

Antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cirrhosis with secondary Sjogren syndrome: a case report

Suman Acharya, MBBS, MD^a, Suraj Shrestha^{d,*}, Elisha Poddar^d, Ashru Neupane, MBBS, MD^c, Ramesh Khadayat, MBBS^d, Sagar R. Magar, MBBS^d, Manoj Lamsal, MBBS, MD, DM^b, Rahul Pathak, MBBS, MD, DM^b

Introduction and importance: Primary biliary cholangitis (PBC) is a rare immune-mediated liver disease characterized by the destruction of intrahepatic bile ducts and a positive antimitochondrial antibody (AMA), which is considered a serological hallmark for the diagnosis. Rarely, AMA can be absent/nondetectable in a few cases and is referred to as 'AMA-negative'.

Case presentation: The authors present such an uncommon case of AMA-negative PBC in a 39-year-female with Sjogren's syndrome who presented with fatigue, pruritus, and dry eyes.

Clinical discussion: Previously published studies state that approximately only about 5% of patients with PBC are 'AMA-negative'. For patients negative for AMA, the diagnosis has to be based on typical pathological features of this disease. Once a diagnosis of PBC is established, regardless of whether it is positive or negative for AMAs, ursodeoxycholic acid is a widely accepted treatment. **Conclusion:** The presence/absence of AMAs is associated with similar clinical, biochemical, and histopathological characteristics in PBC. The identification of AMAs alone should not impact the diagnosis or treatment of PBC.

Keywords: AMA-negative, antimitochondrial antibody, primary biliary cirrhosis, Sjogren's syndrome

Introduction

Primary biliary cholangitis (PBC) is an immune-mediated liver condition that affects 14.6 per 100 000 people worldwide and is defined by the presence of antimitochondrial antibodies (AMA) and the destruction of small-sized to medium-sized intrahepatic bile ducts^[1,2]. In addition, PBC is less common in Asian populations affecting 9.82 per 100 000 persons^[3]. PBC, formerly known as primary biliary cirrhosis, is a chronic, progressing liver condition that, if left untreated, can lead to end-stage liver disease. Historically, untreated patients with PBC had an average survival of 9–10 years compared to the 10-year survival of 80% of patients receiving UDCA treatment^[4]. Patients presenting with clinical signs and a biochemical pattern of cholestasis can be

Copyright © 2023 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution. Non Commercial-No Derivatives License 4.0 (CCBY-NC-ND), where it is permissible to download and share the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be changed in any way or used commercially without permission from the journal.

Annals of Medicine & Surgery (2023) 85:5645-5648

Received 12 June 2023; Accepted 31 July 2023

Published online 5 September 2023

http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MS9.000000000001143

HIGHLIGHTS

- Antimitochondrial antibody (AMA) is a serological hallmark in primary biliary cholangitis (PBC).
- Only 5% of PBC patients lack detectable AMA and are referred to as 'AMA negative' patients.
- AMA-negative PBC shares similar clinical, biochemical, and histopathological characteristics with AMA-positive PBC.

diagnosed with PBC using the serological marker 'AMA'. Only about 5% of PBC patients, lack detectable AMA and are referred to as 'AMA negative' patients^[5].

Sjögren's syndrome (SS) is a chronic systemic autoimmune disorder characterized by lymphoplasmacytic infiltrates of the exocrine glands, which results primarily in xerostomia and xerophthalmia but may also cause extra glandular manifestations^[6]. The total incidence was estimated as 0.043% in a recent metaanalysis, albeit prevalence varied across different geographic areas. In general, women are affected more often than men, with a female-to-male ratio of roughly 10:1^[7]. It can be divided into two categories: primary and secondary SS, depending on whether an underlying autoimmune disorder is present. Secondary SS presents as an entity associated with another autoimmune condition that can at times be associated with PBC^[8].

Here, we report a case of AMA-negative PBC in a patient with coexisting SS.

Case presentation

A 39-year-old female with recently diagnosed dyslipidemia presented to our center with clinically significant weight loss over one

^aDepartment of Internal Medicine, ^bDepartment of Gastroenterology, Tribhuvan University Teaching Hospital, ^cDepartment of Anesthesiology, National Academy of Medical Sciences and ^dMaharajgunj Medical Campus, Institute of Medicine, Kathmandu, Nepal

Sponsorships or competing interests that may be relevant to content are disclosed at the end of this article.

