

Adverse Effect of Highly Active Anti-Retroviral Therapy (HAART) In HIV/AIDS Patients

KashifUllah Khan ¹, Amer Hayat Khan ¹, Syed Azhar Sulaiman ¹, Chow Ting Soo² and Raja Ahsan Aftab¹

¹Department of Clinical Pharmacy, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia, Penang 11800, Malaysia

²Infectious Disease Department, General Hospital Pulau Pinang, Penang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

HIV/AIDS remains the greatest public health concern in the world. With current scenario, HIV-AIDS is considered as a chronic disease due to the advent of highly active antiretroviral therapy that has significantly improved the status of infected population, making HIV a manageable illness. However, recent studies suggest that exposure to antiretroviral medications may have marked adverse effects, independent of HIV status. All antiretroviral drugs can have both short-term and long-term adverse events. The risk of specific side effects varies from drug to drug, from drug class to drug class, and from patient to patient. A better understanding of the adverse effects of antiretroviral agents is of interest not only for HIV specialists as they try to optimize therapy, but also for other physicians who care for HIV positive patients. Current article reviews a note on demerits of the therapy, major complications and metabolic abnormalities that occur as a consequence of highly active anti-retroviral therapy (HAART). **Conclusion:** It is critical that all health care providers and patients be trained to recognize the symptoms and signs of most of the adverse drug reactions early on. Proper protocols for management of the condition should be readily available. Adverse event surveillance at facilities offering HAART need to be formalized. Proper surveillance of side-effects will enable evidence-based decisions to be taken to avoid potentially fatal complications.

Keywords: Lactic Acidosis, hypersensitivity rash, neuropsychiatric disorders, hepatotoxicity, co-morbid condition.

INTRODUCTION

The use of highly active anti-retroviral therapy (HAART) has an increasing effect on the quality of life and also has an important impact on the course and treatment of disease and disease-related morbidities in HIV-infected patients.¹ Despite of its high potential for disease management its use is also associated with a number of adverse drug reactions.² These adverse reactions and treatment failure are the chief reasons which often results in discontinuation of HAART among HIV-infected patients. The adverse reactions are experienced by 80% of HIV infected patients within the first year of therapy.³ Highly Active Anti-retroviral Ther-

apy has played the role of a corner stone in management of patients with HIV/AIDS infection.⁴ However, many patients discontinue therapy or will require a withdrawal due to the adverse reactions associated with it, resulting in treatment failure.⁵ Moreover, antiretro virus therapy (ART) drugs are highly toxic and many drug induced toxicities are associated with its use such as fat redistribution, dyslipidemia, sexual dysfunction, insulin resistance and diabetes, leading to non-compliance and may sometime to discontinuation of the HAART treatment.^{6,7} For instance the use of Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTI's) has been associated with hypersensitivity reac-

Submitted Date : 14-06-2014

Accepted Date : 31-08-2014

DOI: 10.5530/ijopp.7.3.7

Address for

correspondence:

Prof. KashifUllah Khan

Department of Clinical Pharmacy, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 Penang, Malaysia

Phone: 006-011-26293299;

Fax: 00604 657 0017

E-mail: kashif.mandew@gmail.com



www.ijopp.org

tions, anemia and neutropenia.⁸ Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTI's) were linked with rash and hepatotoxicity.⁹ Protease Inhibitors (PI's) have also been associated with hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia and gastrointestinal symptoms.^{10,11}

In this article we have reviewed the adverse effects of HAART therapy, giving specific attention to the metabolic abnormalities associated with HIV treatment, including dyslipidemias, lipodystrophy syndrome and lactic acidosis associated with NRTI mitochondrial toxicity. Our ultimate goal is to improve and make effective HIV treatment by providing physicians a thorough knowledge of the adverse reactions associated with its use which will help them out in promoting early recognition, reducing potential of developing adverse drug reactions and its management.

Significant Adverse effects of HAART Therapy:

Anti-retroviral therapy can have a wide range of adverse effects on the human body of which there is a mild but common one which occur early in most anti retroviral regimens leading to gastrointestinal effects such as bloating, nausea and diarrhea, which may be time dependent or may persist throughout therapy.⁵ Other common adverse effects are like nightmares associated with Efavirenz of NNRTI's and headache and fatigue caused by the use of Zidovudine of NRTI's. Moreover several severe and uncommon adverse effects of HAART therapy also occur like NRTI's associated peripheral neuropathy, anemia, lactic acidosis, hepatic steatosis and hyperlactatemia. Pruritus, nephrolithiasis, ingrown toenails due to the use of Protease inhibitors (PI's) and NNRTI's associated hypersensitivity reactions like rashes and central nervous system toxicity.

Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NRTI'S):

NRTIs are nucleoside analogues that prevent DNA elongation and viral reproduction. This class of ARV drugs consists of several drugs like Zidovudine, Lamivudine, Didanosine, Zalcitabine, Stavudine, Tenofovir, and Abacavir mainly. These drugs are triphosphorylated intracellularly to become nucleotides and are then incorporated into the viral DNA chain by the viral reverse transcription enzyme; their presence in the DNA halts transcription. However recent work has described disruption of mitochondrial function through NRTI-mediated inhibition of human DNA polymerase γ , with subsequent adverse events ranging from nucleoside-associated lactic acidosis to hepatic

Steatosis.^{12,13} Some of the important and severe adverse events associated with the use of NRTI's are discussed below.

Lipodystrophy:

Lipodystrophy is part of a metabolic syndrome, characterized by degenerative condition of the body that includes insulin resistance, accelerated bone loss and dyslipidemias. Lipodystrophy affecting HIV-positive patients was first described in 1998.¹⁴ The main clinical features are peripheral fat loss (lipoatrophy) in the face, limbs and buttocks, accompanied by central fat accumulation in the abdomen, breasts, over the dorsocervical spine (the "buffalo hump") and lipomas.¹⁵ NRTIs, especially Stavudine (d4T), has been associated with lipodystrophy.¹⁶ Stavudine-associated lipodystrophy has prevailed 50 to 63% in western studies.¹⁷ Patients who received protease inhibitors (PIs), which independently cause lipodystrophy, were also included in this study, however the risk has been shown to be greater for those initiating HAART with a low CD4 cell count.^{18,19} A small South Korean cohort and multiple subsequent east Asian cohorts have shown a 3.5% rate of lipodystrophy.²⁰⁻²² In a study carried out at general hospital of Douala (Cameroon), consisting of 339 patients, lipodystrophy accounted for 5.3% of all ADRs.²³ In a study consisting of 410 patients from Chinese ethnicity in Singapore it was found that lipodystrophy affected mood for 36% and social relations for 23% of the patients.²¹ The prevalence of lipodystrophy in developed countries, associated with stavudine was 50%-63%.²⁴ In a recent study in Nigeria on HIV/AIDS patients carried out on patients of 38 hospitals lipodystrophy was reported to be 49.9% which is higher than 24.8% in a Rawandan Cohort.^{25,26}

Lactic Acidosis:

Lactic acidosis is a serious and uncommon complication of antiretroviral therapy (ART). Its reported incidence rates vary from 1.3 to 10 per 1000 person.²⁷ The prevalence of hyperlactataemia in outpatients on ART is around 9–16%.²⁸ Previous studies show that lactic acidosis is caused due to mitochondrial toxicity and the toxicity is developed through the inhibition of mitochondrial DNA polymerase gamma (mt DNA polymerase gamma) by nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTI). Drugs such as stavudine (d4T), didanosine (ddI), and zalcitabine (ddC) induce more messenger transfer DNA (mt DNA) inhibition than others.^{29,30} During the Mono therapy era lactic acidosis events reported were mainly Zidovudine associated.³¹ A study of University college of London reported that 90% of cases on ZDV therapy at the time of the LA episode were taking it as mono-therapy and the cases of LA associated with ZDV therapy had more advanced disease compared with patients exposed to NRTI other than ZDV. Additionally, the case fatality rate (CFR) among ZDV treated

patients was 68%, compared with 37% for patients not exposed to ZDV.³² Another study carried out in HIV-infected patients on HAART treatment reported that incidence rate of lactic acidosis ranges from 1.3 to 3.9 cases per 1000 person-years.³³ One more south African study reported that 14 cases of lactic acidosis were diagnosed in 737 persons in which the incidence rate was 19 cases per 1000 person-years of Treatment and all patients were on 2 NRTIs, Stavudine(d4T) and Lamivudine (3TC), with 12 (86%) on efavirenz (EFV) and 2 on nevirapine as the third (non-NRTI) drug.³⁴ Didanosine and stavudine have higher capacities to inhibit the activity of DNA g-polymerase in vitro than do other NRTIs and have been associated in clinical studies with a higher risk for lactic acidosis in HIV-infected patients.^{35,36} Multiple cohort studies and case reports from developing countries which is although relatively infrequent, highlight concerns about timely diagnosis of life-threatening stavudine-induced lactic acidosis, for which women may be at a higher risk.³⁷⁻⁴²

