# **Research Article**

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.18203/2320-6012.ijrms20163143

# Prevalence of anti-hepatitis C virus antibodies among indoor patients and blood donors attending a tertiary care hospital in North India

Noor Jahan<sup>1</sup>\*, Vijay Gupta<sup>2</sup>, Mariyam Sana<sup>3</sup>, Sudhir Mehrotra<sup>4</sup>, Razia Khatoon<sup>5</sup>

**Received:** 22 August 2016 **Accepted:** 29 August 2016

# \*Correspondence:

Dr. Noor Jahan,

E-mail: drnoorj@rediffmail.com

**Copyright:** © the author(s), publisher and licensee Medip Academy. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License, which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

## **ABSTRACT**

**Background:** Hepatitis C virus (HCV) causes acute as well as chronic hepatitis such as cirrhosis of liver and hepatocellular carcinoma. The virus is mainly transmitted through blood and blood products. Hence, in order to provide safe blood supply testing of each blood unit for markers of HCV has been made mandatory. The infection is detected by the presence of anti-HCV antibody in the patient's serum. The objective of the present study was to determine the prevalence of anti-HCV antibodies among indoor patients and blood donors.

**Methods:** A hospital based cross-sectional study was done from January to June 2016. A total of 1991 subjects comprising of 1649 indoor patients and 342 blood donors were included in the study whose blood samples were screened for presence of anti-Hepatitis C antibody using rapid HCV TRI-DOT and HCV Microlisa.

**Results:** Out of 1649 indoor patients tested, 39 were found to be reactive, and out of 342 blood donors tested, 4 were found to be reactive, hence, the prevalence of anti-HCV antibody was found to be 2.4% among indoor patients and 1.2% among blood donors. The seroprevalence of anti-HCV antibody was found to be more among replacement donors (1.2%) as compared to voluntary donors (1.1%).

**Conclusions:** As blood transfusion is an important mode of transmission of HCV, hence, prevention in the form of proper screening of every unit of blood prior to transfusion is mandatory. As voluntary donors are relatively safe, this should be encouraged by organizing frequent blood donation camps.

Keywords: Anti-HCV antibody, Prevalence, HCV TRI-DOT, HCV Microlisa, Patients, Blood donors

### INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is mainly transmitted through exposure to infected blood and blood products which may be due to blood transfusion, organ transplantation, injectable drug abuse, tattooing and body piercing, haemodialysis, accidental occupational exposure, perinatally to infants from infected mothers and those having high risk sexual behaviour. Acute HCV infection is usually silent and around 15% of acutely infected patients spontaneously clear the infection. Chronic

hepatitis C is a ubiquitous disease affecting around 170 million people worldwide with 3 to 4 million persons newly infected each year.<sup>3</sup>

Hepatitis C virus infection is detected by the presence of anti-Hepatitis C virus antibody (anti-HCV antibody). This antibody is seen in more than 95% of chronic infections and in only 40% of acute infections. In India, anti-HCV antibodies are seen in around 15 million people with a prevalence rate of 2%. <sup>4,5</sup> Blood transfusion is an important life saving measure and an integral part of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Associate Professor, Department of Microbiology, <sup>2</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Pathology, <sup>3</sup>MSc Medical Microbiology 3rd year student, Department of Microbiology, <sup>4</sup>Professor, Department of Medicine, Integral Institute of Medical Sciences & Research, Integral University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Associate Professor, Department of Microbiology, Hind Institute of Medical Sciences, Mau, Ataria, Sitapur, Uttar Pradesh, India

medical and surgical therapy, however, in the absence of proper screening it may lead to transfusion transmissible infections (TTIs). With every unit of blood there is 1% chance of transfusion associated problems including TTIs. 6

Amongst the viral hepatitis strains, Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is most dangerous etiological agent of transfusion-associated hepatitis as its morbidity rate is quite high with around 85% of the acutely infected patients progressing to chronic infection such as liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. <sup>7,8</sup>

