# Hepatitis C Virus (HCV) Core Antigen Assay To Detect Ongoing HCV Infection in Thai Injection Drug Users

Dale M. Netski,<sup>1</sup>\* Xiao-Hong Wang,<sup>1,2</sup> Shruti H. Mehta,<sup>3</sup> Kenrad Nelson,<sup>1,3</sup> David Celentano,<sup>3</sup> Satawat Thongsawat,<sup>4</sup> Niwat Maneekarn,<sup>4</sup> Vinai Suriyanon,<sup>4</sup> Jaroon Jittiwutikorn,<sup>5</sup> David L. Thomas,<sup>1,3</sup> and John R. Ticehurst<sup>1,3,6</sup>

Departments of Medicine,<sup>1</sup> Pathology,<sup>6</sup> and Epidemiology,<sup>3</sup> Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions, Baltimore, Maryland; Southwest Hospital, Third Military Medical University, Chongqinq, People's Republic of China<sup>2</sup>; Faculty of Medicine, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai,<sup>4</sup> and Thailand Ministry of Public Health, Nanthaigori,<sup>5</sup> Thailand

Received 30 September 2003/Returned for modification 29 November 2003/Accepted 5 December 2003

We evaluated a quantitative enzyme immunoassay (trak-C) for hepatitis C virus core antigen (HCV core Ag) by testing serum specimens from 820 injection drug users in Thailand with anti-HCV antibodies. The HCV genotypes in this population include genotypes 3 and 6, which have not been extensively tested with this assay. Among these specimens, 629 (76.7%) yielded positive results, with HCV core Ag concentrations predominantly spanning (35.7%) or above (58.2%) the measurable range of 1.5 to 100 pg/ml. To assess reproducibility, we retested 30 specimens representing six core Ag ranges; the mean coefficient of variation for each range was ≤9.7% (highest for 1.5 to 25 pg/ml). We also tested 204 specimens of the 820-specimen set for HCV RNA: while 146 (71.6%) were core Ag positive, 168 (82.4%) had detectable HCV RNA, of which 96% were typeable as genotype 3 (39%), 1 (31%), or 6 (26%) by nested reverse transcription-PCR. Among RNA-positive specimens, 86.9% had core Ag; 94% of the RNA negatives were core Ag negative. While there was no apparent bias for detecting core Ag representing the tested genotypes, median quantified results were higher for types 1a and 6 than for genotype 3 (P = 0.01); similarly, the median core Ag concentration was higher in HCV-human immunodeficiency virus-coinfected subjects than in HCV-monoinfected subjects. Our results demonstrated a good correlation between core Ag and HCV RNA in this population with high frequencies of genotypes 3 and 6. Because most core Ag concentrations were greater than those in the measurable range, we recommend a 10-fold dilution of the specimen before quantification. Reproducibility, low technical requirements, and high throughput should make this assay useful for clinical or research monitoring of HCV levels during active infection.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is an important human pathogen with global health effects. HCV infects up to 3% of the general population, with an estimated 3.9 million people infected in the United States and 170 million people infected worldwide (1, 30). HCV infections frequently persist and can lead to cirrhosis or hepatocellular carcinoma (27, 29).

The principal means of diagnosing HCV infection is by use of an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) to detect anti-HCV antibodies in blood (2, 15). Supplemental testing is required to prove that the ELISA is not falsely reactive and to determine if the infection is ongoing or resolved. Whereas supplemental antibody tests (i.e., strip immunoassays) can be used to identify false-positive ELISA results, only the direct detection of viral RNA or antigen differentiates ongoing from resolved infections. Among direct detection tests, those that measure the quantity of RNA (or possibly antigen) can also be used to evaluate the likelihood of response to treatment and to monitor the treatment response (6, 13, 17). However, HCV RNA tests are technologically difficult and thus not practical for common use worldwide.

