

タイトル	Cost of illness of non alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan: A time trend analysis and future projections
別タイトル	非アルコール性肝硬変の疾病負担 時系列分析と将来推計
作成者（著者）	北澤, 健文
公開者	東邦大学
発行日	2018.04.26
掲載情報	東邦大学大学院医学研究科 博士論文. 64.
資料種別	学位論文
内容記述	主査：村上義孝 / タイトル：Cost of illness of non alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan: A time trend analysis and future projections / 著者：Takefumi Kitazawa, Kunichika Matsumoto, Shigeru Fujita, Kanako Seto, Yinghui Wu, Tomohiro Hirao, Tomonori Hasegawa / 掲載誌：Hepatology Research / 巻号・発行年等：48(2):176-183, 2018 / この論文ファイルに記載されている論題は、雑誌に掲載された論題と異なっておりますが、著者最終稿に記載されている通りのものです。
著者版フラグ	ETD
報告番号	32661乙第2885号
学位記番号	乙第2731号
学位授与年月日	2018.04.26
学位授与機関	東邦大学
DOI	info:doi/10.1111/hepr.12913
メタデータのURL	https://mylibrary.toho-u.ac.jp/webopac/TD69307094

1 **Cost of illness of the non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan - a time trend analysis**
2 **and future projections**

3

4 Takefumi Kitazawa, Ph.D^{1*}, Kunichika Matsumoto, Ph.D^{1*}, Shigeru Fujita, Ph.D^{1*},
5 Kanako Seto, R.N., P.H.N., Ph.D^{1*}, Yinghui Wu, Ph.D^{2*}, Tomohiro Hirao, M.D.,
6 Ph.D^{3*}, Tomonori Hasegawa, M.D., Ph.D^{1*§}

7

8 ¹Department of Social Medicine, Toho University School of Medicine, 5-21-16,
9 Omori-nishi, Ota-ku, Tokyo, JAPAN, TEL +81-3-3762-4151 Ext. 2415, FAX +81-3-
10 5493-5417.

11 ² Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Nursing, Shanghai, China.

12 ³Department of Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, Kagawa University, Kagawa,
13 Japan

14

15 *These authors contributed equally to this work

16 §Corresponding author

17

18

19 **Abstract**

20 **Aim**

21 Liver cirrhosis is a preneoplastic condition to hepatocellular carcinoma that is an
22 important worldwide public health concern, and its economic burden has been
23 estimated in some countries. The objective of this study was to estimate and predict
24 the cost of illness (COI) associated with non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan.

25 **Methods**

26 Using a COI method on available data from government statistics, we estimated the
27 economic burden in 3-year intervals from 1996–2014. We then predicted the COI in
28 3-year intervals from 2017–2029 using fixed and variable model estimation. With
29 fixed model estimation, only estimated future population was used as a variable.
30 Variable model estimation considered the time trends of health-related indicators
31 throughout the past 18 years.

32 **Results**

33 The estimated COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis was 208.1 billion yen in 2014. The
34 COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis had a downward trend from 1996 to 2014. The
35 predicted future COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis was 144.3–210.5, 106.0–213.8,
36 88.6–213.4, 76.7–215.5, and 66.4–214.3 billion yen in 2017, 2020, 2023, 2026, and
37 2029, respectively.

38 **Conclusions**

39 The results of this study suggest that the COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan
40 has steadily decreased and will continue to decrease in future. Treatment of HCV
41 patients with newly introduced technologies has high therapeutic effectiveness, which
42 will affect the future prevalence of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis. Because the results

43 of this study were based on present conditions, it should be noted when interpreting
44 the results of long-term estimation.

