

Hepatitis C Virus Diagnosis and the Holy Grail

Authors	Applegate, TL; Fajardo, E; Sacks, JA
Citation	Hepatitis C Virus Diagnosis and the Holy Grail. 2018, 32 (2):425-445 Infect. Dis. Clin. North Am.
DOI	10.1016/j.idc.2018.02.010
Publisher	Elsevier
Journal	Infectious Disease Clinics of North America
Rights	Archived with thanks to Infectious Disease Clinics of North America
Download date	03/10/2021 17:29:33
Link to Item	http://hdl.handle.net/10144/619174

Hepatitis C Virus Diagnosis and the Holy Grail



Tanya L. Applegate, B.App Sc (Hons), PhD^{a,*}, Emmanuel Fajardo, BSc (Hons), MSc^b, Jilian A. Sacks, PhD^c

KEYWORDS

- HCV Diagnostics Simplified Rapid Point-of-care Test and treat
- Models of care
 HCV elimination

KEY POINTS

- Innovative strategies to provide access to existing HCV diagnostic assays are an immediate priority.
- Decentralized models of care to diagnose HCV infection and confirm cure within community health care settings are critical to achieve HCV elimination by 2030.
- High quality, simple, affordable and rapid diagnosis of active infection at the point-of-care will be central to achievement of HCV elimination.
- Global partnerships and funding mechanisms are required to stimulate investment in the development of the holy grail the ideal point-of-care diagnostic test.

HEPATITIS C VIRUS DIAGNOSTICS ARE ESSENTIAL TO ACHIEVE GLOBAL ELIMINATION

It is not often the world has the opportunity to turn a public health crisis into a good news story.^{1,2} The development of oral, highly effective, pangenotypic direct-acting antivirals (DAAs) has now paved the way to cure the 71 million people estimated to be living with chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection globally.^{3–6} Unfortunately, fewer than 20% of those living with HCV are aware of their infection, and the challenge now is to engage, screen, and diagnose everyone in need of treatment.^{7,8} While the world has focused its attention on the final steps within the cascade of care to develop and increase access to DAAs over the last decade, ^{9–11} considerably less investment has been made to ensure accurate and affordable diagnostic tools¹⁰ are available to make wide-scale global treatment a reality (**Fig. 1**). Ironically, in many settings,

E-mail address: tapplegate@kirby.unsw.edu.au

Infect Dis Clin N Am 32 (2018) 425–445

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idc.2018.02.010 id.theclinics.com 0891-5520/18/© 2018 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

^a The Kirby Institute, UNSW Sydney, High Street, Sydney, New South Wales 2052, Australia;

^b Médecins Sans Frontières Access Campaign, Rue de Lausanne 78 P.O Box 1016, Geneva CH-1211, Switzerland; ^c Clinton Health Access Initiative, 383 Dorchester Avenue Suite 400, Boston, MA 02127, USA

^{*} Corresponding author.

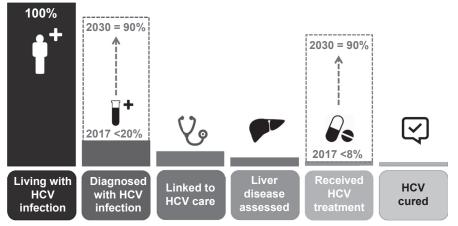


Fig. 1. Cascade of care for hepatitis C virus (HCV), indicating global gaps to reach World Health Organization 2030 elimination goals.²⁶ (*Adapted from* Grebely J, Bruggmann P, Treloar C, et al. Expanding access to prevention, care and treatment for hepatitis C virus infection among people who inject drugs. Int J Drug Pol 2015;26(10):893–8; with permission.)

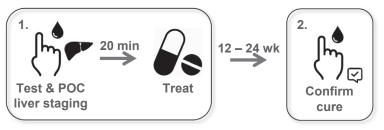
prohibitively high costs of HCV diagnostics often now exceed the cost of curative therapy.¹² Improving access to rapid, simple, and affordable HCV diagnostics is critical to achieve global HCV elimination.^{13–15}

The high efficacy and low toxicity of the new DAAs provide an exceptional opportunity to greatly simplify HCV diagnosis and care. Recently approved pangenotypic DAA regimens no longer depend on quantitative HCV RNA or genotype data to stratify the duration of treatment,^{16–18} and many international clinical trials and demonstration studies are underway to generate evidence of the efficacy of a simplified approach to diagnosis and treatment monitoring (eg, in Cambodia, India, Iran, Rwanda, Nigeria, Mozambique, Myanmar, Pakistan, and Uzbekistan¹⁹). Likewise, excellent safety profiles, potent efficacy, and limited potential drug–drug interactions also negate the need for intensive on-treatment monitoring.^{20,21}

From a public health perspective, HCV diagnosis and care could be simplified to just two visits: (1) diagnosis of active HCV infection and standardized treatment regardless of disease stage, and (2) confirmation of cure posttreatment completion (Fig. 2A). Considering the high rate of cure, experts in the field are currently debating if confirmation of cure may also be considered unnecessary in the near future. Although liver disease stage restrictions for treatment access are being removed globally,²²⁻²⁴ liver assessment is important to inform treatment duration for some regimens and for monitoring patients with cirrhosis.²⁵⁻²⁷ A lack of access to liver disease assessment, however, should not be considered a barrier and treatment should be provided to all. The integration of noninvasive liver assessment into a 30-minute visit in the primary care setting would require the development of an as yet unavailable, rapid, point-of-care (POC) test to measure aspartate aminotransferase and platelet count to calculate the aspartate aminotransferase to platelet ratio index^{28–31} or a transient elastography machine, such as the Fibroscan,³² that is markedly more affordable than current options (Fig. 2B). The integration of liver assessment into a single 2-hour visit in a tertiary health care setting and centralized laboratory, however, is entirely feasible using current laboratory-based technologies (Fig. 2C).



B POC HCV diagnosis and rapid liver staging, in primary care settings



C POC HCV diagnosis and routine liver staging, in tertiary care settings

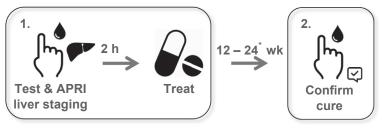


Fig. 2. "Test and treat models" for health care settings. (A) A simple point-of-care (POC) "test and treat" using standardized 12 week treatment for hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection, regardless of liver disease staging. (B) POC HCV diagnosis and rapid liver staging, and 12 to 24 weeks of treatment in primary care settings. (C) POC HCV diagnosis and routine liver testing, in tertiary care settings where (*asterisk*) the duration of treatment could be extended to 24 weeks, if required, when liver test results are available by the patient's next visit for drug refill.

INCREASING ACCESS TO EXISTING HEPATITIS C VIRUS DIAGNOSTICS IS A PUBLIC HEALTH PRIORITY

The world now eagerly awaits the "holy grail" for HCV POC diagnosis—an accurate, simple, rapid, and affordable diagnosis of active HCV infection in a single visit. In the meantime, national programs should develop and prioritize new approaches to scale-up access to existing diagnostic assays, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), which account for approximately 80% of the global burden.⁷ Many opportunities exist that may provide solutions to optimize diagnostic and treatment networks and increase the market attractiveness of existing HCV diagnostic technologies to make testing more affordable. Efforts to accurately define the local epidemic, provide access to globally representative validation data for quality

assured diagnostics, streamline national regulatory and registration processes, demonstrate real-world demand to support business cases, and facilitate the procurement of affordable products are all required.