Peripheral Neuropathy:

Peripheral neuropathy is a well-known adverse effect associated with nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs). Peripheral neuropathy is one of the most frequent side effect that occurs during therapy with some nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, mainly zalcitabine (ddC), didanosine (ddI) and stavudine (d4T).⁴³ The study of Gordana Dragovic and Djordje Jevtovic reported that out of 112 patients, Peripheral neuropathy developed in 32 patients, who complained of neurological symptoms with manifestation of nerve conduction abnormalities, electric abnormalities, pain, and paresthesia with or without clinical abnormality with the lowest incidence rate (IR) for peripheral neuropathy of 0.13 per 100 person-years was found in the didanosine group while the highest IR was in the didanosine+stavudine group that was 0.18 per 100 person-years.⁴⁴ Moreover a study from Malawian cohort reported that 56% of patients have developed peripheral neuropathy while receiving stavudine Therapy.⁴⁵

Anemia (Myelo-suppression):

Studies have consistently shown that the prevalence of anemia is high in the HIV-infected population, particularly among those with AIDS.⁴⁶ Although highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) has been shown to reduce anemia by rendering the advancement of disease, zidovudine (ZDV), an element of some HAART regimens, has been associated with hematological toxicity.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ After the therapy initiation, Zidovudine-related anemia usually occurs within 3 months.⁵⁰ Risk factors include high zidovudine dosage, increased treatment duration, low CD4 cell count, and preexisting ane-

mia.⁵¹ Studies from 8 Nigeria, Co te d'Ivoire, Haiti, and India have found rates of zidovudine- related anemia of 3%–12%.⁵⁰⁻⁵³ A study by Sharma et al from Gujarat has reported 20% of anemia by observing 71% incidence of side effects in their patients who were on HAART.⁵⁴ Another study from South India reported a 5.4% incidence of anemia.⁵⁰ In SM Curkendall et al, it was reported that 13.0% of patients initiating a ZDV-containing regimen and 8.7% of those initiating another NRTI containing regimen had anemia's.⁵⁵

Non-Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NNRTI'S):

The non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTI) are potent antiretroviral agents recommended for use in the treatment of HIV infection.⁵⁶ The NNRTI bind to a hydrophobic pocket on the reverse transcriptase (RT) enzyme close to the active site and these drugs inhibit HIV-1 allosterically by displacing the catalytic aspartate residues relative to the polymerase binding site.⁵⁷ This class of antiretroviral drugs mainly contains nevirapine (NVP), delavirdine (DLV), and efavirenz (EFV). Nevirapine is the most commonly used NNRTI in developing countries because of its lower cost, compared with efavirenz.^{58,59} Some of the important and severe adverse effects of NNRTI's are Hypersensitivity rash, hepatotoxicity and Neuro toxicity.

Hypersensitivity Rash:

Hypersensitivity rash is common in patients living with HIV infection. Hypersensitivity rash occurred in 16%–20% of patients in studies reported from developed countries.^{5,60} The NRTIs and PIs were not associated with an increase in allergic drug reaction on their introduction; however rashes were diagnosed in 10% to 20% of patients following approval of the NNRTIs.⁵ The data for the incidence of NNRTI-associated rashes reported in the literature are highly variable. Only a few studies have directly compared efavirenz and nevirapine.⁶¹ Female patients may be at an increased risk for nevirapine-associated rash.^{62,63} Because of little evidence of rash cross-toxicity between the nevirapine and efavirenz, nevirapine therapy can safely be replaced with efavirenz therapy for those who experience adverse reactions.^{62,64} Drug rashes usually develop on the tenth day after starting therapy, while in hypersensitivity reactions the symptoms appear after each tablet taken.⁶¹

Hepatotoxicity:

Hepatotoxicity, liver enzyme elevation and drug interactions are significant complications in HIV patients on HAART.⁶⁵ In patients commencing antiretroviral therapy, 14%–20% will experience elevation of liver enzymes.⁶⁶ A South African study reported 17% inci-

