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Use of long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents for Human Immunodeficiency Virus: A review

Olumuyiwa E Ariyo¹ Christopher E Jones²

- 1. Department of Medicine, Infectious Diseases and Tropical Medicine Unit, Federal Teaching Hospital, Ido-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria
- 2. Chester Medical School, University of Chester, Cheshire, United Kingdom

Abstracy

The development of potent antiretroviral drugs has significantly reduced morbidity and mortality associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection, however, the effectiveness of these medications depends upon consistent daily oral intake. Non-adherence can lead to the emergence of resistance, treatment failure and disease progression. This has necessitated the development of long-acting antiretroviral formulations administrable via an infrequent dosing regimen. Long-acting injectable forms of cabotegravir and rilpivirine have reached advanced stages in clinical trials both for the treatment and prevention of HIV. Other long-acting agents are at various stages of development. This review evaluates the current research on the development of long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents for the treatment and prevention of HIV.

Keywords: Cabotegravir, Rilpivirine, Antiretrovirals, Intramuscular, Non-adherence

Highlights

- Long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents are being developed as potential alternatives to pill-based treatment regimens for HIV.
- Two of these agents, cabotegravir and rilpivirine, have been demonstrated as tolerable and efficacious at managing infection when administered in combination.
- Other long-acting injectable antiviral agents are at various stages of development.

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5 Background

6 In recent decades human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection has become a chronic 7 manageable condition [1,2]. Its treatment is centred on the use of highly active antiretroviral 8 therapy (HAART), which consists of three antiretroviral drugs that are taken daily, typically in pill 9 forms [2]. There is also approval for the use of two antiretroviral drugs, tenofovir and emtricitabine, 10 for pre-exposure prophylaxis in prevention among high-risk individuals [3,4]. HAART is effective in 11 achieving viral suppression in more than 90% of patients but this suppression requires consistent 12 daily use [5–7]. Oral daily intake of antiretroviral drugs has been shown to be a burden causing 13 distress for patients and leading to non-adherence in a significant number [7]. Non-adherence 14 can predispose to the emergence of drug-resistant HIV strains, treatment failure and disease 15 progression [8–10]. There has therefore been an effort to simplify HIV treatment and prevention 16 with the use of long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents that allow monthly administration [11– 17 16].

18 These agents include forms of traditional antiretroviral drugs, as well as forms of newer antiviral 19 agents such as humanised antibodies and broadly neutralizing antibodies [17–19]. Most 20 developing long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents can be administered intramuscularly or 21 subcutaneously, however other methods of delivery are also being researched. These alternative 22 delivery methods include implants, patches, vaginal rings and intravenous administration [20–22].

23 The aim of this review is to evaluate the available evidence on the development and use of long-24 acting injectable antiretroviral agents in HIV treatment and prevention.

25 Integrase strand transfer inhibitors (INSTI)

26 The integrase strand transfer inhibitors are a class of antiretroviral drugs that block the HIV integrase 27 enzyme thereby preventing viral integration into the host genome. There are currently four 28 approved oral formulations: raltegravir, elvitegravir, dolutegravir and bictegravir. They generally 29 have a high barrier to resistance[23]. Members of this class, including the investigational drug 30 cabotegravir, are being developed for use as long-acting injectables [24] see Table 1.

31 Cabotegravir

32 Cabotegravir (GSK 1265744) is an investigational drug that belongs to the second generation of 33 INSTIS [25,26]. It is produced in an oral form as well as in an injectable form (subcutaneous and 34 intramuscular) [26,27]. The half-life of the drug is 20-40 days as an injectable formulation which 35 makes up to bimonthly use potentially possible [26,28].

36 Reports from phase II prevention trials demonstrated that injectable cabotegravir was safe and well-37 tolerated among the participants [29,30]. A separate phase III non-inferiority trial investigated the 38 prophylactically administeradministration ed of intramuscular cabotegravir to prevent HIV infection 39 among men who have sex with men (MSM) and transgender (TGW) women. A preliminary report of 40 this trial supports the effectiveness of cabotegravir at preventing HIV infection, compared with oral 41 administered tenofovir/emtricitabine combination [31,32].

42 Clinical trials continue to assess the use of injectable cabotegravir for pre-exposure prophylaxis 43 (PrEP) [29,31]. Findings -from a study among over 3,000 women in 7 African countries unequivocally 44 conclude that long-acting injectables <u>c</u>-abotegravir effectively protected women from HIV 45 acquisition when used as PrEP [33].

46 Raltegravir

4Raltegravir is another INSTI that is being developed as a long-acting injectable [34]. It is approved in 48ts oral form for treatment and prevention (post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP)) of HIV [1], but its 49development as a long-acting agent is still in the preclinical stage. A study on humanised bone 50narrow-liver-thymus (BLT) mice had subcutaneous long-acting raltegravir administered at 7.5mg_--ij 51 this study the pharmacokinetic properties were similar to 400mg those of 400mg oral raltegravir 52 and the treatment showed potency at protecting the BLT mice from HIV vaginal challenge up to 53 our weeks following single-dose administration, whilst the control mice were not protected from HIV 54 and fection. The plasma level of the drug was also noted to be comparable to that of the oral form 53 our veeks following single-dose administration of the active drug in the female genital tract of the mice, 56 finding that if reproduced in humans may indicate usefulness as preventive intervention as sexual 57 ntercourse is one of the common routes of HIV transmission.

