





Impact of Co-occurring Drug Use, Hazardous Alcohol Use, and Mental Health Disorders on Drug Use Patterns in People With HIV and Hepatitis C Virus Infection

Sean McCormick,^{1,©} Kathleen M. Ward,^{1,©} Catherine G. Sutcliffe,² Risha Irvin,¹ Geetanjali Chander,¹ Robert K. Brooner,¹ Shruti H. Mehta,² David L. Thomas,¹ Mark Sulkowski,¹ and Oluwaseun Falade-Nwulia^{1,©}

¹Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA, and ²Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

Drug use, hazardous alcohol use, and mental health disorders are prevalent among people with HIV and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection. Co-occurrence of alcohol use and depression negatively impacts substance use patterns. Nevertheless, HCV treatment provides a promising opportunity to identify and address co-occurring drug use, hazardous alcohol use, and mental health disorders.

Keywords. hazardous alcohol use; hepatitis C virus; HIV; mental health disorder; substance use.

People with HIV (PWH) are disproportionately affected by hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection [1]. Among people who use drugs (PWUD), particularly among people who inject drugs, this burden is even greater, with HCV prevalence exceeding 50% in many settings [2]. PWUD also have a high prevalence of co-occurring mental health disorders [3], which has been linked to riskier behaviors, leading to HIV and HCV exposure [4].

Chronic HCV infection is associated with significant morbidity and mortality due to complications of cirrhosis, which are exacerbated by HIV coinfection and ongoing alcohol use [5]. With the recent advent of safe, highly effective direct-acting antivirals (DAAs), the risk of these liver complications is lowered with HCV cure [6]. In real-world cohorts, the effectiveness of DAAs is similar in people who use drugs and those who

Received 8 July 2021; editorial decision 13 October 2021; accepted 18 October 2021; published online 19 October 2021.

Correspondence: Oluwaseun Falade-Nwulia, MBBS, MPH, Division of Infectious Diseases, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, 5200 Eastern Avenue, MFL Center Tower, Suite 381, Baltimore, MD 21224 (ofalade1@jhmi.edu).

Open Forum Infectious Diseases®2021

© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Infectious Diseases Society of America. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs licence (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/), which permits non-commercial reproduction and distribution of the work, in any medium, provided the original work is not altered or transformed in any way, and that the work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofab520

do not [7]. In some instances, HCV treatment initiation has been associated with reduction in hazardous substance use behaviors, including reduced sharing of injection equipment [8]. HCV treatment is a promising opportunity to engage PWUD, many of whom are broadly marginalized from the health care system and are disparately burdened by infectious diseases. There is, however, limited information on substance use behaviors and changes in this behavior during DAA treatment [8].

The present study assessed substance use at enrollment and describes the substance use patterns of PWH who initiated HCV treatment in a randomized trial of HCV treatment among PWUD [9].

METHODS

This study reports data collected from participants enrolled in the CHAMPS study, a randomized trial that compared usual care with peer support or cash incentive strategies for increasing uptake of HCV treatment among PWUD [9]. Between August 2015 and October 2016, PWH with active HCV genotype 1 infection and no evidence of engagement in HCV care were enrolled, linked to HCV providers, and offered treatment with ledipasvir/sofosbuvir.

At enrollment and subsequent visits, participants completed interviewer-administered surveys encompassing demographic, behavioral, and health information and provided blood and urine samples. Among these questionnaires, participants completed the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D), a 20-item questionnaire evaluating depressive symptoms within the past week; a cutoff score of ≥16 was used to identify depressive symptoms [10]. Urine toxicology results were used to evaluate opiate and cocaine use. Self-reported drug use was obtained by asking about any use of heroin or cocaine within the previous 30 days. Self-reported alcohol use was determined through the 10-question Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT); hazardous alcohol use was defined as a score ≥8 for males and ≥4 for females [11].

Patient Consent

The study design and all study procedures were approved by the Johns Hopkins School of Medicine Institutional Review Board and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written informed consent.

