



Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

Elizabeth E Powell, Vincent Wai-Sun Wong, Mary Rinella

Lancet 2021; 397: 2212–24

Published Online

April 21, 2021

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)32511-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)32511-3)

50140-6736(20)32511-3

Centre for Liver Disease Research, Faculty of Medicine, University of Queensland, Translational Research Institute, Brisbane, QLD, Australia (Prof E E Powell MD); Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia (Prof E E Powell); Department of Medicine and Therapeutics, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (Prof V W-S Wong MD); State Key Laboratory of Digestive Disease, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (Prof V W-S Wong); Northwestern University, Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA (Prof M Rinella MD)

Correspondence to: Prof Elizabeth E Powell, Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane, QLD 4102, Australia e.powell@uq.edu.au

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) has a global prevalence of 25% and is a leading cause of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. NAFLD encompasses a disease continuum from steatosis with or without mild inflammation (non-alcoholic fatty liver), to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), which is characterised by necroinflammation and faster fibrosis progression than non-alcoholic fatty liver. NAFLD has a bidirectional association with components of the metabolic syndrome, and type 2 diabetes increases the risk of cirrhosis and related complications. Although the leading causes of death in people with NAFLD are cardiovascular disease and extrahepatic malignancy, advanced liver fibrosis is a key prognostic marker for liver-related outcomes and overall mortality, and can be assessed with combinations of non-invasive tests. Patients with cirrhosis should be screened for hepatocellular carcinoma and oesophageal varices. There is currently no approved therapy for NAFLD, although several drugs are in advanced stages of development. Because of the complex pathophysiology and substantial heterogeneity of disease phenotypes, combination treatment is likely to be required for many patients with NAFLD. Healthy lifestyle and weight reduction remain crucial to the prevention and treatment of NAFLD.

Introduction

Over the past four decades, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) has become the most common chronic liver disorder (with a global prevalence of around 25% of the adult population)¹ and is recognised to have a close, bidirectional association with components of metabolic syndrome.² Although less than 10% of people with NAFLD develop liver-related complications, a key challenge is to identify those who are at the highest risk among the many people affected by NAFLD. Due to its high prevalence, NAFLD is now the most rapidly increasing cause of liver-related mortality worldwide³ and is emerging as an important cause of end-stage liver disease,⁴ primary liver cancer,⁵ and liver transplantation with a substantial health economic burden. Despite the growing concern, NAFLD is underappreciated as an important chronic disease⁶ and there are few national strategies or policies for NAFLD.⁷

This Seminar describes the epidemiology, natural history, and risk factors for progression of NAFLD. We

highlight progress in non-invasive tests to assess liver disease severity and the importance of a collaborative approach to diagnosis, risk stratification, and management to improve health outcomes for people with NAFLD.

Definition

NAFLD is the liver component of a cluster of conditions that are associated with metabolic dysfunction. Although fatty liver hepatitis resulting in cirrhosis was described nearly 20 years beforehand,⁸ the term non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) was first coined by Ludwig and colleagues in 1980.⁹ NAFLD is defined by the presence of steatosis in more than 5% of hepatocytes in association with metabolic risk factors (particularly, obesity and type 2 diabetes) and in the absence of excessive alcohol consumption (≥ 30 g per day for men and ≥ 20 g per day for women) or other chronic liver diseases.¹⁰ Current nomenclature suggests that NAFLD is more of a diagnosis of exclusion than of inclusion, and there is an ongoing debate about the limitations of the present terminology and diagnostic criteria.^{11,12} In 2020, an international panel of experts proposed the concept of metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD) to highlight the contribution of cardiometabolic risk factors to the development and progression of liver disease (even among patients with other liver diseases);¹¹ however, MAFLD is not the currently accepted nomenclature by the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases or the European Association for the Study of Liver Diseases.

NAFLD is an umbrella term for a broad range of clinicopathological findings. Histologically, NAFLD encompasses a disease continuum (figure 1 A–C) that includes steatosis with or without mild inflammation (non-alcoholic fatty liver, NAFL) and a necroinflammatory subtype (NASH), which is additionally characterised by the presence of hepatocellular injury (hepatocyte ballooning). The predominant drivers of disease can vary substantially among patients with NAFLD. Furthermore, disease progression and response to treatment are heterogeneous. Information about disease activity and, in particular, the

Search strategy and selection criteria

We searched PubMed and MEDLINE to identify studies and reviews published between Jan 1, 1980, and Dec 31, 2020, relevant to the scope of this Seminar with the terms “non-alcoholic fatty liver disease”, “non-alcoholic steatohepatitis”, “NAFLD”, “NASH”, “fatty liver”, “epidemiology”, “prevalence”, “incidence”, “disease burden”, “non-invasive tests”, “liver fibrosis”, “blood tests”, “liver stiffness measurement”, “natural history”, “pathogenesis”, “treatment”, “pharmacotherapy”, and “risk stratification”. Articles were considered regardless of language. We selected references that provided current, evidence-based insight into non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. Most of the articles selected were published within the past 5 years, although we also included highly referenced, older publications that contributed to new knowledge or understanding of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.

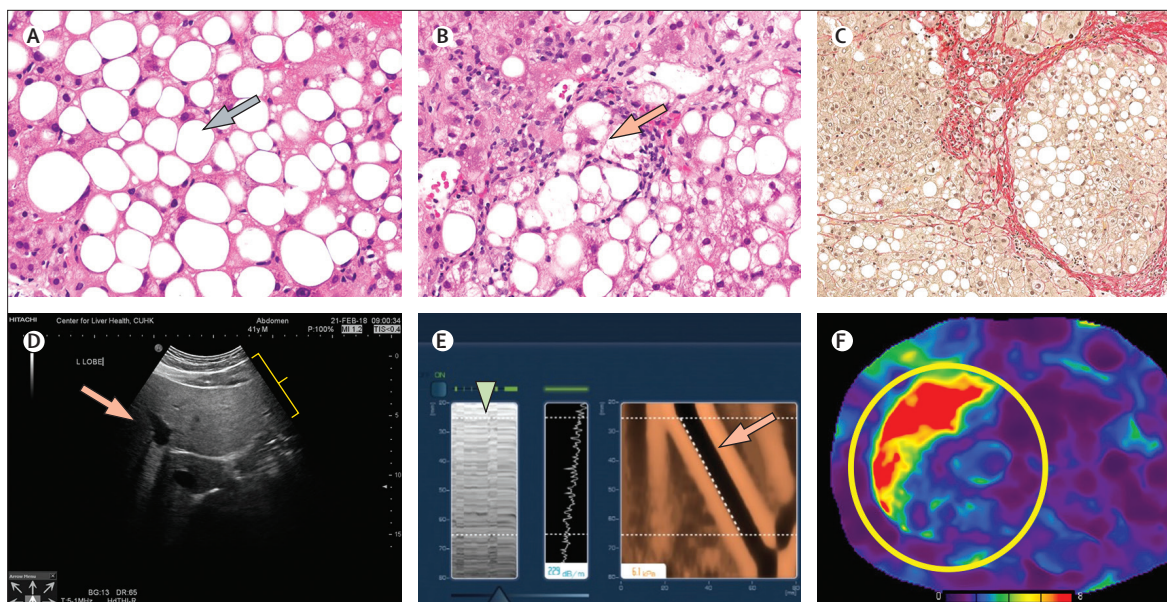


Figure 1: Histological and radiological assessment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

(A) Non-alcoholic fatty liver is characterised by macrovesicular steatosis (large round non-staining areas represent lipid droplets in hepatocytes [grey arrow]; haematoxylin and eosin stain; magnification $\times 40$) with no or little necroinflammation. (B) Apart from fat accumulation, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) is characterised by the presence of lobular inflammation and hepatocyte ballooning. At the centre of the image is a ballooned hepatocyte surrounded by inflammatory cells (red arrow; haematoxylin and eosin stain; magnification $\times 40$). (C) As disease progresses, accumulating liver fibrosis will eventually result in cirrhosis. On the right of this image is a cirrhotic nodule surrounded by thick fibrous tissue. In some cases, steatosis and necroinflammation might reduce or disappear as the disease progresses to cirrhosis, a condition referred to as burned-out NASH (sirius red; magnification $\times 10$). (D) Ultrasonography, the most common method to diagnose fatty liver, characterised by bright liver echotexture (yellow bracket) and blurring of deeper structures (red arrow). (E) Vibration-controlled transient elastography, a point-of-care measurement of liver stiffness for the estimation of fibrosis that can also estimate hepatic steatosis using the controlled attenuation parameter. The machine is equipped with an M-mode ultrasound for the localisation of liver parenchyma (green triangle). The elastogram (red arrow) represents the measurement of liver stiffness. A steeper slope indicates that the shear-wave velocity is higher, and the liver is stiffer. (F) Magnetic resonance elastography of a patient with NASH cirrhosis, currently one of the most accurate non-invasive tests of liver fibrosis, with the colour scheme reflecting stiffness in different parts of the liver. Red colour shows areas with greater stiffness (yellow circle).

extent of liver fibrosis is necessary to assess the severity of liver disease and provide prognostic information. Growing insights from metabolomics, genomics, and other areas will enable disease phenotyping and facilitate potential disease stratification in the future.

Epidemiology and disease burden

NAFLD is now the most common cause of chronic liver disease worldwide, with a prevalence that varies from 13.5% in Africa to 31.8% in the Middle East,¹ which is likely driven by differences in overall caloric intake, physical activity, body fat distribution, socioeconomic status, and genetic composition. Because of its close association with the metabolic syndrome, NAFLD is seen in 47.3–63.7% of people with type 2 diabetes and up to 80% of people with obesity.^{13,14} However, some people with a healthy body-mass index (eg, <25 kg/m² in White people and <23 kg/m² in Asian people) can still develop NAFLD, often described as non-obese or lean NAFLD.¹⁵ These patients usually have central obesity or other metabolic risk factors.¹⁶

Although less than 10%^{17,18} of patients with NAFLD develop cirrhotic complications and hepatocellular carcinoma during the 10–20 years after diagnosis, the absolute numbers are substantial given the high

disease prevalence. In people with other conditions (eg, alcohol-related liver disease, and viral or autoimmune hepatitis), fatty liver frequently coexists and might have a synergistic role in liver injury.¹⁹ Importantly, the disease and economic burden of NAFLD will probably increase during the coming decades.^{20,21} Health-care utilisation and expenditure are particularly high among patients with NAFLD and advanced fibrosis or type 2 diabetes and those requiring hospital admission.^{22,23} Little information is available regarding the effect of NAFLD on patients' daily lives,²⁴ which will be important data to collect in future intervention or treatment studies.