45

46 Keywords:

47 Cost of illness, non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis, health economics, health policy

48

49 **Introduction**

50 Liver cirrhosis is the end stage of chronic liver disease, and it is divided into alcoholic
51 and non-alcoholic types. The pathogenesis of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis includes
52 viral hepatitis. In developed countries, the main cause of viral hepatitis is hepatitis C
53 virus (HCV), but infection with hepatitis B virus (HBV) is the most common cause in
54 sub-Saharan Africa and most parts of Asia [1]. Michitaka et al. estimated the
55 etiological agents of liver cirrhosis in Japan [2]: the major etiology of liver cirrhosis in
56 Japan remains HCV (60.9%), followed by HBV and alcohol, respectively. Therefore,
57 we focus on non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis (ICD 10 code: K74.3-74.6) in this study.
58 The definition of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis was based on the condensed list of
59 causes of death for Japan. This list was used in government statistics. According to
60 this definition, “liver cirrhosis (excluding alcoholic liver cirrhosis)” includes the viral
61 hepatitis related cirrhosis and other types of liver cirrhosis such as non-alcoholic
62 steatohepatitis (NASH) related liver cirrhosis, but alcoholic liver cirrhosis is excluded.
63 Although an increase of prevalence in NASH related liver cirrhosis, the occupancy
64 rate is low (2.1% in 2008) [2]. Recently, management of chronic hepatitis C has
65 greatly changed. Interferon-free treatment with direct acting antivirals (DAAs) could

66 lead to sustained virological response (SVR) in patients with chronic hepatitis C and
67 compensated cirrhosis [3].

68 Some recent studies have estimated the economic burden of liver disease,
69 including cirrhosis [4-8]. In Japan, estimates based on the Survey of Medical Care
70 Activities in Public Health Insurance and the Patient Survey [9] have been reported
71 [10]. However, those snapshot estimations were limited to direct costs.

72 Both direct and indirect costs should be taken into account in the analysis of
73 comprehensive economic burden. Estimation of comprehensive economic burden
74 could be used as a public health policy tool for the prioritization of healthcare and
75 prevention policies. Indirect costs include productivity losses resulting from inability
76 to work because of hospitalization, outpatient visits, or premature death resulting from
77 illness. The human capital approach for estimation of productivity losses can estimate
78 the impact of disease on patients' wages and salaries, which reflect individual
79 contributions to society. The cost of illness (COI) method developed by Rice et al.
80 [11-14] has been widely used to estimate the comprehensive economic burden of
81 disease.

82 COI can be used for decision making in allocating limited resources for
83 implementation of governmental health policies [15]. The purpose of this study was to
84 estimate and predict the economic burden associated with non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis
85 in Japan. In addition, the COI of viral hepatitis in 2014 was calculated for reference.

86

87 **Methods**

88 We used the COI method to examine the economic burden of non-alcoholic liver
89 cirrhosis. The calculation method employed in this study was the same as that of our

90 previous study [16]. First, we calculated the COIs for 1996, 1999, 2002, 2005, 2008,
91 2011, and 2014. We then predicted future COIs [17-20] based on those results. We
92 adapted a top-down approach to the COI method, employing published government
93 office statistics (Table 1) and data on the prevalence of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis.

94

95 Measurement and valuation

96 The components of COI, direct cost (DC) and indirect cost (IC), are shown in Table 2.
97 IC comprises morbidity cost (MbC) and mortality cost (MtC). COI was calculated
98 using the following equation:

99

$$100 \quad \text{COI} = \text{DC} + \text{MbC} + \text{MtC}$$

101

102 The DC comprises hospitalization cost (HC) and outpatient cost (OC). DC is
103 calculated using the following equation:

104

$$105 \quad \text{DC} = \text{HC} + \text{OC} = i\text{Cd} \times \text{THD} + o\text{Cd} \times \text{TOVy}$$

106

107 HC was determined by multiplying inpatient cost per day (iCd) for non-alcoholic liver
108 cirrhosis by total person-days of hospitalization (THD). OC was determined by
109 multiplying OC per day (oCd) by total person-days of outpatient visits (TOVy).

110 MbC comprised that of inpatients (MbCi) and outpatients (MbCo). MbCi was
111 calculated by multiplying 1-day labour value per person (LVd) by THD according to
112 gender and 5-year age groups. MbCo was determined by multiplying the half of LVd
113 by TOVy according to gender and 5-year age groups.

