

Non-alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease

Hui-Hui Tan, *MRCP(UK), FAMS*, Jason Pik-Eu Chang, *MMed (Int Med), MRCP(UK)*

Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Singapore General Hospital, Singapore

ABSTRACT

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) comprises a disease spectrum ranging from benign hepatic steatosis to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis with inflammation (NASH) and liver cirrhosis. NAFLD is now recognised as the hepatic manifestation of the metabolic syndrome. Simple steatosis is benign, whereas NASH can progress to cirrhosis with its resultant complications. Liver biopsy remains the gold standard in the diagnosis of NAFLD/NASH. Lifestyle and dietary modifications to achieve sustained weight loss is the cornerstone of NAFLD/NASH treatment.

Keywords: cirrhosis, fibroscan, metabolic syndrome, steatosis, steatohepatitis

INTRODUCTION

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is an increasingly common cause of chronic liver disease world-wide. It comprises a disease spectrum ranging from benign hepatic steatosis to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis with inflammation (NASH) and liver cirrhosis (Fig. 1). Although simple steatosis appears to be benign, NASH can progress to cirrhosis with its resultant complications, including hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)¹. It is increasingly recognised that NASH accounts for a significant proportion of “cryptogenic” or “idiopathic” cirrhosis. Primary NAFLD often co-exists with at least 1 feature of the metabolic syndrome (impaired glucose tolerance, central obesity, hypertension, hypertriglyceridaemia, low high-density lipoprotein [HDL] cholesterol). Its prevalence increases with the severity and number of metabolic syndrome features². Insulin resistance appears to play a central role in the pathogenesis of primary NAFLD, which is now recognised as the hepatic manifestation of the metabolic syndrome³. Secondary causes of NAFLD include drugs, toxin exposure, parenteral nutrition, hypothyroidism, jejunoileal bypass surgery, etc (Table 1). This review is focused on the clinical aspects of primary NAFLD.

NATURAL HISTORY

There has been much interest with regards to the actual natural history of NAFLD. Current literature lack good longitudinal studies, some include non-standard definitions and diagnostic methods for NAFLD and often lack controls. The long-term clinical outcome of NAFLD is still controversial; although it has been described that prognosis varies with the degree of histologic injury.

Despite the limitations with sampling variability, liver biopsy remains the gold standard in NAFLD studies. Histology at time of diagnosis has been found to be the best predictor of disease progression. Benign steatosis without inflammation has a low likelihood of progression, whereas the presence of inflammation predicts progression to advanced fibrosis. Even in patients with fibrosis without inflammation, the risk of progression to advanced fibrosis is less. Patients with any inflammation in the setting of steatosis, have 2.5 times the likelihood of developing advanced fibrosis⁴. Several studies with paired liver biopsies have shown similar results with regards to fibrosis progression^{5–14}. Patients with histological evidence of NASH or fibrosis tended to be female (61%), obese (63%), insulin-resistant and in the fifth

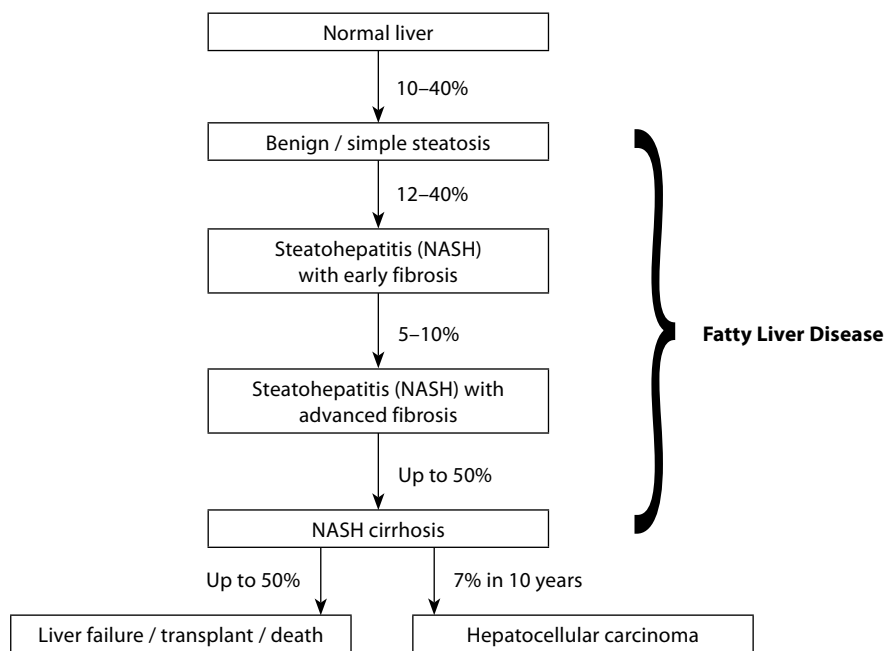


Fig. 1. Spectrum of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.

Table 1. Causes of NAFLDw/NASH.

Primary NAFLD/NASH

- Associated with the Metabolic Syndrome

Secondary NAFLD/NASH

- Toxin exposure
- Drugs (e.g. Tamoxifen, amiodarone, oestrogens, glucocorticoids, HAART therapy)
- Gastroplasty / bowel resection / bowel bypass surgery
- Rapid weight loss / starvation
- Parenteral nutrition
- Hypothyroidism
- Bacterial overgrowth
- Wilson's disease
- Weber-Christian disease
- Abetalipoproteinemia

decade of life (mean age 47 years). One-third of these patients developed advanced fibrosis over a mean follow-up of 5.3 years.

About 7% of NASH patients with compensated cirrhosis will develop HCC within 10 years, while 50% will require a transplant or die from liver related causes^{15,16}. Recently, some authors have described HCC in the non-cirrhotic fatty liver^{17–19}. How this might impact on disease management or surveillance is not yet known. NASH patients have a risk of increased overall mortality (compared to the general population) and increased liver-related mortality (compared to patients with benign steatosis alone)^{1,13,16,20,21}. Some studies have demonstrated an increased risk of cardiovascular mortality as compared to the general population¹³. Type 2 diabetic patients with NAFLD also have been described to have higher cardiovascular morbidity than type 2 diabetics without NAFLD²².

EPIDEMIOLOGY

The true incidence and prevalence of NAFLD is difficult to determine due to variations in disease definition and a lack of standardised diagnostic tools. Population-based studies have primarily used imaging modalities such as ultrasound to diagnose NAFLD. These studies are therefore unable to provide prevalence data on NASH, which requires a liver biopsy for diagnosis.

In the United States, NAFLD is the most common cause of chronic liver disease, with an estimated prevalence of 20–30% and an estimated prevalence of 3.5–5% for NASH^{23–25}. Suspected NAFLD represents one of the most common reasons why patients visit gastroenterologists in the ambulatory setting in the United States. Despite earlier reports which suggested a predominance of NAFLD in females, recent larger population studies have established that NAFLD occurs in both genders, all ethnicities and in all age groups, including children^{26–28}.

The prevalence of NAFLD and NASH increases with body weight. NAFLD has been documented in 10–15% normal individuals and up to 70–80% of obese individuals. Correspondingly, approximately 3% of non-obese individuals have underlying NASH as compared to 15–20% of morbidly obese individuals^{29,30}. Obesity (BMI [body mass index] >30kg/m²) is thus clearly associated with NASH, with an increased likelihood of developing

NASH with increasing BMI. However, it is well-documented that the mean BMI (<27.5kg/m²) in most Asian studies of fatty liver disease tends to be lower than that reported outside of Asia, where the mean BMI levels often exceed 32kg/m²³¹. Numerous studies have also clearly documented resolution of fatty liver following gradual weight loss^{32–35}. Patients with truncal obesity are at higher risk of developing diabetes, hypertension and fatty liver.

Although obesity and diabetes are frequently clustered within families, a clear-cut pattern of inheritance of risk for NAFLD has not been identified. Several instances of NAFLD affecting multiple members of the same family have been reported in patients with rare familial disorders such as hypobetalipoproteinemia³⁶.

Diabetes mellitus is a major component of the metabolic syndrome and is associated with obesity and NAFLD. Diabetes may be a risk factor for the development of fibrosis. NAFLD has also been associated with disorders of lipid metabolism and syndromes associated with severe insulin resistance (e.g. lipodystrophic diabetes and Mauriac syndrome).

More advanced stages of NAFLD are associated with older age, higher body mass index, diabetes, hypertension, high triglycerides, and/or insulin resistance. An AST/ALT (aspartate aminotransferase/ alanine aminotransferase) ratio greater >1 may also indicate more severe disease.

In Asian countries, epidemiological data regarding NAFLD remains scarce. Prevalence rates of NAFLD in Asian populations range from 12.2% in the Philippines to 17.2% in Southern China, with a higher prevalence (up to 42%) amongst Asians with diabetes and metabolic syndrome³⁷. In Singapore, significant NAFLD was found even in non-diabetic, pre-obese individuals³⁸. With the rising incidence of diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in Asian countries, we can expect an increased burden of disease from NAFLD in the present and future decades.

