We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists

5,500 Open access books available 136,000 International authors and editors 170M



Our authors are among the

TOP 1% most cited scientists





WEB OF SCIENCE

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us? Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected. For more information visit www.intechopen.com



Chapter

Immunological and Virological Failure among Individuals on Highly-Active Antiretroviral Therapy

Hadush Negash, Brhane Berhe and Miglas Welay

Abstract

Initiation of antiretroviral treatment decreased HIV related mortality and morbidity. Virological failure (a condition defined when the plasma viral load of HIV infected individuals greater than 1000 RNA copies/ml based on two consecutive viral load measurements with adherence support) have an increased risk of clinical progression to acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) and death. Nowadays, combination of highly active antiretroviral therapy is recommended to decrease the likelihood of drug resistance. However, there is emergence of drug resistance and treatment failure during treatment. Hence, managing and detecting antiretroviral treatment response is important to monitor the effectiveness of medication and possible drug switching for treatment regimens. Additionally, mechanisms of drug resistance and factors associated with immunological and virological treatment failure should be addressed.

Keywords: immunological response, virologic response, adverse drug reactions, HAART, drug resistance, mechanism

1. Introduction

Globally, in 2017, there were about 20.9 million HIV patients receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) [1]. The treatment is targeted at inhibiting viral attachment and replication leading to the recovery of immune function [2, 3]. Since the introduction of HAART in 1996, there is a decline in mortality and morbidity associated with HIV [4, 5]. Due to HAART, the impact of HIV infection decreased [6] due to viral suppression, restoring and preserving immune function, improving quality of life, and reducing HIV related morbidity and mortality along the course of treatment [7–9]. There are a number of problems associated with HAART, including emergence of drug resistance, difficulties of maintaining long-term adherence, and drug-related toxicities [5] which lead to virological failure, immunological failure and clinical progression [10].

Virological failure increases the risk of clinical progression of HIV to AIDS [11]. World health organization (WHO) recommended combination therapy of HAART [12, 13]. The combination therapy improved the natural history of HIV infection from a life-ending event to a manageable chronic condition [14]. Adverse drug reactions (ADRs) associated with HAART resulted some considerable health consequences like co-morbidity with opportunistic infections [15–17].

Viral Outbreaks

Treatment failure to first-line regimens resulting from ADRs creates the need for very expensive and difficult-to-implement second-line regimens. Second-line HAART regimens are not easily affordable and largely donor dependent in resourcelimited settings [18]. Effective viral suppression is targeted by UNAIDS to meet "90-90-90" in 90% of persons on HAART by 2020 [19]. Use of an effective and safer HAART regimen helps to promote maximal viral suppression and improved immunological and virological response [20, 21].

2. Occurrence and determinants of immunological and virological failure

2.1 Prevalence of immunological failure/immune reconstitution among HIV infected individuals on HAART

Immune reconstitution is the immunological response of immune cells (mostly CD4+ T cells) due to initiation of HAART. The response is either success or failure. Previously conducted studies reported different rates of immunological failure among HIV infected individuals (**Table 1**).

The variation among the above studies might be explained due to the differences in patient adherence, differences to define immunological failure whereby some studies defined as the reduction in number of CD4 + T cell count to baseline or below, or persistently low CD4+ T cell count (below 100 cells/ μ L) [31] and others defined immunological failure as reduction in number of CD4+ T cell count to baseline or below severe immune suppression (CD4+ T cell count <200 cells/ μ L) [24, 25, 28, 30, 32, 33]. Other studies defined immunological failure as 50% decline of CD4+ T cells from treatment peak value [28, 34] or at least 30% decline from treatment peak value [28, 35].

Moreover, the prevalence of immunological failure can be expressed with person-years among the HIV patients on treatment. As per recent studies, the rate was 2.966 [22], 2.57 [36], 8.7 [37] and 8 [38] person-years. The variation among these reports might be due to the differences in treatment adherence and the presence of opportunistic infections (status of co-morbidity). Hence, the coverage of good adherence toward the HAART was one of the determining factors for immunological success. The likelihood of having good adherence of HAART increases the treatment success rate considering the results of previous studies (**Table 2**).

Number	Prevalence of immunological failure of HAART	Reference
1.	24.7%	[22]
2.	6.5%	[23]
3.	9.8%	[24]
4.	11.5%	[25]
5.	15.1%	[26]
6.	18.4%	[27]
7.	64.4%	[28]
8.	33.5%	[29]
9.	35%	[30]

Table 1.

Occurrence of immunological failure of HIV infected individuals on HAART.