Blood transfusion is an effective mode of transmission of HCV infection as it allows a large quantum of infective virions into the susceptible patient.<sup>3</sup> It has been shown to be responsible for up to 90 percent of cases, previously known as Non A Non B (NANB) transfusion-related hepatitis.<sup>9</sup> The global seroprevalence of HCV among blood donors varies from 0.4 to 19.2 % and the estimated risk for HCV transmission is between 0.10 to 2.33 per million units transfused.<sup>10,11</sup> Hence, in order to provide safe blood supply testing of blood for markers of HCV was made mandatory in India since June 2001.<sup>12</sup> Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) is the most commonly used initial assay for detecting anti-Hepatitis C virus antibodies.<sup>13</sup>

To understand and assess the magnitude and dynamics of transmission of a disease in a community and for its control and prevention, the assessment of its prevalence is very important. He above facts in mind, the present study was done to evaluate the seroprevalence of anti-Hepatitis C virus antibodies among indoor patients and blood donors attending blood bank of our tertiary care hospital and to compare the prevalence of anti-HCV antibodies among voluntary and replacement blood donors.

# **METHODS**

A hospital based cross sectional study was done over a period of 6 months from January to June 2016, among indoor patients and blood donors attending a tertiary care hospital of North India, to determine the prevalence of anti-HCV antibodies among them. The study was approved by Institutional Ethical Committee. An informed consent was taken from all indoor patients and blood donors included in the study prior to sample collection. Donors were screened for physical examination by the trained medical staff. A pre-designed questionnaire was used to get the information regarding the demographic profile (age, sex, socio-economic status, educational status, occupation and residence) of the patients and blood donors included in the study.

# Inclusion criteria

Indoor patients of all age group and both sexes who were admitted in various wards of this hospital and were advised to undergo anti-HCV antibody screening either as part of routine pre-operative screening or for diagnostic purposes and both voluntary and replacement blood donors who were apparently healthy persons and qualified the donation criteria (age 18 to 60 years and having body weight more than 45 kg) and were advised to be screened for anti-HCV antibody prior to transfusion were included in the study.

#### Exclusion criteria

Patients whose blood sample was not requested for screening for anti-HCV antibody and blood donors as well as patients who refused to give consent were excluded from the study.

#### Study subjects

A total of 1991 subjects were included in the present study comprising of 1649 indoor patients and 342 blood donors whose blood samples were screened for presence of anti-Hepatitis C antibody.

## Methods

Under aseptic precautions from each indoor patient and apparently healthy blood donor around 3 ml of venous blood was withdrawn in a well labelled plain vaccutainer tube. The blood was allowed to clot followed by centrifugation of the tube at 3000 rpm for 15 min to separate serum.

The sera was screened for anti-HCV antibodies by using rapid qualitative in vitro diagnostic 4<sup>th</sup> generation HCV TRI-DOT test kits (J. Mitra & Company Private Limited, India) and 3<sup>rd</sup> generation HCV Microlisa (enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) method, manufactured by J. Mitra & Company Private Limited, India). The HCV TRI-DOT test device is composed of immunofiltration membrane. The kit is designed with a unique combination of modified HCV antigens from core (structural) and 3 non-structural (NS) regions of the virus (NS3, NS4 & NS5) in the form of two test dots "T<sub>1</sub>" and "T<sub>2</sub>" to selectively identify anti-HCV antibodies in human serum or plasma with high degree of sensitivity and specificity.

The test was performed according to manufacturer's instruction and the results were read immediately. In a reactive sample pinkish purple dot against a white background appears at the test region (" $T_1$ " &/or " $T_2$ ") in addition to control "C" region, whereas, in a non-reactive sample pinkish purple dot appears only at control "C" region.

