

REVIEW

Effect of human immunodeficiency virus on the brain: A review

Karen Cilliers¹  | Christo J. F. Muller^{2,3}

¹Department of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Stellenbosch University, Tygerberg, Western Cape, South Africa

²Biomedical Research and Innovation Platform (BRIP), South African Medical Research Council, Tygerberg, Western Cape, South Africa

³Division of Medical Physiology, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Stellenbosch University, Tygerberg, Western Cape, South Africa

Correspondence

Dr. Karen Cilliers, Department of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Stellenbosch University, Tygerberg, Western Cape, South Africa.
Email: karencilliers1@gmail.com

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Abstract

Thirty million people are infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) worldwide, and HIV-associated neurocognitive disorder (HAND) is one of the most common comorbidities of HIV. However, the effect of HIV on the brain has not been fully investigated. This article aimed to review the changes to the brain due to HIV in terms of atrophy, diffusion changes, and hyperintensities. Studies have observed significant atrophy in subcortical gray matter, as well as in cortical white and gray matter. Moreover, the ventricles enlarge, and the sulci widen. Although HIV causes changes to the white and gray matter of the brain, few diffusion tensor imaging studies have investigated the changes to gray matter integrity. White and gray matter hyperintensities have frequently been observed in HIV-positive individuals, with the subcortical gray matter (caudate nucleus and putamen) and periventricular white matter frequently affected. In conclusion, subcortical gray matter is the first brain region to be affected and is affected most severely. Additionally, this review highlights the gaps in the literature, since the effect of HIV on the brain is not fully known. Future studies should continue to investigate the effect of HIV on the brain in different stages of the disease, and alternate therapies should be developed since highly active antiretroviral therapy is currently ineffective at treating HAND.

KEYWORDS

atrophy, brain matter hyperintensities, diffusion changes, HIV-associated neurocognitive disorder, subcortical gray matter

1 | INTRODUCTION

Thirty million people are infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) worldwide. With the introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART), HIV has become a manageable, chronic disease and more HIV-positive individuals are living with HIV for longer (Hellmuth, Milanini, & Valcour, 2014). With this increase in life expectancy, secondary problems of HIV and HAART have become a topic of interest. HIV-associated neurocognitive disorder (HAND) is one of the most

common diseases observed in HIV-positive individuals (McArthur & Brew, 2010). However, the effect of HIV and HAND on the brain has not been fully investigated.

According to the 2007 “Frascati” guidelines, HAND can be classified into three subgroups; asymptomatic neurocognitive impairment (ANI), mild neurocognitive disorder (MND), and HIV-associated dementia (HAD). Evaluation of cognitive abilities (such as memory, attention, learning, decision making) and functional impairment (normal activities and work) is done through neuropsychological tests (Nightingale et al., 2014). When

two or more cognitive abilities are impaired with no functional impairment, it is defined as ANI. If there is moderate functional impairment as well as cognitive impairment, it is defined as MND. In HAD, also referred to as HIV encephalopathy, or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) dementia complex, there is severe cognitive and functional impairment (Antinori et al., 2007; Jernigan et al., 1993; McArthur, Brew, & Nath, 2005; Tucker et al., 2004). It can take several months for neuronal decline to reach HAD status (McArthur et al., 2005; McArthur & Brew, 2010).

With HIV, regardless of AIDS progression or dementia status, there is neurodegeneration. This review included changes observed in asymptomatic, symptomatic, demented and non-demented HIV-positive individuals; the focus is on the effect of HIV, regardless of HIV progression. Most studies focusing on structural changes to the brain (due to HIV), focus on atrophy, diffusion changes, and brain matter hyperintensities. Thus, this article aimed to review the changes to the brain due to HIV in terms of atrophy, diffusion changes and hyperintensities.

1.1 | Atrophy

Progression of HIV is associated with brain atrophy, even before neurological symptoms appear. Atrophy is one of the most pronounced structural changes to the brains of HIV-positive individuals. This can be indicated by increased ventricular and sulcal size, as well as by a decreased gray matter volume.