Supporting Efforts to Define the Local Hepatitis C Virus Epidemic to Design Comprehensive Testing Strategies

The design and development of a cost-effective, evidence-based national HCV testing strategy is extremely complex and many countries will likely require support to navigate this process to meet elimination targets. The first step, predicated on national stakeholders having an understanding of the local key affected populations and drivers of transmission, is of course impossible without access to quality assured, high-performing assays and well-established testing services (Fig. 3A). This foundation is missing in a large number of countries and must be conducted in close consultation with community groups to gain acceptance and participation as well as a comprehensive understanding of the local context and the needs of those affected. Innovative funding mechanisms to support national surveillance studies that generate preliminary in-country estimates, such as the generic protocol developed by WHO³³ and develop strong laboratory networks, should be further explored. Additionally, the development of an expert panel to provide guidance to local nongovernmental organizations, ministries, and implementers to appropriately design and interpret small epidemiologic studies could help to build local capacity and expedite the generation of this needed data. Such input could also be linked to an open access database where survey data meeting objective standards could be deposited for further public dissemination, for program planning, research, and market intelligence purposes, among others.

Collectively, access to such epidemiologic information may be further leveraged in combination with the establishment of open access resources that help to identify the ideal diagnostic algorithm for each setting. For example, a practical on-line tool that incorporates local data, including estimated HCV prevalence, key affected populations, geographically relevant assay performance, local product availability, and cost, could build on existing models^{34,35} to help national stakeholders identify optimal, cost-effective diagnostic algorithms.³⁶ Such a model could assess whether there are

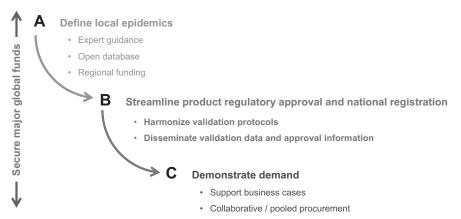


Fig. 3. Opportunities to help increase the market attractiveness of existing diagnostics including (*A*) providing support to define local epidemics and harmonizing validation data, (*B*) streamlining approval and registration, and (*C*) demonstrating real-world demand.

settings in which 1-step diagnosis of active infection, using a particular product, would be a more feasible and impactful approach to reduce transmissions or decrease the burden of disease among a key population.

Streamlining Transparent Processes to Expedite and Encourage Assay Approval and Registration

As a high-risk in vitro diagnostic (IVD), meaning that inaccurate results pose a high risk to public safety, an HCV screening or diagnostic assay undergoes rigorous assessment during review by stringent regulatory authorities (SRA), including members and observers of the International Medical Device Regulators Forum (IMRDF) ICH, or regulatory bodies associated with an ICH member of the International Council for Harmonization (ICH),³⁷ present in Australia, Canada, Europe, Japan, Iceland, Leichtenstien, Norway, and the United States. Comprehensive assessment includes a review of a significant body of evidence of diagnostic performance in clinical samples from the population in which the IVD is intended to be used, independent laboratory evaluation of the product, as well as a site inspection to assess compliance with good manufacturing practice, in some jurisdictions. Although data supporting US Food and Drug Administration registration³⁸ and World Health Organization (WHO) prequalification³⁹ is available through their websites, access to the European Databank on Medical Devices is currently restricted to competent national authorities, creating an unintended barrier to rapid identification of CE-IVD marked assays. It is, therefore, important that validation data from these SRAs be made widely available. It should be noted, however, that the studies supporting the SRAs are generally restricted to laboratory settings and may have limited applicability to other populations, particularly with respect to genotypes 4, 5, and 6⁴⁰ and coinfection with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), or real-world field use.

Therefore, to facilitate the uptake of quality-assured and accurate testing products in all countries, collaborative efforts are needed to not only undertake regionally representative clinical validation studies, and share validation data through novel mechanisms and systematic reviews,⁴¹⁻⁴³ but also to establish cohesive international standards⁴⁴ (Fig. 3B). Although significant inroads have been made through the WHO Prequalification Programme,⁴⁵ which assesses the quality of IVDs specifically for use in more resource-limited settings, and the likely inclusion of HCV assays on the Essential Diagnostics List⁴⁶ is laudable, additional mechanisms to expedite and harmonize national assay approval and registration are required. Initiatives such as the POC Early Infant Diagnosis Consortium, in which multicountry data are pooled to accelerate evaluations, may have wider applicability to fill this need.47,48 The WHO technical Guidance Series,⁴⁹ intended for manufacturers, provide a framework for national laboratories to design and conduct local validation studies and are valuable resources. However, simple guidance documents on how to generate reliable population-specific in-country HCV diagnostic validation data, similar to the generic protocols produced by the International Diagnostic Centre (London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine⁵⁰) for CD4, HIV viral load, and so on, would also be valuable. Additionally, the development of an open access database of existing real-world performance data collected from peer-reviewed publications, as well as unpublished and government-led studies could increase access to existing validation data. Although this approach would require significant engagement with each country and a large investment of time to ensure data quality, it could be an important step toward improving transparency and increasing access to known high-performing tests. Greater visibility into clinical accuracy might help to consolidate the market around a handful of high-performing HCV screening and diagnostic tests, more akin to the

scenario for HIV, rather than the current situation for HCV in which dozens of different tests can be found within an individual country and even greater variability may be seen across a region. Furthermore, the generation of and access to more diverse local performance data may also help to inform the selection of products that are not yet SRA approved, but perform well. When combined, these collaborative, open access processes may provide new opportunities to increase education and awareness of the significant risks associated with purchasing cheaper products of unassured quality and performance from manufacturers other than those indicated on a list of approved assays.

Last, for those companies interested in marketing their product in geographies with an SRA, the approval pathway may be relatively clear, albeit associated with significant costs. However, if a country with an SRA does not mandate that a test, or a sample type for that test, be approved before clinical implementation, this may further reduce the incentive for companies to pursue SRA review and inadvertently lead to the restricted use of key diagnostics. For instance, dried blood spots (DBS) could be an important method of collecting, storing, and transporting samples to centralized facilities. The expedited approval of DBS as an alternative sample type to diagnose and manage HCV infection using existing approved assays that already have DBS-adapted protocols, such as the Abbott RealTime HCV Viral Load assay (Abbott Diagnostics, Abbott Park, IL), Aptima HCV Quant Dx assay (Hologic Inc, Danbury, CT), and COBAS Ampli-Prep/COBAS TaqManHCV Test (Roche Molecular Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland), would be likely to make significant global impact on rates of HCV diagnosis in both higher income countries and LMICs.^{43,51} For companies whose target HCV testing market is restricted to LMICs, the need for SRA approval is often less clear and countryspecific validation, registration, and approval processes may be vague.⁵² Unfortunately, national registration in many LMIC may depend on existing and often unreliable package insert data as the sole source of test performance information. Alternatively, countries may require duplicative local assay validation, adding further costs and delays in implementation. Although products that have not pursued SRA approval or WHO prequalification may be considerably less expensive than products that have, their performance often cannot be guaranteed. Because inaccurate diagnostic results can significantly compromise both public health outcomes and individual patient management, the temptation to procure unapproved or unqualified tests by LMIC must be avoided. LMICs could consider requiring SRA approval or meeting diagnostic accuracy specifications through independent externally generated data as part of the national registration or tendering process to ensure implementation of high-quality products.

Demonstrating Real-World Demand to Support Business Cases to Pursue Approval and Registration of Existing Assays

A greater understanding of the demand for HCV diagnostics among LMICs and higher income countries is urgently required to develop strong business cases that justify the investment in the approval, registration, and marketing of existing assays (**Fig. 3C**). Further clarity around the real-world market could be developed through strong partnerships between community, academics, clinicians, national stakeholders, nongovernmental organizations, and industry. As countries develop national strategic plans and individual stakeholders, such as ministries of health, nongovernmental organizations, and community groups, embark on testing and treatment programs, a forum to share indicative volumes with industry may be helpful. The cost of testing continues to be a key barrier to designing optimal testing programs and opportunities for more transparent and deconstructed pricing structures from manufacturers and service providers are clearly needed.⁵³

A range of local and collaborative regional testing efforts that may lead to higher volume and more predictable demand estimates for specific HCV diagnostic assays should be explored to achieve more competitive pricing. Pricing currently varies greatly between countries, so increased transparency could also enable individual countries to have stronger negotiation power. One approach is to use a coordinated regional forecast that allows suppliers to provide more indicative pricing linked to volumes, while still allowing procurement to be managed through each individual country. Alternatively, more regionally collaborative approaches could be considered to leverage increased volumes for improved bargaining power to achieve lower pricing: (1) pooled procurement among multiple countries is an option, but would need to balance country sovereignty during the process, or (2) external pooled purchasing through a third party is a possibility for negotiation of a more comprehensive volume guarantee based on regional estimates from multiple stakeholders, such as the notfor-profit Global Procurement Fund.⁵⁴ Last, LMICs should also consider negotiating with diagnostic companies that already offer testing across multiple diseases to provide options for bundle pricing across the test menu to reach threshold volumes for discount pricing, as well as to negotiate alternative procurement models for equipment acquisition, for example, reagent rental.