DIAGNOSIS

NAFLD is a clinical diagnosis based on the presence of transaminitis and fatty liver changes on ultrasound. The exclusion of other liver diseases, specifically alcohol-related liver disease, is a requisite criteria for diagnosis of primary NAFLD.

However, NAFLD can co-exist with other liver diseases such as chronic hepatitis C and hepatitis B. The proposed criteria for the diagnosis of NASH include (1) a histologic picture of steatohepatitis; (2) convincing evidence of minimal or no alcohol consumption; and (3) absence of serological evidence of viral hepatitis³⁹.

Evaluation of Suspected NAFLD

Most patients with NAFLD are asymptomatic and are diagnosed incidentally on routine blood tests and/or via ultrasound of the liver. In most patients, elevated ALT levels are discovered when transaminases are monitored in the setting of treatment of dyslipidemia with statins. Ultrasonographic fatty liver is sometimes diagnosed during evaluation for suspected gallstone disease.

Symptoms

There is limited data on symptomatology of NAFLD from longitudinal studies. Symptoms of fatty liver disease are unreliable, non-specific and do not correlate with the histological severity of the disease. When symptoms do occur in this condition, they are often non-specific and may not be brought to the attention of the physician. Fatigue has been reported to be the most common symptom. Some patients complain of right upper quadrant discomfort, which is typically a vague and nondescript ache. The development of ascites, jaundice and variceal haemorrhage indicate decompensated cirrhosis and are not specific for NASH-related cirrhosis.

Laboratory Abnormalities

Most patients with NAFLD have abnormal aminotransferases with elevated ALT and AST. The degree of transaminitis is often mild and is usually within 1–4 times the upper limit of normal, with ALT higher than AST. However, degree of ALT elevation does not correlate with histological severity of steatosis or fibrosis. A large proportion of NAFLD patients have normal liver enzymes, and a fraction of these patients may have significant NASH-related fibrosis despite normal ALT levels. Alkaline phosphatase (ALP) levels may also be mildly raised in NAFLD, up to twice the upper limit of normal. Similarly gamma glutamyltransferase (GGT) levels may be raised, although there is little data on the frequency and significance of GGT elevation in NAFLD. Bilirubin, albumin and prothrombin time are usually not

affected in fatty liver disease until cirrhosis and liver failure develop.

In patients without prior known type 2 diabetes mellitus, the presence of glucose intolerance and insulin resistance should be evaluated with fasting blood glucose, insulin levels and HbA1c. Thirty to 50% of patients with NASH are likely to have either diabetes or glucose intolerance. Fasting lipid profiles shows the presence of co-existing hypertriglyceridemia and/or elevated low-density lipoprotein (LDL) levels in 20–80% of NAFLD patients.

Elevated serum auto-antibodies are elevated in 10–25% of patients with NAFLD. Low titre (<1:160) antinuclear antibody (ANA) positivity has been documented in up to 33% of NAFLD patients⁴⁰. The significance of this association remains unclear. Liver biopsy is recommended in patients with suspected NAFLD with concomitant ANA titres >1:160 or anti smooth muscle titre >1:40 to exclude autoimmune hepatitis.

Exclusion of Other Causes of Transaminitis

The diagnosis of NAFLD requires the exclusion of alcoholic liver disease. It is thus important to obtain an accurate history of alcohol intake, including the daily quantity of alcohol consumption. There is no consensus agreement regarding the precise definition of significant alcohol consumption. However, the generally accepted cut-off for purposes of diagnosis of NAFLD is <10g of alcohol per day for females and <20g/day for males or no more than 1 drink per day for women and no more than 2 drinks per day in men. It is noteworthy that in individuals with metabolic risk factors such as obesity and diabetes, lower quantities of alcohol may contribute to significant liver disease, thus making the distinction even more challenging.

Chronic viral hepatitis should be excluded by the relevant serological screening tests for hepatitis B and C. Wilson disease should similarly be excluded by screening for caeruloplasmin levels. The presence of low titres of ANA positivity is common in NAFLD, however persistently high titres should be evaluated with a liver biopsy to exclude autoimmune hepatitis. A thorough drug history should be taken in order to exclude drug-related causes of transaminitis. In the local context, this should include a detailed enquiry into the use of traditional medications.

Diagnosis of NASH

NASH is a histological diagnosis, and is characterised by the demonstration of macrovesicular steatosis, lobular inflammation, balloon degeneration of hepatocytes and pericellular fibrosis.

Liver biopsy is the current gold standard for the diagnosis of NASH. However there are practical limitations and controversies surrounding the use of liver biopsy as a regular diagnostic tool for suspected NASH in NAFLD patients. Liver biopsy is invasive and is associated with small risk of morbidity such as haemorrhage, biliary peritonitis and bowel perforation. In addition, liver biopsy is associated with a small (0.1%) risk of mortality⁴¹. As such, liver biopsy is poorly accepted by patients, especially for repeated assessment to determine disease resolution or deterioration. This limits its use as a practical diagnostic tool for NASH in the large volume of fatty liver patients encountered in day-to-day clinical practice. There are also technical limitations to the accuracy of liver biopsy, in particular sampling variability and interobserver variation. The precise histological definition of NASH is also controversial, with the existence of multiple scoring systems. In 2005, Kleiner *et al* described the NAFLD Activity Score in an attempt to introduce some form of standardisation for histological scoring in NAFLD trials, but its generalisability and clinical utility remain undetermined⁴².

As a result of the invasive nature and poor acceptance of liver biopsy, much effort has been undertaken to identify non-invasive means of evaluating NASH. Over the past decade, several serum panels and diagnostic tools have shown promising results in the non-invasive estimation of fibrosis in NASH. However, to date, there has been very limited success in the ability to predict the degree of steatohepatitis in a non-invasive manner.

There have been numerous studies which have described the use of non-invasive prediction models for NASH using serum markers. Most of these studies were of small sample size and lacked external validation. Some recently described models with relatively large sample size and some degree of external validation are discussed here. The NAFLD fibrosis score consists of 6 variables (age, BMI, AST/ALT ratio, hyperglycemia, platelet count and albumin) was reported to reliably predict advanced fibrosis in NAFLD patients⁴³. Other

similar scoring systems which have shown promise as non-invasive indicators of NASH fibrosis include the European Liver Fibrosis panel, BARD score and Fibrotest^{44–46}. However, these models require extensive external validation before they can be recommended for widespread clinical use.

Measurement of liver stiffness by transient elastography (Fibroscan) is a novel diagnostic tool that has been shown to be useful for the non-invasive diagnosis of fibrosis in NAFLD patients⁴⁷. In a recent study, Wong *et al* reported that the performance of transient elastography was superior to serum markers (APRI, NAFLD fibrosis score and BARD score)⁴⁸.

Apart from fibrosis, assessment of hepatic steatosis is also important in NAFLD. The presence of fat in the liver can be detected using various imaging modalities, including ultrasound, computer tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In a study comparing ultrasound and CT, ultrasonography was found to be more sensitive in detecting fatty change⁴⁹. However, when fatty change is patchy or focal, CT and MRI are superior to ultrasound. In addition, MRI and CT offer the ability to provide semi-quantitative estimation of degree of steatosis.

MANAGEMENT (see TABLE 2)

Lifestyle Modification

The overall goal in lifestyle modifications for the treatment of NAFLD is to achieve gradual and sustained weight loss among obese patients through increased physical activity and dietary modifications. The major contributors of increased flux of fatty acids through the liver of NASH patients has been identified to be inappropriate adipose tissue lipolysis and hepatic de novo lipogenesis from excessive carbohydrates⁵⁰. Insulin resistance is a major contributing factor to inadequate postprandial suppression of adipocyte lipolysis. Hyperinsulinaemia with impaired peripheral glucose metabolism promotes de novo lipogenesis in the liver.

Diet

Dietary modifications involve reducing the intake of foods which promote insulin resistance or hepatic lipotoxicity. For example, foods with high fat content increase circulating free fatty acids that are liberated by lipoprotein lipase. Moderate weight loss (approximately 6%) via caloric restriction

Table 2. Treatment options for NAFLD/NASH.