Ventricular and sulcal enlargement indicates central and cortical atrophy, respectively (Jernigan et al., 1993). Several studies have investigated the volume of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), ventricular and sulcal size, and these results indicate significant increases in CSF, ventricular and sulcal size (Archibald et al., 2004; Aylward et al., 1995; Di Sclafani et al., 1997; Jernigan et al., 1993; Kallianpur et al., 2014; Levin et al., 1990; Pfefferbaum et al., 2006; Stout et al., 1998; Wade et al., 2015). Aylward et al. (1995) observed 54.9% ($p < .001$) increase in CSF when comparing HIV-positive and HIV-negative men. Di Sclafani et al. (1997) also compared HIV-positive and HIV-negative men and observed that sulcal and ventricular CSF increased in HIV-positive individuals by 19.5 and 27.0%, respectively. This increase corresponded to the clinical stage of HIV stage of disease. With a similar study design, Archibald et al. (2004) observed a 107.8% increase in sulcal CSF and an 86.5% increase in ventricle CSF.

Several studies have assessed brain volume changes in HIV-positive individuals, using mostly magnetic resonance imaging. Studies agree that HIV causes general and region-specific brain atrophy, and individuals with

HAND have a greater extent of atrophy (Aylward et al., 1993; Di Sclafani et al., 1997). With progression of the disease, HIV firstly infects the subcortical gray matter, secondly the white matter, and lastly the cortical gray matter (Aylward et al., 1995; Becker et al., 2012; Di Sclafani et al., 1997). Subcortical gray matter structures that have been commonly investigated include the caudate nucleus, putamen and globus pallidus.

The caudate nucleus is the area most consistently associated with neurocognitive impairment in HIV-positive patients (Paul, Cohen, Navia, & Tashima, 2002; Stout et al., 1998). Several authors have observed atrophy in the caudate nucleus of HIV-positive individuals, either significantly (Ances, Ortega, Vaida, Heaps, & Paul, 2012; Archibald et al., 2004; Becker et al., 2011; Behrman-Lay et al., 2016; Di Sclafani et al., 1997; Stout et al., 1998; Wade et al., 2015) or as a trend (Castelo, Courtney, Melrose, & Stern, 2007; Heaps et al., 2012, 2015; Kallianpur et al., 2014; Ortega et al., 2013; Paul et al., 2008), in a range of 1.3–12.3%. According to Ances et al. (2012), for every 10 years with HIV-infection, the caudate nucleus emaciates with 6.0%. These changes in the caudate nucleus have been related to cognitive impairment in AIDS patients (Heaps et al., 2015).

Behrman-Lay et al. (2016), Wade et al. (2015), and Becker et al. (2011) observed significant atrophy in the putamen of HIV-positive individuals, while others (Paul et al., 2008; Ances et al., 2012; Ortega et al., 2013; Kallianpur et al., 2014; Heaps et al., 2015) only observed a trend. Although the caudate nucleus is believed to be the most affected, Becker et al. (2011) observed a 15.2% ($p < .001$) reduction in the putamen volume when comparing HIV-positive and HIV-negative individuals, and only a 9.7% ($p < .001$) loss in caudate nucleus volume. In contrast, Castelo et al. (2007) observed significant hypertrophy of the putamen (left hemisphere: $p = .05$, right hemisphere: $p = .01$) in HIV-positive non-demented patients. Fennema-Notestine et al. (2013) observed hypertrophy in the subcortical gray matter, although this increase was not significant. This may be due to increased water content (Fennema-Notestine et al., 2013), inflammation or inflammatory cell infiltration (Fennema-Notestine et al., 2013) or dysfunction of the dopaminergic systems (Castelo et al., 2007). In contrast to the caudate nucleus and putamen, few studies have investigated the globus pallidus independently. Castelo et al. (2007) and Kallianpur et al. (2014) observed a non-significant reduction in volume by 0.9% (right hemisphere: $p = .11$, left hemisphere: $p = .93$) and 3.3% ($p = .534$), respectively.