Drug Use Definition

Drug use within the past 30 days was defined as either self-report of heroin or cocaine use within the past 30 days or a positive urine test result for either codeine, morphine, or benzoylecgonine (cocaine metabolite). Participants who did

not report use of heroin or cocaine and did not test positive were classified as not having used drugs in the past 30 days. Drug use pattern was defined using a comparison of drug use at enrollment and HCV treatment week 6. Participants were categorized into 4 groups based on patterns of drug use: (1) ongoing active drug use (positive at enrollment and week 6); (2) persistent drug use abstinence (negative at enrollment and week 6); (3) change from inactive to active drug use (negative at enrollment and positive at week 6); (4) change from active to inactive drug use (positive at enrollment and negative at week 6). Additional analyses compared drug use at 6 weeks with self-reported drug use at 12 weeks.

Statistical Analysis

Demographic, substance use, and health characteristics at enrollment were compared by drug use pattern. Categorical variables were compared using chi-square tests, and continuous variables were compared using an independent t test. An analysis of variance for continuous variables and Kruskal-Wallis for categorical variables were used when comparing across the 4 substance use pattern groups. Analyses were conducted using SAS, version 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

RESULTS

Of 144 PWUD enrolled in the study, 110 started HCV treatment with the DAA regimen. Among those 110 participants, 100 had data on self-reported drug use and urine toxicology at both enrollment and the week 6 visit. About half (48%) used drugs within 30 days of enrollment, and the median age (interquartile range) was 55 (51.0–59.3) years (Table 1). Among the 48 participants who used drugs, substances used included opioids alone in 16 (33%), cocaine alone in 19 (40%), and a combination of opioids and cocaine in 13 (27%). The majority were Black/African American (92%) and male (58%). Unemployment was prevalent (80%), and approximately half (56%) had obtained a high school diploma. There were 18 participants (18%) with concurrent hazardous alcohol use and depression.

At enrollment, participants with recent substance use were more likely to report depressive symptoms (70.8% vs 51.9%; P=.05) and hazardous alcohol use (35.4% vs 15.4%; P=.02) compared with those without recent use. Participants with recent substance use also showed a trend toward being more likely to have co-occurring depressive symptoms and hazardous alcohol use (25.0% vs 11.5%; P=.08) compared with those without recent use.

During HCV treatment, most participants had ongoing active drug use (36%) or persistent drug use abstinence (46%) (Table 2). However, 12% of participants transitioned from active to inactive drug use, whereas 6% transitioned from inactive to active drug use. The majority (11/12; 92%) of participants who transitioned to inactive drug use reported abstinence from substance use at 12 weeks. Despite only 25% of all participants

having hazardous alcohol use at enrollment, they represented a significantly higher proportion (41.7%) of the participants with ongoing active drug use (P = .04).

DISCUSSION

Our data highlight that drug use, hazardous alcohol use, and depression symptoms commonly co-occur among people with HIV and HCV [12]. In our study of PWUD, 18% of participants had co-occurring hazardous alcohol use and depressive symptoms. Drug use, hazardous alcohol use, and mental health disorders are an interconnected burden, with one condition often inflaming the other [13]. While it is encouraging that most participants in this study achieved HCV cure, the high prevalence of co-occurring substance use and mental health disorders warrants attention. Persistent active drug use, especially in the setting of co-occurring mental health disorders, has been associated with an increased risk of HCV re-infection [14]. HCV care programs should address these interrelated conditions by incorporating valid screening tools for the identification of drug use and hazardous alcohol use and mental health problems, such as the AUDIT and PHO-9. HCV care should also include referrals to indicated services and access to medications, such as naltrexone and buprenorphine, with proven effectiveness for treatment of alcohol and opioid use disorders.

Within this cohort of PWH with high levels of substance use at HCV treatment initiation, it is encouraging that 12% transitioned from active to inactive drug use during HCV treatment. Among a population that is often marginalized from the health care system, HCV treatment may provide an avenue to engage in care and receive additional psychosocial support and treatment. Changes in substance use behaviors have been identified within other cohorts of people receiving HCV treatment, although data are mostly limited to the pre-DAA era [8]. These data provide further evidence for engagement in HCV treatment as an opportunity to address the interrelated burden of problematic substance use, hazardous alcohol use, and mental health disorders among people with HIV and HCV. HIV care settings in particular provide an opportunity to provide long-term support and treatment for substance use and mental health disorders.

