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REVIEW ARTICLE

Epidemiology of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis in human immunodeficiency virus-positive men who have sex with men in Asia



Ada W.C. Lin ^a, Siddharth Sridhar ^b, Ka Hing Wong ^a,
 Susanna K.P. Lau ^{b,c,d}, Patrick C.Y. Woo ^{b,c,d,*}

^a Special Preventive Programme, Department of Health, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China

^b Department of Microbiology, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China

^c State Key Laboratory of Emerging Infectious Diseases, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China

^d Research Centre of Infection and Immunology, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China

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Both human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and viral hepatitis constitute major disease burden globally. As with other parts of the world, the HIV epidemic in Asia impacts mainly on men who have sex with men, one of the at-risk populations for sexually transmitted viral hepatitis. With the increasing availability of effective antiretroviral therapy, HIV-related mortality of people living with HIV has markedly reduced. Liver disease has become an important cause of mortality and morbidity in the HIV-infected population. With the improvement of socioeconomic conditions and availability of healthcare in Asian countries in recent years, the epidemiology of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis among HIV-positive men who have sex with men has also evolved. This review updates the epidemiology of different types of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis in this defined population in Asia.

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* Corresponding author. Department of Microbiology, University of Hong Kong, University Pathology Building, Queen Mary Hospital, 102 Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong.

E-mail address: pcywoo@hku.hk (P.C.Y. Woo).

Introduction

Globally, approximately 1.4 million people die from viral hepatitis annually.¹ Although these infections may be transmitted through various routes, many types of viral hepatitis are transmissible by sexual contact. This is especially true in defined at-risk populations such as men who have sex with men (MSM). Outbreaks of sexually transmitted hepatitis A among MSM has been extensively reported in Western countries,^{2–4} whereas hepatitis C has emerged as a commonly encountered sexually transmitted infection among MSM in the past decade, especially among individuals with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-positive MSM.^{5,6}

The highest burden of the HIV epidemic in Asia, apart from the injecting drug-using population in Central Asia, lies on the MSM population and is spread through sexual transmission.^{7,8} With the increasing availability of effective combination antiretroviral therapy, the mortality and morbidity of people living with HIV has markedly decreased.⁹ However, chronic liver disease has become an important cause of mortality in the HIV-infected population, a significant proportion of which is related to hepatitis B and C.^{10,11}

In this article, we review the epidemiology of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis, including hepatitis A, B, C, and D in the Asian HIV-positive MSM population. In addition, we explore the emerging role of other agents, such as hepatitis E virus (HEV), in contributing to sexually transmitted liver diseases in endemic settings. Studies in English were identified by PubMed using the keywords "HIV," "hepatitis," and "MSM," and supplemented with references of relevant publications.

Epidemiology of hepatitis A in HIV-positive MSM in Asia

The endemicity of hepatitis A in Asia is widely variable, ranging from areas of low (e.g., Japan, Singapore) and intermediate endemicity (e.g., Hong Kong) to high endemicity (e.g., India).^{12–14} Hepatitis A virus (HAV) seroprevalence among general adult populations in Asia ranges from 25.9% to 92.6%.^{12,15–19} Owing to the rise in sanitation standards, the endemicity of hepatitis A in many developing Asian countries has been decreasing over the past 2 decades. Paradoxically, in such transitional areas without mass vaccination programs, increasing populations are at risk of hepatitis A, who have not contracted it as an asymptomatic infection during childhood; this is reflected by the outbreaks of HAV reported in Japan, Thailand, Korea, and Singapore.^{16,20–22}

The HAV seroprevalence among HIV-positive MSM in Asian countries is summarized in Table 1. The reported HAV seroprevalence ranged from 15.1% to 50.5%^{23–28} and, like in the general population, was found to be associated with increasing age.^{23,27} The overall prevalence was higher than that reported in the United States (16.1%)²⁹ but rather comparable to that in Greece (35%).³⁰ Although the reported seroprevalence rates among HIV-positive MSM seem to be lower than in the general Asian adult population, it should be noted that most seroprevalence figures among

HIV-positive MSM are reported from resource-rich settings in Asia, and from relatively young individuals who were mostly aged < 50 years old.