The hippocampus, although not part of the subcortical gray matter, is frequently associated with cognitive decline. Comparing HIV-positive and HIV-negative individuals, HIV-positive individuals had significantly lower

hippocampal volume compared to healthy adults (Archibald et al., 2004; Behrman-Lay et al., 2016; Ortega et al., 2013; Wade et al., 2015). Archibald et al. (2004) and Behrman-Lay et al. (2016) observed a significant decrease in hippocampal volume with 10.8 and 5.5%, respectively. Some studies observed a difference, although this change in volume was not significant (Ances et al., 2012; Castelo et al., 2007; Kallianpur et al., 2014). This may be due to these studies including more asymptomatic HIV-infected individuals compared to other studies.

Not all authors discriminate between cortical and sub-cortical gray matter, complicating comparison between studies. However, significant reduction in total gray matter volume has been observed (Becker et al., 2012; Behrman-Lay et al., 2016; Heaps et al., 2012, 2015; Kallianpur et al., 2014). Additionally, atrophy in the temporal lobes and caudate nucleus can complicate the interpretation of gray matter volume loss (Di Sclafani et al., 1997).

1.2 | Diffusion changes

Several researchers have investigated the changes to the brain using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI). This method evaluates the magnitude and direction of the motion of water molecules, which indicates changes to the intrinsic tissue structure (Paul et al., 2002; Thurnher et al., 2005). With DTI studies, brain matter abnormalities can be observed that would not yet be evident in magnetic resonance imaging, and thus these changes can be observed earlier (Paul et al., 2002).

Fractional anisotropy, mean diffusivity and apparent diffusion coefficient can be evaluated. This gives information on the intrinsic structure of the tissue, and a change can indicate inflammation and structural abnormalities (Chang et al., 2008; Hoare et al., 2011; Tate et al., 2010). Fractional anisotropy measures the direction dependent and orientation specificity of water diffusion and reflects loss and injury of aligned cellular structures, typically axonal injury or demyelination (Hoare et al., 2011; Ragin et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2015; Tate et al., 2010). Mean diffusivity is an indication of the average of all the diffusion directions and these changes indicate tissue destruction as well as intracellular and extracellular volume changes (Ragin, Storey, Cohen, Epstein, & Edelman, 2004; Thurnher et al., 2005).

Numerous authors have examined the integrity changes in white matter and white matter structures. In HIV-positive individuals, most authors observed significant alterations in frontal (Chang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009; Corrêa et al., 2015; Pomara, Crandall, Choi, Johnson, & Lim, 2001; Zhu et al., 2013), parietal (Chang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2013), temporal

(Chen et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2013) and occipital (Chen et al., 2009) white matter, as well as associated white matter fiber tracts (Hoare et al., 2011, 2012). In addition, significant alterations have been noted for the corpus callosum (Chang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009; Corrêa et al., 2015; Filippi, Ulug, Ryan, Ferrando, & van Gorp, 2001; Hoare et al., 2011, 2012; Kamat et al., 2014; Leite et al., 2013; Nir et al., 2014; Ragin et al., 2015; Stubbe-Dräger et al., 2012; Tang et al., 2015; Thurnher et al., 2005; Wright et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2006), internal capsule (Hoare et al., 2011; Nir et al., 2014; Pomara et al., 2001; Tang et al., 2015) and corona radiata (Hoare et al., 2012; Kamat et al., 2014; Leite et al., 2013). Chen et al. (2009) noted that the corpus callosum was already significantly altered in non-demented HIV-infected individuals, when compared to healthy controls. Very few studies have investigated changes to the hippocampus, and published reports found no change in DTI metrics (Ragin et al., 2015; Thurnher et al., 2005).

