(Check for updates

OPEN ACCESS

EDITED BY Raphael Zozimus Sangeda, Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences, Tanzania

REVIEWED BY Charles Martyn-Dickens, Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital (KATH), Ghana

*CORRESPONDENCE Tafadzwa Dzinamarira ⊠ anthonydzina@gmail.com

RECEIVED 28 November 2023 ACCEPTED 02 February 2024 PUBLISHED 14 February 2024

CITATION

Dzinamarira T, Moyo E, Moyo B, Murewanhema G, Cuadros D, Kouamou V, Mpofu A and Musuka G (2024) Strengthening and enhancing national antiretroviral drug resistance surveillance in Zimbabwe—A country that has reached UNAIDS 95-95-95 amongst adults. *Front. Public Health* 12:1346027. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2024.1346027

COPYRIGHT

© 2024 Dzinamarira, Moyo, Moyo, Murewanhema, Cuadros, Kouamou, Mpofu and Musuka. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.

Strengthening and enhancing national antiretroviral drug resistance surveillance in Zimbabwe—A country that has reached UNAIDS 95-95-95 amongst adults

Tafadzwa Dzinamarira^{1,2*}, Enos Moyo³, Brian Moyo⁴, Grant Murewanhema⁵, Diego Cuadros⁶, Vinie Kouamou⁵, Amon Mpofu⁷ and Godfrey Musuka⁸

¹School of Health Systems and Public Health, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa, ²International Center for AIDS Care and Treatment Programs, Columbia University, Lusaka, Zambia, ³Department of Public Health Medicine, University of KwaZulu Natal, Durban, South Africa, ⁴Ministry of Health and Child Care, Harare, Zimbabwe, ⁵Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe, ⁶University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH, United States, ⁷National AIDS Council of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe, ⁸International Initiative for Impact Evaluation, Harare, Zimbabwe

KEYWORDS

HIVDR, surveillance, Zimbabwe, antiretroviral therapy, public health

Introduction

AIDS claimed a life every minute in 2022. Millions of people still miss out on treatment, including 43% of children living with HIV (1). It is inspiring to note that Botswana, Eswatini, Rwanda, the United Republic of Tanzania, and Zimbabwe have already achieved the 95-95-95 targets amongst adults. At least 16 other countries (including eight in sub-Saharan Africa) are close to doing so (1). Achieving epidemic control is now within reach. Financing the response to HIV infection may increasingly become more challenging in resource-poor countries with a high disease burden that will have attained 95-95-95 amongst adults as donor resources are directed to other poor countries with less robust HIV response programs (2).

Zimbabwe, a low-income country in southern Africa with a population of more than 15 million, has been hard hit by HIV infection and had a peak prevalence of 26% in adults in the late 1990s (3). In 2021, 96% of adults knew their status, 96% of adults living with HIV were on antiretroviral treatment (ART), and 93% of adults on treatment had suppressed viral load. To sustain these gains as it approaches ending HIV, there is a need for the country to strengthen HIV prevention using both long-established approaches such as condom programming, Voluntary medical male circumcision (VMMC), and early infant diagnosis as well as more recent innovations such as Pre-exposure prophylaxis (PrEP).

However, of concern was that children in Zimbabwe were still lagging in achieving the 95-95-95 targets due to ingrained inequalities and a lack of innovative case finding. For example, in 2021, 73% of children living with HIV in Zimbabwe knew their HIV status, 73% of children living with HIV were on treatment, and only 58% had suppressed viral load (4). Going forward Zimbabwe will need to redouble efforts to ensure that children are not left behind in the HIV response.

For the country to be less dependent on donor funding for its HIV response, in 1999, the Zimbabwean government introduced a National AIDS Trust Fund or "AIDS Levy (5)." Through a 3% tax on formal sector income and business profits (which excluded the mining sector until 2015), the AIDS Levy has raised well over US\$100 million for the national response to HIV and AIDS, including US\$38.6 million in 2014 alone (6). Going forward Zimbabwe will need to depend on domestic resources such as those generated by the AIDS Levy to sustain its HIV programs.