The number of cases of childhood obesity, an important risk factor for NAFLD, is still increasing; in the USA, the prevalence of obesity among children aged 2–5 years increased from 8.4% in 2011–12 to 13.9% in 2015–16.²⁵ Although the increase appears to have slowed in many high-income countries, the rise in body-mass index among children and adolescents has accelerated in east and south Asia.²⁶ Among children, the pooled mean prevalence of NAFLD is 7.6% in the general population and 34.2% in clinics for paediatric obesity.²⁷ Individuals with disease onset in childhood have a higher risk of developing liver-related events and other comorbidities

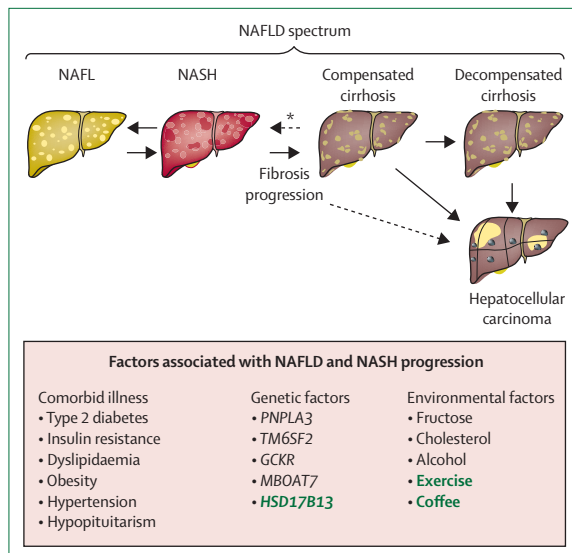


Figure 2: Spectrum of NAFLD

Factors in black have an established association with NAFLD and NASH progression (broadly classified into comorbid illness, genetic factors, and environmental factors).³⁴ Green indicates a protective factor. NAFL=non-alcoholic fatty liver. NAFLD=non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. NASH=non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Fibrosis regression.

associated with metabolic syndrome during their lifetime than those with disease onset in adulthood.²⁸

Natural history

The relationship between NAFLD and all-cause mortality is unresolved, with some studies detecting a modest increase in risk of all-cause mortality compared with the general population,^{29–31} and others reporting no association between NAFLD and mortality.^{32,33} NAFLD is a heterogeneous condition with varying rates of disease progression and clinical outcomes, which might be driven by the varying predominant mechanisms for the development of the disease (figure 2).³⁵ In the majority of patients, liver disease is stable or slowly progressive and will not result in cirrhosis or liver-related death. However, a small proportion of affected individuals develop advanced fibrosis and are at risk of developing complications of end-stage liver disease and hepatocellular carcinoma. Recognising the diversity in disease progression and the factors that influence it is instrumental to developing guidance for patient care.

Studies assessing paired liver biopsy samples although prone to ascertainment and selection bias,³⁶ contribute important data on the rate of disease progression. Although fibrosis can develop in livers affected by NAFL or NASH, fibrosis progression occurs at a more rapid rate in people with NASH, which is likely driven by necroinflammation.^{37,38} A meta-analysis of NAFLD studies assessing paired liver biopsy samples found that fibrosis worsened by one stage (from baseline stage 0 fibrosis) on average during 7·1 years for patients with NASH and by one stage over 14·3 years for patients with

NAFL.³⁶ The histological scoring system for staging fibrosis ranges from stage 0 (no fibrosis) to stage 4 (cirrhosis). The natural course of NAFLD is inconstant and is characterised by bidirectional and concordant changes in both disease activity and fibrosis stage.³⁹ Nevertheless, the presence of fibrosis, in particular advanced fibrosis (stage 3 and 4), is a key prognostic marker for liver-related outcomes and overall mortality.^{17,18,40} In a meta-analysis of 13 studies comprising 4428 patients with NAFLD, patients with stage 4 fibrosis (cirrhosis) had higher all-cause mortality (relative risk [RR] 3·42, 95% CI 2·63–4·46) and liver-related mortality (RR 11·13, 4·15–29·84) than those without fibrosis.⁴⁰

Although there is substantial collinearity between the presence of NASH and clinically significant fibrosis, this collinearity diminishes at the cirrhotic stage as features such as steatosis or those specific to NASH might no longer be visible.⁴¹ Hence, most people with cryptogenic cirrhosis (cirrhosis of unknown cause) with metabolic comorbidities and no other known cause of liver disease are likely to have burned-out NASH.⁴² It is not uncommon for individuals with NAFLD to be undiagnosed for decades, even well after cirrhosis has developed. NAFLD is often not recognised until patients have evidence of portal hypertension (eg, splenomegaly, and thrombocytopenia) or develop liver related complications. Progression from compensated cirrhosis to decompensated disease (eg, ascites, hepatic encephalopathy, or bleeding gastro-oesophageal varices) with complications of portal hypertension or liver failure occurs at a rate of approximately 3–4% per year.⁴³ Cirrhosis is also the strongest risk factor for the development of hepatocellular carcinoma; the annual incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma is 10·6 per 1000 person-years in patients with NASH cirrhosis.⁴⁴ Although approximately 20% of NAFLD-related hepatocellular carcinoma occurs in patients with non-cirrhotic livers, the overall risk of hepatocellular carcinoma in the absence of cirrhosis is very low (annual incidence of 0·08 per 1000 person-years).⁴⁴ Driven by its high prevalence in the general population, NAFLD is now the second leading cause of end-stage liver disease⁴⁵ and the second most common cause of primary liver cancer among adults waiting for liver transplantation in the USA.⁵ Similarly in Europe, NAFLD now accounts for 8·4% of annual transplantations, and among all people receiving a liver transplant, hepatocellular carcinoma was found in a greater proportion of individuals with NAFLD (39·1%) than without NAFLD (28·9%, $p < 0·001$).⁴⁶ Although the increase in liver transplantation for NASH cirrhosis might partly reflect a higher awareness of NAFLD as a cause of end-stage liver disease, natural history and modelling studies suggest that not only the total, but also the relative proportion of those with advanced liver disease and liver-related outcomes (including hepatocellular carcinoma) due to NAFLD, are increasing.^{20,47}

Despite the risk of progressive liver disease, the leading cause of death in patients with NAFLD is cardiovascular

disease, followed by extrahepatic malignancy (eg, colorectal cancer or breast cancer). These causes of death are likely to be due to cardiometabolic risk factors that are shared in NAFLD and cardiovascular disease, although it is unclear to what extent NAFLD has a direct causative role in the development of cardiovascular disease.⁴⁸ The bidirectional relationship between NAFLD and some metabolic syndrome features (particularly type 2 diabetes and hypertension), in addition to its characteristic proatherogenic lipid profile,⁴⁹ is one mechanism by which NAFLD might augment cardiovascular risk. Patients with NAFLD have a 1.9-times higher risk of incident cancers than the general population, particularly cancers involving the liver, gastrointestinal tract, and uterus.⁵⁰ The biological mechanisms might be driven by the association of NAFLD with visceral adiposity and chronic low-grade inflammation, but this mechanism has not yet been determined.⁵¹

Patients with NAFLD, particularly those with clinically significant fibrosis, have a higher risk of severe COVID-19 than patients without NAFLD.⁵² The risk of severe illness from SARS-CoV-2 infection might be independent of metabolic comorbidities,⁵² although diabetes and obesity are also established risk factors.

Pathogenesis

The primary driver of NAFLD is overnutrition, which causes expansion of adipose depots as well as accumulation of ectopic fat (figure 3). In this setting, macrophage infiltration of the visceral adipose tissue compartment creates a proinflammatory state that promotes insulin resistance. Inappropriate lipolysis in the setting of insulin resistance results in unabated delivery of fatty acids to the liver, which, along with increased de-novo lipogenesis, overwhelms its metabolic capacity. The imbalance in lipid metabolism leads to the formation of lipotoxic lipids that contribute to cellular stress (ie, oxidative stress and endoplasmic reticulum stress), inflammasome activation and apoptotic cell death, and subsequent stimulation of inflammation, tissue regeneration, and fibrogenesis.^{53,54} Inflammatory and profibrogenic macrophages are implicated in the progression of liver fibrosis and might also have a role in chronic inflammatory processes in other tissues.⁵⁵

These pathogenic pathways of NAFLD are influenced by multiple metabolic, genetic, and microbiome-related factors that are not completely understood. NAFLD has a heritable component, with genetic differences between individuals influencing disease risk estimates by 20–70%.⁵⁶ A single-nucleotide polymorphism in the *PNPLA3* gene is the best characterised genetic variant associated with susceptibility to NAFLD.⁵⁷ However, known genetic variants account for a small proportion (10–20%) of overall heritability,⁵⁶ although this proportion varies across populations. These genes or genetic variants might influence multiple traits—sometimes with divergent effects on NAFLD and comorbid conditions such as coronary artery disease—and several