Number	Percentage of adherence from previous studies	Reference
1.	72.5%	[22]
2.	81.8%	[25]
3.	82.7%	[26]
4.	82.4%	[39]
5.	78.5%	[32]
6.	92%	[33]
7.	85.8%	[25]
8.	97.7%	[34]
9.	100%	[24]

Table 2.

Coverage of good treatment adherence of clients from different studies.

Treatment adherence differs among studies due to differences in psychosocial support of relatives or the society to strictly adhere to the treatment guidelines, stigma, and lack of commitment to take medications so that HIV patients might drop themselves from on course ART treatment, perceived feeling of unwellness from medication, and scaring of treatment side effects [31, 40, 41].

Previously, baseline CD4+ T cell counts were playing an important role for an HIV patient to initiate HAART. The median baseline CD4+ T cell counts for an HIV infected individual to start HAART is explained below (**Table 3**). However, nowa-days, the target is to test and treat regardless of their CD4+ T cell counts.

2.2 Associated factors of immunological failure among HIV infected individuals on HAART

Poor adherence to HAART increased to experience failure in CD4+ T cell recovery [22, 26, 28, 33, 43]. This allows increased viral replication which in turn increases infection of new CD4+ T cells and ultimately depletion of immune cells [41]. Additionally, lower baseline CD4+ T cell count is one of the determining factors for increased immunological failure because immune recovery mostly depends on the number of baseline CD4+ T cell counts [22, 29, 38]. The timing of HAART initiation is important to optimize the CD4+ T cell immune response to medication [44].

Number	Median baseline CD4+ T cell counts	Reference
1.	196 cells/μL	[22]
2.	191 cells/μL	[24]
3.	162 cells/μL	[23]
4.	156 cell/μL	[24]
5.	152 cells/μL	[28]
6.	115 cells/µL	[32]
7.	177 cells/μL	[34]
8.	238 cell/µL	[42]

Table 3.

Median baseline CD4+ T cell counts of HIV infected individuals to initiate HAART as per previously published studies.

Number	Percentage of virological failure	Reference
1.	12.47%	[54]
2.	14.7%	[55]
3.	15%	[56]
4.	5.3%	[57]
5.	7.5%	[58]
6.	23.2%	[59]
7.	24%	[60]
8.	47%	[61]
9.	30.6%	[62]
10.	57.1%	[63]
11.	32%	[64]
12.	20.6%	[65]
13.	16.7%	[66]
14.	51.6%	[67]
15.	20.9%	[68]
16.	69.6%	[69]

Table 4.

Prevalence of virological failure of HAART among individuals infected with HIV.

These reports may highlight that patients with low CD4+ T cell count have poor long term CD4+ T cell immune response [22].

TB/HIV co-infection worsen the rate of immunological failure [22, 25, 37, 45–48]. TB infection impairs cellular immune responses through MTB-induced apoptosis of CD4+ T cells which subsequently lead to depletion of CD4+ T cells [49]. Incidence of TB during the course of HAART decreased the likelihood of treatment adherence due to its high pill burden and side-effects [50]. Although the risk of acquiring TB remains elevated, much less is known about the effect of HAART on recurrent TB [51]. All in all, recurrences of TB are lower among HIV infected individuals with higher CD4+ T cell counts [52].

2.3 Occurrence of virological failure among HIV infected individuals on HAART

Virological failure among individuals on HAART is defined as plasma viral load of the HIV infected individual is greater than 1000 RNA copies/ml based on two consecutive viral load measurements with adherence support [53]. The occurrence of virological failure of HAART among HIV infected individuals is reported below (**Table 4**).

The variation might be due to the differences in cutoff values of viral RNA copies per ml of plasma to consider virological failure [60, 63, 70], the duration of follow-up, differences of co-morbidity, variations on the treatment adherence of HAART, clinical/immunological failure [61, 71], perinatally infected [67], lower mean age [65] and shorter duration on HAART [66].

2.4 Associated factors of virological failure among HIV infected individuals on HAART

Magnitude of virological failure of HAART is not the same for all HIV infected individuals. There are factors that affect the likelihood of virological failure like

malnourishment and overweight [22, 54, 72, 73]. Abnormal body mass index (BMI) is significantly correlated with decreased CD4+ T cell counts that increases viral load by progressing into the advanced stage of the disease [74, 75].

Moreover, the occurrence of virological failure is higher among TB co-infected individuals [54, 76, 77]. Concurrent HAART and TB treatment increases the rate of virological failure due to impaired treatment adherence and pharmacokinetics drug reactions. Hence, clients on HAART with active TB should be prioritized for viral load monitoring and follow-up. Moreover, to prevent incident TB during ART INH prophylaxis is recommended. Increased viral copies compromise immunity and negatively affect treatment by contributing to the double burden side effects of TB and HIV [78].