Each of these mechanisms can be further enhanced by strong patient advocacy to convince companies of the value of investment and to urge governments, funders, and stakeholders to ensure public HCV services are routinely available, accessible, and affordable. For patients, peers and communities to be empowered to have sustainable impact, support materials and education are needed.⁵⁵

COMPLEMENTARY, CENTRALIZED LABORATORIES AND POINT-OF-CARE TESTING SERVICES ARE NEEDED TO INCREASE ACCESS TO CARE FOR ALL

In addition to addressing barriers of limited education, awareness, and health equity, as well as the high stigma and discrimination in ensuring access to HCV care, welldesigned testing networks of existing HCV diagnostic tools are needed.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ The elimination of HCV will likely require both centralized laboratories and decentralized POC testing services at community clinics. No single product or testing mechanism is likely to reach all populations affected (Fig. 4A). In addition to patient management, centralized testing is critical for regional surveillance programs to monitor progress toward elimination goals.⁷ Likewise, as decentralized testing is expanded, countries should also prospectively ensure that data are linked centrally for both surveillance and quality control purposes. Centralized testing also clearly provides advantages in economies of scale, oversight for quality assurance, and data management. Systematic assessment of existing national laboratory testing services (eg, WHO Global Laboratory Initiative and African Society for Laboratory Medicine⁵⁹), provides countries the opportunity to design improved diagnostic networks and data connectivity. The existing investment in centralized facilities can and should be leveraged to provide efficient and affordable multidisease services.60-62 New mechanisms to invest in integrated health care systems that address the practical constraints of vertical, disease-specific funding, which can inadvertently limit access to existing infrastructure and equipment, requires strong collaborative commitment from national stakeholders and global funders.⁶⁰

Decentralized Testing Strategies Are Required to Improve Equitable Access to Hepatitis C Virus Diagnostics for Many Communities

Although providing distinct advantages, centralized testing depends heavily on strong sample transport and result delivery networks, and can delay the time to result. This

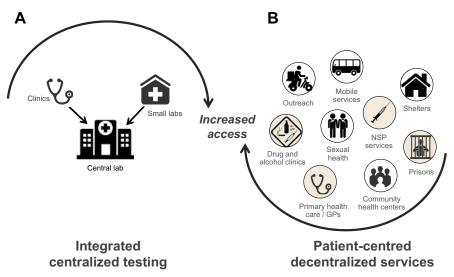


Fig. 4. hepatitis C virus (HCV) testing models at both (*A*) integrated centralized, tertiary or district laboratories and (*B*) patient-centered decentralized primary health care services are required for global elimination. GPs, general practitioners; NSP, needle/syringe program.

increase in time consequently increases the number of patient visits and likewise the risk of patient loss along the care cascade. Patient-centered, decentralized testing strategies that empower the patient to control their health care are likely to further reduce the health disparity among communities disproportionately affected by HCV and increase access to HCV diagnosis and care. Decentralized testing services must be adapted to suit a broad range of key affected communities living in urban, regional, rural, and remote settings (**Fig. 4B**). Task-shifting in these services that allows health care and peer support workers to expand the availability of testing will be critical to scale-up HCV diagnosis.^{63–66} Patient-centered approaches embedded within existing services, such as primary care clinics,^{67–69} services for the homeless community,⁷⁰ men who have sex with men,⁷¹ sex workers,⁷² correctional facilities,^{73,74} specialist drug services,^{75–77} and needle and syringe programs,^{78,79} among others, have clearly demonstrated improved access to key populations who may otherwise not be reachable by centralized services.

Several sampling techniques, including oral fluid or fingerstick capillary blood, can facilitate the decentralization of diagnostics.^{80–82} Fingerstick capillary blood provides a particularly important sample collection method among many people who inject drugs, for whom poor past health care experiences when accessing veins for standard phlebotomy can remain a huge barrier.⁸³ Capillary blood from a fingerstick can be also collected onto filter paper as a DBS, as a strategy to increase access to centralized HCV testing among people who inject drugs or those in rural or remote populations.^{51,84–86} Studies are underway in the Netherlands⁸⁷ and Australia (NCT02102451) to assess the potential for self-collected DBS samples as a tool to increase screening, confirm cure, and help monitor reinfection.⁸⁸ among those at risk. Sample collection by finger prick in these settings also provides a unique opportunity for POC HCV RNA testing to provide an immediate result and treatment to the patient.^{89,90} Existing near-POC/POC platforms, for example, the CE-marked GeneXpert or Genedrive HCV RNA assays, currently require plasma or serum, but

their rational placement and availability could assist to make faster diagnosis more widely available to ensure better testing coverage and promote improved linkage to follow-up services.

GLOBAL EFFORTS TO FIND THE HOLY GRAIL: THE SEARCH FOR A POINT-OF-CARE HEPATITIS C VIRUS DIAGNOSTIC FOR ACTIVE HEPATITIS C VIRUS INFECTION MUST CONTINUE

Detection of the Hepatitis C Virus Is the Only Test Required to Confirm Active Infection

HCV diagnosis of active infection through direct detection of the HCV virus is the only test required for patient treatment and care. Despite this, HCV is currently diagnosed in 2 steps: first through the detection of HCV antibodies (anti-HCV) using either centralized laboratory tests or rapid diagnostic tests to determine exposure to the virus^{25–27}; and, second, among those who are anti-HCV positive, active HCV infection is confirmed by nucleic acid testing (NAT) or HCV core antigen (HCVcAg) detection.⁹¹ The need for anti-HCV screening followed by HCV RNA and/or HCVcAg testing is entirely driven by the relative costs of each test. As a result, this 2-step diagnostic algorithm is likely to continue until the costs of HCV RNA or HCVcAg tests are significantly reduced. Although anti-HCV rapid diagnostic tests are easy to use and currently provide an affordable screening strategy in many settings, 78,82,92 multiple studies have demonstrated that up to 25% to 50% of people who are anti-HCV positive fail to return for follow-up NAT to diagnose active infection.93-95 Concerns also remain around the sensitivity of the anti-HCV assays, particularly in the presence of HIV or hepatitis B coinfection, in other immunocompromised patients, or owing to other poorly understood regional differences in assay performance, although current data remain limited.^{96,97} Although reflex testing, in which anti-HCV antibody-positive samples are automatically referred to undergo HCV RNA testing without the need for a separate sample collection visit, has been rolled out in the United States and the UK, limited data are available to demonstrate an impact on improving the retention of people in care and increasing cure in the era of DAA therapy.^{98,99} Furthermore, this strategy still relies on centralized testing and, therefore, diagnosis cannot be accomplished in a single visit. Modeling data clearly demonstrate that a shift to a 1-step diagnosis of active HCV infection, without HCV antibody screening, is central to achieving HCV elimination goals.¹⁰⁰

The Holy Grail Point-of-Care Diagnostic Assay for Active Hepatitis C Virus Infection That Links All People with Hepatitis C Infection to Immediate Care Is Essential to Achieve Global Elimination