In contrast to white matter, limited studies examined gray matter integrity changes. Most authors (Chang et al., 2008; Cloak, Chang, & Ernst, 2004; Ragin et al., 2005) observed no significant change in the caudate nucleus, putamen, globus pallidus or thalamus. This is in contrast to Ragin et al. (2015), who observed a significant increase in mean diffusivity in the caudate nucleus within the first 100 days of infection. However, the putamen did not indicate a significant difference between HIV-positive and HIV-negative individuals.

Even though HIV results in changes to the white and gray matter of the brain, few DTI studies have investigated the changes to gray matter integrity (Nir et al., 2014). Gray matter has a lower fractional anisotropy and changes are thus more difficult to observe due to the poorer signal-to-noise ratio (Pierpaoli, Jezzard, Basser, Barnett, & Di Chiro, 1996). Thus, fractional anisotropy is more sensitive to white matter integrity changes. Gray matter diffusion is generally isotropic (exhibiting similar directions), which is not direction dependent and has the same value irrespective to the direction it is measured in. Since fractional anisotropy measures the direction dependent and orientation specificity of water diffusion, and mean diffusivity is the average of all the diffusion directions, mean diffusivity may indicate gray matter integrity changes more accurately (Ragin, Storey, Cohen, Edelman, & Epstein, 2004).

1.3 | Brain matter hyperintensities

Brain changes due to HIV-infection have been observed as areas with increased signal on T2-weighted scans (Fennema-Notestine et al., 2013), and these hyperintensities

indicate brain matter infarction, inflammation and damage (Seider et al., 2016). Studies have confirmed the presence of white and gray matter hyperintensities, as well as white matter lesions in association with advanced HIV infection and neurocognitive decline (Haddow et al., 2014; Hanning et al., 2011; Kugathasan et al., 2017; McMurtray, Nakamoto, Shikuma, & Valcour, 2008; Steinbrink et al., 2013; Su et al., 2016). Furthermore, the severity of hyperintensities have been associated with accelerated cognitive decline (Hanning et al., 2011; Steinbrink et al., 2013), atrophy (McMurtray et al., 2008), duration of infection (Steinbrink et al., 2013) and viral load (Steinbrink et al., 2013; van Arnhem et al., 2013).

Limited authors have investigated subcortical gray matter hyperintensities. Wehn, Heinz, Burger, and Boyko (1989) observed hyperintensities in the caudate nucleus, putamen and globus pallidus with some involvement of the surrounding white matter and thalamus. Similarly, Meltzer et al. (1998) observed bilateral caudate nucleus and putamen hyperintensity in nine AIDS patients, and two cases presented with globus pallidus hyperintensities. Furthermore, two post-mortem examinations were completed and multiple microinfarcts were observed corresponding to the hyperintensity regions. Kodama, Numaguchi, Gellad, and Sadato (1991) observed bilateral putamen hyperintensities in two HIV-positive individuals; however, the remaining basal ganglia and white matter were unaffected.

Not all authors analyzed separate regions of the basal ganglia (Gillams et al., 1997; Hanning et al., 2011; Miller et al., 1997; Newsome, Johnson, Pardo, McArthur, & Nath, 2011; Steinbrink et al., 2013). In HIV-positive individuals, Hanning et al. (2011) observed mild and moderate-to-severe basal ganglia hyperintensities in 23.8 and 5.0%, respectively. Similarly, Steinbrink et al. (2013) observed mild and moderate-to-severe basal ganglia hyperintensities in 27.7 and 4.3%, respectively. These hyperintensities have frequently been observed bilaterally (Gillams et al., 1997; Newsome et al., 2011).

Studies have commonly observed white matter hyperintensities in HIV-positive individuals, in a range of 38.0–63.4% (Ackermann et al., 2014; Haddow et al., 2014; McMurtray et al., 2008; van Arnhem et al., 2013). These white matter hyperintensities can be divided into periventricular (<10 mm from ventricles) and deep (>10 mm from ventricles) white matter regions. Most authors observed that white matter hyperintensities are commonly located in the periventricular region, and seldom in the deep white matter (Ackermann et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016). Ackermann et al. (2014) observed hyperintensities in frontal (91.0%), parietal (77.0%), temporal (5.0%) and occipital (14.0%) white matter. These lesions may be more prevalent in HIV-positive individuals with cognitive decline (Hanning et al., 2011).