Failure for an immune-reconstitution increases the rate of virological failure [54, 79–81]. This leads to an increase in viral replication [22]. Hence, it is a surrogate marker for virological failure. During HAART, detecting and monitoring immuno-logical response should also be emphasized to prevent drug resistance [22, 82].

3. Immune reconstitution during chronic HAART

Despite the successful suppression of viral replication, some clients on HAART might fail to recover immune cells (immune reconstitution). It is estimated that half of HIV infected individuals on HAART might fail to reconstitute their CD4+ T cell counts to levels above 500 cells/ μ L. Additionally, up to 16% might fail to achieve a CD4+ T cell counts greater than 200 cells/ μ L, even with long term therapy of HAART [83]. There are factors determining rates of immune reconstitution including older age [84], lower baseline CD4+ T cell counts prior to HAART [85], and co-infection with hepatitis C virus (HCV) and TB [86, 87].

3.1 HAART is the most effective strategy for successful immune reconstitution

Initiation of HAART in early stages of HIV infection is associated with not detectable viral load suggesting effective inhibition of viral replication [88, 89]. During treatment initiation (during the first 4 months of HIV infection), there is lower recovery of immune cells due to a narrow restorative time. It is explained that starting HAART initiates both the rate and extent of CD4+ T cells reconstitution [90].

While treating HIV infected individuals, combining cytokine, IL-7 therapy, prevents apoptosis of T cells and is required for naive T-cell survival. This increases CD4+ T cell counts among clients on treatment [91]. The T cells remain capable of responding to antigenic stimuli and produce cytokines after polyclonal and specific antigenic stimulation. Then repopulation appears to extend cells from thymus to effector sites of the immune system [92, 93].

4. HIV drug resistance

Detecting HIV drug resistance is one of the major limiting factors in the successful treatment of HIV infection [94]. This includes genotypic and phenotypic assays. The genotypic detection is performed by matching results with lists of frequently updated HIV mutations that are known to confer drug resistance which are relatively inexpensive. However, it can only identify documented HIV mutations and may not detect new mutations that arise in a particular HIV variant. Although it is not easy to predict the actual degree of drug resistance, phenotypic testing yields drug susceptibility of a particular HIV variant. It provides information on the sensitivity of a particular HIV variant in comparison to a control isolate with full drug sensitivity. Moreover, there is inconsistency in interpreting the detected decrease in viral drug sensitivity into actual decreases in clinical sensitivity. Hence, it needs to have large-scale clinical trials for a correlation might be made between changes in phenotypic sensitivity and actual drug resistance [95].

Investigators have assessed the effectiveness of HIV drug resistance testing in improving clinical response to pharmacotherapy, like the GART [96], the VIRADAPT [97] and the ARGENTA [98]. They reported that individuals whose drug selection was based on genotypic resistance testing had significantly lower viral loads than patients who did not receive resistance testing prior to starting therapy. This reflects reduced morbidity and mortality [97].

Several factors related to the life cycle and replication of HIV are key contributors toward the rapid and widespread emergence of resistance. Initially, the reverse transcriptase enzyme is highly prone to errors during the process of reverse transcription. Hence it makes errors in each HIV genome per round of replication process which enhances its mutation for every 2000 nucleotide bases [99]. In addition to these base substitutions, insertions can occur. The especial scenario of HIV drug resistance mechanism is also due to high rate of replication. When untreated, plasma HIV RNA levels range from 103 to 105 copies/ml or sometimes greater than 106 copies/ml in acute infection [100].

The HIV virus continues to infect new cells at a very high rate to maintain the infection to a stationary state. Additionally, increased rate of errors in the reverse transcription yields new variants with drug resistance. Some HIV variants manifest drug resistance due to intrinsic factors. Hence, antiretroviral resistance can still occur even during successful therapy of HIV infection [101].

Author details

Hadush Negash^{1*}, Brhane Berhe¹ and Miglas Welay²

1 Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, Adigrat University, Tigrai, Northern Ethiopia

2 Department of Midwifery, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, Adigrat University, Tigrai, Northern Ethiopia

*Address all correspondence to: hadunegash@gmail.com

IntechOpen

© 2021 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This chapter is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

References

[1] UNAIDS. Global HIV/AIDS statistics. 2017.

 [2] Vidya-Vijayan KK. Pathophysiology of CD4+ T-cell depletion in HIV-1 and HIV-2 infections. *Front Immunol*.
 2017;8:580.

[3] WHO. Consolidated guidelines on the use of antiretroviral drugs for treating and preventing HIV infection: Recommendations for a public health approach± 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland. 2016.

