



Functional polymorphisms of innate immunity receptors are not risk factors for the non-SBP type bacterial infections in cirrhosis

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23rd of October, 2017

Gabriele Missale

Associate Editor

Mario U Mondelli

Editor-in-Chief

Liver International

Dear Professor **Gabriele Missale**,
Dear Professor **Mario U Mondelli**,

Please find attached the revised version of our manuscript entitled: **Functional polymorphisms of innate immunity receptors are not risk factors for the non-SBP type bacterial infections in cirrhosis**" (Manuscript ID: LIVint-17-01007.R1).

We are grateful to the reviewers for their in-depth and important comments as well as for the critiques that helped improving the manuscript. We revised the manuscript according to the concerns raised and inserted relevant additional information in the main text of the manuscript. Some information was also added to Supplementary Material. Following the valuable proposed changes by the Reviewers, we included more detailed descriptions and completely new data as well. Despite concision of the *Section of Discussion*, with the insertion of these significant pieces of information, and the 5 requested additional literature references the length of the manuscript exceeds the limits of the Journal to a minor degree (The original version of the manuscript was already close to limits of the Journal, 4936 words). We hope that these new data significantly enhance the overall quality of our research. We feel that the size of the article is still within the range that can keep the attention of the readers and sincerely hope that it is still acceptable for the Journal, even though it is slightly over of the official limits (5419 words instead of 5000, which includes 5 additional requested references).

Professional English editing requested by Associate Editor was also performed.

Reviewer 1**Major points**

Comment 1: “Please indicate the power of the study according to previous frequencies of bacterial infections in cirrhosis and the expected MAF in cirrhotic patients. Given the multiplicity of genetic associations tested here, the relatively low number of infections, I would expect the study to be somewhat underpowered.”

Mean allele frequencies (MAF) in our study are similar to those reported in Caucasian cohorts [Lek M. et al, *Nautre* 2016]. In our study, the probability of bacterial infections was 49.6 ± 4.1 % (Kaplan-Meier estimate \pm SE) during the follow up period (median, IQR: 32 [12-60] months). This rate of infections is similar to those in previous reports [Nahon P. *Gut*, 2017;66(2):330-341. doi: 10.1136/gutjnl-2015-310275., Borzio M. et al. *Digest Liver Dis* 2001;33:41-8].

We did not perform a sample size calculation or power analysis in the design phase of the study that is a limitation to acknowledge. According the request of the *Reviewer 1* we performed a post-hoc power analysis in Stata (v13.0). The following factors were considered in the analysis:

- sample size: **243**
- allele frequencies (*NOD2* risk variant present: **15%**, *TLR2* (T-16934A) TT present: **25%**, *TLR4* (D299G) AG risk variant present: **7%**)
- Cumulative probability of bacterial infections in control group: **40%**
- Clinically relevant hazard ratio: **2**
- type I error: **0.05, two-sided**

We found that the power associated with *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* for detecting a difference in the development of bacterial infections were 89.2%, 95.6% and 67%, respectively.

Command syntax for power analysis was the following:

```
stpwr logrank 0.6, n(243) hratio(2) p1(0.85 0.75 0.93) table columns(p1 power)
```

Regarding *TLR4* polymorphism we mentioned this limitation in the *Discussion* section Page 20.

“The limitation of the present study is that the association of bacterial infections and *TLR4* polymorphisms warrants further evaluation in a larger cohort since our study was underpowered to detect such an association at this sample size (Supplementary Table 1).”

Comment 2: “The majority of infections are UTIs – UTIs (as well as erysipelas) are unlikely to be influenced by intestinal BT via *NOD2* and are often asymptomatic in cirrhotic patients. I would suggest performing sensitivity analyses for spontaneous infections (SBP, spont. bacteremia, empyema), infections excluding UTI, skin infections, gastroenteritis and skin infections, and severe infections requiring hospitalisation. How many patients were treated with antibiotics?”

We agree with both concerns of the *Reviewer 1*. that (1) UTI and skin infections are usually less severe than spontaneous infections, like SBP in cirrhosis, and (2) intestinal BT is also not

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7 a major contributor in the development of these infections. The rational why we considered
8 evaluating non-SBP type bacterial infection of various locations altogether instead excluding
9 some of their types were the followings:

10 In cirrhosis, UTIs are important and often solely precipitating factors of hepatic
11 encephalopathy [Strauss E, et al. *Hepatogastroenterology*. 1998 May-Jun;45(21):900-4.] and can
12 be the source of bacteraemia as well. Furthermore, the presence of UTI indicated an increased
13 risk of 90-day mortality in patients with advanced cirrhosis [Reuken PA, et al. *Liver Int*. 2013
14 Feb;33(2):220-30. doi: 10.1111/liv.12029.]

15 In case of skin and soft tissue infections GPC, are the most prevalent pathogens, but
16 *Enterobacteriaceae* and anaerob bacteria can also be the pathogens of these infections
17 [Christou L, et al. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2007 Jul;102(7):1510-7.] GNB (*Escherichia [E.] coli*, *Klebsiella*
18 [*K.] pneumoniae*) should also be considered as potential etiologic agents. In these latter cases,
19 supposedly, the source of the bacteria is the gut itself. As a result of BT, enteric bacteria reach
20 the systemic circulation, cause bacteraemia and seed the tissues of the extremities [Chang CM,
21 et al. *Infection*. 2008 Aug;36(4):328-34. doi: 10.1007/s15010-008-7272-3.]. The course of GNB cellulitis
22 is usually rapid and can be fatal. Progression to septic shock is common [Horowitz Y, et al. *Gram-*
23 *negative cellulitis complicating cirrhosis*. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2004 Feb;79(2):247-50.].

24 Finally, SBP can also occur in asymptomatic cirrhotic outpatients. [Cadranel JF, et al.
25 *World J Hepatol*. 2013 Mar 27;5(3):104-8. doi: 10.4254/wjh.v5.i3.104. and Mohan P, et al. *Indian J*
26 *Gastroenterol*. 2011 Sep;30(5):221-4. doi: 10.1007/s12664-011-0131-7.]

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30 Subgroup analysis of spontaneous infections - that were SBPs - however, were reported in
31 detail in *Page 13 (Section of Results – Risk factor of SBP)* and *Figure 4*, acknowledging that
32 intestinal BT is important process in the development of spontaneous infections in cirrhotic
33 patients.

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36 The pathogenic point of view why we considered it important to evaluate potential association
37 of PRR gene variants with bacterial infections beyond SBP were the followings: (1) there is a
38 universal function of PRR in innate host defense (detailed in *Section of Discussion*) (2) there
39 are reports of association of functional polymorphisms of PRRs with systemic infections in
40 various patients groups, which are devoid of pathologic intestinal BT.

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43 We also accept the important remark of the *Reviewer 1* that it is worthy of evaluating
44 the association of PRR variants with bacterial infections according to severity of infection. In
45 *Section of Patients and Methods – Study design (Page 7)* we stated “*Outpatients at inclusion*
46 *(n=243) were enrolled into an observational follow-up study where the attending*
47 *gastroenterologist registered date and type of bacterial infection (BI) warranting hospital*
48 *admission (diagnostic criteria are summarized in **Supplementary Material**) and development*
49 *of disease specific complications (ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or variceal bleeding)*
50 *during regular and extraordinary outpatient follow-up visits and inpatient stays*
51 *prospectively.*” This approach was really similar that was applied by *Senkerikova R, et al. (J*
52 *Hepatol*. 2014 Apr;60(4):773-81. doi: 10.1016/j.jhep.2013.12.011). Based on these criteria,
53 evaluated infectious episodes in the present cohort can be considered clinically significant
54 bacterial infections. Concerning that local and systemic host defence mechanisms are
55 compromised and local infections can easily be disseminated, ***all patients with a proved***
56 ***bacterial infection were treated with empiric antibiotic regimen*** and adjusted according to
57 microbiologic results if it was necessary. Nevertheless, we are aware of the limitations of this
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definition as well. In the clinical practice when we face the acute deterioration of a patient with cirrhosis (episode of acute decompensation) with simultaneously diagnosed bacterial infection, it is difficult somehow to decide whether bacterial infection is a coincident problem/ complication or has a real causative effect.

In the revised version of the manuscript to be able to evaluate severity of bacterial infections, we determined infection-related mortality and its association with PRR gene variants. None of the examined PRR gene variants were associated with the risk of death during a subsequent bacterial infection.

We added these results into the *Section of Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes* and a new table into the *Supplementary Material*. None of the pattern recognition receptor gene variants were associated with the risk of death.

Supplementary Table 2. Infection-related mortality in cirrhosis according to *NOD2* risk alleles (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) (A) and *TLR2* (T-16934A) (B) or *TLR4* (D299G) (C) polymorphisms after the first bacterial infectious episode (n=85).

		Binary logistic regression analysis					
		30-day			90-day		
		OR	95% CI	P-value	OR	95% CI	P-value
<i>NOD2</i> polymorphism (present)		0.14	(0.02-1.1)	0.061	0.24	(0.05-1.14)	0.073
<i>TLR2</i>	TT	Ref.		0.804	Ref.		0.352
	TA	0.67	(0.2-2.22)	0.509	0.43	(0.13-1.37)	0.153
	AA	0.85	(0.27-2.63)	0.773	0.64	(0.22-1.88)	0.414
<i>TLR4</i> (AG)		4.07	(0.83-19.84)	0.082	3.13	(0.65-15.11)	0.155

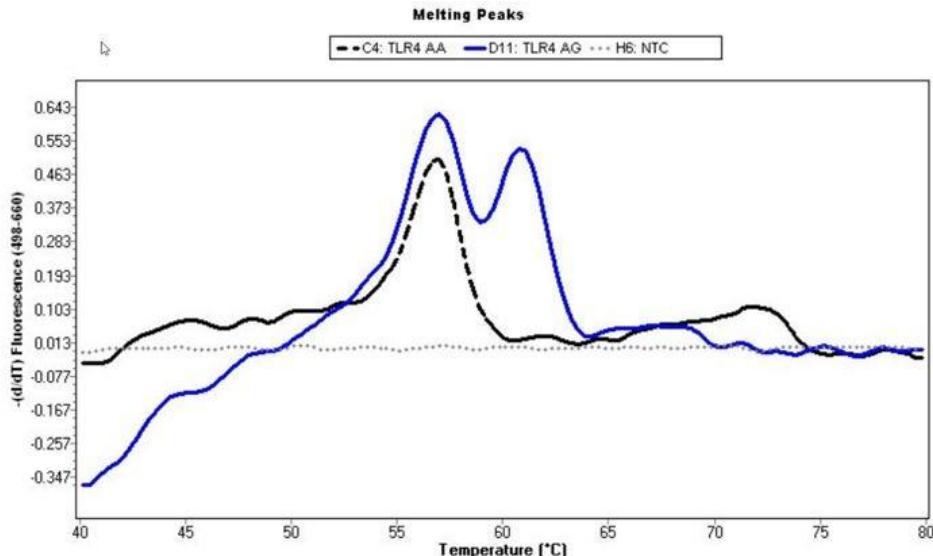
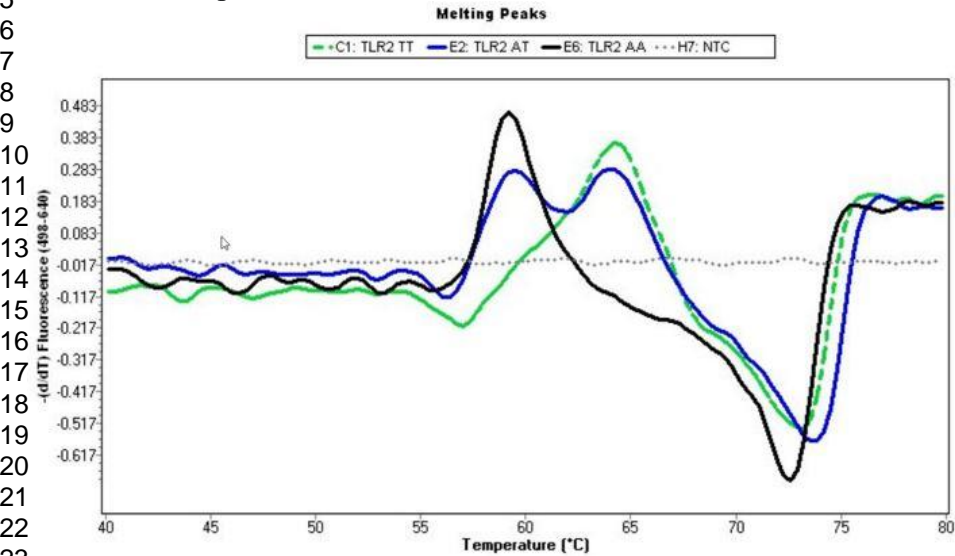
OR: Odds ratio

Comment 3: “How were genotyping experiments validated? I would suggest sequencing of PCR products for a subset of samples to prove that FRET genotyping is valid. Especially for rs4986790 as it is done by in-house primers. Alternatively you could show representative melting curves as supplemental material.”

For rs4986790 experiment synthesis primers were designed in-house, while FRET oligonucleotides were similar to Hamann et al. (*J Immunol Methods*. 2004 Feb 15;285(2):281-91. PubMed PMID: 14980441.) Representative melting curve genotyping results performed on a LightCycler 480 system and now it is shown in the Supplementary Figure 1. We modified the *Section of the Results – Gene analysis of NOD2, TLR2 and TLR4* (Page 8 and Page 9) and *Supplementary Material* accordingly.

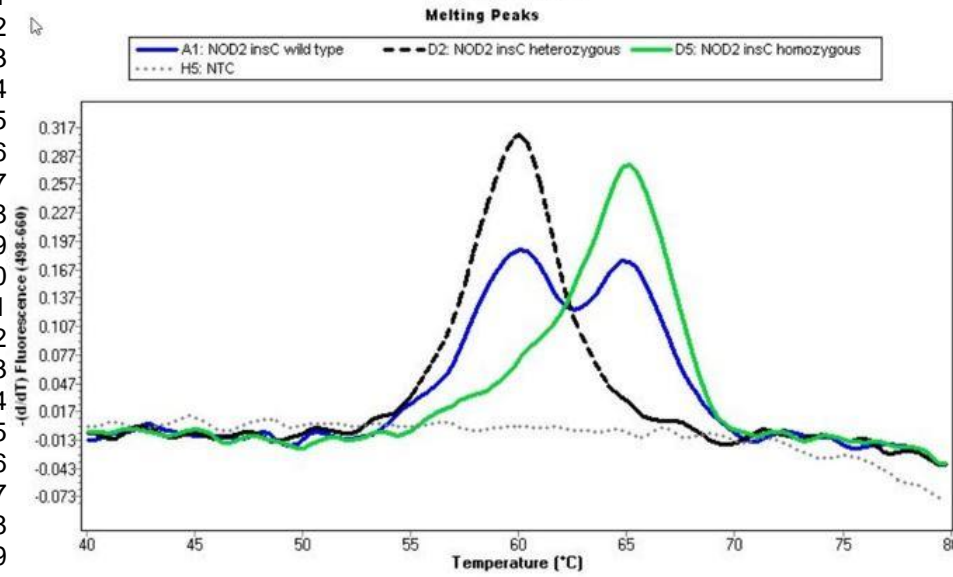
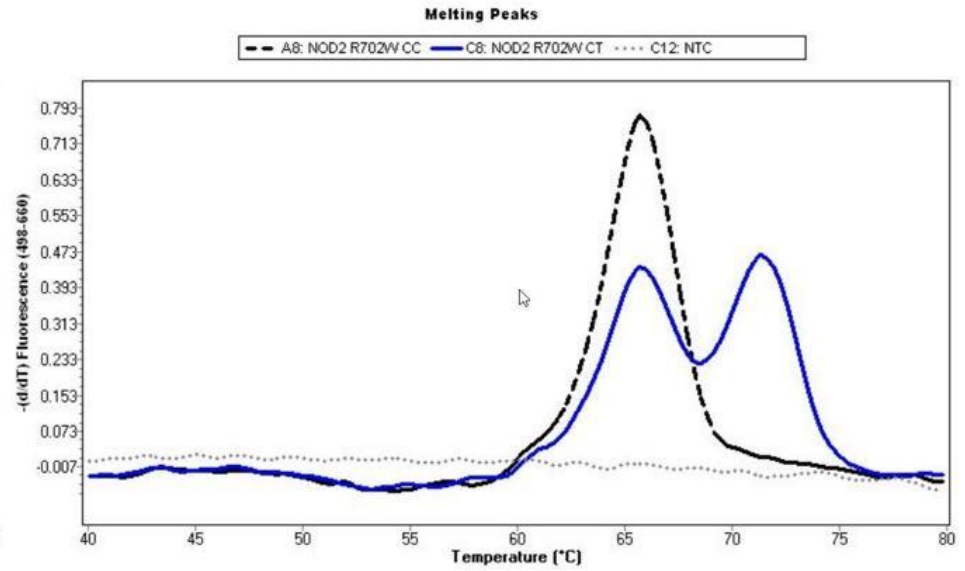
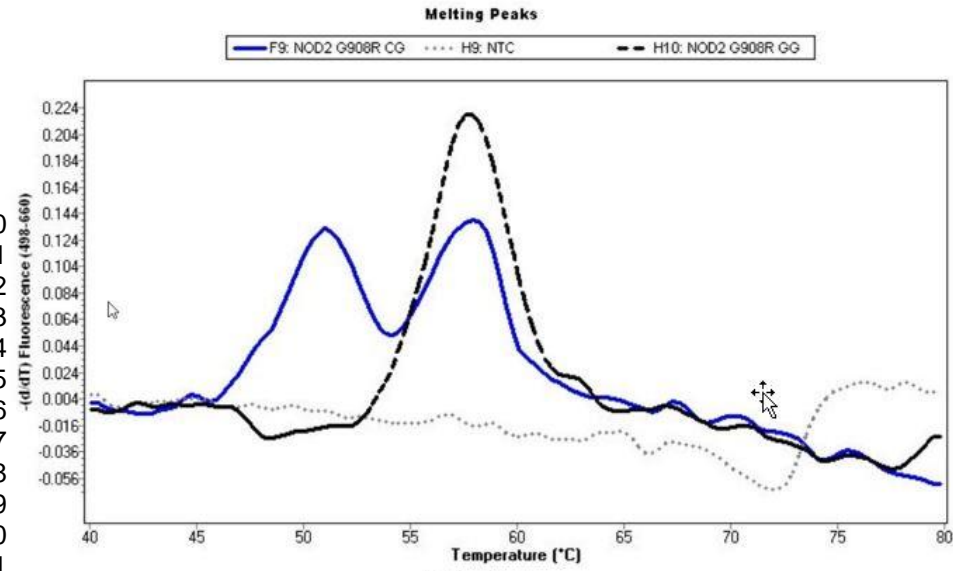
Figure 1. Representative melting curve genotyping results performed on a LightCycler 480 system.