114 MtC was calculated as loss of human capital by multiplying the number of
115 deaths (NDy) and the lifetime labour value per person (LVI). LVI was determined by
116 summing the patients' potential income, which would have accrued in future had they
117 not died, from the age of death to their life expectancy. MbC and MtC were calculated
118 using the following equations:

119

$$120 \quad MbC = MbCi + MbCo = THD \times LVd + TOVy \times LVd / 2$$

$$121 \quad MtC = NDy \times LVI$$

122

123 Pensions were not included in MbC and MtC. Future labour value was
124 adjusted to its present value using a 3% discount rate, because a 3% discount rate has
125 been widely used in previous studies in developed countries, including Japan and the
126 United States [21].

127

128 Statistical approach

129 To examine change over time, we first estimated the COIs for 1996–2014 in 3-year
130 intervals using available data. Next, to make future predictions, we estimated the
131 COIs for 2017–2029 in 3-year intervals using the two methods. We calculated the
132 COI for the survey years of the Patient Survey, which was conducted every 3 years.

133 Future COI was estimated using two methods: fixed and variable model
134 estimation [17-20]. Fixed model estimation assumed that health-related indicators
135 (e.g., mortality rate, number of outpatient visits, and average length of stay) were
136 unrelated to the time trend. Only an estimated future population was used as a
137 variable. For fixed model estimation, we first calculated the mortality rate, number of
138 outpatient visits per population, and number of hospitalizations per population

139 according to gender and 5-year age groups in 2014 as a baseline for estimation. Next,
140 we multiplied these factors by future population estimates according to gender and 5-
141 year age groups in 3-year intervals for 2017–2029 to calculate the predicted number
142 of deaths, TOVy, and THD. We estimated MbC and MtC in 3-year intervals for
143 2017–2029 using 2014 data on average length of stay, life expectancy, labour value,
144 iCd, and outpatient visits. The fixed model was the simplest method and could be
145 regarded as a reference.

146 Variable model estimation consisted of linear, logarithmic, and mixed models
147 depending on the formula selected for each health-related indicator. For variable
148 model estimation, we drew a trend line for each health-related indicator by using a
149 logarithmic or linear approximation with seven time points (i.e., 1996, 1999, 2002,
150 2005, 2008, 2011, and 2014). We then extended the trend line for each approximation
151 to determine values for 2017, 2020, 2023, 2026, and 2029. Variable models assumed
152 that every health-related indicator was a variable with its own trend line. Difference of
153 time trend among indicators was reflected in calculation process by variables.

154 Estimated future health-related indicators were used in addition to future
155 population estimates. Because the trend of each health-related indicator was different,
156 the single model estimation (logarithmic and linear models) might not predict future
157 COI precisely. Therefore, we developed a mixed model, which adopted the value with
158 a higher coefficient of determination for each 5-year age groups. Our mixed model
159 was an approximation using health-related indicators with a higher coefficient of
160 determination in a logarithmic and linear approximation for each 5-year age groups.
161 By mixing the optimal results of both logarithmic and linear model depending on the
162 characteristics of each health-related indicator, getting more appropriate estimates
163 could be possible. This is the reason why it was named mixed model for this approach.

164 This method was already employed in our previous study [17-20]. Because the mixed
165 model was a combination of models with a higher coefficient of determination, we
166 believed the mixed model to be the most valid for this study. The estimations using
167 the logarithmic and linear models can be regarded as a sensitivity analysis to test the
168 robustness of the mixed model.

169 Estimations using trend lines sometimes yielded future predicted values less
170 than 0; that could not reflect actual conditions. Therefore, we set a “minimum value”.
171 For mortality rate, number of times of outpatient visit per population, and number of
172 times of hospitalization per population, the minimum values were set as the values
173 from the year prior to that in which the estimate was less than 0. We assumed that the
174 value from the year prior to that when the estimate was less than 0 would be
175 maintained thereafter; negative values were not used in the model. We set 9.2 days,
176 the average length of stay of patients with liver disease (2014) in Organization for
177 Economic Co-operation and Development countries, as the minimum value.

178 This study used only anonymous governmental data; no human or animal
179 subjects were involved. The Institutional Ethics Committee at Toho University
180 approved this study (No. A16019).

