of the last positive  
235 HCV RNA test (47.5 IU/L v 42.5 IU/L, p=0.560). There was a significant decrease in the  
236 ALT level between the last positive and the first negative HCV RNA test for case patients,  
237 providing further evidence of spontaneous clearance (47.5 IU/L v 20 IU/L, p<0.001).

238 Of those subjects who had been tested, quantitative HCV RNA levels were significantly  
239 lower amongst cases versus controls (p<0.001) however spontaneous clearance in the context  
240 of high-level viraemia (>10000 IU/mL) was observed in 7 patients (Figure 3). IL28B  
241 genotyping was performed on 1 case patient; this patient was found to carry the IL28B-CC  
242 allele.

243 27 of the cases had repeated negative RNA testing. Demographic and virologic  
244 characteristics of these are compared with controls in Table 2. On analysis of this more  
245 strictly defined cohort of spontaneous clearers, only female gender (p=0.006) and a lower  
246 median HCV viral load (p=0.001) remained significantly associated with clearance of CHC.

#### 247 ***Co-infection with HIV and hepatotropic viruses:***

248 Amongst those tested, patients who spontaneously cleared CHC were significantly more  
249 likely to be hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) positive (5/48 (10.4%) vs 0/99 (0%);  
250 p<0.001). Eight case patients and 28 patients in the control group were positive for hepatitis  
251 B core antibody and negative for HBsAg indicating past infection. One HBsAg+ patient was  
252 co-infected with hepatitis delta virus. Rates of HIV IgG positivity were similar between the  
253 two groups (p=0.518).

#### 254 ***Acute events:***

255 In 5 patients, 4 of whom had documentation of ongoing alcohol abuse, spontaneous clearance  
256 of CHC followed admission to hospital with decompensated liver disease. In 2 of these cases  
257 there was intercurrent sepsis and in 1 case the patient was admitted twice; once as a result of  
258 a staggered paracetamol overdose and several months later due to alcoholic hepatitis with  
259 queried spontaneous bacterial peritonitis. The abstinent patient decompensated due to gram  
260 negative bacteraemia. Of the decompensated patients, two had significant ALT rises (>5  
261 times the upper limit of normal).

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276 Discussion

277 This is the largest cohort of patients with evidence of spontaneous clearance of chronic HCV  
278 infection studied to date. We have demonstrated that spontaneous clearance of CHC is rare,  
279 with an incidence rate of 0.19 – 0.36 per 100-person-years follow up. We found that  
280 spontaneous clearance of CHC was associated with female gender, HBsAg positivity,  
281 younger age at diagnosis and lower HCV RNA titres. It was negatively associated with  
282 current IDU. We observed that a proportion of cases occurred in the context of significant  
283 intercurrent illness and hepatic decompensation.

284 The incidence rate of spontaneous HCV clearance in our cohort is similar to that described in  
285 a previous Japanese study which demonstrated an annualized incidence rate of spontaneous  
286 CHC clearance of 0.5%/year/person and found that clearance was associated with milder  
287 liver disease [11]. In contrast, a recent study by Scott et al., [27] found that a significant  
288 percentage of Alaska Natives with CHC experienced HCV RNA negativity, corresponding to  
289 a rate of 1.15 per 100 persons per year. This variation in rates of spontaneous clearance may  
290 reflect the different genetic background of the study populations together with different  
291 incidences of factors associated with clearance of CHC. In addition, repeat HCV RNA  
292 testing in patients with established CHC in whom treatment is not immediately anticipated is  
293 performed rarely in our clinical practice, in accordance with international guidelines [4].  
294 Infrequent repeat testing of HCV RNA may have led to an underestimate of the true  
295 incidence of spontaneous clearance in our cohort.

296 Concurrent with our study, Scott et al., [27] found that spontaneous HCV clearance was  
297 associated with a lower HCV viral load and a trend towards younger age at infection. Older  
298 age at acquisition is independently associated with a faster progression to fibrosis, even when  
299 controlling for duration of infection [28], and children who are vertically infected appear to

300 have a very slow progression to cirrhosis [29]. The presence of significant fibrosis is  
301 associated with a poorer response to HCV therapy [4] and may be negatively associated with  
302 spontaneous clearance of CHC [11]. The reasons for the importance of age as a predictor of  
303 progressive fibrosis are undetermined, but may relate to changes in immune function and  
304 reduced hepatic blood flow [30].

