- 1 Quantitative analysis of four rapid antigen assays for detection of pandemic H1N1 2009
- 2 compared with seasonal H1N1 and H3N2 influenza A viruses on nasopharyngeal aspirates
- 3 from patients with influenza

10

12

15

- 5 Chan KH^a, Chan KM^{b,c}, Ho YL^{b,c}, Lam YP^{b,c}, Tong HL^{b,c}, Poon LLM^{b,c}, Cowling BJ^d and Peiris JSM^{c,d}
- 6 ^aDepartment of Microbiology, Queen Mary Hospital, Hong Kong
- 7 ^bDepartment of Microbiology, The University of Hong Kong; Hong Kong
- 8 ^cCentre of Influenza Research, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
- 9 ^dSchool of Public Health, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
- 11 Running title: Rapid diagnosis of Influenza A
- 13 Key words: Pandemic H1N1 2009, seasonal H1N1 and H3N2, rapid antigen detection kit, real time
- 14 quantitative RT-PCR
- Address correspondence: Dr KH Chan, Department of Microbiology, University Pathology Building, Queen
- 17 Mary Hospital Compound, Pokfulam, Hong Kong
- 18 E mail: chankh2@hkucc.hku.hk
- 19 Conflicts of interest: None

21 Abstract

Data on analytical sensitivity of rapid diagnostic assays are important for clinical management of influenza, especially during a pandemic. Four rapid antigen detection assays were compared for detection of pandemic influenza A H1N1 2009, seasonal H1N1 and H3N2 in 96 patients with influenza A infection confirmed by real-time RT-PCR. These rapid antigen tests appeared to have lower sensitivity (55.8%) for the diagnosis of pandemic influenza A H1N1 2009 as compared with seasonal H3N2 (71.0%) or H1N1 (69.4%) influenza infections, a difference that was related to a lower viral load in patients infected with the pandemic influenza A H1N1 2009 virus. The detection limit of these antigen detection tests in clinical specimens was an influenza A M gene copy number of average 1.0 x 10⁷ copies /ml. Significant variations between tests in sensitivity for detection of pandemic influenza A H1N1 2009 (43.4-63.3%) were observed. The Directigen EZ Influenza A+B and the Espline Influenza A+B had comparable sensitivity (63%) and were the most sensitive among the four assays evaluated.

1. Introduction

34

Influenza A virus infection is a common cause of respiratory illness and contributes to morbidity and 35 mortality annually, particularly in young children and in the elderly. Occasionally, animal influenza viruses 36 37 transmit zoonotically to humans giving rise to severe clinical diseases such as avian H5N1 (de Jong et al., 2006). A novel influenza A (H1N1) 2009 (pH1N1 2009) virus of swine in origin was detected in Mexico and 38 USA in April 2009 [Novel swine-origin influenza A (H1N1) virus investigation team, 2009]. The virus was 39 40 efficient at transmitting from human to human and spread globally to cause a pandemic (Fraser et al., 2009). 41 Rapid, simple and reliable diagnostic tests for confirming infection with influenza A can improve clinical 42 management by guiding the appropriate use of antivirals and antibiotics. It has been previously demonstrated 43 that the analytical sensitivity of many of these influenza A antigen detection tests for detection of avian 44 H5N1 and pH1N1 2009 was comparable with that of seasonal influenza A infected cell lysates (Chan et al., 2007 and 2009). Recently, several studies reported that these rapid kits had clinical diagnostic sensitivity 45 ranging from 10-80% for detection of pH1N1 2009 (Cowling et al., 2010; Ginocchio et al., 2009; Gordon et 46 47 al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010, Yang et al., 2011). However, the reasons for this variable and poor sensitivity of rapid antigen assays for clinical samples with pH1N1 2009 have not been investigated. The present study 48 is to correlate clinical diagnostic sensitivity of four commercially available rapid antigen detection tests to 49 50 viral load in the clinical specimens as determined by quantitative PCR methods in patients infected with seasonal H1N1 (sH1N1), seasonal H3N2 (sH3N2) and pH1N1 2009 influenza A. The performance of these 51 52 rapid kits was also compared with direct immunofluorescence antigen detection kit and conventional virus 53 culture.