Non-Pharmacological	Pharmacological
Lifestyle modification <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Dietary modifications ▪ Exercise ▪ Combined diet & exercise Surgery <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Restrictive bariatric surgery ▪ Malabsorptive bariatric surgery ▪ Combination restrictive-malabsorptive surgery ▪ Liver transplantation 	Weight-loss agents <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Orlistat ▪ Sibutramine Insulin-sensitizers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Thiazoladinediones ▪ Metformin Anti-fibrotic / hepatoprotective agents <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Anti-oxidants ▪ Ursodeoxycholic acid ▪ Others

improves insulin resistance and intrahepatic lipid content⁵¹.

a. Fructose

High fructose consumption is associated with the development of insulin resistance and NAFLD in epidemiologic studies^{52–54}. Large amounts of fructose depletes hepatic energy because of rapid first-pass by the liver and phosphorylation by phosphofructokinase^{55,56}. Fructose also impairs satiety mechanisms^{57,58}, further aggravating the problem of excessive caloric consumption.

b. Polyunsaturated fats

Several human observational^{59–62} and animal studies^{63,64} have demonstrated an improvement in liver triglyceride content and serum ALT levels with diets rich in polyunsaturated fats rather than monounsaturated fats.

c. Trans-fats

Double bonds in unsaturated fatty acids exist in *cis* configuration. During hydrogenation of unsaturated fats to saturated fats, some double bonds are isomerised to the *trans* configuration instead of being reduced to single bonds. Epidemiologic studies have identified trans-fats as a risk for cardiovascular disease⁶⁵. However, data is scarce on the effects of trans-fats in the liver. In mice, trans-fat feeding resulted in severe steatohepatitis⁶⁶. Trans-fat content in

adipose tissue of NAFLD patients has also been observed to be higher than in control patients⁶⁷. Not more than 2g/day of trans-fats should be consumed in the adult diet⁶⁸.

Exercise

Observational studies have shown an inverse correlation between fitness levels and NAFLD/NASH^{69–71}. However, the long-term effects of improved fitness through regular aerobic exercise in NAFLD/NASH have not been established.

There is limited data on the effects of exercise alone in the management of NASH, as it is difficult to eliminate confounders such as weight loss and dietary changes. Some studies also question the role of exercise alone. A small study of diet and exercise for 2 weeks showed that caloric restriction reduced liver fat, but 2 weeks of exercise did not provide any additive benefit⁷². Another small study found that countering weight loss with a high-carbohydrate diet negated the beneficial effects of exercise on insulin resistance in overweight adults⁷³.

Combination Dietary Modifications and Exercise

Lifestyle modification combining exercise and weight loss effectively improves insulin sensitivity and prevents diabetes^{74–77}. Several studies have demonstrated that even small amounts of weight loss (5% to 10%) results in significant improvements in NAFLD and NASH^{78–80}. A large population study found that exercise and caloric restriction improved liver fat content after 9 months, despite only a 3.2% decrease in BMI⁸¹. Few studies include biopsies at the end of treatment and large, well-controlled

trials have not been published. For example, 10 studies consisting of 626 total patients have been published evaluating the effect of combination calorie restriction with exercise, but liver histology was the primary end point in only 4 of them (123 patients)⁸². Weight loss is difficult to sustain, hence, most studies are focused on changes which occur over a relatively short period of time.

Attaining ideal BMI is not a requisite for improvement in aminotransferases. In fact, rapid weight loss (>1.6 kg/week) should be avoided as it may exacerbate steatohepatitis or liver disease. Ideal lifestyle modification should aim for 90 to 140 minutes of aerobic forms of exercise per week with moderate caloric restriction (25 kcal/kg/day)⁸³, to achieve a 7% to 10% weight loss over a 6 to 12 month period^{84,85}.

Pharmacological Therapy

Although mild to moderate weight loss has been demonstrated to benefit NAFLD/NASH, this is difficult to sustain by diet and exercise alone. As a high level of motivation is required, poor compliance is often an issue⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹. Furthermore, the existence of other co-morbidities associated with or as a consequence of the metabolic syndrome (e.g. cardiovascular disease, osteoarthritis) often preclude the ability to achieve the target level of physical activity⁹⁰. Hence the interest to develop effective pharmacotherapy to either achieve sustainable weight loss or improve the effects of NAFLD/NASH via other pathways. However, there are several unresolved issues with pharmacotherapy in NAFLD. Firstly, there are no clear recommendations when or in whom pharmacotherapy is indicated. It is believed that bland steatosis may worsen insulin resistance, whereas steatohepatitis may worsen liver disease and progress to frank cirrhosis. Although lifestyle modifications should be encouraged in all NAFLD patients, some authors suggest that only NASH patients should be offered pharmacotherapy⁹¹. However, a recent report suggests that steatosis alone may not be entirely benign²⁰. In which case, perhaps pharmacotherapy should be offered to NAFLD patients who fail lifestyle modifications, or be offered concurrently with lifestyle modifications? Secondly, regardless the mechanism of action of drug employed and improved histologic changes demonstrated, studies have unanimously reported a regression of liver histology upon drug cessation. Thirdly, study design makes for difficult

comparisons across studies. Variability ranges from inclusion/exclusion criteria, treatment/follow-up duration, the lack of histology at diagnosis, the lack of paired biopsies, to some studies including more than two treatment arms. Most studies have been small- to moderately-sized and few well-controlled trials have been reported. Fourth, as most drugs target a specific pathway in the development of NASH, no specific pharmacologic intervention has been found ideal because the pathogenesis of this disease is complex, involving the interaction of multiple pathways. Nevertheless, drug therapy in NAFLD can be classified according to those which promote weight loss, improve insulin resistance or prevent fibrosis.

Weight Loss Agents

Orlistat reduces the absorption of dietary triglycerides by 30% via the inhibition of gastric and pancreatic lipases. This results in a modest weight loss⁹² with improvement of insulin sensitivity⁹²⁻⁹⁵. Small studies have reported improvements in liver enzymes^{96,97} and NASH histology⁹⁸. Two randomised prospective trials have been published which do not demonstrate the benefit of orlistat in NASH beyond that of weight loss^{80,99}. There have also been recent concerns regarding the safety of orlistat in view of recent reports of hepatic failure occurring in some patients¹⁰⁰. However, causality is not conclusively proven.

Sibutramine, a serotonin and noradrenaline re-uptake inhibitor, used as a weight loss agent has reported improved insulin resistance, biochemical and radiologic parameters¹⁰¹. However, concerns regarding its safety have resulted in the US Food and Drug Administration advising against its use in patients with cardiovascular risk¹⁰².

Insulin Sensitizers

Insulin resistance plays a key role in the pathogenesis of NASH. As such, it is hoped that improving insulin sensitivity would reverse NAFLD/NASH. However, some studies have shown that this alone may not be enough to improve liver injury¹⁰³.

a. Thiazolidinediones

Glitazones are peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma (PPAR γ) agonists which improve insulin sensitivity by increasing the uptake of fatty acids in adipose tissue, reducing hepatic glucose production and

increasing glucose uptake by peripheral muscles. Various drugs have been used, including rosiglitazone and pioglitazone. Four randomised trials involving 213 subjects^{103–106} and 2 open-label studies^{107,108} with paired histology have been published. Studies using the glitazones have consistently demonstrated reductions in transaminase levels and improved hepatic steatosis sustained throughout the treatment period. Some studies have even reported a normalisation of liver enzymes while on therapy. Improvements in transaminase levels have correlated with improved insulin sensitivity and loss of liver fat^{103,104}. Improvement in hepatic fibrosis is less consistent^{103,106–108}. There is concern over increased cardiovascular risk with the use of glitazones, including heart failure and myocardial infarction¹⁰⁹ and a black-box warning is issued for these adverse effects. Weight gain is a frequent adverse effect, due to the expansion of peripheral adipose tissue, and is not reversible despite treatment cessation¹¹⁰. This weight gain is not associated with increased cardio-metabolic risk.

b. Metformin

Initial studies using metformin for short periods could demonstrate substantial improvements in serum transaminases^{111–113}. A Cochrane meta-analysis showed that metformin leads to normalisation of serum aminotransferases compared with dietary modification and improved steatosis by imaging¹¹⁴. However, open-label studies with longer treatment durations cast doubts over whether this effect is sustained beyond 6 months of therapy^{115,116}. The benefits of metformin on liver histology are not consistently demonstrated^{112,113,117}.

Anti-fibrotic/Hepatoprotective Agents

a. Anti-oxidants

The use of anti-oxidants as a potential means to treat NASH is based on the hypothesis that oxidative stress is a key player in the pathogenesis of steatohepatitis and fibrosis development. Several drugs have been tried, including vitamin E, vitamin C, combination vitamin E and C¹¹⁸, probucol^{119,120}, N-acetylcysteine^{121,122}. Studies have also been conducted combining anti-oxidants with other

therapies (e.g. with insulin-sensitisers). However, none of the anti-oxidants nor their combinations have shown consistent results in terms of biochemical nor histological benefits in NASH. To date, there is insufficient data to recommend the use of anti-oxidants as a treatment for NASH.

b. Ursodeoxycholic acid

Ursodeoxycholic acid is used as a hepatoprotective agent^{123,124} which initially showed promise as a treatment for NASH. However, subsequent larger randomised control studies failed to demonstrate benefit in NASH histology, except for an improvement in steatosis^{125,126}. A French study using high-dose ursodeoxycholic acid reported significant reductions in serum ALT levels and Fibrotest fibrosis marker^{46,127}.