58Dolutegravir

59Dral forms of dolutegravir have proven efficacious, with oral dolutegravir being one of the first drugs 60approved as part of dual therapy in the management of HIV infection due to its very high potency 6136]. However the development of a long-acting injectable form is still at a very early stage [37].

6**Bictegravir**

63 Sictegravir oral formulation is the most recent INSTI to secure US Food and Drug Administration 64 FDA) approval. It is also at an early stage of development into a long-acting injectable [38]. It has the 65 Sighest barrier to resistance among the INSTI group [34], and a long-acting injectable could also 66 potentially possess this quality.

6 Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs)

68<u>his group of antiretroviral drugsNNRTIs</u> alter the reverse transcriptase enzyme of HIV and inhibit its 69eplication [23,39]. Oral formulations of NNRTIs have been in clinical use for decades and their use as 70ong-acting agents is being evaluated [40].

7 Rilpivirine

77 ilpivirine (TMC278) is a second-generation NNRTI with an approved oral form. This form is combined
73 vith other antiretroviral drugs for treatment-naïve HIV-1 infected individuals with a viral load (HIV-1 RNA)
74 of 100,000 copies/ml or below [41,42]. A long-acting injectable form of rilpivirine with a half-life of 30-90
75 days has been developed. This form allows administration as an intramuscular injection once every four

76 o eight weeks [11,43–45]. This is in contrast to the oral form which has a half-life of 24–45 hours and must 77 herefore be taken daily to be effective [46]. A comparable drug concentration to that of the oral form 78 vas detected in the plasma up to 84 days following administration of the long-acting injectable in early 79 clinical studies [11,43]. The injectable form is at an advanced stage of development in combination 80 vith cabotegravir as a long-acting agent for HIV treatment. A study reported its safety in a phase I trial 81 and ex vivo evaluation revealed that it suppressed infection up to four months after administration [47]. 82 urther clinical development of rilpivirine for pre-exposure prophylaxis is expected, however, a major 83 concern with the suitability of rilpivirine for -prevention is its low barrier to resistance [48].

84

85 Cabotegravir and rilpivirine combination

86 The combination of cabotegravir and rilpivirine is the most widely studied long-acting injectable 87 regimen developed for the management of HIV. Several studies have reported the safety and 88 tolerability of the long-acting formulations in separate use [11,29,43], and numerous recent studies 89 report their use in combination. In the Long-Acting antireTroviral Treatment Enabling (LATTE) study 90 involving 243 subjects, combined oral cabotegravir and rilpivirine demonstrated superior efficacy to 91 an efavirenz plus dual NRTIs based-regimen for up to 96 weeks: virologic suppression was seen among 92 86% of the former treatment group, compared to up to 68% of the latter. The combination was 93 determined to be efficacious and safe lending support for their further study [49].

94 In a separate study conducted among 40 healthy adults a 14-day lead-in <u>of</u>oral cabotegravir was 95 given, followed by monthly intramuscular and subcutaneous injections of cabotegravir and rilpivirine 96 at a dose range of 200-800 mg and 600-1200 mg respectively for a duration of 3 months. Targeted 97 plasma concentrations (0.66 µg/mL) of the drugs were attained within three days of administration, 98 and there were no significant adverse reactions or laboratory abnormalities reported [24]. This 99 corroborates the earlier studies on the tolerance and safety of the drugs [29,43].

100 A separate study, LATTE-2, involved 309 ART-naïve HIV-1_positive adult patients. The study utilised an
101 induction phase of cabotegravir followed by a 96-week maintenance phase, composed of either

102 long-acting cabotegravir and rilpivirine at four- or eight-weeks intervals or the control treatment (daily, 103 oral cabotegravir) (figure 1). At week 96, HIV-1 RNA was below 50 copies/ml in 87% of the four-weekly 104 group, 94% of the eight-weekly group and 84% of the control group. Adverse reactions were 105 comparable among the three groups with injection site reaction (ISR) being the most common 106 followed by nasopharyngitis, diarrhoea and headaches [12]. The efficacy of the dual long-acting 107 cabotegravir and rilpivirine was shown to be comparable to the oral triple regimen, consistent with 108 the findings of the LATTE study.

109 In the phase III Antiviral Therapy as Long-Acting Suppression Study (ATLAS) study, the combination of 110 long-acting cabotegravir and rilpivirine was compared to a triple oral regimen (figure 2). The long-111 acting injectable combination had similar virologic suppression rates to the triple oral regimen (285/308 112 (92.5%) compared to 294/308 (95.5%) at week 48 of therapy). Confirmed virologic failure was 113 infrequent and similar in both arms. There was a low rate of serious adverse effects 13/308 (4.2%) and 114 withdrawal-related to the injection (1.3%). The ISR throughout the 48 weeks period in the injection 115 group was 1460 out of 6978 injections administered. The reaction was most often mild and resolved 116 within three days [50].