2. Materials and Methods

56 2.1 Clinical samples

54

55

65

66

57 Ninety seven nasopharyngeal aspirate specimens collected from hospitalized patients with suspected influenza from July 2009 to January 2010 sent to the virology laboratory at the Queen Mary Hospital, Hong 58 Kong for routine diagnosis were used for this study. These specimens were routinely tested by direct 59 60 immunofluorescence antigen test, RT-PCR for influenza A and culture for virus isolation as part of routine clinical care. The rapid antigen tests evaluated here (see below) were carried out on the residual specimen 61 left over after routine tests were completed. Fifty-six of the patients were males and 41 were females with an 62 age range of 9 months to 104 years. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board of the 63 64 University of Hong Kong/ Hospital Authority Hong Kong West Cluster.

2.2 RT-PCR for H and M gene of influenza A

The diagnosis of pH1N1 2009 virus, sH1N1 and sH3N2 was performed by real-time reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using primers targeting the hemagglutinin gene of pandemic H1N1 virus according to method described earlier (To et al., 2010, CDC 2007). The quantitation of influenza A virus was performed by using real-time quantitative RT-PCR targeting influenza A virus M gene, as described previously (Li et al., 2010). Briefly, 12 µl of eluted RNA of Influenza A virus was used for cDNA using the Invitrogen Superscript II Kit with a random primer as described, and then, cDNA was amplified in a Lightcycler instrument with a FastStart DNA Master SYBR Green I Mix reagent kit (Roche

Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany). In a typical reaction, 2 μ l of cDNA was amplified in a 20 μ l of LC-PCR master mix containing 1X Fast-Start DNA master SYBR green I mix, 4.0 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM of each primer. To determine the specificity of the assay, all the PCR products were subjected to a melting curve analysis (65–95° C; 0.1° C per second) at the end of the assay. For quantitative assay, a reference standard was prepared using pCRII-TOPO vector (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA) containing the corresponding target viral sequences. A series of 6 log 10 dilution equivalent to 1 x 10¹ to 1 x 10⁶ copies per reaction were prepared to generate calibration curves and run in parallel with the test samples. If the specimen result was outside the upper limit of the expected range, the extract of the sample was repeated with suitable dilution. The detection limit of this assay was 900 copies of RNA per milliliter.

2.3 Rapid influenza antigen detection kits

Four rapid influenza antigen detection kits: QuickVue influenza A+B (Quidel Corpopration, CA, USA); BinaxNow Influenza A+B (Binax, Maine, USA); Directigen EZ Flu A+B (Becton Dickinson and Company, MD, USA); and Epsline influenza A+B ((Fujirebio, Tokyo, Japan) were evaluated. All these tests were carried out according to the manufacturers' instructions (Chan et al., 2009). Briefly, for the QuickVue influenza A + B test, 280 ul of sample was added to the extraction tube containing extraction powder. The extraction tube was swirled gently to dissolve its content. A test strip was placed into the extraction tube. The result was read at 10 minutes. The BinaxNow Influenza A + B test kit used 100 ul of specimen in a virus transport medium to the test device and the result was read after 15 minutes. For the Directigen EZ Flu A +

B, 300 μ l of sample was mixed with 4 drops of extraction reagent, 3 drops of the mixture was added to the well. The result was read after 15 minutes. The Espline influenza A + B used 40 μ l of sample added directly to the well with the result being read after 10 minutes.

2.4 Viral culture

Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cell monolayers grown in culture tubes were inoculated with 200 μl of sample and incubated at 35°C for 1 hour. The cells were fed with 1 ml of serum-free minimum essential medium containing TPCK (tosylsulfonyl phenylalanylchloromethyl ketone)-treated trypsin (2μg/ml) (Sigma, St. Louis, Mo) and antibiotics (Garamycin, 0.02 mg/ml, Schering-Plough Corporation, Heist-op-den-Berg, Belgium; Penicillin-streptomycin, 100 units/ml, GibcoBRL, NY, USA; Nystatin, 20 units/ml, Sigma, St. Louis, Mo). The cultures were harvested when cytopathic effect (CPE) was observed or after 10 days incubation period for direct immunofluorescent antigen test as described previously (Chan et al., 2008).