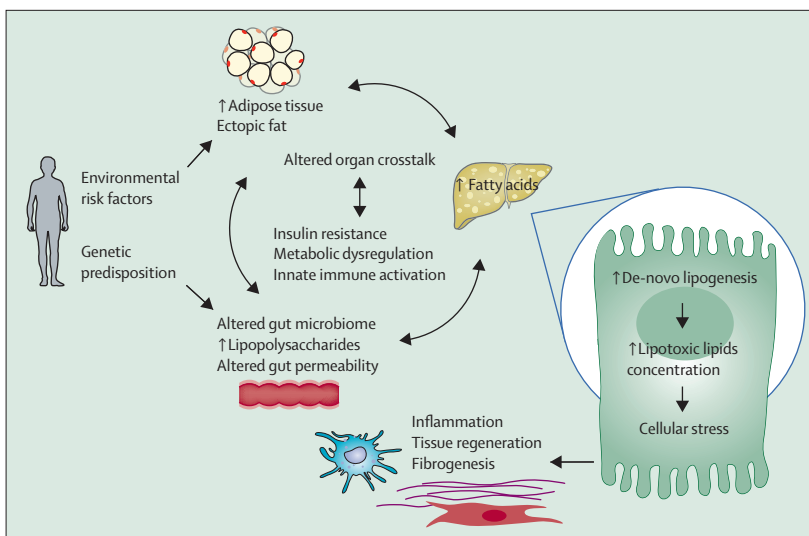


Figure 3: Multiple pathways and interactions between different organs, affect the pathogenesis of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

In the setting of environmental risk factors and heritable factors, crosstalk between the liver, adipose tissue, and gastrointestinal tract leads to systemic inflammation and insulin resistance, resulting in increased hepatic delivery of fatty acids and de-novo lipogenesis. This metabolic milieu leads to the formation of lipotoxic lipids that contribute to cellular stress with subsequent stimulation of inflammation, tissue regeneration, and fibrogenesis.

genetic risk variants show a synergistic interaction with obesity.^{58,59}

Interdependence and crosstalk between the liver and other organs (particularly, adipose tissue and the gut) might also contribute to metabolic dysregulation and inflammation in NAFLD.^{60–62} Alterations in gut microbiota composition are seen in patients with NAFLD and some data suggest that there is a faecal-microbiome signature associated with advanced fibrosis.^{63,64} However, confirmation of these bacterial signatures in different patient cohorts and geographical regions controlling for environmental factors is required to determine the signature's clinical significance and use for future diagnostic purposes. Factors produced by bacteria (eg, lipopolysaccharide or short-chain fatty acids) or derived from bile acid metabolism could influence liver inflammation and disease progression in NAFLD, although as yet, clear causal effects have not been established.

Risk stratification and assessment of disease severity

NAFLD is most often diagnosed by imaging, although it can be inferred from clinical risk scores (eg, fatty liver index) or identified histologically. In routine practice, the most commonly used test is abdominal ultrasonography (figure 1D). On abdominal ultrasonography, hepatic steatosis is characterised by a bright liver echotexture and blurring of the hepatic vasculature.⁶⁵ Abdominal ultrasonography has two important limitations: advanced fibrosis can coarsen hepatic echotexture and blur vascular pattern; and its sensitivity is low when steatosis is mild (<30%). MRI-based measurements of hepatic

Panel: Non-invasive fibrosis scores***Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease fibrosis score**

$-1.675 + 0.037 \times \text{age (years)} + 0.094 \times \text{body mass index (kg/m}^2\text{)} + 1.13 \times \text{impaired fasting glycaemia or diabetes (yes=1, no=0)} + 0.99 \times \text{aspartate aminotransferase to alanine aminotransferase ratio} - 0.013 \times \text{platelet count (}\times 10^9\text{/L)} - 0.66 \times \text{albumin concentration (g/dL)}$

- Patients at low risk of advanced fibrosis have a score of less than -1.455 (age <65 years) or less than 0.12 (age ≥ 65 years); a score greater than 0.675 is suggestive of advanced fibrosis
- Interpret with caution in patients who are younger than 35 years; the score is less accurate in patients who are younger than 35 years
- There is a high rate of intermediate scores

Fibrosis-4 index for liver fibrosis

$\text{Age (years)} \times \text{aspartate aminotransferase concentration (IU/L)}$

$\text{platelet count (}\times 10^9\text{/L)} \times \sqrt{(\text{alanine aminotransferase concentration [IU/L]})}$

- Patients at low risk of advanced fibrosis have an index of less than 1.3 (age <65 years) or less than 2.0 (age ≥ 65 years); a score greater than 3.25 is suggestive of advanced fibrosis
- Interpret with caution in patients who are younger than 35 years; the score is less accurate in patients who are younger than 35 years

*Low platelet count suggestive of advanced fibrosis; concentration of alanine aminotransferase falls and aspartate aminotransferase is stable or rises with increasing fibrosis.

For more on **non-alcoholic fatty liver disease fibrosis score** see <https://www.mdcalc.com/naflid-non-alcoholic-fatty-liver-disease-fibrosis-score>

For more on the **fibrosis-4 index for liver fibrosis** see <https://www.mdcalc.com/fibrosis-4-fib-4-index-liver-fibrosis>

steatosis (eg, MRI proton density fat fraction) can detect as little as 5% fat and are sensitive to dynamic change, but are more often used in the research setting and in clinical trials to evaluate the efficacy of NASH treatments, rather than in routine practice.^{66,67}

Risk factors for progressive disease

Type 2 diabetes is associated with a more than two-times increased risk of advanced fibrosis, cirrhosis-related complications, and liver disease mortality (figure 2).⁶⁸ Obesity (ie, body-mass index >30 kg/m²), lipid abnormalities (ie, low concentrations of HDL cholesterol and high concentrations of triglycerides), and hypertension are also associated with an increased risk of severe liver disease, although the effect sizes are smaller than for type 2 diabetes.⁶⁸ Patients with NAFLD who are older than 60 years have a higher prevalence of advanced fibrosis than younger patients,⁶⁹ reflecting a longer duration of metabolic dysfunction and liver disease. A variant of the *PNPLA3* gene is associated with NAFLD histological severity and development of hepatocellular carcinoma as well as liver-related and all-cause mortality.^{56,70,71} However, the clinical role of genotyping of variants has not been established.⁷²

Non-invasive tests of disease severity

Clinicians usually use liver enzyme concentrations (eg, serum alanine aminotransferase and aspartate aminotransferase) to assess and monitor patients with

liver diseases. However, liver enzyme concentrations can be normal in more than half of patients with NAFLD, and correlate poorly with the histological severity.⁷³ Traditionally, liver biopsy was used to characterise and quantify histological features of steatosis, inflammation, hepatocyte ballooning, and fibrosis. However, this invasive procedure is not suitable for widespread use to assess disease stage or determine progression or response to therapy. In addition to its risk and cost, liver biopsy is prone to sampling bias.⁷⁴ Intraobserver and interobserver variability in histological assessment is also well documented in liver biopsy.^{75,76} Therefore, researchers have developed and validated several non-invasive tests for NAFLD.

Among the histological features of NAFLD, the severity of liver fibrosis has the strongest correlation with liver-related morbidity and mortality.^{40,47} Simple fibrosis scores, such as the NAFLD fibrosis score, Fibrosis-4 (FIB-4) index, and aspartate aminotransferase-to-platelet ratio index comprise demographic, clinical, and routine laboratory parameters and are inexpensive to use (panel).⁶⁶ Aspartate aminotransferase is an important component in these scores and tends to increase in concentration (relative to alanine aminotransferase) in advanced fibrosis. Although the overall accuracy of these scores is moderate, they have high negative predictive values to exclude advanced liver fibrosis, especially in community and primary care settings.⁷⁷ Patients with low fibrosis scores are also at a low risk of developing liver-related complications.⁷⁸

Among blood biomarkers, the Enhanced Liver Fibrosis (ELF) score (combining hyaluronic acid, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1, and amino-terminal propeptide of type III procollagen [PIIINP]) has been tested in various cross-sectional studies and clinical trials.^{79,80} The UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence suggests that the ELF score be used for patients with NAFLD and suggests referring patients with a score of 10.51 or higher to hepatologists for evaluation.⁸¹ Although available in many parts of the world, ELF is not yet approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Furthermore, performance characteristics of ELF in NAFLD are incompletely delineated as they were mostly determined from cohorts with a high prevalence of advanced fibrosis.⁸² Pro-C3 is another biomarker that is used to measure the propeptide cleaved from the intact collagen molecule and indicates fibrogenesis. Pro-C3 has been used in early phase clinical trials to infer the potential effect of new drugs on the prevention of fibrosis progression.⁸³

Another method to estimate liver fibrosis in patients with NAFLD is to measure liver stiffness by ultrasound-based elastography (eg, vibration-controlled transient elastography, point-shear wave elastography, and two-dimensional shear wave elastography) and magnetic resonance elastography (figures 1E, F).^{66,84,85} Among these methods, transient elastography has been most

extensively evaluated, is widely available, and can be used as a point-of-care test.⁸⁶ It is also possible to estimate hepatic steatosis by controlled attenuation parameter measurement at the same time. A liver stiffness cutoff of 6.5–7.9 kPa has approximately 90% sensitivity in excluding stage 3 and 4 fibrosis, whereas patients with cirrhosis typically have liver stiffness more than 12–15 kPa.^{66,84,85,87} The liver stiffness measurement also correlates with future risk of hepatocellular carcinoma and cirrhotic complications.^{88,89} The Baveno VI criteria combine liver stiffness measurement (≥ 20 kPa) by transient elastography with platelet count ($< 150 \times 10^9$ platelets per L) to identify patients at risk of having varices that need treatment, and have been validated in patients with NAFLD.^{90,91}

Because many clinical trials are of patients with NASH (NAFLD activity score of ≥ 4 with at least one point each in steatosis, lobular inflammation, and hepatocyte ballooning) and fibrosis stage 2 or higher, several groups have proposed composite scores to identify these patients. One example of these composite scores is the FibroScan-aspartate aminotransferase (FAST) score, which comprises aspartate aminotransferase concentration, liver stiffness, and controlled attenuation parameter measurements by FibroScan.⁹² In different settings, the FAST score has a C-statistic of 0.74–0.95 in identifying fibrotic NASH. Similarly, the NIS4 algorithm comprises four biomarkers (miR-34a-5p, alpha-2 macroglobulin, CHI3L1, and glycated haemoglobin) and has a C-statistic of 0.76–0.83.⁹³ Depending on regulatory approval, these scores might be used to select patients for pharmacological treatment.