181

182

183 **Results**

184 Each health-related indicator had a downward trend in 1996–2014, and the health-
185 related indicators used for the future estimates are presented in Table 3. The average
186 age of death rose 62.5–69.9 years and 70.5–76.7 years in 1996–2014 among male and
187 female individuals, respectively. Fixed model estimation showed a slight upward
188 trend in the number of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis deaths, outpatient visits,

189 hospitalizations, and total days of hospitalization. Meanwhile, linear and logarithmic
190 model estimation showed decreasing trends of these indicators. The estimated COI of
191 non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis was 443.7, 397.3, 371.6, 300.8, 272.1, 237.5, and 208.1
192 billion yen in 1996–2014, respectively (Table 4). MtC was the largest component of
193 COI throughout the study period, accounting for 72.3% and 79.4% of total COI in
194 1996 and 2014, respectively. The future COI estimates appear in Table 5. The COI
195 was predicted to decrease to 144.3 billion yen (linear model) or 210.5 billion yen
196 (logarithmic model) in 2017; 106.0 billion yen (linear model) or 213.8 billion yen
197 (fixed model) in 2020; 88.6 billion yen (linear model) or 213.4 billion yen (fixed
198 model) in 2023; 76.7 billion yen (linear model) or 215.5 billion yen (fixed model) in
199 2026; and 66.4 billion yen (linear model) or 214.3 billion yen (fixed model) in 2029.
200 For the mixed model, a logarithmic approximation was used for the numbers of
201 outpatient visits, hospitalizations per population, and mortality, and a linear
202 approximation was also employed for average length of stay. The mixed model
203 predicted that the COI would decrease from 200.9 billion yen in 2017 to 126.5 billion
204 yen in 2029.

205 MtC was the largest component of COI, accounting for 72.3% and 79.4% of
206 the total in 1996 and 2014, respectively. Under the mixed model, MtC as a proportion
207 of COI was expected to increase to 92.1% in 2029.

208 The pathogenesis of liver cirrhosis is closely related to chronic liver diseases,
209 such as viral hepatitis. We also estimated the COI of viral hepatitis (ICD 10 code:
210 B15- 19) in 2014 for reference, obtaining a result of 221.9 billion yen (DC: 102.8
211 billion yen; MbC: 31.5 billion yen; MtC: 87.6 billion yen).

212

213 **Discussion**

214 The COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan was estimated as 208.1 billion yen
215 in 2014 and is expected to continue decreasing. The current study found that this trend
216 will continue until at least 2029. This COI reduction is predicted to be related to the
217 downward trend in the number of patients with HCV in Japan.

218 HCV infection is the leading cause of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan,
219 and its prevalence is closely related to age. Tanaka et al. [22] reported the prevalence
220 of HCV among first-time blood donors: the overall prevalence of anti-HCV antibody
221 was 0.49% in Japan during 1995–2000. The infection rate was much higher in older
222 adults: 3.45% in men and 3.33% in women aged 60–69 years compared with 0.11% in
223 men and 0.14% in women aged 16–19 years. The main causes of HCV dissemination
224 in Japan included past blood transfusions from paid blood donors and injections using
225 contaminated syringes among methamphetamine abusers [23]. Paid blood donation
226 was common in Japan until the beginning of the 1960's; this is a main reason that the
227 proportion of HCV carriers increases with age. After the introduction of voluntary
228 blood donation in 1964 and HBsAg screening in 1972, the risk of post-transfusion
229 hepatitis dramatically decreased [23]. Screening tests for HCV antibodies in blood
230 products, which were introduced in 1989, further decreased the risk of post-
231 transfusion hepatitis. The screening tests were also updated in 1992, 1993, and 1999.
232 The accuracy improvements to screening tests for donated blood decreased the
233 incidence of transfusion-transmitted hepatitis in Japan from 50.9% in 1960 to
234 0.0007% in 2007 [24]. Additionally, nationwide health screening programs for
235 HBsAg and HCV RNA in people aged over 40 years were performed in 2002–2006.
236 From April 2002 to March 2003, this program examined 1,923,480 individuals, of
237 whom 31,393 (1.6%) had ongoing HCV infection [25]. A total of 6,280,111 people

238 (26% of the target population) were tested for this program, and 99,950 (1.6%)
239 patients with HCV infection were newly detected [23]. In recent years, the Basic Act
240 on Hepatitis Measures (enacted in 2009) has provided opportunities for viral hepatitis
241 screening. These programs have significantly reduced the number of patients with
242 viral hepatitis. As a result, the number of patients with non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis
243 has decreased in Japan in recent years.