2.5 Direct immunofluorescence antigen test

The direct immunofluorescence antigen test was carried out with nasopharyngeal aspirate specimens according to method described previously (Chan et al., 2008). Briefly, the nasopharyngeal aspirate was centrifuged, and the cell pellet was washed in phosphate-buffered saline. The cell pellet was then spotted on 6-mm wells of Teflon-coated slides, air dried, and fixed in ice-cold acetone for 10 minutes. The smears were stained with IMAGENTM influenza A and B reagents (Oxoid Limited, Hampshire, UK) and then viewed at a

magnification of 400 under epifluorescent illumination using the fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) filter of a 112 Nikon fluorescent microscope. 113 114 115 116 **3.** Results 3.1 Laboratory tests for diagnosis of influenza A infections 117 Ninety-seven nasopharyngeal aspirates collected were tested by RT-PCR for amplification of matrix (M) and 118 subtype-specific hemagglutinin (H) gene assays for diagnosis of influenza A infection. Direct 119 immunofluorescent antigen test and culture were done on all specimens for influenza A. Of these 97 120 influenza A positives, 30, 31 and 36 were identified as pH1N1 2009, sH1N1 and sH3N2 respectively. 121 122 123 3.2 Rapid influenza antigen detection kits performance The data presented in Table 1 shows that the Directigen EZ Influenza A+B and the Espline Influenza A+B 124 exhibited apparently higher levels of sensitivity for detection of pH1N1 2009 (63.3%), compared with the 125 QuickVue A+B (53.3%) and the BinaxNow (43.3%) but this difference is not statistically significant 126

(Chi-squared test, p = 0.6). However, the four RDA tests have the similar levels of sensitivity for detection

127

128

129

130

of sH1N1 (71.0%) or sH3N2 (66.7%-72.2%).

3.3 Viral load of influenza A subtype in nasopharyngeal aspirate

The mean of viral load of Influenza A RNA subtype sH3N2 in nasopharyngeal aspirate samples was the highest when compared with influenza A subtype sH1N1 or pH1N1 (Table 2) and these differences were statistically significant (pH1N1 vs sH3N2 p=0.033; pH1N1 vs sH1N1 p=0.047). The limit of detection for each rapid antigen test is defined as the viral load at which \geq 95% of specimens were positive in that test. Therefore the lower limit of viral load detection for each influenza A subtype (pH1N1, sH1N1 and sH3N2 by RDA was as follows: the Directigen EZ Influenza A+B (1.1 x 10^7 , 4.4 x 10^6 and 1.1 x 10^7); the Espline Influenza A+B (1.1 x 10^7 , 4.4 x 10^6 and 1.1 x 10^7); the QuickVue Influenza A+B (1.5 x 10^7 , 4.4 x 10^6 and 4.5 x 10^6) and the BinaxNOW Influenza A+B (3.5 x 10^7 , 4.4 x 10^6 and 4.5 x 10^6) (Fig 1). The average lower limit for detection of each subtype by these rapid antigen assays is pH1N1 (1.8 x 10^7), sH1N1 (4.4 x 10^6) and sH3N2 (7.8 x 10^6) (Table 2).

3.4 Direct immunofluorescence antigen and culture performance

Sensitivity for detection of influenza A subtype by direct immunofluorescence antigen test for sH1N1, pH1N1 and sH3N2 infections was 66.7%, 87.1% and 77.8% respectively (Table 2). Virus isolation from all the samples was attempted on MDCK cells in the presence of TPCK treated trypsin. The isolation rate was similar among the three influenza A subtypes (Table 2).