To sustain the gains made over the years to end the HIV epidemic, efforts should be reinforced on prevention through the use of pre-exposure prophylaxis (PrEP), on monitoring viral load among individuals on ART, and finally on surveillance of HIV drug resistance (HIVDR) including pretreatment resistance (among patient in initiating ART) and acquired HIVDR (among patients failing on their current regimens). HIVDR refers to the ability of the virus to mutate and reproduce in the presence of antiretroviral drugs, rendering these drugs less effective or even ineffective. This resistance develops when HIV replicates in the presence of antiretroviral drugs, but due to incomplete viral suppression, selective pressure allows resistant strains to thrive (7). HIVDR is a significant concern because it can lead to treatment failure, limiting options for effective HIV management. The emergence of HIVDR is often associated with poor adherence to ART, suboptimal drug regimens, and transmission of drug-resistant strains (8). It poses a challenge to the global goal of controlling the HIV epidemic, as it can compromise the efficacy of first-line ART regimens, necessitating the use of more complex and costly second-line or third-line therapies.

The prevalence of HIVDR is a growing concern globally, particularly in regions with widespread access to antiretroviral therapy (ART). Africa has witnessed a significant increase in ART availability, accompanied by a rise in HIVDR cases (9-11). This is particularly concerning in newly infected individuals and those starting ART in sub-Saharan Africa, as it impacts the effectiveness of first-line treatment regimens and threatens the overall success of HIV control programs. Zimbabwe mirrors the challenges faced across Africa, despite efforts to control HIV spread and improve treatment outcomes (12-14). Studies show some success in managing resistance, with primary drug resistance prevalence in HIV-infected pregnant women below the WHO threshold. However, the overall drug-resistance prevalence in Zimbabwe is around 5.6% (15), including a high prevalence of drug-resistant mutations in HIV-infected infants, raising concerns for future treatment strategies (16). Moderate levels of pretreatment HIVDR have also been observed, affecting the ability to achieve viral suppression in patients initiating ART (17). These statistics highlight the ongoing challenge of managing HIVDR in Zimbabwe, emphasizing the need for robust surveillance, effective treatment strategies, and adherence to ART to mitigate the spread and impact of drug-resistant HIV strains.

HIVDR can be transmitted or acquired through various means, including previous antiretroviral exposure (18). Multiple factors contribute to HIVDR emergence, including viral, drug-related, programmatic, and patient-related factors. Increased pretreatment HIVDR prevalence is linked to ART failure, potentially leading to further resistance (19, 20). Previous Zimbabwe studies show high pretreatment and acquired HIVDR against non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. Dolutegravir is the preferred first-line regimen but enhanced HIVDR surveillance is crucial to preserve its efficacy (12, 21, 22). In this article, we discuss the need, benefits, and strategies for strengthening and enhancing HIVDR surveillance in Zimbabwe.

The need for strengthening and enhancing HIVDR surveillance

The WHO recommends the development of a national action plan on HIVDR, annual monitoring of Early Warning Indicators (EWIs) and routine HIVDR surveys (including, pre-treatment and acquired HIVDR surveys and HIVDR among PrEP users diagnosed with HIV every 3 to 5 years) (21). Limited funding has hindered these activities in Zimbabwe. Funding for HIV programs is anticipated to continue contracting as the country approaches epidemic control (2).

As ART and PrEP expand, HIVDR emergence is likely, to jeopardize HIV/AIDS eradication efforts. Dolutegravir (DTG), though known for its high genetic resistance barrier, has shown resistance elsewhere, particularly among ART-experienced individuals (23). While a recent Zimbabwe study found no DTG resistance among ART-naïve individuals (24), surveillance and monitoring of HIVDR among DTG users is crucial due to its widespread use and potential future treatment limitations (25, 26). HIVDR survey results inform program performance, guide second-line therapy selection, and prevent unnecessary therapy switching.

The benefits of strengthening and enhancing HIVDR surveillance

Strengthening and enhancing HIVDR surveillance has several benefits. Particularly in low-to-middle-income countries (LMICs) that do not conduct resistance testing before starting ART, knowledge of pretreatment HIVDR at the population level can help countries choose effective first-line ART, drugs for PrEP, and post-exposure prophylaxis (18).