[4] Mocroft A, Lundgren JD. Starting highly active antiretroviral therapy: why, when and response to HAART. *The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy*. 2004;**54**(1):10-3.

[5] WHO. Panel on Clinical Practices for Treatment of HIV Infection. Guidelines for the use of antiretroviral agents in HIV-1 infected adults and adolescents. 2004.

[6] UNECA. HIV/AIDS Progress in 2014 Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: World Health Organization Ethiopia Country Office; 2015.

[7] Churchill D, Waters L, Ahmed N, *et al.* British HIV Association guidelines for the treatment of HIV-1-positive adults with antiretroviral therapy. *Br HIV Assoc.* 2015;**17**(4):2-104.

[8] AIDS. Guidelines for the Use of Antiretroviral Agents in HIV-1-Infected Adults and Adolescents. 2016.

[9] NACO. ART Guidelines for HIV-Infected Adults and Adolescents. *Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Government of India*; 2013.

[10] PLATO c. Predictors of trend in CD4-positive T-cell count and mortality among HIV-1-infected individuals with virological failure to all three antiretroviral-drug classes. 2004.

[11] Deeks SG. Determinants of virological response to antiretroviral therapy: implications for long-term strategies. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2000;**30**(2): 177-84.

[12] Dieffenbach CW, Fauci AS. Thirty years of HIV and AIDS: future challenges and opportunities. *Ann Intern Med.* 2011;**154**:766-71.

[13] Tanser F, Bärnighausen T, Grapsa E, Zaidi J, Newell ML. High coverage of ART associated with decline in risk of HIV acquisition in rural KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Science*. 2013;**339** 966-71.

[14] Deeks S, Lewin S, Havlir D. The end of AIDS: HIV infection as a chronic disease. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol*. 2013;**382**:1525-33.

[15] Murphy RA, Sunpath H, Kuritzkes DR, Venter F, Gandhi RT. Antiretroviral therapy-associated toxicities in the resource-poor world: the challenge of a limited formulary. *J Infect Dis* 2007;**196**(3):449-56.

[16] Khan K, Khan AH, Sulaiman SA, Soo CT. Survival trend and impact of adverse drug reactions during haart on survival function in HIV/AIDS patients. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2015;**91**(s236):17-34.

[17] Mouton JP, Mehta U, Parrish AG, *et al*. Mortality from adverse drug reactions in adult medical inpatients at four hospitals in South Africa: a crosssectional survey. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2015;**80**:818-26.

[18] Renaud-Théry F, Nguimfack BD, Vitoria M. Use of therapy in resourcelimited countries in 2006: Distribution and uptake of first- and second-line regimens. *AIDS Behav*. 2007;**21**(4):89-95. [19] UNAIDS. Ending AIDS: Progress towards the 90-90-90 targets. 2017.

[20] Nachega JB, Sam-Agudu NA, Mofenson LM, Schechter M, Mellors JW. Achieving viral suppression in 90% of people living with human immunodeficiency virus on antiretroviral therapy in low- and middle-income countries: Progress, opportunities. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2018;**66**:1487-91.

[21] Trickey A, May MT, Vehreschild JJ, Obel N, Gill MJ, Crane HM, et al. Survival of HIV-positive patients starting antiretroviral therapy between 1996 and 2013: a collaborative analysis of cohort studies. *Lancet HIV*. 2017;**4**:349-56.

[22] Negash H, Legese H, Tefera M, Mardu F, Tesfay K, Gebresilasie S, et al. The effect of tuberculosis on immune reconstitution among HIV patients on highly active antiretroviral therapy in Adigrat general hospital, eastern Tigrai, Ethiopia; 2019: a retrospective follow up study. *BMC immunology*. 2019;**20**(1):45.

[23] Hailu GG. Virological and immunological failure of HAART and associated risk factors among adults and adolescents in the Tigrai region of Northern Ethiopia. *PloS one*. 2018;**13**(5):e0196259.

[24] Abdissa A, Yilma D, Fonager J, AudelinM A, Christensen HL, Mette FO, et al. Drug resistance in HIV patients with virological failure or slow virological response to antiretroviral therapy in Ethiopia. *BMC Infect Disease*. 2014;**14**:181.

[25] Yirdaw KD, Hattingh S. Prevalence and predictors of immunological failure among HIV patients on HAART in Southern Ethiopia. *PloS one*. 2015;**10**(5):e0125826.

[26] Zeleke A. Prevalence of antiretroviral treatment failure and

associated factors in HIV infected children on HAART at Gondar University Hospital, retrospective cohort study. *International J Med Med Sci.* 2016;8(11):125-32.