117 A separate phase III study, First Long-Acting Injectable Regimen (FLAIR) (figure 3), supports the findings 118 of the ATLAS study. FLAIR demonstrated the non-inferiority of injectable cabotegravir plus rilpivirine to 119 oral abacavir/dolutegravir/lamivudine. HIV 1 RNA was below 50 copies/ml in 265/283 (93.6%) of the 120 long-acting treatment group participants and 264/283 (93.3%) in the control group participants. The 121 virologic failure and rate of adverse reactions were similar in the two groups and to that of the 122 participants in the ATLAS study_[51]. The ATLAS and FLAIR studies assessed the use of the long-acting 123 agents at four-week intervals. An extension of the ATLAS study, ATLAS-2M (figure 2,) investigated the 124 administration of the drugs at 8-<u>eight-</u>weekly intervals. An eight-weekly regimen of long-acting 125 cabotegravir and rilpivirine was compared with a four-weekly regimen, and it was determined that, 126 at 48 weeks of administration, the 8-<u>eight-</u>weekly regimen of cabotegravir and rilpivirine long-acting 127 injectables was non-inferior to the 4 <u>eight-</u>weekly regimen [52]. 128 The results of these phase III trials revealed the efficacy and tolerability of combined cabotegravir 129 and rilpivirine long-acting injectables. The combination received approval for use in Canada in 130 early 2020 while European Medicine Agency and United States Food and Drug Administration 131 gave approval for the use in October 2020 and January 2021 respectively [53–55]. It should be 132 noted that children and adolescents were excluded in phase III studies and LATTE studies. A new 133 study tagged More Options for Children and Adolescents (MOCHA) is underway and aims to 134 define the pharmacokinetics and safety of cabotegravir and rilpivirine injections in children age 135 12 to 17 [56]. It should be noted that the current studies excluded patients with advanced HIV 136 (CD4 < 200 cells/mm³) and those having used ART long-term [12,57]. Determining the efficacy of 137 these drugs amongst these groups are desirable. Similarly, the studies excluded patients with major 138 comorbidities such as renal and liver diseases. The longest duration of follow-up reported with the 139 use of the long-acting injectables so far is 96 weeks [12], therefore longer-term follow-up may be 140 warranted.

141

142 Drug Resistance

143 The development of resistance is an area of great concern in any drug-centred treatment strategy 144 [58]. One way in which long-acting agents seek to address this issue is through improved 145 adherence to reduce the rate or possibility of resistance development [8]. However, the possibility 146 of the emergence of resistance during therapy remains. In studies the emergence of resistance 147 has been demonstrated to be similar among those using long_acting injectables and the control 148 groups [51,52].

149 Further, there are potential limitations associated with the use of long-acting injectable 150 antiretroviral agents in patients with resistance to an oral regimen. In clinical trials, those with 151 detectable drug resistance or virologic failure were excluded. This may influence the 152 generalization of the study's findings in these group of patients. Therefore, studies to address this 153 will be warranted.

155 Drug-drug interactions

156 The interactions of antiretroviral drugs with other medications is an important aspect of HIV
157 management [59]. For example rilpivirine interacts with proton-pump inhibitors, anti-convulsants
158 (carbamazepine and phenytoin) and rifampicin, all reducing the plasma level of the drug [60].

159 Rifampicin also interacts with cabotegravir. The former is a potent liver enzyme inducer that 160 increases the metabolism of cabotegravir and may lead to its early clearance from the circulation, 161 leading to a subtherapeutic level which may predispose to the emergence of resistance and 162 virologic failure [61]. Rifampicin is a key component in the management of tuberculosis (TB) and TB 163 has a high incidence among PLWHIV [62].

164 Future studies should assess the potential interactions of cabotegravir with other medications used 165 to treat common comorbidities amongst HIV patients, such as hepatitis B and C. A study on the 166 interactions of orally administered dolutegravir and daclatasvir, a hepatitis C antiviral agent, 167 showed that the latter alters the pharmacokinetic properties of dolutegravir, with the maximum 168 observed concentration and the end of dosing interval concentration increased by 29% and 45% 169 respectively. However, this alteration was not clinically significant [63]. Carbamazepine 170 interactions with dolutegravir required the doubling of its dose [64]. These interactions should be 171 considered when designing and implementing long-acting formulations. However, it should also 172 be considered that it is not necessarily possible to fully extrapolate studies on oral formulations to 173 the injectables [65].

174 Patient experience and satisfaction

175 Patient satisfaction is important to treatment adherence. The HIV Treatment Satisfaction 176 Questionnaire (HIVTSQ) is used to assess the treatment convenience, continuation of therapy and 177 how flexible a treatment option is among other components. Studies have measured patient 178 satisfaction regarding long-acting injectables using the HIVTSQ.

179 There was a high level of treatment satisfaction among the two long-acting treatment groups 180 and the oral control group in the LATTE-2 study with 246/254 (97%) picking a score of 5 or 6 out of 181 a total of 6 (the higher the score the higher the level of satisfaction), and with more participants 182 satisfied to continue intramuscular therapy than oral (99% in both intramuscular group and 78% in 183 the oral group) at week 96. However, the non-inclusion of those that dropped out before the 96-184 week should be noted [12].

185 In a qualitative study of 27 participants in Spain and the United States in the same LATTE-2 trials 186 convenience, privacy, reduction in stigmatisation and discrimination were all important benefits 187 believed to be associated with the use of injectable ARVs, but respondents still desired a less 188 frequent regimen that would further reduce the number of healthcare visits [66]. It should be 189 considered that the increase in satisfaction among the injectable group may have been 190 influenced by the selection of individuals who consented to the use of intramuscular treatment 191 at the start of the randomisation.

192 Similarly, a high level of satisfaction was reported in the ATLAS and FLAIR studies (99% and 97 % 193 respectively) among the injection arm [57], whilst in the study on the use of cabotegravir injection 194 for the prevention of HIV infection (ÉCLAIR trial), a significant number of the participants were 195 satisfied with cabotegravir injection 75% (n=64), expressed a desire to continue usage 79% (n=68) 196 and were willing to recommend it for others 87% (n=75) [67].