Recently, a test (trak-C; Ortho Clinical Diagnostics, Raritan,

N.J.) was commercially developed to detect HCV core antigen (core Ag). Because this assay uses a standard ELISA format and is easy to perform, it might serve a worldwide role in HCV diagnostics. We evaluated its performance by studying specimens from a large population of injection drug users in northern Thailand, a setting with multiple HCV genotypes. We assessed the specificity and sensitivity of the core Ag assay by testing a subset of these samples with assays for HCV RNA and genotype.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Specimens.** Serum specimens were collected from an intravenous-drug-use cohort in Chiang Mai, Thailand (19). The Opiate User Research project was initiated to determine sociodemographic, sexual, and drug-use risk factors for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection among drug users in an area of northern Thailand adjacent to the Golden Triangle region. Enrolled subjects were selected from inpatients at a drug detoxification treatment center, i.e., 1,865 patients who had been treated for opiate and methamphetamine dependence between 1 February 1999 and 31 January 2000. Serum was collected from each subject upon enrollment and then tested for antibodies to HIV and HCV. For this study, we selected enrollment serum specimens that were repeatedly reactive for anti-HCV: 820 were selected for core Ag testing, and 204 of the 820-specimen set (selected from subjects with the most follow-up visits) were selected for qualitative HCV RNA detection.

**Core Ag assay.** HCV core Ag was detected or quantified by use of the trak-C assay performed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

HCV RNA assays. (i) Qualitative. To detect HCV RNA, we used the COBAS AMPLICOR HCV test version 2.0 (Roche Molecular Systems, Branchburg,

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Mailing address: 1503 E. Jefferson St., Baltimore, MD 21231. Phone: (410) 614-6087. Fax: (410) 614-7564. Email: dnetski1@jhmi.edu.

N.J.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. This assay has a limit of detection of  $2.0 \log_{10} IU$  of HCV genotype 1 RNA per ml of serum.

(ii) Quantitative. To determine the concentration of HCV RNA in serum, we used a quantitative reverse transcription (RT)-PCR assay (COBAS AMPLICOR HCV MONITOR version 2.0; Roche Molecular Systems) according to the manufacturer's protocols. This assay has a lower limit of quantitation of 2.78  $\log_{10}$  IU/ml.

Genotyping. Samples were genotyped by direct sequencing of RT-PCR products representing core- and E1-encoding regions (C/E1) of the HCV genome. For most RT-PCRs, we used RNA extracts prepared for the Roche qualitative assay. Otherwise, RNA was extracted from serum (100 µl) with the QIAamp viral RNA mini kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, Calif.) as per the manufacturer's recommendation, except that the serum volume was adjusted with phosphatebuffered saline (pH 7.4) to 140 µl before extraction. RT and first-round PCR were performed together with a 50-µl reaction volume containing 10 µl RNA, 1× PCR buffer, 0.4 µM forward (493S H77, 5'-GCAACAGGGAACCTTCCT GGTTGCTC-3') and 0.4 µM reverse (987R\_H77, 5'-CGTAGGGGACCAGTT CATCATCAT-3') primers (18), 0.2 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 U of RNase inhibitor (RNaseOUT), 80 U of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase, and 1.5 U of Platinum Taq polymerase. All reagents and enzymes were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, Calif.). This reaction was incubated at 42°C for 40 min; 94°C for 2 min; 30 cycles of 94°C for 15 s, 60°C for 15 s, and 72°C for 30 s; and 72°C for 5 min. The second round of PCR was performed with 2 µl of first-round product in a 50-µl reaction volume containing the same PCR components as those contained in the first round except for the Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase and primers. Primers for second-round amplification were forward (502S H77, 5'-AACCTT CCTGGTTGCTCTTTCTCTAT-3') and reverse (975R\_H77, 5'-GTTCATCAT CATATCCCATGCCAT-3'). Second-round incubation conditions were the same as those in the first round, excluding the RT (42°C) step. Products were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide. PCR products were purified with QIAquick PCR purification kits (QIAGEN) prior to sequencing.

Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis. Nucleotide sequences of purified PCR amplicons were determined by use of a PRISM version 3100 automated sequencer (ABI, Foster City, Calif.). Primer sequences were removed prior to analysis. Sequences were assembled and analyzed by using BioEdit version 5.0.9 (Tom Hall; available from the author at http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit .html) and aligned by using ClustalX version 1.83 (9). Phylogenetic trees were inferred using algorithms from the DNADIST, NEIGHBOR, SEQBOOT, and CONSENSE programs in the PHYLIP suite version 3.5p (5) and implemented in Nimble Tree version 2.5 (S. Ray; available from the author at http://sray.med.som .jhmi.edu/RaySoft). After distance matrices under the F84 model were calculated, the neighbor-joining algorithm (20) was used to infer trees, which were rendered with TreeView (14, 23).

Statistical analysis. The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized to test for differences in core Ag concentrations among different genotypes. For comparison of core Ag concentrations in HCV-monoinfected subjects and HCV-HIV-coinfected subjects, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test was utilized. Coefficient of variation (CV) was used as a measure of core Ag assay precision.