NTC= "no template control"



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7 **Comment 4:** “The discussion needs to be more concise and needs to recognize current
8 investigations showing no association of *NOD2* with SBP in large cohorts (Lutz et al. *Dig*
9 *Liver Dis.* 2016. Bruns et al. *Sci Rep* 2017), association of *NOD2* with BT (Harputluoglu *Dig*
10 *Dis Sci* 2016, Bruns et al *Dig Dis Sci* 2016), the association of *TLR4* with infections in
11 cirrhosis (published in AP&T several years ago).”

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13 We took shortcut some degree the original version of the *Discusssion section* and added the
14 suggested literature findings to the pertinent part.

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17 Regarding SBP (Page 16 and 17): “Similar to most of the previous studies [8–10], the
18 presence of *NOD2* allele variants was a risk factor for SBP in our cohort as well. **A recent**
19 **large association study in patients with decompensated cirrhosis so far did not**
20 **demonstrate a role of *NOD2* variant in mediating susceptibility for SBP.** (Mai M, et al.
21 *Sci Rep.* 2017 Jul 7;7(1):4914. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-04895-z.)

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24 “The association of SBP with various *TLR2* genotypes is somewhat controversial in the
25 published literature. In the studies of Nischalke et al. [10] and Lutz et al. (*Dig Liver Dis.*
26 2016 Jan;48(1):62-8. doi: 10.1016/j.dld.2015.09.011.) *TLR2* -16934 TT genotype but not
27 *TLR2* R753Q and P631H mutations [10] were associated with SBP.”

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30 Regarding BT (Page 18 and 19): “**In patients with decompensated cirrhosis there was an**
31 **increased translocation of bacterial DNA fragments into ascitic fluid in the presence of**
32 **the *NOD2* risk variant p.G908R** (Harputluoglu MM. et al. *Dig Dis Sci.* 2016
33 *Jun*;61(6):1545-52. doi: 10.1007/s10620-015-4024-y.). **Moreover increased transition of**
34 **pathologic BT to culture-positive SBP were reported in the case of the same *NOD2***
35 **variant.”** (Bruns T, et al. *Dig Dis Sci.* 2016 Jul;61(7):2142-4 doi: 10.1007/s10620-016-4151-
36 0. Epub 2016 Apr 6. PubMed PMID: 27052012 and Bruns T, et al. *Liver Int.* 2016
37 *Aug*;36(8):1133-42. doi: 10.1111/liv.13095.)

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40 The association of *TLR4* with infections in cirrhosis (published in AP&T) has been cited in
41 the original version of the manuscript (Page 17) as follows: “In patients with advanced
42 cirrhosis the *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) variant was recognized to increase overall BI rates in
43 a single retrospective study (n=111). [22]”

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46 **Comment 5:** “The multivariate analysis of risk factors for infection is missing. I would
47 suggest a multivariate model including MELD and the presence of ascites (well known
48 factors) and a step wise forward inclusion to identify further factors.”

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51 The rational why we did not show the results of multivariate analysis in the original version of
52 the manuscript were the followings:

53 (1) None of the examined PRR genotypes (individually or in any combination) were
54 associated with the risk of non-SBP type bacterial infections. Thus, there was no need to
55 adjust the results with relevant clinical factors in the multivariate analysis and evaluate
56 whether they are independent risk factor of bacterial infections.

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58 (2) Previously we confirmed and reported in our patient cohort (*Foldi I, Liver Int.*
59 2017 Jul;37(7):1023-1031. doi: 10.1111/liv.13368.) that advanced disease stage (depicted
60 either by Child-Pugh stage, presence of ascites or decompensated clinical stage) was

associated with risk of bacterial infection development using multivariate Cox-regression analysis and the backward elimination procedure.

(3) Instead, we would like to emphasize, that the history of a prior bacterial infection and an advanced disease stage had similar impacts on the infectious risk. Prior history of a bacterial infectious episode significantly increased the probability of the development of a subsequent bacterial infection, regardless of disease severity. To summarize these results, KM curves were constructed (Figure 3).

We accept the suggestion of *Reviewer 1* that it would be important to present which clinical factors are independent risk factors of bacterial infections. According to this request of the reviewer, we added this information to the *Section – Results (Page 13)*:

“Multivariate analysis

Multivariate Cox-regression analysis and the forward inclusion procedure, taking all significant clinical co-variables of univariate analysis into account (see in Table 3), indicated that presence of ascites (HR [95%CI]: 1.71 [1.08-2.7], higher MELD score (1.08 [1.02-1.15]) and prior BI episode (2.02 [1.3-3.14]) were independently associated with the risk of a non-SBP type BI development during follow-up.”

Variables in the Equation									
		β	SE	Wald	df	p-value	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1	MELD score	0.115	0.028	17.379	1	<0.001	1.122	1.063	1.185
Step 2	MELD score	0.100	0.028	12.771	1	<0.001	1.105	1.046	1.168
	Prior BI	0.706	0.225	9.895	1	0.002	2.027	1.305	3.148
Step 3	MELD score	0.081	0.030	7.143	1	0.008	1.084	1.022	1.150
	Ascites	0.536	0.233	5.300	1	0.021	1.709	1.083	2.698
	Prior BI	0.704	0.225	9.840	1	0.002	2.023	1.303	3.141

Minor points

Comment 1: “Abstract: Please check spaces before parenthesis in the abstract section.”

We inserted the missing spaces if needed.

Comment 2: “Abstract: Please indicate whether the SBP frequencies are Kaplan-Meier estimates. If yes, please give standard errors.”

We agree, that reporting standard errors (SE) along KM estimates is more informative. We amended our reporting of KM estimates in the abstract, Table 3 and in the manuscript body as well and included SEs.

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6 **Comment 3:** “Abstract: Please indicate the number of patients with ascites.”
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8 Eighty-eight patients had ascites at inclusion; we added it to the abstract.
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11 **Comment 4:** “Methods: Please indicate why genotyping was not performed in 55 patients -
12 what does unavailable mean? May this introduce a bias?”
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14 We agree with the *Reviewer 1* that this might introduce some bias. However, we had no
15 possibility to organize our study otherwise.
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17 As we stated in the *Section of Patients and Methods – Study design*, present study
18 population was recruited consecutively between May 1, 2006 and December 31, 2010. At the
19 time of inclusion we collected sera and whole-blood samples. Genomic DNA was extracted
20 from whole-blood samples immediately and frozen -70 until testing.
21

22 Hungarian ethic legislations are rigorous, particularly in case of genetic studies and
23 they went through substantial changes after 2010. First, they did not make possible to get a
24 general permission for genetic analysis (testing certain gene variants in single study as a start
25 and use DNA remnants for further different studies thereafter). Preservation of patients’
26 genomic DNA is possible after a single study but resubmission and authorization is obligatory
27 for every further study. As to see patients or his or her legal surrogates and inform them about
28 nature of the new genetic study and to sign a new informed consent form. Additionally in
29 2011, National Scientific and Research Ethics Committee introduced a new legislation as
30 well. In case of genetic studies permission of Regional and Institution Research Ethics
31 Committee were not sufficient anymore even if it was a monocentric study. Since then, dual
32 authorisation is required both from regional and national committees. In 2005, we got
33 permission from regional committee for testing of *MPO-463G/A* polymorphism.
34 Unfortunately, these results were never published due to lack of any association with either
35 bacterial infections or progressive disease course. The idea of testing functional variants of
36 PRR only came up after first publications in this field (*Appenrodt B, et al. Hepatology. 2010*
37 *Apr;51(4):1327-33. doi: 10.1002/hep.23440. and Nischalke HD, et al. J Hepatol. 2011*
38 *Nov;55(5):1010-6. doi: 10.1016/j.jhep.2011.02.022.*). Thereafter we had to resubmit the
39 protocol of present genetic study in 2011 and also see each patient or legal surrogate after had
40 getting ethical permissions (at the end of 2011 by regional and at the beginning of 2012 by
41 national committees). Despite our efforts, it was not possible in case of above-mentioned 55
42 patients.
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44 Clinical characteristics of these patients however, did not differ from the tested cohort.
45 Furthermore, the follow-up time was also similar between the tested and non-tested patient
46 groups. We hope that these data are convincing for the *Reviewer 1*, and that the missing
47 13.6% of the total cohort might not introduce substantial bias.
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		Outpatients			Acute Decompensation		
		not missing (n=243)	missing (n=34)	p-value	not missing (n=106)	missing (n=21)	p-value
Age		56 (50-63)	54 (46-66)	0.661	58 (51-64)	54 (48-66)	0.520
Child-Pugh score		6 (5-8)	7 (5-8)	0.403	9 (7-11)	10 (8-11)	0.173
MELD score		11 (8-14)	12 (9-15)	0.290	17 (13-22)	20 (15-22)	0.231
Creatinine $\mu\text{mol/L}$		67 (54-84)	63 (54-71)	0.282	77 (59-130)	99 (69-187)	0.217
Bilirubin $\mu\text{mol/L}$		26 (16-41)	31 (16-53)	0.298	55 (27-109)	63 (34-99)	0.534
INR		1.17 (1.09-1.32)	1.25 (1.15-1.34)	0.082	1.42 (1.2-1.74)	1.54 (1.34-1.73)	0.231
Albumin g/L		38 (33-42)	38 (32-41)	0.995	28 (24-32)	24 (22-33)	0.174
Follow-up time		988 (366-1825)	703 (85-1774)	0.107	147 (17-732)	63 (9-297)	0.069
Gender (female)		127 (52.3%)	13 (38.2%)	0.125	35 (33%)	11 (52.4%)	0.092
Etiology (alcohol)		152 (62.6%)	24 (70.6%)	0.362	90 (84.9%)	18 (85.7%)	0.924
Child-Pugh	A	137 (56.4%)	18 (52.9%)	0.771	14 (13.2%)	2 (9.5%)	0.422
	B	92 (37.9%)	13 (38.2%)		43 (40.6%)	6 (28.6%)	
	C	14 (5.8%)	3 (8.8%)		49 (46.2%)	13 (61.9%)	
Ascites		88 (36.2%)	10 (29.4%)	0.437	80 (75.5%)	18 (85.7%)	0.307

Comment 5: “Methods: Why were clinical data determined by review of medical records? This was a prospective study with a designed CRF? Please clarify, which data were assessed retrospectively.”

At enrollment a structured interview was used for capturing clinical data about the period prior to the observational follow-up study (retrospective data collection by an in-depth review of patients’ medical records), since mean disease duration from diagnosis of cirrhosis was 3.9 ± 4.2 years among patients at the time of the inclusion. These were the followings: age at diagnosis, etiology, presence of hepatocellular carcinoma, esophageal varices, extrahepatic co-morbidities, history of previous AD episode(s), and cirrhosis-related medication were retrospectively analyzed for the period prior to the observational follow-up study. At enrollment, laboratory parameters, disease severity – assessed by liver-oriented scores (Child-Pugh and MELD) and clinical stage of the disease (compensated/ decompensated) – was determined.

All data collection after the inclusion was performed prospectively. Structured interview was used for capturing data again. Collected data were the follows: date and type of bacterial infection warranting hospital admission and the development of disease specific complications (ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or variceal bleeding).

Structured interview either at enrollment or later in the study ensured that data collection and data entering into database would be unified among attending physicians (senior hepatologist, n=3 and junior gastroenterologist, n=2) all the time, during regular and extraordinary outpatient follow-up visits and inpatient stays in a prospective manner. In Hungary, a regular outpatient follow-up visit is usually scheduled for every 3 months at a specialized gastroenterology center for patients with decompensated cirrhosis (a follow-up between 1-3 months may be scheduled if dictated by disease severity or the presence of certain disease specific complications) and for up to 6 months for patients with cirrhosis but without a prior episode of AD.

Collected data were transferred and stored in a database. At the end of the study period on December 31, 2013, all clinical data was extracted for further analysis.

Comment 6: “*Methods: Microbial analysis in SBP was performed in only 11 cases. A lack of bacteriological testing may also explain the low frequency of bacteriemia in follow up.*”

We mentioned it as a drawback of present study in the *Section – Discussion* (Page 17). “**Present study** did not allow for an in-depth analysis of the association of PRR variants with different types of SBP (culture-negative, culture-positive or bacterascites), **which is a drawback. Since there was** twenty incident cases of SBP during follow-up **and only half of them was cultured.**”

Comment 7: “*Methods: How was censoring performed in KM-analysis? Were patients right-censored at death? How many patients were transplanted? Please indicate censored patients in the KM blots. Please indicate the patients at risk in Figure 2B.*”

In KM-analysis for the development of non-SBP BI, SBP and decompensation event, censoring of patients (right-censoring) was performed in case of transplantation, death or loss of follow-up, whilst in survival analysis in case of transplantation or loss of follow-up. We added this information to the *Section of Patients and Methods – Statistical analysis* (Page 11).

During the study period, 4 patients were transplanted in this cohort that corresponds to the expected annual rate of transplantation/ inhabitants in Hungary: around fifty cases/year for 10 million-population between 2006 and 2013. 200,000 inhabitants belong to our university hospital and median follow-up lasted 1128 days (IQR: 469-1825) in the present study.

We indicated censored patients in the KM plots and patients at risk in Figure 2B.

Comment Awkward Phrases/Language:

We corrected the indicated language items and in accordance with the request of the Associate Editor a professional English editing was also performed and highlighted in the text.

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8 - Introduction: “can be like to” - can be linked to
9 - Introduction: “namely advent of decompensation events” – such as development of
10 decompensation events
11 - Methods: “clinical stage of the diseases” – clinical stage of the disease
12 - Methods: “genetic DNA” (it is genomic) – genomic DNA
13 - Results: “Mortality occurred in 82 subjects” – liver-related death occurred in
14 - Page 14 and others: Please stick with nomenclature of human genes and symbols (*italic,*
15 *large capitals*) consistently. – We unified the nomenclature in the manuscript
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For Peer Review

Reviewer 2

Comment 1: “Did the authors analyse the intake of antibiotics, if yes how did they analyse “this influence”. “Some patients with liver cirrhosis take rifaximin, an antibiotic treatment for prophylaxis for hepatic encephalopathy. These patients have to analysed separately.”