Other Options

Other drugs which have shown some promise in animal studies of NASH include angiotensin-receptor blockers^{128–130}, betaine¹³¹, pentoxifylline^{132–136}, nateglinide¹³⁷, rimonabant^{138,139}, probiotic VSL#3^{140,141}, synthetic adiponectin¹⁴², leptin infusion^{143,144}. Only a few studies have been performed in a small number of humans. Some of these studies with favourable outcomes for insulin resistance or obesity do not report specifically on liver outcomes. In late 2008, Sanofi-Aventis and Pfizer terminated their studies with rimonabant because of safety concerns. None of these drugs can yet be recommended as NASH therapy.

Bariatric Surgery

Local guidelines suggest a BMI >37.5 kg/m² without risk factors or BMI >32.5 kg/m² with risk factors or co-morbidities to be indications to consider bariatric surgery¹⁴⁵. Bariatric surgery can be classified by their mechanisms of inducing weight loss: restrictive, malabsorptive or combination procedures.

Restrictive-type bariatric surgery reduces the capacity of the gastric reservoir, leading to early satiety and reduced food and caloric intake. Current options include adjustable gastric banding and sleeve gastrectomy. These laparoscopic surgical options are preferred in the high-risk surgical patient as they are less invasive and easier to perform than malabsorptive surgeries.

Table 3. Approach to the NAFLD/NASH patient in the clinical setting.

1. Confirm the diagnosis of NAFLD/NASH
▪ Involves history-taking to exclude significant alcohol/drug intake or toxin-exposure
▪ Involves the exclusion of other possible causes of abnormal liver tests or liver imaging
▪ Consider liver biopsy for diagnostic and prognostic purposes
2. Screen and treat risk factors of the Metabolic Syndrome
▪ i.e. insulin resistance, hypertension, central obesity, hyperlipidaemia
3. Advise lifestyle modifications
▪ including exercise (30–45 minutes thrice weekly) and dietary modifications
▪ reduce sedentary lifestyle
▪ avoid too rapid weight loss (>1.6kg/week)
4. Consider pharmacologic therapy as part of clinical trial or to control metabolic risk factors
▪ e.g. the use of metformin in a diabetic patient
5. Consider surgical therapy
▪ Bariatric surgery for patients with BMI >32.5kg/m ² with co-morbidities or BMI >37.5 kg/m ² without co-morbidities
▪ Liver transplantation in a patient with decompensated NASH cirrhosis with / without hepatocellular carcinoma

Malabsorptive surgeries create a “short gut” by bypassing variable lengths of the small bowel to reduce intestinal absorption. The original jejunoileal bypass which achieved remarkable weight loss by bypassing >90% of the small intestine is no longer performed in view of its numerous resultant complications, including electrolyte losses and bacterial overgrowth^{146,147}.

Roux-en-Y gastric bypass and biliopancreatic diversion surgeries employ a combination of both restrictive and malabsorptive techniques. The gastric bypass can also be performed laparoscopically, reducing operative morbidity¹⁴⁸. The Biliopancreatic diversion was initially developed to avoid the stasis associated with intestinal bypass by maintaining a flow of bile and pancreatic juice through the biliopancreatic limb¹⁴⁹.

Large case-cohort and meta-analysis studies of morbidly obese patients have demonstrated the benefits of bariatric surgery on survival and in improving their co-morbidities (e.g. diabetes, cardiovascular disease)^{146,150,151}. There have been reports of improved liver steatosis, inflammatory scores and fibrosis with both restrictive and combination type surgeries^{152–160}. Some of these studies have even reported complete resolution of NAFLD/NASH^{155,157}.

Although improvements in hepatic steatosis and inflammation have been fairly consistent across several studies, the effects on fibrosis have been less uniform. A small study of 7 obese patients also demonstrated an improvement in hepatic gene expression of several profibrogenic cytokines as a result of gastric bypass surgery, despite a lack of improvement of hepatic inflammation and fibrosis scores¹⁶¹.

Caution must be exercised to avoid surgery which results in too drastic weight loss, which has been reported to lead to acute steatohepatitis, cholestasis, hepatic decompensation and even death in some patients¹⁶². Patients with significant pre-existing liver disease prior to bariatric surgery are less likely to tolerate surgeries with large malabsorptive components.

Liver Transplantation

NASH cirrhosis is an increasingly common indication for liver transplantation. According to the North American United Network for Organ Sharing (UNOS) data, NASH cirrhosis accounted for 0.1% of liver transplantations in 1996, compared to 3.5% of transplantations in 2005¹⁶³. The reported one and three year patient survival is approximately 93% and 81% respectively, which is comparable to survival rates for liver transplantation performed for other indications^{164,165}.

NAFLD and NASH recurrence post-transplantation is common. Furthermore, the prevalence and severity of obesity and the metabolic syndrome also increase after liver transplantation^{166,167}. Approximately 25% of patients develop steatosis within the first year after transplantation, and nearly 50% by 4 years. Up to 50% of patients with recurrent steatosis fulfill histologic criteria for NASH^{168–173}. NAFLD/NASH recurrence may also run a more aggressive course post-transplantation; some studies have reported significant fibrosis occurring in the graft as early as 1 year after transplantation¹⁶⁴. Post-transplantation survival is compromised in patients with recurrent NASH¹⁷¹.

Risk factors for recurrent or de novo NAFLD identified in cross-sectional, post-transplantation studies include pre- and post-transplantation obesity, weight gain, diabetes mellitus/insulin resistance, decreased HDL cholesterol, and elevated total cholesterol and hypertension^{163,168}. The use of corticosteroids and calcineurin inhibitor-based immunosuppression may contribute to the prevalence of these risk factors in the transplant recipient.

CONCLUSION

NAFLD is an increasingly common cause of chronic liver disease worldwide with potential for substantial impact on healthcare costs from its morbidity and mortality. A better understanding of the natural history and epidemiology of the disease has emerged, although ideal pharmacologic therapy is still lacking. Lifestyle modification via a multidisciplinary approach is required to both treat NAFLD and to reduce the morbidity and mortality from other features of the metabolic syndrome (Table 3).

REFERENCES

- Matteoni CA, Younossi ZM, Gramlich T, Boparai N, Liu YC, McCullough AJ. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a spectrum of clinical and pathological severity. *Gastroenterology*. 1999;116(6):1413–9.
- Marchesini G, Bugianesi E, Forlani G, Cerrelli F, Lenzi M, Manini R, et al. Nonalcoholic fatty liver, steatohepatitis, and the metabolic syndrome. *Hepatology*. 2003;37(4):917–23.
- Ludwig J, Viggiano TR, McGill DB, et al. Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: mayo clinic experience with a hitherto unnamed disease. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 1980;55(7):434–8.
- Argo CK, Northup PG, Al-Osaimi AM, Caldwell SH. Systematic review of risk factors for fibrosis progression in non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *J Hepatol*. 2009;51(2):371–9. Epub 2009 May 3.
- Powell EE, Cooksley WG, Hanson R, Searle J, Halliday JW, Powell LW. The natural history of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a follow-up study of forty-two patients for up to 21 years. *Hepatology*. 1990;11(1):74–80.
- Ratzliff V, Giral P, Charlotte F, Bruckert E, Thibault V, Theodorou I, et al. Liver fibrosis in overweight patients. *Gastroenterology*. 2000;118(6):1117–23.
- Harrison SA, Torgerson S, Hayashi PH. The natural history of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a clinical histopathological study. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2003;98(9):2042–7.
- Evans CDJ, Oien KA, MacSween RNM, Mills PR. Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: a common cause of progressive chronic liver injury? *J Clin Pathol*. 2002;55(9):689–92.
- Adams LA, Sanderson S, Lindor KD, Angulo P. The histological course of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a longitudinal study of 103 patients with sequential liver biopsies. *J Hepatol*. 2005;42(1):132–8.
- Hui AY, Wong VW, Chan HL, Liew CT, Chan JL, Chan FK, et al. Histological progression of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in Chinese patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2005;21(4):407–13.
- Lee RG. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a study of 49 patients. *Hum Pathol*. 1989;20(6):594–8.
- Bacon BR, Farahvash MJ, Janney CG, Neuschwander-Tetri BA. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: an expanded clinical entity. *Gastroenterology*. 1994;107(4):1103–9.
- Ekstedt M, Franzen LE, Mathiesen UL, Thorelius L, Holmqvist M, Bodemar G, et al. Long-term follow-up of patients with NAFLD and elevated liver enzymes. *Hepatology*. 2006;44(4):865–73.
- Fassio E, Alvarez E, Dominguez N, Landeira G, Longo C. Natural history of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a longitudinal study of repeat liver biopsies. *Hepatology*. 2004;40(4):820–6.
- Sanyal AJ, Banas C, Sargeant C, Luketic VA, Sterling RK, Stravitz RT, et al. Similarities and differences in outcomes of cirrhosis due to nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and hepatitis C. *Hepatology*. 2006;43(4):682–9.
- Adams LA, Lymp JF, St Sauver J, Sanderson SO, Lindor KD, Feldstein A, et al. The natural history of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a population-based cohort study. *Gastroenterology*. 2005;129(1):113–21.
- Bullock RE, Zaitoun AM, Aithal GP, Ryder SD, Beekingham IJ, Lobo DN. Association of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis without significant fibrosis with hepatocellular carcinoma. *J Hepatol*. 2004;41(4):685–6.
- Maeda T, Hashimoto K, Kihara Y, Ikegami T, Ishida T, Aimitsu S, et al. Surgically resected hepatocellular carcinomas in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Hepatogastroenterology*. 2008;55(85):1404–6.
- Zen Y, Katayanagi K, Tsuneyama K, Harada K, Araki I, Nakanuma Y. Hepatocellular carcinoma arising in non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Pathol Int*. 2001;51(2):127–31.
- Rafiq N, Bai C, Fang Y, Srishord M, McCullough A, Gramlich T, et al. Long-term follow-up of patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2009;7(2):234–8. Epub 2008 Nov 7.
- Feldstein AE, Charatcharoenwitthaya P, Treeprasertsuk S, Benson JT, Enders FB, Angulo P. The natural history of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in children: a follow-up study for up to 20 years. *Gut*. 2009;58(11):1538–44.
- Targher G, Bertolini L, Poli F, Rodella S, Scala L, Tessari R, et al. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and risk of future cardiovascular events among type 2 diabetic patients. *Diabetes*. 2005;54(12):3541–6.
- Collantes R, Ong JP, Younossi ZM. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and the epidemic of obesity. *Cleve Clinic J Med*. 2004;71(8):657–64.
- Browning JD, Szczepaniak LS, Dobbins R, Nuremberg P, Horton JD, Cohen JC, et al. Prevalence of hepatic steatosis in an urban population in the United States: impact of ethnicity. *Hepatology*. 2004;40(6):1387–95.