The HCV Microlisa is based on detection of host generated antibodies (anti-HCV antibody) to viral proteins (Core E1, E2 and Non-Structural NS3, NS4 and NS5 antigens) coated into the microwells. The test was done according to manufacturer's instruction,  $100~\mu l$ 

negative control, 100 µl positive control, 100 µl sample diluent and 10 µl samples were added in the respective wells, plate was then covered and incubated in an incubator at 37°C±2°C for 30 minutes followed by washing with working wash solution. Then 100 µl working conjugate was added in each well. The plate was again covered and incubated in an incubator at 37°C±2°C for 30 minutes.

The plate was then washed with working wash solution followed by the addition of 100  $\mu l$  working substrate solution in all the wells. The plate was then covered and incubated at room temperature (20-30°C) for 30 minutes in dark. Finally 100  $\mu l$  stop solution was added to each well and the absorbance was read at 450 nm in an ELISA reader. The Cut-off value was calculated by formula: mean absorbance of Positive control (PC)  $\times$  0.23. All anti-HCV antibody positive blood units were discarded.

#### Statistical analysis

The collected data was transferred to a computer. The SPSS Data Editor Software version 20 was used for analysis of the data. Chi-square test was performed and p value  $\leq 0.05$  were considered statistically significant.

#### **RESULTS**

Out of 1991 subjects included in the study, 1649 were indoor patients and 342 were apparently healthy blood donors. Amongst indoor patients their mean age was 35.7 (±16.8) years and it ranged from 0-91 years, with 775 (47.0%) males and 874 (53.0%) females. The sociodemographic profiles of the indoor patients included in our study and their relation to anti-HCV antibody reactivity is shown in Tables 1-4. Out of 1649 indoor patients tested, 39 were found to be reactive, hence the

prevalence of anti-HCV antibody was found to be 2.4%. As shown in Table 1, most of the anti-HCV antibody reactive indoor patients belonged to age group 20-39 years (3.5%), followed by 40-59 years (1.7%). This finding was found to be statistically significant (p=0.045). The anti-HCV antibody reactivity was more frequently found in males (3.4%) as compared to females (1.5%). This difference was found to be statistically significant (p=0.013). Most of the anti-HCV antibody reactive patients were found to be unmarried (5.2%) as compared to married patients (2.2%). This difference was found to be statistically significant (P=0.042). As shown in Table 2, anti-HCV antibody reactivity was found most frequently amongst illiterate patients and those who were having education only up to pre-primary school (3.6% and 3.3% respectively).

This finding was found to be statistically significant (p=0.046). Tables 3 showed that majority of reactive patients were unskilled workers (6.6%) by profession, followed by those who were unemployed (4.5%). This finding was found to be highly statistically significant (p=0.002). Table 4 showed that most of the anti-HCV antibody reactive patients came from rural areas (3.1%) as compared to urban areas (1.3%), and majority of the seropositive patients belonged to lower class socioeconomically (3.3%). Both these findings were found to be statistically significant (p=0.020 & p=0.027 respectively). Table 5 showed that maximum reactivity was found among patients referred from TB & Chest ward (4.8%) followed by Medicine ward (4.3%). However this finding was statistically insignificant (p=0.151). A total of 342 apparently healthy blood donors with 87 (25.4%) voluntary (VD) and 255 (74.6%) replacement donors (RD) with mean age 27.9 ( $\pm$ 7.3) years ranging from 18 to 56 years were screened for presence of anti-HCV antibodies.

Table 1: Age group, sex and marital status of indoor patients and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 1649).

		Anti-HCV antibe	ody test		Chi-Square
Characteristics		Reactive N = 39 (2.4%)	Non-Reactive N = 1610 (97.6%)	Total N = 1649 (100%)	(χ²) & *p value
	0-19 years	3 (1.4%)	219 (98.6%)	222 (100%)	
	20-39 years	28 (3.5%)	769 (96.5%)	797 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 9.757$
Age group	40-59 years	7 (1.7%)	407 (98.3%)	414 (100%)	df = 4
	60-79 years	1 (0.5%)	195 (99.5%)	196 (100%)	p = 0.045
	80-99 years	0 (0.0%)	20 (100%)	20 (100%)	
	Male	26 (3.4%)	749 (96.6%)	775 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 6.203$
Sex	Female	13 (1.5%)	861 (98.5%)	874 (100%)	df = 1 p = 0.013
	Married	29 (2.2%)	1303 (97.8%)	1332 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 6.349$
Marital status	Unmarried	8 (5.2%)	147 (94.8%)	155 (100%)	df = 2
	# Not applicable	2 (1.2%)	160 (98.8%)	162 (100%)	p = 0.042

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of patients. # Patients with age < 18 years have been assigned as Not Applicable for the category of marital status.