^{*}Corresponding author. Address: Maharajgunj Medical Campus, Institute of Medicine, Kathmandu 44600, Nepal. Tel.: 977 9843061988. E-mail: multisurazz@gmail.com (S. Shrestha).

year, yellowish discoloration of the eyes for 3 months, which was associated with pruritus and easy fatigability but without a claycolored stool, and abdominal pain.

She also had a history of small joint pain, predominantly proximal interphalangeal joint pain, and hair fall but the history of photosensitive rashes and sicca symptoms were absent.

Upon examination, she was icteric and her liver and spleen were palpable. The rest of the general and systemic physical examination including vitals were unremarkable.

Laboratory investigations revealed a cholestatic pattern of liver injury (Table 1). An abdominal US study showed hepatosplenomegaly and magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography suggested a normal biliary tree except for a focal indentation at the common hepatic duct after the confluence of ducts. Autoimmune workup revealed negative AMA and anti-smooth muscle antibody by immunofluorescence method, negative anti-LKM, normal serum IgG, and ceruloplasmin but positive antineutrophil antibody (ANA) by immunofluorescence. A liver biopsy revealed lymphoplasmacytic infiltration of portal tracts with ill-formed granuloma suggesting primary biliary cirrhosis. Biopsy further revealed portal to portal and portal to central fibrosis along with areas of parenchymal destruction (Fig. 1). ENA (extractable nuclear antigen) profiling was positive for Anti-Ro-52 (Table 2). The Schirmer test came positive and a minor salivary glands biopsy confirmed lymphocytic infiltration of salivary glands. C3, C4, and dsDNA were negative and lupus was ruled out.

With a diagnosis of primary biliary cirrhosis and secondary SS, she was managed with ursodeoxycholic acid 600 mg/day with a short course of prednisolone along with other supportive therapies for sicca symptoms.

She is under regular follow-up at our center and her liver enzymes are gradually improving over 6 months of follow-up.

Table 1 Various laboratory parameters at the time of admission.		
Parameter	Value (reference range)	
1. Hematology		
a. WBC	13 100/cmm (4000–11 000)	
b. RBC	4.01 mill/cmm (3.5-4.5)	
c. Hb	12.5 gm% (12–16)	
d. Platelets	350 000/cmm (150 000-450 000)	
Liver function test		
a. Total bilirubin	49 micromol/l (3–21)	
b. Direct bilirubin	34 micromol/l (0–5)	
c. SGOT/AST	169 U/I (0–35)	
d. SGPT/ALT	157 U/I (30–120)	
e. ALP	986 U/I (30–120)	
f. Albumin	37 gm/l (35–52)	
Renal function test		
a. Sodium	137 mmol/l (135–145)	
b. Potassium	3.8 mmol/l (3.5–5.2)	
c. Urea	3.1 mmol/l (1.6–7.0)	
d. Creatinine	51 micromol/l (40–110)	
4. Tumor markers		
a. AFP	3.0 (< 7.51)	
b. CA-125	32.7 (<35)	
c. CEA	1.8 (< 3.0)	
d. CA-19.9	36.8 (< 37.0)	
e. CA-15.3	20.1 (< 31.3)	



Figure 1. Section from liver shows hepatocytes with feathery degeneration, cholestasis and sinusoidal dilatation with mild lymphocytic infiltration in the portal tract along with areas of ill-formed granuloma.

Table 2

ENA Profile of the patient with immunological work-up.

Parameter	Value/Titer	Inference with reference
dsDNA	3.6 IU/ml	< 30 (Negative)
Complement		
a. C3 complement	229.3 mg/dl	90–180
b. C4 complement	36.2 mg/dl	10–40
Smooth muscle antibody	1:20	Negative
Mitochondrial antibody	1:10	Negative
Extractable nuclear antigens	(ENA) profile	
Anti-nRNP	1	
Anti-smith	0	
Anti-RNP70	2	
Anti-RNP A	0	
Anti-RNP C	1	
Anti-SS-A	0	0-5: negative
Anti-Ro-52	77	6–10: borderline positive
Anti-SS-B (La)	1	11–25: positive
Anti Scl-70	0	
Anti-PM-Scl	1	26–50: moderative positive
Anti Jo-1	1	51–256: strong positive
Anti-CENP-B	1	
Anti-PCNA	1	
Anti-Ds-DNA	0	
Anti-nucleosomes	1	
Anti-histones	0	
Anti-Rib-P proteins	1	