[27] Huang P, Tan J, Ma W, Zheng H, Lu Y, Wang N, et al. Outcomes of antiretroviral treatment in HIV infected adults: a dynamic and observational cohort study in Shenzhen, China, 2003-2014. *BMJ Open*. 2015;5:e007508.

[28] Sang RKA, Miruka FO. Factors Associated with Virological Failure amongst Adults on Antiretroviral Therapy in Nyanza Region, Kenya. *IOSR-JDMS*. 2016;**15**(7):108-21.

[29] Khienprasit N, Chaiwarith R, Sirisanthana T, Supparatpinyo K. Incidence and risk factors of antiretroviral treatment failure in treatment-naïve HIV-infected patients at Chiang Mai University Hospital, Thailand. *AIDS Research and Therapy*. 2011;**8**:42.

[30] Ojha CR, Shakya G, Dumre SP. Virological and immunological status of the people living with HIV/AIDS undergoing ART treatment in Nepal. *Bio-Med Resea Intern*. 2016;**2016**: 6817325.

[31] WHO. Consolidated guidelines on the use of antiretroviral drugs for treating and preventing HIV infection: Recommendations for a public health approach± 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland, WHO. 2016.

[32] Teshome W, Tefera A. Detection of immunological treatment failure among HIV infected patients in Ethiopia: A retrospective cohort study. *BMC immunology*. 2015;**16**:55.

[33] De-La-Hoz JM, Bolaño L, CaÂrdenas O, GonzaÂlez R, Sabbag J, Palacio L, et al. Characterization of treatment failure in HIV positive patients in the Colombian Caribbean

region. *Colomb Med (Cali)* 2014;**45**(4): 162-7.

[34] Teshome YY, Yalew AW. Magnitude and predictors of antiretroviral treatment failure in private health facilities in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *PloS one*. 2015;**10**(5):e0126026.

[35] Mgelea EM, Kisenge R, Aboud S. Detecting virological failure in HIVinfected Tanzanian children. *S Afr Med J*. 2014;**104**(10):696-9.

[36] Renaud-Théry F, Duncombe C, Kerr S, Thierry S, Perriëns J. Adult Antiretroviral therapy in resourcelimited settings: A systematic review of first-line failure and attrition rates. 2008.

[37] Assefa A, Gelaw B, Getnet G, Yitayew G. The effect of incident TB on immunological response of HIV patients on HAART at the University of Gondar hospital, Northwest Ethiopia: a retrospective follow-up study. *BMC Infec Disease*. 2014;**14**:468.

[38] Melsew YA, Terefe MW, Tessema GA, Ayele TA. Rate of immunological failure and its predictors among patients on HAART at Debremarkos hospital, northwest Ethiopia: A retrospective follow up study. J AIDS Clin Res. 2013;4:211.

[39] Gare J, Kelly-Hanku A, Ryan CE, David M, Kaima P, Imara U, et al. Factors Influencing antiretroviral adherence and Virological outcomes in people living with HIV in the highlands of Papua New Guinea. *PloS one*. 2015;**10**(8):e0134918.

[40] Mulu A, Maier M, Liebert UG. Low incidence of HIV-1C acquired drug resistance 10 years after the rollout of antiretroviral therapy in Ethiopia: A prospective cohort study. *PloS one*. 2015;**10**(10):e0141318

[41] Heestermans T, Browne JL, Aitken SC, Vervoort SC, KlipsteinGrobusch K. Determinants of adherence to HAART among HIV-positive adults in sub- Saharan Africa: a systematic review. *BMJ Global Health*. 2016;**1**: e000125.

[42] Loubet P, Charpentier C, Visseaux B, Borbor A, Nuta C, Adu E, et al. Prevalence of HIV-1 drug resistance among patients failing first-line HAART in Monrovia, Liberia: a cross-sectional study. *J Antimicrob Chemotherapy*. 2015;**70**(6):1881-4.

[43] Srasuebkul P, Ungsedhapand C, Ruxrungtham K, Boyd MA, Phanuphak P, Cooper DA, et al. Predictive factors for immunological and virological endpoints in Thai patients receiving combination antiretroviral treatment. *HIV Med*. 2007;**8**(1):46-54.

[44] Wakibi SN, Ng'ang' ZW, Mbugua GG. Factors associated with non-adherence to HAART in Nairobi, Kenya. *AIDS Research and Therapy* 2011;**8**:43.

[45] Musa BM, Musa B, Muhammed H, Ibrahim N, Musa AG. Incidence of TB and immunological profile of TB/HIV co-infected patients in Nigeria. *Annals Thoracic Medic*. 2015;**10**(3):185-92.