REFERENCES

- Crum NF, Riffenburgh RH, Wegner S, Agan BK, Tasker SA, Spooner KM, et al. Comparisons of causes of death and mortality rates among HIV-infected persons: analysis of the pre-, early, and late HAART (highly active antiretroviral therapy) eras. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2006; 41(2): 194–200.
- Gonzalez-Martin G, Yanez C, Gonzalez-Contreras L, Labarca J. Adverse drug reactions (ADRs) in patients with HIV infection. A prospective study. *International Journal of clinical pharmacology and therapeutics*. 1999; 37(1): 34–40.
- Manzardo C, Zaccarelli M, Agüero F, Antinori A, Miró JM. Optimal timing and best antiretroviral regimen in treatment-naïve HIV-infected individuals with advanced disease. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2007; 46: S9–18.
- WHO rapid advice: 2009. Available from: http://www.who.int/hiv/pub/arv/rapid_active_art.pdf.
- Carr A, Cooper DA. Adverse effects of antiretroviral therapy. *The Lancet*. 2000; 356(9239): 1423–30.
- Nachege JB, Trotta MP, Nelson M, Ammassari A. Impact of metabolic complications on antiretroviral treatment adherence: clinical and public health implications. *Current HIV/AIDS Reports*. 2009; 6(3): 121–9.
- Minzi O, Irunde H, Moshiro C. HIV patients presenting common adverse drug events caused by highly active antiretroviral therapy in Tanzania. *Journal of Health Research*. 2009; 11(1).
- Taha TE, Kumwenda N, Kafulafula G, Kumwenda J, Chitale R, Nkhoma C, et al. Haematological changes in African children who received short-term prophylaxis with nevirapine and zidovudine at birth. *Annals of Tropical Paediatrics: International Child Health*. 2004; 24(4): 301–9.
- Knobel H, Guelar A, Montero M, Carmona A, Luque S, Berenguer N, et al. Risk of side effects associated with the use of nevirapine in treatment-naïve patients, with respect to gender and CD4 cell count. *HIV medicine*. 2008; 9(1): 14–8.
- Vigouroux C, Gharakhanian S, Salhi Y, Nguyen T, Adda N, Rozenbaum W, et al. Adverse metabolic disorders during highly active antiretroviral treatments (HAART) of HIV disease. *Diabetes & metabolism*. 1999; 25(5): 383–92.
- Nuesch R, Srasuebkul P, Ananworanich J, Ruxrungtham K, Phanuphak P, Duncombe C. Monitoring the toxicity of antiretroviral therapy in resource limited settings: a prospective clinical trial cohort in Thailand. *Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy*. 2006; 58(3): 637–44.
- Lai KK, Gang DL, Zawacki JK, Cooley TP. Fulminant hepatic failure associated with 2', 3'-dideoxyinosine (ddI). *Annals of internal medicine*. 1991; 115(4): 283–4.
- Brinkman K, ter Hofstede HJ, Burger DM, Smeitink JA, Koopmans PP. Adverse effects of reverse transcriptase inhibitors: mitochondrial toxicity as common pathway. *Aids*. 1998; 12(14): 1735–44.
- Carr A, Samaras K, Burton S, Law M, Freund J, Chisholm DJ, et al. A syndrome of peripheral lipodystrophy, hyperlipidaemia and insulin resistance in patients receiving HIV protease inhibitors. *Aids*. 1998; 12(7): F51–8.
- Lucas GM, Chaisson RE, Moore RD. Highly active antiretroviral therapy in a large urban clinic: risk factors for virologic failure and adverse drug reactions. *Annals of internal medicine*. 1999; 131(2): 81–7.
- Saint-Marc T, Partisani M, Poizot-Martin I, Bruno F, Rouviere O, Lang J-M, et al. A syndrome of peripheral fat wasting (lipodystrophy) in patients receiving long-term nucleoside analogue therapy. *Aids*. 1999; 13(13): 1659–67.
- Bernasconi E, Boubaker K, Junghans C, Flepp M, Furrer H-J, Haensel A, et al. Abnormalities of body fat distribution in HIV-infected persons treated with antiretroviral drugs: The Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Journal of acquired immune deficiency syndromes*. 2002; 31(1): 50–5.
- Arpadi SM, Cuff PA, Horlick M, Wang J, Kotler DP. Lipodystrophy in HIV-infected children is associated with high viral load and low CD4+ lymphocyte count and CD4+ lymphocyte percentage at baseline and use of protease inhibitors and stavudine. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2001; 27(1): 30–4.
- Lichtenstein KA, Delaney KM, Armon C, Ward DJ, Moorman AC, Wood KC, et al. Incidence of and risk factors for lipodystrophy (abnormal fat loss) in ambulatory HIV-1-infected patients. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2003; 32(1): 48–56.