244 The majority of recent non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis cases in Japan have been
245 among older adults. According to the governmental Patient Survey [9], 72.2% of
246 patients with non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis were aged ≥ 65 years in 2014. The average
247 age of death from non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan in 2014 was 69.6 years and
248 76.7 years for male and female individuals, respectively, and these values have
249 trended upward. According to the human capital method, the labour value of older
250 adults is lower than that of younger people. Therefore, the increasing average age of
251 death has contributed to the reduction in MbC.

252 Related studies on medical expenditures on non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis have
253 been published in Japan. Toyokawa et al. [10] reported that the direct cost of non-
254 alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan was 97.0 billion yen in 2002, similar to the present
255 study's result (i.e., 75.0 billion yen in 2002). They used claim data from the Survey of
256 National Medical Care Insurance Services and the Patient Survey in Japan.
257 Unfortunately, no time trend analysis or future projections were performed.

258 The future COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis showed a downward trend.
259 Screening of healthy people for viral hepatitis, which is now under discussion, may
260 temporarily increase the number of patients. The prevalence of anti-HCV antibody
261 among young people is very low, and the majority of newly diagnosed patients with

262 viral hepatitis would be older [22]. This increase would last for several years and
263 would be expected to abate.

264 The development and introduction of DAAs against HCV in clinical practice
265 has dramatically changed the management of chronic hepatitis C. DAAs have shown
266 potent activity against HCV and incrementally improved the rates of SVR, even in
267 patients with difficult-to-treat chronic hepatitis C [26]. The treatment of HCV patients
268 with DAAs has high therapeutic effectiveness and would affect the future prevalence
269 of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis. On the other hand, nucleos(t)ide analogues (NAs)
270 against HBV also have remarkable antiviral effects [27]. The curative effects of NAs
271 were also contribute to reduce the prevalence of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis caused
272 by HBV, and it might bring the decline of COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis. Our
273 results of time trend analysis of COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis took the
274 pharmacological treatments into account. Meanwhile, NASH accounted for only 2.1%
275 of liver cirrhosis in Japan [2]. One of the most serious complications of NASH is liver
276 cirrhosis, and it has recently become recognized as an important cause of liver
277 cirrhosis. Although the prevalence of NASH related liver cirrhosis increased [2], its
278 occupancy rate is low. Therefore, it seems that the increase of prevalence of NASH
279 related liver cirrhosis might not affect to downward trend of COI of non-alcoholic
280 liver cirrhosis. The future changes of the etiology of liver cirrhosis could affect future
281 COI estimates of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis. Because the results of this study were
282 based on present conditions, long-term estimation results should be treated with
283 caution.

284 In recent years, the number of patients of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease
285 (NAFLD) has increased, and social burden of NAFLD is also expected to increase.
286 COI of NAFLD might also contribute to the policy making process. Because NAFLD

287 is categorized as "Other diseases of liver" in the condensed list of causes of death for
288 Japan, the health related indicators of NAFLD is difficult to obtain. Limitations on the
289 data availability of governmental statistics lead to restriction on calculation of COI. It
290 is considered that expansion of health related indicators of NAFLD based on the
291 national database of health insurance claims and specific health checkups of Japan
292 might be useful for calculation of COI of NAFLD.

293 Estimating the future COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis using data from
294 present conditions makes it possible to measure the impact of social burden related to
295 future advances in liver disease treatment.

296

297 **Conclusions**

298 The results of this study suggest that the COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan
299 has been decreasing and will continue to do so in the future. Newly introduced
300 medical technology including DAAs for HCV patients will affect the future
301 prevalence of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis in Japan. This study is an estimation based
302 on the current situation. The future number of patients and mortality of non-alcoholic
303 liver cirrhosis may decrease more than estimated in this study because of the progress
304 and dissemination of new medical technologies. Estimating the future COI of non-
305 alcoholic liver cirrhosis using data from present conditions makes it possible to
306 measure the impact of the social burden related to future advances in liver disease
307 treatment.