[46] Kigozi BK, Sumba S, Mudyope P, Namuddu B, Kalyango J, Karamagi C, et al. The effect of AIDS-defining conditions on immunological recovery among patients initiating antiretroviral therapy at joint clinical research Centre, Uganda. *AIDS Res Ther*. 2009;**6**:17.

[47] Zhang Q, Sugawara I. Immunology of tuberculosis. *World J Exp Med*. 2012;2(4):70-4.

[48] Eshun-Wilson I, Taljaard JJ,
Nachega JB. Sub-optimal CD4+
T-lymphocyte responses among HIV
infected patients who develop TB during
the first year of HAART. *AIDS Clin Res*.
2012;3(135):1000135.

[49] Raffi F, Le-Moing V, Assuied A, Habak S, Spire B, Cazenave C, et al. Failure to achieve immunological recovery in HIV-infected patients with clinical and virological success after 10 years of combined HAART: role of a treatment course. *J Antimicrob Chemotherapy*. 2017;**72**(1):240-5.

[50] Lawn SD. CD4 cell count recovery among HIV-infected patients with very advanced immunodeficiency commencing antiretroviral treatment in sub-Saharan Africa. *BMC Infect Disease*. 2006;**6**:59.

[51] Lawn SD, Harries AD, Williams BG, Chaisson RE, Losina E, De-Cock KM, et al. Antiretroviral therapy and the control of HIV associated tuberculosis. Will ART do it? *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis*. 2011;**15**:571-81.

[52] Charalambous S, Grant AD, Moloi V, Warren R, Day JH, Van-Helden P, et al. Contribution of reinfection to recurrent tuberculosis in South African gold miners. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* 2008;**12**:942-8.

[53] WHO. World health organizaion. Available at: https://www.who.int/hiv/ pub/guidelines/arv2013/art/WHO_CG_ table_7.15.pdf. Accessed on December 24, 2019. 2013.

[54] Negash H, Welay M, Legese H, Adhanom G, Mardu F, Tesfay K, et al. Increased Virological Failure and Determinants Among HIV Patients on Highly Active Retroviral Therapy in Adigrat General Hospital, Northern Ethiopia, 2019: Hospital-Based Cross-Sectional Study. *Infection and drug resistance*. 2020;**13**:1863-72.

[55] Gizachew A, Belay T, Anteneh A, Getachew F, Gizachew Y. Prevalence and associated factors of treatment failure among HIV/AIDS patients on HAART attending University of Gondar Referral Hospital Northwest Ethiopia. *BMC Immunology*. 2018;**19**:37. [56] Yirdaw KD, Hattingh S. Prevalence and Predictors of Immunological Failure among HIV Patients on HAART in Southern Ethiopia *PLoS ONE*. 2015;**10** (5):e0125826.

[57] Abdissa A, Yilma D, Fonager J, AudelinM A, Christensen H, Mette F, et al. Drug resistance in HIV patients with virological failure or slow virological response to antiretroviral therapy in Ethiopia *BMC Infect Diseases*. 2014;**14**:181.

[58] Penot P, He'ma A, Bado G, Kabore F, Sore I, Sombie D, et al. The vulnerability of men to virologic failure during antiretroviral therapy in a public routine clinic in Burkina Faso. *JIAS*. 2014;**17**: 18646.

[59] Meriki HD, Tufon KA, Afegenwi MH, Nyindem BA, Atanga PN, Anong DN, et al. Immunohaematologic and virologic responses and predictors of virologic failure in HIV-1 infected adults on first-line antiretroviral therapy in Cameroon. *Infect Dis Poverty*. 2014;**3**(1):5.

[60] Hassan AS, Nabwera HM, Mwaringa SM, Obonyo CA, Sanders EJ, W.T. R-d, et al. HIV-1 virologic failure and acquired drug resistance among first-line antiretroviral experienced adults at a rural HIV clinic in coastal Kenya: a cross-sectional study. *AIDS Research and Therapy*. 2014;**11**:9.

[61] Loubet P, Charpentier C, Visseaux B, Borbor A, Nuta C, Adu E, et al. Prevalence of HIV-1 drug resistance among patients failing first-line ART in Monrovia, Liberia: a cross-sectional study *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2015;**70** (6):1881-4.

[62] Makadzange AT, Higgins-Biddle M, Chimukangara B, Birri R, Gordon M, Mahlanza T, et al. Clinical, Virologic, Immunologic Outcomes and Emerging HIV Drug Resistance Patterns in Children and Adolescents in Public ART

Care in Zimbabwe. *PLoS ONE*. 2015;**10**(12):e0144057.

[63] Mgelea EM, Kisenge R, Aboud S. Detecting virological failure in HIVinfected Tanzanian children *S Afr Med J* 2014;**104**(10):696-9.