When the anchor drugs are susceptible, HIVDR surveillance for individual patient monitoring may reduce the number of unnecessary therapy switches. It should be highlighted that the implementation of HIVDR surveillance at the patient level in LMICs like Zimbabwe only adds value when viral load testing is available on a large scale, resources, and laboratory capacity are available, and the country has access to clinical experts and virologists who can interpret the resistance results (20). When routine HIVDR is not possible because of several factors, including technological and financial limitations, as is the case in Zimbabwe, it is especially recommended that regular HIVDR surveys be conducted. There will be certain patient groups that require monitoring in these circumstances. Such groups include adults initiating or re-initiating first-line ART, infants newly diagnosed with HIV, anyone with virological failure, and HIV-diagnosed PrEP recipients (20). It is also important to note that, without surveillance, patients may be maintained on failing regimes,

which leads to the accumulation of resistance mutations that jeopardize the effectiveness of ensuing regimens (8). HIVDR therefore improves treatment outcomes as patients are switched to effective regimens on time when their current regimens are failing, resulting in a reduction in the accumulation of resistance mutations that may compromise future regimens. This will also prolong the useful life of first-line regimens, thereby reducing the costs of ART programs (8).

The best salvage therapy can be informed by genotypic resistance testing (20). Genotypic resistance testing helps in predicting antiretroviral drug susceptibility and subsequent effective treatment for patients in the future (27). Additionally, surveillance can be used to identify factors that are possibly associated with the emergence of HIVDR. Such information is crucial in designing and implementing HIVDR prevention strategies (28). With DTG being given as the first-line ART, there are limited ART options for third-line regimens in LMICs such as Zimbabwe. HIVDR testing and surveillance are necessary for patients who are not responding to protease inhibitor-based ART (20). In addition to benefiting patients, HIVDR surveillance offers vital data that are needed to evaluate how well ART programs are doing at achieving viral suppression targets (20).

Strategies for strengthening and enhancing HIVDR surveillance

Effective surveillance is crucial for identifying emerging resistance patterns, informing treatment guidelines, and ensuring the continued efficacy of antiretroviral therapies. Regular monitoring of patients on ART for signs of drug resistance, including both genotypic and phenotypic resistance testing, is necessary. Additionally, establishing robust systems for collecting and analyzing data on HIVDR is vital. This process involves gathering data from various sources such as hospitals, clinics, and laboratories, and utilizing digital health records and databases can streamline this process and facilitate more effective data analysis.

Research and development in new methods of surveillance for HIVDR are also key elements for enhancing the effectiveness of HIV treatment programs and controlling the spread of HIVDR. This field is continuously evolving, with areas of focus including molecular techniques for drug resistance testing, point-of-care testing (POCT), bioinformatics and data analysis tools, surveillance of HIVDR, integration with digital health platforms, patient monitoring technologies, and epidemiological studies (7, 29). Spatial analysis, which involves examining the locations, attributes, and relationships of features in geographic space, can provide critical insights into the patterns, causes, and effects of health phenomena like HIVDR (30). This includes identifying hotspots of resistance, understanding transmission dynamics, and informing resource allocation and planning. By focusing on these advanced techniques and tools, healthcare systems can significantly enhance their ability to monitor and respond to HIVDR, ultimately improving treatment outcomes and controlling the spread of HIV (31, 32).

Some strategies to strengthen and enhance HIVDR surveillance include increasing viral load monitoring among patients on ART,

training healthcare workers to identify patients who require HIVDR testing, ensuring that surveys of HIVDR are conducted routinely, accreditation of laboratories that perform HIVDR testing, and the monitoring program quality indicators, also known as EWIs (33). Although Zimbabwe has already achieved the UNAIDS 95-95-95 targets in adults and not yet in children, strategies should be put in place to conduct surveys of HIVDR routinely, to monitor the emergence and transmission of HIVDR, measure the degree to which program practices minimize the emergence and transmission of HIVDR, and provide data to support the selection of optimal ART regimens. These surveys should be nationally representative (33).

To evaluate clinic-level data and pinpoint programmatic deficiencies, Zimbabwe should also monitor EWIs. EWIs can be tracked at representative sites or across all ART sites in the country (34). EWIs are clinic, patient, and program factors that serve as a sentinel for HIVDR emergence (35). Early detection of these variables can assist HCWs in implementing the proper corrective measures at the clinic level. It can also serve as a warning to program managers and policymakers to take the necessary precautions to stop HIVDR development on a national scale (36). The WHO advises annual HIVDR EWI surveillance at all ART clinics or a representative sample of all healthcare institutions in the country (34). However, in LMICs like Zimbabwe, EWIs can be monitored every 2 or 3 years due to a lack of resources. Facilities that exhibit poor performance for any EWI should be identified for programmatic follow-up (37). Additionally, EWIs must be incorporated into regular national monitoring and evaluation tasks related to ART programs (33). The integration of HIVDR surveillance into national HIV/AIDS control programs ensures that surveillance is a regular part of HIV care and treatment (38).