### RESULTS

**Characteristics of subjects.** The study represented 820 subjects, 768 males (93.4%) and 52 (6.3%) females. The mean ages were 31 years for males and 35 years for females (standard deviations, 9 and 14 years, respectively); 306 (37.2%) subjects were HIV infected, while 514 (62.5%) were anti-HIV negative.

**Core Ag in anti-HCV-positive specimens.** We tested 820 specimens with the trak-C assay, 629 (76.7%) of which yielded positive results (Table 1). Among the core Ag-positive samples, 223 (35.7%) had results within the stated measurable range of 1.5 to 100 pg/ml. Most (64.4%) core Ag concentrations were outside the measurable range: 39 (6.2%) were below the lower limit of quantitation, and 367 (58.2%) were above the upper limit of quantitation. Table 2 includes proportions of the 630 positive results that were within the HCV core Ag concentration ranges of 1.5 to 25, 26 to 50, 51 to 75,

TABLE 1. Direct detection of HCV in serum specimens from Thai subjects with antibodies to HCV

Specimen characteristic	No. of specimens tested	Assay	No. (%) of specimens positive
All	820	HCV core Ag, quantitative	629 (76.7)
Selected for HCV RNA testing	204	HCV core Ag, quantitative HCV RNA, qualitative	146 (71.6) 168 (82.4)

and 76 to 100 pg/ml and those represented by two ranges above the measurable range (101 to 125 and 126 to 150 pg/ml).

Interassay precision of core Ag assay. Thirty specimens were randomly selected to represent six ranges of core Ag concentration (Table 2). A second aliquot of each sample was then retested by the same operator on a subsequent day. Core Ag data were highly reproducible across all six ranges, with the highest mean CV (9.7%) among results for the lower end of the measurable range. The mean CV for the 51- to 75-pg/ml range was very low, at 1.67%. While the mean CV was <9% for the two highest ranges, it is not known if the values for the 101- to 150-pg/ml ranges were accurate because such results are greater than the upper limit of quantitation.

To characterize the interassay precision of external controls and core Ag calibrators, we calculated the CVs for these reagents over 11 runs conducted by one operator over 11 days (Tables 3 and 4). Over these 11 runs, the plate validity criteria were met, and the mean linear squared regression ( $r^2$ ) value was 0.99. The CVs for the low- and high-positive controls, respectively, were 14.34 and 6.51% (Table 3). Analysis of interassay CV of core Ag calibrators ranged from 0.71 to 42.6%. The highest CV was 42.6% for the 1.5-pg/ml calibrator, and it should be noted that the calculated mean core Ag concentration of this calibrator was >50% off from the projected value (Table 4).

Dilution analysis: specimens with high concentrations of core Ag. As noted above, the majority of core Ag-positive samples yielded values greater than the upper limit of quantitation. To determine the core Ag concentration in such samples more accurately, we diluted and then retested five samples that had yielded values between 216 and 242 pg/ml (Table 5). As recommended by the manufacturer, these samples were tested after a 10-fold dilution in core Ag-negative human serum (provided in trak-C kits); calculated core Ag concentrations ranged from 568 to 1,110 pg/ml.

HCV core Ag versus HCV RNA. To assess the sensitivity and specificity of the core Ag assay, we further analyzed 204 samples from the 820-specimen set by testing for HCV RNA with a qualitative assay (Table 6). Among HCV RNA-positive specimens, 87% yielded positive results with the core Ag assay. The core Ag assay yielded negative results with 94% of the HCV RNA-negative specimens.

To determine if the 22 core Ag-negative and HCV RNApositive results represented a sensitivity differential, we tested 21 samples (that had sufficient volume) with a quantitative RNA assay (Table 7). HCV RNA was quantified in 14 samples