- Chang K, Kim J, Song Y, Hong S, Lee H, Lim S. Does race protect an oriental population from developing lipodystrophy in HIV-infected individuals on HAART? *Journal of Infection*. 2002; 44(1): 33–8.
- Paton NI, Earnest A, Ng YM, Karim F, Aboulhab J. Lipodystrophy in a Cohort of Human Immunodeficiency Virus—Infected Asian Patients: Prevalence, Associated Factors, and Psychological Impact. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2002; 35(10): 1244–9.
- Fraser H, Ishihara M, Miller J, editors. Prevalence survey of lipodystrophy in HIV-positive patients in Japan [abstract 017]. Program and abstracts of the 2nd International Workshop on Adverse Drug Reactions and Lipodystrophy (Singapore) (Singapore: International Medical Press; 2000).
- Luma HN, Tchaleu B, Doualla MS, Temfack E, Sopoouassi VNK, Mapoure YN, et al. HIV-associated sensory neuropathy in HIV-1 infected patients at the Douala General Hospital in Cameroon: a cross-sectional study. *AIDS Res Ther*. 2012; 9(1): 35.
- Heath KV, Hogg RS, Chan KJ, Harris M, Montessori V, O'Shaughnessy MV, et al. Lipodystrophy-associated morphological, cholesterol and triglyceride abnormalities in a population-based HIV/AIDS treatment database. *Aids*. 2001; 15(2): 231–9.
- Agu KA, Oparah AC. Adverse drug reactions to antiretroviral therapy: Results from spontaneous reporting system in Nigeria. *Perspectives in clinical research*. 2013; 4(2): 117.
- Van Griensven J, De Naeyer L, Uwera J, Asimwe A, Gazille C, Reid T. Success with antiretroviral treatment for children in Kigali, Rwanda: experience with health center/nurse-based care. *BMC pediatrics*. 2008; 8(1): 39.
- Gérard Y, Viget N, Yazdanpanah Y, Ajana F, de La Tribonnière X, Bocket L, et al. Hyperlactataemia during antiretroviral therapy: incidences, clinical data and treatment. *Thérapie*. 2003; 58(2): 153–8.
- Datta D, Mandalia S, Morlese J, editors. Biochemical abnormalities associated with hyperlactataemia in HIV-1 positive patients. 1st IAS Conference on HIV Pathogenesis and Treatment Buenos Aires; 2001.
- Kakuda TN. Pharmacology of nucleoside and nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitor-induced mitochondrial toxicity. *Clinical therapeutics*. 2000; 22(6): 685–708.
- Brinkman K, Kakuda TN. Mitochondrial toxicity of nucleoside analogue reverse transcriptase inhibitors: a looming obstacle for long-term antiretroviral therapy? *Current opinion in infectious diseases*. 2000; 13(1): 5–11.
- Megarbane B, Fromont C, Nion I, Chary I, Axler O, Slama A, et al. Un patient infecté par le VIH très, très essoufflé. *La Revue de médecine interne*. 1999; 20: 256s–s.
- Arenas-Pinto A, Grant A, Edwards S, Weller I. Lactic acidosis in HIV infected patients: a systematic review of published cases. *Sexually transmitted infections*. 2003; 79(4): 340–3.
- Ogedegbe A-EO, Thomas DL, Diehl AM. Hyperlactataemia syndromes associated with HIV therapy. *The Lancet infectious diseases*. 2003; 3(6): 329–37.
- Geddes R, Knight S, Moosa MYS, Reddi A, Uebel K, Sunpath H. A high incidence of nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor (NRTI)-induced lactic acidosis in HIV-infected patients in a South African context: original article. *South African Medical Journal*. 2006; 96(8): 722–4.
- Coghlan ME, Sommadossi J-P, Jhala NC, Wickliffe JM, Michael SS, Johnson VA. Symptomatic lactic acidosis in hospitalized antiretroviral-treated patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection: a report of 12 cases. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2001; 33(11): 1914–21.
- Moyle GJ, Datta D, Mandalia S, Morlese J, Asboe D, Gazzard BG. Hyperlactataemia and lactic acidosis during antiretroviral therapy: relevance, reproducibility and possible risk factors. *Aids*. 2002; 16(10): 1341–9.
- Frank I, Gallant JE, Henry K, Hosseinipour M, Levine AM, Mugavero M, et al. Effect of Reducing the Dose of Stavudine on Body Composition, Bone Density, and Markers of Mitochondrial Toxicity in HIV-Infected Subjects: A Randomized, Controlled Study. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2008; 46(8): 1290–6.
- Gandhi NR, Moll AP, Laloo U, Pawinski R, Zeller K, Moodley P, et al. Successful integration of tuberculosis and HIV treatment in rural South Africa: the Sizong'oba study. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2009; 50(1): 3–43.
- Sheng W-H, Hsieh S-M, Lee S-C, Chen M-Y, Wang J-T, Hung C-C, et al. Fatal lactic acidosis associated with highly active antiretroviral therapy in