197 Challenges

198 The results of the ongoing clinical trials on injectable antiretrovirals for HIV treatment and 199 prevention have been encouraging, but some challenges still need to be resolved. There will be a 200 need for patients to adhere to the injection schedule as non-adherence will expose the virus to a 201 sub-therapeutic level of drugs over an extended period and may contribute to the selection of 202 resistant strains especially among individuals that are lost to follow-up [29]. For patients that missed 203 injections, there may be a need to return them to oral medications. Studies among patients with 204 poor adherence will likely be desirable to understand the acceptability of the regimen and how 205 to manage their circumstances. 206 The development of easy-to-use subcutaneous injections may address the need for patients to 207 present at health facilities for drug administration. It was documented that in a <u>rural Uganda</u> 208 population of HIV positive women<u>in rural Uganda</u>, subcutaneous long-acting depot 209 medroxyprogesterone acetate was successfully used, indicating the possibilities of adopting a 210 comparable scheme for injectable antiretrovirals in similar communities [68]. However, health care 211 workers will still need to follow-up patients, as the management of HIV involves more than 212 maintaining drug administration. Drug-related adverse events may be an issue in some patients, 213 for example. The use of short oral lead-in was to address this problem, but idiosyncratic reactions 214 may still occur even among those that tolerated the oral formulations [69].

215 Furthermore, injections of current formulations have been associated with ISR and pain leading 216 to discomfort, a factor that may affect acceptability [12]. It is possible the development of low 217 volume injections may help to reduce problems associated with administration. There is also a 218 need to develop injectables used in combination, but delivered separately, into a single 219 combined injection to reduce the number of injections administered per healthcare visit, 220 simplifying administration further and reducing the number of injections.

221 Another concern is the requirement for the rilpivirine injectable formulation to be stored between 222 2 to 8°C [70]. This may be a particular concern in resource-poor environments, potentially limiting 223 distribution and accessibility. A possible solution would be to use the existing cold-chain channels 224 that are being used to distribute vaccines in these areas. This may pose an organisational 225 challenge, requiring the collaboration of stakeholders to be successful.

226 There remains a need for long-term data and real-world experience on the use of long-acting
227 injectables, in addition to studies on specific groups of patients excluded from the studies here
228 reviewed, such as those with advanced progression to AIDS, as well as children and adolescents.
229 These challenges present opportunities for more research.

230 Conclusion

231 Current oral antiretroviral drugs have been successful at reducing HIV morbidity and mortality 232 and have contributed to prevention efforts. However, adherence is crucial to sustaining progress 233 in the long-term. The development of long-acting injectable formulations has the potential to 234 simplify antiretroviral therapy and promote adherence by allowing for up to bimonthly 235 administration. There are many long_acting injectable antiretroviral formulations at various stages 236 of preclinical and clinical development for use in the prevention and treatment of HIV. Whilst this 237 review has focused on the most developed injectable antiretrovirals, the development of 238 additional groups (including capsid inhibitors and entry inhibitors) is underway (see Table 1).

239 This review includes agents already approved as oral formulations as well as investigational drugs.240 Of these cabotegravir and rilpivirine are the most studied, and both have demonstrated non-241 inferiority to a triple oral ARV regimen.

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Class	Agents	Developmental Stage	References	
Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs)	Tenofovir Alafenamide Fumarate*	Preclinical	[71]	
	Emtricitabine*	Preclinical	[26]	
Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs)	Rilpivirine	Phase III	[24,57,72]	
	Elsulfavirine+	Preclinical	[73,74]	
	Cmpd1+	Preclinical	[75]	
Protease inhibitors (PIs)	Atazanavir	Preclinical	[76]	
	Ritonavir	Preclinical	[33]	
Integrase strand transfer inhibitors (INSTI)	Cabotegravir+	Phase III	[27-29]	
. ,	Raltegravir	Preclinical	[35]	
	Dolutegravir	Preclinical	[37]	
	Bictegravir	Preclinical	[38]	
Entry inhibitors	Maraviroc	Preclinical	[77]	
Capsid inhibitors	GS-CA1+	Phase I	[78,79]	

Table 1 Long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents

*The agents being developed as co-formulated long-acting agents +No FDA approved oral formulation. INSTI and NRTIs group are further discussed in this review being the most developed.

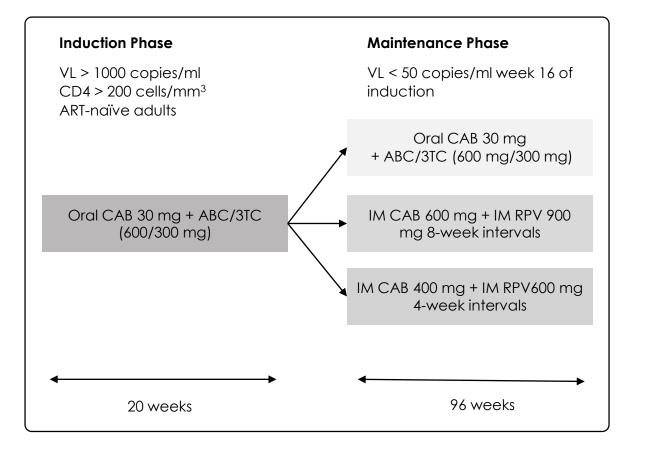


Figure 1 LATTE-2 study. Comparison of oral daily cabotegravir/abacavir/lamivudine with long-acting cabotegravir and rilpivirine use at 4-week and 8-week intervals. VL- viral load, ART- antiretroviral therapy, CAB- cabotegravir, ABC/3TC- abacavir/lamivudine, RPV- rilpivirine, IM- intramuscular, adapted from [61, 62]