25. Clark JM, Brancati FL, Diehl AM. The prevalence and etiology of elevated aminotransferase levels in the United States. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2003;98(5):960–7.
26. Bacon BR, Farahvash MJ, Janney CG, Neuschwander Tetri BA. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: an expanded clinical entity. *Gastroenterology* 1994;107(4):1103–9.
27. Teli MR, James OF, Burt AD, Bennett MK, Day CP. The natural history of nonalcoholic fatty liver: a follow-up study. *Hepatology*. 1995;22(6):1714–19.
28. Franzese A, Vajro P, Argenziano A, Puziello A, Iannucci MP, Saviano MC, et al. Liver involvement in obese children. Ultrasonography and liver enzyme levels at diagnosis and during follow-up in an Italian population. *Dig Dis Sci*. 1997;42(7):1428–32.
29. Anderson T, Christoffersen P, Gludd C. The liver in consecutive patients with morbid obesity: a clinical morphological and biochemical study. *Int J Obes*. 1984;8(2):107–15.
30. Tominaga K, Kurata JH, Chen YK, Fujimoto E, Miyagawa S, Abe I, et al. Prevalence of fatty liver in Japanese children and relationship to obesity. An epidemiological ultrasonographic survey. *Dig Dis Sci*. 1995;40(9):2002–9.
31. Chitturi S, Farrell GC, Hashimoto E, Saibara T, Lau GK, Sollano JD, et al. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in the Asia-Pacific region: definitions and overview of proposed guidelines. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2007;22(6):778–87.
32. Luyckx FH, Desai C, Thiry A, Dewe W, Scheen AJ, Gielen JE, Lefebvre PJ. Liver abnormalities in severely obese subjects: effect of drastic weight loss after gastroplasty. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 1998;22:222–226.
33. Ranløv I, Hardt F. Regression of liver steatosis following gastroplasty or gastric bypass for morbid obesity. *Digestion*. 1990;47(4):208–214.
34. Park HS, Kim MW, Shin ES. Effect of weight control on hepatic abnormalities in obese patients with fatty liver. *J Korean Med Sci*. 1995;10(6):414–421.
35. Eriksson S, Eriksson KF, Bondesson L. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in obesity: a reversible condition. *Acta Med Scand*. 1986;220(1):83–88.
36. Partin JS, Partin JC, Schubert WK, McAdams AJ. Liver ultrastructure in abetalipoproteinemia: evolution of micronodular cirrhosis. *Gastroenterology*. 1974; 67(1):107–118.
37. Tsai CH, Li TC, Lin CC. Metabolic syndrome as a risk factor for non-alcoholic liver disease. *South Med J*. 2008;101(9):900.
38. Chow WC, Tai ES, Lian SC, Tan CK, Sng I, Ng HS. Significant non-alcoholic fatty liver disease is found in non-diabetic, pre-obese Chinese in Singapore. *Singapore Med J*. 2007;48(8):752.
39. Powell EE, Cooksley WG, Hanson R, Searle J, Halliday JW, Powell LW. The natural history of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a follow-up study of forty-two patients for up to 21 years. *Hepatology*. 1990;11(1):74–80.
40. Cotler SJ, Kanji K, Keshavarzian A, Jensen DM, Jakate S. Prevalence and significance of autoantibodies in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2004;38(9):801–804.
41. Rockey DC, Caldwell SH, Goodman ZD, Nelson RC, Smith AD, American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases. Liver biopsy. *Hepatology*. 2009;49(3):1017–44.
42. Kleiner DE, Brunt EM, Van Natta M, Behling C, Contos MJ, Cummings OW, et al. Design and validation of a histological scoring system for nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Hepatology*. 2005;41(6):1313–21.
43. Angulo P, Hui JM, Marchesini G, Bugianesi E, George J, Farrell GC, et al. The NAFLD fibrosis score: a noninvasive system that identifies liver fibrosis in patients with NAFLD. *Hepatology*. 2007;45(4):846–54.
44. Guha IN, Parkes J, Roderick P, Chattopadhyay D, Cross R, Harris S, et al. Noninvasive markers of fibrosis in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: Validating the European Liver Fibrosis panel and exploring simple markers. *Hepatology*. 2008;47(2):455–60.
45. Harrison SM, Oliver D, Arnold HLM, Gogia SM, Neuschwander-Tetri BAM. Development and validation of a simple NAFLD clinical scoring system for identifying patients without advanced disease. *Gut*. 2008;57(10):1441–47. Epub 2008 Apr 4.
46. Ratzliff V, Massard J, Charlotte F, Messous D, Imbert-Bismut F, Bonyhay L, et al. Diagnostic value of biochemical markers (FibroTest-FibroSURE) for the prediction of liver fibrosis in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *BMC Gastroenterol* 2006;6:6.
47. Yoneda M, Mawatari H, Fujita K, Endo H, Iida H, Nozaki Y, et al. Noninvasive assessment of liver fibrosis by measurement of stiffness in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). *Dig Liver Dis*. 2008;40(5):371–8. Epub 2007 Dec 20.
48. Wong WS, Vergniol J, Wong LH, Foucher J, Chan LY, Le Bail B, et al. Diagnosis of fibrosis and cirrhosis using liver stiffness measurement in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Hepatology*. 2010;51(2):454–62.
49. Mendler MH, Bouillet P, Le Sidaner A, Lavoine E, Labrousse F, Sautereau D, Pillegand B. Dual-energy CT in the diagnosis and quantification of fatty liver: limited clinical value in comparison to ultrasound scan and single-energy CT, with special reference to iron overload. *J Hepatol*. 1998;28(5):785–94.
50. Anderson N, Borlak J. Molecular mechanisms and therapeutic targets in steatosis and steatohepatitis. *Pharmacol Rev*. 2008;60(3):311–57.
51. Sato F, Tamura Y, Watada H, Kumashiro N, Igarashi Y, Uchino H, et al. Effects of diet-induced moderate weight reduction on intrahepatic and intramyocellular triglycerides and glucose metabolism in obese subjects. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2007;92(8):3326–9.
52. Elliott SS, Keim NL, Stern JS, Teff K, Havel PJ. Fructose, weight gain, and the insulin resistance syndrome. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2002;76(5):911–22.
53. Bray GA, Nielsen SJ, Popkin BM. Consumption of high-fructose corn syrup in beverages may play a role in the epidemic of obesity. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;79(4):537–43.
54. Ouyang X, Cirillo P, Sautin Y, McCall S, Bruchette JL, Diehl AM, et al. Fructose consumption as a risk factor for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Hepatol*. 2008;48(6):993–9.
55. Henry RR, Crapo PA, Thorburn AW. Current issues in fructose metabolism. *Annu Rev Nutr*. 1991 July;11:21–39.
56. Terrier F, Vock P, Cotting J, Ladebeck R, Reichen J, Hentschel D. Effect of intravenous fructose on the P-31 MR spectrum of the liver: dose response in healthy volunteers. *Radiology*. 1989;171(2):557–63.
57. Teff KL, Elliott SS, Tschöp M, Kieffer TJ, Rader D, Heiman M, et al. Dietary fructose reduces circulating insulin and leptin, attenuates postprandial suppression of ghrelin, and increases triglycerides in women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2004;89(6):2963–72.
58. Shapiro A, Mu W, Roncal C, Cheng KY, Johnson RJ, Scarpace PJ. Fructose-induced leptin resistance exacerbates weight gain in response to subsequent high-fat feeding. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*. 2008;295(5):R1370–5. Epub 2008 Aug 13.
59. Cortez-Pinto H, Jesus L, Barros H, Lopes C, Moura MC, Camilo ME. How different is the dietary pattern in non-alcoholic steatohepatitis patients? *Clin Nutr*. 2006;25(5):816–23.
60. Zelber-Sagi S, Nitzan-Kaluski D, Goldsmith R, Webb M, Blendis L, Halpern Z, et al. Long term nutritional intake and the risk for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): a population based study. *J Hepatol*. 2007;47(5):711–7.
61. Capanni M, Calella F, Biagini MR, Genise S, Raimondi L, Bedogni G, et al. Prolonged n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation ameliorates hepatic steatosis in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: a pilot study. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2006;23(8):1143–51.
62. Tanaka N, Sano K, Horiuchi A, Tanaka E, Kiyosawa K, Aoyama T. Highly purified eicosapentaenoic acid treatment improves nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2008;42(4):413–8.
63. Levy JR, Clore JN, Stevens W. Dietary n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids decrease hepatic triglycerides in Fischer 344 rats. *Hepatology*. 2004;39(3):608–16.
64. Sekiya M, Yahagi N, Matsuzaka T, Najima Y, Nakakuki M, Nagai R, et al. Polyunsaturated fatty acids ameliorate hepatic steatosis in obese