Conclusion

Effective HIVDR management requires comprehensive surveillance, encompassing patient monitoring, data analysis, program integration, and healthcare worker training. Advances in drug resistance testing, point-of-care testing, and bioinformatics tools enhance surveillance and treatment strategies. EWIs and spatial analysis identify and address factors contributing to HIVDR, ensuring effective and adaptable treatment.

In Zimbabwe, the situation of HIVDR mirrors the complexities faced globally, with unique regional challenges. Zimbabwe's response to HIVDR involves not only addressing these factors but also tailoring strategies to its specific epidemiological and socio-economic context. This includes enhancing local capacity for drug resistance testing, improving patient adherence through community engagement and education, and ensuring the availability of effective first and second-line treatment options.

Author contributions

TD: Conceptualization, Writing—original draft. EM: Writing—original draft. BM: Writing—review & editing. GM: Writing—original draft. DC: Writing—review & editing. VK: Writing—review & editing. AM: Writing—review & editing. GM: Writing—review & editing.

Funding

The author(s) declare that no financial support was received for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of

of interest.

Publisher's note

of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.

relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict

References

1. UNAIDS. In Danger: UNAIDS Global AIDS Update 2022. (2022). Available online at: https://www.unaids.org/en/resources/documents/2022/in-danger-global-aids-update (accessed November 15, 2023).

2. The Lancet HIV. Funding the future of the HIV response. *Lancet HIV*. (2022) 9:E595. doi: 10.1016/S2352-3018(22)00222-3

3. National AIDS Council of Zimbabwe. *Global AIDS Response Country Progress Report: Zimbabwe 2014.* (2014). Available online at: https://www.unaids.org/ sites/default/files/country/documents/ZWE_narrative_report_2014.pdf (accessed November 15, 2023).

4. United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). Ending HIV/AIDS with Children, Adolescents, and Young Women. (2023). Available online at: https://www.unicef.org/zimbabwe/reports/ending-hivaids-children-adolescents-and-young-women (accessed November 15, 2023).

The 5. Parliament of Zimbabwe. National AIDS Council of Act [Chapter 15:14]. (1999). Zimbabwe Available online at: https://natlex.ilo.org/dyn/natlex2/r/natlex/fe/details?p3_isn=58146&c 1A4Aqxpt094Ixw47U3tOPpl1uOfgLKCFtpcPj9UxPWvBS08U642tynFlMSCK0r5tOR_ h_SJe_zogS8jtWmdnxOA (accessed November 15, 2023).

6. Bhat N, Kilmarx PH, Dube F, Manenji A, Dube M, Magure T. Zimbabwe's national AIDS levy: a case study. SAHARA J. (2016) 13:1-7. doi: 10.1080/17290376.2015.1123646

7. Yuan D, Liu M, Jia P, Li Y, Huang Y, Ye L, et al. Prevalence and determinants of virological failure, genetic diversity and drug resistance among people living with HIV in a minority area in China: a population-based study. *BMC Infect Dis.* (2020) 20:443. doi: 10.1186/s12879-020-05124-1

8. Godfrey C, Thigpen MC, Crawford KW, Jean-Phillippe P, Pillay D, Persaud D, et al. Global HIV antiretroviral drug resistance: a perspective and report of a national institute of allergy and infectious diseases consultation. *J Infect Dis.* (2017) 216:S798–800. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jix137

9. Kiekens A, Dierckx de Casterlé B, Pellizzer G, Mosha IH, Mosha F, Rinke de Wit TF, et al. Exploring the mechanisms behind HIV drug resistance in sub-Saharan Africa: conceptual mapping of a complex adaptive system based on multi-disciplinary expert insights. *BMC Public Health.* (2022) 22:455. doi: 10.1186/s12889-022-12738-4