Table 2: Educational status of indoor patients and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 1649).

Educational status	Anti-HCV antibod	Anti-HCV antibody test			
Educational Status	Reactive N (%)	Non-reactive N (%)	Total N (%)	*p value	
Graduate and above	0 (0.0%)	28 (100%)	28 (100%)		
High school	5 (1.2%)	423 (98.8%)	428 (100%)		
Primary	3 (1.1%)	281 (98.9%)	284 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 11.286$	
Pre-Primary	4 (3.3%)	118 (96.7%)	122 (100%)	df = 5	
Illiterate	27 (3.6%)	731 (96.4%)	758 (100%)	p = 0.046	
# Not applicable	0 (0.0%)	29 (100%)	29 (100%)		
Total	39 (2.4%)	1610 (97.6%)	1649 (100%)		

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of patients. # Patients with age < 7 years have been assigned as not applicable for the category of Educational status.

Table 3: Occupational profiles of indoor patients and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 1649).

Occupational status	Anti-HCV antibod	Anti-HCV antibody test			
Occupational status	Reactive N (%)	Non-Reactive N (%)	Total N (%)	*p value	
Professionals	0 (0.0%)	13 (100%)	13 (100%)		
Skilled workers	3 (3.1%)	94 (96.9%)	97 (100%)		
Semi-skilled workers	13 (3.5%)	358 (96.5%)	371 (100%)		
Unskilled workers	11 (6.6%)	156 (93.4%)	167 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 22.897$	
Unemployed	1 (4.5%)	21 (95.5%)	22 (100%)	df = 7	
Student	2 (1.1%)	180 (98.9%)	182 (100%)	p = 0.002	
Housewife	9 (1.2%)	722 (98.8%)	731 (100%)		
# Not applicable	0 (0.0%)	66 (100%)	66 (100%)		
Total	39 (2.4%)	1610 (97.6%)	1649 (100%)		

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of patients. # Patients with age <18 years have been assigned as not applicable for the category of Occupational status. Those studying have been assigned in the student category.

Table 4: Residence and socio-economic status of indoor patients and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 1649).

	Anti-HCV antibody test					
Characteristics		Reactive N = 39 (2.4%)	Non-Reactive N = 1610 (97.6%)	Total N = 1649 (100%)	Chi-Square (χ²) & *p value	
	Rural	30 (3.1%)	939 (96.9%)	969 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 5.436$	
Residence	Urban	9 (1.3%)	671 (98.7%)	680 (100%)	df = 1 $p = 0.020$	
Socio-	Upper Class	1 (1.1%)	88 (98.9%)	89 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 7.206$	
economic	Middle Class	9 (1.3%)	674 (98.7%)	683 (100%)	df = 2	
status	Lower Class	29 (3.3%)	848 (96.7%)	877 (100%)	p = 0.027	

<sup>\*</sup>p < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of patients.