1.4 | Mechanisms of HAND

The pathogenesis of HAND is not yet known. Shortly after infection with HIV, the virus migrates to the brain, possibly as early as 8 days after infection (McArthur et al., 2005; Nightingale et al., 2014; Robertson et al., 2004; Valcour et al., 2012; Zayyad & Spudich, 2015). The brain acts as a reservoir for the virus, which contributes to the difficulty in eradicating the virus (McArthur et al., 2005; Nightingale et al., 2014; Robertson et al., 2004). The mechanisms associated with HAND has been extensively reviewed elsewhere (Valcour, Sithinamsuwan, Letendre, & Ances, 2011). Shortly, with central nervous system (CNS) infection, different cell types are infected, including macrophages and microglial cells. These cells are the primary infected cells; however, astrocytes are also infected even though these cells lack CD4 receptors. Mechanisms of infection of astrocytes are unknown, possibly due to the selective pressure caused by CNS compartmentalization (Zayyad & Spudich, 2015). The mode of transmission into the brain is still unclear; the virus can enter through infected CD4 T lymphocytes, or free virus entry since HIV disrupts the blood brain barrier by altering the endothelial tight junctions (Awan et al., 2014). The act of immune cells entering the brain additionally stimulates increased movement of lymphocytes to the brain (Zayyad & Spudich, 2015).

Several mechanisms damage the CNS, either directly or indirectly. Once HIV-infected macrophages enter the brain, viral proteins are released (Tat, Gp120, Vpr, Nef). Viral protein release also causes additional activated macrophages to migrate to the brain. These infected and activated macrophages release cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1 β), chemokines, and excitatory amino acids (glutamate and quinolinate), which causes neuronal damage through excitotoxicity (increased free radical production, overstimulated N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptors and calcium influx). Some HIV proteins may be directly neurotoxic through the action of chemokines such as stromal cell-derived factor 1 (SDF-1; Brabers & Nottet, 2006; Kaul, Garden, & Lipton, 2001; Zayyad & Spudich, 2015). Moreover, there is increased oxidative stress due to increased TNF- α and nitric oxide (Bjugstad, Flitter, Garland, Su, & Arendash, 1998; Elbirt, Mahlab-Guri, Bazalel-Rosenberg, Attali, & Asher, 2015; Gannon, Khan, & Kolson, 2011; McArthur et al., 2005; Robertson et al., 2004; Scutari, Alteri, Perno, Svicher, & Aquaro, 2017; Stebbins et al., 2007; Vincent et al., 1999). These mechanisms result in damage or death of neural cells and eventually leads to neurocognitive impairment. While HAND typically develops with HIV immunosuppression, it can develop at any stage of infection (Elbirt et al., 2015; McArthur & Brew, 2010; Scutari et al., 2017; Tucker et al., 2004). This damage can thus occur due to direct infection of the cells, or due to secondary factors.

TABLE 1 The prevalence of HIV-associated neurocognitive disorder reported in different geographical locations