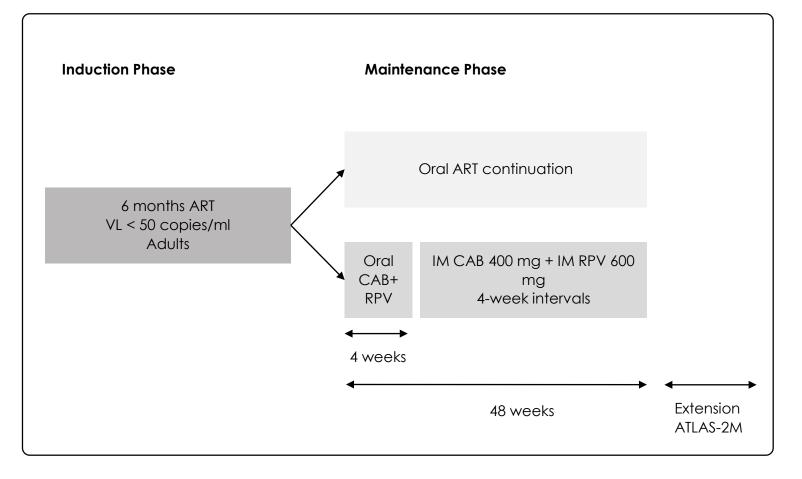


Figure 2 ATLAS study. Monthly intramuscular cabotegravir and rilpivirine combination compared with oral antiretrovirals. VL- viral load, ART- antiretroviral therapy, CAB- cabotegravir, RPV- rilpivirine, IM-intramuscular [61]

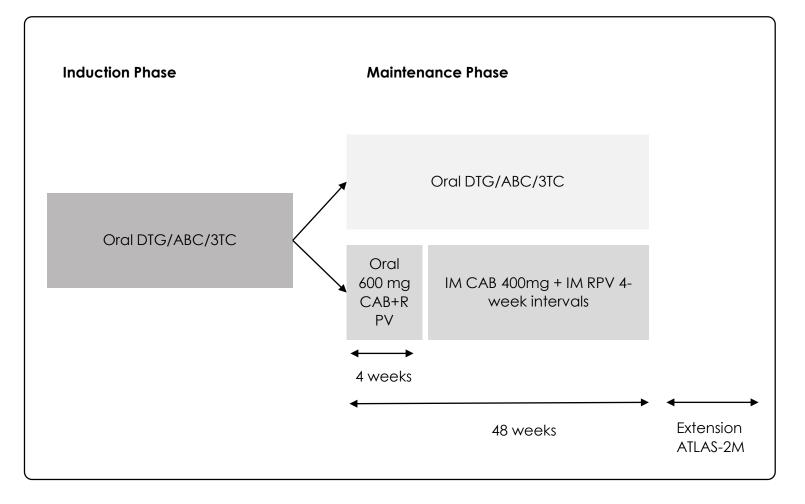


Figure 3 FLAIR study. Comparison of oral dolutegravir/abacavir/lamivudine with injectable cabotegravir and rilpivirine combination used monthly. DTG- dolutegravir, ABC- abacavir, 3TC- lamivudine, CAB- cabotegravir, RPV- rilpivirine, IM- intramuscular, adapted from [61]

1 Use of long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents for Human

- 2 Immunodeficiency Virus: A review
- 3
- 4

5 Background

6 In recent decades human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection has become a chronic 7 manageable condition [1,2]. Its treatment is centred on the use of highly active antiretroviral 8 therapy (HAART), which consists of three antiretroviral drugs that are taken daily, typically in pill 9 forms [2]. There is also approval for the use of two antiretroviral drugs, tenofovir and emtricitabine, 10 for pre-exposure prophylaxis in prevention among high-risk individuals [3,4]. HAART is effective in 11 achieving viral suppression in more than 90% of patients but this suppression requires consistent 12 daily use [5–7]. Oral daily intake of antiretroviral drugs has been shown to be a burden causing 13 distress for patients and leading to non-adherence in a significant number [7]. Non-adherence 14 can predispose to the emergence of drug-resistant HIV strains, treatment failure and disease 15 progression [8–10]. There has therefore been an effort to simplify HIV treatment and prevention 16 with the use of long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents that allow monthly administration [11– 17 16].

18 These agents include forms of traditional antiretroviral drugs, as well as forms of newer antiviral 19 agents such as humanised antibodies and broadly neutralizing antibodies [17–19]. Most 20 developing long-acting injectable antiretroviral agents can be administered intramuscularly or 21 subcutaneously, however other methods of delivery are also being researched. These alternative 22 delivery methods include implants, patches, vaginal rings and intravenous administration [20–22].

23 The aim of this review is to evaluate the available evidence on the development and use of long-24 acting injectable antiretroviral agents in HIV treatment and prevention.

25 Integrase strand transfer inhibitors (INSTI)

26 The integrase strand transfer inhibitors are a class of antiretroviral drugs that block the HIV integrase 27 thereby preventing viral integration into the host genome. There are currently four approved oral 28 formulations: raltegravir, elvitegravir, dolutegravir and bictegravir. They generally have a high 29 barrier to resistance[23]. Members of this class, including the investigational drug cabotegravir, are 30 being developed for use as long-acting injectables [24] see Table 1.