In the present cohort, 23 patients received norfloxacin, while 14 rifaximin at enrolment as a secondary prophylaxis of SBP or hepatic encephalopathy, respectively. The indication for rifaximin was the insufficient response to lactulose and was administered as an add-on-therapy to lactulose. None of the examined *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* gene variants was different between patients with or without receiving secondary antibiotic prophylaxis. We completed the Section – Results, Genotype distribution of various functional polymorphisms of PRRs in cirrhosis (Page 11-12) and Table 1 with these data.

“Co-medications at enrolment comprising use of proton pump inhibitor (PPI), non-selective beta blocker (NSSB) and secondary antibiotic prophylaxis either norfloxacin for prevention of SBP or rifaximin for prevention of HE were also not different among patients with genetic variants of *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* and with wilde-type (Table 1).”

	Total (N=243) *	<i>NOD2</i> polymorphism ^b			<i>TLR2</i> 16934T>A polymorphism rs4696480				<i>TLR4</i> D299G A>G polymorphism rs4986790 ^x		
		Wild type (N=204)	Risk allele (N=37)	P- value	TT (N=64)	TA (N=104)	AA (N=74)	P- value	AA (N=225)	AG (N=17)	P-value
Secondary antibiotic prophylaxis											
Norfloxacin for prevention of SBP	9.5% (23)	8.8% (18)	13.5% (5)	0.372	6.3% (4)	13.5% (14)	6.8% (5)	0.189	9.3% (21)	11.8% (2)	0.742
Rifaximin for prevention of HE	5.8% (14)	5.4% (11)	8.1% (3)	0.457	7.8% (5)	3.8% (4)	6.8% (5)	0.515	5.8% (13)	5.9% (1)	0.986

We included secondary antibiotic prophylaxis as a clinical co-variate during exploring risk factors of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections (non-SBP type BI) during the follow-up period (**Table 3**) such we did in the case of PPI and NSSB medication in the original version of the manuscript. Secondary antibiotic prophylaxis was not associated with an increased cumulative probability of non-SBP type of BI. We added these data to **Table 3**.

Pertinent part of **Table 3**. Association of clinical factors with the development of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections.

		Non-SBP type BI development				Univariate Cox regression		
		n of subjects	n of events	CP of BI \pm SE	P-value*	HR	95%CI	P-value
Total cohort		243	85	49.6 \pm 4.1				
Secondary antibiotic prophylaxis								
Norfloxacin for prevention of SBP	no	220	75	49.0 \pm 4.3	0.108	1.71	(0.88 - 3.31)	0.112
	yes	23	10	52.5 \pm 12.0				
Rifaximin for prevention of HE	no	229	78	48.3 \pm 4.2	0.109	1.86	(0.86-4.04)	0.115
	yes	14	7	80.4 \pm 16.1				

Due to these findings we did not analyze further these small groups of patients separately.

Comment 2 Part 1: “Patients with prior SBP take antibiotic prophylaxis. Did these patients developed also Non-SBP bacterial infections?”

The requested data are presented in *Table 3*. Cumulative probability of a non-SBP type BI was similar between patients with or without a prior history of SBP. This finding might support the idea that the mechanisms of the development of these infections (SBP vs. non-SBP type BI) are different. In SBP, it is mainly related to intestinal bacterial translocation (BT), however it is not a major contributor in the development of non-SBP type BIs.

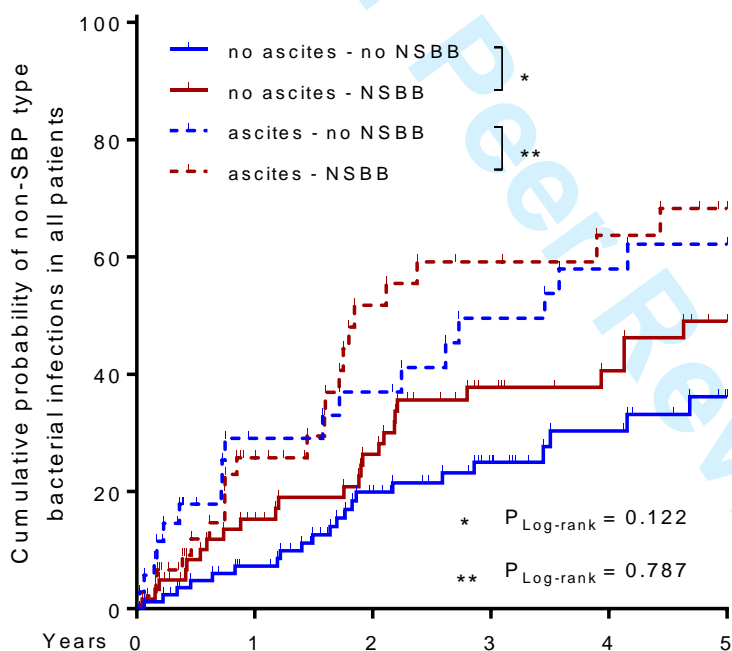
		Non-SBP type BI development				Univariate Cox regression		
		n of subjects	n of events	CP of BI \pm SE	P-value*	HR	95%CI	P-value
Total cohort		243	85	49.6 \pm 4.1				
Prior SBP	absent	220	75	49.0 \pm 4.3	0.108	1.71	(0.88 - 3.31)	0.112
	present	23	10	52.5 \pm 12.0				

The **Comment 2 Part 2** and **Comment 3** are related to each other therefore we would like to answer for them simultaneously.

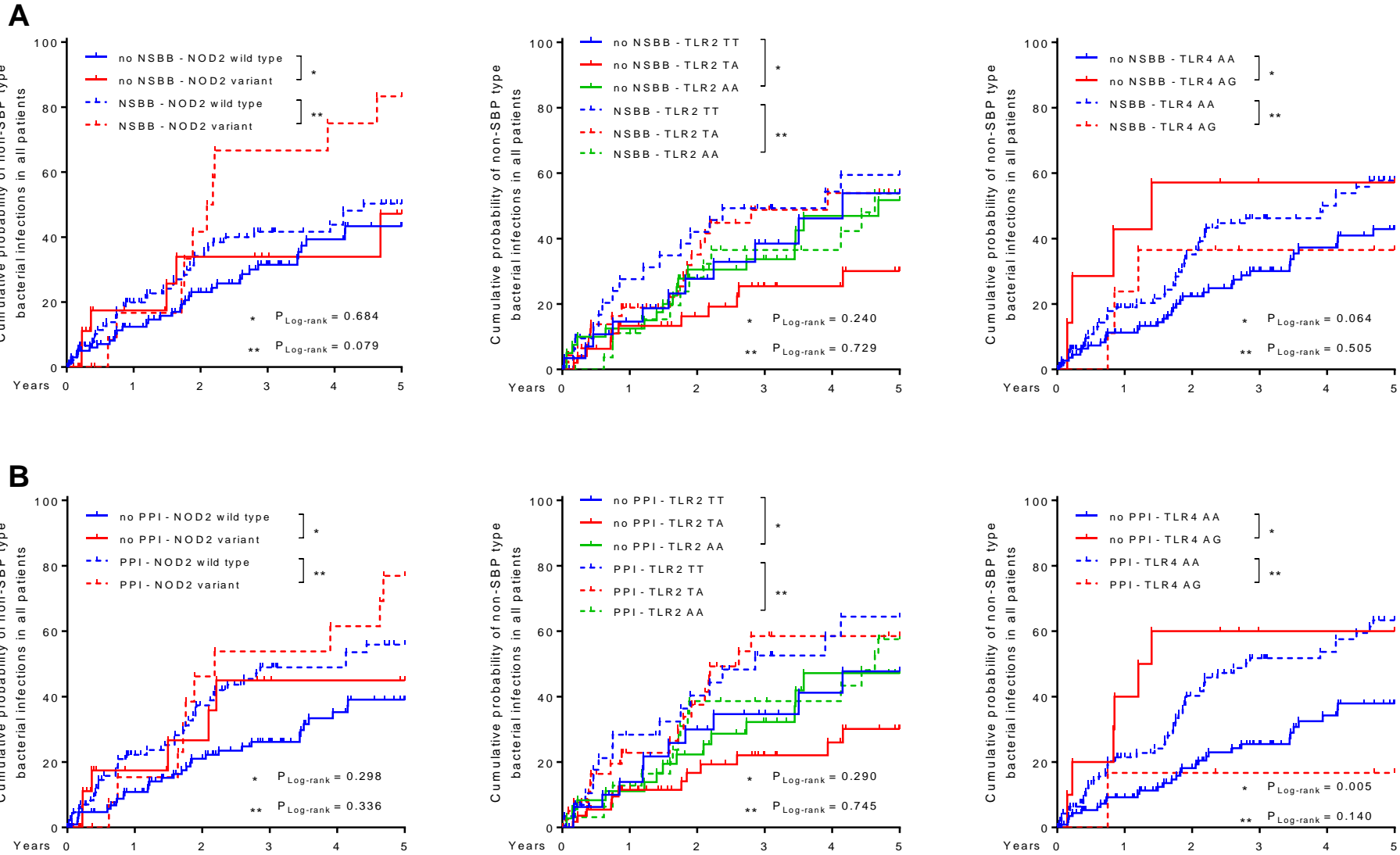
Comment 2 Part 2: “We are learning more and more about the two sides of β -blockers. We have understood a negative influence in patients with decompensated cirrhosis like patients with refractory ascites or with spontaneous bacterial peritonitis. On the other side, we know protective influences of β -blockers in the cascade of bacterial translocation. The authors include patients with β -blockers. Could the authors give us more details about the cirrhosis grade and the intake of β -blockers. The patients should be analysed separately (groups like: no NSBB, NSBB and good liver function, NSBB and bad liver function)”

In the present cohort, NSBB use was significantly higher in the advanced diseases stage: 58% (51/88) vs. 41.9% (65/155) in patients with or without ascites ($p=0.016$). Corresponding data according to Child-Pugh stage were the followings: 71.4% (10/14) for Child C, 51.1% (47/92) for Child B and 43.1% (59/137) for Child A (p for trend= 0.039).

In *Table 3* in the original version of the manuscript, we reported that the CI of the development of non-SBP type BI did not differ between NSBB users and non-users. According to the suggestion of **Reviewer 2** we evaluated this association further taking into account disease severity (presence or absence of ascites). Likewise, there was also no association between NSBB use and the development of BI in KM analysis. In the subgroup of patients without ascites, the cumulative probability (\pm SE) of non-SBP type BI was $49.1\pm 7.4\%$ in NSBB users, while $36.2\pm 6.8\%$ in non-users ($p_{\text{LogRank}}=0.122$). Corresponding data in the subgroup of patients with ascites were $68.2\pm 9.1\%$ and $62.2\pm 9.7\%$ ($p_{\text{LogRank}}=0.787$).



Comment 3: “The authors should analyse separately patients with and without NSBB and with and without PPI”



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The requested data are summarized in the above series of KM curves; however, these are only provided for the **Reviewer 2**. Interpretation of data about the effect of various drugs on long-term disease outcomes raises some problems. Distinctly to secondary prophylaxis of SBP or hepatic encephalopathy in case of certain drugs, like PPIs, episodic use is expected at least in some of the cases. In case of NSSB, though continuous long-term use is highly expected once it started. Drug discontinuation – either temporarily or permanently – however should also be required when contraindications arise. Thus, not only the administration of the drug used at inclusion but also their exact duration should be considered. This approach to the assessment of various medications was beyond scope of the present study.

In expert opinion (Beta-blockers in decompensated cirrhosis, Academic Debates – AASLD 2017, 20th of October), evaluating the effect of co-medications on various outcomes (e.g. bacterial infections, decompensation events or mortality) is somewhat questionable and results are hard to interpret in studies that were designed to evaluate other factors than co-medications.

Comment 4: “*The authors should specify the origin of SBP (nosocomial versus outpatient)*”

All the bacterial infections comprising SBP were community acquired. In the *Section – Patients and Methods, Study design (Page 7)* we stated the followings: “Outpatients at inclusion (n=243) were enrolled into an observational follow-up study where the attending gastroenterologist registered the date and type of bacterial infection (BI) warranting hospital admission (diagnostic criteria are summarized in Supplementary Material) and the development of disease specific complications (ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or variceal bleeding) during regular and extraordinary outpatient follow-up visits and inpatient stays in a prospective manner.”

We added to the *Section – Results, Risk factors of SBP (Page 14)* that these episodes were community acquired.

“Of the patients with ascites 22.7% (20/88) developed **community acquired** SBP during the follow-up period.”

Comment 5: “*Did the authors analyse the survival rates in patients with genetic variants of NOD2 and TLR2/4 and with wildtype?*”

We provided these requested data in the *Section – Results (Page 15)* and *Supplementary Figure 3*. Unfortunately, during the PDF generation of the original manuscript, it did not cover the Supplementary material. Probably it was not available for the *Reviewer 2* during the review process. Now we presented the survival curves in patients with genetic variants of NOD2 and TLR2/4 and with wild type below.

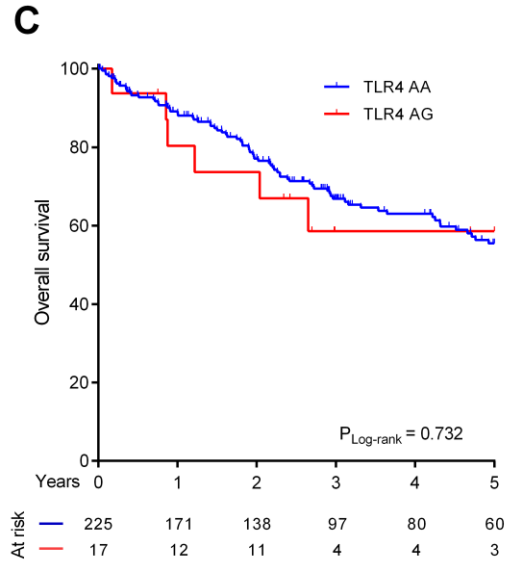
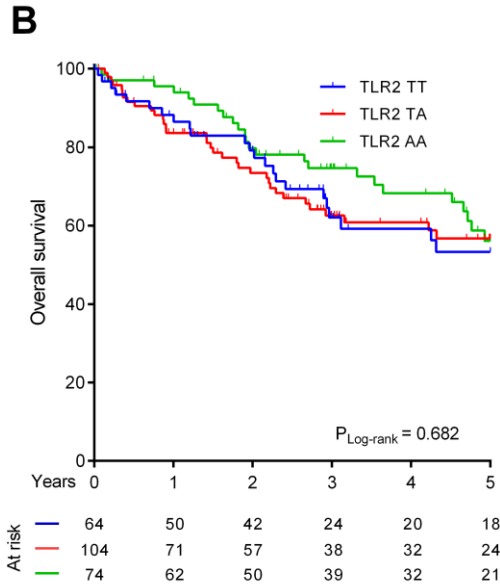
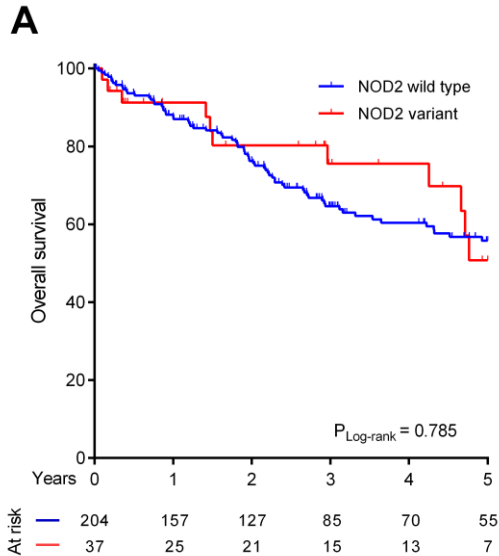
“Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes and survival

In the total cohort, liver-related death occurred in 82 (33.7%) subjects. Median time to mortality was 660 (304-977) days. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis demonstrated a significantly worse survival in patients with advanced disease according to presence of ascites ($P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$), Child-Pugh stage B/C ($P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$), or decompensated clinical stage

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6 (P_{LogRank}=0.033) and prior BI episode (P_{LogRank}=0.050). Neither NOD2 risk variants (P_{LogRank}=
7 0.785) nor *TLR2* (-16934A>T) and *TLR4* (D299G) polymorphisms (P_{LogRank}= 0.682 and
8 0.732) were associated with overall survival (**Supplementary Figure 3**).”
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For Peer Review

Supplementary Figure 3. Kaplan–Meier analysis of survival with respect to the presence of *NOD2* risk alleles (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) (A) and *TLR2* (T-16934A) (B) or *TLR4* (D299G) (C) polymorphisms in outpatients.



view

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6 **Comment 6:** “Could the authors please comment in more detail the different types of Non-
7 SBP bacterial infection and their association to the genetic variants of NOD2, TLR2 and
8 TLR4? For example, is there an association between genetic variants and the risk of e.g.
9 pneumonia or urinary tract infection?”
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11
12 In our study we divided BIs into two groups: SBP and non-SBP type BIs. The rationale of this
13 categorization based on the established concept that the mechanisms of the development of
14 these two groups of infections are different. Intestinal BT is an important mechanism in the
15 development of SBP. And though systemic infections beyond SBP might also be related to
16 BT (e.g. GNB caused skin infections – enteric bacteria reach the systemic circulation, cause
17 bacteremia and seed the tissues of the extremities [*Chang CM, et al. Infection. 2008 Aug;36(4):328-*
18 *34. doi: 10.1007/s15010-008-7272-3.*]) but it is not the major contributor in the development of
19 these infections. In the present cohort evaluating first BI episodes after enrolment, eighty-five
20 (35%) of the included outpatients encountered a non-SBP type BI episode. The incident cases
21 were assigned into seven subgroups according to the location of the infection. (Summarized in
22 *Section of Results – Page 12*). We fully agree with this suggestion of the **Reviewer 2**, however
23 taking into account the low number of cases in seven various location subgroups and the
24 occurrence of different PRR variants (16.4%, 24.8% and 6.6% for any NOD2 variants, TT
25 genotype of TLR2 [16934T>A] and AG genotype of TLR4 D299G, respectively) did not make
26 it possible to address this issue adequately, due to lack of statistical power. This is inevitably a
27 drawback of our study. In the revised version of the manuscript we mentioned this limitation
28 (*Section – Discussion [Page 18]*).