- patients with advanced human immunodeficiency virus infection in Taiwan. *International Journal of STD & AIDS*. 2004; 15(4): 249–53.
40. Patel A, Patel K, Patel J. Lactic acidosis in HIV-1 infected patients receiving antiretroviral therapy. *JAPI*. 2004; 52: 666–9.
 41. Bolhaar M, Karstaedt A. A high incidence of lactic acidosis and symptomatic hyperlactatemia in women receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy in Soweto, South Africa. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2007; 45(2): 254–60.
 42. Kimani D, Filen F, Nderitu M, Van Engelgem I, Suleh A, Zachariah R, editors. Characteristics and outcomes of patients with symptomatic hyperlactatemia, on a first-line antiretroviral regimen of stavudine, lamivudine, and nevirapine in an urban district hospital setting in Kenya. XVIth International AIDS Conference; 2006.
 43. Mocroft A, Ledergerber B, Katlama C, Kirk O, Reiss PD, Monforte A, et al. Decline in the AIDS and death rates in the Euro SIDA study: an observational study. *The Lancet*. 2003; 362(9377): 22–9.
 44. Dragovic G, Jevtovic D. Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor usage and the incidence of peripheral neuropathy in HIV/AIDS patients. *Antiviral Chemistry and Chemotherapy-Institutional Subscription*. 2003; 14(5): 281.
 45. Van Oosterhout JJ, Bodasing N, Kumwenda JJ, Nyirenda C, Mallewa J, Cleary PR, et al. Evaluation of antiretroviral therapy results in a resource-poor setting in Blantyre, Malawi. *Tropical Medicine & International Health*. 2005; 10(5): 464–70.
 46. MILES SA. Hematopoietic growth factors as adjuncts to antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS research and human retroviruses*. 1992; 8(6): 1073–80.
 47. Moore RD, Forney D. Anemia in HIV-infected patients receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Journal of acquired immune deficiency syndromes*. 2002; 29(1): 54–7.
 48. Groopman JE. Zidovudine intolerance. *Review of Infectious Diseases*. 1990; 12(Supplement 5): S500–S6.
 49. Cohen H, Williams I, Matthey F, Miller RF, Machin SJ, Weller I. Reversible zidovudine-induced pure red-cell aplasia. *AIDS (London, England)*. 1989; 3(3): 177–8.
 50. Kumarasamy N, Venkatesh KK, Cecelia AJ, Devaleen B, Lai AR, Saghayam S, et al. Spectrum of adverse events after generic HAART in southern Indian HIV-infected patients. *AIDS patient care and STDs*. 2008; 22(4): 337–44.
 51. Sullivan PS, Hanson DL, Chu SY, Jones JL, Ward JW. The adult/adolescent spectrum of disease group epidemiology of anemia in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected persons: results from the multi state adult and adolescent spectrum of HIV disease surveillance project. *Blood*. 1998; 91(1): 301–8.
 52. Severe P, Leger P, Charles M, Noel F, Bonhomme G, Bois G, et al. Antiretroviral therapy in a thousand patients with AIDS in Haiti. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2005; 353(22): 2325–34.
 53. Idoko J, Akinsete L, Abalaka A, Keshinro L, Dutse L, Onyenekwe B, et al. A multicentre study to determine the efficacy and tolerability of a combination of neftinavir (VIRACEPT), zalcitabine (HIVID) and zidovudine in the treatment of HIV infected Nigerian patients. *West African Journal of medicine*. 2001; 21(2): 83–6.
 54. Sharma A, Vora R, Modi M, Sharma A, Marfatia Y. Adverse effects of antiretroviral treatment. *Indian Journal of Dermatology, Venereology, and Leprology*. 2008; 74(3): 234.
 55. Curkendall S, Richardson J, Emons M, Fisher A, Everhard F. Incidence of anaemia among HIV-infected patients treated with highly active antiretroviral therapy. *HIV medicine*. 2007; 8(8): 483–90.
 56. Hirsch MS, Brun-Vézinet F, Richard T, Hammer SM, Johnson VA, Kuritzkes DR, et al. Antiretroviral drug resistance testing in adult HIV-1 infection: recommendations of an International AIDS Society–USA Panel. *Jama*. 2000; 283(18): 2417–26.
 57. Richman DD, Havlir D, Corbeil J, Looney D, Ignacio C, Spector SA, et al. Nevirapine resistance mutations of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 selected during therapy. *Journal of Virology*. 1994; 68(3): 1660–6.
 58. Initiative TMB, Organization WH. Scaling up antiretroviral therapy in resource-limited settings: treatment guidelines for a public health approach; 2004.
 59. Management Sciences for Health, Rational Pharmaceutical Management Plus Program. Review of antiretroviral therapy guidelines in select countries of Africa and the Caribbean: a challenge for optimizing treatment and product supply 2005 [cited 2005]. Available from: http://www.who.int/3by5/amds/en/Standard_Treatment_Guidelines-Final.pdf.
 60. Warren KJ, Boxwell DE, Kim NY, Drolet BA. Nevirapine-associated Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *The Lancet*. 1998; 351(9102): 567.