Prevention, evaluation, and management of NAFLD in primary care and diabetes clinics

Since primary care is the initial point of contact for most people with health concerns (including metabolic risk factors), primary care clinicians have a key role in the prevention, diagnosis, risk stratification, and management of NAFLD. Few studies have examined primary prevention of NAFLD; nevertheless data suggest that improved diet quality⁹⁴ and sustained or increased physical activity^{95–97} reduces the risk of developing NAFLD, even among individuals with high genetic risk.⁹⁴ Primary-care clinicians have a pivotal role in promoting and coordinating lifestyle interventions with dietary modification and exercise, and in management of metabolic comorbidities.

As we now have various non-invasive tests to diagnose fatty liver and liver fibrosis, one relevant concern is whether screening for NAFLD is worthwhile, particularly when patients participate in secondary prevention programmes for diabetes or metabolic syndrome. Recommendations from hepatology associations regarding screening patients for NAFLD are inconsistent; some guidelines^{10,98} advocate screening in high-risk populations (eg, people with obesity, type 2 diabetes, or metabolic syndrome) whereas others do not, partly reflecting the

paucity of available effective therapeutic interventions.⁹⁹ There are also concerns about the possible consequences of overdiagnosis of NAFLD, particularly regarding the potential physical harms of investigation and treatment, and psychosocial harms of labelling people with the disease.¹⁰⁰ Additional studies are needed to evaluate whether screening would improve clinical outcomes and whether it is cost-effective. Nevertheless, once NAFLD is diagnosed, we recommend risk stratification by assessing for the presence of advanced fibrosis or cirrhosis, and the evaluation of cardiovascular risk and comorbid illnesses.

Some local health districts and specialty networks are investigating integrated management plans and referral pathways for patients with NAFLD.^{101–105} All pathways recommend testing for advanced fibrosis (bridging fibrosis [stage 3] and cirrhosis [stage 4]) in patients with a diagnosis of NAFLD, although the specific testing algorithms vary. Overall, expert opinion favours a pragmatic, staged approach with inexpensive simple fibrosis scores (eg, NAFLD fibrosis score or FIB-4) as a first step to identify individuals at low risk of advanced fibrosis, who can be managed in primary care. Individuals with indeterminate or high-risk simple scores require additional assessment with locally available second-line fibrosis tests (eg, ultrasound-based elastography or serum ELF test), and might require referral to secondary care for investigation of liver disease or management of advanced fibrosis. Patients without advanced fibrosis at initial assessment require ongoing monitoring in primary care to identify progressive liver disease, and retesting 3–5 years after initial assessment has been proposed (figure 4).¹⁰⁶

People with type 2 diabetes have a high prevalence of NAFLD (40–70%), and are more likely to develop advanced fibrosis, cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma than people without diabetes.¹⁰⁷ In addition, multimorbidity and polypharmacy are common in patients with type 2 diabetes and NAFLD, highlighting a need for multidisciplinary management to address their complex health-care needs.¹⁰⁸ In secondary care diabetes clinics, the prevalence of advanced fibrosis among patients with NAFLD is 10–20%,^{109–112} which is two to four times higher than in primary care. There is increasing recognition that an assessment of NAFLD and liver fibrosis needs to be incorporated into the routine care of patients with type 2 diabetes.¹⁰⁹ As a result, the American Diabetes Association now recommends that “Patients with type 2 diabetes and elevated liver enzymes (alanine aminotransferase) or fatty liver on ultrasound should be evaluated for the presence of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis and liver fibrosis.”¹¹³ However, alanine aminotransferase measurements are notoriously inaccurate and are within the normal range in most people with type 2 diabetes and NAFLD; thus with this strategy, many patients with clinically significant liver disease will not be diagnosed.

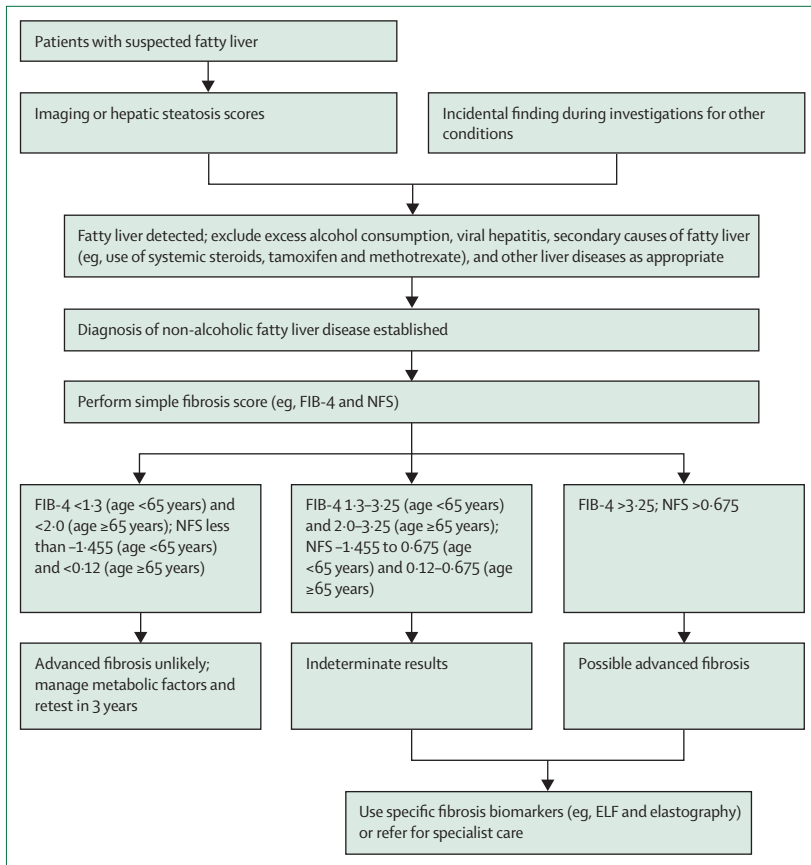


Figure 4: Proposed diagnostic and referral pathway for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in primary care
To establish the diagnosis of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, it is necessary to exclude concomitant liver diseases and secondary causes of hepatic steatosis. This process usually includes careful documentation of alcohol consumption and medication intake (eg, systemic steroids, tamoxifen, and methotrexate), and excluding viral hepatitis by checking HBsAg and anti-hepatitis C virus antibody. Additional assessment for less common causes of liver disease would depend on the clinical picture and local epidemiology. ELF=Enhanced Liver Fibrosis score. FIB-4=Fibrosis-4 index. NFS=non-alcoholic fatty liver disease fibrosis score.

Management of NASH

Although the liver related burden of NASH is substantial and increasing, cardiovascular disease and malignancy are the leading causes of death in people with NAFLD.^{4,17,18,20} Therefore, management of NASH deserves a holistic approach that strives to minimise cardiovascular risk and to reduce drivers of steatosis and systemic inflammation.

The balance between nutrients and energy is pivotal in the development of NAFLD and NASH. Central obesity is an important driver of disease through the promotion of insulin resistance and proinflammatory signalling. Although the macronutrient content of the diet is important, weight loss of more than 5–7% reduces hepatic fat content and steatohepatitis, and, for weight loss in excess of 10%, even fibrosis is reduced in a large proportion of people, irrespective of method of weight loss.¹¹⁴ Sustained weight loss is challenging because it requires a transformation of ingrained behaviour patterns. Even in the short term, success requires substantial personal

commitment in addition to clear recommendations and support from the treatment team. Barriers to weight loss (eg, financial constraints, medical comorbidities, education, and little access to healthy food) should be considered when developing a treatment plan. Although not considered first-line therapy due to the surgical risk, bariatric surgery in patients with severe obesity can lead to substantial (15–25%) durable weight reduction and improvement in liver histological features of NASH and fibrosis.¹¹⁵ Weight loss improves NAFLD and all of its associated cardiometabolic comorbidities, which then favourably affects cardiovascular and malignancy related risk. There is an independent contribution of NASH to cardiovascular and cancer risk but we do not yet know if liver targeted treatment interventions will reduce them.

Optimising management with existing therapeutics

There is currently no FDA or European Medicines Agency (EMA) approved therapy for NASH. However, several drugs that are currently available for other indications have been studied in phase 2b trials for NAFLD (table). Ursodeoxycholic acid, omega-3 fatty acids, and metformin have not shown histological benefit, whereas other therapies, such as vitamin E and pioglitazone, have⁵³ and are endorsed by current guidelines as possible treatment in selected patients with NASH.⁹⁹ The benefits of vitamin E (RRR- α -tocopherol [also known as d- α -tocopherol]) for NASH have been shown in several randomised controlled trials, including a phase 2b trial in which 84 participants were given vitamin E to reduce steatosis and improve histological NASH in patients without diabetes or cirrhosis.¹¹⁶ In a randomised controlled trial of patients with type 2 diabetes and NASH assigned to 18 months of vitamin E alone (n=36), combination therapy of vitamin E with pioglitazone (n=37), or a placebo (n=32), only those assigned to combination therapy achieved the histological endpoint (ie, an improvement of NASH by >2 points without worsening of fibrosis).¹²⁰ Vitamin E use should be considered in the context of its potential adverse effects, which include an increased risk of bleeding, and its association between higher doses and adverse cardiovascular outcomes.⁹⁹ Although statins have no discernible histological benefit on NASH itself, they are safe and should be used as appropriate for cardiovascular risk reduction.