Out of 342 donors, 336 (98.2%) were males and 6 (1.8%) were females. The socio-demographic profile of the donors is shown in Tables 6-8. Table 6 showed that maximum donors belonged to younger age group 18-29 years (30.7% VD and 69.3% RD), followed by 30-39 years (19.4% VD and 80.6% RD). This finding was statistically significant (p = 0.018). All the VD were males, whereas, all the females were RD. This finding was statistically insignificant (p = 0.149). Majority of VD were unmarried (35.0%), whereas, RD were mostly married people (81.4%). This difference was highly statistically significant (p = 0.001). As shown in Table 7,

majority of VD were highly educated (65.5% were graduate and above), whereas, most of the RD were less educated (100% of illiterate donors and 84.6% of donors educated up to primary school were RD). Most of the VD belonged to upper class (83.9%) as compared to RD who mostly belonged to lower and middle class (100% and 71.0% respectively). Both these findings were highly statistically significant (p<0.001). As shown in Table 8, most of the VD belonged to urban areas (35.5%) as compared to RD who mostly belonged to rural areas (80.3%). Most of the VD were students followed by professionals (81.8% and 57.9% respectively), whereas,

most of the RD were unskilled workers and housewife (100% each). Both the findings were found to be highly significant (p = 0.001 and p < 0.001 respectively). Out of 342 blood donors tested, 4 were found to be reactive, hence the prevalence of anti-HCV antibody was found to be 1.2%. As shown in Table 9, the relationship of blood

group of donors and seropositivity was not found to be statistically significant (p = 0.995). Tables 10 showed that majority of seropositives were replacement donors (1.2%) as compared to voluntary donors (1.1%). However, this difference was found to be statistically insignificant (p = 0.984).

Table 5: Distribution of indoor patients according to their wards and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 1649).

Wards	Anti-HCV antibody	Chi-Square (χ²) &		
warus	Reactive N (%)	Non-Reactive N (%)	Total N (%)	*p value
Casualty	4 (2.8%)	141 (97.2%)	145 (100%)	
ENT	3 (2.4%)	123 (97.6%)	126 (100%)	
Medicine	14 (4.3%)	310 (95.7%)	324 (100%)	
OBG	9 (1.8%)	488 (98.2%)	497 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 10.720$
Orthopaedics	2 (1.5%)	129 (98.5%)	131 (100%)	df = 7
Pediatrics	2 (3.3%)	58 (96.7%)	60 (100%)	p = 0.151
Surgery	3 (0.9%)	321 (99.1%)	324 (100%)	
TB & Chest	2 (4.8%)	40 (95.2%)	42 (100%)	
Total	39 (2.4%)	1610 (97.6%)	1649 (100%)	

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of patients. ENT = Ear, Nose & Throat ward. OBG = Obstetrics & Gynaecology ward.

Table 6: Distribution of blood donors according to their age group, sex and marital status (N = 342).

Characteristics		Donor status			Chi-Square
		Voluntary N = 87 (25.4%)	<b>Replacement</b> N = 255 (74.6%)	Total N = 342 (100%)	(χ²) & *p value
	18-29 years	66 (30.7%)	149 (69.3%)	215 (100%)	2 10 004
A 000 000000	30-39 years	18 (19.4%)	75 (80.6%)	93 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 10.084$
Age group	40-49 years	3 (10.0%)	27 (90.0%)	30 (100%)	p = 0.018
	50-59 years	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)	p = 0.018
	Male	87 (25.9%)	249 (74.1%)	336 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 2.084$
Sex	Female	0 (0.0%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	df = 1 p = 0.149
Marital	Married	37 (18.6%)	162 (81.4%)	199 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 11.759$
Status	Unmarried	50 (35.0%)	93 (65.0%)	143 (100%)	df = 1 p = 0.001

<sup>\*</sup> P<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of donors.

Table 7: Distribution of blood donors according to their education and socio-economic status (N = 342).

Characteristic	es	Donor status Voluntary N = 87 (25.4%)	Replacement N = 255 (74.6%)	Total N = 342 (100%)	Chi-Square (χ²) & *p value
	Graduate and above	19 (65.5%)	10 (34.5%)	29 (100%)	2 127.01
Educational	High School	54 (62.1%)	33 (37.9%)	87 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 137.01$ df = 3
status	Primary School	14 (15.4%)	77 (84.6%)	91 (100%)	p < 0.001
	Illiterate	0 (0.0%)	135 (100%)	135 (100%)	p < 0.001
Socio-	Upper Class	26 (83.9%)	5 (16.1%)	31 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 91.704$
economic	Middle Class	61 (29.0%)	149 (71.0%)	210 (100%)	df = 2
status	Lower Class	0 (0.0%)	101 (100%)	101 (100%)	p < 0.001

<sup>\*</sup> p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of donors.