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33 **“The limited number of incident cases in the seven different location subgroups did not
34 make possible the more subtle assessment of the potential role of PRR variants in the
35 development of certain type of infection that is an inevitable drawback of the present
36 cohort.”**
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40 We hope that the quality of the revised version of the manuscript improved significantly and
41 hope that this new version will reach the high standards of *Liver International*
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43
44 Thank you very much for your kind helps and appreciation,
45 Sincerely yours,
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Functional polymorphisms of innate immunity receptors are not risk factors for the non-SBP type bacterial infections in cirrhosis

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#These authors contributed equally to the work and both should be considered as first authors.

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5 **Electronic word count: 5420**
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7 **Number of figures and tables: 4+4**
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11 **List of abbreviations:** AD: acute decompensation, ACLF: acute-on chronic
12 liver failure, BT: bacterial translocation, BI: bacterial infection, LBP:
13 lipopolysaccharide binding protein, MELD: model for end-stage liver disease,
14 HBV: hepatitis B virus, HCV: hepatitis C virus, NOD: nucleotide-binding
15 oligomerization domain, SBP: spontaneous bacterial peritonitis, SNP: single
16 nucleotide polymorphism, TLR: toll-like receptor, PRR: pattern recognition
17 receptor
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29 **Conflict of interest:** none to declare
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38 Papp were supported through the New National Excellence Program of the
39 Ministry of Human Capacities (ÚNKP-16-3 and ÚNKP-17-4).
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ABSTRACT

Background&Aims: Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) have a key role in the innate host defense. Functional polymorphisms of various PRRs have been established to contribute to an increased susceptibility to spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP). Their role in the development of cirrhosis-associated bacterial infections (BI), beyond SBP or progressive disease course related to pathological bacterial translocation (BT) remains unknown.

Methods: 349 patients with cirrhosis were genotyped for common *NOD2* (R702W, G908R and L1007PfsinsC), *TLR2* (-16934T>A), and *TLR4* (D299G) gene variants. Incidence of BIs, decompensating events (ascites, variceal bleeding and hepatic encephalopathy) and liver-related death were assessed in a 5-year follow-up observational study. Pathological BT was assessed based on the presence of anti-microbial antibodies or lipopolysaccharide-binding protein (LBP) level.

Results: In patients with ascites (n=88) only *NOD2* gene variants were associated with an increased cumulative probability of SBP compared to wild-type (76.9%±19.9% vs. 30.9%±6.9%, $P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.047$). Neither individual polymorphisms, nor combined PRR genetic profiles were associated with the risk of non-SBP type BI. Advanced disease stage (HR,[95%CI]: 2.11 [1.38-3.25]) and prior history of a BI episode (HR: 2.42 [1.58-3.72]) were the major clinical risk factors of a subsequent BI. The risk of a non-SBP type BI in patients with advanced disease and a prior BI was even higher (HR: 4.74 [2.68-8.39]). The frequency of anti-microbial antibodies and LBP levels did not differ between various PRR genotypes. Correspondingly, PRR genetic profile was not able to predict the long-term disease course.

Conclusions: In cirrhosis, functional polymorphisms of PRRs

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3 did not improve the identification of patients with high risk of BI beyond SBP
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5 or progressive diseases course.
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10 **Word count for abstract:** 250

11 **Key words:** pattern recognition receptors, genetic polymorphisms, cirrhosis,
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13 bacterial infection, complications, mortality
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18 **Key Points**

- 20 • In this 5-year follow-up study, we evaluated the role of functional
21 polymorphisms of various PRRs (*NOD2*, *TLR2*, and *TLR4*) in the
22 development of bacterial infections, clinical decompensation and
23 mortality in patients with cirrhosis.
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- 26 • We confirmed that *NOD2* variants were risk factors of SBP in patients
27 with ascites.
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- 30 • Clinical factors (advanced disease and history of a bacterial infection)
31 were major determinants of non-SBP type bacterial infections.
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- 34 • We found no association between PRR gene variants and serologic
35 markers of pathological bacterial translocation. Concordantly, patients
36 with PRR gene variants did not have an increased risk for clinical
37 decompensation or mortality.
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INTRODUCTION

Pathological bacterial translocation (BT) is a characteristic feature of cirrhosis, mainly in the advanced disease stage, and it plays an essential role in the pathogenesis and the development of various complications of the disease. The most evidenced clinical consequence of BT is the spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP) and bacteremia. [1] Systemic infections beyond SBP might also be related to BT. Even in the absence of an overt infection, sustained entry of various bacterial products into the hepato-splanchnic and systemic circulation can also have a deleterious effect by inducing an enhanced pro-inflammatory response. Failure to control invading bacteria and/or their products, together with an increased host susceptibility to infection, may result in the damage of the remote organ. [2] Development of consequential organ failure(s) is a major determinant of mortality in this patient population. [3]

Accurate identification and risk stratification of BT can efficiently aid the preventive strategies against bacterial infections and other complications of cirrhosis. Direct data on culturable BT to mesenteric lymph nodes and upstream compartments is not available in humans. Recently, various serologic markers (e.g. lipopolysaccharide binding protein [LBP], [4] bacterial DNA [5] or IgA type anti-microbial antibodies [6,7]) have been proposed to reflect sustained gut microbial exposure. Additionally, susceptibility genes for pathological BT have also been revealed. Functional polymorphisms of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) alter the detection and clearance of bacterial pathogens, thus influencing the innate host defence mechanisms. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the promoter and the encoding regions of nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain (NOD) [8,9] or toll-like

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3 receptors (TLR) [10,11] were reported to increase the risk of SBP. However,
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5 their comprehensive evaluation regarding non-SBP type bacterial infections,
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7 or various other aspects of progressive disease course in cirrhosis has not
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9 been fully elucidated so far.
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12 In the present study, we aimed to investigate the clinical importance of
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14 functional polymorphisms of various PRRs in a large cohort of patients with
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16 cirrhosis. In a 5-year follow-up observational study, we evaluated whether
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18 certain genetic variants of *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* (1) constitute a risk for the
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20 development of SBP or non-SBP type bacterial infections; (2) can be linked to
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22 the established serologic markers of bacterial translocation; (3) constitute a
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24 risk for the progressive disease course, such as development of
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26 decompensation events (ascites formation, hepatic encephalopathy or
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28 variceal bleeding), or liver-related mortality.
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34 **PATIENTS AND METHODS**

35 ***Study design***

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37 We performed a cohort study among adult patients with an established
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39 diagnosis of cirrhosis of different etiologies, in a tertiary care referral center of
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41 Hungary (Division of Gastroenterology Department of Internal Medicine,
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43 Clinical Center, University of Debrecen). The present study population is a
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45 part of our entire patient cohort comprising a total of 404 patients with
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47 cirrhosis who were recruited consecutively between May 1, 2006 and
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49 December 31, 2010 from the outpatient clinic during regular, or extraordinary
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51 follow-up visits, and also from the inpatient ward, when hospitalized with an
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53 acute decompensation (AD) episode [12,13]. For the present study, blood
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3 samples from 349 patients were available (243 outpatients and 106
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5 hospitalized subjects due to an AD episode) (**Figure 1**). Acute
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7 decompensation was defined by the acute development of large ascites
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9 (grade II/III) [14], acute hepatic encephalopathy [15], acute variceal bleeding
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11 [16] and/or the presence of systemic bacterial infection.

14 Clinical characteristics of patients at inclusion are presented in **Table 1**.
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16 Mean disease duration from diagnosis of cirrhosis was 3.9 ± 4.2 years among
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18 patients at the time of the inclusion. Blood samples, routine laboratory data
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20 and a detailed clinical phenotype were captured at inclusion. Clinical data was
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22 determined by an in-depth review of patients' medical records using a
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24 structured interview. Medical records that documented age at diagnosis,
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26 etiology, presence of hepatocellular carcinoma, esophageal varices,
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28 extrahepatic co-morbidities, history of previous AD episode(s), and cirrhosis-
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30 related medication were retrospectively analyzed for the period prior to the
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32 observational follow-up study. At enrollment, disease severity — assessed by
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34 liver-oriented scores (Child-Pugh and MELD) and clinical stage of the disease
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36 (compensated/_decompensated) — was always determined.

40 Outpatients at inclusion (n=243) were enrolled into an observational
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42 follow-up study where the attending gastroenterologist registered the date and
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44 type of bacterial infection (BI) warranting hospital admission (diagnostic
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46 criteria are summarized in **Supplementary Material**) and the development of
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48 disease specific complications (ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or variceal
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50 bleeding) during regular₁ and extraordinary₁ outpatient follow-up visits and
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52 inpatient stays in a prospective manner. In Hungary, a regular outpatient
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54 follow-up visit is usually scheduled for every 3 months at a specialized
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3 gastroenterology center for patients with decompensated cirrhosis (a follow-
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5 up between 1-3 months may be scheduled if dictated by disease severity or
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7 the presence of certain disease specific complications) and for up to 6 months
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9 for patients with cirrhosis but without a prior episode of AD. Follow-up period
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11 lasted for 5 years, or until death/loss of follow-up. Eighty-two (34%) patients
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13 died during follow-up, median time to death was 660 days (IQR: 304-977). In
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15 the 181 patients without death occurring, median follow-up lasted 1128 days
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17 (IQR: 469-1825). Collected data were transferred and stored in a database. At
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19 the end of the study period on December 31, 2013, all clinical data was
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21 extracted for further analysis.
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26 27 **Gene analysis of NOD2, TLR2 and TLR4**

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29 Genomic DNA was extracted from whole-blood samples using the Genra
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31 Puregene Blood Kit (Qiagen; Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's
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33 protocol. Three alleles of the NOD2 gene variants rs2066844 (p.R702W;
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35 NM_022162.2:c.2104C>T), rs2066845 (p.G908R; NM_022162.2:c.2722G>C),
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37 and rs2066847 (L1007Pfs; NM_022162.2:c.3019dupC) were genotyped using
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39 hybridization probes on fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) on a
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41 LightCycler 480 (Roche) real-time PCR system, according to *Ferreiros-Vidal*
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43 *et al* [17]. Gene variant of TLR2 gene rs4696480 (NM_003264.4:c.-
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45 148+1614T>A) was also genotyped using oligonucleotides according to *Oh et*
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47 *al.* [18]. The gene variant of TLR4 gene rs4986790 (p.D299G;
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49 NM_138554.4:c.896A>G) was genotyped using self-designed amplification
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51 oligos (TLR4-D299G F: CATCGTTTGGTTCTGGGAG and TLR4-D299G R:
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53 TTTACCCTTTCAATAGTCACACTCA), while FRET oligonucleotides were
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3 similar to *Hamann et al.* (TLR4-D299G SENS:
4 CTACTACCTCGATGGTATTATTGACTTATT-6FAM, TLR4-D299G ANCH:
5 Cy5.5 -AATTGTTTGACAAATGTTTCTTCATTTTCC-3'phosph) [19].
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10 Representative melting curve genotyping results are shown in the
11 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Genotyping was technically unsuccessful in two
12 patient samples for *NOD2* analysis, and in one sample for *TLR2* and *TLR4*
13 analysis.
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20 **Serologic analysis**

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22 Serum levels of total bilirubin, creatinine, and albumin, blood cell count and
23 INR were determined by routine laboratory analysis.
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27 Blood samples were obtained at enrollment from each patient and were
28 frozen at -70°C until testing. All the serological assays were performed in a
29 blinded fashion without prior knowledge of the patient's clinical information.
30 Commercially available sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays
31 (ELISA) were used according to the manufacturer's protocol to determine
32 serologic markers of pathological BT, namely lipopolysaccharide-binding
33 protein (LBP) (Hycult Biotechnology, Uden, Netherlands), endotoxin core IgA
34 antibody (EndoCAb IgA) (Hycult Biotechnology, Uden, Netherlands) and anti-
35 OMP Plus IgA antibody (QUANTA Lite[®], Inova Diagnostics, San Diego, CA).
36 EndoCAb directs against a mixture of incomplete endotoxins of 4 different
37 species (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Escherichia coli*
38 and *Klebsiella aerogenes*), while anti-OMP Plus antibody does to a mixture of
39 multiple bacterial proteins derived from two species of intestinal bacteria (one
40 Gram-positive and one Gram-negative). Cut-off positivity was 195 AU/mL for
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3 EndoCAb IgA, defined by our group previously [19] as a value exceeding the
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5 95th percentile level of the healthy control group, and 25 U for anti-OMP Plus
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7 IgA as recommended by the manufacturer.
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10 11 ***Ethical considerations***

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14 The study protocol was approved by the Regional and Institutional Research
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16 Ethics Committee of University of Debrecen and by the National Scientific and
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18 Research Ethics Committee (DEOEC-RKEB/IKEB 5306-9/2011,
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20 3885/2012/EKU [60/PI/2012]). Each patient or legal surrogate was informed of
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22 the nature of the study and signed an informed consent form.
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28 ***Statistical analysis***

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30 Variables were tested for normality using Shapiro Wilk's W test. Continuous
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32 variables were summarized as means (standard deviation [SD]) or as
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34 medians (interquartile range [IQR, lowest 25%-highest 25%]) according to
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36 their homogeneity. Categorical variables were compared with Fisher's exact
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38 test or χ^2 test with Yates correction, as appropriate. Continuous variables
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40 were compared with Mann-Whitney U test or Kruskal-Wallis H test with
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42 Dunn's multiple comparison *post hoc* analysis. Allele frequencies of the
43
44 respective SNPs were tested for deviations from the Hardy-Weinberg
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46 equilibrium and then compared for statistical differences with the Cochran
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48 Armitage trend test (Helmholtz Center Munich, <http://ihg.gsf.de/cgi-bin/hw/hwa1.pl>). Kaplan-Meier (KM) analysis was used to calculate the cumulative
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50 probability (CP) of adverse outcomes (development of non-SBP BI, SBP,
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52 decompensation event and mortality). Right censoring of patients was
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3 performed in case of transplantation or loss of follow-up as appropriate.
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5 Differences in observed probabilities were assessed by the log-rank test. The
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7 association between categorical clinical variables, or different PRR
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9 genotypes, and adverse disease outcomes during follow-up was assessed by
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11 univariate Cox-regression analysis. Multivariate analyses were performed with
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13 a forward inclusion procedure and a likelihood ratio test to identify
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15 independent predictors. Binary logistic regression was used to assess the
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17 infection-related mortality at 28 and 90 days. Associations are given as a
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19 hazard ratio [HR] or odds ratio [OR] with 95% confidence intervals [CI]. For
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21 statistical analysis and graphical presentation, the SPSS 24.0 [SPSS,
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23 Chicago, IL], and GraphPad Prism 6 programs were used. A 2-sided
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25 probability value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.
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32 RESULTS