To eliminate HCV by 2030 as a public health concern, HCV care will need to be simplified to "test and treat" for all. In the perfect world, simple "test and treat" facilities would be embedded within existing decentralized community services to enable the diagnosis of millions of people with HCV infection and link them immediately into care. The holy grail diagnostic assay would enable a person to walk into a local community health care center without stigma, provide a simple sample, receive their diagnosis of active HCV infection, and start treatment immediately—all in a single visit in under 30 minutes (**Fig. 5**). Patients would then return to the center to confirm cure. Those with advanced liver disease and/or those who are at risk of reexposure would revisit the center for continued monitoring and care. Alternatively, more regular selftesting could occur at home to screen for reinfection. In this ideal setting, the diagnostic assay would test for active infection and require only a finger prick capillary blood sample or self-collected oral fluid to be loaded directly onto the platform by

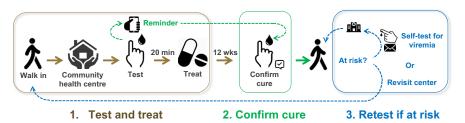


Fig. 5. The holy grail: a point-of-care test for active hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection. (1) Walk into a community health care center to complete a rapid test to diagnose active HCV infection and received standard duration treatment. (2) Receive a reminder to return to the center for a second test to confirm cure. (3) If patient feels at risk of reexposure to the virus, they either return to the center to retest for HCV infection, or complete a self-test for viremia (eg, via a rapid home test for active infection or a self-collected dried blood spot posted to a central laboratory).

any health care worker or the patient themselves. The results would be available in 20 minutes and be simple to interpret accurately. Although the platform would ideally be instrument free, a small handheld device or a small, portable instrument may also be fit for this purpose. Any power required by the device would be provided by a long-life, solar-powered, rechargeable battery. If performed using a smart phone or small instrument, the platform would have the capacity to capture and, where connectivity was available, automatically transmit data to facilitate data collection and surveillance reporting. For platforms with this connectivity, the assay could automatically link the patient to their preferred notification tool as a reminder to complete a posttreatment follow-up visit to confirm cure and assist continuity of care. This follow-up visit could occur either at the clinic or through a self-testing option as preferred. Although likely unachievable, the perfect assay that would allow global scale access to POC diagnosis of active infection would cost less than \$US5 per test (includes reagent cost only, at scale, ex-works), although consensus on this remains controversial.¹⁰¹

Several Existing Assays and Point-of-Care Platforms Could Be Readily Adapted to Diagnose Active Hepatitis C Virus Infection

Unlike the saturated market for anti-HCV rapid diagnostic tests, ^{102,103} the GeneXpert HCV Viral Load test (Cepheid, Sunnyvale, CA) and the Genedrive HCV IVD kit (Genedrive Diagnostics, Manchester, UK) are the only SRA-approved near-POC, plasmabased assays that detect active HCV infection. Cepheid is currently the only supplier in LMIC of a multianalyte, integrated platform that uses single-use cartridges to extract, amplify, and detect the presence of HCV by fluorescent reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (PCR).^{89,104,105} However, there are several similar nucleic acid platforms that also use PCR amplification and fluorescent detection that are in development, for example, the TrueNAT Chip-based Real-Time micro PCR test (Diagnostics Molbio Pvt Ltf, Goa, India), or could be adapted to diagnose HCV from existing systems, such as the Enigma Minilab (Enigma Diagnostics Ltd., San Diego, CA)¹⁰⁶ and DxNA GeneSTAT System (DxNA LLC, St George, UT). Likewise, several simplified platforms that use alternative amplification technologies, such as reverse transcriptase loop-mediated isothermal amplification, also have commercially-available assays for other viral infections including the Alere i and Alere g for HIV 1/2 Early Infant Diagnosis (Abbott Diagnostics).^{107–109} The isothermal reaction within reverse transcriptase loop-mediated isothermal amplification reduces time to result, minimizes platform

complexity, and is amenable to a visual result.¹¹⁰ The addition of HCV assays to already approved molecular POC platforms would greatly improve competition in the field and help to reduce prices, likely in a more expedient fashion than the launch of a new product platform. In addition, the development of a true POC NAT that diagnoses active HCV infection from finger stick whole blood outside of a laboratory setting is still yet to be realized.

In addition to NAT, a considerable amount of evidence has been generated to support the clinical utility of the HCVcAg in plasma as a marker of active infection. HCVcAg is a viral protein released into the circulation during viral assembly and offers a potentially more stable, alternative marker to HCV RNA for diagnosis of active infection. Currently, there is only 1 CE-IVD marked test for the quantification of HCVcAg in plasma samples for HCV diagnosis and treatment monitoring: the Architect HCV Ag performed on the ARCHITECT Immunoassay Analyser (Abbott Diagnostics) is suitable for centralized testing facilities. Unfortunately, access to the ARCHITECT remains limited in many settings. Therefore, because the instrument footprint for PCR often already exists and the bundled pricing of HCV RNA tests continues to be reduced in LMIC (US\$14-\$25), NAT is likely to continue to be a more affordable option for LMIC, at least in the short term. However, centralized HCVcAg testing may provide a more affordable option for middle-income countries where platforms are already in use and upfront investment is not required.^{42,111–114} More recent efforts, including by the Center for Innovation in Global Health Technologies (Northwestern University), Abbott Diagnostics, and Qoo Labs (San Diego, CA) have focused on adapting the immunoassay detection of the HCVcAg into a rapid diagnostic lateral flow test, although these platforms are often challenging¹¹⁵ and are still in early stages of prototype development.¹¹⁶

New Classes of Technologies May Transform the Hepatitis C Virus Point-of-Care Landscape in the Next Decade

Although very few new classes of POC diagnostics have come to the market in recent years,¹¹⁷ the world can expect the arrival of transformational technologies in the next few years. Fundamental advances in each diagnostic assay component are underway, including new assay chemistries and nanotechnologies to improve sample capture and detection, and novel materials and microfluidics to allow miniaturization.¹¹⁸⁻¹²⁰ Smart phone-assisted diagnosis of infection, through either the adaptation of reading devices or addition of biosensing platforms to a mobile device, are also on the horizon and promise to improve access to testing, including in rural and remote communities.^{121,122} Investments to maximize smart phone diagnostic innovations may provide opportunities to improve health care more broadly, including improved surveillance data collection in remote and resource-limited settings, increased telehealth capacity, and the ability to more easily implement interventions to enhance linkage to care.¹²³ The availability of new materials and innovative solutions such as 3-dimensional printing are also likely to further reduce costs and facilitate the scaleup of many of these technologies.^{124,125} Although many of these new classes of diagnostic tools have been developed for other viral infections, such as HIV or Zika, these advances can undoubtedly be quickly translated to HCV diagnosis and management if there is commitment.

Mechanisms to Further Stimulate Investment in the Development of Novel Diagnostics Suitable for Resource Limited Settings Are Essential

Although promising new, transformational diagnostic technologies are on the horizon, novel mechanisms to decrease costs and risks to further stimulate investment in

research and development are needed.^{126,127} Although the diagnostic development pathway is relatively low cost and low risk when compared with drug development, the successful penetration of a new diagnostic assay into the market can take at least 7 years and needs to overcome 2 "valleys of death" before launch.^{128,129} There can also be an overwhelming lack of interest to develop diagnostic assays suitable for LMIC where the market has not been strongly developed, despite potentially high volumes. Considering that 80% of those with chronic HCV infection live in LMIC, it is imperative to find new funding models to accelerate the development of commercially viable, fit-for-purpose assays for LMIC if elimination goals of HCV are to be achieved.