305 Female sex was significantly associated with spontaneous clearance of CHC in our study.  
306 This result remained significant when restricting the analysis to ‘confirmed’ clearers. These  
307 results mirror findings in the acute setting [2, 6-8], and are supported by data from Scott et  
308 al., [27] who found that all patients in their cohort with late sustained HCV RNA negativity  
309 were female. It has been postulated that gender-based differences in immunity may underlie  
310 the association between female sex and acute spontaneous clearance [2], and the same may  
311 hold true for clearance in the chronic setting. Additionally, male sex is associated with a  
312 faster progression to cirrhosis, even after controlling for age, duration of infection, alcohol  
313 intake and metabolic factors [31, 32]. It is possible that male gender was associated with  
314 increased disease severity in our study, and therefore a lower rate of clearance. Furthermore,  
315 Grebely et al., [2] demonstrated that the effect of IL28B and HCV genotype on clearance in  
316 the acute phase was greater among females than males. IL28B-CC genotype has also been  
317 associated with spontaneous clearance of HCV in HCV-HIV co-infected patients (5, 24), a  
318 finding we are unable to confirm due to infrequent testing amongst our cases.

319 Gt1 and Gt3 were equally distributed in our cohort, reflecting the distribution in Scotland  
320 [25]. We did not find an increased likelihood of spontaneous clearance associated with Gt1  
321 infection, as has previously been described in both the acute and the chronic setting [2, 27].  
322 However, as only a third of patients in our cohort had viral genotyping performed it is  
323 possible that this null result reflects limited statistical power.

324 Hepatitis B surface antigen positivity was significantly associated with spontaneous clearance  
325 of CHC ( $p = 0.001$ ). HCV clearance in the context of HBV superinfection has been described  
326 in several case reports [12, 13] and may occur as a bystander effect of antiviral cytokine  
327 release [13]. It has been suggested that release of type 1 interferons (IFN) from the liver  
328 during acute infection may contribute to clearance [33] and that HBV may monopolise the  
329 synthetic machinery of the hepatocyte, thus interrupting the HCV replication cycle [33].

330 Despite the negative association previously described between fibrosis and spontaneous  
331 clearance of CHC [11], one third of our case patients had a diagnosis of cirrhosis.

332 Additionally, we identified a unique cohort of patients who cleared HCV following  
333 decompensation of their cirrhosis, most commonly in the context of alcohol excess and  
334 bacterial infection. The mechanisms underlying spontaneous clearance in this setting are  
335 unclear. Cirrhosis is associated with a reduction in the number of functional hepatocytes,  
336 potentially limiting viral replication and whilst HCV RNA quantification was performed too  
337 infrequently in our study to explore this hypothesis, patients with cirrhosis have been found  
338 to have lower HCV viral loads than non-cirrhotic subjects in a large Scottish mixed infection  
339 database (unpublished data [34]). Furthermore, cirrhosis is associated with immune  
340 dysregulation and predisposition to bacterial infection [35]. Bacterial translocation occurs as  
341 a result of intestinal bacterial overgrowth and increased intestinal permeability, and results in  
342 endotoxaemia [35, 36]. Bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) triggers production of  
343 inflammatory cytokines, including IFN- $\gamma$  from hepatic lymphocytes, resulting in acute  
344 hepatic injury. Chronic alcohol ingestion enhances immune cell sensitivity to LPS resulting  
345 in increased production of inflammatory cytokines [37]. We hypothesise that HCV RNA  
346 clearance may occur in this setting as a result of non-specific stimulation of the immune  
347 system on a background of lower baseline viral load [27]. In support of this, two of the



348 decompensated patients in our study had significant hepatitis flares preceding clearance  
349 suggesting the development of a vigorous Th1 cytopathic immune response.