Range of HCV core % of				HCV core Ag (pg/ml)			CN(0)	Mean
Ag concn (pg/ml) specifients in range <sup>a</sup>	specifien — 1s	1st run	2nd run	Mean	SD	UV (%)	CV (%)	
1.5-25	18	2536	2.1	1.7	1.9	0.28	15	9.7
		2530	8.3	7	7.7	0.92	12	
		2515	9.1	7.9	8.5	0.85	10	
		2387	19.4	18.7	19.1	0.49	3	
		2438	22.1	19.4	20.8	1.91	9	
26-50	8.3	2456	35.8	30.6	33.2	3.68	11	6.8
		2543	38.7	43	40.9	3.04	7	
		2481	41.6	45.4	43.5	2.69	6	
		2318	42	37.5	39.8	3.18	8	
		2555	46	46.9	46.5	0.64	1	
51-75	4.3	1166	52.8	53.2	53	0.28	1	1.67
01 /0	ne	0248	56.1	55.6	55.9	0.35	1	1107
		2521	61.3	59	60.2	1.63	3	
		2557	74.1	70.4	72.3	2.62	4	
		2414	74.5	75.4	75	0.64	1	
76–100	5.1	2392	76.4	81.6	79	3.68	5	6.88
		2258	80.1	78	79.1	1.48	2	
		2042	84.3	92.5	88.4	5.8	7	
		2274	86.8	78.9	82.9	5 59	7	
		2336	96.3	78.3	87.3	12.7	15	
101-125	4.5	2436	102.2	92.9	97.6	6.58	7	7.77
	ne	2498	102.4	91.7	97.1	7.57	8	
		2422	107.6	99.4	103.5	5.8	6	
		2243	114	97.2	105.6	11.9	11	
		2245	117	105.3	111.2	8.3	7	
126-150	4.0	2256	127.7	103 3	115 5	173	15	8 57
120 100	1.0	1787	129.7	129.1	129.4	0.42	0	0.07
		829	136.3	158.3	147.3	15.6	11	
		1037	138.5	157.4	148	13.0	0	
		2499	146.9	131.2	139.1	11.1	8	
		2777	140.7	1.71.2	137.1	11.1	0	

TABLE 2. Run-to-run precision: stratified by ranges of HCV core antigen assay concentration<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Among 629 HCV core Ag-positive specimens in Table 1, 44.0% are represented in the ranges in this table (i.e., 1.5 to 150 pg/ml).

(range, 3.0 to 4.74  $\log_{10}$  IU/ml), was detected but not quantifiable in 2 samples, and was not detected in 5 samples.

Two samples were core Ag positive and HCV RNA negative. Insufficient volume precluded additional testing to determine if these results could be reproduced or interpreted by analysis of results from other testing.

**Correlation of HCV genotype with core Ag data.** We correlated genotyping data with core Ag results (Table 8). Among the 168 HCV RNA-positive samples, 161 were typeable. Genotype 3 was the most prevalent (39% of samples), followed by genotypes 1 (31%) and 6 (26%). The order of subtype prevalence was 3a (25%), 1a (22%), 3b (14.3%), and 1b (8.9%). It

TABLE 3. Characterization of core Ag external controls over  $11\ {\rm runs}^a$ 

Control	Acceptable core Ag concn (pg/ ml)	Core A (pg	CV (%)	
		Mean	SD	
Negative	≤1.1	0	0	0
Low positive High positive	3.0–12.7 20.5–44.5	4.7 26.7	0.67 1.74	14.3 6.5
U 1				

<sup>a</sup> All three controls were valid per quality control criteria for 11 runs.

TABLE 4. Characterization of core Ag calibrators over 11 runs

should be noted, however, that we included unclassified subtypes (such as 7c, 9b, and 9c) with genotype 6 (14, 22). This

type distribution is consistent with previously reported data for

this population and region of Thailand (4, 8, 10, 26). In addi-

tion, higher concentrations of core Ag were observed for per-

sons who had type 1a or 6 than those with other genotypes (P

even though C/E1 RT-PCR is generally more sensitive (repro-

ducibly detects less than 1.4 log<sub>10</sub> IU/ml; unpublished data)

than the Roche qualitative assay. C/E1 RT-PCR was at-

tempted four times for each specimen: twice with RNA ex-

The genotype could not be determined for seven specimens,

= 0.01) (Table 8).

Calibrator concn (pg/ml)	Calculated co		
	Mean	SD	Cv (%)
0	0	0	0
1.5	0.96	0.41	43
5	5	0.63	13
15	15.73	0.65	4.11
50	52.10	0.83	1.6
100	98.91	0.70	0.71

TABLE 5. Dilution analysis of five samples with HCV core Ag concentrations greater than upper limit of quantitation

	HCV core Ag concn (pg/ml)		
Specimen	Undiluted specimen	10-fold-diluted specimen <sup>a</sup>	
1	242	671	
2	237	1,110	
3	228	600	
4	216	722	
5	216	568	

<sup>a</sup> Calculated value.

tracted for the Roche qualitative assay and twice with RNA extracted from a new aliquot of serum. While three specimens yielded amplicon from the Roche assay extract (but not from newly extracted RNA), nucleotide sequence data were insufficient for deducing genotype; two of these specimens (Table 7, specimens 12 and 13) had quantifiable HCV RNA, and the third specimen (specimen 15) had HCV RNA at less than the quantifiable concentration. Three other specimens did not vield an RT-PCR product from either type of RNA extract; their Roche quantitative results were detected but not quantifiable (Table 7, specimen 16) or not detected (specimens 20 and 21). Core Ag was detectable in the seventh nontypeable specimen at less than the lower limit of quantitation, but insufficient volume precluded HCV RNA quantitation.