| Author and date | Region | Prevalence (%) | Sample size | Data capturing period |
|--|---------------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Wadia et al., 2001 | India | 29.9 | 1,527 | – |
| Sacktor et al., 2002 | United States of America | 74.3 | 272 | 1994–1995 |
| | | 76.0 | 251 | 1998–1999 |
| Tozzi et al., 2005 | Italy | 55.1 | 432 | 1996–2002 |
| Yepthomi et al., 2006 | Southern India | 56.0 | 30 | – |
| Wojna et al., 2006 | Puerto Rico | 77.6 | 49 | 2002–2004 |
| Jowi, Mativo, & Musoke, 2007 | Kenya | 21.2 | 708 | 2000–2005 |
| Bolokadze, Gabunia, Ezugbaia, Gatsereia, & Khechiashvili, 2008 | Georgia | 19.6 | 388 | 2006–2007 |
| Wright et al., 2008 | Asia-Pacific countries | 11.7 | 658 | 2005–2006 |
| Njamnshi et al., 2008 | Cameroon | 21.1 | 204 | 2006 |
| Lawler et al., 2010 | Botswana | 38.0 | 120 | 2008 |
| Joska, Fincham, Stein, Paul, & Seedat, 2010 | South Africa | 23.5 | 536 | – |
| Simioni et al., 2010 | Switzerland | 74.0 | 200 | – |
| Garvey, Surendrakumar, & Winston, 2012 | United Kingdom | 19.0 | 101 | – |
| Hanning et al., 2011 | Germany | 37.6 | 32 | – |
| Zhang et al., 2012 | China | 37.1 | 134 | – |
| Chan, Kandiah, & Chua, 2012 | Singapore | 22.7 | 132 | 2010 |
| Oshinaike et al., 2012 | Nigeria | 54.3 | 208 | 2007–2008 |
| Crum-Cianflone et al., 2013 | United Kingdom | 19.0 | 200 | 2009–2011 |
| Cross, Önen, Gase, Overton, & Ances, 2013 | United States of America | 41.2 | 507 | 2008 |
| Atashili et al., 2013 | Cameroon | 85.0 | 400 | 2010 |
| McDonnell et al., 2014 | United Kingdom | 21.0 | 248 | 2011–2012 |
| Fasel et al., 2014 | Switzerland | 83.0 | 30 | 2011 |
| Yusuf et al., 2017 | Nigeria | 21.5 | 418 | – |
| Saini & Barar, 2014 | India | 32.5 | 80 | 2011–2012 |
| Achappa et al., 2014 | Asia | 90.1 | 101 | – |
| Kelly et al., 2014 | Malawi | 70.0 | 106 | 2011–2012 |
| Lakatos, Szabo, Bozzai, Banhegyi, & Gazdag, 2014 | Hungary | 32.2 | 59 | – |
| Robertson et al., 2014 | Western Europe and Canada | 41.5 | 2,863 | 2010–2011 |
| Ene et al., 2014 | Romania | 59.1 | 49 | – |
| Fazeli et al., 2014 | San Diego | 46.0 | 139 | 2006–2011 |
| Yakasai et al., 2015 | Nigeria | 35.0 | 80 | – |
| Vassallo et al., 2015 | France | 29.0 | 200 | 2007–2013 |
| Zhao et al., 2015 | Guangxi, China | 37.4 | 230 | 2011 |
| McNamara, Coen, Redmond, Doherty, & Bergin, 2016 | Ireland | 51.5 | 604 | 2010–2013 |
| Sacktor et al., 2016 | United States of America | 25.0 | 197 | 2007–2008 |
| | | 25.0 | 197 | 2009–2010 |
| | | 31.0 | 197 | 2011–2012 |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Author and date | Region | Prevalence (%) | Sample size | Data capturing period |
|--|--------------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Joska et al., 2016 | South Africa | 56.2 | 89 | – |
| | United States of America | 83.6 | 67 | – |
| Bloch et al., 2016 | Australia | 30.7 | 254 | 2011–2012 |
| Pinheiro et al., 2016 | Brazil | 54.1 | 392 | 2015 |
| Focà et al., 2016 | Italy | 47.1 | 206 | 2009–2013 |
| Evering et al., 2016 | New York | 4.0 | 26 | 2010–2012 |
| Belete, Medfu, & Yemiyamrew, 2017 | Ethiopia | 33.3 | 234 | 2016 |
| Tsegaw, Andargie, Alem, & Tareke, 2017 | Ethiopia | 36.4 | 595 | 2015 |
| Barber et al., 2017 | London | 13.9 | 205 | – |