350 Finally, we present the tentative finding that ongoing IDU is negatively associated with  
351 spontaneous clearance of CHC. People who inject drugs (PWIDs) are at risk of superinfection  
352 with distinct HCV strains which may negatively impact the likelihood of spontaneous  
353 clearance [38, 39]. We also accept the possibility that a high HCV re-infection rate post  
354 clearance amongst PWIDs may be masking the incidence of spontaneous clearance in our  
355 cohort [6, 40]. However, one study based in NHSGGC reported a trend towards a lower  
356 incidence of re-infection post spontaneous clearance [41] as described in previous studies  
357 [42].

358 There are a number of limitations to our study as a consequence of its observational and  
359 retrospective design. Our study is strengthened by the inclusion of patients presenting and  
360 followed up over two decades. Inherent in this however, is considerable variation in the  
361 utilisation of different laboratory tests over time, reflecting changing advice from clinical  
362 guidelines [43, 44] and the development and introduction of new technologies. As a  
363 consequence of the missing data, multivariate analysis was not deemed appropriate and  
364 statistical inferences must be interpreted with caution.

365 We accepted HCV RNA testing on both serum and DBS in our study design to increase our  
366 study population. DBS testing may increase the uptake of screening in PWIDs, in whom  
367 venepuncture is often difficult and who may be less likely to attend clinic [45, 46]. However,  
368 HCV RNA testing on DBS has reduced sensitivity compared to the serum assay; one patient  
369 in our cohort who was classified as a spontaneous clearer on the basis of DBS HCV RNA  
370 testing was found to have detectable HCV RNA on a subsequent serum sample. Additionally,  
371 the sensitivity of the serum quantitative HCV RNA assays varied over the course of follow

372 up (supplementary data) and earlier samples may have been more likely to be falsely  
373 negative. Additionally, fluctuating and low level viraemia is common in the early stages of  
374 infection. As we relied on only one negative HCV RNA for the definition of spontaneous  
375 clearance, it is possible that we misclassified these patients as spontaneous clearers.  
376 However, restricting the analysis to patients with at least 24 months confirmed infection did  
377 not change our findings and the normalisation of liver biochemistry provides further support  
378 for clearance.

379 Follow up of patients with presumed late spontaneous clearance was poor; only 60% of  
380 spontaneous clearers had follow up HCV-RNA testing performed at any time point to  
381 confirm clearance. To address this limitation we performed an additional analysis of patients  
382 with persistent HCV RNA negativity over time and found that only female gender and low  
383 HCV viral load remained significant.

384 We used age at diagnosis as a surrogate marker for age at infection. Many patients self-  
385 identified as having been at risk of exposure to HCV many years before they were first tested  
386 and therefore it is likely that we overestimated the true age at infection. Also, for many case  
387 patients there was a considerable duration between the last positive and the first negative  
388 HCV PCR, making it difficult to ascertain the true date of HCV clearance.

389 Finally, HCV RNA testing rates may be subject to bias. Repeat HCV RNA testing in CHC is  
390 only recommended in patients for whom treatment is anticipated [4]. Although we allowed  
391 testing on DBS to increase our study population, certain patient groups may have been less  
392 likely to have been tested, including patients with chaotic lifestyles who are not engaged in  
393 care, or patients with contraindications to therapy. However, despite the methodological  
394 drawbacks inherent in a retrospective study, the biological plausibility of our results and  
395 concordance with the precedent in the literature lead us to believe that our results are sound.

396 We conclude that spontaneous clearance of CHC is more common in females and patients  
397 with a low HCV viral load, and that previously described factors including superinfection  
398 with HBV and younger age at infection may play a role. We report novel findings of a  
399 negative association with ongoing IDU, and describe a cohort of spontaneous clearance in the  
400 context of decompensated liver disease. Further work is required to identify the mechanisms  
401 underlying spontaneous clearance of chronic infection. Given that such clearance may occur  
402 after a prolonged duration of chronic infection, more regular serum HCV-RNA monitoring  
403 may be warranted, particularly in females, HBV co infection, patients with low level viraemia  
404 and those with decompensated liver disease.