4. Discussion

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

Previous report showed that these rapid antigen assays had comparable sensitivity to detect pH1N1 and sH1N1 using cell culture grown viruses (Chan et al., 2009). To further understand the analytical sensitivity of these rapid assays in clinical settings, the performance of rapid antigen assays on nasopharyngeal aspirate samples was assessed and compared with viral load by RT-PCR assays. The clinical diagnostic sensitivity of rapid antigen assays for detection of influenza depends on the quality, quantity, site and viral load of clinical specimens used in the assay method as well as its analytical sensitivity (Chan et al., 2007). The sensitivity of all these assays was comparable for the detection of sH1N1and sH3N2 respectively. Any marginal difference in sensitivity between tests may be related to the volume of sample recommended for use in the assay methods. It was reported that larger test volumes gave rise to more sensitive methods (Chan et al., 2007). On the contrary, there was significant variation in the ability of these four assays to detect pH1N1 (Table 1). The Directigen EZ Influenza A+B and the Espline Influenza A+B were the most sensitive among the assays evaluated. These findings are also observed in previous study using culture infected cells (Chan et al., 2009; Hurt et al., 2009).

164

165

166

167

168

The influenza A M gene copy number in each clinical sample by RT-PCR have been determined. The highest RNA M gene copy number was found in patients with sH3N2 (2.5 to 5 folds higher) than for patients with sH1N1 or pH1N1 infection. The detection limits of the rapid antigen assays for determination of these subtypes are comparable (Fig. 1). The influenza A subtypes in the sample will generally not be detectable by

the rapid antigen assays if the viral load is below 1.0×10^7 copies per ml (Table 2). These clinical derived detection limits are comparable with the detection limits using laboratory culture isolate (Chan et al., 2009).

The rapid antigen assays were shown to have better performance for the detection of human seasonal influenza A than pH1N1 A in this study. Similarly, the direct immunofluorescence antigen test also shows the highest sensitivity for detection of human seasonal influenza A than pH1N. Since their detection limits for identification of these influenza A subtypes were comparable, the difference in clinical sensitivity is likely to be related to the viral RNA load present in the sample. However, whether there are differences in the affinity of the antibodies used in these different assays that may contribute to these differences in performance cannot be excluded but such differences was not noted in the analytical sensitivity evaluation using cultured virus (Chan et al., 2009).

Epidemiological and virological studies of the pH1N1 2009 have identified several risk factors for severe infection, including host predisposing factors e.g. extremes of age, chronic underlying diseases, pregnancy, obesity; viral factors and specific mutations of viral proteins such as the D222G mutation in the hemagglutinin (Chen et al., 2010; Lapinsky et al., 2010; Louie et al., 2011). There are also differences in the type of specimen used, with tracheal aspirates giving higher diagnostic yield that nasopharyngeal aspirates in patients who are more seriously ill (Lee et al 2011).

Rapid point of care antigen detection tests continue to be used for clinical care, especially in out-patient settings and for diagnosing and controlling influenza outbreaks in institutions. It is therefore important to define the clinical diagnostic performance characteristics of these rapid antigen assays. The present studies indicate that the lower clinical sensitivity of rapid antigen assays for pandemic influenza A H1N1 2009 infection is associated with lower viral load found in these patients.

Acknowledgments:

This work was supported by the Area of Excellence Scheme of the University Grants Committee of Hong

Kong (grant no. AoE/M-12/06).