Most individuals with NASH are insulin resistant;¹²¹ however, ameliorating insulin resistance (although important) is an insufficient therapeutic strategy if used alone. For example, metformin (a weak insulin sensitiser compared with thiazolidinediones) reduces the progression to type 2 diabetes and is an important diabetic treatment, but it has no effect on NASH disease activity. Conversely, some drugs that improve NASH histology have no effect on insulin resistance (eg, vitamin E, obeticholic acid, and many other drugs in development).^{116,122,123}

| | Effects on the liver | Quality of evidence | Other benefits | Key adverse events | Contraindications and cautions |
|-------------------|---|---|--|--|---|
| Pioglitazone | Improves hepatic steatosis and necroinflammation, and can improve fibrosis | Several small* to moderate† phase 2 randomised controlled trials ¹¹⁶ | Improves insulin sensitivity and diabetic control | Weight gain, fluid retention, bone loss, and might increase bladder cancer | Contraindicated in patients with NYHA class III or IV heart failure; maximum dose 15 mg if used in combination with gemfibrozil or other strong CYP2C8 inhibitors |
| Vitamin E | Improves hepatic steatosis and necroinflammation; might prevent liver decompensation and mortality in patients with advanced liver fibrosis | Several small* to moderate† randomised controlled trials; data on clinical outcomes based on a retrospective cohort study with propensity score matching ^{116,117} | Neutral metabolic effects | A meta-analysis suggests a small increase in overall mortality at high doses; might increase risk of bleeding, prostate cancer, heart failure, and haemorrhagic stroke | Caution in patients with high cardiovascular risk and those at high risk of bleeding |
| GLP-1 agonists‡ | Improves hepatic steatosis and necroinflammation | Several small* to moderate† randomised controlled trials ¹¹⁸ | Improves diabetic control, reduces major adverse cardiovascular events and weight | Nausea, vomiting, dyspepsia, diarrhoea, and constipation | Discontinue GLP-1 agonists immediately in case of acute pancreatitis; might cause acute kidney injury rarely; semaglutide might increase diabetic retinopathy complications |
| SGLT2 inhibitors§ | Improves hepatic steatosis, necroinflammation, and liver enzymes | Several small* randomised controlled trials with non-invasive tests; two small* uncontrolled paired liver biopsy studies ¹¹⁹ | Improves diabetic control; modest weight reduction; might have renoprotective benefits; canagliflozin and empagliflozin reduce major adverse cardiovascular events | Genitourinary infection, acute kidney injury, and euglycaemic diabetic ketoacidosis; might increase the risk of fractures and limb amputations | Contraindicated if estimated glomerular filtration rate is less than 45 mL/min per 1.73 m ² |

NYHA=New York Heart Association. *Small was defined as less than 50 participants in the active group. †Moderate was defined as 50–100 participants in the active group.
‡For example, liraglutide and semaglutide. §For example, canagliflozin, dapagliflozin, and empagliflozin.

Table: Potential use of off-label therapy for non-alcoholic steatohepatitis

Thiazolidinediones, such as pioglitazone, might prevent the development of type 2 diabetes.¹²⁴ Multiple trials in patients with and without diabetes have shown that pioglitazone improves NASH activity¹²⁵ with a numerical, but not statically significant, improvement in fibrosis in phase 2b trials, including a US National Institutes of Health sponsored trial by the NASH Clinical Research Network that had 80 participants in the active group.^{116,126} Although pioglitazone-associated average weight gain (2.4–4.8 kg) is a side-effect, it is less than the average weight gain associated with insulin (3–10 kg). Another factor limiting widespread use of pioglitazone in NASH is the risk of bone loss related to the negative effects of PPAR- γ activation on bone remodelling. It appears unlikely at this time that either vitamin E or pioglitazone will be studied in phase 3 studies; however, other drugs that modulate PPAR- γ and complementary mechanisms are being developed.

For individuals with concomitant type 2 diabetes, there is a growing list of antidiabetic medications that are cardioprotective and renoprotective.^{127–129} Several of these medications, including several GLP-1 receptor agonists and SGLT2 inhibitors, are currently being studied in phase 2 and phase 3 trials to assess their efficacy on one of the two FDA-approved histological

endpoints (NASH resolution without worsening of fibrosis; or an improvement in fibrosis of one stage or more without worsening of NASH). These agents have the additional benefit of inducing weight loss. Semaglutide 0.4 mg/day given subcutaneously was more effective than liraglutide and resulted in an 18% weight loss during a 52-week period with similar tolerability.¹³⁰ Semaglutide 2.4 mg a week given subcutaneously is currently being explored in several contexts to manage obesity.¹³¹ All of these classes of drugs are being evaluated for the treatment of NASH. In a phase 2 randomised controlled trial, subcutaneous semaglutide 0.4 mg daily reached the primary endpoint of NASH resolution with no worsening of fibrosis in 59% of patients, compared with 17% in the placebo group ($p < 0.001$).¹³² It is difficult to discern if these effects are independent of weight loss; however, the results represent the highest rate of NASH resolution ever reported in NASH therapeutic trials.

Emerging therapeutics of NASH

Numerous drugs with different mechanisms of action, targeting lipid metabolism, inflammatory, or fibrotic pathways, are in development as treatment for NASH.^{53,133} To achieve full FDA approval, a therapeutic intervention is required to show a clinically meaningful benefit, defined

as an improvement in how a patient feels, functions, or survives. Since most patients with NASH have few liver-specific symptoms, full approval of these drugs will require the drug to reduce the development of liver-related events or mortality. Given the course of the disease in NASH—it often takes decades to produce liver-related events or death, even in the context of advanced fibrosis—ongoing trials are mainly focused on surrogate endpoints, such as histology, that are reasonably likely to translate into clinically meaningful benefit. The FDA is considering two histological endpoints for conditional approval of NASH therapeutic agents. These endpoints are: NASH resolution without worsening of fibrosis; or an improvement in fibrosis of one stage or more without worsening of NASH. In comparison, EMA requires statistically significant improvement in both histological endpoints. Alternatively, if a therapeutic agent is primarily evaluated for its antifibrotic effects, it should show an efficacy in improving fibrosis by two or more stages. Previously, efficacy of NASH therapeutic agents has been moderate with statistical significance hedging on a somewhat unpredictable placebo response rate and variability in histological interpretation, which is beyond the scope of this Seminar.¹³⁴

REGENERATE, a trial that compared two doses of obeticholic acid (a potent farnesoid X receptor agonist) with placebo, was the first phase 3 trial to meet the primary endpoint of an improvement in fibrosis of one stage or more without worsening of NASH, recapitulating the findings of the FLINT phase 2b trial.^{122,123} Although statistically significant, the magnitude of response was modest, which supports the notion that combination therapy will be required to adequately treat the majority of patients. Although obeticholic acid failed to achieve the NASH resolution endpoint, it did improve each of the individual histological features of NASH (eg, steatosis, inflammation, and hepatocyte ballooning). The REGENERATE trial was the first NASH treatment to meet its endpoint; however, two side-effects of the drug reduced enthusiasm for conditional approval. In the trial, pruritus occurred in 51% of patients given 25 mg of obeticholic acid, in 28% of those given 10 mg of obeticholic acid, and 19% of patients given placebo. The extent to which pruritus can be mitigated with other medications or dose reduction while retaining some degree of efficacy is unknown. Increase in LDL concentration is directly related to the drug's inhibition of the enzyme CYP7A1 and can be mitigated with the use of statins.¹³⁵ The cardiovascular effect of an increase in LDL concentration, or its reduction with a statin, when treated with obeticholic acid, or more broadly during CYP7A1 inhibition, is not yet known. The 2020 decision by the FDA to delay conditional approval of obeticholic acid until more efficacy and safety data are available might reflect some of these concerns. The FDA has requested the REGENERATE trial continues so that clinical outcome data can be reviewed in the future.¹³⁶

Several drugs are in advanced stages of development for NASH; however, there have already been multiple failures related to disease heterogeneity, variable placebo response, low efficacy, and, in some cases, overinterpretation of phase 2 results.¹³⁷ Several phase 2b trials that showed favourable efficacy with respect to fat reduction and histological endpoints have already been continued in phase 3 trials, which will provide more definitive data.^{138,139} Several advanced phase trials that focused on NASH cirrhosis have not met their endpoints; however, other trials using promising therapies from non-cirrhotic NASH trials are ongoing.¹³⁷ Future treatment will require combination therapy in most patients, consisting of a so-called backbone therapy and an additional agent, tailored to the individual. Currently, the independent benefit of drugs in development need to be shown before combination therapy is approved. Several combination trials are now underway. For example, the ATLAS trial showed a trend towards greater fibrosis improvement with cilofexor (a farnesoid X receptor agonist) and firsocostat (an acetyl-CoA carboxylase [ACC1] inhibitor) than either alone (21% vs 12% improvement) in patients with NASH and F3–4 fibrosis.¹⁴⁰ Patients receiving this combination treatment were also more likely to have a 2-point or better improvement in the NAFLD activity score than those receiving monotherapy. However, given the modest difference, more effective combinations will be needed.

Challenges and prospects

Although valuable progress has been made during the past 40 years in learning about the natural history and underlying biology of NAFLD, there are still many challenges. NAFLD is largely under-recognised by health-care professionals and the wider community. Implementation of strategies to identify, and appropriately manage, at-risk patients with advanced fibrosis will require action by clinicians in primary care, diabetes clinics, and other specialists who treat patients with metabolic risk factors, although substantial hurdles, such as cost and access to second-line tests, will need to be addressed. There is an increasing awareness of the need for a multipronged public health response to address NAFLD risk factors and the underlying obesogenic environment.^{7,141}

There are several barriers to the development of highly effective therapeutic interventions. One of the most important challenges in the field is a continued reliance on liver biopsy for diagnosis. A reliable biomarker that can accurately diagnose and stage NAFLD across the entire disease spectrum does not yet exist.^{66,142,143} A diagnostic biomarker, in conjunction with a prognostic biomarker (of which some currently hold promise), would allow the identification of high-risk individuals on whom resources should be concentrated. A second challenge is the substantial heterogeneity of NAFLD and the current limited understanding of disease phenotypes.

The ability to phenotype patients would permit more accurate prognostication, selection of appropriate therapy, and prediction of treatment response than is currently possible. Lastly, the refinement of therapeutic strategies into thoughtful combination approaches, tailored to the patient's individual disease drivers, are needed for increased response rates and a change in our attitude to screening.