With a disproportionate percentage (42%) of participants with ongoing drug use at the 6-week visit reporting hazardous alcohol use at enrollment, this research draws particular attention to the significant role of alcohol use in perpetuating other substance use. Traditionally, in HCV settings, alcohol use has been viewed as a risk factor that can exacerbate liver-related complications among people with HCV [5]. This research extends those findings to include recognition of the interrelatedness of alcohol and drug use and to address alcohol use as both a risk factor for progression of liver disease and a risk factor for continued use of other substances.

This study has limitations. Determination of substance use incorporated results of urine toxicology testing, which has a

Table 1. Characteristics of Participants who Started HCV Treatment at Baseline by Substance Use in the Past 30 Days

Characteristic		Substance Use in the Past 30 Days (Self-report and Urine Tox)	No Substance Use in the Past 30 Days (Self-report and Urine Tox)	- P Value
	Total, No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	
Total	100	48	52	
Intervention group				.63
Usual care	19 (19.0)	8 (16.7)	11 (21.2)	
Usual care + peer	42 (42.0)	19 (39.6)	23 (44.2)	
Usual care + incentives	39 (39.0)	21 (43.8)	18 (34.6)	
Age, median (IQR), y	54.9 (51.0-59.3)	54.6 (51.2–58.4)	55.3 (50.7–60.6)	.54
Gender				.46
Male	58 (58.0)	26 (54.2)	32 (61.5)	
Female	42 (42.0)	22 (45.8)	20 (38.5)	
Race				.11
Black/African American	92 (92.0)	42 (87.5)	50 (96.2)	
White	8 (8.0)	6 (12.5)	2 (3.9)	
Completed high school/obtained GED	2 (3.5)	2 (12.2)	_ (-1/	.65
No	44 (44.0)	20 (41.7)	24 (46.1)	
Yes	56 (56.0)	28 (58.3)	28 (53.9)	
Insurance	20 (20.2)	(00.0)	(00.0)	.008
Medicaid	54 (54.0)	28 (58.3)	26 (50.0)	
Medicaid & Medicare	24 (24.0)	16 (33.3)	8 (15.4)	
Medicare, Tricare, other government	13 (13.0)	3 (6.3)	10 (19.2)	
Private	9 (9.0)	1 (2.1)	8 (15.4)	
Unemployed	3 (3.0)	1 (2.1)	o (13.4)	.19
No	20 (20.0)	7 (14.6)	13 (25.0)	.10
Yes	80 (80.0)	41 (85.4)	39 (75.0)	
	80 (80.0)	41 (05.4)	39 (75.0)	.05
Depressive symptoms No (CES-D <16)	39 (39.0)	14 (29.2)	25 (49 1)	.05
			25 (48.1)	
Yes (CES-D ≥16)	61 (61.0)	34 (70.8)	27 (51.9)	00
Self-reported hazardous alcohol use	75 (75 0)	24 (24 2)		.02
No (Male AUDIT <8/Female AUDIT <4)	75 (75.0)	31 (64.6)	44 (84.6)	
Yes (Male AUDIT ≥8/Female AUDIT ≥4)	25 (25.0)	17 (35.4)	8 (15.4)	
Depressive symptoms and hazardous alcohol use at baseline				.08
Neither or only 1	82 (82.0)	36 (75.0)	46 (88.5)	
Both (CES-D >16 + (Male AUDIT ≥8/ Female AUDIT ≥4))	18 (18.0)	12 (25.0)	6 (11.5)	
Alcohol use ^a				.06
PEth <50 ng/mL	64 (68.1)	27 (58.7)	37 (77.1)	
PEth >50 ng/mL	30 (31.9)	19 (41.3)	11 (22.9)	
Prescribed medication for opioid use disorder in past 3 mo				.0008
Methadone	22 (22.0)	19 (39.6)	3 (5.8)	
Buprenorphine	11 (11.0)	3 (6.3)	8 (15.4)	
Naltrexone	3 (3.0)	0	3 (5.8)	
None	64 (64.0)	26 (54.2)	38 (73.1)	
Receiving antiretroviral therapy	98 (98.0)	46 (95.8)	52 (100.0)	.14
Undetectable HIV viral load (<200 copies/mL)	86 (86.0)	40 (83.3)	46 (88.5)	.46
CD4 count, cell/mm ³	509 (349–804)	432 (298–830)	562 (415–797)	.22
Liver stiffness (n = 96), kPa				.38
≤8	66 (68.8)	36 (75.0)	30 (62.5)	.00
8.1–11.9	19 (19.8)	7 (14.6)	12 (25.0)	
J	10 (10.0)	, (IT.U)	12 (20.0)	