[64] Ramadhani HO, Thielman NM, Landman KZ, Ndosi EM, Gao F, Kirchherr JL, et al. Predictors of Incomplete Adherence, Virologic Failure, and Antiviral Drug Resistance among HIV-Infected Adults Receiving Antiretroviral Therapy in Tanzania *CID* 2007;**45**:1492-8.

[65] Nlend AE, Lyeb S, Moyo ST, A.N. M. Viral Monitoring and Prevalence of Viral Failure in HIV-1 Infected Children under First Line Antiretroviral Therapy during the First 60 Months of Treatment in Yaoundé, Cameroon: A Serial Cross-sectional Analysis. *Open Journal of Pediatrics*. 2016;**6**:69-74.

[66] Barry O, Powell J, Renner L, Bonney E, Prin M, Ampofo W, et al. Effectiveness of first-line antiretroviral therapy and correlates of longitudinal changes in CD4 and viral load among HIV-infected children in Ghana. *BMC Infectious Diseases*. 2013;**13**:476.

[67] Salou M, Dagnra AY, Butel C, Vidal N, Serrano L, Takassi E, et al. High rates of virological failure and drug resistance in perinatally HIV-1infected children and adolescents receiving lifelong antiretroviral therapy in routine clinics in Togo *JIAS*. 2016;**19**:20683.

[68] De-La Hoz J, Bolaño L, Cárdenas O, González R, Sabbag J, Palacio L, et al. Charactrization of treatment failure in HIV positive patients in the Colombian Caribbean region *Colomb med*. 2014;**45**(4):s162-7.

[69] Raja K, Chandrasekar C, Krishnarajasekhar OR, Ravichandran N, Kumar S, Manoharan G, et al. Predicting Virological Failure with Immunological Criteria in First Line ART Patients in a Resource Poor Setting *World Journal of AIDS*. 2014;**4**:413-21.

[70] Waruru A, Muttai H, Ng'ang'a L, Ackers M, Kim A, Miruka F, et al. Positive Predictive Value of the WHO Clinical and Immunologic Criteria to Predict Viral Load Failure among Adults on First, or Second-Line Antiretroviral Therapy in Kenya. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;**11**(7)):e0158881.

[71] Puthanakit T, Kerr S, Ananworanich J, Bunupuradah T, Boonrak P, Sirisanthana V. Pattern and Predictors of Immunologic Recovery in Human Immunodeficiency Virus-Infected Children Receiving Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitor-Based Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy. *Pediatr Infect Dis J Clin North Am.* 2009;**28**(6):488-92.

[72] Mulu A, Maier M, Liebert UG. Low incidence of HIV-1C acquired drug resistance 10 years after the rollout of antiretroviral therapy in Ethiopia: A prospective cohort study *PLoS ONE* 2015;**10**(10):e0141318.

[73] Izudi J, Alioni S, Kerukadho E, Ndungutse D. Virological failure reduced with HIV- serostatus disclosure , extra baseline weight and rising CD4 cells among HIV-positive adults in northwestern Uganda. *BMC Infect Dis* 2016;**18**(8):Available from: https://doi. org/10.1186/s12879-016-1952-x.

[74] Duggal S, Das CT, Duggal AK. HIV and Malnutrition : Effects on Immune System. *Clin Dev Immunol*. 2012;**2012**.

[75] Batterham M, Brown D, Garsia R. Nutritional management of HIV/AIDS in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy : a review. *Australian J Nut Diet*. 2001;**1**:211-23.

[76] Bulage L, Ssewanyana I, Nankabirwa V, Nsubuga F, Kihembo C, Pande G, et al. Factors Associated with Virological Non-suppression among HIV-Positive Patients on Antiretroviral Therapy in Uganda, August 2014-July 2015. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2017;**1**7(1):326.

[77] Gupta A, Wood R, Kaplan R,
Bekker LG, Lawn SD. Prevalent and
Incident Tuberculosis Are Independent
Risk Factors for Mortality among
Patients Accessing Antiretroviral
Therapy in South Africa *PLoS One*.
2013;8(2):e55824.

[78] Assemie MA, Alene M, Ketema DB, Mulatu S. Treatment failure and associated factors among first line patients on highly active antiretroviral therapy in Ethiopia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Glob Health Res Policy*. 2019;4:32.

[79] Chakravarty J, Sundar S, Chourasia A, Singh P, Kurle S, Tripathy S, et al. Outcome of patients on second line antiretroviral therapy under programmatic condition in India. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2015;**15**:517.

[80] Belete B, Amare T, Abera B, Yohannes A, Terefe D, Destaw F. Determinants of virological failure among patients on highly active antiretroviral therapy in University of Gondar Referral Hospital, Northwest Ethiopia: a case–control study. *HIV/ AIDS - Research and Palliative Care*. 2017;**9** 153-9.