Whereas outbreaks of HAV among HIV-positive MSM are reported in Europe,^{31,32} they are rarely reported in Asian countries. An outbreak involving 13 HIV-positive MSM was reported in Japan in 1999.³³ The majority (92%) of the infected individuals was coinfected with syphilis, and some (38.5%) had amebiasis. Although all patients recovered from acute hepatitis A, antiretroviral therapy was interrupted because of infection in a proportion (37.5%) of patients.

Overall, with the changing endemicity of hepatitis A in the region, a significant proportion of HIV-positive MSM, especially young MSM who are sexually active and from developed countries in Asia, are susceptible to the infection.³⁴ Although reports of HAV outbreaks among Asian HIV-positive MSM have been scarce so far, we need to remain vigilant, given their susceptibility as well as the potential connectivity from the sexual affiliation networking in this at-risk population.³⁵ Despite the reduced immunogenicity of hepatitis A vaccine compared with HIV-uninfected adults, immunization remains one important way to prevent hepatitis A among HIV-positive MSM. Although the extra benefit for the use of an additional dose of hepatitis A vaccine in HIV-infected adults remains uncertain, studies have demonstrated durable seropositive responses among HIV-infected adults with suppressed HIV viral load and high CD4 counts.^{36–38}

Epidemiology of hepatitis B in HIV-positive MSM in Asia

Asia has the highest burden of hepatitis B infection in the world.³⁹ With the commitment of the World Health Organization Western Pacific Region Office and member countries for hepatitis B control through a childhood immunization program, the hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) seroprevalence in children at least 5 years of age in some Asian countries has reached the target of <2%.⁴⁰ However, the disease burden of chronic hepatitis B among the adult population remains intermediate to high in the region, with HBsAg seroprevalence up to >8% in the adult population.³⁹

The HBsAg seroprevalence of HIV-positive MSM in Asia is summarized in Table 1.^{23–27,41–46} It is not surprising that the HBsAg seroprevalence among HIV-positive MSM is at least comparable, if not higher, than in the general adult population, given the similar route of transmission for both infections. In regions with territory-wide universal neonatal hepatitis B virus (HBV) immunization programs (e.g., Taiwan and Hong Kong), there is limited data showing that the burden of chronic hepatitis B among HIV-positive MSM might be on a decreasing trend over the past decade. In Taiwan, HBsAg seroprevalence among HIV-positive MSM born prior to and after the implementation of the universal neonatal HBV immunization program in 1986 was 7.8% and 3.7%, respectively.⁴¹ In Hong Kong, where the universal neonatal HBV immunization program was implemented in 1988, HBsAg seroprevalence among HIV-positive MSM in the

Table 1 Studies on seroprevalence/incidence of hepatitis A, B, C, and D in HIV-positive MSM in Asia.