Core Ag and HCV-HIV coinfection. It has been reported that HCV RNA levels are higher in HCV-HIV-coinfected individuals than in HCV-monoinfected individuals (24, 25). Therefore, we analyzed median core Ag concentrations among mono- and coinfected subjects to determine if core Ag levels differed. Of 820 HCV antibody-positive subjects, 306 (37.2%) were HIV positive, 514 (62.5%) were HIV negative, and 2 (0.24%) had unknown HIV status. Median core Ag concentrations in HCV-HIV-coinfected subjects were significantly higher (P < 0.01) than those in HCV-monoinfected subjects (Table 9).

### DISCUSSION

Molecular methods based on detection of HCV RNA are the "gold standard" for determining viral load and genotype. Accurate determinations of HCV RNA concentrations and HCV genotype in blood have proven clinical utility (7, 16).

TABLE 6. Detection of HCV core Ag and HCV RNA in 204 specimens selected for HCV RNA testing

Result of HCV core Ag assay <sup>a</sup>	No. of specimens with HCV RNA result <sup>b</sup>		
	Positive	Negative	
Detected Not detected	146 22	2 34	

<sup>a</sup> Quantitative assay. As an estimate of sensitivity, HCV core Ag was detected in 146 (87%) of 168 HCV RNA-positive specimens (95% confidence interval, 81.8 to 92.0%). As an estimate of specificity, HCV core Ag was not detected in 34 (94%) of 36 HCV RNA-negative specimens (95% confidence interval, 81 to 99%). <sup>b</sup> Qualitative assay.

TABLE 7. Analysis of specimens negative for HCV Core Ag and positive for HCV RNA: HCV RNA concentrations and genotypes

Detection level of HCV RNA and specimen	HCV RNA (log <sub>10</sub> IU/ml)	Genotype <sup>a</sup>	
Quantifiable			
1	4.74	3a	
2	4.39	3b	
3	4.30	3b	
4	4.17	3a	
5	3.87	1a	
6	3.77	1a	
7	3.52	3a	
8	3.52	3a	
9	3.33	3a	
10	3.25	1b	
11	3.21	6	
12	3.18	NT	
13	3.06	NT	
14	3.00	1b	
Below lower limit of quantitation			
15	<2.77	NT	
16	<2.77	NT	
$ND^b$			
17	ND	1a	
18	ND	6	
19	ND	6	
20	ND	NT	
21	ND	NT	

<sup>a</sup> NT, nontypeable: see text for explanation.

<sup>b</sup> ND, not detected. HCV RNA was not present or the concentration was below the limit of detection (not known).

Determination of HCV RNA levels permits assessment of HCV dynamics during antiviral therapy and helps predict the potential for response. The trak-C assay was developed as an alternative method to monitor HCV levels during treatment and found to correlate well with RNA assays (3, 11, 28). The assay is also easier to use than HCV RNA assays and thus

TABLE 8. Ranges of HCV core Ag concentrations among 168 samples containing HCV RNA, stratified by genotype and subtype

Genotype and subtype	No. (%) of	Core Ag concn (pg/ml)		
	specimens	Median	IQR <sup>a</sup>	
1				
Total	52 (31)	156.7	15.8-242.7	
1a	37 (22)	$206^{b}$	47.8-245.1	
1b	15 (8.9)	36	1.1–184.3	
3				
Total	66 (39)	58.9	8.7-220.8	
3a	42 (25)	55.2	8.3-207.8	
3b	24 (14)	72.7	8.1-222	
6 (total)	43 (25)	$220.1^{b}$	65.5-252.1	
$\mathrm{NT}^c$	7 (4)	$\mathrm{ND}^d$	ND	

<sup>a</sup> Interquartile range.

 $^{b}P = 0.01$  overall; P < 0.10 for results for genotype 6 versus those for subtypes 1b, 3a, and 3b; P > 0.10 for genotype 6 versus 1a (comparisons made using Kruskal-Wallis test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons). Results were not altered after log transformation of core Ag values.

c NT, nontypeable. <sup>d</sup> ND, not determined.