- mice by SREBP-1 suppression. *Hepatology*. 2003; 38(6):1529–39.
65. Mozaffarian D, Katan MB, Ascherio A, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC. Trans fatty acids and cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354(15):1601–13.
 66. Tetri LH, Basaranoglu M, Brunt EM, Yerian LM, Neuschwander-Tetri BA. Severe NAFLD with hepatic necroinflammatory changes in mice fed trans fats and a high-fructose corn syrup equivalent. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol*. 2008;295(5):G987–95. Epub 2008 Sep 4.
 67. Araya J, Rodrigo R, Videla LA, Thielemann L, Orellana M, Pettinelli P, et al. Increase in long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid n - 6/n - 3 ratio in relation to hepatic steatosis in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Clin Sci (Lond)*. 2004;106(6):635–43.
 68. Borra S, Kris-Etherton PM, Dausch JG, Yin-Piazza S. An update of trans-fat reduction in the American diet. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2007;107(12):2048–50.
 69. Perseghin G, Lattuada G, De Cobelli F, Ragogna F, Ntali G, Esposito A, et al. Habitual physical activity is associated with intrahepatic fat content in humans. *Diabetes Care*. 2007;30(3):683–8.
 70. Zelber-Sagi S, Nitzan-Kaluski D, Goldsmith R, Webb M, Zvibel I, Goldiner I, et al. Role of leisure-time physical activity in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a population-based study. *Hepatology*. 2008;48(6):1791–8.
 71. Church TS, Kuk JL, Ross R, Priest EL, Biloft E, Blair SN. Association of cardiorespiratory fitness, body mass index, and waist circumference to nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology*. 2006;130(7):2023–30.
 72. Tamura Y, Tanaka Y, Sato F, Choi JB, Watada H, Niwa M, et al. Effects of diet and exercise on muscle and liver intracellular lipid contents and insulin sensitivity in type 2 diabetic patients. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2005;90(6):3191–6.
 73. Black SE, Mitchell E, Freedson PS, Chipkin SR, Braun B. Improved insulin action following short-term exercise training: role of energy and carbohydrate balance. *J Appl Physiol*. 2005;99(6):2285–93.
 74. Dengel DR, Pratley RE, Hagberg JM, Rogus EM, Goldberg AP. Distinct effects of aerobic exercise training and weight loss on glucose homeostasis in obese sedentary men. *J Appl Physiol*. 1996;81(1):318–25.
 75. Orchard TJ, Temproms M, Goldberg R, Haffner S, Ratner R, Marcovina S, et al. The effect of metformin and intensive lifestyle intervention on the metabolic syndrome: the Diabetes Prevention Program randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2005;142(8):611–9.
 76. Lindstrom J, Ilanne-Parikka P, Peltonen M, Aunola S, Eriksson JG, Hemiö K, et al. Sustained reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes by lifestyle intervention: follow-up of the Finnish Diabetes Prevention Study. *Lancet*. 2006;368(9548):1673–9.
 77. Schenk S, Horowitz JF. Acute exercise increases triglyceride synthesis in skeletal muscle and prevents fatty acid-induced insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest*. 2007;117(6):1690–8.
 78. Tiikkainen M, Bergholm R, Vehkavaara S, Rissanen A, Häkkinen A, Tamminen M, et al. Effects of identical weight loss on body composition and features of insulin resistance in obese women with high and low liver fat content. *Diabetes*. 2003;52(3):701–7.
 79. Suzuki A, Lindor K, St Saver J, Lymp J, Mendes F, Muto A, et al. Effect of changes on body weight and lifestyle in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Hepatol*. 2005;43(6):1060–6. Epub 2005 Jul 11.
 80. Harrison SA, Fecht M, Brunt EM, Neuschwander-Tetri BA. Orlistat for overweight subjects with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a randomized, prospective trial. *Hepatology*. 2009;49(1):80–6.
 81. Schafer S, Kantartzis K, Machann J, Venter C, Niess A, Schick F, et al. Lifestyle intervention in individuals with normal versus impaired glucose tolerance. *Eur J Clin Invest*. 2007;37(7):535–43.
 82. Bellentani S, Dalle Grave R, Suppini A, Marchesini G. Behavior therapy for nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: The need for a multidisciplinary approach. *Hepatology*. 2008;47(2):746–54.
 83. Koehler E, Watt K, Charlton M. Fatty liver and liver transplantation. *Clin Liver Dis*. 2009;13(4):621–30.
 84. Torres DM, Harrison SA. Diagnosis and therapy of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Gastroenterology*. 2008;134(6):1682–98.
 85. Huang MA, Greenon JK, Chao C, Anderson L, Peterman D, Jacobson J, et al. One-year intense nutritional counseling results in histological improvement in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: a pilot study. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2005;100(5):1072–81.
 86. Brehm BJ, Seeley RJ, Daniels SR, D'Alessio DA. A randomized trial comparing a very low carbohydrate diet and a calorie-restricted low fat diet on body weight and cardiovascular risk factors in healthy women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2003;88(4):1617–23.
 87. Foster GD, Wyatt HR, Hill JO, McGuckin BG, Brill C, Mohammed SB, et al. A randomized trial of a low-carbohydrate diet for obesity. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;348(21):2082–90.
 88. Yancy WS, Jr., Olsen MK, Guyton JR, Bakst RP, Westman EC. A low-carbohydrate, ketogenic diet versus a low-fat diet to treat obesity and hyperlipidemia: a randomized, controlled trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2004;140(10):769–77.
 89. Sacks FM, Bray GA, Carey VJ, Smith SR, Ryan DH, Anton SD, et al. Comparison of weight-loss diets with different compositions of fat, protein, and carbohydrates. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360(9):859–73.
 90. Skarfors ET, Wegener TA, Lithell H, Selinus I. Physical training as treatment for type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes in elderly men. A feasibility study over 2 years. *Diabetologia*. 1987;30(12):930–3.
 91. Ratzliff V, Zelber-Sagi S. Pharmacologic therapy of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Clin Liver Dis*. 2009;13(4):667–88.
 92. Rucker D, Padwal R, Li SK, Curioni C, Lau DC. Long term pharmacotherapy for obesity and overweight: updated meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2007;335(7631):1194–9.
 93. Heymsfield SB, Segal KR, Hauptman J, et al. Effects of weight loss with orlistat on glucose tolerance and progression to type 2 diabetes in obese adults. *Arch Intern Med*. 2000;160(10):1321–6.
 94. Hollander PA, Elbein SC, Hirsch IB, Kelley D, McGill J, Taylor T, et al. Role of orlistat in the treatment of obese patients with type 2 diabetes. A 1-year randomized double-blind study. *Diabetes Care*. 1998;21(8):1288–94.
 95. Torgerson JS, Hauptman J, Boldrin MN, Sjöström L. XENical in the prevention of diabetes in obese subjects (XENDOS) study: a randomized study of orlistat as an adjunct to lifestyle changes for the prevention of type 2 diabetes in obese patients. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(1):155–61.
 96. Harrison SA, Fincke C, Helinski D, Torgerson S, Hayashi P. A pilot study of orlistat treatment in obese, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis patients. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2004;20(6):623–8.
 97. Hussein O, Grosowski M, Schlesinger S, Szvalb S, Assy N. Orlistat reverse fatty infiltration and improves hepatic fibrosis in obese patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH). *Dig Dis Sci*. 2007;52(10):2512–9.
 98. Harrison SA, Ramrakhiani S, Brunt EM, Anbari MA, Cortese C, Bacon BR. Orlistat in the treatment of NASH: a case series. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2003;98(4):926–30.