Bold text indicate statistical significant differences in the drug use groups.

Abbreviations: AUDIT, Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test; CES-D, Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IQR, interquartile range; PEth, phosphatidylethanol.

^aPEth data missing for 6 participants (4 in the no substance use group and 2 in the substance use group).

Table 2. Characteristics of Participants who Started Treatment by Substance Use Pattern (Difference in Substance Use Status [SR and UTOX] at Baseline vs Week 6 Visit)

Characteristic	Total, No. (%)	No Change (Persistent Drug Use Abstinence) No. (%)	No Change (Ongoing Active Drug Use)	Change From Inactive to Active Drug Use No. (%)	Change From Active to Inactive Drug Use No. (%)	<i>P</i> Value
Intervention group						.95
Usual care	19 (19.0)	9 (19.6)	6 (16.7)	2 (33.3)	2 (16.7)	
Usual care + peer	42 (42.0)	21 (45.7)	14 (38.9)	2 (33.3)	5 (41.7)	
Usual care + incentives	39 (39.0)	16 (34.8)	16 (44.4)	2 (33.3)	5 (41.7)	
Age, median (IQR), y	54.9 (51.0-59.3)	55.3 (51.0-60.2)	53.9 (50.9–58.9)	57.0 (48.1–63.6)	56.3 (54.6–58.0)	.73
Gender						.65
Male	58 (58.0)	28 (60.9)	21 (58.3)	4 (66.7)	5 (41.7)	
Female	42 (42.0)	18 (39.1)	15 (41.7)	2 (33.3)	7 (58.3)	
Race						.22
Black/African American	92 (92.0)	45 (97.8)	32 (88.9)	5 (83.3)	10 (83.3)	
White	8 (8.0)	1 (2.2)	4 (11.1)	1 (16.7)	2 (16.7)	
Insurance	0 (0.0)	, (2.2)	. (,	1 (10.7)	2-(1017)	.15
Medicaid	54 (54.0)	24 (52.7)	21 (58.3)	2 (33.3)	7 (58.3)	.10
Medicaid & Medicare	24 (24.0)	7 (15.2)	12 (33.3)	1 (16.7)	4 (33.3)	
Medicare, Tricare, other government	13 (13.0)	8 (17.4)	2 (5.6)	2 (33.3)	1 (8.2)	
Private	9 (9.0)	7 (15.2)	1 (2.8)		0	
	9 (9.0)	7 (15.2)	1 (2.0)	1 (16.7)	0	0.5
Unemployed	00 (00 0)	0.4 (70.0)	00 (00 0)	F (00.0)	10 (100 0)	.25
Yes	80 (80.0)	34 (73.9)	29 (80.6)	5 (83.3)	12 (100.0)	
No	20 (20.0)	12 (26.1)	7 (19.4)	1 (16.7)	0	
Receiving antiretroviral therapy	98 (98.0)	46 (100.0)	35 (97.2)	6 (100.0)	11 (91.7)	.30
Undetectable HIV viral load (<200 copies/ mL) at enrollment	86 (86.0)	40 (87.0)	29 (80.6)	6 (100.0)	11 (91.7)	.53
Undetectable HIV viral load (<200 copies/ mL) at 12 mo after enrollment	90 (90.0)	42 (91.3)	31 (86.1)	6 (100.0)	11 (91.7)	.71
CD4 count, cell/mm ³	509 (349-804)	534 (403–765)	426 (335-804)	854 (643-1108)	466 (225–909)	.22
Depressive symptoms (baseline)						.27
No (CES-D <16)	39 (39.0)	22 (47.8)	11 (30.6)	3 (50.0)	3 (25.0)	
Yes (CES-D ≥16)	61 (61.0)	24 (52.2)	25 (69.4)	3 (50.0)	9 (75.0)	
Depressive symptoms (6-wk FU)						.68
No (CES-D <16)	46 (46.9)	23 (52.3)	14 (38.9)	3 (50.0)	6 (50.0)	
Yes (CES-D ≥16)	52 (53.1)	21 (47.7)	22 (61.1)	3 (50.0)	6 (50.0)	
Alcohol use ^a						.17
PEth <50 ng/mL	64 (68.1)	32 (74.4)	20 (58.8)	5 (100.0)	7 (58.3)	
PEth >50 ng/mL	30 (31.9)	11 (25.6)	14 (41.2)	0	5 (41.7)	
Self-reported hazardous alcohol use						.04
No (Male AUDIT <8/Female AUDIT <4)	75 (75.0)	39 (84.8)	21 (58.3)	5 (83.3)	10 (83.3)	
Yes (Male AUDIT ≥8/Female AUDIT ≥4)	25 (25.0)	7 (15.2)	15 (41.7)	1 (16.7)	2 (16.7)	
Depressive symptoms and hazardous alcohol use at baseline	25 (25.5)	7 (10.2)	,	1 (15)2/	_(,	.27
No (neither or only 1)	82 (82.0)	41 (89.1)	26 (72.2)	5 (83.3)	10 (83.3)	
Yes (CES-D >16 + (Male AUDIT ≥8/Fe- male AUDIT ≥4))	18 (18.0)	5 (10.9)	10 (27.8)	1 (16.7)	2 (16.7)	
Prescribed medication for opioid use disorder in past 3 mo						.0004
Methadone	22 (22.0)	3 (6.5)	15 (41.7)	0	4 (33.3)	
Buprenorphine	11 (11.0)	5 (10.9)	3 (8.3)	2 (50.0)	0	
Naltrexone	3 (3.0)	2 (4.3)	0	1 (16.7)	0	
None	64 (64.0)	36 (78.3)	18 (50.0)	2 (33.3)	8 (66.7)	
SVR	0+ (0+.0)	30 (73.3)	10 (30.0)	د (55.5)	0 (00.7)	.18
	06 (06 0)	42 (01.2)	26 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	12 (100 0)	.10
Yes	96 (96.0) 4 (4.0)	42 (91.3) 4 (8.7)	36 (100.0) 0	6 (100.0) 0	12 (100.0) 0	