Infected

Not infected

306 (37.2)

514 (62.5)

TABLE 9. Comparison of HCV core Ag concentrations among 820

 $100.6^{\circ}$ 

40.5

5.1-231.6

0-219.6

<sup>a</sup> Results of testing for antibodies to HIV type 1 by ELISA and gel particle agglutination test or Western blot analysis.

Interquartile range.

 $^{c}P < 0.01$  by Mann-Whitney test for results for HIV-infected specimens versus HIV-noninfected specimens.

could have an important role in less technologically developed regions of the world. Until now, however, analysis of this assay has not been performed with a population with a high prevalence of genotypes 3 and 6, which are endemic in Asia.

In this study, we evaluated the trak-C assay, which has low technical requirements (standard ELISA format), allows high throughput (86 specimens/run), and is relatively inexpensive (compared to RNA assays). This assay reliably detected HCV core Ag in serum. In addition, several other aspects of this study are noteworthy. Correlation was good (88.2%) between qualitative detection of core Ag and HCV RNA. Core Ag- and RNA-negative results likely represented subjects with resolved HCV infection. Discrepancies between the assays were due primarily to sensitivity differences. While the Roche qualitative HCV RNA assay's limit of detection is 2.0 log<sub>10</sub> IU/ml, that of the core Ag assay is 1.5 pg/ml; the latter concentration corresponds to 4.1  $\log_{10}$  IU/ml (3) or 5.1  $\log_{10}$  IU/ml, if one assumes the presence of 1.8 virions per IU (21) and 180 core molecules per virion. The assay also was reliable across the unique distribution of genotypes (1, 3, and 6 being roughly equally distributed) in this cohort.

In this study, the core Ag assay was precise across most of the measurable range. The mean CV ranged from 1.67 to 9.74%, which confirmed the precision of the assay across the measurable range of core Ag concentrations and up to 150 pg/ml. Precision was lower for lesser concentrations of Core Ag (Table 2, samples with 1.5 to 25 pg/ml; Table 3, low positive control; and Table 4, calibrators (containing 1.5 and 5 pg/ml). These results suggest that precision may be suboptimal at the lower end of the measurable range and that a more sensitive quantitative RNA assay should be used to accurately determine viral load in pertinent specimens.

There were some limitations of the assay, chiefly having to do with both ends of the measurable range. We detected HCV RNA in 39% of samples that were core Ag negative. This lower sensitivity may preclude widespread use of the assay for confirmation of anti-HCV-positive ELISA results unless core Agnegative results are routinely followed by testing for HCV RNA. In most cases, the discrepancy seemed to be due to low concentrations of viral RNA. In addition, the majority of specimens had core Ag concentrations above the measurable range of the assay. We therefore suggest that when anti-HCV-positive specimens are tested, a 10-fold dilution be assayed first, followed by testing of an undiluted aliquot of any specimen that yields a negative result.

Because it has been reported that HCV RNA levels are higher in HIV-coinfected individuals (24, 25), we hypothesized

that analogous results would be found in core Ag levels. In fact, we found that median core Ag concentrations were significantly higher (2.5-fold) in coinfected subjects. We must stress, however, that our analysis included Core Ag values that were outside the measurable range of the assay and therefore not accurately quantified.

Several potential uses of the trak-C assay in monitoring HCV infection have recently been described (3, 11, 12, 28, 31). Because of the low technical requirements and high throughput of this assay compared to those of RNA assays, we believe its performance is promising for monitoring HCV levels during active infection in a clinical or research mode.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by grants UO1-DA013032-05 (Kenrad Nelson) and DA11133 (David Celentano).

We thank Stuart Ray for assistance and advice with phylogenetic analysis of the genotype data. We thank James Streett of Ortho Clinical Diagnostics for donating trak-C reagents and equipment for performing the assay.