10. Manyana S, Pillay M, Gounder L, Khan A, Moodley P, Naidoo K, et al. Affordable drug resistance genotyping of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase, protease and integrase genes, for resource-limited settings. *AIDS Res Ther.* (2023) 20:9. doi: 10.1186/s12981-023-00505-3

11. Melku M, Gesesew HA, Ward PR. Magnitude and predictors of HIV-Drug resistance in Africa: a protocol for systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE.* (2022) 17:e0267159. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0267159

12. Kouamou V, Mavetera J, Manasa J, Ndhlovu CE, Katzenstein D, McGregor AM. Pretreatment HIV drug resistance among adults initiating or re-initiating first-line antiretroviral therapy in zimbabwe: fast-tracking the transition to dolutegravir-based first-line regimens? *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. (2021) 37:776–83. doi: 10.1089/aid.2020.0242

13. Kouamou V, Varyani B, Shamu T, Mapangisana T, Chimbetete C, Mudzviti T, et al. Drug resistance among adolescents and young adults with virologic failure of first-line antiretroviral therapy and response to second-line treatment. *AIDS Res Hum Retrovir*. (2020) 36:566–73. doi: 10.1089/aid.2019.0232

14. Chimbetete C, Katzenstein D, Shamu T, Spoerri A, Estill J, Egger M, et al. HIV-1 drug resistance and third-line therapy outcomes in patients failing second-line therapy in Zimbabwe. *Open Forum Infect Dis.* (2018) 5:ofy005. doi: 10.1093/ofid/ofy005

 Hamers RL, Wallis CL, Kityo C, Siwale M, Mandaliya K, Conradie F, et al. HIV-1 drug resistance in antiretroviral-naive individuals in sub-Saharan Africa after rollout of antiretroviral therapy: a multicentre observational study. *Lancet Infect Dis.* (2011) 11:750–9. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(11)70149-9

16. Manhanzva MT, Mutsvangwa IA, Beck LM, Frenke M, Tshabalala J, Manasa AT, et al. The burden of HIV associated drug resistance mutations in an early infant diagnosis program: a glance through the paediatric window of Zimbabwe. *J Infect Dis Ther.* (2015) 3:1000198. doi: 10.4172/2332-0877.1000198

17. Da Silva J, Dzangare J, Gonese E, Mhangara M, Mugurungi O, Barr B, et al. Moderate levels of pretreatment HIV drug resistance—Zimbabwe, April–July 2015. *Open Forum Infect Dis.* (2017) 4:S424. doi: 10.1093/ofid/ofx163.1069

18. Taffa N, Roscoe C, Sawadogo S, De Klerk M, Baughman AL, Wolkon A, et al. Pretreatment HIV drug resistance among adults initiating ART in Namibia. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* (2018) 73:3137–42. doi: 10.1093/jac/dky278

19. Rhee SY, Kassaye SG, Jordan MR, Kouamou V, Katzenstein D, Shafer RW. Public availability of HIV-1 drug resistance sequence and treatment data: a systematic review. *Lancet Microbe.* (2022) 3:e392–8. doi: 10.1016/S2666-5247(21)00250-0

20. Steegen K, van Zyl GU, Claassen M, Khan A, Pillay M, Govender S, et al. Advancing HIV drug resistance technologies and strategies: insights from South Africa's experience and future directions for resource-limited settings. *Diagnostics.* (2023) 13:2209. doi: 10.3390/diagnostics13132209

21. Kouamou V, Machekano R, Mapangisana T, Maposhere C, Munyati S, Mutsvangwa J, et al. Tenofovir, lamivudine, and dolutegravir among rural adolescents in Zimbabwe: a cautionary tale. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses.* (2022) 38:774–8. doi:10.1089/aid.2021.0140

22. Madyadi A, Dhoro M, Shamu T, Washaya T, Kouamou V, Chimukangara B, et al. HIV-1 genetic diversity and natural polymorphisms of the integrase gene in integrase inhibitor-naive patients in harare, Zimbabwe. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. (2021) 37:954-61. doi: 10.1089/aid.2021.0084

23. Diaz RS, Hunter JR, Camargo M, Dias D, Galinskas J, Nassar I. Dolutegravir-associated resistance mutations after first-line treatment failure in Brazil. *BMC Infect Dis.* (2023) 23:347. doi: 10.1186/s12879-023-08 288-8