198 References Chan KH, Lam SY, Puthavathana P, Nguyen TD, Long HT, Pang CM, Chan KM, Cheung CY, Seto WH, 199 200 Peiris JS. 2007. Comparative analytical sensitivities of six rapid influenza A antigen detection test kits for detection of influenza A subtypes H1N1, H3N2 and H5N1. J. Clin. Virol. 38, 169-71. 201 202 203 Chan KH, Peiris JSM, Lim W, Nicholls JM, Chiu SS. 2008. Comparison of nasopharyngeal flocked swabs and aspirates from pediatric patients for rapid diagnosis of respiratory viruses. J. Clin. Virol. 42, 65–69. 204 205 Chan KH, Lai ST, Poon LL, Guan Y, Yuen KY, Peiris JS. 2009. Analytical sensitivity of rapid influenza 206 antigen detection tests for swine-origin influenza virus (H1N1). J. Clin. Virol. 45, 205-7. 207 208 Chen H, Wen X, To KK, Wang P, Tse H, Chan JF, Tsoi HW, Fung KS, Tse CW, Lee RA, Chan KH, Yuen KY. 209 2010. Quasispecies of the D225G substitution in the hemagglutinin of pandemic influenza A(H1N1) 2009 210 virus from patients with severe disease in Hong Kong, China. J. Infect. Dis. 201, 1517-21. 211 212 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). 2007. CDC Realtime RT-PCR rRTPCR) protocol for 213 detection and characterization of influenza (version 2007). CDC REF. # I-007-05. 214 215 Cowling BJ, Chan KH, Fang VJ, Lau LL, So HC, Fung RO, Ma ES, Kwong AS, Chan CW, Tsui WW, Ngai 216

HY, Chu DW, Lee PW, Chiu MC, Leung GM, Peiris JS. 2010. Comparative epidemiology of pandemic and
 seasonal influenza A in households. N. Engl. J. Med. 362, 2175-84.

219

220

221

222

de Jong MD, Simmons CP, Thanh TT, Hien VM, Smith GJ, Chau TN, Hoang DM, Van Vinh Chau N,

Khanh TH, Dong VC, Qui PT, Van Cam B, Ha DQ, Guan Y, Peiris JS, Chinh NT, Hien TT, Farrar J. 2006.

Fatal outcome of human influenza A (H5N1) is associated with high viral load and hypercytokinemia. Nat.

Med. 12,1203-7.

224

225

226

227

228

229

223

Fraser C, Donnelly CA, Cauchemez S, Hanage WP, Van Kerkhove MD, Hollingsworth TD, Griffin J,

Baggaley RF, Jenkins HE, Lyons EJ, Jombart T, Hinsley WR, Grassly NC, Balloux F, Ghani AC, Ferguson

NM, Rambaut A, Pybus OG, Lopez-Gatell H, Alpuche-Aranda CM, Chapela IB, Zavala EP, Guevara DM,

Checchi F, Garcia E, Hugonnet S, Roth C. 2009. WHO Rapid Pandemic Assessment Collaboration.

Pandemic potential of a strain of influenza A (H1N1): early findings. Science 324, 1557-61.

230

231

232

233

Ginocchio CC, Zhang F, Manji R, Arora S, Bornfreund M, Falk L, Lotlikar M, Kowerska M, Becker G,

Korologos D, de Geronimo M, Crawford JM. 2009. Evaluation of multiple test methods for the detection of

the novel 2009 influenza A (H1N1) during the New York City outbreak. J. Clin. Virol. 45, 191-195.

- Gordon A, Videa E, Saborio S, Lopez R, Kuan G, Balmaseda A, Harris E. 2010. Diagnostic accuracy of a
- rapid influenza test for pandemic influenza A H1N1. PLoS One 5: e10364.
- 237
- 238 Hurt AC, Baas C, Deng YM, Roberts S, Kelso A, Barr IG. 2009. Performance of influenza rapid
- point-of-care tests in the detection of swine lineage A (H1N1) influenza viruses. Influenza Other Respi.
- 240 Viruses 3,171-6.
- 241
- Kumar B, Sharma B, Khanna M, Singh V, Daga MK, Vijayan VK, Mishra AC, Chadha MS, Chawla-Sarkar
- M and Kaur H. 2010. Comparison of various immunoassay kits for rapid screening of pandemic influenza
- 244 H1N1-2009 viruses. J. Public Health and Epidemiol. 2, 175-179.
- 245
- 246 Lapinsky SE. 2010. Critical illness as a result of influenza A/H1N1 infection in pregnancy. B.M.J.
- 247 340:c1235.
- 248
- Lee N, Chan PK, Wong CK, Wong KT, Choi KW, Joynt GM, Lam P, Chan MC, Wong BC, Lui GC, Sin
- 250 WW, Wong RY, Lam WY, Yeung AC, Leung TF, So HY, Yu AW, Sung JJ, Hui DS. 2011. Viral clearance and
- 251 inflammatory response patterns in adults hospitalized for pandemic 2009 influenza A (H1N1) virus
- 252 pneumonia. Antivir. Ther. 16, 237-47.
- Li IW, Hung IF, To KK, Chan KH, Wong SS, Chan JF, Cheng VC, Tsang OT, Lai ST, Lau YL, Yuen KY.