31 Cabotegravir

32 Cabotegravir is an investigational drug that belongs to the second generation of INSTIs [25,26]. It 33 is produced in an oral form as well as in an injectable form (subcutaneous and intramuscular) 34 [26,27]. The half-life of the drug is 20-40 days as an injectable formulation which makes up to 35 bimonthly use potentially possible [26,28].

36 Reports from phase II prevention trials demonstrated that injectable cabotegravir was safe and well-37 tolerated among the participants [29,30]. A separate phase III non-inferiority trial investigated the 38 prophylactic administration of intramuscular cabotegravir to prevent HIV infection among men 39 who have sex with men (MSM) and transgender (TGW) women. A preliminary report of this trial 40 supports the effectiveness of cabotegravir at preventing HIV infection, compared with oral 41 administered tenofovir/emtricitabine combination [31,32].

42 Clinical trials continue to assess the use of injectable cabotegravir for pre-exposure prophylaxis 43 (PrEP) [29,31]. Findings from a study among over 3,000 women in 7 African countries unequivocally 44 conclude that long-acting injectable cabotegravir effectively protected women from HIV 45 acquisition when used as PrEP [33].

46 Raltegravir

47Raltegravir is another INSTI that is being developed as a long-acting injectable [34]. It is approved in 48ts oral form for treatment and prevention (post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP)) of HIV [1], but its 49development as a long-acting agent is still in the preclinical stage. A study on humanised bone 50marrow-liver-thymus (BLT) mice had subcutaneous long-acting raltegravir administered at 7.5mg. In

51this study the pharmacokinetic properties were similar to those of 400mg oral raltegravir and the 52 reatment showed potency at protecting the BLT mice from HIV vaginal challenge up to four weeks 53 ollowing single-dose administration, whilst the control mice were not protected from HIV infection. 54 he plasma level of the drug was also noted to be comparable to that of the oral form [35]. This 55 eport also revealed the presence of the active drug in the female genital tract of the mice, a finding 56 hat if reproduced in humans may indicate usefulness as preventive intervention as sexual intercourse 57 s one of the common routes of HIV transmission.

58Dolutegraviľ

59Dral forms of dolutegravir have proven efficacious, with oral dolutegravir being one of the first drugs 60approved as part of dual therapy in the management of HIV infection due to its very high potency 6136]. However the development of a long-acting injectable form is still at a very early stage [37].

6 **Bictegravir**

63Bictegravir oral formulation is the most recent INSTI to secure US Food and Drug Administration 64(FDA) approval. It is also at an early stage of development into a long-acting injectable [38]. It has the 65 highest barrier to resistance among the INSTI group [34], and a long-acting injectable could also 66 potentially possess this quality.

67Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs)

68NNRTIs alter the reverse transcriptase enzyme of HIV and inhibit its replication [23,39]. Oral formulations 69of NNRTIs have been in clinical use for decades and their use as long-acting agents is being evaluated 70[40].

71Rilpivirine

72Rilpivirine (TMC278) is a second-generation NNRTI with an approved oral form. This form is combined
73with other antiretroviral drugs for treatment-naïve HIV-1 infected individuals with a viral load (HIV-1 RNA)
74of 100,000 copies/ml or below [41,42]. A long-acting injectable form of rilpivirine with a half-life of 30-90
75days has been developed. This form allows administration as an intramuscular injection once every four

760 eight weeks [11,43–45]. This is in contrast to the oral form which has a half-life of 24-45 hours and must 77 herefore be taken daily to be effective [46]. A comparable drug concentration to that of the oral form 78 vas detected in the plasma up to 84 days following administration of the long-acting injectable in early 79 clinical studies [11,43]. The injectable form is at an advanced stage of development in combination 80 with cabotegravir as a long-acting agent for HIV treatment. A study reported its safety in a phase I trial 81 and ex vivo evaluation revealed that it suppressed infection up to four months after administration [47]. 82 concern with the suitability of rilpivirine for pre-exposure prophylaxis is expected, however a major 83 concern with the suitability of rilpivirine for prevention is its low barrier to resistance [48].

84

85 Cabotegravir and rilpivirine combination

86 The combination of cabotegravir and rilpivirine is the most widely studied long-acting injectable 87 regimen developed for the management of HIV. Several studies have reported the safety and 88 tolerability of the long-acting formulations in separate use [11,29,43], and numerous recent studies 89 report their use in combination. In the Long-Acting antireTroviral Treatment Enabling (LATTE) study 90 involving 243 subjects, combined oral cabotegravir and rilpivirine demonstrated superior efficacy to 91 an efavirenz plus dual NRTIs based-regimen for up to 96 weeks: virologic suppression was seen among 92 86% of the former treatment group, compared to up to 68% of the latter. The combination was 93 determined to be efficacious and safe lending support for their further study [49].

94 In a separate study conducted among 40 healthy adults a 14-day lead-in of oral cabotegravir was 95 given, followed by monthly intramuscular and subcutaneous injections of cabotegravir and rilpivirine 96 at a dose range of 200-800 mg and 600-1200 mg respectively for a duration of 3 months. Targeted 97 plasma concentrations (0.66 µg/mL) of the drugs were attained within three days of administration, 98 and there were no significant adverse reactions or laboratory abnormalities reported [24]. This 99 corroborates the earlier studies on the tolerance and safety of the drugs [29,43].