99. Zelber-Sagi S, Kessler A, Brazowsky E, Webb M, Lurie Y, Santo M, et al. A double-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial of orlistat for the treatment of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2006;4(5):639–44.
100. US Food and Drug Administration. Index to safety information [Internet]. Silver Spring (MD): US Food and Drug Administration; Orlistat (marketed as Alli and Xenical): early communication about an ongoing safety review; [updated 2009 Aug 24; cited 2010 Feb 1.] Available from: <http://www.fda.gov/Safety/MedWatch/SafetyInformation/SafetyAlertsforHumanMedicalProducts/ucm180025.htm>.
101. Sabuncu T, Nazligul Y, Karaoğlanoglu M, Ucar E, Kilic FB. The effects of sibutramine and orlistat on the ultrasonographic findings, insulin resistance and liver enzyme levels in obese patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Rom J Gastroenterol*. 2003;12(3):189–92.
102. US Food and Drug Administration. Index to drugs information [Internet]. Silver Spring (MD): US Food and Drug Administration; Early communication about an ongoing safety review of Meridia (sibutramine hydrochloride); [updated 2009 Nov 20; cited 2010 Feb 1.] Available from: <http://www.fda.gov/Drugs/DrugSafety/PostmarketDrugSafetyInformationforPatientsandProviders/DrugSafetyInformationforHealthcareProfessionals/ucm191650.htm>.
103. Ratzliff V, Giral P, Jacqueminet S, Charlotte F, Hartemann-Heurtier A, Serfaty L, et al. Rosiglitazone for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: one-year results of the randomized placebo-controlled Fatty Liver Improvement with Rosiglitazone Therapy (FLIRT) Trial. *Gastroenterology*. 2008;135(1):100–10.
104. Belfort R, Harrison SA, Brown K, Darland C, Finch J, Hardies J, et al. A placebo-controlled trial of pioglitazone in subjects with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;355(22):2297–307.
105. Sanyal AJ, Mofrad PS, Contos MJ, Sargeant C, Luketic VA, Sterling RK, et al. A pilot study of vitamin E versus vitamin E and pioglitazone for the treatment of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2004;2(12):1107–15.
106. Aithal GP, Thomas JA, Kaye PV, Lawson A, Ryder SD, Spendlove I, et al. Randomized, placebo-controlled trial of pioglitazone in nondiabetic subjects with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Gastroenterology*. 2008;135(4):1176–84. Epub 2008 Jun 25.
107. Neuschwander-Tetri BA, Brunt EM, Wehmeier KR, Oliver D, Bacon BR. Improved nonalcoholic steatohepatitis after 48 weeks of treatment with the PPAR-gamma ligand rosiglitazone. *Hepatology*. 2003;38(4):1008–17.
108. Promrat K, Lutchman G, Uwaifo GI, Freedman RJ, Soza A, Heller T, et al. A pilot study of pioglitazone treatment for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Hepatology*. 2004;39(1):188–96.
109. Home PD, Pocock SJ, Beck-Nielsen H, Curtis P, Gomis R, Hanefeld M, et al. Rosiglitazone evaluated for cardiovascular outcomes in oral agent combination therapy for type 2 diabetes (RECORD): a multicentre, randomised, open-label trial. *Lancet*. 2009;373(9681):2125–35.
110. Balas B, Belfort R, Harrison SA, Darland C, Finch J, Schenker S, et al. Pioglitazone treatment increases whole body fat but not total body water in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *J Hepatol*. 2007;47(4):565–70. Epub 2007 May 24.
111. Marchesini G, Brizi M, Bianchi G, Tomassetti S, Zoli M, Melchionda N. Metformin in non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Lancet*. 2001;358(9285):893–4.
112. Bugianesi E, Gentilecore E, Manini R, Natale S, Vanni E, Villanova N, et al. A randomized controlled trial of metformin versus vitamin E or prescriptive diet in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2005;100(5):1082–90.
113. Uygun A, Kadayifci A, Isik AT, Ozgurtas T, Deveci S, Tuzun A, et al. Metformin in the treatment of patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2004;19(5):537–44.
114. Angelico F, Burattin M, Alessandri C, Del Ben M, Lirussi F. Drugs improving insulin resistance for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and/or non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2007 Jan 24;(1):CD005166.
115. Nair S, Diehl AM, Wiseman M, Farr GH, Jr, Perrillo RP. Metformin in the treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: a pilot open label trial. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2004;20(1):23–8.
116. Loomba R, Lutchman G, Kleiner DE, Ricks M, Feld JJ, Borg BB, et al. Clinical trial: Pilot study of metformin for the treatment of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2009;29(2):172–182.
117. Haukeland JW, Konopski Z, Eggesbø HB, von Volkmann HL, Raschpichler G, Bjørø K, et al. Metformin in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: a randomized, controlled trial. *Scand J Gastroenterol*. 2009;44(7):853–60.
118. Harrison SA, Torgerson S, Hayashi P, Ward J, Schenker S. Vitamin E and vitamin C treatment improves fibrosis in patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2003;98(11):2485–90.
119. Merat S, Malekzadeh R, Sohrabi MR, Hormazdi M, Naserimoghadam S, Mikaeli J, et al. Probenecid in the treatment of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: an open-labeled study. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2003;36(3):266–8.
120. Merat S, Aduli M, Kazemi R, Sotoudeh M, Sedighi N, Sohrabi M, et al. Liver histology changes in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis after one year of treatment with probenecid. *Dig Dis Sci*. 2008;53(8):2246–50. Epub 2007 Nov 30.
121. de Oliveira CP, Stefano JT, de Siqueira ER, Silva LS, de Campos Mazo DF, Lima VM, et al. Combination of N-acetylcysteine and metformin improves histological steatosis and fibrosis in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Hepatol Res*. 2008;38(2):159–65.
122. Gulbahar O, ZA. K, Ersoz G. Treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis with n-acetylcysteine. *Gastroenterology*. 2000;118:A1444.
123. Beuers U. Drug insight: mechanisms and sites of action of ursodeoxycholic acid in cholestasis. *Nat Clin Pract Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2006;3(6):318–28.
124. Bellentani S. Immunomodulating and anti-apoptotic action of ursodeoxycholic acid: where are we and where should we go? *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2005;17(2):137–40.
125. Lindor KD, Kowdley KV, Heathcote EJ, Harrison ME, Jorgensen R, Angulo P, et al. Ursodeoxycholic acid for treatment of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: results of a randomized trial. *Hepatology*. 2004;39(3):770–8.
126. Dufour JF, Oneta CM, Gonvers JJ, Bihl F, Cerny A, Cereda JM, et al. Randomized placebo-controlled trial of ursodeoxycholic acid with vitamin E in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2006;4(12):1537–43.
127. Poynard T, Morra R, Halfon P, Castera L, Ratzliff V, Imbert-Bismut F, et al. Meta-analyses of FibroTest diagnostic value in chronic liver disease. *BMC Gastroenterol*. 2007 Oct 5;7:40.
128. Wei Y, Clark SE, Morris EM, Thyfault JP, Uptergrove GM, Whaley-Connell AT, et al. Angiotensin II-induced non-alcoholic fatty liver disease is mediated by oxidative stress in transgenic TG(mRen2)27(Ren2) rats. *J Hepatol*. 2008;49(3):417–28. Epub 2008 Apr 22.
129. Sugimoto K, Qi NR, Kazdova L, Pravenec M, Ogihara T, Kurtz TW. Telmisartan but not valsartan increases caloric expenditure and protects against weight gain and