33 34 35 36 ***Genotype distribution of various functional polymorphisms of PRRs in*** 37 38 ***cirrhosis***

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40 Frequencies of various PRR genotypes in cirrhosis are summarized in **Table**
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42 **2.** None of the examined *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* gene variants was different
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44 between outpatients and patients with AD. Further analysis of clinical and
45
46 laboratory characteristics of outpatients revealed that age, gender, presence
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48 of a co-morbidity or HCC, etiology or severity of cirrhosis was not different
49
50 across the various PRR genotype subgroups. Co-medications at enrolment
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52 comprising the use of proton pump inhibitor (PPI), non-selective beta blocker
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54 (NSSB) and secondary antibiotic prophylaxis either norfloxacin for prevention
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3 of SBP or rifaximin for prevention of HE were also not different among
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5 patients with genetic variants of *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* and with wild-type
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7 **(Table 1).**

11 ***Risk factors of non-SBP type BI***

14 Eighty-five (35.0%) of the included outpatients encountered a non-SBP type
15
16 BI episode during the follow-up period. The median time to development of a
17
18 first BI episode was 581 (207-803) days. Urinary tract infection was the most
19
20 commonly diagnosed BI, and accounted for 43.5% (n=37) of the events.
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22 Other sites of BI were as follows: pneumonia (18.8%), erysipelas (10.6%),
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24 acute bronchitis (5.9%), cholangitis (3.5%), bacteremia (3.5%), gastroenteritis
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26 (1.2%) and unidentified in 9 (10.6%) cases. 2.4% of the cases were multifocal.
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28 Microbiological analysis was performed in 35 (41.2%) cases. Bacteria were
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30 Gram-negative in 76.5% and Gram-positive in 23.5% of culture positive cases
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32 (n=17) **(Supplementary Material).**

38 *Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes*

40 Patients with any risk variants in *NOD2*, *TLR2* or *TLR4* genes did not have an
41
42 increased cumulative probability of a non-SBP type BI episode during follow-
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44 up **(Figure 2A)**, not even when stratifying according to presence of ascites
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46 **(Figure 2B)**. Patients carrying both a *TLR2* variant and at least one *NOD2*
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48 risk variant (n=10) had also a similar rate of non-SBP type BI, than patients
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50 not carrying both variants ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.397$). There was no rationale for testing
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52 the potential effect of the *TLR4* and *NOD2* *variant* combination. Only one
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54 patient carried both variant genotypes.
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3 The presence or absence of a *NOD2*, *TLR2* or *TLR4* variants did not
4 affect the type of pathogen causing BI (Gram-negative or –positive), or the
5 location of BI.
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10 Furthermore, these PRR gene variants were not associated with the
11 risk of mortality during a subsequent bacterial infection (**Supplementary**
12 **Table 2).**
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15 Clinical co-variates

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18 Of the clinical factors; co-morbidity, PPI use, prior history of a BI episode and
19 advanced disease stage were all associated with an increased cumulative
20 probability of non-SBP type BI episodes during the follow-up period (**Table 3**).
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23 Of the patients with a prior history of BI, 66.5%±6.3% (standard error)
24 developed another BI episode, compared to 39.7%±5.1 % of those with no
25 such history ($P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$). Regarding advanced disease stage, similar
26 results were found if advanced disease stage was depicted either by the
27 presence of ascites (65.2%±6.6% vs. 42.0%±5.1%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$), Child-
28 Pugh stage B/C (68%±6.1% vs. 38.1%±5.2%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$) or by
29 decompensated clinical stage (58.8%±5.7% vs. 40.8%±5.8%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} = 0.01$).
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32 The combination of these two relevant clinical factors revealed important
33 findings. First, prior history of a BI episode significantly increased the
34 probability of the subsequent development of another BI event, regardless of
35 disease severity. Furthermore, a prior history of a BI without ascites was
36 associated with the same cumulative probability of a BI occurring, as the
37 presence of ascites without prior history of a BI (57.3%±8.7% and
38 51.0%±9.9%, respectively). The combined presence of both clinical risk
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3 factors resulted in an even higher cumulative probability of BI (80.3%±7.7%)
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5 (Figure 3 and Table 3).
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8 9 **Multivariate analysis**

10 Multivariate Cox-regression analysis and the forward inclusion procedure,
11 taking all significant clinical co-variables of univariate analysis into account,
12 indicated that presence of ascites (HR [95%CI]: 1.71 [1.08-2.7], higher MELD
13 score (1.08 [1.02-1.15]) and prior BI episode (2.02 [1.3-3.14]) were
14 independently associated with the risk of a non-SBP type BI development
15 during follow-up.
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26 27 ***Risk factors of SBP***

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29 Of the patients with ascites 22.7% (20/88) developed community acquired
30 SBP during the follow-up period. Of the cases with microbiological
31 investigation, 36.4% (4/11) was culture-positive SBP, while 63.6% (7/11) was
32 culture negative. Bacteria were Gram-negative in 75% and Gram-positive in
33 25% of culture positive cases (Supplementary Material). The median time to
34 the development of SBP was 340 (126-662) days. The presence of *NOD2* risk
35 allele variants, but not of *TLR2* and *TLR4* variants, were associated with an
36 increased cumulative probability of SBP (Figure 4). Of the patients with any
37 *NOD2* risk variants 76.9%±19.9% developed SBP, compared to 30.9%±6.9%
38 of those with *NOD2* wild type ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.047$). Patients with or without any
39 *NOD2* risk allele variants had similar MELD scores (median [IQR]: 14 [9-16]
40 vs. 13 [10-15], respectively, $P=0.874$). Prior SBP episode was also associated
41 with the risk of SBP development ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.048$).
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5 ***Association of functional polymorphisms of PRR genes with serologic***
6 ***markers of BT***
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10 Serum level of LBP and frequencies of IgA type antibodies directed against
11 various gut microbial components (anti-OMP Plus and EndoCab) were not
12 different according to the examined PRR genotypes (**Table 4**).
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18 ***Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes and development of***
19 ***decompensation events***
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23 Of the patients with a compensated clinical stage at enrolment 31.4%
24 (38/121) developed any type of decompensation event (ascites, variceal
25 bleeding or hepatic encephalopathy). The median time to the development of
26 a first decompensation was 540 (140-913) days. Neither NOD2 risk variants
27 ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.681$) nor TLR2 and TLR4 polymorphisms ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.068$ and
28 0.249) were risk factors of clinical decompensation (**Supplementary Figure**
29 **2**).
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41 ***Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes and survival***
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43 In the total cohort, liver-related death occurred in 82 (33.7%) subjects. Median
44 time to mortality was 660 (304-977) days. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis
45 demonstrated a significantly worse survival in patients with advanced disease
46 according to presence of ascites ($P_{\text{LogRank}}<0.001$), Child-Pugh stage B/C
47 ($P_{\text{LogRank}}<0.001$), or decompensated clinical stage ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.033$) and prior
48 BI episode ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.050$). Neither NOD2 risk variants ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.785$) nor
49 TLR2 and TLR4 polymorphisms ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.682$ and 0.732) were associated
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3 with overall survival (**Supplementary Figure 3**).
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7 **DISCUSSION**

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10 Bacterial infections beyond SBP have significant prognostic
11 implications in patients with cirrhosis [1]. Thus, individual risk stratification for
12 BI is an important clinical issue, and it may be instrumental in identifying high-
13 risk patients amenable to preventive measures and/or closer follow-up
14 strategies as a part of the standard of care. Former clinical studies with
15 functional PRR gene variants in cirrhosis primarily focused on the
16 development of SBP in ascitic patients [8–11]. Distinctly, in the present study
17 we comprehensively assessed the utility of various functional SNPs of three
18 different PRR genes simultaneously in a large prospective cohort, comprising
19 the whole severity spectrum of cirrhosis, with a special emphasis on the
20 development of non-SBP type BI.
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34 In our cohort, the frequencies of PRR gene variants were comparable
35 within other cirrhotic patient cohorts and with healthy Caucasians [20,21].
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38 Similar to most of the previous studies [8–10], the presence of *NOD2*
39 allele variants was a risk factor for SBP in our cohort as well. A recent large
40 association study in patients with decompensated cirrhosis however, did not
41 demonstrate a role of *NOD2* variant in mediating susceptibility for SBP [23]. In
42 our study development of SBP was not more frequent in patients with *TLR2* (-
43 16934 T>A, rs4696480) and *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) polymorphisms. This
44 latter finding is a novelty. At the same time, the association of SBP with
45 various *TLR2* genotypes is somewhat controversial in the published literature.
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56 In the studies of *Nischalke et al.* [10] and *Lutz et al.* [22] *TLR2* (-16934 TT)
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3 genotype but not *TLR2* R753Q and P631H mutations were associated with
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5 SBP. Contrarily, *Bruns et al.* showed that not *TLR2* (-16934 T>A) but *TLR2*
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7 R753Q polymorphism increased the risk of SBP [11]. A limitation of our study
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9 compared to previous cohorts, was the relatively lower number of patients
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11 with ascites (n=88). The present study did not allow for an in-depth analysis of
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13 the association of PRR variants with different types of SBP (culture-negative,
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15 culture-positive or bacterascites), which is a drawback. Since there was
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17 twenty incident cases of SBP during follow-up and only half of them was
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19 cultured.

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23 The PRR gene variants examined in our study were reported to have a
24
25 special role in susceptibility to bacterial infections and sepsis in patients with
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27 acquired immune deficiency (i.e. acute leukaemia or allogeneic stem cell
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29 transplantation) [22,23]. Furthermore in critically ill patients, the *NOD2/TLR4*
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31 combination was associated with higher rate of bacteraemia [24]. In patients
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33 with advanced cirrhosis the *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) variant was
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35 recognized to increase overall BI rates in a single retrospective study (n=111)
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37 [25]. At the same time, another *TLR4* variant (c.+1196C/T, rs4986791) did not
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39 increase the risk of BI in a large retrospective cohort (n=336), including a
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41 validation cohort with same samples size [26]. In our study none of the
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43 examined PRR variants were associated with higher risk of non-SBP type BI.

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47 In spite of the known fact that two main members of the PRR family – TLRs
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49 and NOD like receptors – act synergistically in the initiation of host innate
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51 immune response to BI [27], neither of the *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* gene
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53 variant combinations showed increased BI susceptibility. The limitation of the
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55 present study is that the association of bacterial infections and *TLR4*
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3 polymorphisms warrants further evaluation in a larger cohort since our study
4 was underpowered to detect such an association at this sample size
5 (Supplementary Table 1). The limited number of incident cases the seven
6 different location subgroups did not make possible a more subtle assessment
7 of the potential role of PRR variants in the development of certain types of
8 infection.

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16 _____The strength of the present study is that the whole disease severity
17 spectrum of cirrhosis was represented, allowing for an in-depth evaluation of
18 the interaction of PRR gene variants and BI development in various disease
19 severity subgroups. Cirrhosis associated immunodeficiency syndrome (CAID)
20 is a dynamic process evolving with the natural history of progression to end
21 stage liver disease [28]. Therefore, the impact of an inherited risk for a BI
22 might be different in early vs. advanced cirrhosis, owing to limited
23 compensatory mechanisms. However, PRR gene variants were not
24 associated with a higher risk of non-SBP type BI in any subgroups of various
25 disease severities. These results confirm that acquired immune deficiency
26 state in cirrhosis is more dominant of a risk factor than the presence of
27 functional genetic polymorphisms in the development of BI.

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43 The most notable discovery of the present study was that a prior
44 episode of BI was a risk factor for the development of a subsequent BI
45 episode. This finding suggests the presence of further persistent host factors
46 that modulate an individual's susceptibility for BI. Interestingly, this association
47 was present in early as well as in advanced disease stages. Remarkably,
48 history of a prior BI episode and an advanced disease stage had similar
49 impacts on the infectious risk.

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3 Pathological BT is associated with clinically relevant complications in
4 cirrhosis [29]. There is evidence that variants of the *NOD2* gene [30,31], and
5 various *TLR* [32] polymorphisms contribute to BT in patients with Crohn's
6 diseases. Likewise in patients with decompensated cirrhosis an increased
7 translocation of bacterial DNA fragments into ascitic fluid was found in the
8 presence of the *NOD2* risk variant p.G908R [33]. Moreover there was
9 increased transition of pathologic BT to culture-positive SBP in the case of the
10 same *NOD2* variant [34,35]. Furthermore, *TLR2* (-16934 T>A, rs4696480)
11 and *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) polymorphisms were associated with an
12 increased systemic antigen burden as well, described by the serum level of
13 lipoteichoic acid, LPS, and bacterial-DNA [32].

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28 In our study we applied both serologic and clinical approaches to
29 assess the impact of PRR genetic variants to BT. First, we examined the
30 effect of *NOD* and *TLR* SNPs on the serological response to BT, but used
31 different serologic markers than in the study of *Piñero et al.* [32]. The
32 frequency of IgA type anti-microbial antibodies and LBP levels in our study did
33 not differ between various PRR genotypes; neither in the entire cohort nor in
34 the subgroup of patients with/ or without ascites. Second, we hypothesised
35 that if PRR genetic variants were linked to BT, they would be associated with
36 enhanced diseases progression, e.g. the advent of first decompensating
37 event, or liver-related death. In accordance with our serologic results, different
38 polymorphisms of the *NOD2* and *TLR2* and *TLR4* genes did not influence
39 these adverse outcomes. It should be pointed out that our analysis is the first
40 to consider the effect of PRR gene variants on the development of a
41 decompensating event in cirrhosis.

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3 The effect of PRR gene variants on mortality was assessed previously
4 but yielded conflicting results. *Appenrodt et al.* found four-fold increased risk
5 in cirrhotic patients with *NOD2* risk alleles [9]. Concordantly to our findings
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7 *Bruns et al.* did not report an increased hazard of death related to the same
8 variants of *NOD2* [8].
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11 In conclusion, we were able to confirm the previous discovery that
12 common *NOD2* gene variants increased the risk of SBP. However, *NOD2* and
13 other SNPs of *TLR2* and *TLR4* did not influence the development of non-SBP
14 type bacterial infections. Disease severity and a prior episode of bacterial
15 infection were highly relevant clinical risk factors for a subsequent episode.
16 PRR gene variants were neither associated with serological markers of
17 bacterial translocation, nor were they associated with the development of
18 clinical decompensation or liver-related death during follow-up. These results
19 suggest a limited value of PRR genotyping in the prediction of a progressive
20 disease course in cirrhosis.
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For Peer Review

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3 **Functional polymorphisms of innate immunity receptors are not risk**
4 **factors for the non-SBP type bacterial infections in cirrhosis**
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5 **Electronic word count: 5420**

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7 **Number of figures and tables: 4+4**

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11 **List of abbreviations:** AD: acute decompensation, ACLF: acute-on chronic
12 liver failure, BT: bacterial translocation, BI: bacterial infection, LBP:
13 lipopolysaccharide binding protein, MELD: model for end-stage liver disease,
14 HBV: hepatitis B virus, HCV: hepatitis C virus, NOD: nucleotide-binding
15 oligomerization domain, SBP: spontaneous bacterial peritonitis, SNP: single
16 nucleotide polymorphism, TLR: toll-like receptor, PRR: pattern recognition
17 receptor
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ABSTRACT

Background&Aims: Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) have a key role in the innate host defense. Functional polymorphisms of various PRRs have been established to contribute to an increased susceptibility to spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP). Their role in the development of cirrhosis-associated bacterial infections (BI), beyond SBP or progressive disease course related to pathological bacterial translocation (BT) remains unknown.