308

309 **Abbreviations**

310 COI: Cost of illness, DAAs: Direct acting antiviral agents, DC: Direct cost, HC:
311 Hospitalization cost, HBV: Hepatitis B virus, HCV: Hepatitis C virus, IC: Indirect
312 cost, iCd: Inpatient cost per day, LVd: 1-day labour value per person, LVI: Lifetime
313 labour value per person, MbC: Morbidity cost, MbCi: Morbidity cost of inpatients,
314 MbCo: Morbidity cost of outpatients, MtC: Mortality cost, NAFLD: Non-alcoholic
315 fatty liver disease, NASH: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, NDy: Number of deaths,
316 OC: Outpatient cost, oCd: Outpatient cost per day, SVR: Sustained virological
317 response, THD: Total person-days of hospitalization, TOVy: Total person-days of
318 outpatient visits
319

320 **Declarations**

321 **Consent for publication**

322 Not applicable.

323 **Competing interests**

324 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

325 **Acknowledgments**

326 This study was supported in part by the Ministry of Health Labour and Welfare
327 Health Labour Sciences Research Grant H26-kansei-ippan-003, and the Japan Society
328 for the Promotion of Science KAKENHI Grant No. 16K08886.

329 **Authors' contributions**

330 TK participated in the design of the study, performed the data collection and analysis,
331 and drafted the manuscript. KM participated in the design of the study and performed
332 the analysis. SF, KS, YW, and TH performed the data collection and analysis. TH

333 conceived the study, participated in its design, and helped draft the manuscript. All
334 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

335

336 **References**

- 337 1. Tsochatzis EA, Bosch J, Burroughs AK: Liver cirrhosis. *Lancet* 2014; 383:
338 1749-61.
- 339 2. Michitaka K, Nishiguchi S, Aoyagi Y, Hiasa Y, Tokumoto Y, Onji M. Japan
340 Etiology of Liver Cirrhosis Study Group: etiology of liver cirrhosis in Japan: a
341 nationwide survey. *J Gastroenterol* 2010; 45: 86-94.
- 342 3. Kanda T. Interferon-free treatment for HCV-infected patients with
343 decompensated cirrhosis. *Hepatol Int* 2016; 1: 1-7.
- 344 4. Akbari Sari A, Kazemi Karyani A, Alavian SM, Arab M, Rostami
345 Gholmohamadi F, Rezaei S. The economic burden of liver cirrhosis in Iran: a
346 cost of illness study. *Iran J Public Health* 2015; 44: 512-21.
- 347 5. Stepanova M, De Avila L, Afendy M, Younossi I, Pham H, Cable R, et al.
348 Direct and indirect economic burden of chronic liver disease in the United
349 States. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016; S1542-3565: 30441-4.
- 350 6. Neff GW, Duncan CW, Schiff ER. The current economic burden of cirrhosis.
351 *Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2011; 7: 661-71.
- 352 7. Myers RP, Krajden M, Bilodeau M, Kaita K, Marotta P, Peltekian K. Burden
353 of disease and cost of chronic hepatitis C infection in Canada. *Can J*
354 *Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2014; 28: 243-50.
- 355 8. Vitor S, Marinho RT, Gíria J, Velosa J. An observational study of the direct
356 costs related to hospital admissions, mortality and premature death associated

357 with liver disease in Portugal. BMC Res Notes 2016. doi:10.1186/s13104-
358 016-1879-8.

359 9. Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Patient survey.
360 <http://www.mhlw.go.jp/toukei/list/10-20.html>. Accessed February 20, 2017

361 10. Toyokawa S, Kobayashi Y, Ohmori M. Refined method for estimating
362 medical expenditures for liver disease using the patient survey and claim data
363 in Japan. Nihon Kosshu Eisei Zasshi 2005; 52: 957-61.

364 11. Rice DP. Estimating the cost of illness. Am J Public Health Nations Health
365 1967; 57: 424-40.

366 12. Rice DP, Hodgson TA, Kopstein AN. The economic costs of illness: a
367 replication and update. Health Care Financ Rev 1985; 7: 61-80.

368 13. Rice DP. Cost-of-illness studies: fact or fiction? Lancet 1994; 344: 1519-20.