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Alter, M. J., D. Kruszon-Moran, O. V. Nainan, G. M. McQuillan, F. Gao, L. A. Moyer, R. A. Kaslow, and H. S. Margolis. 1999. The prevalence of hepatitis C virus infection in the United States, 1988 through 1994. N. Engl. J. Med. 341:556-562.
- 2. Alter, M. J., W. L. Kuhnert, L. Finelli, et al. 2003. Guidelines for laboratory testing and result reporting of antibody to hepatitis C virus. Morb. Mortal. Wkly. Rep. Recomm. Rep. 52:1-13, 15.
- 3. Bouvier-Alias, M., K. Patel, H. Dahari, S. Beaucourt, P. Larderie, L. Blatt, C. Hezode, G. Picchio, D. Dhumeaux, A. U. Neumann, J. G. McHutchison, and J. M. Pawlotsky. 2002. Clinical utility of total HCV core antigen quantification: a new indirect marker of HCV replication. Hepatology 36:211-218.
- 4. Doi, H., C. Apichartpiyakul, K.-I. Ohba, M. Mizokami, and H. Hotta. 1996. Hepatitis C virus (HCV) subtype prevalence in Chiang Mai, Thailand, and identification of novel subtypes of HCV major type 6. J. Clin. Microbiol. 34:569-574.
- 5. Felsenstein, J. 1989. PHYLIP-phylogeny inference package (version 3.2). Cladistics 5:164-166.
- 6. Fried, M. W., M. L. Shiffman, K. R. Reddy, C. Smith, G. Marinos, F. L. Goncales, Jr., D. Haussinger, M. Diago, G. Carosi, D. Dhumeaux, A. Craxi, A. Lin, J. Hoffman, and J. Yu. 2002. Peginterferon alfa-2a plus ribavirin for chronic hepatitis C virus infection. N. Engl. J. Med. 347:975-982.
- 7. Hanley, J. P., L. M. Jarvis, J. Andrews, R. Dennis, P. C. Hayes, J. Piris, R. Lee, P. Simmonds, and C. A. Ludlam. 1996. Interferon treatment for chronic hepatitis C infection in hemophiliacs-influence of virus load, genotype, and liver pathology on response. Blood 87:1704-1709.
- 8. Hansurabhanon, T., C. Jiraphongsa, P. Tunsakun, R. Sukbunsung, B. Bunyamanee, P. Kuirat, S. Meedsen, W. Waedeng, A. Theamboonlers, and Y. Poovorawan. 2002. Infection with hepatitis C virus among intravenous-drug users: prevalence, genotypes and risk-factor-associated behavior patterns in Thailand. Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol. 96:615-625
- 9. Jeanmougin, F., J. D. Thompson, M. Gouy, D. G. Higgins, and T. J. Gibson. 1998. Multiple sequence alignment with Clustal X. Trends Biochem. Sci. 23:403-405
- 10. Kanistanon, D., M. Neelamek, T. Dharakul, and S. Songsivilai. 1997. Genotypic distribution of hepatitis C virus in different regions of Thailand. J. Clin. Microbiol. 35:1772-1776.
- 11. Laperche, S., N. Le Marrec, N. Simon, F. Bouchardeau, C. Defer, M. Maniez-Montreuil, T. Levayer, J. P. Zappitelli, and J. J. Lefrere. 2003. A new HCV core antigen assay based on disassociation of immune complexes: an alternative to molecular biology in the diagnosis of early HCV infection. Transfusion 43:958-962
- 12. Maynard, M., P. Pradat, P. Berthillon, G. Picchio, N. Voirin, M. Martinot, P. Marcellin, and C. Trepo. 2003. Clinical relevance of total HCV core antigen testing for hepatitis C monitoring and for predicting patients' response to therapy. J. Viral Hepat. 10:318-323.
- 13. McHutchison, J. G., S. C. Gordon, E. R. Schiff, M. L. Shiffman, W. M. Lee, V. K. Rustgi, Z. D. Goodman, M.-H. Ling, S. Cort, and J. K. Albrecht for the International Hepatitis Interventional Therapy Group (IHIT). 1998. Interferon alfa-2b alone or in combination with ribavirin as initial treatment for chronic hepatitis C. N. Engl. J. Med. 339:1485-1492.
- 14. Mizokami, M., T. Gojobori, K. Ohba, K. Ikeo, X. M. Ge, T. Ohno, E. Orito, and J. Y. Lau. 1996. Hepatitis C virus types 7, 8 and 9 should be classified as type 6 subtypes. J. Hepatol. 24:622-624.