Finally, regardless of the progress that has been, or will be, made in diagnostic tests and drug treatments, healthy lifestyle and weight reduction remains crucial for the prevention and treatment of NAFLD, as obesity is the main driver of this common liver disease and its associated metabolic comorbidities.

Contributors

All authors contributed equally to the Seminar, participating in the literature search, writing, revision, and approval of the final version.

Declaration of interests

VW-SW served as a consultant or advisory board member for 3V-BIO, AbbVie, Allergan, Boehringer Ingelheim, US Center for Outcomes Research in Liver Diseases, Echosens, Gilead Sciences, Hanmi Pharmaceutical, Intercept, Merck, Novartis, Novo Nordisk, Perspectum Diagnostics, Pfizer, ProSicento, Sagimet Biosciences, TARGET-NASH, and Terns; and served as a speaker for AbbVie, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Echosens, and Gilead Sciences. VW-SW has also received an unrestricted grant from Gilead Sciences for fatty liver research. MR is a scientific consultant or advisory board member for Centara, Madrigal, Gilead Sciences, Genfit, Galect, Amgen, Alnylam, Thetis, Lipocine, Coherus, NGM Biopharmaceuticals, Enanta, Immuron, Fractyl, ProSicento, Gelesis, Merck, Metacrine, Viking Therapeutics, Allergan, Cymabay, Boehringer Ingelheim, Genentech, Sagimet Bio, Terns, Siemens, Novartis, Bristol-Myers Squibb, and Intercept Pharmaceuticals. MR has received independent research funding from Novartis, and owns no stocks and does not participate on speakers bureaus. EEP served as a consultant or advisory board member for CSL Behring and has received an unrestricted grant from Siemens Healthineers. EEP owns no stocks and does not participate on speakers bureaus.

References

- 1 Younossi ZM, Koenig AB, Abdelatif D, Fazel Y, Henry L, Wymer M. Global epidemiology of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease—meta-analytic assessment of prevalence, incidence, and outcomes. *Hepatology* 2016; **64**: 73–84.
- 2 Younossi Z, Anstee QM, Marietti M, et al. Global burden of NAFLD and NASH: trends, predictions, risk factors and prevention. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **15**: 11–20.
- 3 Paik JM, Golabi P, Younossi Y, Mishra A, Younossi ZM. Changes in the global burden of chronic liver diseases from 2012 to 2017: the growing impact of NAFLD. *Hepatology* 2020; **72**: 1605–16.
- 4 Estes C, Razavi H, Loomba R, Younossi Z, Sanyal AJ. Modeling the epidemic of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease demonstrates an exponential increase in burden of disease. *Hepatology* 2018; **67**: 123–33.
- 5 Wong RJ, Cheung R, Ahmed A. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis is the most rapidly growing indication for liver transplantation in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma in the U.S. *Hepatology* 2014; **59**: 2188–95.
- 6 Alexander M, Loomis AK, Fairburn-Beech J, et al. Real-world data reveal a diagnostic gap in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *BMC Med* 2018; **16**: 130.
- 7 Lazarus JV, Ekstedt M, Marchesini G, et al. A cross-sectional study of the public health response to non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in Europe. *J Hepatol* 2020; **72**: 14–24.
- 8 Thaler H. The fatty liver and its pathogenetic relation to liver cirrhosis. *Virchows Arch Pathol Anat Physiol Klin Med* 1962; **335**: 180–210.
- 9 Ludwig J, Viggiano TR, McGill DB, Oh BJ. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: Mayo Clinic experiences with a hitherto unnamed disease. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1980; **55**: 434–38.
- 10 European Association for the Study of the Liver, European Association for the Study of Diabetes, European Association for the Study of Obesity. EASL–EASD–EASO Clinical Practice Guidelines for the management of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Hepatol* 2016; **64**: 1388–402.
- 11 Eslam M, Newsome PN, Sarin SK, et al. A new definition for metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease: an international expert consensus statement. *J Hepatol* 2020; **73**: 202–09.
- 12 Younossi ZM, Rinella ME, Sanyal A, et al. From NAFLD to MAFLD: implications of a premature change in terminology. *Hepatology* 2020; published online June 16. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hep.31420>.
- 13 Polyzos SA, Kountouras J, Mantzoros CS. Obesity and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: from pathophysiology to therapeutics. *Metabolism* 2019; **92**: 82–97.
- 14 Younossi ZM, Golabi P, de Avila L, et al. The global epidemiology of NAFLD and NASH in patients with type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Hepatol* 2019; **71**: 793–801.
- 15 Ye Q, Zou B, Yeo YH, et al. Global prevalence, incidence, and outcomes of non-obese or lean non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **5**: 739–52.
- 16 Wei JL, Leung JC, Loong TC, et al. Prevalence and severity of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease in non-obese patients: a population study using proton-magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2015; **110**: 1306–14.
- 17 Angulo P, Kleiner DE, Dam-Larsen S, et al. Liver fibrosis, but no other histologic features, is associated with long-term outcomes of patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2015; **149**: 389–97.e10.
- 18 Ekstedt M, Hagström H, Nasr P, et al. Fibrosis stage is the strongest predictor for disease-specific mortality in NAFLD after up to 33 years of follow-up. *Hepatology* 2015; **61**: 1547–54.
- 19 Powell EE, Jonsson JR, Clouston AD. Steatosis: co-factor in other liver diseases. *Hepatology* 2005; **42**: 5–13.
- 20 Estes C, Anstee QM, Arias-Loste MT, et al. Modeling NAFLD disease burden in China, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Spain, United Kingdom, and United States for the period 2016–2030. *J Hepatol* 2018; **69**: 896–904.
- 21 Estes C, Chan HLY, Chien RN, et al. Modelling NAFLD disease burden in four Asian regions-2019-2030. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2020; **51**: 801–11.
- 22 Allen AM, Van Houten HK, Sangaralingham LR, Talwalkar JA, McCoy RG. Healthcare cost and utilization in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: real-world data from a large U.S. claims database. *Hepatology* 2018; **68**: 2230–38.
- 23 Younossi ZM, Tampi R, Priyadarshini M, Nader F, Younossi IM, Racila A. Burden of illness and economic model for patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in the United States. *Hepatology* 2019; **69**: 564–72.
- 24 McSweeney L, Breckons M, Fattakhova G, et al. Health-related quality of life and patient-reported outcome measures in NASH-related cirrhosis. *JHEP Rep* 2020; **2**: 100099.
- 25 Hales CM, Fryar CD, Carroll MD, Freedman DS, Ogden CL. Trends in obesity and severe obesity prevalence in US youth and adults by sex and age, 2007–2008 to 2015–2016. *JAMA* 2018; **319**: 1723–25.
- 26 NCD Risk Factor Collaboration (NCD-RisC). Worldwide trends in body-mass index, underweight, overweight, and obesity from 1975 to 2016: a pooled analysis of 2416 population-based measurement studies in 128·9 million children, adolescents, and adults. *Lancet* 2017; **390**: 2627–42.
- 27 Anderson EL, Howe LD, Jones HE, Higgins JP, Lawlor DA, Fraser A. The prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in children and adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 2015; **10**: e0140908.
- 28 Vittorio J, Lavine JE. Recent advances in understanding and managing pediatric nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *F1000 Res* 2020; **9**: 9.
- 29 Liu Y, Zhong GC, Tan HY, Hao FB, Hu JJ. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and mortality from all causes, cardiovascular disease, and cancer: a meta-analysis. *Sci Rep* 2019; **9**: 11124.
- 30 Adams LA, Lymp JF, St Sauver J, et al. The natural history of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a population-based cohort study. *Gastroenterology* 2005; **129**: 113–21.