100 A separate study, LATTE-2, involved 309 ART-naïve HIV-1 positive adult patients. The study utilised an 101 induction phase of cabotegravir followed by a 96-week maintenance phase, composed of either

102 long-acting cabotegravir and rilpivirine at four- or eight-week intervals or the control treatment (daily 103 oral cabotegravir) (figure 1). At week 96, HIV-1 RNA was below 50 copies/ml in 87% of the four-weekly 104 group, 94% of the eight-weekly group and 84% of the control group. Adverse reactions were 105 comparable among the three groups with injection site reaction (ISR) being the most common 106 followed by nasopharyngitis, diarrhoea and headaches [12]. The efficacy of the dual long-acting 107 cabotegravir and rilpivirine was shown to be comparable to the oral triple regimen, consistent with 108 the findings of the LATTE study.

109 In the phase III Antiviral Therapy as Long-Acting Suppression (ATLAS) study, the combination of long-110 acting cabotegravir and rilpivirine was compared to a triple oral regimen (figure 2). The long-acting 111 injectable combination had similar virologic suppression rates to the triple oral regimen (285/308 112 (92.5%) compared to 294/308 (95.5%) at week 48 of therapy. Confirmed virologic failure was infrequent 113 and similar in both arms. There was a low rate of serious adverse effects 13/308 (4.2%) and withdrawal-114 related to the injection (1.3%). The ISR throughout the 48 weeks period in the injection group was 1460 115 out of 6978 injections administered. The reaction was most often mild and resolved within three days 116 [50].

117 A separate phase III study, First Long-Acting Injectable Regimen (FLAIR) (figure 3), supports the findings 118 of the ATLAS study. FLAIR demonstrated the non-inferiority of injectable cabotegravir plus rilpivirine to 119 oral abacavir/dolutegravir/lamivudine. HIV 1 RNA was below 50 copies/ml in 265/283 (93.6%) of the 120 long-acting treatment group participants and 264/283 (93.3%) in the control group participants. The 121 virologic failure and rate of adverse reactions were similar in the two groups and to that of the 122 participants in the ATLAS study [51]. The ATLAS and FLAIR studies assessed the use of the long-acting 123 agents at four-week intervals. An extension of the ATLAS study, ATLAS-2M (figure 2,) investigated the 124 administration of the drugs at eight-weekly intervals. An eight-weekly regimen of long-acting 125 cabotegravir and rilpivirine was compared with a four-weekly regimen, and it was determined that, 126 at 48 weeks of administration, the eight-weekly regimen of cabotegravir and rilpivirine long-acting 127 injectables was non-inferior to the eight-weekly regimen [52].

128 The results of these phase III trials revealed the efficacy and tolerability of combined cabotegravir 129 and rilpivirine long-acting injectables. The combination received approval for use in Canada in 130 early 2020 while European Medicine Agency and United States Food and Drug Administration 131 gave approval for the use in October 2020 and January 2021 respectively [53–55]. It should be 132 noted that children and adolescents were excluded in phase III studies and LATTE studies. A new 133 study tagged More Options for Children and Adolescents (MOCHA) is underway and aims to 134 define the pharmacokinetics and safety of cabotegravir and rilpivirine injections in children age 135 12 to 17 [56]. It should be noted that the current studies excluded patients with advanced HIV 136 (CD4 < 200 cells/mm³) and those having used ART long-term [12,57]. Determining the efficacy of 137 these drugs amongst these groups are desirable. Similarly, the studies excluded patients with major 138 comorbidities such as renal and liver diseases. The longest duration of follow-up reported with the 139 use of the long-acting injectables so far is 96 weeks [12], therefore longer-term follow-up may be 140 waranted.

141

142 Drug Resistance

143 The development of resistance is an area of great concern in any drug-centred treatment strategy 144 [58]. One way in which long-acting agents seek to address this issue is through improved 145 adherence to reduce the rate or possibility of resistance development [8]. However, the possibility 146 of the emergence of resistance during therapy remains. In studies the emergence of resistance 147 has been demonstrated to be similar among those using long-acting injectables and the control 148 groups [51,52].

149 Further, there are potential limitations associated with the use of long-acting injectable 150 antiretroviral agents in patients with resistance to an oral regimen. In clinical trials, those with 151 detectable drug resistance or virologic failure were excluded. This may influence the 152 generalization of the study's findings in these group of patients. Therefore, studies to address this 153 will be warranted.

154

155 Drug-drug interactions

156 The interactions of antiretroviral drugs with other medications is an important aspect of HIV 157 management [59]. For example rilpivirine interacts with proton-pump inhibitors, anti-convulsants 158 (carbamazepine and phenytoin) and rifampicin, all reducing the plasma level of the drug [60].

159 Rifampicin also interacts with cabotegravir. The former is a potent liver enzyme inducer that 160 increases the metabolism of cabotegravir and may lead to its early clearance from the circulation, 161 leading to a subtherapeutic level which may predispose to the emergence of resistance and 162 virologic failure [61]. Rifampicin is a key component in the management of tuberculosis (TB) and TB 163 has a high incidence among PLWHIV [62].