Discussion

The etiological causes of autoantibody synthesis in PBC are still unknown. There is evidence that genetic and environmental factors interact to affect PBC susceptibility. There is currently evidence to support the pathogenesis of PBC being influenced by infectious agents like bacteria, retroviruses, and xenobiotics^[9]. Xenobiotics are foreign substances that can interact with their own proteins. *Escherichia coli*, *Chlamydia pneumoniae*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Helicobacter pylori* are examples of infectious agents. It is believed that exposure to certain substances, especially xenobiotics, might change the composition of native proteins and trigger an immunological reaction against one's own proteins. This process is known as molecular mimicry^[10].

Because PBC is a rare disease and many individuals present with an asymptomatic increase of liver enzymes, timely diagnosis of the condition can be difficult. PBC has a very diverse clinical trajectory, in part because it is now more frequently detected in its initial stages. After diagnosis, over one-third of individuals experience no symptoms for a long time^[11]. Fatigue and pruritus are the most frequent symptoms in people who do experience them. On the other side, jaundice occurs later and is linked to a worse prognosis. 10% of patients report experiencing stomach pain in the right upper quadrant. In fact, only a small portion of patients actually exhibit nonspecific symptoms like pruritus, upper right quadrant stomach pain, and exhaustion at the time of diagnosis^[12]. Numerous genetic investigations have demonstrated that the risk loci for PBC are also those that predispose to RA, SS, SSc, SLE, IBD, and psoriasis^[13]. As a result, it is frequently important to check for extrahepatic autoimmune diseases such as autoimmune thyroiditis, SS, and other illnesses. These extrahepatic autoimmune diseases are more prevalent in females and are more usually associated with AMA, ANA, and/or SMA seropositivity^[1].

AMA, present in up to 95% of PBC patients, has been established as a highly specific marker for the disease, and its presence is a characteristic criterion for PBC diagnosis, with increasing sensitivity at increasing titers^[14]. Major international recommendations state that if a patient tests positive for AMA and has clinical, biochemical, or radiological evidence of intrahepatic cholestasis, the diagnosis of PBC can be made with confidence. However, the diagnosis must be based on the characteristic clinical signs of this illness in patients who test negative for AMA, which accounts for around 5% of PBC cases^[15]. However, a meta-analysis involving 400 patients who had PBC and an AMA-negative status showed that ANAs had a very good specificity for PBC and an AMA-negative status. Anti-gp210 and antisp100 ANAs, among others, showed extremely high specificity but limited sensitivity for the diagnosis of AMA-negative PBC and could thus be utilized as trustworthy biomarkers to lessen the need for liver histology^[16]. However, several investigations showed that PBC that tested negative for AMA was linked to worse clinical outcomes and more extensive histological bile duct damage^[17]. Therefore, liver biopsy is advised for this group of patients to confirm the diagnosis of AMA-negative PBC and to rule out the presence of AIH or NASH without unduly delaying the course of treatment^[18]. Our patient had AMA-negative PBC which was diagnosed with liver biopsy and also had positive ANA like in other reported 'ANA negative PBC' cases. Patients with PBC who do not have antimitochondrial antibodies exhibit the same clinical trends, serum biochemistry profiles, and liver histological characteristics as those who do. On the other hand, UDCA treatment and a postponed diagnosis may cause a more advanced disease in AMA-negative people^[17].

Once a diagnosis of PBC is established, regardless of whether it is positive or negative for AMAs, the most widely accepted treatment is UDCA. Ursodeoxycholic acid is well tolerated in most patients^[19]. At intervals of 3–6 months, liver testing should be periodically monitored^[20]. It has been demonstrated through numerous randomized trials, combined analyses, and extensive observational studies that this medication not only enhances biochemical indicators but also slows the course of histology and increases survival without transplantation^[21,22]. Furthermore, Liu's research found that treating AMA-negative and AMApositive PBC with UDCA led to comparable improvement in ALP, IgM, and glutamyl transpeptidase levels^[23]. Even though UDCA is a successful treatment and has helped PBC become a manageable chronic condition, it does not alleviate typical symptoms like fatigue and pruritus^[24]. Other treatments for pruritus include cholestyramine, rifampicin, and opioid antagonists^[20].