References	Location	Period of study	Number tested	Seroprevalence (%)	Incidence of infection	Remarks
Hepatitis A						
Lam et al [23]	Hong Kong	2007–2013	1207	Anti-HAV: 37.1	—	
Tseng et al [24]	Taiwan	2009–2010	438	Anti-HAV: 15.1	—	Seroprevalence associated with increasing age
Lee et al [25]	Southern Taiwan	2000–2005	75	Anti-HAV: 40	—	
Sun et al [26]	Taiwan	2004–2007	658	Anti-HAV: 50.5	—	
Linkins et al [27]	Bangkok	2006–2008	290	Anti-HAV: 32.4	—	
Baek et al [28]	Korea	2008–2010	77	Anti-HAV: 37.3	—	Seroprevalence associated with increasing age
Hepatitis B						
Lam et al [23]	Hong Kong	2000–2013	1273	HBsAg: 9.6 Anti-HBs: 54.3	—	
Sun et al [41]	Taiwan	2006–2012	776 ^a	HBsAg: 7.8 Anti-HBc: 30.3 HBsAg: 3.7 Anti-HBc: 26.3	HBsAg seroconversion: 0.486/100 py (n = 479)	HBsAg seropositivity associated with syphilis and anti-HCV+
Tseng et al [24]	Taiwan	2009–2010	438	HBsAg: 16.4	—	
Lee et al [42]	Southern Taiwan	1997–2010	16	HBsAg: 6.3	—	
Lee et al [25]	Southern Taiwan	2000–2005	113	HBsAg: 17.7	—	
Sun et al [26]	Taiwan	2004–2007	658	HBsAg: 20.5	—	
Fukasaki et al [46]	Japan	2003–2007	394	HBsAg: 7.9	—	
Chow et al [43]	China	2000–2013	151	HBsAg: 18.3	—	
Heng et al [44]	Singapore	1990–1992	47	HBsAg: 8.5 (46.8% MSM)	Anti-HBc: 46.8	—
Linkins et al [27]	Bangkok	2006–2008	290	HBsAg: 15.8 Without any positive HBV marker positive: 22.4	—	
Zaw et al [45]	Myanmar	2005–2012	176	HBsAg: 13.4	—	
Hepatitis C						
Lam et al [23]	Hong Kong	2000–2013	1272	Anti-HCV: 1.3	—	
Lin et al [67]	Hong Kong	1998–2013	1311	—	Overall 2.2/1000 py 1998–2002: 1.3/1000 py 2002–2007: 1.9/1000 py 2007–2013: 4.7/1000 py	Associated with higher education and history of STIs
Sun et al [41]	Taiwan	2006–2012	752	Anti-HCV: 3.7	—	
Tseng et al [24]	Taiwan	2009–2010	438	Anti-HCV: 5.5	—	
Lee et al [25]	Southern Taiwan	2000–2005	113	Anti-HCV: 5.3	—	
Sun et al [26]	Taiwan	2004–2007	658	Anti-HCV: 6.4	—	
Lee et al [42]	Southern Taiwan	1997–2010	16	Anti-HCV: 6.1	—	
Sun et al [41]	Taiwan	1994–2010	892 (81.9% MSM, none IDU)	—	Overall 7/1000 py 1994–2000: 0/1000 py 2001–2005: 2.3/1000 py 2006–2010: 10.1/1000 py	Associated with syphilis
Nishijima et al [68]	Japan	2005–2012	753 (19% IDU)	—	Overall 9.35/1000 py 2005–2006: 0/1000 py 2007–2008: 3/1000 py 2009–2010: 7.7/1000 py 2011–2012: 24.9/1000 py	Sensitivity analysis (excluded IDU) similar findings

Table 1 (continued)

References	Location	Period of study	Number tested	Seroprevalence (%)	Incidence of infection	Remarks
Chow et al [43]	China	2000–2013	363	Anti-HCV: 8.4	—	
Zhang et al [76]	Beijing, China	2005–2006	16	Anti-HCV: 18.8	—	% of IDU not well described
An et al [77]	China	NA	513	Anti-HCV: 1.94	—	
Zhao et al [78]	Shandong, China	2000–2010	230	Anti-HCV: 24.3	—	Associated with syphilis; % of IDU not well described
Lim et al [79]	Singapore	2006–2011	739 (33.7% MSM)	Anti-HCV: 2	—	
Zaw et al [45]	Myanmar	2005–2012	176	Anti-HCV: 3.4	—	
<i>Hepatitis D</i>						
Hung et al [85]	Taiwan	1992–2012	257	Anti-HDV: 7.4	Overall 9.07/1000 py ^b 1992–2001: 0/1000 py 2002–2006: 3.91/1000 py 2007–2012: 13.6/1000 py	Associated with elevated RPR
Lee et al [86]	Southern Taiwan	2009–2012	51	Anti-HDV: 7.8	—	
<i>Hepatitis E</i>						
Liu et al [87]	Taiwan	2011	1371	Anti-HEV: 6.3		

HAV = hepatitis A virus; HBsAg = hepatitis B surface antigen; HBV = hepatitis B virus; HCV = hepatitis C virus; HDV = hepatitis D virus; HEV = hepatitis E virus; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; IDU = injecting drug users; MSM = men who have sex with men; py = person-years; NA = not applicable; RPR = rapid plasma reagent; STI = sexually transmitted infection.

^a Among the 776 patients, 244 were born before 1986, 532 were born after 1986.

^b Among a total of 375 patients.

largest HIV clinic was 12.3%, 10.1%, and 8.3% in the period 2000–2004, 2005–2009, and 2010–2013, respectively.