Several approaches may be considered to decrease the cost and risk associated with investing in a diagnostic product (Fig. 6). Diagnostic companies could reassess the unmet need and business advantages of focusing on the development of assays for multiple diseases on integrated, single platforms to improve efficiencies and increase profits. Another strategy may be to implement differential pricing that allows the sale of premium priced assays within high-income countries to support the sale of reduced priced assays in LMICs. Although there are not many examples of this previously being successful, the fact that POC/1-step diagnosis of HCV is applicable in both higher income countries and LMIC settings may present a unique situation where the same product can be viable in both markets. Another possibility would be for drug and diagnostic companies to find synergy: although, at least in theory, it would seem to be in the interests of drug companies to invest in companion diagnostics that identify those in need of their treatment, unfortunately, the profit margins remain concentrated in high-income countries so there is currently little incentive for originator drug companies to invest in affordable diagnostics suitable for LMICs. More recently, generic drug companies are exploring partnerships with diagnostic suppliers or developing companion diagnostics to offer bundled pricing and bridge the diagnosis-totreatment gap in LMICs.⁵⁵ However, considering the potential for this approach to introduce product monopolies where a diagnosis may only be offered in concert with a single drug supplier, this strategy would need to be assessed, regulated, and

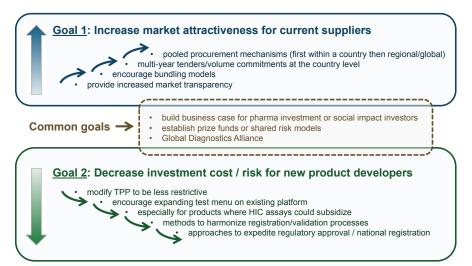


Fig. 6. Approaches to decrease investment cost and risks to stimulate investment in research and development of diagnostics suitable for low- to middle-income countries. HIC, higher income countries; TPP, target product profile.

monitored carefully. Diagnostic companies can also be constrained by current treatment guidelines,^{25,27,130} which define strict lower limits of quantitation to guide patient management. These guidelines are based on currently available analytical thresholds for HCV RNA assays rather than the real-world clinical sensitivity required for effective patient management.¹³¹ Because analytical HCV RNA thresholds are likely considerably lower than clinically relevant thresholds, a global systematic review of the distribution of HCV RNA among real-world cohorts has been commissioned by FIND and WHO to help define the lower qualitative HCV RNA thresholds required for effective patient management and update current target product profiles for new qualitative nucleic acid diagnostics.¹⁰¹ Although ensuring testing guidelines keep pace in a rapidly changing therapeutic environment can be challenging, this strategy to review analytical and clinical requirements may help to further encourage industry to invest in the development of simple and affordable diagnostic solutions.

Last, innovative funding mechanisms to drive program scale up are needed. Proposals such as the Global Alliance for Medical Diagnostics Initiative could prove valuable, but will require significant funding commitments and careful management around governance, independence and conflict of interests.¹³² Recent initiatives such as the Stop TB Partnership "Venture Lab" (vLab) provide examples of how private–public partnerships may be able to accelerate and scale up diagnostics.¹³³ Innovative approaches to provide needed initial funding to galvanize large-scale national public health HCV programs as well advocacy to global donors, such as PEPFAR and the Global Fund, to support diagnosis and treatment of HCV will be key. Commitments from these funders would send very powerful signals to suppliers that a viable market is achievable.

SUMMARY: REMAINING CHALLENGES FOR GLOBAL ACCESS TO HEPATITIS C VIRUS DIAGNOSTICS

It is time the world took HCV diagnostics seriously. Wide-spread diagnosis of HCV is essential to achieve global elimination and increasing access is now a public health priority. The global community must come together to collectively support efforts to develop testing strategies that are patient-centric, expedite assay registration, reduce costs, and generate the demand required for businesses to invest in wide-scale roll out of existing products. No one diagnostic solution will fit all purposes, but the global community must invest in partnerships that facilitate the development and introduction of the holy grail POC HCV diagnostic test to ensure finding the missing millions in need of curative treatment.

REFERENCES

- 1. World Health Organization (WHO). Global health sector strategy, 2016-2021. Available at: http://www.who.int/hepatitis/strategy2016-2021/ghss-hep/en/. Accessed November 20, 2016.
- D'Ambrosio R, Degasperi E, Colombo M, et al. Direct-acting antivirals: the endgame for hepatitis C? Curr Opin Virol 2017;24:31–7.
- **3.** Polaris Observatory Collaborators. Global prevalence and genotype distribution of hepatitis C virus infection in 2015: a modelling study. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017;2(3):161–76.
- 4. Manns MP, Buti M, Gane E, et al. Hepatitis C virus infection. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2017;3:17006.
- 5. Lanini S, Easterbrook PJ, Zumla A, et al. Global epidemiology and strategies for control. Clin Microbiol Infect 2016;22(10):833–8.

- 6. Stanaway JD, Flaxman AD, Naghavi M, et al. The global burden of viral hepatitis from 1990 to 2013: findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. Lancet 2016;388(10049):1081–8.
- 7. World Health Organization (WHO). Global Hepatitis Report 2017. Available at: http://www.who.int/hepatitis/publications/global-hepatitis-report2017/en/. Accessed June 14, 2017.
- 8. Easterbrook PJ. Who to test and how to test for chronic hepatitis C infection 2016 WHO testing guidance for low- and middle-income countries. J Hepatol 2016;65(1 Suppl):S46–66.
- 9. Dore GJ, Feld JJ. Hepatitis C virus therapeutic development: in pursuit of "perfectovir". Clin Infect Dis 2015;60(12):1829–36.
- UNITAID. Technology and market landscape: hepatitis C medicines August 2017. Available at: https://unitaid.eu/assets/HCV-Medicines-Landscape_Aug-2017.pdf. Accessed September 16, 2017.
- 11. Jakobsen JC, Nielsen EE, Feinberg J, et al. Direct-acting antivirals for chronic hepatitis C. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2017;(9):CD012143.
- MSF. MSF Access campaign. Putting HIV and HCV to the test: a product guide for point-of-care CD4 and laboratory-based and point-of-care virological HIV and HCV tests. 2017. Available at: https://www.msfaccess.org/PHHT2017. Accessed August 25, 2017.
- Grebely J, Applegate TL, Cunningham P, et al. Hepatitis C point-of-care diagnostics: in search of a single visit diagnosis. Expert Rev Mol Diagn 2017; 17(12):1109–15.
- Ford N, Swan T, Beyer P, et al. Simplification of antiviral hepatitis C virus therapy to support expanded access in resource-limited settings. J Hepatol 2014; 61(1 Suppl):S132–8.
- Cohn J, Roberts T, Amorosa V, et al. Simplified diagnostic monitoring for hepatitis C, in the new era of direct-acting antiviral treatment. Curr Opin HIV AIDS 2015;10(5):369–73.
- 16. Wiesmann F, Braun P. Significance of HCV RNA monitoring in the era of new potent therapies. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 2016;14(9):837–44.
- Hezode C. Pan-genotypic treatment regimens for hepatitis C virus: advantages and disadvantages in high- and low-income regions. J Viral Hepat 2017;24(2): 92–101.
- 18. Maasoumy B, Vermehren J. Diagnostics in hepatitis C: the end of responseguided therapy? J Hepatol 2016;65(1 Suppl):S67–81.
- MSF. MSF Access Campaign. Not even close. Issue brief 2017. 2017. Available at: https://www.msfaccess.org/hep-c-not-even-close. Accessed January 27, 2018.
- Juanbeltz R, Goni Esarte S, Uriz-Otano JI, et al. Safety of oral direct acting antiviral regimens for chronic hepatitis C in real life conditions. Postgrad Med 2017; 129(4):476–83.
- 21. University of Liverpool. HEP drug interactions. Available at: http://www.hepdruginteractions.org. Accessed October 14, 2017.
- 22. Kondili LA, Romano F, Rolli FR, et al. Modelling cost-effectiveness and health gains of a "universal" vs. "prioritized" HCV treatment policy in a real-life cohort. Hepatology 2017;66(6):1814–25.
- Ooka K, Connolly JJ, Lim JK. Medicaid reimbursement for oral direct antiviral agents for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C. Am J Gastroenterol 2017; 112(6):828–32.