- 31 Allen AM, Therneau TM, Larson JJ, Coward A, Somers VK, Kamath PS. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease incidence and impact on metabolic burden and death: a 20 year-community study. *Hepatology* 2018; **67**: 1726–36.
- 32 Lazo M, Hernaez R, Bonekamp S, et al. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and mortality among US adults: prospective cohort study. *BMJ* 2011; **343**: d6891.
- 33 Wu S, Wu F, Ding Y, Hou J, Bi J, Zhang Z. Association of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease with major adverse cardiovascular events: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sci Rep* 2016; **6**: 33386.
- 34 Kanwal F, Kramer JR, Li L, et al. Effect of metabolic traits on the risk of cirrhosis and hepatocellular cancer in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Hepatology* 2020; **71**: 808–19.
- 35 Eslam M, Sanyal AJ, George J, et al. MAFLD: a consensus-driven proposed nomenclature for metabolic associated fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1999–2014.e1.
- 36 Singh S, Allen AM, Wang Z, Prokop LJ, Murad MH, Loomba R. Fibrosis progression in nonalcoholic fatty liver vs nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of paired-biopsy studies. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2015; **13**: 643–54.e1–9.
- 37 McPherson S, Hardy T, Henderson E, Burt AD, Day CP, Anstee QM. Evidence of NAFLD progression from steatosis to fibrosing-steatohepatitis using paired biopsies: implications for prognosis and clinical management. *J Hepatol* 2015; **62**: 1148–55.
- 38 Pais R, Charlotte F, Fedchuk L, et al. A systematic review of follow-up biopsies reveals disease progression in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver. *J Hepatol* 2013; **59**: 550–56.
- 39 Kleiner DE, Brunt EM, Wilson LA, et al. Association of histologic disease activity with progression of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *JAMA Netw Open* 2019; **2**: e1912565.
- 40 Taylor RS, Taylor RJ, Bayliss S, et al. Association between fibrosis stage and outcomes of patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1611–25.e12.
- 41 Powell EE, Cooksley WG, Hanson R, Searle J, Halliday JW, Powell LW. The natural history of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: a follow-up study of forty-two patients for up to 21 years. *Hepatology* 1990; **11**: 74–80.
- 42 Younossi Z, Stepanova M, Sanyal AJ, et al. The conundrum of cryptogenic cirrhosis: adverse outcomes without treatment options. *J Hepatol* 2018; **69**: 1365–70.
- 43 Sanyal AJ, Banas C, Sargeant C, et al. Similarities and differences in outcomes of cirrhosis due to nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and hepatitis C. *Hepatology* 2006; **43**: 682–89.
- 44 Kanwal F, Kramer JR, Mapakshi S, et al. Risk of hepatocellular cancer in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2018; **155**: 1828–37.e2.
- 45 Wong RJ, Aguilar M, Cheung R, et al. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis is the second leading etiology of liver disease among adults awaiting liver transplantation in the United States. *Gastroenterology* 2015; **148**: 547–55.
- 46 Haldar D, Kern B, Hodson J, et al. Outcomes of liver transplantation for non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: a European Liver Transplant Registry study. *J Hepatol* 2019; **71**: 313–22.
- 47 Vilar-Gomez E, Calzadilla-Bertot L, Wai-Sun Wong V, et al. Fibrosis severity as a determinant of cause-specific mortality in patients with advanced nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a multi-national cohort study. *Gastroenterology* 2018; **155**: 443–57.e17.
- 48 Targher G, Byrne CD, Tilg H. NAFLD and increased risk of cardiovascular disease: clinical associations, pathophysiological mechanisms and pharmacological implications. *Gut* 2020; **69**: 1691–705.
- 49 Siddiqui MS, Fuchs M, Idowu MO, et al. Severity of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and progression to cirrhosis are associated with atherogenic lipoprotein profile. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2015; **13**: 1000–08.e3.
- 50 Allen AM, Hicks SB, Mara KC, Larson JJ, Therneau TM. The risk of incident extrahepatic cancers is higher in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease than obesity - a longitudinal cohort study. *J Hepatol* 2019; **71**: 1229–36.
- 51 Marchesini G, Petroni ML, Cortez-Pinto H. Adipose tissue-associated cancer risk: is it the fat around the liver, or the fat inside the liver? *J Hepatol* 2019; **71**: 1073–75.
- 52 Targher G, Mantovani A, Byrne CD, et al. Risk of severe illness from COVID-19 in patients with metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease and increased fibrosis scores. *Gut* 2020; **69**: 1545–47.
- 53 Friedman SL, Neuschwander-Tetri BA, Rinella M, Sanyal AJ. Mechanisms of NAFLD development and therapeutic strategies. *Nat Med* 2018; **24**: 908–22.
- 54 Sanyal AJ. Past, present and future perspectives in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2019; **16**: 377–86.
- 55 Lefere S, Tacke F. Macrophages in obesity and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: crosstalk with metabolism. *JHEP Rep* 2019; **1**: 30–43.
- 56 Eslam M, George J. Genetic contributions to NAFLD: leveraging shared genetics to uncover systems biology. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **17**: 40–52.
- 57 Romeo S, Kozlitina J, Xing C, et al. Genetic variation in PNPLA3 confers susceptibility to nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Nat Genet* 2008; **40**: 1461–65.
- 58 Meffert PJ, Repp KD, Völzke H, et al. The PNPLA3 SNP rs738409:G allele is associated with increased liver disease-associated mortality but reduced overall mortality in a population-based cohort. *J Hepatol* 2018; **68**: 858–60.
- 59 Stender S, Kozlitina J, Nordestgaard BG, Tybjaerg-Hansen A, Hobbs HH, Cohen JC. Adiposity amplifies the genetic risk of fatty liver disease conferred by multiple loci. *Nat Genet* 2017; **49**: 842–47.
- 60 Ghorpade DS, Ozcan L, Zheng Z, et al. Hepatocyte-secreted DPP4 in obesity promotes adipose inflammation and insulin resistance. *Nature* 2018; **555**: 673–77.
- 61 Azzu V, Vacca M, Virtue S, Allison M, Vidal-Puig A. Adipose tissue-liver cross talk in the control of whole-body metabolism: implications in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1899–912.
- 62 Aron-Wisniewsky J, Warmbrunn MV, Nieuwdorp M, Clément K. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: modulating gut microbiota to improve severity? *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1881–98.
- 63 Loomba R, Seguritan V, Li W, et al. Gut microbiome-based metagenomic signature for non-invasive detection of advanced fibrosis in human nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Cell Metab* 2017; **25**: 1054–62.e5.
- 64 Caussy C, Tripathi A, Humphrey G, et al. A gut microbiome signature for cirrhosis due to nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Nat Commun* 2019; **10**: 1406.
- 65 Bril F, Ortiz-Lopez C, Lomonaco R, et al. Clinical value of liver ultrasound for the diagnosis of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease in overweight and obese patients. *Liver Int* 2015; **35**: 2139–46.
- 66 Wong VW, Adams LA, de Lédinghen V, Wong GL, Sookoian S. Noninvasive biomarkers in NAFLD and NASH—current progress and future promise. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **15**: 461–78.
- 67 Caussy C, Reeder SB, Sirlin CB, Loomba R. Noninvasive, quantitative assessment of liver fat by MRI-PDFF as an endpoint in NASH trials. *Hepatology* 2018; **68**: 763–72.
- 68 Jarvis H, Craig D, Barker R, et al. Metabolic risk factors and incident advanced liver disease in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): a systematic review and meta-analysis of population-based observational studies. *PLoS Med* 2020; **17**: e1003100.
- 69 Pitisuttithum P, Chan WK, Piyachaturawat P, et al. Predictors of advanced fibrosis in elderly patients with biopsy-confirmed nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: the GOASIA study. *BMC Gastroenterol* 2020; **20**: 88.
- 70 Krawczyk M, Liebe R, Lammert F. Toward genetic prediction of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease trajectories: PNPLA3 and beyond. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1865–80.e1.
- 71 Unalp-Arida A, Ruhl CE. Patatin-like phospholipase domain-containing protein 3 1148M and liver fat and fibrosis scores predict liver disease mortality in the U.S. population. *Hepatology* 2020; **71**: 820–34.
- 72 Carlsson B, Lindén D, Brölén G, et al. Review article: the emerging role of genetics in precision medicine for patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2020; **51**: 1305–20.
- 73 Wong VW, Wong GL, Tsang SW, et al. Metabolic and histological features of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease patients with different serum alanine aminotransferase levels. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2009; **29**: 387–96.
- 74 Ratziu V, Charlotte F, Heurtier A, et al. Sampling variability of liver biopsy in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2005; **128**: 1898–906.