P value for comparison of drug use patterns from chi-square tests for categorical variables and Kruskal-Wallis test for continuous variables. Figures in bold indicate statistically significant differences between drug use groups.

Abbreviations: AUDIT, Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test; CES-D, Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IQR, interquartile range; PEth, phosphatidyethanol; SR, self report; SVR, sustained virologic response; UTOX, urine toxicology.

^aPEth data missing for 6 participants.

relatively short window (1-5 days from use) for detection of heroin and cocaine [15]. However, we also incorporated self-report of substance use in the determination of substance use category. Participants included may represent a population more connected to the health care system due to HIV care linkage. It is likely that the issues of hazardous substance use, mental health disorders, and HCV are more severe within populations that are less engaged in the health care system. This reality would make engaging patients receiving HCV treatment in comprehensive services more critical, underscoring the findings of this research. Although this study was limited to PWH receiving care within a single urban infectious disease clinic, these issues of co-occurring mental health and substance use disorders are prevalent among people chronically infected with HCV and are likely reflective of diverse settings [16]. Furthermore, drug use data were limited to only week 6 of HCV treatment. However, these patterns still underscore the potential role of HCV treatment in shaping drug use behavior. Future research should examine the impact of systematic integrated substance use and mental health disorder screening and care on long-term outcomes for PWUD receiving HCV care.