- 24. Marshall AD, Cunningham EB, Nielsen S, et al. Restrictions for reimbursement of interferon-free direct-acting antiviral drugs for HCV infection in Europe. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2018;3(2):125–33.
- American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD)/Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA). HCV guidance: recommendations for testing, managing and treating hepatitis C. 2017. Available at: www.hcvguidelines.org. Accessed September 27, 2017.
- World Health Organization (WHO). WHO guidelines on hepatitis B and C testing. 2016. Available at: http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/251330. Accessed May 20, 2017.
- 27. European Association for the Study of the Liver. EASL Recommendations on Treatment of Hepatitis C 2016. J Hepatol 2016;66(1):153–94.
- 28. Lin ZH, Xin YN, Dong QJ, et al. Performance of the aspartate aminotransferaseto-platelet ratio index for the staging of hepatitis C-related fibrosis: an updated meta-analysis. Hepatology 2011;53(3):726–36.
- 29. Chou R, Wasson N. Blood tests to diagnose fibrosis or cirrhosis in patients with chronic hepatitis C virus infection. Ann Intern Med 2013;159(5):372.
- **30.** Houot M, Ngo Y, Munteanu M, et al. Systematic review with meta-analysis: direct comparisons of biomarkers for the diagnosis of fibrosis in chronic hepatitis C and B. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2016;43(1):16–29.
- Shiha G, Seif S, Eldesoky A, et al. A simple bedside blood test (Fibrofast; FIB-5) is superior to FIB-4 index for the differentiation between non-significant and significant fibrosis in patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatol Int 2017;11(3): 286–91.
- 32. Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technology in Health. Acoustic radiation force impulse imaging for diagnosis and monitoring of liver fibrosis in patients with hepatitis C: a review of diagnostic accuracy, clinical effectiveness, cost-effectiveness, and guidelines. Available at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmedhealth/PMH0087797/pdf/PubMedHealth_PMH0087797.pdf. Accessed May 21, 2017.
- **33.** Hutin Y, Low-Beer D, Bergeri I, et al. Viral Hepatitis Strategic Information to Achieve Elimination by 2030: Key Elements for HIV Program Managers. JMIR Public Health Surveill 2017;3(4):e91.
- Parry JV, Easterbrook P, Sands AR. One or two serological assay testing strategy for diagnosis of HBV and HCV infection? The use of predictive modelling. BMC Infect Dis 2017;17(Suppl 1):705.
- 35. Unitaid. Global cost-effectiveness of Hepatitis C treatment. Available at: http://tool.hepccalculator.org/. Accessed February 8, 2018.
- Morgan JR, Servidone M, Easterbrook P, et al. Economic evaluation of HCV testing approaches in low and middle income countries. BMC Infect Dis 2017; 17(Suppl 1):697.
- World Health Organization (WHO)/PQT: medicines. Clarification with respect to a stringent regulatory organization as applicable to the stringent regulatory authority (SRA) guideline. 2017. Available at: https://extranet.who.int/prequal/ sites/default/files/documents/75%20SRA%20clarification_February2017_0.pdf. Accessed February 2, 2018.
- US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Medical device database. 2018. Available at: https://www.fda.gov/MedicalDevices/DeviceRegulationandGuidance/ Databases/default.htm Accessed January 27, 2018.
- World Health Organization (WHO). Public reports of WHO prequalified IVDs. 2017. Available at: http://www.who.int/diagnostics_laboratory/evaluations/pqlist/hcv/public_report/en/. Accessed December 12 2017.

- 40. Asselah T, Hassanein T, Waked I, et al. Eliminating hepatitis C within low-income countries the need to cure genotypes 4, 5, 6. J Hepatol 2018;68(4):814–26.
- Khan H, Hill A, Main J, et al. Can hepatitis C virus antigen testing replace ribonucleic acid polymearse chain reaction analysis for detecting hepatitis C virus? A systematic review. Open Forum Infect Dis 2017;4(2):ofw252.
- 42. Freiman JM, Tran TM, Schumacher SG, et al. Hepatitis C core antigen testing for diagnosis of hepatitis C virus infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Intern Med 2016;165(5):345–55.
- **43.** Lange B, Cohn J, Roberts T, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of serological diagnosis of hepatitis C and B using dried blood spot samples (DBS): two systematic reviews and meta-analyses. BMC Infect Dis 2017;17(Suppl 1):700.
- 44. McNerney R, Sollis K, Peeling RW. Improving access to new diagnostics through harmonised regulation: priorities for action. Afr J Lab Med 2014;3(1): 123.
- 45. World Health Organization (WHO). Prequalification of in vitro diagnostics. Available at: http://www.who.int/diagnostics_laboratory/evaluations/en/. Accessed November 18, 2017.
- **46.** Schroeder LF, Guarner J, Elbireer A, et al. Time for a model list of essential diagnostics. N Engl J Med 2016;374(26):2511–4.
- Carmona P. Field performance of point-of-care HIV testing for early infant diagnosis: pooled analysis from six countries from the EID consortium. Poster presentation at the 21st International AIDS Conference, Durban, South Africa, July 18–22, 2016.
- Turunga E. Tracking manufacturer performance to ensure the uninterrupted provision of timely, high quality early infant HIV diagnosis test results. International AIDS Society (IAS) meeting satellite session. Paris, France, July 25, 2017.
- World Health Organization (WHO). WHO technical guidance series. 2017. Available at: http://www.who.int/diagnostics_laboratory/guidance/technical-specificationsseries/en/. Accessed October 20, 2017.
- London School of Health and Tropical Medicine. International Diagnostic Centre. London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. 2018. Available at: http://www. idc-dx.org/resources?keys=Generic+Protocol. Accessed January 27, 2018.
- Soulier A, Poiteau L, Rosa I, et al. Dried blood spots: a tool to ensure broad access to hepatitis C screening, diagnosis, and treatment monitoring. J Infect Dis 2016;213(7):1087–95.
- Morin S, Bazarova N, Jacon P, et al. The manufacturers' perspective on world health organization prequalification of in vitro diagnostics. Clin Infect Dis 2018;66(2):301–5.
- 53. Easterbrook PJ, Roberts T, Sands A, et al. Diagnosis of viral hepatitis. Curr Opin HIV AIDS 2017;12(3):302–14.
- 54. CDA Foundation. Global procurement fund. Available at: http://gprofund.org/. Accessed July 16, 2017.
- 55. World Community Advisory Board. Forging a path to elimination: simpler tests and affordable generics. Report of the World Community Advisory Board on HCV Generics and Diagnostics. Available http://www.treatmentactiongroup.org/sites/default/files/HCV%20World%20CAB%20Report_2017.pdf. Accessed December 15, 2017.
- **56.** Dowsett LE, Coward S, Lorenzetti DL, et al. Living with hepatitis C virus: a systematic review and narrative synthesis of qualitative literature. Can J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017;2017:3268650.