369 14. Rice DP. Cost of illness studies: what is good about them? Inj Prev 2000; 6:
370 177-9.

371 15. Bloom BS, Bruno DJ, Maman DY, Jayadevappa R. Usefulness of US cost-of-
372 illness studies in healthcare decision making. Pharmacoeconomics 2001; 19:
373 207-13.

374 16. Matsumoto K, Haga K, Hanaoka S, Kitazawa T, Hasegawa T. Cost of illness
375 for major cancers in Japan. The Journal of Japan Society for Health Care
376 Management 2012; 13: 2-6 (in Japanese).

377 17. Haga K, Matsumoto K, Kitazawa T, Seto K, Fujita S, Hasegawa T. Cost of
378 illness of the stomach cancer in Japan - a time trend and future projections.
379 BMC Health Serv Res 2013. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-13-283.

- 380 18. Kitazawa T, Matsumoto K, Fujita S, Seto K, Hanaoka S, Hasegawa T. Cost of
381 illness of the prostate cancer in Japan-a time-trend analysis and future
382 projections. *BMC Health Serv Res* 2015. doi:10.1186/s12913-015-1103-x
- 383 19. Matsumoto K, Haga K, Kitazawa T, Seto K, Fujita S, Hasegawa T. Cost of
384 illness of breast cancer in Japan: trends and future projections. *BMC Res*
385 *Notes* 2015. doi:10.1186/s13104-015-1516-y.
- 386 20. Hayata E, Seto K, Haga K, Kitazawa T, Matsumoto K, Morita M, et al. Cost
387 of illness of the cervical cancer of the uterus in Japan-a time trend and future
388 projections. *BMC Health Serv Res* 2015. doi: 10.1186/s12913-015-0776-5.
- 389 21. Gold MR, Siegel JE, Russell LB, Weinstein MC. Cost-effectiveness in health
390 and medicine. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996.
- 391 22. Tanaka J, Kumagai J, Katayama K, Komiya Y, Mizui M, Yamanaka R. Sex-
392 and age-specific carriers of hepatitis B and C viruses in Japan estimated by the
393 prevalence in the 3,485,648 first-time blood donors during 1995-2000.
394 *Intervirology* 2004; 47: 32-40.
- 395 23. Chung H, Ueda T, Kudo M. Changing trends in hepatitis C infection over the
396 past 50 years in Japan. *Intervirology* 2010; 53: 39-43.
- 397 24. Japanese Red Cross Society. Haemovigilance by JRCS 2008. Japanese Red
398 Cross Society. 2008.
399 http://www.jrc.or.jp/vcms_lf/anzen_HVreport2008_en.pdf. Accessed February
400 20, 2017.
- 401 25. Yoshizawa H, Tanaka J, Miyakawa Y. National prevention of hepatocellular
402 carcinoma in Japan based on epidemiology of hepatitis C virus infection in the
403 general population. *Intervirology* 2006; 49: 7-17.

- 404 26. Cholongitas E, Papatheodoridis GV. Sofosbuvir: a novel oral agent for chronic
405 hepatitis C. *Ann Gastroenterol* 2014; 27: 331-337.
- 406 27. Ohishi W, Chayama K. Treatment of chronic hepatitis B with nucleos(t)ide
407 analogues. *Hepatol Res* 2012; 42: 219-25.
- 408

409 **Tables**

410 **Table 1. Data sources**

Data sources	Issuer	Using purpose
Survey of Medical Care Activities in Public Health Insurance	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare	To determine the direct cost of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis.
Basic Survey on Wage Structure	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare	To calculate labour value.
Labour Force Survey	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications	To calculate labour value.
Estimates of Monetary Valuation of Unpaid Work	Cabinet Office	To calculate labour value.
Vital Statistics	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare	To evaluate the number of deaths.
Patient Survey	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare	To distinguish the number of patients, total person-days of outpatient visits, and average length of stay.
Population Projections for Japan	National Institute of Population and Social Security Research in Japan	To refer future population.