164 Future studies should assess the potential interactions of cabotegravir with other medications used 165 to treat common comorbidities amongst HIV patients, such as hepatitis B and C. A study on the 166 interactions of orally administered dolutegravir and daclatasvir, a hepatitis C antiviral agent, 167 showed that the latter alters the pharmacokinetic properties of dolutegravir, with the maximum 168 observed concentration and the end of dosing interval concentration increased by 29% and 45% 169 respectively. However, this alteration was not clinically significant [63]. Carbamazepine 170 interactions with dolutegravir required the doubling of its dose [64]. These interactions should be 171 considered when designing and implementing long-acting formulations. However, it should also 172 be considered that it is not necessarily possible to fully extrapolate studies on oral formulations to 173 the injectables [65].

174 Patient experience and satisfaction

175 Patient satisfaction is important to treatment adherence. The HIV Treatment Satisfaction 176 Questionnaire (HIVTSQ) is used to assess the treatment convenience, continuation of therapy and 177 how flexible a treatment option is among other components. Studies have measured patient 178 satisfaction regarding long-acting injectables using the HIVTSQ.

179 There was a high level of treatment satisfaction among the two long-acting treatment groups 180 and the oral control group in the LATTE-2 study with 246/254 (97%) picking a score of 5 or 6 out of 181 a total of 6 (the higher the score the higher the level of satisfaction), and with more participants 182 satisfied to continue intramuscular therapy than oral (99% in both intramuscular group and 78% in 183 the oral group) at week 96. However, the non-inclusion of those that dropped out before the 96-184 week should be noted [12].

185 In a qualitative study of 27 participants in Spain and the United States in the same LATTE-2 trials 186 convenience, privacy, reduction in stigmatisation and discrimination were all important benefits 187 believed to be associated with the use of injectable ARVs, but respondents still desired a less 188 frequent regimen that would further reduce the number of healthcare visits [66]. It should be 189 considered that the increase in satisfaction among the injectable group may have been 190 influenced by the selection of individuals who consented to the use of intramuscular treatment 191 at the start of the randomisation.

192 Similarly, a high level of satisfaction was reported in the ATLAS and FLAIR studies (99% and 97 % 193 respectively) among the injection arm [57], whilst in the study on the use of cabotegravir injection 194 for the prevention of HIV infection (ÉCLAIR trial) a significant number of the participants were 195 satisfied with cabotegravir injection 75% (n=64), expressed a desire to continue usage 79% (n=68) 196 and were willing to recommend it for others 87% (n=75) [67].

197 Challenges

198 The results of the ongoing clinical trials on injectable antiretrovirals for HIV treatment and 199 prevention have been encouraging, but some challenges still need to be resolved. There will be a 200 need for patients to adhere to the injection schedule as non-adherence will expose the virus to a 201 sub-therapeutic level of drugs over an extended period and may contribute to the selection of 202 resistant strains especially among individuals that are lost to follow-up [29]. For patients that missed 203 injections, there may be a need to return them to oral medications. Studies among patients with 204 poor adherence will likely be desirable to understand the acceptability of the regimen and how 205 to manage their circumstances.

206 The development of easy-to-use subcutaneous injections may address the need for patients to 207 present at health facilities for drug administration. It was documented that in a population of HIV 208 positive women in rural Uganda, subcutaneous long-acting depot medroxyprogesterone acetate 209 was successfully used, indicating the possibilities of adopting a comparable scheme for injectable 210 antiretrovirals in similar communities [68]. However, health care workers will still need to follow-up 211 patients, as the management of HIV involves more than maintaining drug administration. Drug-212 related adverse events may be an issue in some patients, for example. The use of short oral lead-213 in was to address this problem, but idiosyncratic reactions may still occur even among those that 214 tolerated the oral formulations [69].

215 Furthermore, injections of current formulations have been associated with ISR and pain leading 216 to discomfort, a factor that may affect acceptability [12]. It is possible the development of low 217 volume injections may help to reduce problems associated with administration. There is also a 218 need to develop injectables used in combination, but delivered separately, into a single 219 combined injection to reduce the number of injections administered per healthcare visit, 220 simplifying administration further and reducing the number of injections.

221 Another concern is the requirement for the rilpivirine injectable formulation to be stored between 222 2 to 8°C [70]. This may be a particular concern in resource-poor environments, potentially limiting 223 distribution and accessibility. A possible solution would be to use the existing cold-chain channels 224 that are being used to distribute vaccines in these areas. This may pose an organisational 225 challenge, requiring the collaboration of stakeholders to be successful.

226 There remains a need for long-term data and real-world experience on the use of long-acting
227 injectables, in addition to studies on specific groups of patients excluded from the studies here
228 reviewed, such as those with advanced progression to AIDS, as well as children and adolescents.
229 These challenges present opportunities for more research.

230 Conclusion

231 Current oral antiretroviral drugs have been successful at reducing HIV morbidity and mortality 232 and have contributed to prevention efforts. However, adherence is crucial to sustaining progress 233 in the long-term. The development of long-acting injectable formulations has the potential to 234 simplify antiretroviral therapy and promote adherence by allowing for up to bimonthly 235 administration. There are many long-acting injectable antiretroviral formulations at various stages 236 of preclinical and clinical development for use in the prevention and treatment of HIV. Whilst this 237 review has focused on the most developed injectable antiretrovirals, the development of 238 additional groups (including capsid inhibitors and entry inhibitors) is underway (see Table 1).

239 This review includes agents already approved as oral formulations as well as investigational drugs.

240 Of these cabotegravir and rilpivirine are the most studied, and both have demonstrated non-

241 inferiority to a triple oral ARV regimen.

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