- 57. Treloar C, Rance J, Backmund M. Understanding barriers to hepatitis C virus care and stigmatization from a social perspective. Clin Infect Dis 2013; 57(Suppl 2):S51–5.
- 58. Nitsche B, Miller SC, Giorgio M, et al. Improving hepatitis C identification: technology alone is not the answer. Health Promot Pract 2017. [Epub ahead of print].
- World Health Organization (WHO). Global Laboratory Initiative. 2017. Available at: http://www.who.int/tb/areas-of-work/laboratory/gli/en/. Accessed December 12, 2017.
- 60. World Health Organization (WHO). Considerations for adoption and use of multidisease testing devices in integrated laboratory networks. Available at: http://apps. who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/255693/1/WHO-HTM-TB-2017.06-eng.pdf?ua51. Accessed October 17, 2017.
- The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2017. Technology offers creative strategies to prevent and treat HCV at scale. The Economy Newspaper Limited, 2017. London, United Kingdom. Available at: http://pathtozero.eiu. com/wp-content/uploads/sites/19/2017/07/Abbvie-Article-3-Technology-DV3. pdf. Accessed March 20, 2018.
- Unitaid. Multi-disease diagnostic landscape for integrated management of HIV, HCV, TB and other coinfections. Available at: https://www.ghdonline.org/ uploads/multi-disease-diagnostics-landscape-for-integrated-management-of-HIV-HCV-TB-and-other-coinfections-january-2018.pdf. Accessed January 7, 2018.
- **63.** Kattakuzhy S, Gross C, Emmanuel B, et al. Expansion of treatment for hepatitis C virus infection by task shifting to community-based nonspecialist providers: a nonrandomized clinical trial. Ann Intern Med 2017;167(5):311–8.
- 64. Mathur P, Comstock E, McSweegan E, et al. A pilot study to expand treatment of chronic hepatitis C in resource-limited settings. Antiviral Res 2017;146:184–90.
- **65.** Henderson C, Madden A, Kelsall J. 'Beyond the willing & the waiting' The role of peer-based approaches in hepatitis C diagnosis & treatment. Int J Drug Pol 2017;50:111–5.
- **66.** Yoo ER, Perumpail RB, Cholankeril G, et al. Expanding treatment access for chronic hepatitis C with task-shifting in the era of direct-acting antivirals. J Clin Transl Hepatol 2017;5(2):130–3.
- **67.** Bajis S, Dore GJ, Hajarizadeh B, et al. Interventions to enhance testing, linkage to care and treatment uptake for hepatitis C virus infection among people who inject drugs: a systematic review. Int J Drug Pol 2017;47:34–46.
- **68**. Wong K, Abdelqader A, Camire L, et al. A resident initiative improves hepatitis C screening rates in primary care clinics. J Grad Med Educ 2017;9(6):768–70.
- **69.** Al-Hihi E, Shankweiler C, Stricklen D, et al. Electronic medical record alert improves HCV testing for baby boomers in primary care setting: adults born during 1945-1965. BMJ Open Qual 2017;6(2):e000084.
- Morano JP, Zelenev A, Lombard A, et al. Strategies for hepatitis C testing and linkage to care for vulnerable populations: point-of-care and standard HCV testing in a mobile medical clinic. J Community Health 2014;39(5):922–34.
- 71. van Rooijen M, Heijman T, de Vrieze N, et al. Earlier detection of hepatitis C virus infection through routine hepatitis C virus antibody screening of human immuno-deficiency virus-positive men who have sex with men attending a sexually transmitted infection outpatient clinic: a longitudinal study. Sex Transm Dis 2016; 43(9):560–5.
- 72. Saludes V, Folch C, Morales-Carmona A, et al. Community-based screening of hepatitis C with a one-step RNA detection algorithm from dried-blood spots:

analysis of key populations in Barcelona, Spain. J Viral Hepat 2018;25(3): 236-44.

- Beckwith CG, Kurth AE, Bazerman LB, et al. A pilot study of rapid hepatitis C virus testing in the Rhode Island Department of Corrections. J Public Health (Oxf) 2016;38(1):130–7.
- 74. Schoenbachler BT, Smith BD, Sena AC, et al. Hepatitis C virus testing and linkage to care in North Carolina and South Carolina Jails, 2012-2014. Public Health Rep 2016;131(Suppl 2):98–104.
- **75.** McAllister G, Innes H, McLeod A, et al. Uptake of hepatitis C specialist services and treatment following diagnosis by dried blood spot in Scotland. J Clin Virol 2014;61(3):359–64.
- **76.** Read P, Lothian R, Chronister K, et al. Delivering direct acting antiviral therapy for hepatitis C to highly marginalised and current drug injecting populations in a targeted primary health care setting. Int J Drug Pol 2017;47:209–15.
- 77. Bregenzer A, Conen A, Knuchel J, et al. Management of hepatitis C in decentralised versus centralised drug substitution programmes and minimally invasive point-of-care tests to close gaps in the HCV cascade. Swiss Med Wkly 2017;147:w14544.
- **78.** Fernandez-Lopez L, Folch C, Majo X, et al. Implementation of rapid HIV and HCV testing within harm reduction programmes for people who inject drugs: a pilot study. AIDS Care 2016;28(6):712–6.
- Kaberg M, Hammarberg A, Lidman C, et al. Prevalence of hepatitis C and pretesting awareness of hepatitis C status in 1500 consecutive PWID participants at the Stockholm needle exchange program. Infect Dis (Lond) 2017;49(10): 728–36.
- **80.** Drobnik A, Judd C, Banach D, et al. Public health implications of rapid hepatitis C screening with an oral swab for community-based organizations serving high-risk populations. Am J Public Health 2011;101(11):2151–5.
- Comanescu C, Arama V, Grancea C, et al. The performance of a rapid test for anti-HCV screening in oral fluids. Roum Arch Microbiol Immunol 2015;74(1–2): 40–5.
- 82. Candfield S, Samuel MI, Ritchie D, et al. Use and acceptability of salivary hepatitis C virus testing in an English Young Offender Institution. Int J STD AIDS 2017;28(12):1234–8.
- 83. Bajis S, Lamoury F, Applegate T, et al. Acceptability of point of care finger-stick and venipuncture hepatitis C virus testing among people who inject drugs and homeless people. Poster presentation at the Australasian Viral Hepatitis Elimination Conference (AVHEC), Cairns, Australia, August 10–11, 2017.
- 84. Coats JT, Dillon JF. The effect of introducing point-of-care or dried blood spot analysis on the uptake of hepatitis C virus testing in high-risk populations: a systematic review of the literature. Int J Drug Pol 2015;26(11):1050–5.
- **85.** Greenman J, Roberts T, Cohn J, et al. Dried blood spot in the genotyping, quantification and storage of HCV RNA: a systematic literature review. J Viral Hepat 2015;22(4):353–61.
- Radley A, Melville K, Tait J, et al. A quasi-experimental evaluation of dried blood spot testing through community pharmacies in the Tayside region of Scotland. Frontline Gastroenterol 2017;8(3):221–8.
- Zurre F. Online-mediated HCV-RNA home-based testing to reduce incidence of hepatitis C virus infection among men who have sex with men in Amsterdam, The Netherlands – an initiative of the MC Free project. Poster 17A World Hepatitis

Summit 2017. Available at: http://www.worldhepatitissummit.org/docs/default-source/posters/17a_frekezuure.pdf?sfvrsn=2. Accessed January 29, 2018.

- **88.** Falade-Nwulia O, Sulkowski MS, Merkow A, et al. Understanding and addressing hepatitis C reinfection in the oral direct acting antiviral era. J Viral Hepat 2018;25(3):220–7.
- **89.** Grebely JL, Lamoury FMJ, Hajarizadeh B, et al. Evaluation of the Xpert HCV Viral Load point-of-care assay from venipuncture-collected and finger-stick capillary whole-blood samples: a cohort study. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017;2(7):514–20.
- 90. Lamoury FMJ, Bajis S, Hajarizadeh B, et al. Evaluation of the Xpert® HCV Viral Load Fingerstick point-of-care assay. The Journal of infectious diseases 2018, in Press
- Peeling RW, Boeras DI, Marinucci F, et al. The future of viral hepatitis testing: innovations in testing technologies and approaches. BMC Infect Dis 2017; 17(Suppl 1):699.
- Parisi MR, Soldini L, Vidoni G, et al. Point-of-care testing for HCV infection: recent advances and implications for alternative screening. New Microbiol 2014;37(4):449–57.
- **93.** Yehia BR, Schranz AJ, Umscheid CA, et al. The treatment cascade for chronic hepatitis C virus infection in the United States: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 2014;9(7):e101554.
- Patel RC, Vellozzi C, Smith BD. Results of hepatitis C birth-cohort testing and linkage to care in selected U.S. Sites, 2012-2014. Public Health Rep 2016; 131(Suppl 2):12–9.
- **95.** Spradling PR, Tong X, Rupp LB, et al. Trends in HCV RNA testing among HCV antibody-positive persons in care, 2003-2010. Clin Infect Dis 2014;59(7): 976–81.
- **96.** Kosack CS, Nick S. Evaluation of two rapid screening assays for detecting hepatitis C antibodies in resource-constrained settings. Trop Med Int Health 2016; 21(5):603–9.
- Barbosa JR, Colares JKB, Flores GL, et al. Performance of rapid diagnostic tests for detection of Hepatitis B and C markers in HIV infected patients. J Virol Methods 2017;248:244–9.
- **98.** Viner K, Kuncio D, Newbern EC, et al. The continuum of hepatitis C testing and care. Hepatology 2015;61(3):783–9.
- 99. Ireland G. Reflex RNA testing on hepatitis C antibody positive samples: is it being adopted? HepHIV 2017 abstract. 2017. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/313529792_Reflex_RNA_testing_on_hepatitis_C_antibody_positive_samples_is_it_being_adopted. Accessed November 12, 2017.
- 100. Scott N, Doyle JS, Wilson DP, et al. Reaching hepatitis C virus elimination targets requires health system interventions to enhance the care cascade. Int J Drug Pol 2017;47:107–16.
- 101. Ivanova Reipold E, Easterbrook P, Trianni A, et al. Optimising diagnosis of viraemic hepatitis C infection: the development of a target product profile. BMC Infect Dis 2017;17(Suppl 1):707.
- 102. Khuroo MS, Khuroo NS, Khuroo MS. Diagnostic accuracy of point-of-care tests for hepatitis C virus infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 2015;10(3):e0121450.
- 103. Tang W, Chen W, Amini A, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of tests to detect Hepatitis C antibody: a meta-analysis and review of the literature. BMC Infect Dis 2017; 17(Suppl 1):695.