[81] Mariana V, Ana R, Elisabeth C.
Factors Associated With Early
Virological Response in HIV-Infected
Individuals Starting Antiretroviral
Therapy in Brazil (2014-2015): Results
From a Large HIV Surveillance Cohort. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.
2018;78(4):19-28.

[82] WHO. HIV drug resistance fact sheet. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO: Available from: https://www.who.int/ hiv/facts/WHD2011-HIVdr-fs-final.pdf. Accessed 30 December 2019. 2011. [83] Kaufmann GR. CD4 T-lymphocyte recovery in individuals with advanced HIV-1 infection receiving potent antiretroviral therapy for 4 years: the Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Arch Int Med*. 2003;**163**:2187-95.

[84] Kaufmann GR, Bloch M, Finlayson R, Zaunders J, Smith D, Cooper DA. The extent of HIV-1-related immunodeficiency and age predict the long-term CD4 T lymphocyte response to potent antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS care*. 2002;**16**:359-67.

[85] Kaufmann GR. Characteristics, determinants, and clinical relevance of CD4 T cell recovery to <500 cells/ microL in HIV type 1-infected individuals receiving potent antiretroviral therapy. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. 2005;**41**:361-72.

[86] Greub G. Clinical progression, survival, and immune recovery during antiretroviral therapy in patients with HIV-1 and hepatitis C virus coinfection: the Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Lancet*. 2000;**356**:1800-5.

[87] Almeida M, Cordero M, Almeida J, Orfao A. Abnormal cytokine production by circulating monocytes and dendritic cells of myeloid origin in ART-treated HIV-1+ patients relates to CD4+ T-cell recovery and HCV co-infection. *Current HIV research*. 2007;5:325-36.

[88] Evering TH. Absence of HIV-1 evolution in the gut-associated lymphoid tissue from patients on combination antiviral therapy initiated during primary infection. *PLoS pathogens*. 2012;**8**:e1002506.

[89] Ananworanich J. Impact of multitargeted antiretroviral treatment on gut T cell depletion and HIV reservoir seeding during acute HIV infection. *PloS one*. 2012;7:e33948.

[90] Le T. Enhanced CD4+ T-cell recovery with earlier HIV-1 antiretroviral therapy. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2013;**368**:218-30.

[91] Sereti I. IL-7 administration drives T cell-cycle entry and expansion in HIV-1 infection. *Blood*. 2009;**113**:6304-14.

[92] Cimbro R. IL-7 induces expression and activation of integrin alpha4beta7 promoting naive T-cell homing to the intestinal mucosa. *Blood*. 2012;**120**:2610-9.

[93] Levy Y. Effects of recombinant human interleukin 7 on T-cell recovery and thymic output in HIV-infected patients receiving antiretroviral therapy: results of a phase I/IIa randomized, placebo-controlled, multicenter studys *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. 2012;55:291-300.

[94] Tobin N, Frenkel L. Human immunodeficiency virus drug susceptibility and resistance testing. *The Pediatric infectious disease journal*. 2002;**21**:668-83.

[95] Hirsch MS, Brun-Vezinet F, Clotet B. Antiretroviral drug resistance testing in adults infected with human immunodeficiency virus type I: 2003 recommendations of an International AIDS Society-USA panel. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. 2003;**37**:113-28.

[96] Baxter JD, Mayers DL, Wentworth DN, et al. A randomized study of antiretroviral management based on plasma genotypic antiretroviral resistance testing in patients failing therapy. *AIDS (London, England)*. 2000;**14**:83-93.

[97] Durant J, Clevenbergh P, Halfon P, et al. Drug-resistance genotyping in HIV-1 therapy: The VIRADAPT randomized controlled trial. *Lancet*. 1999;**353**:2195-9.

[98] Cingolani A, Antinori A, Rizzo MG, *et al.* Usefulness of monitoring HIV drug resistance and adherence in individuals failing highly active antiretroviral therapy: a randomized study (ARGENTA). *AIDS (London, England)*. 2002;**16**:369-79.

[99] Preston BD, Poiesz BJ, Loeb LAs. Fidelity of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase. *Science*. 1988;**242**:1168-71.

[100] Perelson AS, Neumann AU, Markowitz M, Leonard JM. HIV-1 dynamics in vivo: virion clearance rate, infected cell life-span, and viral generation time. *Science*. 1996;**271**:1582-6.

[101] Marinez-Picardo J, DePasquale MP, Kartsonis N. Antiretroviral resistance during successful therapy of HIV type I infection. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 2000;**97**:10948-53.