Acknowledgments

Financial support. This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (grant numbers R01DA16065, R37DA013806, U01DA036935, K24DA034621, and K23DA041294). This work was also made possible by the Johns Hopkins Institute for Clinical and Translational Research and the Center for Clinical Data Analytics (funded in part by grant number UL1 TR001079) and the Johns Hopkins Center for AIDS Research (grant number P30AI094189).

Potential conflicts of interest. S.D.M., K.M.W., C.G.S., R.I., G.C., R.K.B., S.H.M., and D.L.T. have nothing to disclose. O.F.N. is the PI for research grants with funds paid to Johns Hopkins University: AbbVie. M.S. is the PI for research grants with funds paid to Johns Hopkins University: AbbVie, Assembly Bio, Gilead, Proteus Digital Health. M.S. is also a scientific advisor/consultant: AbbVie, Arbutus, Gilead. The terms of these arrangements are being managed by the Johns Hopkins University in accordance with its conflict of interest policies. All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that

the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

References

- Platt L, Easterbrook P, Gower E, et al. Prevalence and burden of HCV co-infection in people living with HIV: a global systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Infect Dis 2016: 16:797–808.
- Degenhardt L, Peacock A, Colledge S, et al. Global prevalence of injecting drug use and sociodemographic characteristics and prevalence of HIV, HBV, and HCV in people who inject drugs: a multistage systematic review. Lancet Glob Health 2017: 5:e1192-207.
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Key substance use and mental health indicators in the United States: results from the 2018 National Survey on Drug Use and Health. 2019. Available at: https://www.samhsa.gov/ data/. Accessed 1 March 2021.
- Davidson S, Judd F, Jolley D, et al. Risk factors for HIV/AIDS and hepatitis C among the chronic mentally ill. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 2001; 35:203–9.
- Fuster D, Sanvisens A, Bolao F, et al. Alcohol use disorder and its impact on chronic hepatitis C virus and human immunodeficiency virus infections. World J Hepatol 2016; 8:1295–308.
- Backus LI, Belperio PS, Shahoumian TA, Mole LA. Direct-acting antiviral sustained virologic response: Impact on mortality in patients without advanced liver disease. Hepatology 2018; 68:827–38.
- Norton BL, Fleming J, Bachhuber MA, et al. High HCV cure rates for people who
 use drugs treated with direct acting antiviral therapy at an urban primary care
 clinic. Int J Drug Policy 2017; 47:196–201.
- Caven M, Malaguti A, Robinson E, et al. Impact of hepatitis C treatment on behavioural change in relation to drug use in people who inject drugs: a systematic review. Int J Drug Policy 2019; 72:169–76.
- Ward KM, Falade-Nwulia O, Moon J, et al. A randomized controlled trial of cash incentives or peer support to increase HCV treatment for persons with HIV who use drugs: the CHAMPS study. Open Forum Infect Dis 2019; 6:XXX-XX.
- Carleton RN, Thibodeau MA, Teale MJ, et al. The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale: a review with a theoretical and empirical examination of item content and factor structure. PLoS One 2013; 8:e58067.
- Volk RJ, Steinbauer JR, Cantor SB, Holzer CE 3rd. The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) as a screen for at-risk drinking in primary care patients of different racial/ethnic backgrounds. Addiction 1997; 92:197–206.
- Falade-Nwulia O, Sutcliffe C, Moon J, et al. High hepatitis C cure rates among black and nonblack human immunodeficiency virus-infected adults in an urban center. Hepatology 2017; 66:1402–12.
- Brooner RK, King VL, Kidorf M, et al. Psychiatric and substance use comorbidity among treatment-seeking opioid abusers. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1997; 54:71–80.
- Islam N, Krajden M, Shoveller J, et al; British Columbia Hepatitis Testers Cohort (BC-HTC) team. Incidence, risk factors, and prevention of hepatitis C reinfection: a population-based cohort study. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017; 2:200–10.
- Hadland SE, Levy S. Objective testing: urine and other drug tests. Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am 2016; 25:549–65.
- el-Serag HB, Kunik M, Richardson P, Rabeneck L. Psychiatric disorders among veterans with hepatitis C infection. Gastroenterology 2002; 123:476–82.