405

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549 **Table 1: Univariate association between case-control status and demographic/clinical**  
550 **factors**

	Late spontaneous clearance (n=50)	Chronically infected (n=200)	P value
<b>Male sex [n (%)]</b>	19 (38)	129 (65)	<b>0.001</b>
<b>Median age at diagnosis [years (IQR)]</b>	29 (25-36)	33 (28-38)	<b>0.022</b>
<b>Ethnic group [n (%)]</b>			0.719
White	48 (96)	194 (97)	
Asian	2 (4)	6 (3)	
<b>Risk group [n (%*)]</b>			0.789
Intravenous drug use	41 (89)	161 (90)	
Other	5 (11)	17 (10)	
Unknown	4	22	
<b>HCV genotype [n (%*)]</b>			0.713
1	7 (41)	61 (52)	
2	1 (6)	5 (4)	
3	9 (53)	52 (44)	
Unknown	33	82	
<b>Serum HIV IgG [n (%*)]</b>			0.518
Positive	2 (5)	3 (3)	
Negative	36 (95)	98 (97)	
Not tested	12	99	
<b>Serum HBsAg [n (%*)]</b>			<b>0.001</b>
Positive	5 (10)	0 (0)	
Negative	43 (90)	99 (100)	
Not tested	2	101	
<b>Current IDU [n (%*)]</b>			<b>0.034</b>
Yes	15 (38)	97 (56)	
No	25 (62)	76 (44)	
Unknown	10	27	
<b>History of alcohol excess/ALD [n (%*)]</b>			0.236
Yes	21 (47)	64 (36)	
No	24 (53)	109 (64)	
Unknown	5	27	
<b>Cirrhosis [n (%*)]</b>			0.238
Yes	13 (34)	34 (25)	
No	25 (66)	104 (75)	
Unknown	12	62	
<b>Median duration of diagnosis [months (IQR)]</b>	50 (31-81)	50 (19-103)	0.854
<b>HCV VL (IU/ml)</b>			<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Median	1000†	341142†	
Interquartile range	1000 - 83293	59496 - 1517864	

551 \*Percentage related to the actually recorded data; missing data handled by listwise deletion

552 †Data on HCV VL only available for 19 patients and 138 patients respectively

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555 **Table 2: As per Table 1, but where cases are confined to “confirmed clearers”**

	<b>‘Confirmed’ clearance (n=27)</b>	<b>Chronically infected (n=200)</b>	<b>P value</b>
<b>Male sex [n (%)]</b>	10 (37)	129 (65)	<b>0.006</b>
<b>Median age at diagnosis [years (IQR)]</b>	29 (25-37)	33 (28-38)	0.142
<b>Ethnic group [n (%)]</b>			0.362
<b>White</b>	27 (100)	194 (97)	
<b>Asian</b>	0 (0)	6 (3)	
<b>Risk group [n (%*)]</b>			0.803
<b>Intravenous drug use</b>	23 (92)	161 (90)	
<b>Other</b>	2 (8)	17 (10)	
<b>Unknown</b>	2	22	
<b>HCV genotype [n (%*)]</b>			0.784
<b>1</b>	6 (55)	61 (52)	
<b>2</b>	0 (0)	5 (4)	
<b>3</b>	5 (45)	52 (44)	
<b>Unknown</b>	16	82	
<b>Serum HIV IgG [n (%*)]</b>			0.765
<b>Positive</b>	1 (4)	3 (3)	
<b>Negative</b>	23 (96)	98 (97)	
<b>Not tested</b>	3	99	
<b>Serum HBsAg [n (%*)]</b>			0.055
<b>Positive</b>	1 (4)	0 (0)	
<b>Negative</b>	26 (96)	99 (100)	
<b>Not tested</b>	0	101	
<b>Current IDU [n (%*)]</b>			0.126
<b>Yes</b>	9 (39)	97 (56)	
<b>No</b>	14 (61)	76 (44)	
<b>Unknown</b>	4	27	
<b>History of alcohol excess/ALD [n (%*)]</b>			0.500
<b>Yes</b>	11 (44)	64 (36)	
<b>No</b>	14 (56)	109 (64)	
<b>Unknown</b>	2	27	
<b>Cirrhosis [n (%*)]</b>			0.638
<b>Yes</b>	7 (29)	34 (25)	
<b>No</b>	17 (71)	104 (75)	
<b>Unknown</b>	3	62	
<b>Median duration of diagnosis [months (IQR)]</b>	46 (29-76)	50 (19-103)	0.593
<b>HCV VL (IU/ml)</b>			<b>0.001</b>
<b>Median</b>	1000†	341142†	
<b>Interquartile range</b>	763 - 131242	59496 - 1517864	