Methods: 349 patients with cirrhosis were genotyped for common *NOD2* (R702W, G908R and L1007PfsinsC), *TLR2* (-16934T>A), and *TLR4* (D299G) gene variants. Incidence of BIs, decompensating events (ascites, variceal bleeding and hepatic encephalopathy) and liver-related death were assessed in a 5-year follow-up observational study. Pathological BT was assessed based on the presence of anti-microbial antibodies or lipopolysaccharide-binding protein (LBP) level. **Results:** In patients with ascites (n=88) only *NOD2* gene variants were associated with an increased cumulative probability of SBP compared to wild-type (76.9%±19.9% vs. 30.9%±6.9%, $P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.047$). Neither individual polymorphisms, nor combined PRR genetic profiles were associated with the risk of non-SBP type BI. Advanced disease stage (HR,[95%CI]: 2.11 [1.38-3.25]) and prior history of a BI episode (HR: 2.42 [1.58-3.72]) were the major clinical risk factors of a subsequent BI. The risk of a non-SBP type BI in patients with advanced disease and a prior BI was even higher (HR: 4.74 [2.68-8.39]). The frequency of anti-microbial antibodies and LBP levels did not differ between various PRR genotypes. Correspondingly, PRR genetic profile was not able to predict the long-term disease course. **Conclusions:** In cirrhosis, functional polymorphisms of PRRs

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3 did not improve the identification of patients with high risk of BI beyond SBP
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5 or progressive diseases course.
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9 **Word count for abstract:** 250

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11 **Key words:** pattern recognition receptors, genetic polymorphisms, cirrhosis,
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13 bacterial infection, complications, mortality
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16 17 18 **Key Points**

- 19
20 • In this 5-year follow-up study, we evaluated the role of functional
21
22 polymorphisms of various PRRs (*NOD2*, *TLR2*, and *TLR4*) in the
23
24 development of bacterial infections, clinical decompensation and
25
26 mortality in patients with cirrhosis.
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- 29
30 • We confirmed that *NOD2* variants were risk factors of SBP in patients
31
32 with ascites.
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35 • Clinical factors (advanced disease and history of a bacterial infection)
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37 were major determinants of non-SBP type bacterial infections.
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- 39
40 • We found no association between PRR gene variants and serologic
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42 markers of pathological bacterial translocation. Concordantly, patients
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44 with PRR gene variants did not have an increased risk for clinical
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46 decompensation or mortality.
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INTRODUCTION

Pathological bacterial translocation (BT) is a characteristic feature of cirrhosis, mainly in the advanced disease stage, and it plays an essential role in the pathogenesis and the development of various complications of the disease. The most evidenced clinical consequence of BT is the spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP) and bacteremia. [1] Systemic infections beyond SBP might also be related to BT. Even in the absence of an overt infection, sustained entry of various bacterial products into the hepato-splanchnic and systemic circulation can also have a deleterious effect by inducing an enhanced pro-inflammatory response. Failure to control invading bacteria and/or their products, together with an increased host susceptibility to infection, may result in the damage of the remote organ. [2] Development of consequential organ failure(s) is a major determinant of mortality in this patient population. [3]

Accurate identification and risk stratification of BT can efficiently aid the preventive strategies against bacterial infections and other complications of cirrhosis. Direct data on culturable BT to mesenteric lymph nodes and upstream compartments is not available in humans. Recently, various serologic markers (e.g. lipopolysaccharide binding protein [LBP], [4] bacterial DNA [5] or IgA type anti-microbial antibodies [6,7]) have been proposed to reflect sustained gut microbial exposure. Additionally, susceptibility genes for pathological BT have also been revealed. Functional polymorphisms of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) alter the detection and clearance of bacterial pathogens, thus influencing the innate host defence mechanisms. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the promoter and the encoding regions of nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain (NOD) [8,9] or toll-like

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3 receptors (TLR) [10,11] were reported to increase the risk of SBP. However,
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5 their comprehensive evaluation regarding non-SBP type bacterial infections,
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7 or various other aspects of progressive disease course in cirrhosis has not
8
9 been fully elucidated so far.
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12 In the present study, we aimed to investigate the clinical importance of
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14 functional polymorphisms of various PRRs in a large cohort of patients with
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16 cirrhosis. In a 5-year follow-up observational study, we evaluated whether
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18 certain genetic variants of *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* (1) constitute a risk for the
19
20 development of SBP or non-SBP type bacterial infections; (2) can be linked to
21
22 the established serologic markers of bacterial translocation; (3) constitute a
23
24 risk for the progressive disease course, such as development of
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26 decompensation events (ascites formation, hepatic encephalopathy or
27
28 variceal bleeding), or liver-related mortality.
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34 **PATIENTS AND METHODS**

35 ***Study design***

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37 We performed a cohort study among adult patients with an established
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39 diagnosis of cirrhosis of different etiologies, in a tertiary care referral center of
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41 Hungary (Division of Gastroenterology Department of Internal Medicine,
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43 Clinical Center, University of Debrecen). The present study population is a
44
45 part of our entire patient cohort comprising a total of 404 patients with
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47 cirrhosis who were recruited consecutively between May 1, 2006 and
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49 December 31, 2010 from the outpatient clinic during regular, or extraordinary
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51 follow-up visits, and also from the inpatient ward, when hospitalized with an
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53 acute decompensation (AD) episode [12,13]. For the present study, blood
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3 samples from 349 patients were available (243 outpatients and 106
4 hospitalized subjects due to an AD episode) (**Figure 1**). Acute
5 decompensation was defined by the acute development of large ascites
6 (grade II/III) [14], acute hepatic encephalopathy [15], acute variceal bleeding
7 [16] and/or the presence of systemic bacterial infection.
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14 Clinical characteristics of patients at inclusion are presented in **Table 1**.
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16 Mean disease duration from diagnosis of cirrhosis was 3.9 ± 4.2 years among
17 patients at the time of the inclusion. Blood samples, routine laboratory data
18 and a detailed clinical phenotype were captured at inclusion. Clinical data was
19 determined by an in-depth review of patients' medical records using a
20 structured interview. Medical records that documented age at diagnosis,
21 etiology, presence of hepatocellular carcinoma, esophageal varices,
22 extrahepatic co-morbidities, history of previous AD episode(s), and cirrhosis-
23 related medication were retrospectively analyzed for the period prior to the
24 observational follow-up study. At enrollment, disease severity – assessed by
25 liver-oriented scores (Child-Pugh and MELD) and clinical stage of the disease
26 (compensated/ decompensated) – was always determined.
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41 Outpatients at inclusion (n=243) were enrolled into an observational
42 follow-up study where the attending gastroenterologist registered the date and
43 type of bacterial infection (BI) warranting hospital admission (diagnostic
44 criteria are summarized in **Supplementary Material**) and the development of
45 disease specific complications (ascites, hepatic encephalopathy or variceal
46 bleeding) during regular, and extraordinary, outpatient follow-up visits and
47 inpatient stays in a prospective manner. In Hungary, a regular outpatient
48 follow-up visit is usually scheduled for every 3 months at a specialized
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3 gastroenterology center for patients with decompensated cirrhosis (a follow-
4 up between 1-3 months may be scheduled if dictated by disease severity or
5 the presence of certain disease specific complications) and for up to 6 months
6 for patients with cirrhosis but without a prior episode of AD. Follow-up period
7 lasted for 5 years, or until death/loss of follow-up. Eighty-two (34%) patients
8 died during follow-up, median time to death was 660 days (IQR: 304-977). In
9 the 181 patients without death occurring, median follow-up lasted 1128 days
10 (IQR: 469-1825). Collected data were transferred and stored in a database. At
11 the end of the study period on December 31, 2013, all clinical data was
12 extracted for further analysis.
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25 26 27 **Gene analysis of NOD2, TLR2 and TLR4**

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29 Genomic DNA was extracted from whole-blood samples using the Genra
30 Puregene Blood Kit (Qiagen; Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's
31 protocol. Three alleles of the *NOD2* gene variants rs2066844, (p.R702W;
32 NM_022162.2:c.2104C>T), rs2066845 (p.G908R; NM_022162.2:c.2722G>C),
33 and rs2066847 (L1007Pfs; NM_022162.2:c.3019dupC) were genotyped using
34 hybridization probes on fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) on a
35 LightCycler 480 (Roche) real-time PCR system, according to *Ferreiros-Vidal*
36 *et al* [17]. Gene variant of *TLR2* gene rs4696480 (NM_003264.4:c.-
37 148+1614T>A) was also genotyped using oligonucleotides according to *Oh et*
38 *al.* [18]. The gene variant of *TLR4* gene rs4986790 (p.D299G;
39 NM_138554.4:c.896A>G) was genotyped using self-designed amplification
40 oligos (TLR4-D299G F: CATCGTTTGGTTCTGGGAG and TLR4-D299G R:
41 TTTACCCTTTCAATAGTCACACTCA), while FRET oligonucleotides were
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3 similar to *Hamann et al.* (TLR4-D299G SENS:
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5 CTACTACCTCGATGGTATTATTGACTTATT-6FAM, TLR4-D299G ANCH:
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7 Cy5.5 -AATTGTTTGACAAATGTTTCTTCATTTCC-3'phosph) [19].
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10 Representative melting curve genotyping results are shown in the
11 **Supplementary Figure 1**. Genotyping was technically unsuccessful in two
12 patient samples for *NOD2* analysis, and in one sample for *TLR2* and *TLR4*
13 analysis.
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20 **Serologic analysis**

21 Serum levels of total bilirubin, creatinine, and albumin, blood cell count and
22 INR were determined by routine laboratory analysis.
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27 Blood samples were obtained at enrollment from each patient and were
28 frozen at -70°C until testing. All the serological assays were performed in a
29 blinded fashion without prior knowledge of the patient's clinical information.
30 Commercially available sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays
31 (ELISA) were used according to the manufacturer's protocol to determine
32 serologic markers of pathological BT, namely lipopolysaccharide-binding
33 protein (LBP) (Hycult Biotechnology, Uden, Netherlands), endotoxin core IgA
34 antibody (EndoCAb IgA) (Hycult Biotechnology, Uden, Netherlands) and anti-
35 OMP Plus IgA antibody (QUANTA Lite[®], Inova Diagnostics, San Diego, CA).
36 EndoCAb directs against a mixture of incomplete endotoxins of 4 different
37 species (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Escherichia coli*
38 and *Klebsiella aerogenes*), while anti-OMP Plus antibody does to a mixture of
39 multiple bacterial proteins derived from two species of intestinal bacteria (one
40 Gram-positive and one Gram-negative). Cut-off positivity was 195 AU/mL for
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3 EndoCAb IgA, defined by our group previously [19] as a value exceeding the
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5 95th percentile level of the healthy control group, and 25 U for anti-OMP Plus
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7 IgA as recommended by the manufacturer.
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10 11 12 ***Ethical considerations*** 13

14 The study protocol was approved by the Regional and Institutional Research
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16 Ethics Committee of University of Debrecen and by the National Scientific and
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18 Research Ethics Committee (DEOEC-RKEB/IKEB 5306-9/2011,
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20 3885/2012/EKU [60/PI/2012]). Each patient or legal surrogate was informed of
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22 the nature of the study and signed an informed consent form.
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28 ***Statistical analysis*** 29

30 Variables were tested for normality using Shapiro Wilk's W test. Continuous
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32 variables were summarized as means (standard deviation [SD]) or as
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34 medians (interquartile range [IQR, lowest 25%-highest 25%]) according to
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36 their homogeneity. Categorical variables were compared with Fisher's exact
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38 test or χ^2 test with Yates correction, as appropriate. Continuous variables
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40 were compared with Mann-Whitney U test or Kruskal-Wallis H test with
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42 Dunn's multiple comparison *post hoc* analysis. Allele frequencies of the
43
44 respective SNPs were tested for deviations from the Hardy-Weinberg
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46 equilibrium and then compared for statistical differences with the Cochran
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48 Armitage trend test (Helmholtz Center Munich, <http://ihg.gsf.de/cgi-bin/hw/hwa1.pl>). Kaplan-Meier (KM) analysis was used to calculate the cumulative
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50 probability (CP) of adverse outcomes (development of non-SBP BI, SBP,
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52 decompensation event and mortality). Right censoring of patients was
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3 performed in case of transplantation or loss of follow-up as appropriate.
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5 Differences in observed probabilities were assessed by the log-rank test. The
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7 association between categorical clinical variables, or different PRR
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9 genotypes, and adverse disease outcomes during follow-up was assessed by
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11 univariate Cox-regression analysis. Multivariate analyses were performed with
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13 a forward inclusion procedure and a likelihood ratio test to identify
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15 independent predictors. Binary logistic regression was used to assess the
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17 infection-related mortality at 28 and 90 days. Associations are given as a
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19 hazard ratio [HR] or odds ratio [OR] with 95% confidence intervals [CI]. For
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21 statistical analysis and graphical presentation, the SPSS 24.0 [SPSS,
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23 Chicago, IL], and GraphPad Prism 6 programs were used. A 2-sided
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25 probability value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.
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32 RESULTS

33 34 35 36 ***Genotype distribution of various functional polymorphisms of PRRs in*** 37 38 ***cirrhosis***

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40 Frequencies of various PRR genotypes in cirrhosis are summarized in **Table**
41
42 **2**. None of the examined *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* gene variants was different
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44 between outpatients and patients with AD. Further analysis of clinical and
45
46 laboratory characteristics of outpatients revealed that age, gender, presence
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48 of a co-morbidity or HCC, etiology or severity of cirrhosis was not different
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50 across the various PRR genotype subgroups. Co-medications at enrolment
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52 comprising the use of proton pump inhibitor (PPI), non-selective beta blocker
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54 (NSSB) and secondary antibiotic prophylaxis either norfloxacin for prevention
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3 of SBP or rifaximin for prevention of HE were also not different among
4 patients with genetic variants of *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* and with wild-type
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8 (Table 1).
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10 11 ***Risk factors of non-SBP type BI*** 12

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14 Eighty-five (35.0%) of the included outpatients encountered a non-SBP type
15
16 BI episode during the follow-up period. The median time to development of a
17
18 first BI episode was 581 (207-803) days. Urinary tract infection was the most
19
20 commonly diagnosed BI, and accounted for 43.5% (n=37) of the events.
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22 Other sites of BI were as follows: pneumonia (18.8%), erysipelas (10.6%),
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24 acute bronchitis (5.9%), cholangitis (3.5%), bacteremia (3.5%), gastroenteritis
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26 (1.2%) and unidentified in 9 (10.6%) cases. 2.4% of the cases were multifocal.
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28 Microbiological analysis was performed in 35 (41.2%) cases. Bacteria were
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30 Gram-negative in 76.5% and Gram-positive in 23.5% of culture positive cases
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32 (n=17) (Supplementary Material).
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40 ***Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes*** 41

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43 Patients with any risk variants in *NOD2*, *TLR2* or *TLR4* genes did not have an
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45 increased cumulative probability of a non-SBP type BI episode during follow-
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47 up (Figure 2A), not even when stratifying according to presence of ascites
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49 (Figure 2B). Patients carrying both a *TLR2* variant and at least one *NOD2*
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51 risk variant (n=10) had also a similar rate of non-SBP type BI, than patients
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53 not carrying both variants ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.397$). There was no rationale for testing
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55 the potential effect of the *TLR4* and *NOD2* variant combination. Only one
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57 patient carried both variant genotypes.
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3 The presence or absence of a *NOD2*, *TLR2* or *TLR4* variants did not
4 affect the type of pathogen causing BI (Gram-negative or –positive), or the
5 location of BI.
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10 Furthermore, these PRR gene variants were not associated with the
11 risk of mortality during a subsequent bacterial infection (**Supplementary**
12 **Table 2**).
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18 *Clinical co-variates*

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20 Of the clinical factors: co-morbidity, PPI use, prior history of a BI episode and
21 advanced disease stage were all associated with an increased cumulative
22 probability of non-SBP type BI episodes during the follow-up period (**Table 3**).
23

24 Of the patients with a prior history of BI, 66.5%±6.3% (standard error)
25 developed another BI episode, compared to 39.7%±5.1 % of those with no
26 such history ($P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$). Regarding advanced disease stage, similar
27 results were found if advanced disease stage was depicted either by the
28 presence of ascites (65.2%±6.6% vs. 42.0%±5.1%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$), Child-
29 Pugh stage B/C (68%±6.1% vs. 38.1%±5.2%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} < 0.001$) or by
30 decompensated clinical stage (58.8%±5.7% vs. 40.8%±5.8%, $P_{\text{LogRank}} = 0.01$).
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43 The combination of these two relevant clinical factors revealed important
44 findings. First, prior history of a BI episode significantly increased the
45 probability of the subsequent development of another BI event, regardless of
46 disease severity. Furthermore, a prior history of a BI without ascites was
47 associated with the same cumulative probability of a BI occurring, as the
48 presence of ascites without prior history of a BI (57.3%±8.7% and
49 51.0%±9.9%, respectively). The combined presence of both clinical risk
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factors resulted in an even higher cumulative probability of BI (80.3%±7.7%) (Figure 3 and Table 3).