- hepatic steatosis. *Hypertension*. 2006;47(5):1003–9. Epub 2006 Mar 27.
130. Hirose A, Ono M, Saibara T, Nozaki Y, Masuda K, Yoshioka A, et al. Angiotensin II type 1 receptor blocker inhibits fibrosis in rat nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Hepatology*. 2007;45(6):1375–81.
 131. Barak AJ, Beckenhauer HC, Junnila M, Tuma DJ. Dietary betaine promotes generation of hepatic S-adenosylmethionine and protects the liver from ethanol-induced fatty infiltration. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res*. 1993;17(3):552–5.
 132. Yalniz M, Bahçecioğlu IH, Kuzu N, Celebi S, Ataseven H, Ustündağ B, et al. Amelioration of steatohepatitis with pentoxifylline in a novel nonalcoholic steatohepatitis model induced by high-fat diet. *Dig Dis Sci*. 2007;52(9):2380–6. Epub 2007 Apr 6.
 133. Koppe SW, Sahai A, Malladi P, Whittington PF, Green RM. Pentoxifylline attenuates steatohepatitis induced by the methionine choline deficient diet. *J Hepatol*. 2004;41(4):592–8.
 134. Adams LA, Zein CO, Angulo P, Lindor KD. A pilot trial of pentoxifylline in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2004;99(12):2365–8.
 135. Satapathy SK, Garg S, Chauhan R, Sakhuja P, Malhotra V, Sharma BC, et al. Beneficial effects of tumor necrosis factor- α inhibition by pentoxifylline on clinical, biochemical, and metabolic parameters of patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2004;99(10):1946–52.
 136. Rinella ME, Koppe S, Brunt EM, Elias M, Gottstein J, Green RM. Pentoxifylline improves ALT and histology in patients with NASH: a double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Gastroenterology*. 2009;136(1):A88.
 137. Morita Y, Ueno T, Sasaki N, Tateishi Y, Nagata E, Kage M, et al. Nateglinide is useful for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) patients with type 2 diabetes. *Hepatogastroenterology*. 2005;52(65):1338–43.
 138. Després JP, Golay A, Sjöström L. Effects of rimonabant on metabolic risk factors in overweight patients with dyslipidemia. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;353(20):2121–34.
 139. Pi-Sunyer FX, Aronne LJ, Heshmati HM, Devin J, Rosenstock J. Effect of rimonabant, a cannabinoid-1 receptor blocker, on weight and cardiometabolic risk factors in overweight or obese patients: RIO-North America: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2006;295(7):761–75.
 140. Solga SF, Diehl AM. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: lumen-liver interactions and possible role for probiotics. *J Hepatol*. 2003;38(5):681–7.
 141. Loguercio C, Federico A, Tuccillo C, Terracciano F, D'Auria MV, De Simone C, et al. Beneficial effects of a probiotic VSL#3 on parameters of liver dysfunction in chronic liver diseases. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2005;39(6):540–3.
 142. Xu A, Wang Y, Keshaw H, Xu LY, Lam KSL, Cooper GJS. The fat-derived hormone adiponectin alleviates alcoholic and nonalcoholic fatty liver diseases in mice. *J Clin Invest*. 2003;112(1):91–100.
 143. Oral EA, Simha V, Ruiz E, Andewelt A, Premkumar A, Snell P, et al. Leptin-replacement therapy for lipodystrophy. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;346(8):570–8.
 144. Ebihara K, Kusakabe T, Hirata M, Masuzaki H, Miyanaga F, Kobayashi N, et al. Efficacy and safety of leptin-replacement therapy and possible mechanisms of leptin actions in patients with generalized lipodystrophy. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2007;92(2):532–41. Epub 2006 Nov 21.
 145. Ministry of Health. MOH Clinical Practice Guidelines 5/2004 [Internet]. Singapore: Ministry of Health; 2004 Apr [cited 2010 Feb 1]. [about 120 p.] Available from: http://www.moh.gov.sg/mohcorp/uploadedFiles/Publications/Guidelines/Clinical_Practice_Guidelines/CPGBooklet-Obesity.pdf.
 146. Sjöström L, Lindroos AK, Peltonen M, Torgerson J, Bouchard C, Carlsson B, et al. Lifestyle, diabetes, and cardiovascular risk factors 10 years after bariatric surgery. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;351(26):2683–93.
 147. Verna EC, Berk PD. Role of fatty acids in the pathogenesis of obesity and fatty liver: impact of bariatric surgery. *Semin Liver Dis*. 2008;28(4):407–26. Epub 2008 Oct 27.
 148. Elder KA, Wolfe BM. Bariatric surgery: a review of procedures and outcomes. *Gastroenterology*. 2007;132(6):2253–71.
 149. Scopinaro N, Gianetta E, Civalleri D, Bonalumi U, Bachi V. Bilio-pancreatic bypass for obesity: II. Initial experience in man. *Br J Surg*. 1979;66(9):618–20.
 150. Buchwald H, Avidor Y, Braunwald E, Jensen MD, Pories W, Fahrenbach K, et al. Bariatric surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2004;292(14):1724–37.
 151. Adams TD, Gress RE, Smith SC, Halverson RC, Simper SC, Rosamond WD, et al. Long-term mortality after gastric bypass surgery. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;357(8):753–61.
 152. Dixon JB, Bhathal PS, Hughes NR, O'Brien PE. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: Improvement in liver histological analysis with weight loss. *Hepatology*. 2004;39(6):1647–54.
 153. Mottin CC, Moretto M, Padoin AV, Kupski C, Swarowsky AM, Glock L, et al. Histological behavior of hepatic steatosis in morbidly obese patients after weight loss induced by bariatric surgery. *Obes Surg*. 2005;15(6):788–93.
 154. Clark JM, Alkhuraishi AR, Solga SF, Alli P, Diehl AM, Magnuson TH. Roux-en-Y gastric bypass improves liver histology in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Obes Res*. 2005;13(7):1180–6.
 155. Csendes A, Smok G, Burgos AM. Histological findings in the liver before and after gastric bypass. *Obes Surg*. 2006;16(5):607–11.
 156. Barker KB, Palekar NA, Bowers SP, Goldberg JE, Pulcini JP, Harrison SA. Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: effect of Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2006;101(2):368–73.
 157. Liu X, Lazenby AJ, Clements RH, Jhala N, Abrams GA. Resolution of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis after gastric bypass surgery. *Obes Surg*. 2007;17(4):486–92.
 158. Furuya CK, Jr, de Oliveira CP, de Mello ES, Faintuch J, Raskovski A, Matsuda M, et al. Effects of bariatric surgery on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: preliminary findings after 2 years. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2007;22(4):510–4.
 159. Kashi MR, Torres DM, Harrison SA. Current and emerging therapies in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Semin Liver Dis*. 2008;28(4):396–406. Epub 2008 Oct 27.
 160. Kral JG, Thung SN, Biron S, Hould FS, Lebel S, Marceau S, et al. Effects of surgical treatment of the metabolic syndrome on liver fibrosis and cirrhosis. *Surgery*. 2004;135(1):48–58.
 161. Klein S, Mittendorfer B, Eagon JC, Patterson B, Grant L, Feirt N, et al. Gastric bypass surgery improves metabolic and hepatic abnormalities associated with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology*. 2006;130(6):1564–72.
 162. Grimm IS, Schindler W, Haluszka O. Steatohepatitis and fatal hepatic failure after biliopancreatic diversion. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 1992;87(6):775–9.
 163. Angulo P. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl*. 2006;12(4):523–34.
 164. Charlton M, Kasparova P, Weston S, Lindor K, Maor-Kendler Y, Wiesner RH, et al. Frequency of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis as a cause of advanced liver disease. *Liver Transpl*. 2001;7(7):608–14.
 165. Malik SM, deVera ME, Fontes P, Shaikh O, Ahmad J. Outcome after liver transplantation for NASH cirrhosis. *Am J Transplant*. 2009;9(4):782–93.
 166. Everhart JE, Lombardero M, Lake JR, Wiesner RH, Zetterman RK, Hoofnagle JH. Weight change and obesity after liver transplantation: incidence and risk factors. *Liver Transpl Surg*. 1998;4(4):285–96.

167. Laryea M, Watt KD, Molinari M, Walsh MJ, McAlister VC, Marotta PJ, et al. Metabolic syndrome in liver transplant recipients: prevalence and association with major vascular events. *Liver Transpl.* 2007;13(8):1109–14.
168. Contos MJ, Cales W, Sterling RK, Luketic VA, Shiffman ML, Mills AS, et al. Development of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease after orthotopic liver transplantation for cryptogenic cirrhosis. *Liver Transpl.* 2001;7(4):363–73.
169. Sutedja DS, Gow PJ, Hubscher SG, Elias E. Revealing the cause of cryptogenic cirrhosis by posttransplant liver biopsy. *Transplant Proc.* 2004;36(8):2334–7.
170. Molloy RM, Komorowski R, Varma RR. Recurrent nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and cirrhosis after liver transplantation. *Liver Transpl Surg.* 1997;3(2):177–8.
171. Charlton MR, Kondo M, Roberts SK, Steers JL, Krom RA, Wiesner RH. Liver transplantation for cryptogenic cirrhosis. *Liver Transpl Surg.* 1997;3(4):359–64.
172. Lim LG, Cheng CL, Wee A, Lim SG, Lee YM, Sutedja DS, et al. Prevalence and clinical associations of posttransplant fatty liver disease. *Liver Int.* 2007;27(1):76–80.
173. Ong J, Younossi ZM, Reddy V, Price LL, Gramlich T, Mayes J, et al. Cryptogenic cirrhosis and posttransplantation nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Liver Transpl.* 2001;7(9):797–801.