556 \*Percentage related to the actually recorded data; missing data handled by listwise deletion

557 †Data on HCV VL available for 10 patients and 138 patients respectively

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560 Figure legends

561 **Figure 1. Derivation of case and control patient cohorts**

562 **Figure 2. Box-whisker plot of duration of diagnosis by group**

563 Box whisker plots of duration of diagnosis in months by group. Boxes represent 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup>  
564 percentile, whiskers range and horizontal lines represent the median. Outliers are shown as  
565 circles.

566 **Figure 2. Changes in HCV RNA levels against time since diagnosis for individuals**  
567 **showing spontaneous clearance of HCV RNA**

568 Panel A: Changes in HCV RNA against time since diagnosis for all individuals with PCR  
569 results available (n=19). Point 0 represents the date of diagnosis.

570 Panel B (insert) shows the same data, excluding patients with peak viraemia > 60,000 IU/mL  
571 (n=2).

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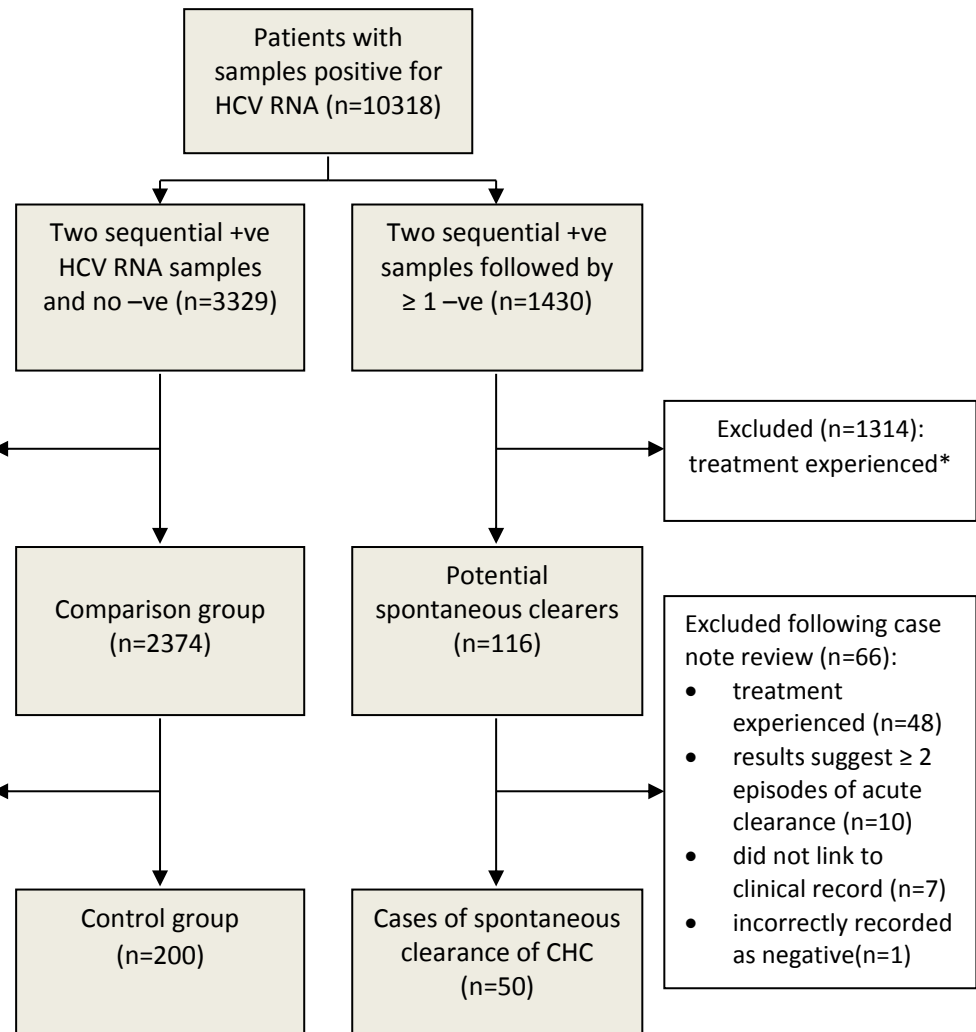
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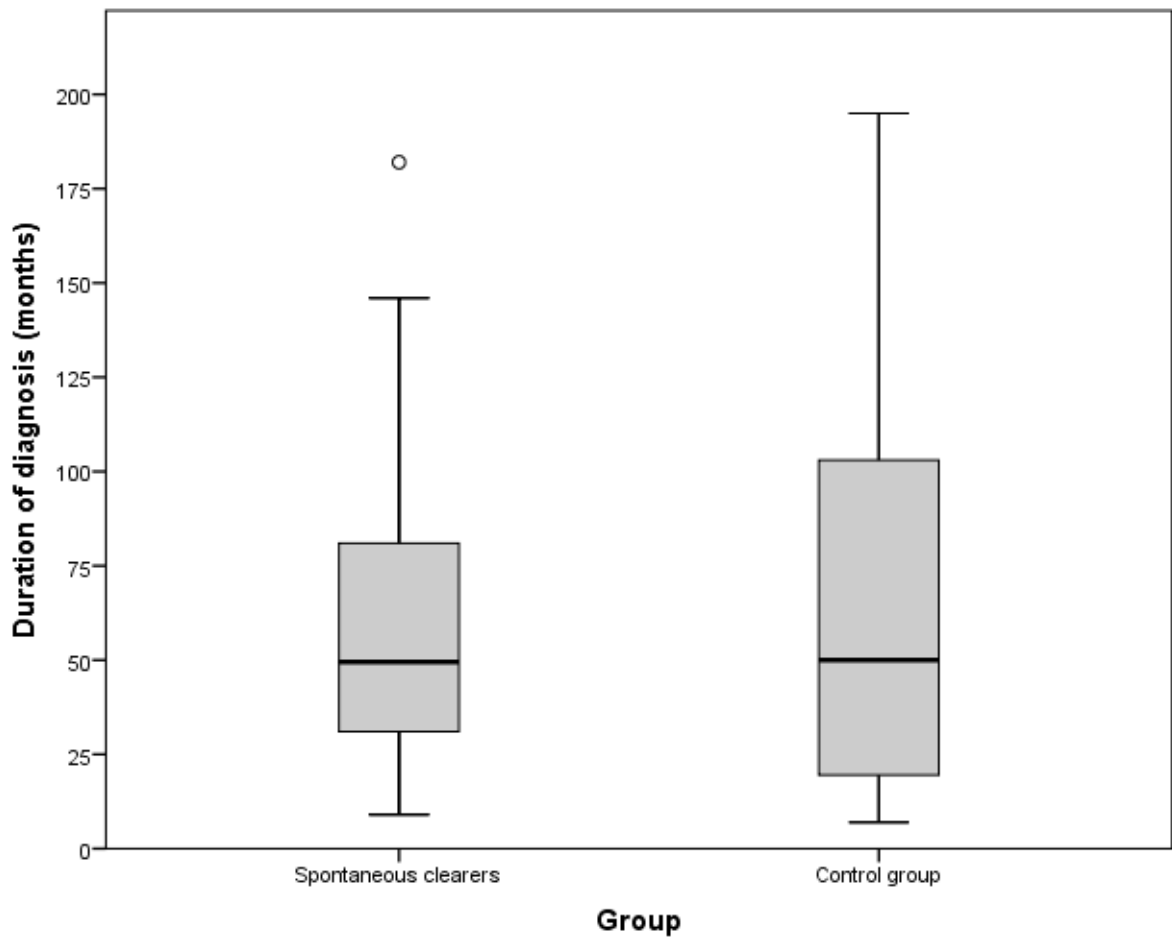
581 **Figure 1**