Multivariate analysis

Multivariate Cox-regression analysis and the forward inclusion procedure, taking all significant clinical co-variables of univariate analysis into account, indicated that presence of ascites (HR [95%CI]: 1.71 [1.08-2.7], higher MELD score (1.08 [1.02-1.15]) and prior BI episode (2.02 [1.3-3.14]) were independently associated with the risk of a non-SBP type BI development during follow-up.

Risk factors of SBP

Of the patients with ascites 22.7% (20/88) developed community acquired SBP during the follow-up period. Of the cases with microbiological investigation, 36.4% (4/11) was culture-positive SBP, while 63.6% (7/11) was culture negative. Bacteria were Gram-negative in 75% and Gram-positive in 25% of culture positive cases (Supplementary Material). The median time to the development of SBP was 340 (126-662) days. The presence of *NOD2* risk allele variants, but not of *TLR2* and *TLR4* variants, were associated with an increased cumulative probability of SBP (Figure 4). Of the patients with any *NOD2* risk variants 76.9%±19.9% developed SBP, compared to 30.9%±6.9% of those with *NOD2* wild type ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.047$). Patients with or without any *NOD2* risk allele variants had similar MELD scores (median [IQR]: 14 [9-16] vs. 13 [10-15], respectively, $P=0.874$). Prior SBP episode was also associated with the risk of SBP development ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.048$).

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5 **Association of functional polymorphisms of PRR genes with serologic**
6 **markers of BT**
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10 Serum level of LBP and frequencies of IgA type antibodies directed against
11 various gut microbial components (anti-OMP Plus and EndoCab) were not
12 different according to the examined PRR genotypes (**Table 4**).
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18 **Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes and development of**
19 **decompensation events**
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23 Of the patients with a compensated clinical stage at enrolment 31.4%
24 (38/121) developed any type of decompensation event (ascites, variceal
25 bleeding or hepatic encephalopathy). The median time to the development of
26 a first decompensation was 540 (140-913) days. Neither *NOD2* risk variants
27 ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.681$) nor *TLR2* and *TLR4* polymorphisms ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.068$ and
28 0.249) were risk factors of clinical decompensation (**Supplementary Figure**
29 **2**).
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41 **Functional polymorphisms of PRR genes and survival**
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43 In the total cohort, liver-related death occurred in 82 (33.7%) subjects. Median
44 time to mortality was 660 (304-977) days. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis
45 demonstrated a significantly worse survival in patients with advanced disease
46 according to presence of ascites ($P_{\text{LogRank}}<0.001$), Child-Pugh stage B/C
47 ($P_{\text{LogRank}}<0.001$), or decompensated clinical stage ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.033$) and prior
48 BI episode ($P_{\text{LogRank}}=0.050$). Neither *NOD2* risk variants ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.785$) nor
49 *TLR2* and *TLR4* polymorphisms ($P_{\text{LogRank}}= 0.682$ and 0.732) were associated
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3 with overall survival (**Supplementary Figure 3**).

7 **DISCUSSION**

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10 Bacterial infections beyond SBP have significant prognostic
11 implications in patients with cirrhosis [1]. Thus, individual risk stratification for
12 BI is an important clinical issue, and it may be instrumental in identifying high-
13 risk patients amenable to preventive measures and/or closer follow-up
14 strategies as a part of the standard of care. Former clinical studies with
15 functional PRR gene variants in cirrhosis primarily focused on the
16 development of SBP in ascitic patients [8–11]. Distinctly, in the present study
17 we comprehensively assessed the utility of various functional SNPs of three
18 different PRR genes simultaneously in a large prospective cohort, comprising
19 the whole severity spectrum of cirrhosis, with a special emphasis on the
20 development of non-SBP type BI.
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34 In our cohort, the frequencies of PRR gene variants were comparable
35 within other cirrhotic patient cohorts and with healthy Caucasians [20,21].
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39 Similar to most of the previous studies [8–10], the presence of *NOD2*
40 allele variants was a risk factor for SBP in our cohort as well. A recent large
41 association study in patients with decompensated cirrhosis however, did not
42 demonstrate a role of *NOD2* variant in mediating susceptibility for SBP [23]. In
43 our study development of SBP was not more frequent in patients with *TLR2* (-
44 16934 T>A, rs4696480) and *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) polymorphisms. This
45 latter finding is a novelty. At the same time, the association of SBP with
46 various *TLR2* genotypes is somewhat controversial in the published literature.
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56 In the studies of *Nischalke et al.* [10] and *Lutz et al.* [22] *TLR2* (-16934 TT)
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3 genotype but not *TLR2* R753Q and P631H mutations were associated with
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5 SBP. Contrarily, *Bruns et al.* showed that not *TLR2* (-16934 T>A) but *TLR2*
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7 R753Q polymorphism increased the risk of SBP [11]. A limitation of our study
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9 compared to previous cohorts, was the relatively lower number of patients
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11 with ascites (n=88). The present study did not allow for an in-depth analysis of
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13 the association of PRR variants with different types of SBP (culture-negative,
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15 culture-positive or bacterascites), which is a drawback. Since there was
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17 twenty incident cases of SBP during follow-up and only half of them was
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19 cultured.
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23 The PRR gene variants examined in our study were reported to have a
24
25 special role in susceptibility to bacterial infections and sepsis in patients with
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27 acquired immune deficiency (i.e. acute leukaemia or allogeneic stem cell
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29 transplantation) [22,23]. Furthermore in critically ill patients, the *NOD2/TLR4*
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31 combination was associated with higher rate of bacteraemia [24]. In patients
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33 with advanced cirrhosis the *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) variant was
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35 recognized to increase overall BI rates in a single retrospective study (n=111)
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37 [25]. At the same time, another *TLR4* variant (c.+1196C/T, rs4986791) did not
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39 increase the risk of BI in a large retrospective cohort (n=336), including a
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41 validation cohort with same samples size [26]. In our study none of the
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43 examined PRR variants were associated with higher risk of non-SBP type BI.
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46 In spite of the known fact that two main members of the PRR family – TLRs
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48 and NOD like receptors – act synergistically in the initiation of host innate
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50 immune response to BI [27], neither of the *NOD2*, *TLR2* and *TLR4* gene
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52 variant combinations showed increased BI susceptibility. The limitation of the
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54 present study is that the association of bacterial infections and *TLR4*
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3 polymorphisms warrants further evaluation in a larger cohort since our study
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5 was underpowered to detect such an association at this sample size
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7 (**Supplementary Table 1**). The limited number of incident cases the seven
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9 different location subgroups did not make possible a more subtle assessment
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11 of the potential role of PRR variants in the development of certain types of
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13 infection.
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17 The strength of the present study is that the whole disease severity
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19 spectrum of cirrhosis was represented, allowing for an in-depth evaluation of
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21 the interaction of PRR gene variants and BI development in various disease
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23 severity subgroups. Cirrhosis associated immunodeficiency syndrome (CAID)
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25 is a dynamic process evolving with the natural history of progression to end
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27 stage liver disease [28]. Therefore, the impact of an inherited risk for a BI
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29 might be different in early vs. advanced cirrhosis, owing to limited
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31 compensatory mechanisms. However, PRR gene variants were not
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33 associated with a higher risk of non-SBP type BI in any subgroups of various
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35 disease severities. These results confirm that acquired immune deficiency
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37 state in cirrhosis is more dominant of a risk factor than the presence of
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39 functional genetic polymorphisms in the development of BI.
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44 The most notable discovery of the present study was that a prior
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46 episode of BI was a risk factor for the development of a subsequent BI
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48 episode. This finding suggests the presence of further persistent host factors
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50 that modulate an individual's susceptibility for BI. Interestingly, this association
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52 was present in early as well as in advanced disease stages. Remarkably,
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54 history of a prior BI episode and an advanced disease stage had similar
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56 impacts on the infectious risk.
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3 Pathological BT is associated with clinically relevant complications in
4 cirrhosis [29]. There is evidence that variants of the *NOD2* gene [30,31], and
5 various *TLR* [32] polymorphisms contribute to BT in patients with Crohn's
6 diseases. Likewise in patients with decompensated cirrhosis an increased
7 translocation of bacterial DNA fragments into ascitic fluid was found in the
8 presence of the *NOD2* risk variant p.G908R [33]. Moreover there was
9 increased transition of pathologic BT to culture-positive SBP in the case of the
10 same *NOD2* variant [34,35]. Furthermore, *TLR2* (-16934 T>A, rs4696480)
11 and *TLR4* (D299G, rs4986790) polymorphisms were associated with an
12 increased systemic antigen burden as well, described by the serum level of
13 lipoteichoic acid, LPS, and bacterial-DNA [32].
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27 In our study we applied both serologic and clinical approaches to
28 assess the impact of PRR genetic variants to BT. First, we examined the
29 effect of *NOD* and *TLR* SNPs on the serological response to BT, but used
30 different serologic markers than in the study of *Piñero et al.* [32]. The
31 frequency of IgA type anti-microbial antibodies and LBP levels in our study did
32 not differ between various PRR genotypes; neither in the entire cohort nor in
33 the subgroup of patients with/ or without ascites. Second, we hypothesised
34 that if PRR genetic variants were linked to BT, they would be associated with
35 enhanced diseases progression, e.g. the advent of first decompensating
36 event, or liver-related death. In accordance with our serologic results, different
37 polymorphisms of the *NOD2* and *TLR2* and *TLR4* genes did not influence
38 these adverse outcomes. It should be pointed out that our analysis is the first
39 to consider the effect of PRR gene variants on the development of a
40 decompensating event in cirrhosis.
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3 The effect of PRR gene variants on mortality was assessed previously
4 but yielded conflicting results. *Appenrodt et al.* found four-fold increased risk
5 in cirrhotic patients with *NOD2* risk alleles [9]. Concordantly to our findings
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10 *Bruns et al.* did not report an increased hazard of death related to the same
11 variants of *NOD2* [8].
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14 In conclusion, we were able to confirm the previous discovery that
15 common *NOD2* gene variants increased the risk of SBP. However, *NOD2* and
16 other SNPs of *TLR2* and *TLR4* did not influence the development of non-SBP
17 type bacterial infections. Disease severity and a prior episode of bacterial
18 infection were highly relevant clinical risk factors for a subsequent episode.
19 PRR gene variants were neither associated with serological markers of
20 bacterial translocation, nor were they associated with the development of
21 clinical decompensation or liver-related death during follow-up. These results
22 suggest a limited value of PRR genotyping in the prediction of a progressive
23 disease course in cirrhosis.
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For Peer Review

Table 1. Epidemiological, clinical and laboratory characteristics of outpatients with cirrhosis at enrolment according to different pattern recognition receptors genetic variants

		Total	<i>NOD2</i> polymorphism ^b			<i>TLR2</i> 16934T>A polymorphism rs4696480				<i>TLR4</i> D299G polymorphism rs4986790 ^x		
		(N=243)*	Wild type (N=204)	Risk allele (N=37)	P-value	TT (N=64)	TA (N=104)	AA (N=74)	P-value	AA (N=225)	AG (N=17)	P-value
Age, years ^a		56 (50-63)	55 (49-63)	59 (53-65)	0.082	55 (51-63)	57 (50-65)	55 (49-63)	0.172	56 (50-64)	53 (49-56)	0.151
Male sex		52.3% (127)	51.5% (105)	54.1% (20)	0.772	56.3% (36)	54.8% (57)	44.6% (33)	0.299	52.4% (118)	47.1% (8)	0.668
Alcoholic etiology		62.6% (152)	61.3% (125)	67.6% (25)	0.468	65.6% (42)	66.3% (69)	54.1% (40)	0.205	62.7% (141)	58.8% (10)	0.752
Child-Pugh stage	A	56.4% (137)	55.9% (114)	59.5% (22)	0.671	53.1% (34)	53.8% (56)	63.5% (47)	0.194	56.4% (127)	58.8% (10)	0.479
	B	37.9% (92)	37.7% (77)	37.8% (14)		37.5% (24)	43.3% (45)	29.7% (22)		38.2% (86)	29.4% (5)	
	C	5.8% (14)	6.4% (13)	2.7% (1)		9.4% (6)	2.9% (3)	6.8% (5)		5.3% (12)	11.8% (2)	
MELD score ^a		11 (8-14)	11 (8-14)	10 (7-14)	0.249	11 (8-14)	11 (8-14)	11 (8-14)	0.689	11 (8-14)	13 (8-15)	0.513
Ascites		36.2% (88)	36.3% (74)	35.1% (13)	0.894	35.9% (23)	39.4% (41)	31.1% (23)	0.520	35.6% (80)	41.2% (7)	0.641
Decompensated stage		50.2% (122)	49.0% (100)	56.8% (21)	0.386	54.7% (35)	50.0% (52)	45.9% (34)	0.592	49.8% (112)	52.9% (9)	0.801

Prior VB	24.3% (59)	23.0% (47)	29.7% (11)	0.381	29.7% (19)	21.2% (22)	23.0% (17)	0.440	22.7% (51)	41.2% (7)	0.085
Prior BI	38.7% (94)	37.7% (77)	40.5% (15)	0.747	42.2% (27)	35.6% (37)	39.2% (29)	0.685	37.8% (85)	47.1% (8)	0.448
Prior SBP	9.5% (23)	8.8% (18)	13.5% (5)	0.372	6.3% (4)	13.5% (14)	6.8% (5)	0.189	9.3% (21)	11.8% (2)	0.742
Prior non-SBP type BI	34.2% (83)	34.3% (70)	29.7% (11)	0.587	39.1% (25)	28.8% (30)	36.5% (27)	0.338	33.3% (75)	41.2% (7)	0.510
Comorbidity	53.9% (131)	52.5% (107)	59.5% (22)	0.432	62.5% (40)	53.8% (56)	45.9% (34)	0.151	55.1% (124)	35.3% (6)	0.114
HCC	9.9% (24)	9.3% (19)	13.5% (5)	0.433	10.9% (7)	8.7% (9)	10.8% (8)	0.849	10.2% (23)	5.9% (1)	0.564
Creatinine ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) ^a	67 (54-84)	66 (55-82)	71 (52-98)	0.513	66 (57-89)	64 (53-83)	70 (56-84)	0.872	66 (54-83)	72 (55-85)	0.680
Bilirubin ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) ^a	26 (16-41)	27 (16-43)	22 (15-34)	0.278	27 (16-43)	23 (14-43)	28 (17-39)	0.529	26 (16-41)	29 (13-42)	0.693
INR ^a	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1 (1.1-1.3)	1 (1.1-1.2)	0.074	1 (1.1-1.4)	1 (1.1-1.3)	1 (1.1-1.3)	0.514	1 (1.1-1.3)	1 (1.1-1.4)	0.204
Albumin (g/L) ^a	38 (33-42)	37 (32.5-42)	39 (34-43)	0.332	37 (33-42)	37 (32-42)	38 (34-42)	0.261	37 (33-42)	37 (29.5-44.5)	0.944
Leucocyte (G/L) ^a	5.4 (4.3-7.1)	5.4 (4.3-7.2)	5 (4.1-6.3)	0.246	6 (4.3-7.1)	5 (4.3-7.3)	5 (4-6.9)	0.452	5 (4.3-7.1)	5 (4.1-7.6)	0.868
Platelet (G/L) ^a	116 (76-171)	114 (75-172)	116 (93-158)	0.787	125 (80-170)	112 (76-182.5)	112 (72-163)	0.504	117 (78.5-170)	87 (66-171)	0.258
NSBB use	47.7% (116)	48.0% (98)	43.2% (16)	0.591	53.1% (34)	47.1% (49)	43.2% (32)	0.508	46.7% (105)	58.8% (10)	0.333
PPI use	44.9% (109)	44.6% (91)	43.2% (16)	0.878	46.9% (30)	41.3% (43)	47.3% (35)	0.671	45.3% (102)	35.3% (6)	0.422

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Secondary antibiotic prophylaxis											
Norfloxacin for prevention of SBP	9.5% (23)	8.8% (18)	13.5% (5)	0.372	6.3% (4)	13.5% (14)	6.8% (5)	0.189	9.3% (21)	11.8% (2)	0.742
Rifaximin for prevention of HE	5.8% (14)	5.4% (11)	8.1% (3)	0.457	7.8% (5)	3.8% (4)	6.8% (5)	0.515	5.8% (13)	5.9% (1)	0.986

BI, bacterial infection; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HE: hepatic encephalopathy; INR, international normalized ratio; NSSB, non-selective beta blocker;

PPI, proton pump inhibitor; SBP, spontaneous bacterial peritonitis; VB: variceal bleeding;

* *NOD2* genotype were technically unsuccessful in 2 cases, while *TLR2* and *TLR4* for 1 case.