- 104. McHugh MP, Wu AHB, Chevaliez S, et al. Multicenter evaluation of the Cepheid Xpert hepatitis C virus viral load assay. J Clin Microbiol 2017;55(5):1550–6.
- 105. Gupta E, Agarwala P, Kumar G, et al. Point -of -care testing (POCT) in molecular diagnostics: performance evaluation of GeneXpert HCV RNA test in diagnosing and monitoring of HCV infection. J Clin Virol 2017;88:46–51.
- 106. Douthwaite ST, Walker C, Adams EJ, et al. Performance of a novel point-of-care molecular assay for detection of influenza A and B viruses and respiratory syncytial virus (Enigma Minilab) in children with acute respiratory infection. J Clin Microbiol 2016;54(1):212–5.
- 107. Hsiao NY, Dunning L, Kroon M, et al. Laboratory evaluation of the Alere q pointof-care system for early infant HIV diagnosis. PLoS One 2016;11(3):e0152672.
- 108. Dunning L, Kroon M, Hsiao NY, et al. Field evaluation of HIV point-of-care testing for early infant diagnosis in Cape Town, South Africa. PLoS One 2017;12(12): e0189226.
- Chang M, Steinmetzer K, Raugi DN, et al. Detection and differentiation of HIV-2 using the point-of-care Alere q HIV-1/2 Detect nucleic acid test. J Clin Virol 2017; 97:22–5.
- 110. Tanner NA, Zhang Y, Evans TC Jr. Simultaneous multiple target detection in realtime loop-mediated isothermal amplification. Biotechniques 2012;53(2):81–9.
- 111. Lamoury FMJ, Soker A, Martinez D, et al. Hepatitis C virus core antigen: a simplified treatment monitoring tool, including for post-treatment relapse. J Clin Virol 2017;92:32–8.
- 112. Rockstroh JK, Feld JJ, Chevaliez S, et al. HCV core antigen as an alternate test to HCV RNA for assessment of virologic responses to all-oral, interferon-free treatment in HCV genotype 1 infected patients. J Virol Methods 2017;245:14–8.
- 113. Duchesne L, Njouom R, Lissock F, et al. HCV Ag quantification as a one-step procedure in diagnosing chronic hepatitis C infection in Cameroon: the ANRS 12336 study. J Int AIDS Soc 2017;20(1):1–8.
- 114. Mohamed Z, Mbwambo J, Shimakawa Y, et al. Clinical utility of HCV core antigen detection and quantification using serum samples and dried blood spots in people who inject drugs in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania. J Int AIDS Soc 2017; 20(1):21856.
- 115. Mohd Hanafiah K, Arifin N, Bustami Y, et al. Development of multiplexed infectious disease lateral flow assays: challenges and opportunities. Diagnostics (Basel) 2017;7(3) [pii:E51].
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Hepatitis C diagnostic summit. Atlanta (GA): 2016. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/hepatitis/resources/ mtgsconf/hepcdiagsummit2016.htm. Accessed January 28, 2018.
- 117. Nayak S, Blumenfeld NR, Laksanasopin T, et al. Point-of-care diagnostics: recent developments in a connected age. Anal Chem 2017;89(1):102–23.
- **118.** Zarei M. Advances in point-of-care technologies for molecular diagnostics. Biosens Bioelectron 2017;98:494–506.
- 119. Radin JM, Topol EJ, Andersen KG, et al. A laboratory in your pocket. Lancet 2016;388(10054):1875.
- 120. Romao VC, Martins SAM, Germano J, et al. Lab-on-chip devices: gaining ground losing size. ACS Nano 2017;11(11):10659–64.
- 121. Ganguli A, Ornob A, Yu H, et al. Hands-free smartphone-based diagnostics for simultaneous detection of Zika, Chikungunya, and Dengue at point-of-care. Biomed Microdevices 2017;19(4):73.
- 122. Chen W, Yu H, Sun F, et al. Mobile platform for multiplexed detection and differentiation of disease-specific nucleic acid sequences, using microfluidic loop-

mediated isothermal amplification and smartphone detection. Anal Chem 2017; 89(21):11219–26.

- 123. Zhu H, Sencan I, Wong J, et al. Cost-effective and rapid blood analysis on a cellphone. Lab A Chip 2013;13(7):1282–8.
- 124. Mulberry G, White KA, Vaidya M, et al. 3D printing and milling a real-time PCR device for infectious disease diagnostics. PLoS One 2017;12(6):e0179133.
- 125. Chan K, Wong PY, Parikh C, et al. Moving toward rapid and low-cost point-ofcare molecular diagnostics with a repurposed 3D printer and RPA. Anal Biochem 2018;545:4–12.
- 126. Engel N, Wachter K, Pai M, et al. Addressing the challenges of diagnostics demand and supply: insights from an online global health discussion platform. BMJ Glob Health 2016;1(4):e000132.
- 127. Pai NP, Vadnais C, Denkinger C, et al. Point-of-care testing for infectious diseases: diversity, complexity, and barriers in low- and middle-income countries. PLoS Med 2012;9(9):e1001306.
- 128. GBCHealth. Crossing the valleys of death in TB: from development to roll-out. 2017. Available at: http://gbchealth.org/crossing-the-valleys-of-death-in-tb-from-development-to-roll-out/. Accessed January 29, 2018.
- 129. FIND. Turning complex diagnostic challenges into simple solutions. Strategy 2015-2020. 2014. Available at: https://www.finddx.org/wp-content/uploads/ 2016/01/FIND_Strategy.pdf. Accessed December 12, 2017.
- 130. World Health Organization (WHO). Guidelines for the screening, care and treatment of persons with chronic hepatitis C infection. 2016. Available at: http:// apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/205035/1/9789241549615_eng.pdf?ua=1. Accessed December 12, 2017.
- 131. Chou R, Easterbrook P, Hellard M. Methodological challenges in appraising evidence on diagnostic testing for WHO guidelines on hepatitis B and hepatitis C virus infection. BMC Infect Dis 2017;17(Suppl 1):694.
- 132. Mugambi ML, Palamountain KM, Gallarda J, et al. Exploring the case for a global alliance for medical diagnostics initiative. Diagnostics (Basel) 2017;7(1) [pii:E8].
- 133. Stop TB Partnership. Stop TB Partnership and its partners "Unite to end TB" by launching a social impact fund and an accelerator for impact. 2016. Available at: http://www.stoptb.org/news/stories/2016/ns16_052.asp. Accessed October 17, 2017.