 61. Hartmann M, Enk A. Hautveränderungen bei der medikamentösen HIV-Therapie. *Dtsch Arztebl*. 2007; 104(16): 1098–103.
 62. Ananworanich J, Moor Z, Siangphoe U, Chan J, Cardiello P, Duncombe C, et al. Incidence and risk factors for rash in Thai patients randomized to regimens with nevirapine, efavirenz or both drugs. *Aids*. 2005; 19(2): 185–92.
 63. Mazhude C, Jones S, Murad S, Taylor C, Easterbrook P. Female sex but not ethnicity is a strong predictor of non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor-induced rash. *Aids*. 2002; 16(11): 1566–8.
 64. Soriano V, Dona C, Barreiro P, González-Lahoz J. Is there cross-toxicity between nevirapine and efavirenz in subjects developing rash? *Aids*. 2000; 14(11): 1672–3.
 65. Dieterich DT. Hepatitis C virus and human immunodeficiency virus: clinical issues in coinfection. *The American Journal of medicine*. 1999; 107(6): 79–84.
 66. Rodríguez-Rosado R, García-Samaniego J, Soriano V. Hepatotoxicity after introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Aids*. 1998; 12(10): 1256.
 67. Sanne I, Mommeja-Marin H, Hinkle J, Bartlett JA, Lederman MM, Maartens G, et al. Severe hepatotoxicity associated with nevirapine use in HIV-infected subjects. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2005; 191(6): 825–9.
 68. Law WP, Dore GJ, Duncombe CJ, Mahanontharit A, Boyd MA, Ruxrungtham K, et al. Risk of severe hepatotoxicity associated with antiretroviral therapy in the HIV-NAT Cohort. Thailand, 1996–2001. *Aids*. 2003; 17(15): 2191–9.
 69. Sulkowski MS, Thomas DL, Mehta SH, Chaisson RE, Moore RD. Hepatotoxicity associated with nevirapine or efavirenz-containing antiretroviral therapy: role of hepatitis C and B infections. *Hepatology*. 2002; 35(1): 182–9.
 70. Pineda JA, García-García JA, Aguilar-Guisado M, Ríos-Villegas MJ, Ruiz-Morales J, Rivero A, et al. Clinical progression of hepatitis C virus–related chronic liver disease in human immunodeficiency virus–infected patients undergoing highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Hepatology*. 2007; 46(3): 622–30.
 71. Den Brinker M, Wit FW, Wertheim-van Dillen PM, Jurriaans S, Weel J, van Leeuwen R, et al. Hepatitis B and C virus co-infection and the risk for hepatotoxicity of highly active antiretroviral therapy in HIV-1 infection. *Aids*. 2000; 14(18): 2895–902.
 72. Martínez E, Blanco JL, Arnaiz JA, Pérez-Cuevas JB, Mocroft A, Cruceta A, et al. Hepatotoxicity in HIV-1-infected patients receiving nevirapine-containing antiretroviral therapy. *Aids*. 2001; 15(10): 1261–8.
 73. Lucas GM, Chaisson RE, Moore RD. Comparison of initial combination antiretroviral therapy with a single protease inhibitor, ritonavir and saquinavir, or efavirenz. *Aids*. 2001; 15(13): 1679–86.
 74. Moyle G. The emerging roles of non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors in antiretroviral therapy. *Drugs*. 2001; 61(1): 19–26.
 75. Albrecht MA, Bosch RJ, Hammer SM, Liou S-H, Kessler H, Para MF, et al. Nelfinavir, efavirenz, or both after the failure of nucleoside treatment of HIV infection. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2001; 345(6): 398–407.
 76. Lyketsos C, Hoover D, Guccione M, Treisman G, Dew M, Wesch J, et al. Depressive symptoms over the course of HIV infection before AIDS. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology*. 1996; 31(3–4): 212–9.
 77. Perry CM, Noble S. Didanosine. *Drugs*. 1999; 58(6): 1099–135.
 78. Moore RD, Fortgang I, Keruly J, Chaisson RE. Adverse events from drug therapy for human immunodeficiency virus disease. *The American Journal of medicine*. 1996; 101(1): 34–40.
 79. Molina J-M, Ferchal F, Rancinan C, Raffi F, Rozenbaum W, Sereni D, et al. Once-daily combination therapy with emtricitabine, didanosine, and efavirenz in human immunodeficiency virus–infected patients. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2000; 182(2): 599–602.
 80. Danel C, Moh R, Messou E, Minga A, editors. Short-term tolerance of efavirenz in HIV-infected african adults participating in the TRIVACAN ANRS 1269 trial, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire [abstract 53]. Program and abstracts of the 2nd International AIDS Conference on HIV Pathogenesis and Treatment (Paris, France); 2003.
 81. Colebunders R, Verdonck K. Reply to Gonzalez and Everall: Lest we forget: neuropsychiatry and the new generation anti-HIV drugs. *Aids*. 1999; 13(7): 869.
 82. Staszewski S, Morales-Ramirez J, Tashima KT, Rachlis A, Skiest D, Stanford J, et al. Efavirenz plus zidovudine and lamivudine, efavirenz plus indinavir, and indinavir plus zidovudine and lamivudine in the treatment of HIV-1 infection in adults. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 1999; 341(25): 1865–73.