Compared with those who acquired HIV via the heterosexual route, HIV-positive MSM seemed to have higher prevalence of hepatitis B. Most studies, which also include the data of those who acquired HIV via the heterosexual route, showed a higher proportion of HIV-positive MSM with positive HBV markers compared with HIV-positive heterosexuals. A study from Singapore showed that 72.7% HIV-positive MSM versus 48% HIV-positive heterosexuals tested positive for HBV markers (HBsAg and/or anti-HBs and/or Hepatitis B core antibody (anti-HBc)).⁴⁴ A Taiwanese study found that HBsAg prevalence among HIV-positive MSM and heterosexuals was 17.7% and 12.8%, respectively,²⁴ whereas another study from Myanmar showed HBsAg seroprevalence of 13.4% and 9%, respectively.⁴⁵ However, a report from Hong Kong showed a higher HBsAg seroprevalence among HIV-positive heterosexual males (12.1%) than MSM (9.6%), probably owing to the younger age in the latter group.²³

Data regarding the HBV genotype among HIV-positive MSM in Asia are limited. Similar to the majority of the Asian hepatitis B carrying general population,⁴⁷ HBV genotypes B and C are the most commonly found genotypes in the HIV-infected population in Taiwan.⁴⁸ However, studies from Japan showed that genotype A, the predominant genotype among MSM in Europe, might be more commonly found among HIV-positive MSM. In 2001, genotype A was reported as predominantly found in HIV-positive MSM, in contrast to other genotypes found among HIV-positive heterosexual or hemophiliac patients.⁴⁹ More recent data also showed that

genotype A was the major circulating HBV genotype among HIV-positive MSM in Japan.⁴⁶ The predominant HBV genotype among HIV-positive MSM in other Asian countries is unknown.

Not surprisingly, the burden of HIV–HBV coinfection among MSM in Asia is significant. Despite limited data on decreasing trend of HBsAg seropositivity in HIV-positive MSM in regions with the universal neonatal HBV immunization program, the impact on the overall epidemiology of HIV–HBV coinfection among MSM in Asia is still uncertain. Moreover, serological markers for HBV are associated with host immunity and viral activities.⁵⁰ Thus, screening for HBV infection and recommendations on vaccination, especially with the use of increased dose to enhance serological response,^{51,52} for HBV susceptible HIV-positive MSM remains important. Furthermore, the use of antiretroviral therapy might also influence the epidemiology of hepatitis B in HIV-positive MSM. In a study reported from Taiwan, none of the 133 HIV-positive MSM on antiretroviral therapy with lamivudine and/or tenofovir developed HBsAg seroconversion during a follow-up period up to 6 years.⁴¹ Another two studies from Taiwan also found a lower incidence of HBV infection among those who were on lamivudine- or tenofovir-containing regimen.^{53,54}

Epidemiology of hepatitis C in HIV-positive MSM in Asia

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) has emerged as a sexually transmitted infection among HIV-positive MSM in the West. Since

2000, outbreaks of HCV among HIV-positive MSM who denied injecting drug use have been reported from the United States,^{55,56} Europe,^{57,58} and Australia.⁵⁹ The HCV incidence in HIV-positive MSM increased from 1 to 3/1000 patient-years (py) in the late 1990s to >10/1000 py from the early 2000s onward.⁶⁰ Certain risk factors associated with infection identified included unsafe sex, fisting, and sexually transmitted infections.^{61–65}

A similar trend has also been reported in Asia recently. In 2012, a Taiwanese study described an increasing incidence of hepatitis C in HIV-infected patients, and among them >80% were MSM.⁶⁶ Similar findings were reported from Hong Kong and Japan.^{67,68} All of them showed a rise in the incidence of hepatitis C among HIV-positive MSM in the past decade. Moreover, syphilis was found to be an independent factor associated with incident hepatitis C in Taiwan and Hong Kong, and higher education level was another independent factor found in the study from Hong Kong.⁶⁷ These reporting of HCV as a sexually transmitted infection among HIV-positive MSM in these resource-rich settings in Asia echoed the changing epidemiology of hepatitis C in Western countries where improved survival and serosorting were proposed to be contributing factors for the increasing prevalence of sexually transmitted infections including HCV.⁶⁹ The survival of people living with HIV has improved with the accessibility of antiretroviral therapy and good medical care in Asia, especially in resource-rich settings.^{9,70} However, the practice of serosorting among HIV-positive MSM, which is well recognized in Western countries, is largely unknown in Asia. Only one study from Taiwan reported that 27% of HIV-positive MSM under medical care practiced serosorting.⁷¹