1.5 | Treatment for HAND

Currently the only treatment for HAND is HAART, which is a combination of at least three antiretroviral drugs (Elbirt et al., 2015). HAART restores immune function and reduces replication of HIV. However, immune activation persists regardless of antiretroviral treatment (Hellmuth et al., 2014). If antiretroviral drugs do not adequately penetrate the brain, the viral count in the CSF can be unchanged or minimally affected (Robertson et al., 2004). Some antiretroviral drugs, such as Abacavir and Nevirapine (Robertson, Liner, & Meeker, 2012), have a higher CNS penetration effectiveness (CPE); the higher the CPE, the lower the CSF viral count (Elbirt et al., 2015; Gannon et al., 2011; Letendre et al., 2008; Robertson et al., 2007, 2012). The end goal is to find an antiretroviral therapy that reduces the CSF viral load (high CPE), and increases neural function without causing neurotoxicity (Elbirt et al., 2015; Gannon et al., 2011; Letendre et al., 2008; McArthur et al., 2005; Nightingale et al., 2014). Unfortunately, studies do not show an increase in neural functioning with a high CPE drug (Elbirt et al., 2015). To assess if antiretroviral therapy can lower the CSF viral load, treatment must be adhered to for a sufficient period (Letendre et al., 2008). Robertson et al. (2007) stated that the CNS impairment of only 44.0% of individuals improved after the use of HAART. Therefore, even with HAART, there is still decline in neural functioning (Elbirt et al., 2015; Hellmuth et al., 2014; Letendre, Ellis, Ances, & McCutchan, 2010; Nightingale et al., 2014; Robertson et al., 2004, 2007). This could suggest that even if the virus is eradicated with HAART, other factors are still affecting cognition.

Almost half of HIV-positive individuals suffer from HAND, and with the introduction of HAART, the prevalence of HAND has remained mostly stable (Elbirt et al., 2015; Gannon et al., 2011; McArthur et al., 2005; McArthur & Brew, 2010; Nightingale et al., 2014). However, the prevalence

of HAND has decreased, and the occurrence of ANI and MND has increased (Elbirt et al., 2015; Gannon et al., 2011; Heaton et al., 2010; Robertson et al., 2004). From the literature, HAND is observed in 4.0–90.1% of HIV-positive individuals (Table 1). Furthermore, since more HIV-positive individuals are living longer, they are exposed to HIV and HAART for a longer time, which can lead to more severe neurological damage (Elbirt et al., 2015; Hellmuth et al., 2014; McArthur, 2004; McArthur & Brew, 2010; Robertson et al., 2007). Thus, the prevalence of HAND can still possibly increase even with HAART (Elbirt et al., 2015; Hellmuth et al., 2014).

2 | CONCLUSION

In summary, HIV causes atrophy of the brain, both globally and region specific; studies have observed significant atrophy in subcortical gray matter, as well as in cortical white and gray matter. Moreover, the ventricles enlarge, and the sulci widen, leading to an increase in CSF. Although HIV causes changes to the white and gray matter of the brain, few DTI studies have investigated the changes to gray matter integrity, since changes are more difficult to observe due to poorer signal-to-noise ratio. White and gray matter hyperintensities have frequently been observed in HIV-positive individuals, with the subcortical gray matter (caudate nucleus and putamen) and periventricular white matter frequently affected. Not all brain regions are affected by HIV equally; this is possibly due to the proximity to the ventricles (which can allow for easier access of infected cells), or due to different distributions of perivascular macrophages in different brain regions (Ances et al., 2012; McArthur et al., 2005).

In conclusion, subcortical gray matter is the first brain region to be affected and is affected most severely. Additionally, this review highlights the gaps in the

literature, since the effect of HIV on the brain is not fully known. Future studies should continue to investigate the effect of HIV on the brain in different stages of the disease, and alternate therapies should be developed since HAART is currently ineffective at treating HAND.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Karen Cilliers: Conceptualization; data curation; formal analysis; funding acquisition; investigation; methodology; project administration; resources; writing-original draft; writing-review and editing. **Christo Muller:** Conceptualization; supervision; writing-review and editing.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors report no conflict of interest.

ORCID

Karen Cilliers  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7309-3277>

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