Although the rate of disease progression varies widely from patient to patient, in the majority of cases, there is a development of cirrhosis and its sequelae. Data on the untreated natural history are scarce, but one of the first clinical trials in PBC showed a rather fast histological progression in the absence of effective treatment. Within 4 years, progression towards cirrhosis was observed in 40% of patients with an early histological disease stage (stage I or II) and in 68% of patients with advanced disease (stage III)^[25]. A fraction of patients have liver failure and endstage liver disease despite receiving optimal care. A liver transplant (LT) is the only available form of treatment for these people. Hepatocellular carcinoma and refractory pruritus are two other, less common indications for LT in PBC^[12]. Therefore, regardless of the patient's AMA status, LT should be taken into consideration once UDCA stops controlling the disease and the patient advances to end-stage liver disease. After a median followup of 36 months, Lee et al. looked at the clinical results of orthotopic LT in patients with PBC who tested negative for AMA. According to the investigators, patients with PBC who tested positive for AMA had similar graft and patient survival rates as well as subsequent histological alterations, such as disease recurrence and steroid-resistant or late rejections^[26].

SS has been reported in varying frequency upto ~ 40% of cases of PBC^[27]. The term autoimmune epithelitis has been suggested as a replacement label for PBC and SS, which are both characterized by immune-mediated tissue injury, particularly in biliary and exocrine gland epithelia^[20]. Although a clear correlation between the two disorders has been shown, SS's prognostic importance in PBC is still unclear. The main treatment for sicca symptoms is supportive therapy. Artificial tears are the primary option for dry eyes. Second-line treatments include cholinergic drugs like pilocarpine and cevimeline. In cases that are unresponsive, cyclosporine may be considered. As dental caries are usually linked to dry mouth, it is important to practice good oral hygiene and visit the dentist frequently. The use of moisturizers may be advised for a dry vagina. Systemic immunosuppressive therapy may be considered if sicca symptoms are resistant to supportive treatment^[24]. PBC shares similarities with our patient in that it is linked to dyslipidemia, but there is no proof that it increases the risk of cardiovascular disease. Due to this, recommendations for lipid-lowering therapy are now made on an individual basis rather than on a regular basis^[4].

Conclusion

Antimitochondrial antibody-negative and AMA-positive PBC share similar clinical, biochemical, and histopathological

features. Detection of AMAs alone should not influence the diagnosis or treatment of PBC, and the disease should be managed like other PBC patients.

Ethical approval

Not applicable as ethical approval is not required for writing the case report from the institutional review board in our institute.

Consent

Written informed consent was obtained from the patient for publication of this case report and accompanying images. A copy of the written consent is available for review by the Editor-in-Chief of this journal on request.

Sources of funding

This research work did not receive any kind of funding.

Author contribution

S.A,: writing – original draft, data curation, conceptualization; S.S., E.P., A.N., R.K., and S.R.M.: writing – original draft, writing – review and editing; M.L.: data curation, writing – review and editing; R.P.: writing – review and editing, conceptualization, supervision.

Conflicts of interest disclosure

The authors declare that they have no financial conflicts of interest with regard to the content of this report.

Research registration unique identifying number (UIN)

- 1. Name of the registry: not applicable.
- 2. Unique identifying number or registration ID: not applicable.
- 3. Hyperlink to your specific registration (must be publicly accessible and will be checked): not applicable.

Guarantor

Dr Suraj Shrestha. E-mail: multisurazz@gmail.com

Provenance and peer review

Not commissioned, externally peer-reviewed.

Data availability statement

All the necessary information is provided within the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

None.