24. Kouamou V, Washaya T, Ndhlovu C, Manasa J. Low prevalence of pre-treatment and acquired drug resistance to dolutegravir among treatment naïve individuals initiating on tenofovir, lamivudine and dolutegravir in Zimbabwe. *Viruses.* (2023) 15:1882. doi: 10.3390/v15091882

25. Paton NI, Musaazi J, Kityo C, Walimbwa S, Hoppe A, Balyegisawa A, et al. Efficacy and safety of dolutegravir or darunavir in combination with lamivudine plus either zidovudine or tenofovir for second-line treatment of HIV infection (NADIA): week 96 results from a prospective, multicentre, open-label, factorial, randomised, non. *Lancet* HIV. (2022) 9:e381–93. doi: 10.1016/s2352-3018(22)0092-3

26. Vavro C, Ruel T, Wiznia A, Montañez N, Nangle K, Horton J, et al. Emergence of resistance in HIV-1 integrase with dolutegravir treatment in a pediatric population from the IMPAACT P1093 study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. (2022) 66:e0164521. doi: 10.1128/AAC.01645-21

27. Kantor R, Gupta R. We should not stop considering HIV drug resistance testing at failure of first-line antiretroviral therapy. *Lancet HIV*. (2023) 10:e202-8. doi: 10.1016/S2352-3018(22)00327-7

28. Bennett D, Bertagnolio S, Sutherland D, Gilks C. The World Health Organization's global strategy for prevention and assessment of HIV drug resistance. *Antivir Ther.* (2008) 13:1–13. doi: 10.1177/135965350801302S03

29. Boucher CA, Bobkova MR, Hung CC, Kaiser R, Marcelin AG, Streinu-Cercel A, et al. State of the art in HIV drug resistance: surveillance and regional gaps. *AIDS Rev.* (2018) 20:43–57.

30. Cuadros D, Li J, Musuka G, Awad S. Spatial epidemiology of diabetes: methods and insights. *World J Diab.* (2021) 12:1042–56. doi: 10.4239/wjd.v12.i7.1042

31. Chowdhury MT, Bershteyn A, Milali M, Citron D, Nyimbili S, Musuka G et al. Progress towards UNAIDS's 95-95-95 targets in Zimbabwe: sociodemographic constraints and geospatial heterogeneity. *medRxiv* [Preprint]. (2023). doi: 10.1101/2023.07.26.23293207

32. Cuadros DF, Li J, Mukandavire Z, Musuka GN, Branscum AJ, Sartorius B, et al. Towards UNAIDS Fast-Track goals: targeting priority geographic areas for HIV prevention and care in Zimbabwe. *AIDS*. (2019) 33:305–14. doi: 10.1097/QAD.00000000002052

33. World Health Organization (WHO) Regional Office for Africa. Preventing and Responding to HIV Drug Resistance in the African Region: Regional Action Plan 2019-2023. (2019). Available online at: https://www.afro.who.int/sites/default/files/ 2019-04/HIV_DrugRes_FINAL_01_04_19_online.pdf (accessed November 13, 2023).

34. World Health Organization (WHO). Meeting report on assessment of World Health Organization HIV drug resistance early warning indicators: report of the Early Advisory Indicator Panel meeting. Geneva, Switzerland. (2012). Available online at: https://iris.who.int/handle/10665/75186 (accessed November 13, 2023).

35. World Health Organization (WHO). *Consolidated HIV strategic information guidelines*. (2020). Available online at: https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/ 9789240000735 (accessed November 13, 2023).

36. Fokam J, Elat JB, Billong SC, Kembou E, Nkwescheu AS, Obam NM. Monitoring HIV drug resistance early warning indicators in cameroon: a study following the revised world health organization recommendations. *PLoS ONE.* (2015) 10:e0129210. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0129210

37. Khamadi SA, Mavere C, Bahemana E, Lwilla A, Mizinduko M, Bwigane S, et al. Early warning indicators of HIV drug resistance in the southern highlands region of Tanzania: lessons from a cross-sectional surveillance study. *PLoS Glob Public Health.* (2023) 3:e0000929. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgph. 0000929

38. Parikh U, McCormick K, van Zyl G, Mellors J. Future technologies for monitoring HIV drug resistance and cure. *Curr Opin HIV AIDS*. (2017) 12:182–9. doi: 10.1097/COH.00000000000344