Table 8: Distribution of blood donors according to their residence and occupational status (N = 342).

Characteristics		Donor status	Donlogoment	Total	Chi-Square
		Voluntary N = 87 (25.4%)	<b>Replacement N</b> = 255 (74.6%)	N = 342 (100%)	(χ <sup>2</sup> ) & *p value
	Rural	43 (19.7%)	175 (80.3%)	218 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 10.349$
Residence	Urban	44 (35.5%)	80 (64.5%)	124 (100%)	df = 1 $p = 0.001$
	Professional	11 (57.9%)	8 (42.1%)	19 (100%)	
	Skilled worker	37 (57.8%)	27 (42.2%)	64 (100%)	.2 00 202
Occupational	Semi-skilled worker	30 (19.5%)	124 (80.5%)	154 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 99.303$ df = 5
status	Unskilled worker	0 (0.0%)	91 (100%)	91 (100%)	p < 0.001
	Student	9 (81.8%)	2 (18.2%)	11 (100%)	p < 0.001
	House wife	0 (0.0%)	3 (100%)	3 (100%)	

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of donors.

Table 9: Distribution of blood donors according to their blood group and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 342).

Pland Cuanna	Anti-HCV antibody	Chi-Square		
Blood Groups	Reactive N (%)	Non Reactive N (%)	Total N (%)	(χ²) & *p value
O+ve	1 (1.1%)	90 (98.9%)	91 (100%)	
A +ve	1 (1.4%)	73 (98.6%)	74 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 0.694$
B +ve	2 (1.5%)	130 (98.5%)	132 (100%)	df = 6
AB +ve	0 (0.0%)	35 (100%)	35 (100%)	p = 0.995
O -ve	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)	
A-ve	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)	
AB-ve	0 (0.0%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	
Total	4 (1.2%)	338 (98.8%)	342 (100%)	

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of donors.

Table 10: Distribution of donors according to their status and their relation with anti-HCV antibody test reactivity (N = 342).

Donor Status	Anti-HCV antibody	Chi-Square (χ²) &		
Donor Status	Reactive N (%)	Non reactive N (%)	Total N (%)	*p value
Voluntary	1 (1.1%)	86 (98.9%)	87 (100%)	$\chi^2 = 0.000$
Replacement	3 (1.2%)	252 (98.8%)	255 (100%)	df = 1
Total	4 (1.2%)	338 (98.8%)	342 (100%)	p = 0.984

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.05 was considered as statistically significant. df = degree of freedom. N = Number of donors.

#### DISCUSSION

Hepatitis C infection is spreading fast in India. According to Indian National Association for the study of the Liver, nearly 12.5 million Indians are suffering from hepatitis C disease, with the death rate exceeding one lakh. <sup>15</sup>

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is an important virus causing acute as well as chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. This virus is mainly spread by blood and blood products and the infection is detected by presence of anti-HCV antibody in patient's serum. Hence, in order to evaluate the seroprevalence of this hepatitis C infection in our region, both indoor patients (representing the bulk of patients) and blood donors

(representing the general population) were screened for presence of anti-HCV antibody. In present study, the prevalence of anti-HCV antibody among indoor patients was found to be 2.4%. This finding is similar to various previous done studies which showed that seroprevalence of HCV among hospital based population varied from 1.57% in Orissa, 1.7% in Rajasthan to 4.8% in Pondicherry. 16-18 In our study, majority of reactive patients were males and illiterate. This is similar to study which also showed maximum another seropositivity among males and illiterate patients. 14 In present study, most of the anti-HCV antibody reactive indoor patients belonged to age group 20-39 years (3.5%), followed by 40-59 years (1.7%). This is similar to another study which also showed maximum

seropositivity among patients of age group 21-30 years (6.1%). 19

In present study, majority of seropositivity was found among patients belonging to rural areas. This could be due to the fact that the rural poor population is still dependent upon the untrained paramedics for their treatment needs. Also, the sterilization of syringes, needles and minor surgical instruments are often improperly done in rural areas leading to transmission of virus from one person to another.<sup>20</sup>