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\*Patients excluded following linkage to treatment data held in the Scottish Hepatitis C Clinical Database

609 **Figure 2**



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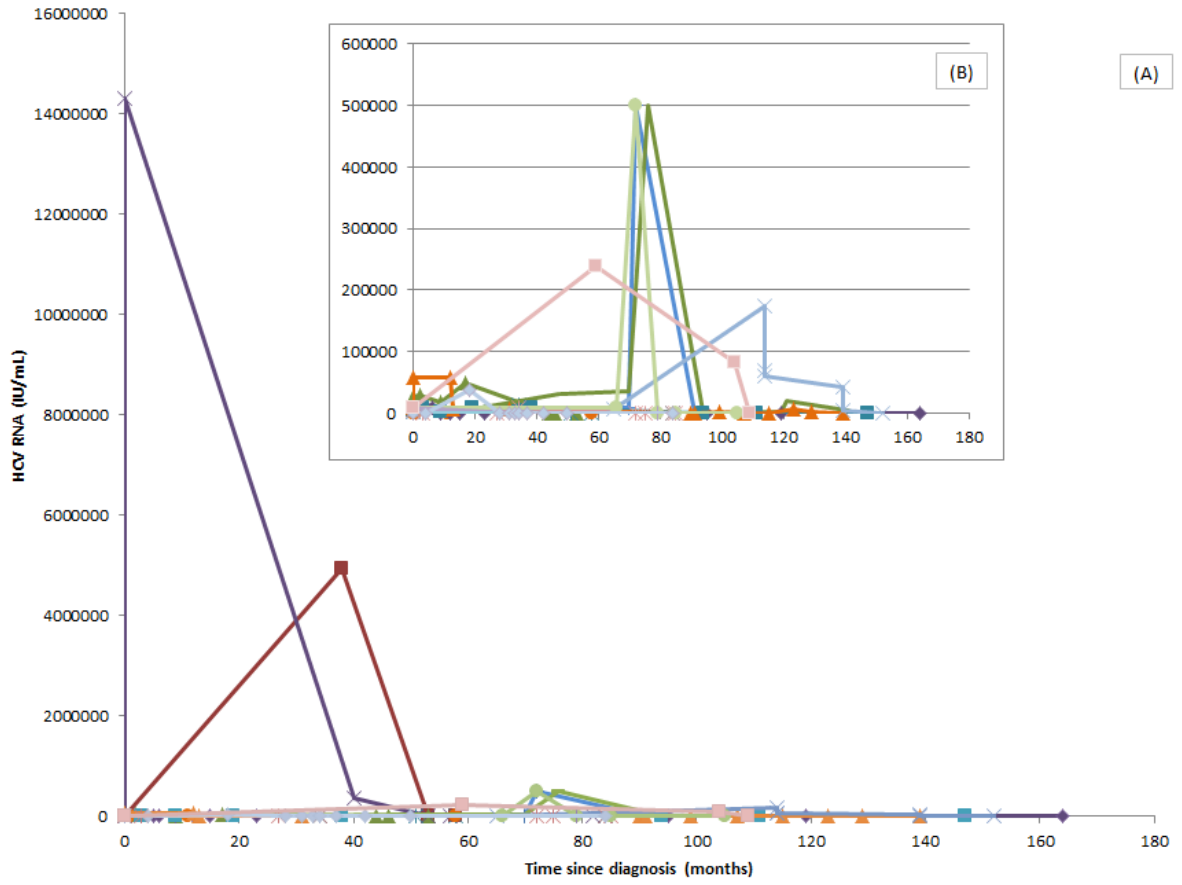
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619 **Figure 3**

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