411

412 **Table 2. Components of COI**

Components of COI		Formulas / Data sources
COI	Cost of illness	$DC + MbC + MtC$
DC	Direct cost	$HC + OC$
HC	Hospitalization cost	$iCd \times THD$
	iCd Inpatient cost per day	Survey results of the Central Social Insurance Medical Council
OC	THD Total person-days of hospitalization	Patient Survey
	OC Outpatient cost	$oCd \times TOVy$
	oCd Outpatient cost per day	Survey of Medical Care Activities in Public Health Insurance
	TOVy Total person-days of outpatient visits	Patient Survey
MbC	Morbidity cost	$MbCi + MbCo$
MbCi	Morbidity cost of inpatients	$THD \times LVd$
	THD Total person-days of hospitalization	Patient Survey
	LVd 1-day labour value per person	Basic Survey on Wage Structure, Labour Force Survey, Estimates of Monetary Valuation of Unpaid Work
MbCo	Morbidity cost of outpatients	$TOVy \times LVd/2$
	TOVy Total person-days of outpatient visits	Patient Survey
	LVd/2 1/2-day labour value per person	Basic Survey on Wage Structure, Labour Force Survey, Estimates of Monetary Valuation of Unpaid Work
MtC	Mortality cost	$NDy \times LVI$
NDy	Number of deaths	Vital Statistics
LVI	Lifetime labour value per person	Basic Survey on Wage Structure, Labour Force Survey, Estimates of Monetary Valuation of Unpaid Work, Life table

413

414 **Table 3. Projected results of health-related indicators of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis**

	2014 (base line)	Future estimates					
		2017	2020	2023	2026	2029	
Number of death (person)	7,796	Fixed model	8,199	8,570	8,891	9,100	9,323
		Linear model	6,614	5,718	5,159	4,720	4,272
		Logarithmic model	8,232	8,103	7,936	7,698	7,476
Number of outpatient visit (person)	2,365,200	Fixed model	2,406,198	2,481,457	2,523,677	2,560,044	2,523,283
		Linear model	1,263,377	1,114,304	955,836	772,879	599,184
		Logarithmic model	1,899,878	1,678,165	1,527,741	1,367,805	1,217,578
Number of hospitalization (episodes)	2,500	Fixed model	2,589	2,658	2,712	2,745	2,778
		Linear model	662	311	169	95	18
		Logarithmic model	1,828	1,452	1,189	973	803
Total days of hospitalization (days)	984,960	Fixed model	1,033,135	1,069,917	1,110,179	1,129,821	1,167,722
		Linear model	302,329	142,026	69,488	32,292	4,696
		Logarithmic model	847,535	689,929	578,286	484,385	410,288

415

416 **Table 4. Estimated past COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis (billion yen)**

	1996	1999	2002	2005	2008	2011	2014
Direct cost	67.7	65.9	75.0	43.9	44.9	26.7	29.0
Mortality cost	320.6	281.7	266.4	235.2	210.9	196.1	165.3
Morbidity cost	55.4	49.7	30.2	21.7	16.2	14.8	13.8
COI	443.7	397.3	371.6	300.8	272.1	237.5	208.1

417

418 Table 5. Estimated future COI of non-alcoholic liver cirrhosis (billion yen)

		Future estimates				
		2017	2020	2023	2026	2029
Direct cost	Fixed model	30.1	31.1	32.1	32.6	33.2
	Linear model	23.2	20.6	18.1	15.5	13.2
	Logarithmic model	30.3	30.2	29.8	29.3	25.7
	Mixed model	21.5	17.0	13.9	11.2	6.3
Mortality cost	Fixed model	166.6	168.6	167.0	168.6	166.9
	Linear model	116.1	81.6	67.4	58.6	51.1
	Logarithmic model	170.6	157.1	143.3	129.9	116.5
	Mixed model	170.6	157.1	143.3	129.9	116.5
Morbidity cost	Fixed model	13.8	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.2
	Linear model	5.0	3.8	3.1	2.6	2.1
	Logarithmic model	9.6	7.5	6.3	5.4	4.4
	Mixed model	8.8	6.7	5.5	4.6	3.7
COI	Fixed model	210.5	213.8	213.4	215.5	214.3
	Linear model	144.3	106.0	88.6	76.7	66.4
	Logarithmic model	210.5	194.8	179.5	164.5	146.6
	Mixed model	200.9	180.8	162.8	145.7	126.5

419

420