83. Figgitt DP, Plosker GL. Saquinavir Soft-Gel Capsule. *Drugs*. 2000; 60(2): 481–516.
84. Egger M, Hirschel B, Francioli P, Sudre P, Wirz M, Flepp M, et al. Impact of new antiretroviral combination therapies in HIV infected patients in Switzerland: prospective multicentre study. *Bmj*. 1997; 315(7117): 1194–9.
85. Adults PoAGf, Adolescents. Guidelines for the use of antiretroviral agents in HIV-1-infected adults and adolescents. Department of Health and Human Services; 2009. 1–161.
86. Stocker DN, Meier PJ, Stoller R, Fattinger KE. "Buffalo hump" in HIV-1 infection. *The Lancet*. 1998; 352(9124): 320–1.
87. Dubé MP, Johnson DL, Currier JS, Leedom JM. Protease inhibitor-associated hyperglycaemia. *The Lancet*. 1997; 350(9079): 713.
88. Carr A, Samaras K, Thorisdottir A, Kaufmann GR, Chisholm DJ, Cooper DA. Diagnosis, prediction, and natural course of HIV-1 protease-inhibitor-associated lipodystrophy, hyperlipidaemia, and diabetes mellitus: a cohort study. *The Lancet*. 1999; 353(9170): 2093–9.
89. Sempos CT, Cleeman JI, Carroll MD, Johnson CL, Bachorik PS, Gordon DJ, et al. Prevalence of high blood cholesterol among US adults: an update based on guidelines from the second report of the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel. *Jama*. 1993; 269(23): 3009–14.
90. Purnell JQ, Zambon A, Knopp RH, Pizzuti DJ, Achari R, Leonard JM, et al. Effect of ritonavir on lipids and post-heparin lipase activities in normal subjects. *Aids*. 2000; 14(1): 51–7.
91. Stein JH, Klein MA, Bellehumeur JL, McBride PE, Wiebe DA, Otvos JD, et al. Use of human immunodeficiency virus-1 protease inhibitors is associated with atherogenic lipoprotein changes and endothelial dysfunction. *Circulation*. 2001; 104(3): 257–62.
92. Holmberg SD, Moorman AC, Williamson JM, Tong TC, Ward DJ, Wood KC, et al. Protease inhibitors and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with HIV-1. *The Lancet*. 2002; 360(9347): 1747–8.
93. Currier JS, Taylor A, Boyd F, Dezii CM, Kawabata H, Burtcel B, et al. Coronary heart disease in HIV-infected individuals. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*. 2003; 33(4): 506–12.
94. Friis-Moller N, Sabin C, Weber R, Monforte AA, El-Sadr W, Reiss P, et al. Combination antiretroviral therapy and the risk of myocardial infarction. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2003; 349(21): 1993–2003.