- 75 Bedossa P, Consortium FP. Utility and appropriateness of the fatty liver inhibition of progression (FLIP) algorithm and steatosis, activity, and fibrosis (SAF) score in the evaluation of biopsies of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Hepatology* 2014; **60**: 565–75.
- 76 Davison BA, Harrison SA, Cotter G, et al. Suboptimal reliability of liver biopsy evaluation has implications for randomized clinical trials. *J Hepatol* 2020; **73**: 1322–32.
- 77 Mahady SE, Macaskill P, Craig JC, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of noninvasive fibrosis scores in a population of individuals with a low prevalence of fibrosis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2017; **15**: 1453–60.e1.
- 78 Hagström H, Talbäck M, Andreasson A, Walldius G, Hammar N. Ability of noninvasive scoring systems to identify individuals in the population at risk for severe liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 200–14.
- 79 Anstee QM, Lawitz EJ, Alkhoury N, et al. Noninvasive tests accurately identify advanced fibrosis due to NASH: baseline data from the STELLAR trials. *Hepatology* 2019; **70**: 1521–30.
- 80 Nobili V, Parkes J, Bottazzo G, et al. Performance of ELF serum markers in predicting fibrosis stage in pediatric non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2009; **136**: 160–67.
- 81 The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): assessment and management. July 6, 2016. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng49> (accessed May 27, 2020).
- 82 Harrison SA, Wong VW, Okanoue T, et al. Selonsertib for patients with bridging fibrosis or compensated cirrhosis due to NASH: results from randomized phase III STELLAR trials. *J Hepatol* 2020; **73**: 26–39.
- 83 Daniels SJ, Leeming DJ, Eslam M, et al. ADAPT: an algorithm incorporating PRO-C3 accurately identifies patients with NAFLD and advanced fibrosis. *Hepatology* 2019; **69**: 1075–86.
- 84 Park CC, Nguyen P, Hernandez C, et al. Magnetic resonance elastography vs transient elastography in detection of fibrosis and noninvasive measurement of steatosis in patients with biopsy-proven nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2017; **152**: 598–607.e2.
- 85 Wong VW, Irls M, Wong GL, et al. Unified interpretation of liver stiffness measurement by M and XL probes in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gut* 2019; **68**: 2057–64.
- 86 Eddowes PJ, Sasso M, Allison M, et al. Accuracy of FibroScan controlled attenuation parameter and liver stiffness measurement in assessing steatosis and fibrosis in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2019; **156**: 1717–30.
- 87 Siddiqui MS, Vuppalanchi R, Van Natta ML, et al. Vibration-controlled transient elastography to assess fibrosis and steatosis in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2019; **17**: 156–63.e2.
- 88 Liu K, Wong VW, Lau K, et al. Prognostic value of controlled attenuation parameter by transient elastography. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2017; **112**: 1812–23.
- 89 Shili-Masmoudi S, Wong GL, Hiriart JB, et al. Liver stiffness measurement predicts long-term survival and complications in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Liver Int* 2020; **40**: 581–89.
- 90 de Franchis R, Faculty BVI. Expanding consensus in portal hypertension: report of the Baveno VI Consensus Workshop: stratifying risk and individualizing care for portal hypertension. *J Hepatol* 2015; **63**: 743–52.
- 91 Petta S, Sebastiani G, Bugianesi E, et al. Non-invasive prediction of esophageal varices by stiffness and platelet in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease cirrhosis. *J Hepatol* 2018; **69**: 878–85.
- 92 Newsome PN, Sasso M, Deeks JJ, et al. FibroScan-AST (FAST) score for the non-invasive identification of patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis with significant activity and fibrosis: a prospective derivation and global validation study. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **5**: 362–73.
- 93 Harrison SA, Ratziu V, Boursier J, et al. A blood-based biomarker panel (NIS4) for non-invasive diagnosis of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis and liver fibrosis: a prospective derivation and global validation study. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **5**: 970–85.
- 94 Ma J, Hennein R, Liu C, et al. Improved diet quality associates with reduction in liver fat, particularly in individuals with high genetic risk scores for nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Gastroenterology* 2018; **155**: 107–17.
- 95 Gerage AM, Ritti-Dias RM, Balagopal PB, et al. Physical activity levels and hepatic steatosis: a longitudinal follow-up study in adults. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **33**: 741–46.
- 96 Kwak MS, Kim D, Chung GE, Kim W, Kim JS. The preventive effect of sustained physical activity on incident nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Liver Int* 2017; **37**: 919–26.
- 97 Sung KC, Ryu S, Lee JY, Kim JY, Wild SH, Byrne CD. Effect of exercise on the development of new fatty liver and the resolution of existing fatty liver. *J Hepatol* 2016; **65**: 791–97.
- 98 Wong VW, Chan WK, Chitturi S, et al. Asia-Pacific Working Party on Non-alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease guidelines 2017—part 1: definition, risk factors and assessment. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **33**: 70–85.
- 99 Chalasani N, Younossi Z, Lavine JE, et al. The diagnosis and management of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: practice guidance from the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases. *Hepatology* 2018; **67**: 328–57.
- 100 Rowe IA. Too much medicine: overdiagnosis and overtreatment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **3**: 66–72.
- 101 Brain D, O’Beirne J, Hickman IJ, et al. Protocol for a randomised trial testing a community fibrosis assessment service for patients with suspected non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: LOCal assessment and triage evaluation of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (LOCATE-NAFLD). *BMC Health Serv Res* 2020; **20**: 335.
- 102 Chalmers J, Wilkes E, Harris R, et al. The development and implementation of a commissioned pathway for the identification and stratification of liver disease in the community. *Frontline Gastroenterol* 2020; **11**: 86–92.
- 103 Davyduke T, Tandon P, Al-Karaghoul M, Abraldes JG, Ma MM. Impact of implementing a “FIB-4 First” strategy on a pathway for patients with NAFLD referred from primary care. *Hepatology Commun* 2019; **3**: 1322–33.
- 104 El-Gohary M, Moore M, Roderick P, et al. Local care and treatment of liver disease (LOCATE) - a cluster-randomized feasibility study to discover, assess and manage early liver disease in primary care. *PLoS One* 2018; **13**: e0208798.
- 105 Srivastava A, Gailer R, Tanwar S, et al. Prospective evaluation of a primary care referral pathway for patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Hepatol* 2019; **71**: 371–78.
- 106 Tsochatzis EA, Newsome PN. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and the interface between primary and secondary care. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2018; **3**: 509–17.
- 107 Anstee QM, Targher G, Day CP. Progression of NAFLD to diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular disease or cirrhosis. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013; **10**: 330–44.
- 108 Patel PJ, Hayward KL, Rudra R, et al. Multimorbidity and polypharmacy in diabetic patients with NAFLD: implications for disease severity and management. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 2017; **96**: e6761.
- 109 Cusi K. A diabetologist’s perspective of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH): knowledge gaps and future directions. *Liver Int* 2020; **40** (suppl 1): 82–88.
- 110 Lee BW, Lee YH, Park CY, et al. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a position statement of the fatty liver research group of the Korean diabetes association. *Diabetes Metab J* 2020; **44**: 382–401.
- 111 Lee HW, Wong GL, Kwok R, et al. Serial transient elastography examinations to monitor patients with type 2 diabetes: a prospective cohort study. *Hepatology* 2020; **72**: 1230–41.
- 112 Younossi ZM, Tampi RP, Racila A, et al. Economic and clinical burden of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in patients with type 2 diabetes in the U.S. *Diabetes Care* 2020; **43**: 283–89.
- 113 American Diabetes Association. 4. Comprehensive medical evaluation and assessment of comorbidities: standards of medical care in diabetes—2019. *Diabetes Care* 2019; **42** (suppl 1): S34–45.
- 114 Vilar-Gomez E, Martinez-Perez Y, Calzadilla-Bertot L, et al. Weight loss through lifestyle modification significantly reduces features of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Gastroenterology* 2015; **149**: 367–78.e5.
- 115 Lassailly G, Caiazzo R, Ntandja-Wandji L-C, et al. Bariatric surgery provides long-term resolution of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and regression of fibrosis. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **159**: 1290–301.e5.

- 116 Sanyal AJ, Chalasani N, Kowdley KV, et al. Pioglitazone, vitamin E, or placebo for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *N Engl J Med* 2010; **362**: 1675–85.
- 117 Vilar-Gomez E, Vuppalanchi R, Gawrieh S, et al. Vitamin E improves transplant-free survival and hepatic decompensation among patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and advanced fibrosis. *Hepatology* 2020; **71**: 495–509.
- 118 Armstrong MJ, Gaunt P, Aithal GP, et al. Liraglutide safety and efficacy in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (LEAN): a multicentre, double-blind, randomised, placebo-controlled phase 2 study. *Lancet* 2016; **387**: 679–90.
- 119 Hsiang JC, Wong VW. SGLT2 inhibitors in liver patients. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **18**: 2168–72.e2.
- 120 Bril F, Biernacki DM, Kalavallapalli S, et al. Role of vitamin E for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in patients with type 2 diabetes: a randomized controlled trial. *Diabetes Care* 2019; **42**: 1481–88.
- 121 Sanyal AJ, Campbell-Sargent C, Mirshahi F, et al. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis: association of insulin resistance and mitochondrial abnormalities. *Gastroenterology* 2001; **120**: 1183–92.
- 122 Neuschwander-Tetri BA, Loomba R, Sanyal AJ, et al. Farnesoid X nuclear receptor ligand obeticholic acid for non-cirrhotic, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (FLINT): a multicentre, randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* 2015; **385**: 956–65.
- 123 Younossi ZM, Ratziu V, Loomba R, et al. Obeticholic acid for the treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: interim analysis from a multicentre, randomised, placebo-controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet* 2019; **394**: 2184–96.
- 124 DeFronzo RA, Tripathy D, Schwenke DC, et al. Pioglitazone for diabetes prevention in impaired glucose tolerance. *N Engl J Med* 2011; **364**: 1104–15.
- 125 Belfort R, Harrison SA, Brown K, et al. A placebo-controlled trial of pioglitazone in subjects with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *N Engl J Med* 2006; **355**: 2297–307.
- 126 Cusi K, Orsak B, Bril F, et al. Long-term pioglitazone treatment for patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and prediabetes or type 2 diabetes mellitus: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med* 2016; **165**: 305–15.
- 127 Zinman B, Wanner C, Lachin JM, et al. Empagliflozin, cardiovascular outcomes, and mortality in type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2015; **373**: 2117–28.
- 128 Marso SP, Bain SC, Consoli A, et al. Semaglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2016; **375**: 1834–44.
- 129 Marso SP, Daniels GH, Brown-Frandsen K, et al. Liraglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2016; **375**: 311–22.
- 130 O'Neil PM, Birkenfeld AL, McGowan B, et al. Efficacy and safety of semaglutide compared with liraglutide and placebo for weight loss in patients with obesity: a randomised, double-blind, placebo and active controlled, dose-ranging, phase 2 trial. *Lancet* 2018; **392**: 637–49.
- 131 Kushner RF, Calanna S, Davies M, et al. Semaglutide 2.4 mg for the treatment of obesity: key elements of the step trials 1 to 5. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2020; **28**: 1050–61.
- 132 Newsome PN, Buchholtz K, Cusi K, et al. A placebo-controlled trial of subcutaneous semaglutide in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *N Engl J Med* 2021; **384**: 1113–24.
- 133 Neuschwander-Tetri BA. Therapeutic landscape for NAFLD in 2020. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **158**: 1984–98.e3.
- 134 Rinella ME, Tacke F, Sanyal AJ, Anstee QM. Report on the AASLD/EASL joint workshop on clinical trial endpoints in NAFLD. *Hepatology* 2019; **70**: 1424–36.
- 135 Pockros PJ, Fuchs M, Freilich B, et al. CONTROL: a randomized phase 2 study of obeticholic acid and atorvastatin on lipoproteins in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis patients. *Liver Int* 2019; **39**: 2082–93.
- 136 Intercept receives complete response letter from FDA for obeticholic acid for the treatment of fibrosis due to NASH. Jun 29, 2020. <https://ir.interceptpharma.com/news-releases/news-release-details/intercept-receives-complete-response-letter-fda-obeticholic-acid> (accessed March 29, 2021).
- 137 Rinella ME, Noureddin M. STELLAR 3 and STELLAR 4: lessons from the fall of Icarus. *J Hepatol* 2020; **73**: 9–11.
- 138 Harrison SA, Bashir MR, Guy CD, et al. Resmetirom (MGL-3196) for the treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis: a multicentre, randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 2 trial. *Lancet* 2019; **394**: 2012–24.
- 139 Harrison SA, Neff G, Guy CD, et al. Efficacy and safety of aldafermin, an engineered FGF19 analog, in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Gastroenterology* 2020; **160**: 219–31.e1.
- 140 Loomba R, Noureddin M, Kowdley KV, et al. Combination therapies including cilofexor and firsocostat for bridging fibrosis and cirrhosis attributable to NASH. *Hepatology* 2021; **73**: 625–43.
- 141 Lazarus JV, Colombo M, Cortez-Pinto H, et al. NAFLD—sounding the alarm on a silent epidemic. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020; **17**: 377–79.
- 142 Albhaisi S, Sanyal AJ. Applying non-invasive fibrosis measurements in NAFLD/NASH: progress to date. *Pharmaceut Med* 2019; **33**: 451–63.
- 143 Wai JW, Fu C, Wong VW. Confounding factors of non-invasive tests for nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Gastroenterol* 2020; **55**: 731–41.

© 2021 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.