^a median, IQR (lowest 25%-highest 25%) *p* values were calculated with Mann-Whitney U-test, χ^2 -test or Fisher's exact test as appropriate

^b *NOD2* risk variants were the followings: R702W C>T, rs2066844; G908R G>C, rs2066845 and L1007fsinsC -/C, rs2066847

* No cases with GG genotype of *TLR4* D299G polymorphism were detected in outpatients

Table 2. Genotype distribution of functional polymorphisms of various pattern recognition receptors in patients with cirrhosis

		Total cohort		Outpatients		Acute Decompensation	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
<i>NOD2</i> L1007fsinsC -/C, rs2066847 ^a	-/-	326	93.9%	226	93.8%	100	94.3%
	-/C	21	6.1%	15	6.2%	6	5.7%
<i>NOD2</i> R702W C>T, rs2066844 ^a	CC	318	91.6%	220	91.3%	98	92.5%
	CT	29	8.4%	21	8.7%	8	7.5%
<i>NOD2</i> G908R G>C, rs2066845 ^a	GG	338	97.4%	238	98.8%	100	94.3%
	GC	9	2.6%	3	1.2%	6	5.7%
<i>NOD2</i> polymorphism ^b	wild type	290	83.6%	204	84.6%	86	81.1%
	variant	57	16.4%	37	15.4%	20	18.9%
<i>TLR2</i> (-16934T>A) rs4696480	TT	86	24.8%	64	26.4%	22	21.0%
	TA	154	44.4%	104	43.0%	50	47.6%
	AA	107	30.8%	74	30.6%	33	31.4%
<i>TLR4</i> D299G rs4986790	AA	323	93.1%	225	93.0%	98	93.3%
	AG	23	6.6%	17	7.0%	6	5.7%
	GG	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	1	1.0%

^a No homozygote mutant was found

^b 2 patients were compound heterozygotes

NOD2 genotype were technically unsuccessful in 2 cases, while *TLR2* and *TLR4* for 1 case.

Table 3. Association of clinical factors with the development of non- spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections.

		Non-SBP type BI development				Univariate Cox regression		
		n of subjects	n of events	CP of BI ± SE	P-value*	HR	95%CI	P-value
Total cohort		243	85	49.6±4.1				
Age	<65	198	65	46.1±4.5	0.039	1.02	(1 - 1.04)	0.045
	≥65	45	20	66.9±10.2				
Gender	male	116	39	44.8±5.6	0.486	1.16	(0.76 - 1.78)	0.487
	female	127	46	54.7±6.0				
Comorbidity	absent	112	34	41.5±5.8	0.38	1.58	(1.02 - 2.44)	0.04
	present	131	51	57.8±5.8				
HCC	absent	219	79	49.2±4.2	0.542	1.3	(0.56 - 3)	0.543
	present	24	6	40.8±15.6				
Etiology	other	91	25	40.5±6.8	0.083	1.51	(0.94 - 2.4)	0.085
	alcoholic	152	60	54.6±5.1				
Clinical stage	compensated	121	35	40.8±5.8	0.01	1.76	(1.14 - 2.71)	0.011
	decompensated	122	50	58.8±5.7				
Child-Pugh stage	A	137	38	38.1±5.2	<0.001	2.6	(1.68 - 3.98)	<0.001
	B/C	106	47	68.0±6.1				
Ascites	absent	155	47	42.0±5.1	<0.001	2.11	(1.38 - 3.25)	0.001
	present	88	38	65.2±6.6				
MELD score (per 1 point increase)		-	-	-	-	1.12	(1.06-1.19)	<0.001
Prior BI	absent	149	38	38.5±5.2	<0.001	2.42	(1.58 - 3.72)	<0.001
	present	94	47	66.4±6.2				
Ascites + Prior BI	none	100	24	33.7±6	<0.001	ref.		
	either	104	37	54.6±6.5		1.86	(1.11-3.11)	0.018
	both	39	24	80.3±7.7		4.74	(2.68-8.39)	<0.001
Prior SBP	absent	220	75	49.0±4.3	0.108	1.71	(0.88 - 3.31)	0.112
	present	23	10	52.5±12.0				
Prior non-SBP type BI	absent	160	42	39.7±5.1	<0.001	2.26	(1.48 - 3.46)	<0.001
	present	83	43	66.5±6.3				
NSBB use	no	127	39	44.0±5.7	0.084	1.45	(0.95 - 2.23)	0.086
	yes	116	46	55.9±5.8				
PPI use	no	134	37	40.2±5.5	0.006	1.81	(1.18 - 2.78)	0.007
	yes	109	48	60.5±5.9				
Secondary antibiotic prophylaxis								
Norfloxacin for prevention of SBP	no	220	75	49.0±4.3	0.108	1.71	(0.88 - 3.31)	0.112
	yes	23	10	52.5±12.0				
Rifaximin for prevention of HE	no	229	78	48.3±4.2	0.109	1.86	(0.86-4.04)	0.115
	yes	14	7	80.4±16.1				

*P-values of the log-rank tests;

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3 CP, cumulative probability (Kaplan-Meier estimates); CI, confidence interval; HE: hepatic
4 encephalopathy; HR: hazard ratio, BI; bacterial infection; SBP, spontaneous bacterial peritonitis; SE:
5 standard error; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma, NSBB, non-selective beta blocker; PPI, proton pump
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Table 4. Association between serologic markers of bacterial translocation and various pattern recognition receptor genotypes

	<i>NOD2</i> polymorphism ^a			<i>TLR2</i> 16934T>A polymorphism rs4696480				<i>TLR4</i> D299G polymorphism rs4986790		
	Wild type (N=204)	Risk allele (N=37)	P-value	TT (N=64)	TA (N=104)	AA (N=74)	P-value	AA (N=225)	AG (N=17)	P-value
EndoCab IgA	50.0% (96)	46.9% (15)	0.743	59.7% (37)	48.5% (47)	42.4% (28)	0.140	49.0% (102)	58.8% (10)	0.438
OMP IgA	60.9% (106)	61.5% (16)	0.952	68.5% (37)	61.8% (55)	53.4% (31)	0.259	61.7% (116)	53.8% (7)	0.574
LBP (mg/L) ^b	17.5 (12.4 - 24.3)	17.9 (12.7 - 34.6)	0.454	17.8 (12.1 - 27)	18.6 (12.8 - 25)	17.1 (12.2 - 27.6)	0.977	17.8 (12.8 - 27)	15.92 (9.4 - 23)	0.378

^a *NOD2* risk variants were the followings: R702W C>T, rs2066844; G908R G>C, rs2066845 and L1007fsinsC -/C, rs2066847

^b median, IQR (lowest 25%-highest 25%)

P-values were calculated with Mann-Whitney U-test, χ^2 -test or Fisher's exact test as appropriate
NOD2 genotype were technically unsuccessful in 2 cases, while *TLR2* and *TLR4* for 1 case.

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3 **Figure legends**
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8 **Figure 1. Flowchart of the patients with cirrhosis in the cohort study**
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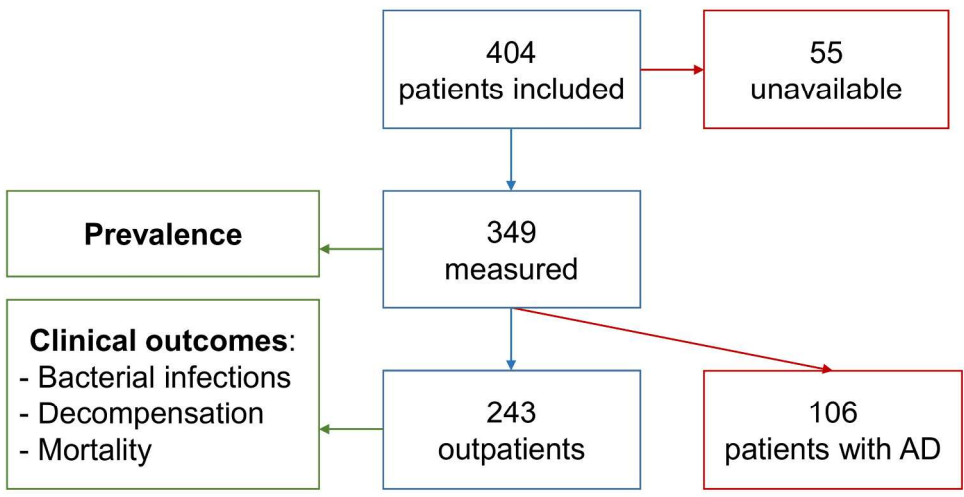
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16 **Figure 2. Development of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections**
17 **according to various pattern recognition genotypes in outpatients.** Common *NOD2* risk variants
18 (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) and *TLR2* (-16934T>A) or *TLR4* (D299G)
19 polymorphisms were not associated with the risk of non-SBP type BI development either in the entire
20 cohort (A) or in subgroups according to ascites (B).
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30 **Figure 3. Development of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections**
31 **according to clinical factors in outpatients.** Prior history of a bacterial infection significantly
32 increased the probability of the development of another bacterial infection episode during the follow-
33 up independently of disease severity (presence or absence of ascites).
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41 **Figure 4. Development of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis according to various pattern**
42 **recognition receptor genotypes in stable outpatients with cirrhosis.** Any *NOD2* risk variants
43 (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) but not the *TLR2* (-16934T>A) or *TLR4* (D299G)
44 polymorphisms were associated with the risk of SBP development.
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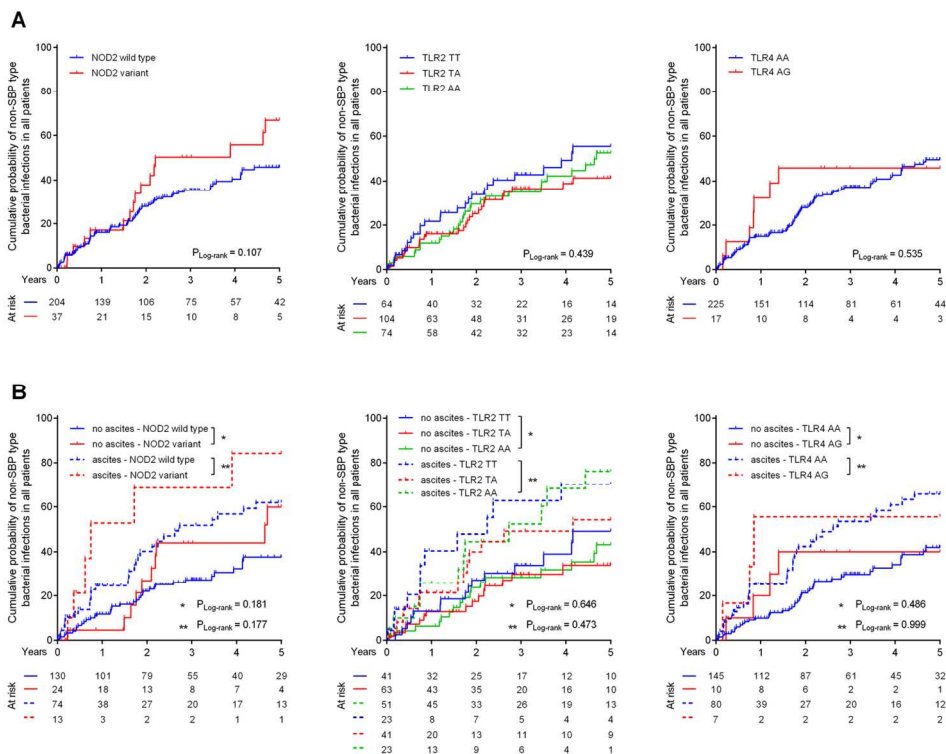


Flowchart of the patients with cirrhosis in the cohort study
AD: acute decompensation

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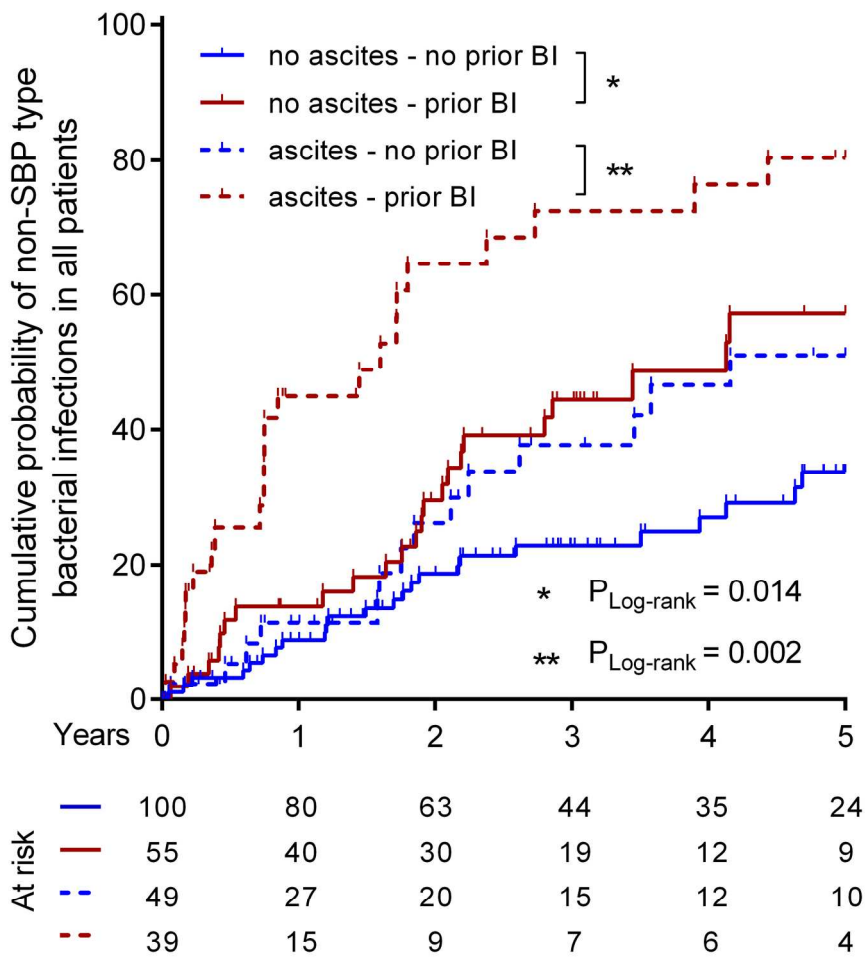
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Development of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections according to various pattern recognition genotypes in outpatients. Common NOD2 risk variants (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) and TLR2 (-16934T>A) or TLR4 (D299G) polymorphisms were not associated with the risk of non-SBP type BI development either in the entire cohort (A) or in subgroups according to ascites (B).

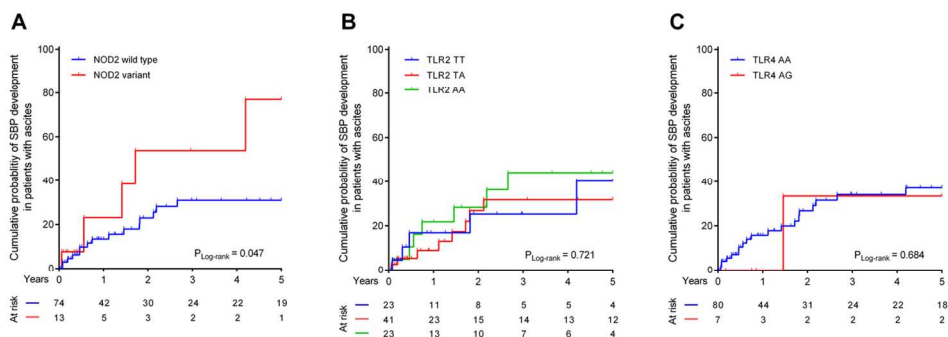
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Development of non-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis type bacterial infections according to clinical factors in outpatients. Prior history of a bacterial infection significantly increased the probability of the development of another bacterial infection episode during the follow-up independently of disease severity (presence or absence of ascites).

90x96mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Development of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis according to various pattern recognition receptor genotypes in stable outpatients with cirrhosis. Any NOD2 risk variants (L1007fsinsC -/C, R702W C>T or G908R G>C) but not the TLR2 (-16934T>A) or TLR4 (D299G) polymorphisms were associated with the risk of SBP development.

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