- Pawlotsky, J. M. 2002. Use and interpretation of virological tests for hepatitis C. Hepatology 36:S65–S73.
- Pawlotsky, J. M., F. Roudot-Thoraval, A. Bastie, F. Darthuy, J. Rémiré, J. M. Métreau, E. S. Zafrani, J. Duval, and D. Dhumeaux. 1996. Factors affecting treatment responses to interferon-α in chronic hepatitis C. J. Infect. Dis. 174:1–7.
- 17. Poynard, T., P. Marcellin, S. S. Lee, C. Niederau, G. S. Minuk, G. Ideo, V. Bain, J. Heathcote, S. Zeuzem, C. Trepo, J. Albrecht, and the International Hepatitis Interventional Therapy Group. 1998. Randomised trial of interferon α2b plus ribavirin for 48 weeks or for 24 weeks versus interferon α2b plus placebo for 48 weeks for treatment of chronic infection with hepatitis C virus. Lancet 352:1426–1432.
- Ray, S. C., R. R. Arthur, A. Carella, J. Bukh, and D. L. Thomas. 2000. Genetic epidemiology of hepatitis C virus throughout Egypt. J. Infect. Dis. 182:698–707.
- Razak, M. H., J. Jittiwutikarn, V. Suriyanon, T. Vongchak, N. Srirak, C. Beyrer, S. Kawichai, S. Tovanabutra, K. Rungruengthanakit, P. Sawanpanyalert, and D. D. Celentano. 2003. HIV prevalence and risks among injection and noninjection drug users in northern Thailand: need for comprehensive HIV prevention programs. J. Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr. 33:259–266.
- Saitou, N., and M. Nei. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. Mol. Biol. Evol. 4:406–425.
- Saldanha, J., N. Lelie, A. Heath, et al. 1999. Establishment of the first international standard for nucleic acid amplification technology (NAT) assays for HCV RNA. Vox Sang. 76:149–158.
- Simmonds, P., E. C. Holmes, T.-A. Cha, S.-W. Chan, F. McOmish, B. Irvine, E. Beall, P. L. Yap, J. Kolberg, and M. S. Urdea. 1993. Classification of hepatitis C virus into six major genotypes and a series of subtypes by phylogenetic analysis of the NS-5 region. J. Gen. Virol. 74:2391–2399.
- Simmonds, P., J. Mellor, T. Sakuldamrongpanich, C. Nuchaprayoon, S. Tanprasert, E. C. Holmes, and D. B. Smith. 1996. Evolutionary analysis of

variants of hepatitis C virus found in South-East Asia: comparison with classifications based upon sequence similarity. J. Gen. Virol. 77:3013–3024.

- Thomas, D. L., J. Astemborski, D. Vlahov, S. A. Strathdee, S. C. Ray, K. E. Nelson, N. Galai, K. R. Nolt, O. Laeyendecker, and J. A. Todd. 2000. Determinants of the quantity of hepatitis C virus RNA. J. Infect. Dis. 181:844– 851.
- Thomas, D. L., J. W. Shih, H. J. Alter, D. Vlahov, S. Cohn, D. R. Hoover, L. Cheung, and K. E. Nelson. 1996. Effect of human immunodeficiency virus on hepatitis C virus infection among injecting drug users. J. Infect. Dis. 174: 690–695.
- Tokita, H., H. Okamoto, P. Luengrojanakul, K. Vareesangthip, T. Chainuvati, H. Iizuka, F. Tsuda, Y. Miyakawa, and M. Mayumi. 1995. Hepatitis C virus variants from Thailand classifiable into five novel genotypes in the sixth (6b), seventh (7c, 7d) and ninth (9b, 9c) major genetic groups. J. Gen. Virol. 76:2329–2335.
- Tong, M. J., N. S. El-Farra, A. R. Reikes, and R. L. Co. 1995. Clinical outcomes after transfusion-associated hepatitis C. N. Engl. J. Med. 332: 1463–1466.
- 28. Veillon, P., C. Payan, G. Picchio, M. Maniez-Montreuil, P. Guntz, and F. Lunel. 2003. Comparative evaluation of the total hepatitis C virus core antigen, branched-DNA, and Amplicor Monitor assays in determining viremia for patients with chronic hepatitis C during interferon plus ribavirin combination therapy. J. Clin. Microbiol. 41:3212–3220.
- Villano, S. A., D. Vlahov, K. E. Nelson, S. Cohn, and D. L. Thomas. 1999. Persistence of viremia and the importance of long-term follow-up after acute hepatitis C infection. Hepatology 29:908–914.
- World Health Organization. 1997. Hepatitis C: global prevalence. Wkly. Epidemiol. Rec. 72:341–344.
- Zanetti, A. R., L. Romano, M. Brunetto, M. Colombo, G. Bellati, and C. Tackney. 2003. Total HCV core antigen assay: a new marker of hepatitis C viremia for monitoring the progress of therapy. J. Med. Virol. 70:27–30.