2010. The natural viral load profile of patients with pandemic swine-origin influenza A H1N1 2009 (pH1N1)
 and the effect of oseltamivir treatment. Chest 137, 759-68.

Louie JK, Acosta M, Samuel MC Schechter R, Vugia DJ, Harriman K, Matyas BT; California Pandemic (H1N1) Working Group. 2011. A novel risk factor for a novel virus: obesity and 2009 pandemic influenza A (H1N1). Clin. Infect. Dis. 52, 301-12.

To KK, Wong SS, Li IW, Hung IF, Tse H, Woo PC, Chan KH, Yuen KY. 2010. Concurrent comparison of epidemiology, clinical presentation and outcome between adult patients suffering from the pandemic influenza A (H1N1) 2009 virus and the seasonal influenza A virus infection. Postgrad. Med. J. 86,515-21.

Novel Swine-Origin Influenza A (H1N1) Virus Investigation Team. 2009. Emergence of a Novel Swine-Origin Influenza A (H1N1) Virus in Humans. N. Engl. J. Med. 360, 2605-2615

Yang JR, Lo J, Ho YL, Wu HS, Liu MT. 2011. Pandemic H1N1 and seasonal H3N2 influenza infection in the human population show different distributions of viral loads, which substantially affect the performance of rapid influenza tests. Virus Res. 155, 163-7.

Table 1 Performance of the four rapid antigen assays for detection of different influenza A subtypes

Table 2 Compare different methods for diagnosis of influenza infections

Table 2 Compare different methods for diagnosis of influenza infections

Fig. 1 Viral RNA M gene copy number present in patient with pH1N1, sH1N1 and sH3N2 are denoted together with the rapid antigen test results for each test kit. The limit of detection for each rapid antigen test is denoted by a horizontal line as the viral load at which ≥ 95% of specimens were positive in that test.

Influenza A subtypes	BinaxNOW	QuickVue	Directigen EZ	Espline
(No. of patients)	Influenza	Influenza	Influenza	Influenza
	A+B	A+B	A+B	A+B
pH1N1 2009 = 30	43.3%	53.3%	63.3%	63.3%
sH1N1 =31	71.0%	71.0%	71.0%	71.0%
sH3N2 =36	66.7%	72.2%	69.4%	69.4%

Table 2 Compare different methods for diagnosis of influenza infections

Influenza A subtype	Mean of viral load	IF	Culture	Rapid detection a	s 287 s
= No. of patients	(copies/ml)			Mean of	288
	(Range)			(Detection lin	n i2)89
pH1N1 2009	1.83 x 10 ⁸	66.7%	96.7%	55.8%	290
=30					291
	$(6.37 \times 10^2 - 2.00 \times 10^9)$			(1.8×10^7)	292
sH1N1	3.89 x 10 ⁸	87.1%	97.0%	71.0%	293
=31					294
	$(5.40 \times 10^4 - 3.40 \times 10^{10})$			(4.4×10^6)	295
sH3N2	9.63 x 10 ⁸	77.8%	97.2%	69.4%	296
=36					297
	$(2.34 \times 10^4 - 1.17 \times 10^{10})$			(7.8×10^6)	298
Overall	5.12E+08	77.2%	97.0%	65.4%	299
Mean					300
				(1.0×10^7)	301
			,	<u>'</u>	302



332

o Negative

321