In present study, 342 blood donors were screened for anti-HCV antibody and the seroprevalence amongst donors was found to be 1.2%. Various studies from northern parts of India have reported HCV seroprevalence ranging from 0.53 to 5.1% in blood donors. HCV seropositivity in the western part of India has been reported to be 0.28%. <sup>23</sup>

The reported variation in the prevalence of anti-HCV antibodies among blood donors in different regions of India may be attributed to the differences in the literacy rate and level of awareness among the blood donors. Also, prevalence of HCV infection varies from region to region because of local socio-cultural factors, which potentially influence the transmission and prevalence in a specific geographic area. Moreover, the differences in the testing methodology employed and the extent of its regulation may also have been the factors contributing to the observed differences.<sup>24,25</sup>

In our study, more reactives were replacement donors (1.2%) as compared to voluntary donors (1.1%) and all the seropositives were males. This is similar to other studies which also showed higher seropositivity among replacement donors (1.18%) as compared to voluntary donors (0.27%), and more seropositivity among male donors (0.38%) as compared to female donors (0.36%).  $^{1.3}$ 

In present study voluntary donors were found to be more educated and belonged to upper class socio-economically as compared to replacement donors. This is in agreement to previous done study which states that in India, voluntary donors are safer than replacement donors because they are invariably more educated and can better understand the implication of donor questionnaire. Replacement donors on the other hand, give blood under compulsion and thus conceal answers related to their health and sexual habits.<sup>3</sup>

## **CONCLUSION**

Till date there is no vaccine available against hepatitis C virus, therefore, prevention of infection from this deadly virus could only be achieved by practicing safe blood transfusion by proper screening of every blood unit prior to transfusion and propagating mass education regarding the risky behaviours responsible for the infection and promoting safe life style practices via media and

campaigns. Since, voluntary donors are relatively safe as compared to replacement donors, therefore, efforts in the form of voluntary blood donation camps should be made to increase and retain the young motivated voluntary donors to maintain safe blood supply.

Funding: No funding sources Conflict of interest: None declared

Ethical approval: The study was approved by the

Institutional Ethics Committee

## **REFERENCES**

- Makroo RN, Walia RS, Chowdhry M, Bhatia A, Hegde V, Rosamma NL. Seroprevalence of anti-HCV antibodies among blood donors of north India. Indian J Med Res. 2013;138:125-8.
- 2. Karki S, Ghimire P, Tiwari BR, Maharjan A, Rajkarnikar M. Trends in hepatitis B and hepatitis C seroprevalence among Nepalese blood donors. Jpn J Infect Dis. 2008;61:324-6.
- Gupta S, Kumar R, Kaur A. Prevalence of hepatitis C virus seropositivity among blood donors in a Tertiary Care Hospital. Int Res J Med Sci. 2015;3:22-4.
- 4. Baheti R, Gehlot RS, Baheti R. Seroprevalence of Anti HCV Ab in healthy voluntary blood donors and in high risk individuals. J Indian Assoc Community Med. 2000;1:230-2.
- 5. Tandon BN. Hepatitis B and C: a holistic approach. Gastroenterol Today. 2002;6:168-9.
- 6. Widmann FK. Technical manual american association of blood banks. Aglington Ust. 1985:325-44.
- 7. Jain A, Rana SS, Chakravarty P, Gupta RK, Murthy NS, Nath MC. The prevalence of Hepatitis C virus antibodies among the voluntary blood donors of New Delhi, India. European J Epidemiol. 2003;18:695-7.
- 8. Sood S, Malvankar S. Seroprevalence of Hepatitis B surface antigen, antibodies to the Hepatitis C virus, and Human Immunodeficiency virus in a hospital-based population in Jaipur, Rajasthan. Indian J Comm Med. 2010;35:165-9.
- 9. Pears E. Hepatitis C virus infection: risk factors, diagnosis and management. Nurs Stand. 2010;25:15-7.
- 10. Bihl F, Castelli D, Marincola F, Dodd RY, Brander C. Transfusion-transmitted infections. J Transl Med. 2007;5:25-7.
- 11. Memon MI, Memon MA. Hepatitis C: an epidemiological review. J Viral Hepat. 2002;9:84-100.
- 12. Singh B, Verma M, Verma K. Markers for transfusion-associated hepatitis in north Indian blood donors: prevalence and trends. Jpn J Infect Dis. 2004;57:49-51.
- 13. Wilkins T, Malcolm JK, Raina D, Schade RR. Hepatitis C. Diagnosis and treatment. Am Fam Physician. 2010;81:1351-7.