HCV genotypes 1a and 4d are the predominant genotypes in sexually transmitted HCV in HIV-positive MSM in Europe, and there is robust evidence on MSM-specific clustering.^{60,72,73} Genotype 1a predominates in HIV-positive MSM in the United States, but there is a lack of information on clustering.⁷⁴ Genotype 3a is more prevalent among Australian HIV-positive MSM, however, around one half of the acute HCV infections among HIV-positive MSM in Australia were attributed to injecting drug use instead of sexual transmission.⁵⁹ In Asia, limited data found evidence of transmission clusters among HIV-positive MSM, but with different genotypes compared with those found in Western countries. In the Taiwanese study, the phylogenetic analysis revealed seven HCV transmission clusters or pairs (4 within genotype 1b, 2 within genotype 2a, and 1 within genotype 3a),⁶⁶ and a monophyletic cluster of HCV-3a lineage was found among HIV-positive MSM in Hong Kong.⁷⁵

Although incident HCV has been increasingly reported, the anti-HCV seroprevalence rates among HIV-positive MSM in most Asian countries were <10% (Table 1).^{23–27,41–45,67,68,76–79} Two studies from China reported an exceptionally high anti-HCV seroprevalence of 18.8% and 24.3%, however, the injecting drug use in these studies was not well described.^{76,78}

Epidemiology of hepatitis D in HIV-positive MSM in Asia

Hepatitis D virus (HDV) requires the presence of HBV to cause infection in humans, and is mainly transmitted

through parenteral and sexual routes.⁸⁰ In the early 1990s, heterosexual exposure was found to be an effective route of transmission of HDV in the general population.^{81,82} Among the HIV-infected population, HDV infection occurred mainly among injecting drug users.^{83,84} Studies on the seroprevalence of anti-HDV among HIV-positive MSM are limited. Two recent studies from Taiwan reported the anti-HDV seroprevalence to be 7.4% and 7.8% among HIV-positive MSM,^{85,86} which was higher than the 3.2% rate reported in Europe.⁷⁰ In these two studies, the anti-HDV seroprevalence among HIV-positive injecting drug users was 44% and 25%, respectively. One of these studies revealed a significant increase in the incidence of HDV infection in the study cohort from 2007 onward. Moreover, recent HDV infection was found to be associated with elevated rapid plasma reagin titers.⁸⁵

Epidemiology of hepatitis E in HIV-positive MSM in Asia

Little is known about the epidemiology of hepatitis E among Asian HIV-positive MSM. Data from Taiwan indicate a seroprevalence of 6.3% and 4.0% among HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected MSM, respectively.⁸⁷ In the Asian setting, hepatitis E epidemiology has two faces. It remains a waterborne disease with person-to-person transmission in most parts of South and Southeast Asia; in these regions, MSM are at risk of direct acquisition of hepatitis E through practices such as oroanal sex. However, in industrialized Asian countries such as Japan, hepatitis E usually manifests as sporadic autochthonous infection caused by the consumption of meat derived from an increasing range of animal reservoirs of HEV.^{88,89} Whereas fecal–oral human-to-human transmission of such autochthonous hepatitis E is generally considered to be limited, it is notable that MSM were found to be at an increased risk of acquiring hepatitis E irrespective of their HIV status in the United Kingdom, a region where hepatitis E is autochthonous and foodborne.⁹⁰

Further studies are required to assess the epidemiology of hepatitis E in the Asian MSM population. This is particularly important, as there is evidence to suggest that HEV superinfection in Asian hepatitis B carriers tends to produce clinically severe liver disease,⁹¹ a feature of relevance to the MSM population at risk of hepatitis B acquisition. Furthermore, HIV-positive patients with low CD4 counts stand a low, but well-defined, risk of chronic hepatitis E carriage with progression to liver cirrhosis.⁹² Therefore, hepatitis E is likely to be a condition of emerging importance in the HIV-positive MSM population. Studies on the efficacy of the recently developed hepatitis E vaccine^{93,94} suggest that it may be useful in prevention of hepatitis E among healthy MSM; however, the efficacy of the vaccine among HIV-infected MSM remains to be elucidated.

Conclusion

Asian countries are diverse in terms of socioeconomic conditions and availability of healthcare. In resource-rich settings, the epidemiology of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis in HIV-positive MSM parallels the evolution of the

situation in developed countries in other parts of the world. However, there are also unique features in the disease burden and molecular epidemiology of sexually transmitted viral hepatitis in Asia. Overall, viral hepatitis is increasingly recognized as a sexually transmitted infection among Asian HIV-positive MSM. Enhanced surveillance and targeted prevention of viral hepatitis including improved sanitation and food safety, safer sex, and vaccination is becoming increasingly essential in HIV care in this part of the world.

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