References

- Efe C, Torgutalp M, Henriksson I, *et al.* Extrahepatic autoimmune diseases in primary biliary cholangitis: prevalence and significance for clinical presentation and disease outcome. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2021;36: 936–42.
- [2] Lv T, Chen S, Li M, et al. Regional variation and temporal trend of primary biliary cholangitis epidemiology: a systematic review and metaanalysis. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2021;36:1423–34.
- [3] Begum R, Mahtab MA, Al Mamun A, *et al*. A case of antimitochondrial antibody negative primary biliary cirrhosis from Bangladesh and review of literature. Euroasian J Hepatogastroenterol 2015;5:122–6.
- [4] EASL clinical practice guidelines: the diagnosis and management of patients with primary biliary cholangitis. J Hepatol 2017;67:145–72.
- [5] Lacerda MA, Ludwig J, Dickson ER, et al. Antimitochondrial antibodynegative primary biliary cirrhosis. Am J Gastroenterol 1995;90:247–9.
- [6] Fox RI. Sjögren's syndrome. Lancet 2005;366:321-31.
- [7] Qin B, Wang J, Yang Z, et al. Epidemiology of primary Sjögren's syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Rheum Dis 2015;74: 1983–9.
- [8] Patel R, Shahane A. The epidemiology of Sjögren's syndrome. Clin Epidemiol 2014;6:247–55.
- [9] Van de Water J, Ishibashi H, Coppel RL, et al. Molecular mimicry and primary biliary cirrhosis: premises not promises. Hepatology 2001;33: 771–5.
- [10] Long SA, Van de Water J, Gershwin ME. Antimitochondrial antibodies in primary biliary cirrhosis: the role of xenobiotics. Autoimmun Rev 2002; 1:37–42.
- [11] Prince MI, Chetwynd A, Craig WL, et al. Asymptomatic primary biliary cirrhosis: clinical features, prognosis, and symptom progression in a large population based cohort. Gut 2004;53:865–70.
- [12] Laschtowitz A, de Veer RC, Van der Meer AJ, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of primary biliary cholangitis. United European Gastroenterol J 2020;8:667–74.
- [13] Cordell HJ, Han Y, Mells GF, et al. International genome-wide metaanalysis identifies new primary biliary cirrhosis risk loci and targetable pathogenic pathways. Nat Commun 2015;6:8019.
- [14] Colapietro F, Lleo A, Generali E. Antimitochondrial antibodies: from bench to bedside. Clin Rev Allergy Immunol 2022;63:166–77.
- [15] Ozaslan E, Efe C, Gokbulut Ozaslan N. The diagnosis of antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cholangitis. Clin Res Hepatol Gastroenterol 2016;40:553–61.
- [16] Zhang Q, Liu Z, Wu S, et al. Meta-analysis of antinuclear antibodies in the diagnosis of antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cholangitis. Gastroenterol Res Pract 2019;2019:8959103.
- [17] Juliusson G, Imam M, Björnsson ES, et al. Long-term outcomes in antimitochondrial antibody negative primary biliary cirrhosis. Scand J Gastroenterol 2016;51:745–52.
- [18] You H, Ma X, Efe C, et al. APASL clinical practice guidance: the diagnosis and management of patients with primary biliary cholangitis. Hepatol Int 2022;16:1–23.
- [19] Siegel JL, Jorgensen R, Angulo P, et al. Treatment with ursodeoxycholic acid is associated with weight gain in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. J Clin Gastroenterol 2003;37:183–5.
- [20] Lindor KD, Gershwin ME, Poupon R, et al. Primary biliary cirrhosis. Hepatology 2009;50:291–308.
- [21] Corpechot C, Carrat F, Bonnand AM, et al. The effect of ursodeoxycholic acid therapy on liver fibrosis progression in primary biliary cirrhosis. Hepatology 2000;32:1196–9.
- [22] Parés A, Caballería L, Rodés J. Excellent long-term survival in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis and biochemical response to ursodeoxycholic acid. Gastroenterology 2006;130:715–20.
- [23] Liu B, Shi XH, Zhang FC, *et al.* Antimitochondrial antibody-negative primary biliary cirrhosis: a subset of primary biliary cirrhosis. Liver Int 2008;28:233–9.
- [24] Kuo A, Kuo A, Bowlus CL. Management of symptom complexes in primary biliary cholangitis. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2016;32:204–9.
- [25] Locke GR 3rd, Therneau TM, Ludwig J, et al. Time course of histological progression in primary biliary cirrhosis. Hepatology 1996;23:52–6.
- [26] Lee J, Belanger A, Doucette JT, et al. Transplantation trends in primary biliary cirrhosis. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 2007;5:1313–5.
- [27] Tsianos EV, Hoofnagle JH, Fox PC, et al. Sjögren's syndrome in patients with primary biliary cirrhosis. Hepatology 1990;11:730–4.