- Mittal G, Gupta P, Gupta R, Ahuja V, Mittal M, Dhar M. Seroprevalence and risk factors of Hepatitis B and Hepatitis C virus infections in Uttarakhand, India. J Clin Exp Hepatol. 2013;3:296-300.
- Deshpande RH, Wadde SK. Seroprevalence of HCV in blood donors status of blood donors seropositivity of HCV in marathwada, India. J Pharma Biomed Sci. 2012;23:1-4.
- 16. Mishra S, Chayani N, Sarangi G, Mallick B, Pati SB. Seroprevalence of anti-HCV antibody in and around Cuttack, Orissa. Indian J Med Microbiol. 2002;20:40-1.
- 17. Sharma R, Sinha P, Bachiwal R, Rishi S. Seroprevalence of anti-hepatitis C virus antibodies in a hospital based population in Jaipur, Rajasthan. Indian J Community Med. 2007;32:158-9.
- Bhattacharya S, Badrinath S, Hamide A, Sujatha S. Seroprevalence of hepatitis C virus in a hospital based general population in South India. Indian J Med Micobiol. 2003;21:43-5.
- Rajani M, Jais M. Age-wise seroprevalence of hepatitis C virus infection in clinically suspected infectious hepatitis patients attending a tertiary care hospital in Delhi. Int J Med Public Health. 2014;4:78-81.
- 20. Chu CJ, Hussain M, Lok ASF. Hepatitis B virus genotype B is associated with earlier HBeAg

- seroconversion compared with hepatitis B virus genotype C. Gastroenterology. 2002;122:1756-62.
- Makroo RN, Raina V, Kaushik V. Prevalence of hepatitis C virus antibody in healthy blood donors. Indian J Med Res. 1999;110:123-5.
- 22. Choudhury N, Ramesh V, Saraswat S, Naik S. Effectiveness of mandatory transmissible diseases screening in Indian blood donors. Indian J Med Res. 1995;101:229-32.
- 23. Garg S, Mathur DR, Garg DK. Comparison of seropositivity of HIV, HBV, HCV and syphilis in replacement and voluntary blood donors in western India. Indian J Pathol Microbiol. 2001;44:409-12.
- Thakral B, Marwaha N, Chawla YK, Saluja K, Sharma A, Sharma RR. Prevalence & significance of hepatitis C virus (HCV) seropositivity in blood donors. Indian J Med Res. 2006;124:431-8.
- 25. Rawat V, Bhatt U, Singhai M, Kumar A, Malik YPS. Prevalence of hepatitis C virus infection among blood donors of Kumaon region of Uttarakhand. Indian J Med Microbiol. 2013;31:313-4.

Cite this article as: Jahan N, Gupta V, Sana M, Mehrotra S, Khatoon R. Prevalence of anti-Hepatitis C virus antibodies among indoor patients and blood donors attending a tertiary care hospital in North India. Int J Res Med Sci 2016;4:4256-63.